

Integrating Gender in Project Design and Monitoring for the Security and Justice Sector

Lorraine Andaya Serrano



About the author

Lorraine Andaya Serrano is the Programme Manager of DCAF's Gender and Security Division. Since 2006 she has worked on gender, security sector governance, security sector reform and peacekeeping with a range of international organizations. Her programme partners have included police and gendarmerie organizations, peacekeeping training centres and women's organizations in sub-Saharan Africa. Lorraine has also been a peer-support worker for survivors of sexual violence in Canada.

Editor

Megan Bastick, DCAF

Acknowledgements

The author sincerely thanks the experts and practitioners who shared their knowledge in interviews and focus groups, in particular Fitri Bintang Timur, Lisa Denney, Diana Garcia, Shorena Lortikipanidze, Erica Potts, Jovana Caparic and Mihaela Racovita (Small Arms Survey), Arianna Calza Bini and Vanessa Sampaio (GMAP), and DCAF colleagues Bernard Belondrade, Alexander Burian, Jean-Marie Clament, Thammy Evans, Kurt Eyre, Teodora Fuior, Marta Ghittoni, Patrick Hagen, Léa Lehouck, William McDermott and Anna-Lena Schluchter. The author is grateful to Jean-Jacques Canneto for research support, and to Megan Bastick and Daniel de Torres for their invigorating advice and support.

DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR and UN Women are likewise grateful to the many individuals who contributed to this project. These include the participants in the review workshop which took place in December 2018 in Geneva, and others who reviewed and provided input on the drafts of this Tool: Brad Orchard (UN Women), Graziella Pavone (OSCE/ODIHR), Karen Barnes, Bunafsha Gulakova and Antonia Does. Particular thanks go to Marta Ghittoni of DCAF for her co-ordination of the production of the Toolkit.

DCAF acknowledges the support of Switzerland, Sweden and UK DfID in the production of this Toolkit.

Published in Switzerland by the Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance (DCAF).

DCAF Geneva

PO Box 1360

CH-1211 Geneva 1

Switzerland

Design: Alice Lake Hammond (alichel.co)

Cover photo: Members of AusAID's law and justice team talking to people in Papua New Guinea about their safety concerns, 2010. AusAID supported work by local business and the National Capital District Commission to provide safe havens for women affected by violence © AusAID.

© DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women, 2019

DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women encourage the use, translation, and dissemination of this publication. We do, however, ask that you acknowledge and cite materials and do not alter the content.

Cite as: DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR and UN Women (2019) "Integrating Gender in Project Design and Monitoring for the Security and Justice Sector", in *Gender and Security Toolkit*, Geneva: DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women.

ISBN 92-9222-480-8

This Toolkit was published with the support of the OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (OSCE/ODIHR). Its content does not necessarily reflect the policy and position of OSCE/ODIHR.

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

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

Tools:

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

Policy Briefs:

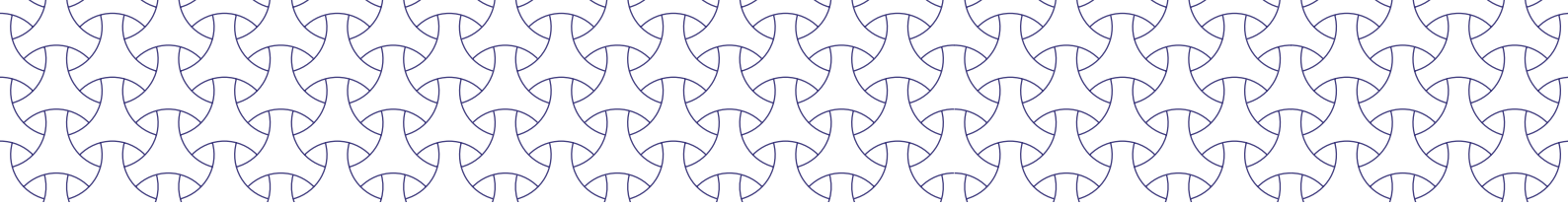
The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Security Sector and Gender Equality
 A Security Sector Governance Approach to Women, Peace and Security
 Gender, Preventing Violent Extremism and Countering Terrorism
 Gender and Private Security Regulation

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

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

8. National Security Policy-Making and Gender
9. Civil Society Oversight of the Security Sector and Gender
11. Security Sector Reform Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation and Gender
12. Gender Training for Security Sector Personnel
13. Implementing the Women, Peace and Security Resolutions in Security Sector Reform

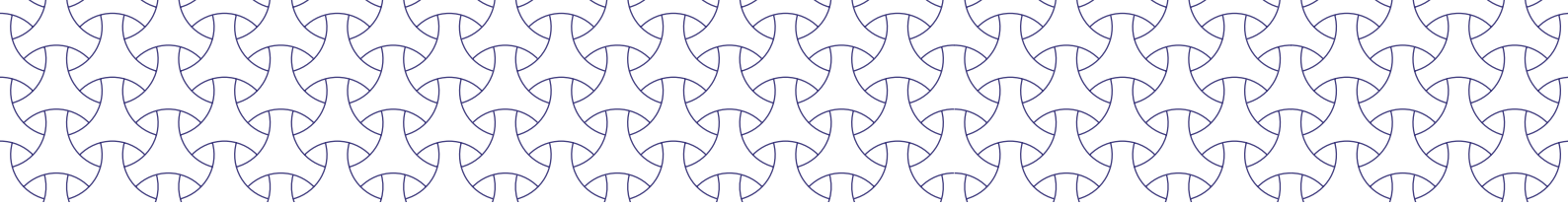




Contents

1. Overview	1
1.1 Audiences for this Tool and how to use it	2
1.2 Outline of this Tool.	2
2. Why are advancing gender equality and integrating a gender perspective important in project design and monitoring for the security and justice sector?	5
2.1 Creating effective, legitimate security and justice services that meet international and national standards	5
2.2 Comprehensively addressing gendered roles and needs beyond simple participation of women.	6
2.3 Doing no harm	7
3. Project design for the security and justice sector: how to integrate gender	9
3.1 Gender analysis as the basis of project design	10
3.2 Examples of gender analysis tools suited to work on security and justice	12
3.3 Grounding project design in a theory of change	18
3.4 Reviewing the project budget using a gender perspective	20
3.5 Using gender equality markers	20
4. Project monitoring for the security and justice sector: how to integrate gender	25
4.1 Developing a project monitoring framework	25
4.2 Disaggregating data	27
4.3 Developing indicators	29
4.4 Choosing a project's data collection methods	34
5. Evaluation and learning in security and justice sector programming: how to integrate gender	39
5.1 Evaluation criteria and questions	40
5.2 Choosing a project's evaluation and learning methods	41
6. Guiding questions for institutional self-assessment	45
7. Additional resources	47
Annex 1: Examples of gender-related indicators for the security and justice sector.	51

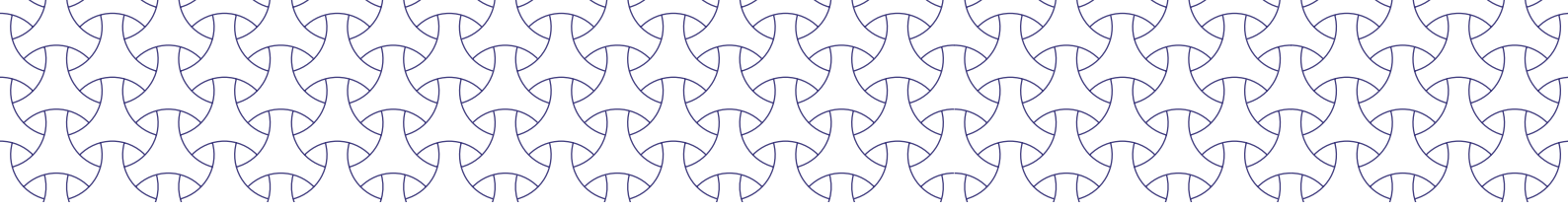




Acronyms

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CREAM	clear, relevant, economic, adequate, measurable
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
GBV	gender-based violence
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISIS	Islamic State of Iraq and Syria
LGBTI	lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans, intersex
NAP	national action plan
NAPRI	needs, access, participation, resources, impact
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PEA	political economy analysis
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SMART	specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, time-bound
SSR	security sector reform
UN	United Nations
UNSCR	UN Security Council Resolution
USAID	United States Agency for International Development





1. Overview

In the last decade it has become widely accepted that gender equality – a principle at the heart of human rights – is an integral part of all the principles of good security sector governance. Rule of law requires that each person is equal and equally protected before the law. Men, women, girls and boys have different security and justice needs that security and justice services need to take into account in order to be effective. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development emphasizes that achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls cut across all sectors, including the security and justice sector.

Although the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was adopted in 1979, it was ardent advocacy by women's civil society that saw women's experiences of conflict and their agency in peacebuilding finally recognized in the first UN Security Council resolution (UNSCR) on Women, Peace and Security, adopted in 2000. Subsequent resolutions on Women, Peace and Security, as well as broader understandings of security, have led the international community to understand the importance of the security and justice sector in achieving the vision of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda and CEDAW. The security and justice sector plays critical roles in the protection of women and all people from violence, in ensuring that women and all people have access to justice, and in creating an enabling environment for women and all people to participate fully in peacebuilding and decision-making related to their security.

This new DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR and UN Women *Gender and Security Toolkit* draws together the key lessons of the past decade in promoting gender equality in security and justice. The aim of the Toolkit is to share new and emerging good practices, reflect upon how successes in increasing gender equality have been achieved, and push forward in thinking about integrating a gender perspective in security and justice sector institutions beyond simply increasing the number of women.

While there has been a great deal of policy-making around gender equality and Women, Peace and Security, it has proved challenging to translate policy into better programmes and interventions in the security and justice sector. How can a gender perspective be comprehensively integrated? What does success look like? Many good knowledge products are available to guide programme and project gender *evaluations*. But gender evaluation relies upon a gender perspective being part of the *monitoring* of any programme or project. Most importantly, promoting gender equality and integrating a gender perspective must be part of how programmes and projects are *designed*. This Tool offers guidance on integrating gender in programme and project design and monitoring, with particular reference to lessons learnt and good practice working with and within the security and justice sector.

Image: The OSCE monitoring team during a field mission along the northern border in the Tetovo region, 15 March 2010 © OSCE/Eberhard Laue.

1.1 Audiences for this Tool and how to use it

This Tool is aimed at anyone involved in the design, implementation, monitoring or evaluation of programmes and projects related to the security and justice sector, whether at international, regional or national level. Many such actors describe integrating a gender perspective from the very beginning of programmes and projects as a challenge.

The framework for this Tool is the basic project cycle. The Tool does not cover all aspects of good practice in project management, nor discuss different strategies for programming in the security and justice sector; instead, it provides gender guidance that can be applied to any approach used for work with this sector. It highlights those aspects of the project cycle that are essential to ensure that gender is integrated in all phases of a project.

This Tool is part of the DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN Women *Gender and Security Toolkit*. To gain a stronger understanding of the gender concepts used in this Toolkit, readers should consult Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”. The other Tools and Policy Briefs focus on specific security and justice issues and providers, with more focused attention on what gender equality looks like and how to achieve it in particular sectors (see page i). This Tool can be used alongside any of these sector-specific Tools. Additionally, this Tool can be used alongside Tool 11, “Security Sector Reform Assessment, Monitoring & Evaluation and Gender”, from the 2008 DCAF/OSCE/ODIHR/UN-INSTRAW *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit*, which is orientated to assessment, monitoring and evaluation of security sector reform (SSR) processes and sectoral-level reforms. This new Tool is broader, focusing on gender in *any* project in the security and justice sector or *any* intervention contributing to good security sector governance, whether in peacetime or post-conflict environments.

Project versus programme

In this Tool, a “project” (or intervention) is defined as a series of activities aimed at bringing about clearly specified objectives within a defined time period and with a defined budget. A “programme” consists of multiple projects, with a longer-term aim and a longer duration than a project. While best practice in project management and planning differentiates between programmes and projects, their common thread is they both aim to result in change. The type and scope of change will differ depending on the size and scope of the project or programme, but the same principles apply as regards the need to consider gender equality and to integrate a gender perspective. Hence for the purposes of this Tool, the terms “programme” and “project” are used synonymously.

1.2 Outline of this Tool

Section 2 introduces why gender matters in project design and monitoring, and outlines the benefits of integrating a gender perspective.

Section 3 focuses on project design, providing guidance on how to conduct a gender analysis and examples of gender analysis tools suitable for use with the security and justice sector. It explains how project design can be strengthened through a theory-of-change approach that draws upon gender analysis. Following the design phase, the Tool provides guidance on how to score projects using gender equality markers, whether using the systems created by the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD-DAC), the OSCE, the United Nations (UN) or any other.

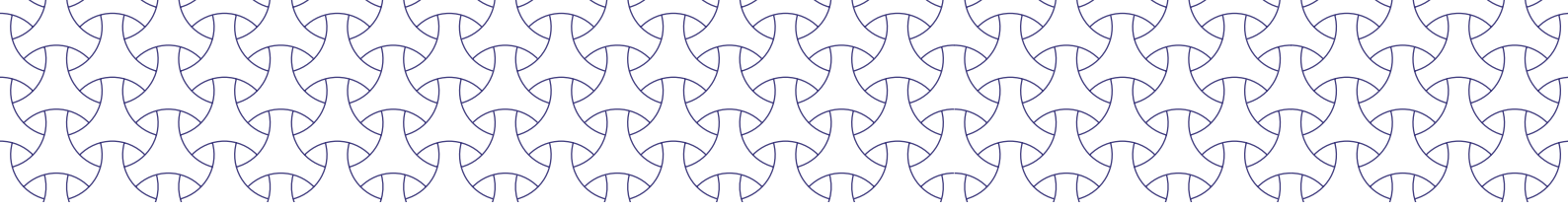
Section 4 focuses on project monitoring. It reviews the main elements of a monitoring framework, and explains how to disaggregate data beyond sex disaggregation to ensure an intersectional approach to gender in project monitoring. It gives details of how to develop indicators, and different ways to collect monitoring data. Annex 1 sets out sample indicators related to integrating a gender perspective and promoting gender equality in the security and justice sector.

Section 5 gives an overview of key aspects of project evaluation and learning. It presents examples of criteria and methods that can be used to evaluate programmes in the security and justice sector, and highlights key issues related to financial and human resources.

Section 6 suggests elements of a self-assessment checklist to help institutions assess their own capacity in integrating a gender perspective in the design and monitoring of programmes and projects for the security and justice sector.

Section 7 lists other useful resources to support gender-responsive project design and monitoring in the security and justice sector.





2. Why are advancing gender equality and integrating a gender perspective important in project design and monitoring for the security and justice sector?

2.1 Creating effective, legitimate security and justice services that meet international and national standards

Gender equality is a fundamental human right, and a goal to which governments and international organizations have committed. Promoting gender equality is therefore a part of the mandate of security and justice sector institutions. National security used to signify notions of the protection of the state, the protection of territory and possessions, and strict law enforcement. Today, however, the definition of security has a broader, more inclusive meaning, often referred to as “human security”. This understanding is people-centred (taking account of gender), comprehensive, context-specific and recognizes the right of all people to live in freedom and dignity. The security and justice sector as a whole must strive to provide security and justice for all people, concordant with this notion of human security.

Integrating a gender perspective is a way of seeing or analysing which looks at the impact of gender on people’s opportunities, social roles and interactions.¹ Integrating a gender perspective and striving to advance gender equality bring the security and justice sector closer to the people it serves by recognizing their different needs and taking these into account. Understanding that the root causes and impact of violence, crime and insecurity are different for different groups of people is part of having a gender perspective. So too is the recognition that individuals working within the security and justice sector are themselves impacted by gender roles and expectations which affect their work. By mainstreaming a gender perspective, security and justice institutions will be more effective, will gain more legitimacy within communities and will better fulfil the roles and mandates assigned to them – in line with human rights and other international standards.*

This mutually reinforcing relationship between focusing on gender and the wider mandate and effectiveness of the security and justice sector is represented in Figure 1. These foundational concepts are discussed in more detail in Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”.

* See Tool 4, “Justice and Gender”, for a summary of international and regional instruments and standards relevant to gender equality and the justice sector, as well as the Toolkit’s online Compendium of International and Regional Laws and Instruments Related to Gender Equality and the Security and Justice Sector.

Image: A man votes at polling station in Tunis. The Tunisian interim government invited the European Union to establish an Election Observation Mission to monitor the upcoming elections for a Constituent Assembly scheduled on 23 October 2011. © EU/Ezequiel Scagnetti.

2.2 Comprehensively addressing gendered roles and needs beyond simple participation of women

When addressing gender equality, much work with the security and justice sector has focused on the participation of women, but not on their agency to effect change. Yet in other programming contexts there is now an understanding that advancing gender equality also requires engaging men and boys; and moreover that individuals' experiences of security and justice are lived not only through their identified sex and gender, but through other intersecting identities, such as age, race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, disability and legal status, as well as geographical affiliation (e.g. rural–urban, north–south). The inclusion of women in interventions is essential (as demonstrated by Box 1), but it is not enough. Actors involved in designing and implementing programmes within the security and justice sector (or supporting national initiatives to do so) must make efforts to integrate a gender perspective comprehensively, throughout all aspects and at all stages of their work.

Figure 1: Gender equality and gender perspective help the security and justice sector to fulfil its mandate



2.3 Doing no harm

In many contexts there is still a view among security and justice practitioners that focusing on gender equality and integrating a gender perspective are not an urgent priority, especially in conflict-affected settings. But by ignoring gender, there is a risk that programming within the security and justice sector itself perpetuates existing gender inequalities in the sector and society. For example, if security and justice practitioners do not consult women in communities about their ideas for reform of the security sector, they reinforce gender-biased assumptions that men speak for women.

Strategic and creative programming can ensure that a gender perspective is integrated in project design in a manner that strengthens the achievement of other project priorities. Moreover, it is necessary that strategies and approaches are appropriate to sensitize decision-makers and disruptors to the importance of gender equality, in a manner tailored to their understandings and the social and cultural context.

Box 1: What can happen when gender analysis and consultation are inadequate?

Security actors in Colombia provided satellite phones to rural women to help ensure their protection. The women felt that the phones made them feel *less* protected and *more vulnerable* to risk. Why?

The women lived in rural areas with no electricity. The satellite phones could only be charged in town. The women felt that by being forced to travel to the town to charge these phones, they were more at risk than when not having the phones at all.

When the decision was being made to provide the satellite phones, the women were not consulted on how they would use them, how having them would affect their lives, or if the phones would actually contribute to their security. Had the security actors better understood the women's security needs and sought their input into the project, perhaps solar chargers would have been provided with the phones, or they may have been offered a different solution altogether.

Source: Interview with Diana Garcia, adviser on feminist perspective and knowledge management, Corporación de Investigación y Acción Social y Económica, 14 September 2018.

Endnotes

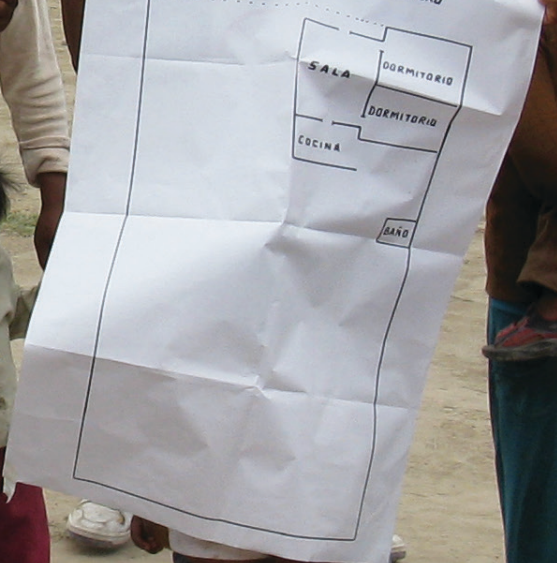
1. UN Women (2019) "Gender equality glossary", <https://trainingcentre.unwomen.org/mod/glossary/view.php?id=36> (accessed 7 November 2019).

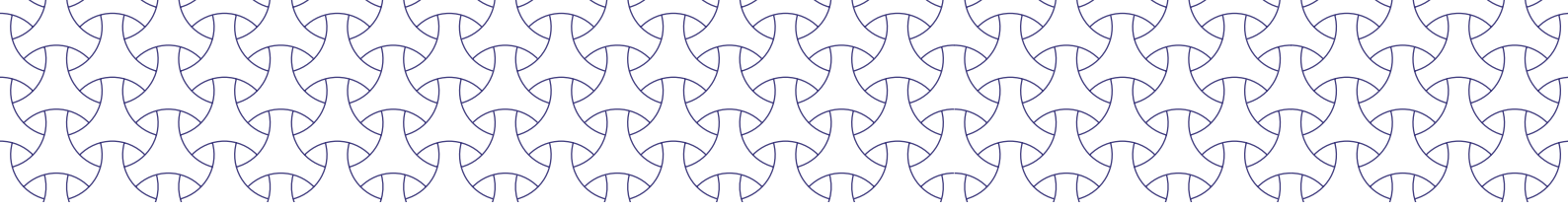


DISEÑO PREDIAL AL FUTURO
VISION DEL Sr. HOLA SONY RAMIREZ ROMERO



DISEÑO PREDIAL ACTUAL
Sr. HOLA SONY RAMIREZ ROMERO





3. Project design for the security and justice sector: how to integrate gender

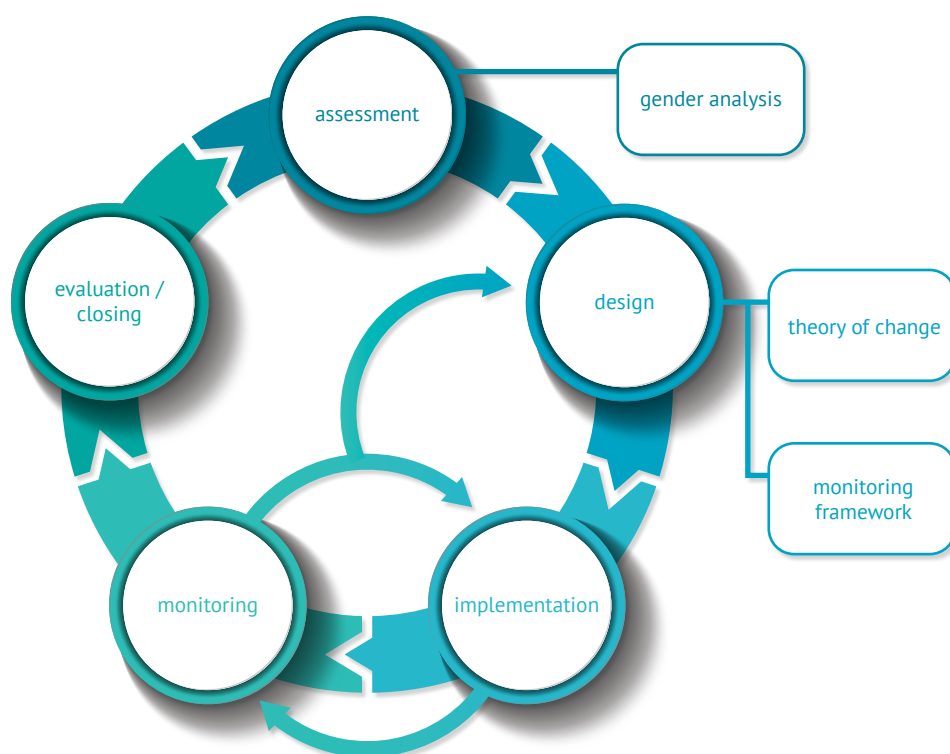
A project's design will inform how the project will be implemented and how implementation will be monitored and measured. The security and justice sector is a political environment and deciding "what gets measured" is also political, because "what gets measured gets done". If project design does not integrate a gender perspective, then gender will most certainly not be measured and the project will not advance gender equality – which is integral to good security sector governance. Moreover, political environments are highly gendered spaces where gender norms and attitudes are constantly playing out – and this is true for the security and justice sector. Thus it is essential that any project design for the security and justice sector is based upon a comprehensive understanding of the context and its political environment. And to understand the political environment fully, the analysis must integrate a gender perspective.

The key elements of project design that integrates a gender perspective are gender analysis, a theory of change and a monitoring framework. Although these elements are distinct, project monitoring and project implementation are interrelated, as illustrated in Figure 2. Consider, for example, a project designed to increase recruitment in the armed forces with special attention to increasing women's recruitment. This will require sex-disaggregated data about recruitment to be collected over time. A gender analysis must be integrated in the project's design both so that the project addresses barriers to women's recruitment and to ensure that monitoring collects gender-related data. If, over time, monitoring data reveal that women's recruitment has not increased, it may be that the project's evidence base (gender analysis) was incomplete or that its logic (theory of change) is flawed, so the design and the implementation of activities must be adjusted to correct the issue.

This section explains how to conduct gender analysis for security and justice projects, providing a range of examples of gender analysis tools well suited to this. It then explains how to develop a theory of change that integrates gender. Designing and using a monitoring framework that integrates gender are discussed in the following section.

Image: Earthquake-affected women in Emilio del Solar community in Peru share their vision for improving their neighborhood during a project monitoring visit, 2011 © USAID.

Figure 2: Interactions between project design, implementation and monitoring



3.1 Gender analysis as the basis of project design

Gender analysis is a “critical examination of how differences in gender roles, activities, needs, opportunities and rights/entitlements affect women, men, girls and boys and other gender identities in a given policy area, situation or context”.¹ Gender analysis examines, for example, the relationships between women and men, their access to and control of resources and the constraints they face relative to each other. In regard to the security and justice sector, gender analysis might focus on women, men, girls and boys and other gender identities’ different forms of insecurity and barriers to accessing justice, and the quality of their representation and participation in the security and justice sector.

In complex and political settings, such as the security and justice sector, it is critical that time is taken to include gender analysis in project design. The purpose of gender analysis can be understood at two levels. At one level, gender analysis provides a more nuanced understanding of the power relations and dynamics that impact security and justice actors, the institutions and bodies they represent and the populations who access their services. Even so-called “train and equip” projects (interventions focused solely on the provision of training and equipment) require a gender analysis – for example, examining whether there is a need to deliver training to build a partner organization’s gender capacity, or whether equipment provided will be suitable for female as well as male personnel. At a second level, gender analysis is necessary to ensure that the proposed project does not exacerbate gender-based injustices and inequalities and that, where possible, the project promotes greater equality. The results of a gender analysis may also be used as a baseline for project monitoring.

International actors are often faced with tight deadlines to design projects, and may feel they do not have time or funds to conduct a proper gender analysis. Yet a gender analysis can be as wide and deep as time, funding and expertise permit. A simple gender analysis is

relatively easy to conduct, using adapted tools, desk research and phone interviews. Even this will enable reflection on the project in terms of the different needs and potential to contribute of women, men, boys and girls, and people of diverse gender identities and expressions, and the participation of different groups in the project. A relatively small investment of time can yield positive outcomes for the project. Moreover, many international organizations and donors require a gender analysis be part of any project they support.

Key principles when conducting gender analysis

In conducting any gender analysis, the following important principles should be applied.

- ◆ Use participatory methods to collect and analyse information

Strive to ensure that the project's target groups, men and women, participate in preparation of the analysis, data collection and data analysis. This helps to access accurate data and ensure that diverse perspectives are brought to the process, and encourages participants' sense of ownership of and buy-in to the project. Consult with target groups to validate the outcome of analysis.

- ◆ Understand the “heart” of the questions and avoid using “gender jargon”

Not all people are familiar with concepts and terminology related to gender or gender equality, such as “gender-responsive” or “gender mainstreaming”. When collecting data, pose questions in a comprehensible way that makes the full meaning of the question clear.

For example, rather than ask “How is gender mainstreamed in the internal procedures related to uniforms?”, break the question down into several questions that cover its full meaning, such as “How are rules about men's and women's uniforms different?” and “How are changes in women's bodies related to pregnancy accommodated in terms of their uniform?”²

- ◆ Apply an intersectional approach to gender

Data collection should not assume that women, men, boys, girls, people of diverse sexual orientation, gender identities and expressions, and other target groups are homogeneous. Individuals have different needs and access to resources related to their gender *in combination with* their class, race, disability, poverty level, ethnicity, age, sexual orientation, gender identity and so on. For some groups, insecurity and lack of access to justice may be exacerbated by these other identity factors. (The issue of “intersectionality” is discussed further in Tool 1; see also Box 2.)

Project design tip

Where it is not possible to conduct a detailed gender analysis during project design, consider including an “inception phase” in the project during which in-depth gender analysis is conducted, and the project design is then reviewed and adjusted based upon its findings.

Box 2: Gender analysis in Guatemala

A gender analysis conducted in Guatemala found that the prevalence of gender-based violence (GBV) is high, and the country is ranked third among 22 Latin American and Caribbean countries for femicide. LGBTI (lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans and intersex) persons face specific vulnerabilities in relation to security and justice because no legislative framework exists to address discrimination or violence on the grounds of sexual orientation or gender identity. Moreover, no public or private institutions register hate crimes or violence against LGBTI persons to enable accurate determination of rates of violence on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity or expression. In relation to migration, LGBTI persons are especially at risk of human trafficking and sexual exploitation.

The gender analysis and assessment will inform the USAID/Guatemala Country Development Cooperation Strategy. Without this specific analysis of the needs and experiences of LGBTI persons, the strategy would not have included specific items on GBV or protection for LGBTI persons.

Source: A. L. Ugarte, E. Salazar, M. Quintana and M. R. Herrera (2018) “USAID/Guatemala gender analysis report”, prepared by Banyan Global, Washington, DC: USAID/Guatemala, pp. 12–19.

Questions should not be formulated in a way that creates single comparisons, such as men versus women, old versus young or white versus person of colour. Gender analysis should be designed to capture the intersecting factors that affect individuals. For example, on asking “What barriers do women face in career progression (compared to men)?”, an intersectional approach would then ask “How do these barriers differ between different groups of women?” This allows the analysis to consider other factors of women’s identities that may play a role in career progression, such as race, religion, sexual orientation and gender identity and expression.³

◆ Use gender-inclusive terminology and avoid “gender-neutral” language

Consistent with gender equality, use language that is gender-inclusive. For example, use firefighter (versus fireman), spouse (versus husband/wife), parental benefits (versus maternal/paternal), police officer (versus policeman) and soldiers on the ground (versus men on the ground).

It may feel excessive to identify separately “women”, “girls”, “men”, “boys”, “trans women”, “trans men”, etc. at every point of analysis. But remember that the *purpose* of a gender analysis is to “make visible” the different situation and needs of these different target groups. For example, one might ask, “What is the likelihood that people will report a sexual assault to the police?” But if one’s question does not examine the likelihood of men reporting a sexual assault *separately* from the likelihood of women reporting such an assault, then the analysis may not identify disparities between men’s and women’s likelihood to report.

3.2 Examples of gender analysis tools suited to work on security and justice

DCAF’s NAPRI Tool

DCAF has developed a simple gender analysis tool for actors working in or with the security and justice sector. The NAPRI (needs, access, participation, resources and impact) Tool prompts the user to ask specific questions across different dimensions of a given context (see Figure 3). The NAPRI Tool can help a user to analyse a context, project idea, policy, legislation or any other action/intervention using no more than desk research or reflection; while at the other end of the scale it can be used as a framework for extensive participatory gender analysis using a variety of data collection methods.

When using the NAPRI Tool, identifying the assumptions being made where evidence is weak can easily be neglected and may present challenges later on. Document the responses to the questions, noting which ones are assumptions that further data collection must verify. Like all gender analysis tools, conclusions from using the NAPRI Tool should be continuously reviewed and updated throughout the project cycle.

OSCE guidance on gender analysis for military in peace support operations*

The OSCE has developed a guidance document, “Gender in Military Operations: Guidance for Military Personnel Working at Tactical Level in Peace Support Operations”. The guidance explains the importance for militaries of assessing the situation for different categories of men and women, and taking account of intersectional characteristics such as religion, ethnicity and social class. It offers an example (see Table 1) of a gender analysis matrix focused on four components: an activity profile, a resources profile, influencing factors and consequences.

For more information on gender and the military see Tool 3 on “Defence and Gender”.

* OSCE (2018) *Gender in Military Operations: Guidance for Military Personnel Working at Tactical Level in Peace Support Operations*, Vienna: OSCE, Office of the Secretary General/Gender Section.

Figure 3: DCAF's NAPRI gender analysis tool

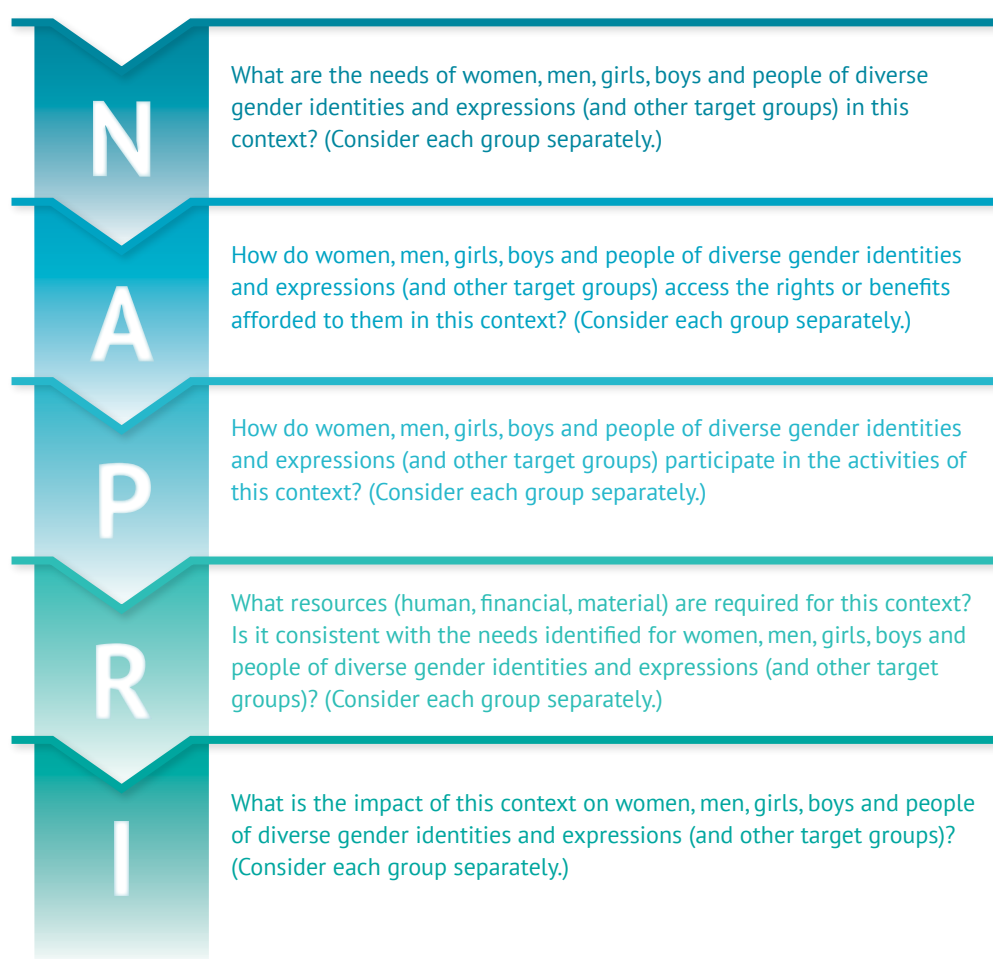


Table 1: OSCE gender analysis matrix for military operations

	Women	Men	Girls	Boys
Activity Profile				
✦ Who does what, where and when?	✦ Stays in the village and care for the household. ✦ Fetch water and firewood in the forest in the mornings	✦ Work in the city factory during daytime. ✦ Spend evenings in the city together with friends	✦ Responsible for small herds (few animals) ✦ Stay closer to the village	✦ Go to school during mornings. ✦ Responsible for larger herds ✦ Go further away from the village in the afternoons
Resource Profile				
✦ Who accesses, controls and benefits from available/valued resources?				
Water	Access/benefit	Control/benefits	Access	Access
Firewood	Access/benefit	Control/benefits	Access	Access
Livestock	Access	Control/benefits	Access	Access
Outside income	–	Control/benefits	–	–
Education	–	Control/benefits	–	Access/benefits
Information etc.	–	Control/benefits	–	–

	Women	Men	Girls	Boys
Influencing Factors				
✦ What causes explain the activity and resources profiles? ▪ Community norms and social hierarchies. ▪ Demographic factors ▪ Institutional structures ▪ Political factors ▪ Legal parameters ▪ Educational level ▪ Information ▪ Prevalence of violence.	✦ Traditional division of labour. ✦ Conflict and installation of the new border has curtailed accessible land and resources. ✦ No education ✦ Not allowed to own land or property ✦ Do not inherit from spouse.	✦ Traditional division of labour ✦ Some education ✦ Take part in community political work	✦ Traditional division of labour. ✦ Have better access to land as it is closer to home.	✦ Traditional division of labour. ✦ Conflict and installation of the new border has curtailed accessible land.
Consequences				
✦ What are the consequences of the activity and resources profile?	✦ Cannot decide about own movements ✦ Cannot afford to travel to the city or provide for basic needs ✦ Is totally dependent of male relatives' decisions	✦ Have the responsibility to provide for the family ✦ Vulnerable if not able to fulfil the role as provider	✦ Less exposure to the border. ✦ Less risk of being detained (both because they move less close to the border but also because they are seen as less of a threat) ✦ Freedom of movement curtailed due to cultural traditions	✦ Forced to move closer to the border since the larger herds need larger areas ✦ Greater risk of being detained (both because they move further away from home, but also because they are seen as more threatening) ✦ Freedom of movement curtailed due to political reasons

Source: OSCE (2018) "Gender in Military Operations: Guidance for Military Personnel Working at Tactical Level in Peace Support Operations", Vienna: OSCE, Office of the Secretary General /Gender Section, p. 14.

DCAF Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector*

DCAF's Gender Self-Assessment Guide can be used to conduct a gender analysis of one's own institution or another institution. It outlines an eight-stage process, from obtaining authorization to evaluation of the assessment, to assess the extent to which an institution advances gender equality internally and in its operations or services. As shown in Table 2, the guide focuses upon 16 dimensions of gender integration, grouped around six themes.

* DCAF's (2011) *Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector*, Geneva. See also, developed particularly for armed forces but useful for any organization, S. Crompvoets (2019) *Gender-Responsive Organizational Climate Assessment in Armed Forces*, Geneva: DCAF.

Among other things, two factors are key to a successful institutional self-assessment.

- ◆ Adapting these (or any other) self-assessment questions for the institution under assessment, and for its context.
- ◆ Providing training to the assessment working group on gender-related concepts and the methodology, to ensure all participants have a strong understanding of the concepts they will encounter and their roles and responsibilities in the assessment process.

For an external partner or consultant it generally takes longer to accompany and support a security or justice institution in conducting its own self-assessment than to conduct an assessment for/of them (see Box 3). However, the learning process for the institution is worth it: the institution “learns by doing” how all aspects of the institution are impacted by gender.

Data collected through a self-assessment process provide information for designing measures to integrate a gender perspective across policies, structures and operations. The assessment findings can act as the baseline against which to measure progress.

Table 2: The 16 dimensions of gender self-assessment

Theme I: Performance effectiveness
1. Capacity and training
2. Access to services
3. Data on gender-related crime
Theme II: Laws, policies and planning
4. National, regional and international laws and standards
5. Institutional policy, procedures and co-ordination
Theme III: Community relations
6. Public perceptions
7. Co-operation and consultation with the public
Theme IV: Accountability and oversight
8. Complaints against security sector personnel
9. Internal and external oversight
Theme V: Personnel
10. Recruitment and selection
11. Retention
12. Assignments, deployment, promotion and remuneration
13. Mentoring and support
14. Infrastructure and equipment
Theme VI: Institutional culture
15. Understanding of gender issues and relations between male and female personnel
16. Leadership and public presentation

Source: M. Bastick (2011) *Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector*, Geneva: DCAF, p. 17.

Box 3: Gender assessment of the Jordanian Armed Forces

The Jordanian Armed Forces, with support from DCAF, conducted an assessment of the needs of servicewomen to identify achievements regarding women's integration and participation within the forces, as well as areas in need of improvement. The assessment focused on servicewomen's training, recruitment and deployment, infrastructure and policies. Its methodology included individual interviews, extensive desk research, a study of the current policy framework and focus group discussions. Some focus groups were only for women, to allow them to speak freely of their experiences with relative anonymity.

The Jordanian Armed Forces leadership used the findings of the assessment to develop a three-year plan to improve servicewomen's integration into the forces. Their assessment process inspired other national actors in Jordan to conduct assessments of other security forces in the country.

ILO Participatory Gender Audit*

Similar to a gender self-assessment, the International Labour Organization (ILO) developed a Participatory Gender Audit methodology. This assists organizations to:

- ◆ monitor and assess progress made in gender mainstreaming
- ◆ determine whether internal practices for gender mainstreaming are effective and reinforce each other
- ◆ establish baselines
- ◆ document good practice towards advancing gender equality
- ◆ identify critical gaps and challenges, recommend ways of addressing them and suggest new and more effective strategies.

The ILO's methodology can be adapted for a wide variety of organizations, including those within the security and justice sector. It has five key areas of analysis.

1. Gender issues in the context of the organization/unit, and existing gender expertise, competence and capacity building.
2. Gender in organization/unit's objectives, programming and implementation cycles, and choice of partner organizations.
3. Information and knowledge management within the organization/unit, and gender equality policy as reflected in its projects and public image.
4. Decision-making, staffing and human resources, and organizational culture.
5. Organization/unit's perception of achievement of gender equality.

Gender analysis of conflict

Externally supported projects involving the security and justice sector are often situated in a peacebuilding, conflict or post-conflict setting. Conflict analysis tools help actors to understand the dynamics of the conflict – its historical context, causes and drivers, and the key actors that can influence its dynamics. There has been increasing recognition that most conflict analysis tools lack a strong gender dimension, and gender analysis tools fail to integrate an adequate conflict lens. A number of organizations, including Cordaid, Saferworld and Conciliation Resources, have developed resources that combine both types of analytical tools (listed in section 7).

The Gender Analysis of Conflict Toolkit developed by Saferworld, for example, enables a stronger understanding of the context and the conflict by identifying:

- ◆ gender norms that exist, compared to people's behaviours and their interactions with conflict dynamics

* International Labour Organization (2012) *A Manual for Gender Audit Facilitators: The ILO Participatory Gender Audit Methodology*, 2nd edn, Geneva: ILO.

- ◆ ways in which conflict influences gender behaviour and norms, and the ways in which gender behaviour and norms may mitigate conflict
- ◆ roles that people of different genders play in conflict and the impact of conflict on people of different genders
- ◆ ways in which peace can challenge or enhance gender behaviours and norms.*

* See Saferworld (2016) *Gender Analysis of Conflict Toolkit*, London: Saferworld, p. 10.

Box 4 demonstrates the Toolkit's use in Iraq.

Box 4: Gender analysis of conflict in ISIS-affected communities

Oxfam Iraq and other development partners used Saferworld's Gender Analysis of Conflict Toolkit in communities of Iraq affected by ISIS (Islamic State of Iraq and Syria) to improve understanding of the context and make recommendations for humanitarian and development programming.

The analysis found that under ISIS occupation communities experienced the imposition of a set of radicalized gender norms, but when occupation ended they sought to revert to their beliefs and attitudes before ISIS occupation. Oxfam found that women had a broader role within their families during ISIS occupation, in terms of protecting their children from joining ISIS, keeping their families safe and stressing the importance of education in a context where the formal school system had been dismantled; but the ban on women in public spaces resulted in men assuming the responsibilities of sole household providers. ISIS occupation moreover exacerbated pressures on men who refused to join ISIS, by restricting their movement and forcing the closure of their businesses.

Based on this gender analysis, Oxfam proposed a two-pronged approach for humanitarian and recovery programmes: address gendered drivers that fuel community tensions, and enhance gendered drivers that build trust. The gendered conflict analysis enabled programmers to develop interventions that were more relevant and responsive to the experiences of men and women.

Source: L. Dietrich and S. E. Carter (2017) "Gender and conflict analysis in ISIS affected communities in Iraq", Oxford: Oxfam International, pp. 5–6.

Gender-responsive political economy analysis

Political economy analysis (PEA) helps to gain a deeper understanding of how change is embedded within and shaped by political and economic relations that interact and are particular to each context. By analysing the dynamics of "political economy", PEA provides a deeper understanding of how the distribution of power and resources and interests within a given society influence efforts to bring about change. Using PEA can help to base project design on locally understood problems, rather than on a set of predetermined assumptions about end goals and solutions. PEA is considered particularly useful in relation to work with the security and justice sector, given the highly political nature of change in these contexts.⁴

However, "PEAs have often ignored one of the most pervasive systems of power in most societies – gender and the unequal power relations between women and men."⁵ PEA should be intentional about analysing gender roles and relationships between different groups. A simple illustration of gender-responsive PEA, adapting one of the Overseas Development Institute's PEA tools,⁶ is shown in the following paragraphs.

- ◆ *Structure.* Users describe the *societal structures* that shape social, political and economic outcomes for women, men and other defined groups (based on race, religion, disability, sexual orientation, gender identity and expression, etc.). They include the following:
 - long-standing historical legacies (such as ethnic composition or class inequality)
 - formal institutions (such as laws and policies)

⁴ See L. Denney and P. Domingo (2017) "Political economy analysis: Guidance for legal technical assistance", London: Rule of Law UK Rule of Law Expertise.

- informal institutions (such as patriarchy or religious beliefs).
- ◆ *Agency*. Users describe the *capacity to make choices* of women, men and other defined groups (based on race, religion, disability, sexual orientation, gender identity and expression, etc.) This includes:
 - existing structural conditions that give more or less *power, resources* and *voice* to certain groups in society over others
 - different actors that support or contest existing structural conditions and the actions they take to mobilize or achieve change
 - behaviour of different groups that are influenced by *interests* (what people believe benefits them), *incentives* (what motivates people) and *ideas* (what people believe in).

Various tools to conduct PEA are listed in section 7.

3.3 Grounding project design in a theory of change

A theory of change is “a method that explains how a given intervention, or set of interventions, is expected to lead to specific development change, drawing on a causal analysis based on available evidence”.⁶ As explained in section 3.1, the project design of any intervention should be based on the findings of a gender analysis; hence the theory of change developed as a result should also integrate a gender perspective. A theory of change provides the opportunity to test how the findings from the gender analysis will impact and influence the development change, and whether the causal links in the project make sense. Since a theory of change should be based on available evidence, the findings from the gender analysis will ensure that the theory of change is both accurate and realistic.

A gender-responsive theory of change usually contains the following elements, set out both visually and as a narrative.

- ◆ The key problem(s) that the project seeks to address, highlighting how different groups of men, women, boys and girls within the context experience these problems differently and contribute to their solutions in different ways.
- ◆ Definition and root causes of each problem for different groups of men, women, boys and girls.
- ◆ Based on gender-responsive analysis, the changes that the project will make for different groups of men, women, boys and girls.
- ◆ Key risks to the project and mitigation strategies, as well as key risks for project beneficiaries.
- ◆ Complementarity with other actors/projects working on the same problem or with specific groups of men, women, boys and girls within the context.
- ◆ Key partners and stakeholders, including different groups of men, women, boys and girls, women’s organizations and networks.
- ◆ Theories that underpin the gender-responsive approach.
- ◆ Major indicators (see section 4.3 on developing indicators).
- ◆ Do *no harm* approach for all groups of men, women, boys and girls affected directly or indirectly by the project.

Compared to a logical framework (in a matrix format), a theory of change is more visually flexible, and so is better able to depict the complexity of the context and/or project. But the most important element of the theory of change is its narrative description. It explains how and why a project will lead to a specific change, and provides a framework for learning

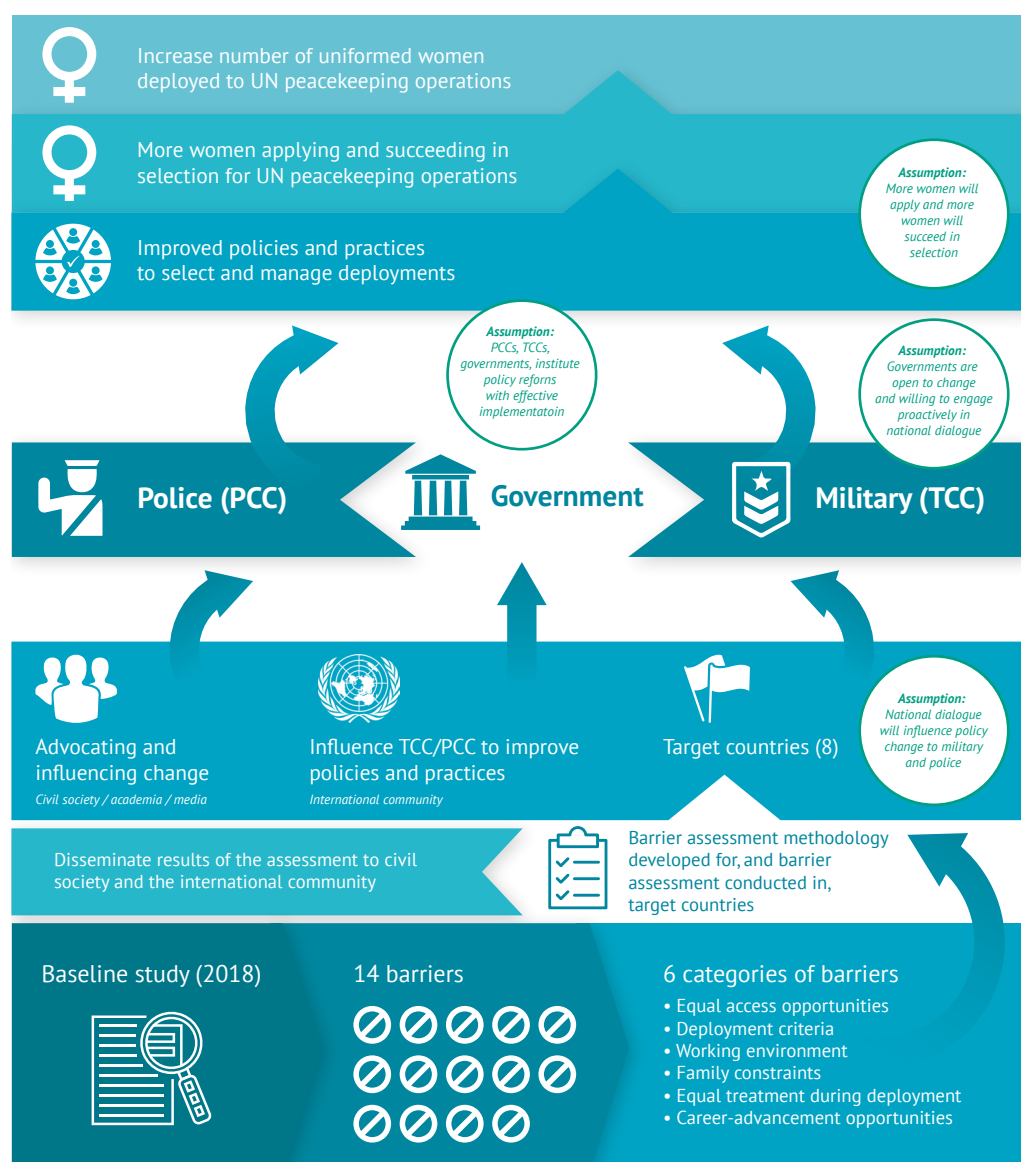
about a context by articulating the assumptions made about how the project is expected to achieve results, enabling these assumptions to be tested against evidence.⁷

Any theory of change within the security and justice sector should promote gender equality by integrating a gender perspective, even if gender equality is not the main objective of the project. In all cases, no theory of change should ever result, even unintentionally, in perpetuating gender inequality or any other inequalities. It is therefore essential that whatever approach is used to develop a theory of change, it is informed by gender analysis.

Figure 4 shows a visual depiction of a theory of change derived from one of DCAF's gender and security programmes.

The process of developing a theory of change can be a means to strengthen partnerships and ensure that all stakeholders contribute to, and are part of, the design of the project. When developing the theory of change, involve a diverse group of male and female stakeholders – including experts and those who may be resistant to the project. Incorporating a range of views in a theory of change better identifies real assumptions and potential programming approaches and can result in a more innovative design. The project design must then be validated with the stakeholders.

Figure 4: Theory of change to increase women's participation in peace operations



3.4 Reviewing the project budget using a gender perspective

All organizations work differently, especially in the way they design projects and develop the associated budget. Are the same individuals working on both? Are these parallel processes? Do both processes meet at some point to ensure that the budget reflects the development change and accounts for the gender perspective that is integrated in the project design?

It is important to conduct a separate review of a project budget using a gender perspective. This is particularly necessary where a project's budget is designed in parallel to its theory of change and/or the project design. Key questions to ask in relation to the project budget include the following.

- ◆ Does the budget – in the way that financial and material resources are allocated to different groups of women, girls, men and boys within the project – advance gender equality?
- ◆ Is there a funding target established for gender equality and women's empowerment work?
- ◆ Could the budget perpetuate any form of inequality?
- ◆ Is the budget designed in such a manner as to enable the intended groups of women, men, boys and girls to contribute to and benefit from the project?

Take, for example, an activity intended to bring together communities for three days, with a budget for the cost of a venue for the meeting. What if the rural communities have no access to transportation to attend the meeting? Is there a budget for providing transport? Will parents need to bring young children, or someone who can care for their children, while they are in the meeting? Is the budget sufficient for this, or for providing childcare? Are men and women equally able to leave their homes for three days or – to ensure equality – should the meeting instead be held over three one-day sessions? All these considerations, necessary to ensure equality within the project, have budgetary implications.

3.5 Using gender equality markers

Several multilateral organizations have developed gender equality markers, which are criteria for determining whether or not a project contributes to advancing gender equality or women's empowerment. Gender equality marker data provide valuable information about the levels of resources allocated to gender for programmes in the security and justice sector. While there are differences in how these markers are constructed, as illustrated below, they all distinguish between:

- a. projects with a *principle or main purpose* of advancing gender equality or women's empowerment
- b. projects with a different principle or main purpose, but where it is still expected to *integrate a gender perspective* systematically throughout the project (gender mainstreaming).

Since many donor agencies are expected to report to their governments and multilateral organizations on the amount of funding directed to work on gender equality, the criteria for scoring gender equality in programmes are often included in donor funding requirements, including for the security and justice sector.

It is important to remember that gender equality markers should only be used to categorize projects; they are not monitoring or evaluation tools.

The paragraphs below show three examples of gender equality markers from three organizations: the OECD-DAC, the OSCE and the UN. Table 3 gives examples of how projects might be differently scored using these different gender equality marker systems.

Table 3: Examples of project scores using gender markers

OECD	Not targeted, score 0	A project to construct a detention centre for minors. A gender analysis was conducted, but gender equality is not a specific objective and the project does not include specific activities designed to reduce gender-based inequalities for minors who identify as gay or transgender.
OSCE	Score 0	
UN	Limited	
OECD	Not targeted, score 0	A training and education project to support the armed forces in better preparing their troops (men and women) for peacekeeping deployments, but with no specific objectives or activities that aim to address gender-specific barriers to deployments. Even though the topic of gender will be taught in the training courses to be developed, the project will still score 0 according to the OECD markers.
OSCE	Score 1	
UN	Limited	
OECD	Significant, score 1	A project to strengthen the capacity of parliament, in particular the defence committee, in the external oversight of the armed forces, with a specific objective and targeted activities for women parliamentarians to increase their representation in the committee.
OSCE	Score 2	
UN	Significant	
OECD	Significant, score 1	An infrastructure project to create domestic violence units at police stations, with a specific objective and targeted activities to ensure that police stations are safe and accessible to people with disabilities, particularly women and girls with disabilities.
OSCE	Score 2	
UN	Significant	
OECD	Principal, score 2	A project focusing specifically on preventing and responding to gender-based discrimination in the courts through targeted activities with judges.
OSCE	Score 3	
UN	Principal/primary	

OECD-DAC Gender Equality Policy Marker*

The OECD-DAC uses the gender marker as a statistical tool to monitor and record aid activities that target gender equality as a policy objective. The categories of aid that apply to the security and justice sector are Government & Civil Society; Conflict, Peace & Security; Communications (related to security and justice issues); Business & Other Services (for private security services); Mineral Resources & Mining (for security of the extractive industry); and Trade Policies & Regulation (for private security regulation).

OECD-DAC member countries are expected to conduct a gender analysis and use a do no harm approach for all aid, as minimum criteria, to ensure that projects are not perpetuating or exacerbating gender inequalities. The scoring system and criteria classify projects into three categories.

Not targeted, score 0	The project does not target gender equality. <i>Findings from the gender analysis ensure that the project does no harm and does not reinforce gender inequalities.</i>
Significant, score 1	Gender equality is a deliberate objective, but not the principal reason for undertaking the project. <i>Gender analysis conducted and informed the design of the project. Presence of at least one explicit gender equality objective backed</i>

* See OECD-DAC Network on Gender Equality (GenderNet) (2016) *Handbook on the OECD-DAC Gender Equality Policy Marker*, Paris: OECD.

by at least one gender-specific indicator. Data and indicators are disaggregated by sex. Evaluation includes gender equality results.

Principal, score 2 Gender equality is the main objective of the project.
The principal intention is advancing gender equality and/or the empowerment of women and girls, reducing gender discrimination or inequalities, or meeting gender-specific needs.

OSCE Gender Marker

The OSCE likewise uses gender markers as a statistical tool to classify projects, in particular for reporting progress made in gender mainstreaming of OSCE policies, programmes, projects and activities. The gender marker uses a three-tier marking system.⁸

Score 0 Projects with no reference to gender equality.

Score 1 Gender is mainstreamed to a small extent (e.g. participation).

Score 2 Gender is mainstreamed to a significant extent or at all stages of the project.

Score 3 Gender equality is the main objective of the project.

UN Sustainable Development Group Gender Equality Marker*

The UN Sustainable Development Group uses gender markers to track the proportion of funds devoted to advancing gender equality. The marker also provides common principles, standards and definitions by which the whole UN system can track and report on allocations and expenditures related to gender equality and women's and girls' empowerment, as follows.

Limited The project makes a limited contribution (or) the project makes no contribution to gender equality and/or the empowerment of women and girls.

Significant The project makes a significant contribution to gender equality and/or the empowerment of women and girls.

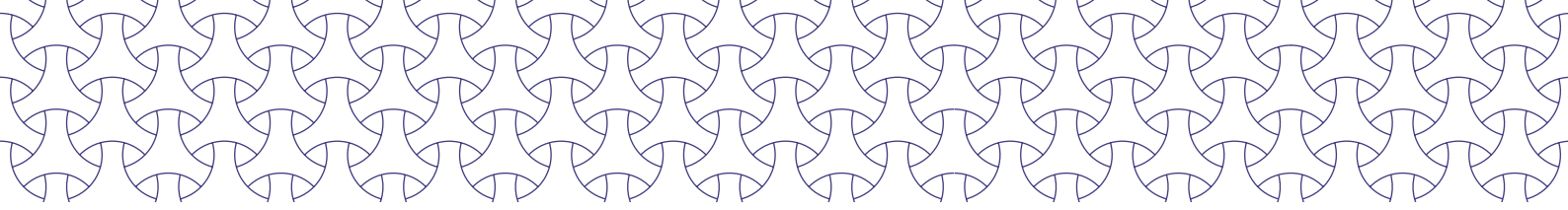
Principal or primary Gender equality and/or the empowerment of women and girls is the primary or principal objective of the project.

* See UN Development Group (2013) "Gender Equality Marker: Guidance Note", New York: UN Development Operations Coordination Office.

Endnotes

1. Adapted from European Institute for Gender Equality (2019) "Gender equality glossary and thesaurus: Gender analysis", <https://eige.europa.eu/thesaurus/terms/1143> (accessed 7 November 2019).
2. Adapted from Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (2015) "Gender analysis – Principles & elements", Stockholm: Sida, p. 2.
3. Adapted from A. Christoffersen (2017) "Intersectional approaches to equality research and data", York: Equality Challenge Unit, p. 4.
4. See L. Denney and P. Domingo (2017) "Political economy analysis: Guidance for legal technical assistance", London: Role UK Rule of Law Expertise; L. Denney (2016) "Using political economy analysis in conflict security and justice programmes", London: ODI.
5. R. Haines and T. O'Neil (2018) "Putting gender in political economy analysis: Why it matters and how to do it", practitioners' guidance note, London: Gender and Development Network, p. 3.
6. UN Development Group (2017) "Theory of change: UNDAF companion guidance", New York: Development Operations Coordination Office, p. 4.
7. UN Development Group, *ibid.*; L. Holdaway and R. Simpson (2018) *Improving the Impact of Preventing Violent Extremism Programming: A Toolkit for Design, Monitoring and Evaluation*, Oslo: UNDP, p. 47.
8. OSCE (2017) "2016 annual progress report on the implementation of the OSCE 2004 Action Plan on the promotion of gender equality", Vienna: OSCE, p. 13.





4. Project monitoring for the security and justice sector: how to integrate gender

Monitoring is the process of collecting and analysing data at periodic intervals (determined by the monitoring framework) to determine whether a project is achieving its intended outcomes. Progress towards gender equality in the security and justice sector is often slow; it is about changing attitudes and behaviour, as well as institutional culture, and this takes time. By monitoring and collecting data throughout the project's cycle, a project team is able to provide evidence of the programme's gradual progress, whether positive or negative.

Moreover, analysis of monitoring data should inform periodic review of the project's gender analysis and theory of change over the project cycle (illustrated in Figure 2 on page 10). This ensures that the key elements of the project's design are "living documents" – in the sense that they are the most accurate reflection of the project, based on the actual findings over the project's implementation. In other words, this is an adaptive approach to programming. When implementing programmes where change occurs over a long period of time, adaptive programming is very important. Without it, the project's design is stagnant and opportunities to improve the analysis and theory of change over time are lost.

Effective project monitoring also provides data to feed into any type of evaluation that may be conducted midway through the project, at its end or some years after it has concluded.*

This section sets out how to develop a project monitoring framework, examines how a gender perspective can be integrated through disaggregating data and in indicators, and presents some key considerations when choosing methods for collecting monitoring data.

4.1 Developing a project monitoring framework

A key element of project design is the development of its monitoring framework. A monitoring framework focuses on the project's results: in the short term, medium term and long term. It identifies indicators for each identified project outcome and describes how, when and by whom information pertaining to each indicator will be collected. So, the monitoring framework outlines how the project will collect the information that will generate ongoing learning about its results, and eventually evaluation of the project's impact.

A basic monitoring framework (or monitoring plan) consists of the following elements. Table 4 illustrates how these can be tabulated.

- 1. Results (short term, medium term, long term).** Results are often referred to as output (short term), outcome (medium term) and impact (long term). Different organizations will have their own terminology and definitions for the different levels of result. Whatever the terminology, the theory of change and the size and scope of the project

* Discussed in section 5 on evaluation and learning.

Image: UN Volunteers working in conflict and post-conflict settings participate in a learning and strategy workshop to exchange knowledge and build their capacities for gender-responsive peacebuilding, 2016 © UN Women/Ryan Brown.

will determine the level at which specific results are expected to be achieved. None of the results should create or perpetuate gender inequalities.

2. **Indicators.** An indicator is a specific, clearly measurable point of information that provides evidence of the state or level of a factor of interest to the project. All the indicators to be used for the project at each level of result should be listed. All indicators referring to people should be disaggregated by sex and by other relevant intersecting factors, such as age, race, religion, sexual orientation, gender identity or expression, etc.*
3. **Measure.** A clear statement of what is to be measured under this indicator and how it is calculated. The description identifies whether the data are qualitative or quantitative, and the information needed to be collected.
4. **Baseline.** The situation (data) for the indicator at the start of data collection (ideally before the project start date). The project's progress and success are measured against the baseline. Most baseline data should already be available from the gender analysis conducted. If the gender analysis did not collect adequate data for baselines, rectify this as soon as possible.^
5. **Target.** The level of the indicator intended to be achieved by the end of the project. The target should be feasible and appropriate given the size and scope of the project. It is useful for understanding how the project is progressing, based on how close it is to its target.
6. **Data source.** Identifies the source of the data to be collected for the indicator.
7. **Frequency.** States how frequently the data will be collected during implementation. When setting the frequency, consider when the indicator data will be most relevant, most notably for key reporting and decision-making points.
8. **Responsible.** Indicates who is responsible for collecting the data in the project team and among partners.

Table 4: Monitoring framework template

Monitoring framework							
	Indicator	Measure (description)	Baseline	Target	Data source/ method	Frequency	Responsible
Long-term result (Impact)	(Indicator 1)						
	(Indicator 2)						
Medium-term result 1 (Outcome 1)	(Indicator 3)						
Medium-term result 2 (Outcome 2)	(Indicator 4)						
Short-term result 1 (Output 1)	(Indicator 5)						
	(Indicator 6)						
Short-term result 2 (Output 2)	(Indicator 7)						
	(Indicator 8)						

* Discussed in section 4.2 on disaggregating data and section 4.3 on developing indicators.

^ See section 3.1 on conducting gender analysis.

As the tool used to guide project monitoring towards the intended impact, the monitoring framework should be clearly written and contain all the information needed to find the evidence that will demonstrate learning for the project and inform decision-making to improve the project's implementation. All stakeholders using the monitoring framework should understand it well to ensure that the data are collected consistently for each indicator.

Using a participatory approach to develop a monitoring framework with project partners and project beneficiaries, both men and women, helps to ensure that the indicators identified are realistic and accurate. Having a shared vision for how the project will measure success is just as important as defining the problem and designing the intervention.

4.2 Disaggregating data

Disaggregating data is the process of separating data into subgroups based upon specific characteristics that are usually, but not always, demographic in nature. When monitoring gender equality in relation to security and justice, disaggregating data by sex and by age is critical. Without disaggregation, there is no way to monitor how a project is differently impacting on men, women, boys, girls and people of diverse gender identities or expression.

When disaggregating data use an intersectional approach, recognizing that people may be affected by several intersecting factors in addition to their gender or sex, such as race, ethnicity, religion, disability, etc. If a marginalized group is not identified in a project's indicators, it will tend to be invisible in the resulting analyses.¹ (For more information on intersectionality see Tool 1, "Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender". For examples, see Box 5.)

Some categories of disaggregation, such as ethnicity, race, religion and language, require individuals to self-identify. In such cases data collection methods should provide this flexibility. When designing a survey, for example, avoid using predetermined categories for self-identification unless participants have the option to provide a free response if they do not identify with the ones suggested. For people who consider they have a mixed ethnicity or origin, give the opportunity to choose multiple identifiers.

Moreover, many security sector institutions have both uniformed and civilian personnel, in which case it may be important to disaggregate data by categories such as rank/title, department, geographic location, region of responsibility, regular/reservist, etc.

A systematic and consistent approach when identifying categories of disaggregation is important. Decide on the categories relevant to the intended outcomes at the start of the project and use them consistently throughout monitoring. Indicators must specify the type and level of disaggregation; for example, "percentage of military personnel posted in a region outside their region of residence (disaggregated by region, rank, sex, ethnicity and religion)".

Project design tip

In many of the contexts where security and justice programming is externally supported, existing data collection methods produce little or poor-quality data. Data disaggregated by sex and other intersecting factors are often scant. Consider integrating into any project activities to build the capacity of partners to collect reliable data on an ongoing basis.

Box 5: Two examples of disaggregating data from Latin America and Canada

In Latin America, in collaboration with national statistics offices in the region, the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean created the Sistema de Indicadores Sociodemográficos de Poblaciones y pueblos Indígenas to provide disaggregated data on indigenous peoples and Afro-descendant communities from 15 countries in the region that have included an “indigenous identifier” in their censuses. This information is used for disclosing and then addressing the severe socio-economic gaps that exist between these and other population groups. From the perspective of the security and justice sector, this type of disaggregated data could be especially useful in developing programmes to support security and justice services in reaching indigenous peoples and Afro-descendant communities.

In Canada the government produces a periodic “Family violence in Canada” statistical report to analyse trends over time. It uses data from the uniform crime reporting survey and the homicide survey, which disaggregates data about homicide victims using demographic information as well as information relating to the cause of death, weapon used and firearm details. The family violence report describes trends under three categories: against children and youth, intimate partner violence and against seniors. Without disaggregating data, the government would be unable to follow trends for these specific groups within the Canadian population.

Sources: B. Feiring, F. Thornberry and A. Hassler (2007) “Human rights and data: Tools and resources for sustainable development”, Copenhagen: Danish Institute for Human Rights, p. 21; Statistics Canada (2017) “Family violence in Canada: A statistical profile, 2017”, Ottawa, ON: Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics; Statistics Canada (2019) “Homicide survey”, Ottawa, ON: Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Disaggregating on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity and expression*

When seeking to disaggregate data on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity and gender expression, it is essential to consider and take steps with regard to safety and ethical challenges.

- ◆ **Self-identification.** Not all persons who are LGBTI will self-identify as such, in particular in contexts where identification is stigmatized or criminalized. Appropriate protective measures must be in place to ensure that participants who do self-identify are not placed at risk by so doing.

In analysis, recognize and acknowledge that there are a variety of reasons why LGBTI persons may not self-identify. Those who do so probably represent the minimum number of LGBTI persons in the sample.

There is a spectrum of different terms people use to refer to their sexual orientation or gender identity and gender expression. Allow flexibility for participants to self-identify. Be well informed of the language and criteria used by the communities themselves.²

If data regarding an individual's spouse are relevant to the project, allow flexibility for the individual to identify the relationship status with their spouse or partner, as their partnership may or may not be legalized.

- ◆ **Stigmatization and marginalization.** Disaggregating on the basis of sexual orientation or gender identity and expression should not create or reinforce existing discrimination, bias or stereotypes regarding any group. Enable participation of LGBTI people themselves in monitoring and collecting data, and most importantly in defining the categories of disaggregation to be used.
- ◆ **Criminalization and risk of persecution.** Data collected on LGBTI individuals could be used to exclude, oppress or persecute people, especially when they are identified. Participants may fear associating with certain groups or self-identifying as belonging

* For more information on issues relating to LGBTI see Tool 1, “Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender”.

to a specific group. Take extreme care and employ a *do no harm* approach in developing indicators, as well as in selecting the data collection methods and data management systems for these groups.³

4.3 Developing indicators

As stated above, an indicator is a specific, clearly measurable point of information that provides evidence of the state or level of a factor of interest to the project. In other words, it is a means of demonstrating change against the expected or planned result. Data collected using indicators are analysed to determine what impact a project is having and whether it is on track to achieving the impact set out in its log frame or theory of change.*

If indicators developed on the basis of the theory of change do not “naturally” produce gender-related indicators, one should question whether the theory of change properly incorporated the results of the gender analysis, and whether a proper gender analysis was conducted.

Several acronyms have been proposed to describe strong project indicators. For example:

- ◆ SMART: specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound⁴
- ◆ CREAM: clear, relevant, economic (economically viable), adequate and measurable (quantitatively or qualitatively).⁵

Using a combination of quantitative and qualitative indicators is good practice. While quantitative indicators tend to be easier to measure and give a clear result, qualitative indicators are better at giving more depth, context and explanation. Pairing the two provides a fuller story about the impact of interventions. But regardless of whether an indicator (or a group of indicators) is quantitative or qualitative, it should always be appropriate for the level of result (short term, medium term or long term).[^]

All indicators for programmes in the security and justice sector should be disaggregated by sex, age and any other relevant identifiers (as discussed in section 4.2). In security and justice programming the subjects of interest (such as transparency, good governance or gender equality) often cannot be measured directly with one single indicator, and thus “indirect” or “proxy” indicators are often used. In determining the group of indicators to demonstrate progress towards an intended result, reflect deeply upon the meaning of each indicator, whether quantitative or qualitative, and whether the group of indicators accurately reflects the intended result. It is easy to rely solely on quantitative indicators – but are they relevant or realistic? In security sector programming, for example, a common indicator used to demonstrate increased participation of women within armed forces is *ratio of women in the armed forces*. This indicator demonstrates the physical presence of women, but not the quality of their participation (for example, their relative leadership influence). Using other quantitative indicators around women’s ratios at different ranks and in different functions, in combination with qualitative indicators to collect data on women’s day-to-day duties and experiences, can be more meaningful in understanding “participation”.

As much as possible, develop indicators together with project stakeholders, both women and men. If not possible during the project’s design, project stakeholders should review the indicators in the first phase of implementation. This helps to avoid common problems during implementation – perhaps the data required are not available, or project stakeholders want to collect different data to measure progress. Early discussions about indicators with project stakeholders can even give more clarity to a theory of change and implementation in general.

* Discussed in section 3.3.

[^] Qualitative versus quantitative data and mixed-methods approaches are discussed in more detail in a DCAF handbook: S. Crompvoets (2019) *Gender-Responsive Organizational Climate Assessment in Armed Forces*, Geneva: DCAF.

Annex 1 provides a range of sample gender-related indicators for the security and justice sector. But a common mistake is to copy indicators from other projects or from a list of sample indicators. These indicators may be SMART or CREAM in relation to their original project, but if they do not sufficiently measure the evidence required to demonstrate progress towards the intended outcomes of the project in question, they are useless. By all means consider sample indicators, but determine whether they are adequate to measure the change intended in your project and modify and adapt accordingly.

For national-level and regional-level programming it can be useful to integrate targets and indicators from international normative frameworks, such as CEDAW, the UN Security Council resolutions on Women, Peace and Security, and Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5 on gender equality. This is discussed in the following subsections, after a more general discussion around gender-related indicators and indicators concerning GBV.

Gender-related indicators

Indicators that are sex-disaggregated or gender-specific and are focused on gender-related change over time are often described as “gender-related indicators”. Like all indicators, data can be collected through quantitative or qualitative methods. Table 5 lists some examples.

Table 5: Gender-related indicators

Indicator type and method		Example of indicator	Example of data
Sex-disaggregated indicator	Quantitative	Number and proportion of prison guards, disaggregated by sex	267 guards (89 women, 178 men) 33% women, 67% men
	Qualitative	Perception of military personnel of sexual harassment, disaggregated by sex	Overall perception of male military personnel that sexual harassment is not prevalent or serious, whereas female military personnel feel that sexual harassment is a serious problem and is widespread
Gender-specific indicator	Quantitative	Number of members of the Women's Police Association	356 members
	Qualitative	Perception of men about LGBTI persons working in police stations	Men say they have no concerns working alongside colleagues who they know or suspect to be LGBTI

Indicators related to gender-based violence*

It is vitally important for security and justice institutions to collect data on incidents and prevalence of GBV in a systematic manner to improve response and prevention, but there are many reasons why this may be difficult. These include inadequate domestic legislation, fear of women victims to report to male police personnel, fear of LGBTI victims or male victims to report, inadequate systems for generating statistics within the police or courts, inadequate categorization of GBV cases and lack of follow-up on GBV cases, among others.

In most countries there are national-level, multisectoral and multi-actor initiatives to prevent, address and respond to cases of GBV. In such contexts, data collection by the security and justice sector and these other actors should be co-ordinated.

There are many existing sets of indicators around particular forms of GBV. UN-developed indicators of violence against women can be found in Annex 1 (examples of gender-related indicators for the security and justice sector). In Europe a group of experts have developed violence against women indicators associated with integrated policies and data

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

Sources: UN Women (2019) “Gender equality glossary” <https://trainingcentre.unwomen.org/mod/glossary/view.php?id=36> (accessed 7 November 2019); UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (2011) “Discriminatory laws and practices and acts of violence against individuals based on their sexual orientation and gender identity”, Geneva: UN Human Rights Council, para. 20.

collection; prevention; protection and support; substantive law; investigation, prosecution and procedural law and protective measures; and migration and asylum.*

Indicators used to determine rates of GBV should clearly identify and describe the different forms of violence. It is important to take account of the fact that legal definitions and police and judicial understandings of gender-based crime vary significantly between countries. Although in some cases it might be appropriate to apply definitions derived from regional or international human rights standards, project-level indicators should generally reflect the definitions of the country where security and justice is being assessed.

Indicators based on human rights standards

State parties to human rights treaties are evaluated in terms of their implementation of their treaty obligations at regional and international levels.[^] As gender equality is at the heart of human rights, standards and criteria developed in relation to human rights can be useful indicators for monitoring progress on integrating gender in the security and justice sector.

The UN Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights categorizes human rights indicators as *structural*, *process* and *outcome* indicators. Each type can measure different aspects of the security and justice sector and, ideally, should be used complementarily.⁶

- a. **Structural indicators.** Capture the acceptance, intent and commitment of a country's government (or a security sector institution) in taking measures that comply with international instruments, as well as regional and/or national legal frameworks. For security and justice institutions, this also includes measures taken to comply with the institution's policy framework.

Examples

- ◆ International and regional instruments relevant to gender equality, such as CEDAW and the Council of Europe's Istanbul Convention, ratified by the country's government by x date.
 - ◆ A country's national action plan (NAP) on the implementation of UNSCR 1325 is developed by x date.**
 - ◆ A national law requiring a public institution (such as the police or armed forces) to achieve a specific percentage of women in its workforce by x date.
 - ◆ The date of entry, scope and content of a security sector institution's policy against sexual and gender-based harassment.
- b. **Process indicators.** Assess a country's efforts (or those of a specific security or justice institution) through its implementation of policy measures and programmes to advance gender equality or integrate a gender perspective.

Examples

- ◆ Attrition and conviction rates for sexual assault in a country's criminal justice system.
 - ◆ Degree of involvement of specific target groups in specific programmes within the security and justice sector.
 - ◆ Awareness measures taken by the security and justice sector (or a security sector institution) to address gender equality.
- c. **Outcome indicators.** Assess the results of a country's government (or a security sector institution) in advancing gender equality or integrating a gender perspective within the security and justice sector.

* Group of Experts on Action against Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (2016) "Questionnaire on legislative and other measures giving effect to the provisions of the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence", Strasbourg-Cedex: Council of Europe.

[^] For more detail on international and regional human rights frameworks concerning gender equality, security and justice see section 2.7 of Tool 4, "Gender and Justice", and the Compendium of International and Regional Legal Instruments published online as part of this Toolkit.

** Tool 1 on "Security Sector Governance, Security Sector Reform and Gender" discusses Women, Peace and Security NAPs in more detail.

Examples

- ◆ Reported cases of sexual and/or gender-based harassment and the proportion of victims who received redress within a reasonable time.
- ◆ Proportion of women (and other target groups) in operational positions within a security sector institution.
- ◆ Promotions attained by women (and other target groups) at senior levels within a security sector institution.

Indicators based on the Women, Peace and Security Agenda*

More than 80 countries now have a NAP on Women, Peace and Security, and there are 11 regional action plans and various organizational action plans.⁷ NAPs and regional action plans may include indicators that can be incorporated in national- and institutional-level security and justice programming. Existing reporting under the NAP can also be a source of analysis and data for programme design.

A number of multinational indicators frameworks for Women, Peace and Security have been developed. Some of these indicators are relevant for monitoring gender equality in the security and justice sector, and could be integrated into project monitoring frameworks.

At the UN level, in 2010 at the request of the Security Council a Technical Working Group proposed a set of 26 indicators, each linked to specific issues addressed by UNSCR 1325 (2000) and UNSCR 1820 (2008) (see Table 6).

* For further discussion read the Policy Brief on “A Security Sector Governance Approach to Women, Peace and Security”.

Table 6: Global indicators for UNSCR 1325

1	Incidence of sexual violence in conflict-affected countries
2	Extent to which UN peacekeeping and special political missions include information on violations of women's and girls' human rights in their periodic reporting
3(a)	Number of violations of women's and girls' human rights that are reported, referred and investigated by human rights bodies
3(b)	Inclusion of representatives of women's civil society organizations in the governance and leadership of human rights bodies
4	Percentage of reported cases of sexual exploitation and abuse allegedly perpetrated by uniformed and civilian peacekeepers and humanitarian workers that are referred, investigated and acted upon
5(a)	Number and percentage of directives for peacekeepers issued by heads of military components and standard operating procedures that include measures to protect women's and girls' human rights
5(b)	Number and percentage of military manuals, national security policy frameworks, codes of conduct and standard operating procedures/protocols of national security forces that include measures to protect women's and girls' human rights
6	Number and type of actions taken by the Security Council related to resolution 1325 (2000), including those that prevent and address violations of the human rights of women and girls in conflict-affected situations
7	Number and proportion of women in decision-making roles in relevant regional organizations involved in preventing conflict
8	Number and percentage of peace agreements with specific provisions to improve the security and status of women and girls
9	Number and percentage of women in senior UN decision-making positions in conflict-affected countries
10	Level of gender expertise in UN decision-making in conflict-affected countries
11(a)	Level of participation of women in formal peace negotiations
11(b)	Presence of women in a formal observer or consultative status at the beginning and the end of peace negotiations

12	Level of women's political participation in conflict-affected countries
13	Number and percentage of Security Council missions that address specific issues affecting women and girls in their terms of reference and the mission reports
14	Index of women's and girls' physical security
15	Extent to which national laws protect women's and girls' human rights in line with international standards
16	Level of women's participation in the justice and security sector in conflict-affected countries
17	Existence of national mechanisms for control of small arms and lights weapons
18	Women as a percentage of the adults employed in early economic recovery pro-grammes
19	Number and percentage of cases of sexual violence against women and girls that are referred, investigated and sentenced
20	Number and percentage of courts equipped to try cases of violations of women's and girls' human rights, with due attention to victims' security
21(a)	Maternal mortality
21(b)	Primary and secondary education enrolment rates disaggregated by sex
22	Extent to which strategic planning frameworks in conflict-affected countries incorporate gender analysis, targets, indicators and budgets
23	Proportion of the allocated and disbursed funding to civil society organizations, including women's groups, that is spent on gender issues in conflict-affected countries
24	Actual allocated and disbursed funding in support of programmes that address gender-sensitive relief, recovery, peace and security programmes in conflict-affected countries
25(a)	Number and percentage of transitional justice mechanisms called for by peace processes that include provisions to address the rights and participation of women and girls in their mandates
25(b)	Number and percentage of women and girls receiving benefits through reparation programmes, and types of benefits received
26	Number and percentage of female ex-combatants, women and girls associated with armed forces or groups that receive benefits from disarmament, demobilization and reintegration programmes

For an explanation of each of these indicators see UN Secretary-General (2010) "Women and peace and security", UN Doc. S/2010/173, New York: UN Security Council.

In 2017 the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security and the Peace Research Institute Oslo published the Women, Peace and Security Index, ranking 153 countries.* The index uses three dimensions – inclusion, justice and security – as the basis upon which to measure women's well-being. Indicators from the index relevant to the security and justice sector include the following.

- ◆ **Parliamentary representation** (*inclusion dimension*)
Percentage of seats held by women in lower and upper houses of national parliament.
- ◆ **Legal discrimination** (*justice dimension*)
Aggregate score for laws and regulations that limit women's ability to participate in society or the economy, or that differentiate between men and women.
- ◆ **Intimate partner violence** (*security dimension*)
Percentage of women who experienced physical or sexual violence committed by their intimate partner in the previous 12 months.
- ◆ **Perception of community safety** (*security dimension*)
Percentage of women aged 15 years and older who report that they "feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live".

* Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security and Peace Research Institute Oslo (2019) "Women, Peace and Security Index 2019/20", Washington, DC: GIWPS and PRIO, p. 12.

♦ **Organized violence** (*security dimension*)

Average annual number of battle deaths from state-based, non-state and one-sided conflicts per 100,000 people between 2016 and 2018.

As a third example, in 2015, Women in International Security and the Belgrade Centre for Security Policy published a “1325 Scorecard” with a set of indicators and a scoring framework to evaluate how well NATO member states are implementing the principles of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda within their armed forces.* For projects involving military forces, institutions and operations, its indicators can be particularly useful.

Indicators based on the Sustainable Development Goals

In 2015 the international community united on a shared vision for peace and prosperity for all people and the planet with the adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The 2030 Agenda identifies 17 interconnected SDGs.

This Toolkit’s Policy Brief on “The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, the Security Sector and Gender Equality” discusses the role that the security and justice sector plays in achieving the goals of the 2030 Agenda, in particular SDG 5 and SDG 16. SDG 16 aims to “Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.” SDG 5 aims to “Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.”

The SDGs have been translated into 169 targets, against which 232 indicators have been identified. These targets and indicators, particularly those for SDG 16 and SDG 5, can, depending upon the size and scope of a project, be incorporated into security and justice programming. Where not, they can nonetheless provide inspiration for other targets and indicators.^

While the indicators for SDG 16 refer to disaggregating data only by sex and age, where possible and appropriate data should also be disaggregated by other factors, as discussed in section 4.2.

4.4 Choosing a project’s data collection methods

Many methods can be used to collect monitoring data appropriate to the size and scope of the project. Commonly, projects rely upon document review: examining reports, minutes, records of events, etc. Table 7 presents other options, with examples.

Data collection can be a time- and cost-intensive exercise. Data collection methods should be realistic, and should be an integral part of project planning to ensure the appropriate resources (human, financial and material) are available and allocated (discussed under “financial and human resources” on page 36).

Due to the hierarchical and political nature of many state and non-state security and justice institutions, measures to facilitate access to information needed for monitoring may be necessary, such as formal requests and meetings with leadership.

When planning data collection, consider intersecting aspects of group and individual identities. Take, for example, an indicator intended to collect data about male police officers’ attitudes towards corruption. A single focus group composed of male officers may have a very different discussion than two separate groups – one composed of senior male police and another of low-ranked male police. Likewise, if one were collecting data on women’s experiences as prisoners, surveys of women selected randomly might produce very different findings than surveys targeting women from minority ethnic groups. Moreover, the gender of those collecting the data may play a role in the process.

* Women in International Security (2015) “The 1325 Scorecard”, www.wiisglobal.org/programs/unscr-1325-nato/.

^ There are many resources dedicated to SDG monitoring, a number of which are listed in section 7. The SDG indicators can be found at UN Statistics Division (2019) “SDG indicators: Global indicators framework for the Sustainable Development Goals and targets of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”, UN Docs A/RES/71/313, E/CN.3/2018/2, E/CN.3/2019/2.

Table 7: Summary of key data collection methods with examples

Method	Objective	Benefits	Difficulties	Techniques	Example
Survey (quantitative)	To understand how often or to what extent To generalize to the whole population	Efficient and economical Anonymity and confidentiality	Non-response bias (those who respond differ in meaningful ways from those who do not)	Mailed questionnaire Online questionnaire Telephone questionnaire Face-to-face questionnaire	<i>Example: Surveys completed by recent recruits asking questions about their experiences in basic training can reveal perceptions of fairness and inclusion</i>
Interview (qualitative)	To get an in-depth understanding of how and/or why	Obtain rich, in-depth data	Inefficient use of time and resources Interviewer effects Generalizability	In person Over the phone	<i>Example: Interviews with persons who have visited a family member at a detention centre can provide very specific details about their experiences</i>
Focus group (qualitative)	To gather a wide range of responses	Diverse views on a topic	Quality of facilitation Sensitivity of the topic Validity and generalizability	Facilitated group interview with individuals who have something in common Gathers information about combined perspectives and opinions Responses are often coded into categories and analysed thematically	<i>Example: Focus groups with men and with women living in border communities can provide information about the behaviours of immigration officers at the border towards men and women</i>

Adapted from S. Crompvoets (2019) *Gender-Responsive Organizational Climate Assessment in Armed Forces*, Geneva: DCAF, pp. 31–32.

For projects at the national level it may be beneficial to contact the national statistics office of the country concerned, as it may already be collecting data useful for the project.

Ethics*

Whatever method is used to collect data for project monitoring, a *do no harm* approach is essential. This includes considering what is often described as research ethics, key principles of which include the following.⁸

- ◆ **Informed consent.** Individuals providing personal demographic information must be given sufficient information about the purpose, risks and benefits associated with the data collection process to enable them to decide whether or not to participate.
- ◆ **Confidentiality.** Human rights require that measures are taken within any project to manage sensitive data appropriately and prevent misuse of data. Privacy and confidentiality must be ensured to all individuals participating in data collection.

* Ethics, including participant consent, confidentiality and risk assessment when collecting information from people, is discussed in more detail in the DCAF handbook: S. Crompvoets (2019) *Gender-Responsive Organizational Climate Assessment in Armed Forces*, Geneva: DCAF.

- ◆ **Anonymity.** If the data collection process commits to anonymity, ensure that a risk analysis is undertaken to determine whether or not anonymity can realistically be guaranteed throughout data collection and analysis. Often, data labelled as anonymous can be used to reidentify individuals once analysed together with other information.

These considerations are particularly important when collecting data from or about stigmatized communities of individuals, such as people belonging to ethnic or religious minorities, LGBTI individuals or persons who have been victims of sexual violence.

Data collectors should be trained on research ethics, confidentiality and data storage and protection. Measures may be needed to ensure the safety of data collectors, and of individuals who provide information. Careful consideration needs to be given as to what monitoring data are shared with external stakeholders.

Financial and human resources for project monitoring

Allocation of significant resources to support monitoring is essential, but often neglected. Generalizable, valid and reliable data, such as good survey data on community perceptions of security, can be costly to collect but highly relevant to tracking progress in long-term outcomes. The need to monitor change means that data collection must take place repeatedly, which can involve significant costs. Data collection also implies significant investment of time to analyse data if they are to be interpreted and used to inform project direction and development.

In security and justice sector institutions like the armed forces or the police, projects to promote gender equality, and hence project monitoring activities, are often additional to the existing responsibilities of project staff. Project planning should consider:

- ◆ measures to ensure that project staff have the time required within the context of their daily work to collect data, including beyond capital cities and headquarters
- ◆ what existing data collection processes within the institution might facilitate project monitoring
- ◆ approvals required from senior commands to ensure that directives are handed down the chain of command to enable the collection of data.

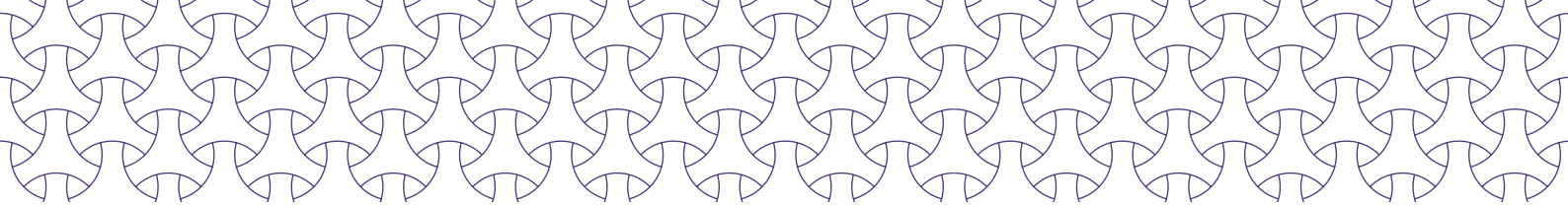
Data collectors need to have a strong shared understanding of the gender-related concepts connected to the data they are gathering. Their own gender bias and gender-based stereotypes may affect how data are collected. In a project focused on sexual harassment within the police, for example, an officer may be assigned to collect data on the number of complaints filed. If that officer is unclear about the definition of sexual harassment, she or he may incorrectly categorize complaints reviewed. Project planning may need to include time and resources for training of individuals responsible for collecting data. Alternatively, bringing in external expertise at strategic moments during the monitoring process can be considered.

Additional financial, human and material resources may be required to ensure the data are managed in a secure and efficient manner throughout the duration of the project. The capacity of the project to store and manage data can have an influence on the scope and scale of monitoring activities. When the project closes, any data collected should be disposed of appropriately, which again may require resources.

Endnotes

1. I. T. Winkler and M. L. Satterthwaite (2017) "Leaving no one behind? Persistent inequalities in the SDGs", *International Journal of Human Rights*, 21(8), pp. 1073–1097 at p. 1076.
2. This is also an important issue in relation to disability. The Washington Group on Disability Statistics, established under the UN Statistical Commission, provides data collection tools to make data on disability comparable throughout the world: Washington Group on Disability Statistics (2019) "Frequently asked questions", www.washingtongroup-disability.com/frequently-asked-questions (accessed 7 November 2019).
3. Winkler and Satterthwaite, note 1 above, pp. 1086–1088.
4. UNDP (2009) *Handbook on Planning, Monitoring and Evaluating for Development Results*, New York: UNDP, p. 58.
5. European Commission Directorate-General for International Cooperation Development (2017) "Concept Paper No. 5: Indicators to measure social protection performance – Implications for EC programming", Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, p. 22.
6. Adapted from UN OHCHR (2012) *Human Rights Indicators: A Guide to Measurement and Implementation*, New York and Geneva: UN; B. Feiring, F. Thornberry and A. Hassler (2017) "Human rights and data: Tools and resources for sustainable development", Copenhagen: Danish Institute for Human Rights.
7. WILPF (2019) "Member states", PeaceWomen, www.peacewomen.org/member-states (accessed 7 November 2019).
8. Winkler and Satterthwaite, note 1 above, pp. 1086–1088.





5. Evaluation and learning in security and justice sector programming: how to integrate gender

The strategic purposes of project evaluation are to demonstrate learning and validate results, and to provide credible and reliable evidence for decision-making. Evaluation commonly is conducted at the end of a project (a summative evaluation), but can also be conducted throughout the project (formative evaluation). Evaluation can focus on how the project achieves its intended outcomes or impacts; or it can attempt to determine how successfully the project followed the strategy laid out in its logic model (a process evaluation).

Monitoring and evaluation are often discussed together but in fact are different, as explained in Table 8. Nonetheless, many organizations understand the fundamental link between project design, monitoring, and evaluation, and how these elements are forms of accountability and learning (see Box 6).

Table 8: Differences between monitoring and evaluation

	Monitoring	Evaluation
Definition	Systematic tracking of project impact against planned goals and indicators	Systematic and objective assessment of expected and achieved results, aimed at determining the relevance, impact, effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability of interventions
Purpose	For learning, decision-making and accountability	For learning, decision-making and accountability
Who conducts	Project team and implementing partner(s)	Independent or external consultant or a unit from the organization that is external to the project team
Timing	Ongoing throughout the life cycle of the project	Specific points in the project's life cycle: baseline, mid-terms, end of project or years after end of project
Type and source of information	Quantitative or qualitative; primary data from the project, as well as secondary data	Quantitative and/or qualitative Primary and secondary data
Types of analyses	Tracks impact of outputs and changes at the outcome and, to the extent possible, impact levels Tracks timely and effective undertaking of activities and availability of required inputs	Triangulation to measure achievement and contribution towards outcomes and impact Different frameworks for analysis Ultimately makes a judgement of effectiveness
Use	Can lead to changes in project planning and budget	Can lead to changes in strategic direction of project, project planning and budget, organizational change, resource allocations and innovation

Adapted from: UN Women Independent Evaluation Office (2015) *How to Manage Gender-Responsive Evaluation*, New York: UN Women.

Image: Olga Scripovskaia, who led the largest team within the OSCE Special Monitoring Mission to Ukraine, was credited as instrumental in introducing diversity to male-dominated meetings with security actors, 2017 © OSCE/Cliff Volpe.

Learning is a critical aspect of programming for advancing gender equality in the security and justice sector because long-term change is difficult to measure. The fundamental purpose of project learning is to recognize and understand where project activities have succeeded and failed. If the project failed in some way, learning allows the organization to investigate these failings deeply to understand better what could be done differently. This requires organizations to embrace failure for the purpose of learning, to adapt programmes being implemented and to change approaches for the future. While this may be the intent within many organizations, too often once a project has started, pressure to “demonstrate results” means that very little adaptation is undertaken, and once an evaluation is conducted, “lessons learned” are noted but approaches are never adapted.

It is important that the evaluation of projects seeking to advance gender equality in the security and justice sector prioritizes the learning aspect of evaluation. In finding out what works in advancing gender equality it is critical to know also what does not work. There are many existing resources on gender-responsive evaluation (listed in Section 7). As such, this Tool covers this content relatively briefly: it highlights key evaluation criteria, presents a range of different evaluation methodologies, and sets out some considerations as regards planning and resourcing evaluation and learning.

Box 6: Oxfam International’s feminist monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning approach

Oxfam International has a well-developed process to understand better how to apply feminist principles to its monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning approach. Its internal reflections stem from a 2013 articulation of feminist principles to guide programme learning seeking transformation of unequal gender and power relations that lead to discrimination. Oxfam recognizes that a transformative approach requires the contributions of all, in particular the meaningful participation of women.

Source: S. Wakefield and D. Koerppen (2017) “Applying feminist principles to program monitoring, evaluation, accountability and learning”, New York: Oxfam, p. 3

5.1 Evaluation criteria and questions

When conducting an evaluation, or commissioning an evaluation for a programme, a number of sets of evaluation criteria developed by multilateral organizations can be adopted or adapted.

The OECD-DAC’s evaluation criteria are:*

- ◆ **relevance** (to what extent are objectives of the programme still valid to the security actor?)
- ◆ **effectiveness** (to what extent were the objectives of the programme achieved?)
- ◆ **efficiency** (were the activities cost-efficient?)
- ◆ **impact** (what has happened as a result of the programme?)
- ◆ **sustainability** (to what extent did the benefits of the programme continue after donor funding ceased?).

* OECD-DAC Network on Development Evaluation (2019) “DAC criteria for evaluating development assistance”, www.oecd.org/dac/evaluation/dac-criteriaforevaluating-developmentassistance.htm (accessed 7 November 2019).

The OSCE uses the OECD-DAC criteria, but has added two further criteria:

- ◆ **coherence** (was the project complementary to other interventions of the OSCE?)
- ◆ **added value** (what difference did the OSCE's undertaking of the project make?).¹

The UN Evaluation Group likewise uses the OECD-DAC criteria as well as a set of “norms and standards for evaluation”. One of these norms is “Human rights and gender equality”:

The universally recognized values and principles of human rights and gender equality need to be integrated into all stages of an evaluation. It is the responsibility of evaluators and evaluation managers to ensure that these values are respected, addressed and promoted, underpinning the commitment to the principle of “no-one left behind”.

* UN Evaluation Group (2016)
“Norms and standards for
evaluation”, New York: UNEG,
p. 12.

The best way to conduct an evaluation that will produce as much learning as possible is to ensure the evaluation questions are well formulated and specific, as they will guide, frame and provide the scope of the evaluation. Normally there should not be more than five evaluation questions, to enable the evaluator(s) to study each question in depth and provide substantive results. If one of the key outcomes of a project is related to advancing gender equality or women's empowerment, it is wise to ensure that at least one of the five evaluation questions is related to this. To limit the number of questions used by the evaluators, the project team and key stakeholders, women and men, should work together to decide upon the most important issues they want addressed in the evaluation, accepting that it will not be possible to answer all questions.

5.2 Choosing a project's evaluation and learning methods

Once the evaluation questions are identified, research methods for collecting the information can be determined. Methods used to collect data for project monitoring purposes, outlined in section 4.4, can also be used for evaluations. Depending on the size and scope of the evaluation, there may be an opportunity to use other qualitative research methods, such as those shown in Table 9.

Financial and human resources for project evaluation and learning

As is the case for monitoring, sufficient human resources capacity, financial resources and time are required to conduct evaluations and ensure that learning is shared and incorporated in future phases of the programme or the design of new programmes. If evaluation and learning are not budgeted, all too often they do not occur.

Evaluations can be carried out by external evaluators or by internal evaluators who already have an existing association with the project/organization. There are pros and cons of each approach. The former is associated with greater independence and is therefore often treated as more credible, but is likely to be more costly. The latter benefits from the evaluation being led by people who know the ins and outs of the project, and can therefore produce more actionable results.

A common weakness in evaluation of security and justice programming is omitting gender expertise from the criteria used to select the evaluator. Evaluators often have expertise in security and justice, but not in gender equality programming. Where this is the case, an expert in gender and evaluation should be added to the evaluation team.

Finally, a strategy should be developed as to how the results of the evaluation will be shared with project partners and other stakeholders, with attention to how it is shared with women, men and other specific groups. It is important to demonstrate to all who participate in the project, including in the monitoring and evaluation processes, how the

information collected was used. It is also important to share learning on security and justice and gender equality interventions with the wider local, national and global communities of practice striving to improve security and justice for individuals. The more we all learn from programming and share this learning, positive and negative, the more able the security and justice sector can become to achieve and support gender equality.

Table 9: Examples of research methods for evaluation

		<i>Further information available at</i>
Outcome Harvesting	This method does not start with predetermined outcomes and measure progress towards them, but rather collects evidence of what has been achieved and works backwards to determine whether and how the project contributed to that change.	Saferworld (2016) "Doing things differently: Rethinking monitoring and evaluation to understand change", London: Saferworld.
Appreciative Inquiry (AI)	A process that leverages an organization's "positive core" strengths rather than seeking to overcome or minimize its weaknesses by using a "4D cycle" (discovery, dream, design and destiny) and a "whole system" approach.	D. Cooperrider and Associates "What is appreciative inquiry?", www.davidcooperrider.com/ai-process/ (accessed 7 November 2019).
Most Significant Change (MSC)	A participatory process that involves the collection of significant change stories from the field level, and systematic selection of the most significant of these stories by panels of designated stakeholders tasked with "searching" for project impact. Once these significant change stories are collected, people sit together, read the stories aloud and have regular and in-depth discussion about the value of these reported changes.	R. Davies and J. Dart (2005) "The 'most significant change' (MSC) technique: A guide to its use".
Beneficiary Assessment	The objective is to assess the value of an activity as perceived by project beneficiaries and integrate findings into project activities. It specifically undertakes systematic listening by giving voice to the priorities and concerns of beneficiaries.	L. F. Salmen (1995) "Beneficiary assessment: An approach described", Environment Department Working Papers No. 23, Washington, DC: World Bank.
Institutional Histories	A narrative that records key points about how institutional arrangements – new ways of working – have evolved over time and created and contributed to more effective ways to achieve project goals.	Better Evaluation website, www.betterevaluation.org (accessed 7 November 2019).
Randomized Controlled Trial (RCT)	A type of impact evaluation using randomized access to the programme as a means of limiting bias and generating an internally valid impact estimate. It compares outcomes between the group which benefits from the project and those which do not.	Better Evaluation website, www.betterevaluation.org (accessed 7 November 2019).

Endnotes

1. S. Lust (2010) *Project Management in the OSCE: A Manual for Programme and Project Managers*, Vienna: OSCE, p. 97.



6. Guiding questions for institutional self-assessment

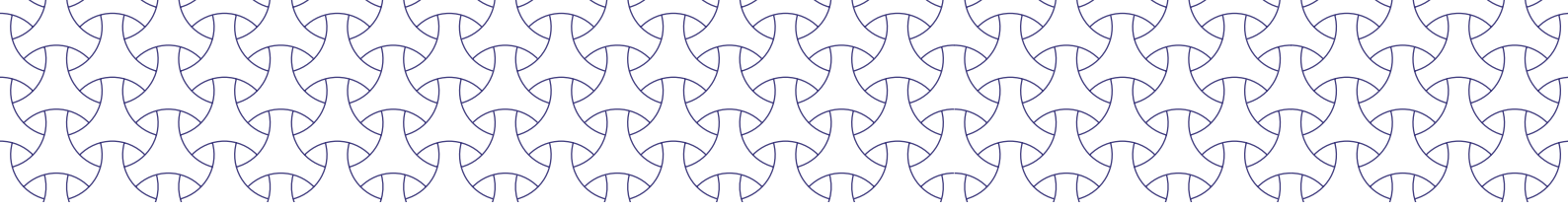
These guiding questions are intended to help an institution to assess its existing processes in terms of integrating a gender perspective in the design and monitoring of programmes and projects for the security and justice sector. They are not an exhaustive set of questions and should be developed and adapted for each institutional context.

Other resources to support institutional self-assessment are listed in section 7.

Questions	Examples of data/processes to be analysed
Does your institution conduct gender analyses (or integrate a gender analysis in your analysis tool) to inform programme or project design?	Programme or project management frameworks
Does your institution develop a theory of change for every project?	Programme or project management frameworks
Does your institution include specific budget lines for monitoring activities in project budgets?	Project budgets
Does your institution ensure that all data collected for monitoring and evaluation are disaggregated by sex?	Project monitoring frameworks
Does your institution ensure that data collected for monitoring and evaluation are disaggregated by other categories?	Project monitoring frameworks
Does your institution include evaluations in project budgets?	Project monitoring frameworks
Does your institution conduct evaluations for all programmes and projects?	Programme or project management frameworks
Does your institution integrate a gender perspective in its evaluations of projects?	Programme or project management frameworks
Does your institution ensure that project management systems respect the principle of gender equality and equal opportunities?	Programme or project management frameworks
Does your organization have a mechanism to ensure that learning from evaluations (and projects in general) is integrated into the design of new projects?	Programme or project management frameworks
Does your organization provide internal training for staff on gender analysis?	Records of internal training provided to staff
Does your organization have a culture of evaluation and learning?	Documentation of processes by which analyses, theories of change and monitoring frameworks are reviewed Programme or project evaluations

Image: Thai police cadets participating in the Police Cadet Academy's first-ever training on ending violence against women and girls, 2012
© UN Women/Panya Janjira.





7. Additional resources

Gender analysis and political economy analysis

Barnes Robinson, K. and Cordaid (2016) *Handbook on Integrating Gender in Peacebuilding and Statebuilding*, The Hague: Cordaid.

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

Bell, M. (2017) “Data collection in relation to LGBTI people”, Luxemburg: European Union.

CARE (2019) “Rapid gender analysis”, <https://insights.careinternational.org.uk/in-practice/rapid-gender-analysis>.

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

Cromptvoets, S. (2019) *Gender-Responsive Organizational Climate Assessment in Armed Forces*, Geneva: DCAF.

Denney, L. (2016) “Using political economy analysis in conflict, security and justice programmes”, London: ODI.

Denney, L. and P. Domingo (2017) “Political economy analysis: Guidance for legal technical assistance”, London: Role UK Rule of Law Expertise.

Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict (2015) “Conflict analysis framework: Field guidelines and procedures”, The Hague: Global Partnership for the Prevention of Armed Conflict.

Haines, R. and T. O’Neil (2018) “Putting gender in political economy analysis: Why it matters and how to do it”, London: Gender and Development Network.

International Labour Organization (2012) *A Manual for Gender Audit Facilitators: The ILO Participatory Gender Audit Methodology*, 2nd edn, Geneva: ILO.

OSCE/ODIHR (2009) “Gender and early warning systems: An introduction”, Warsaw: OSCE.

OSCE/ODIHR (2017) *Making Laws Work for Women and Men: A Practical Guide to Gender-Sensitive Legislation*, Warsaw: OSCE.

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

Image: Irlanda Pop, Mayor of Lanquín, a municipality in the Alta Verapaz department of Guatemala, was in 2018 the only indigenous Mayor and one of only ten female Mayors in the country. She participated in the IV Ibero-American Summit of Local Gender Agendas, leading an exchange between women leaders of different indigenous communities about political participation of indigenous women and how to address violence against women in politics © UN Women/Ryan Brown

UNDP (2016) *How to Conduct a Gender Analysis: A Guidance Note for UNDP Staff*, New York: UNDP.

UN Office on Drugs and Crime (2006) *Criminal Justice Assessment Toolkit*, Vienna: UNODC.

Vera Institute of Justice (2003) *Measure Progress Toward Safety and Justice: A Global Guide to the Design of Performance Indicators Across the Justice Sector*, New York: Vera Institute of Justice.

Monitoring and evaluation

Badgett, M. V. L. and R. Sell (2018) "A set of proposed indicators for the LGBTI inclusion index", New York: UNDP.

Evaluation Office/ILO (2019) *Guidance Note 4: Integrating Gender Equality in Monitoring and Evaluation of Projects*, Geneva: ILO.

Group of Experts on Action against Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (GREVIO) (2016) "Questionnaire on legislative and other measures giving effect to the provisions of the Council of Europe *Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (Istanbul Convention)*", Strasbourg Cedex: Council of Europe.

Saferworld (2016) "Doing things differently: Rethinking monitoring and evaluation to understand change", London: Saferworld.

Stephens, A., E. D. Lewis and S. Reddy (2018) *Inclusive Systemic Evaluation (ISE4GEMs): A New Approach for the SDG Era*, New York: UN Women.

UN Evaluation Group (2014) *Integrating Human Rights and Gender Equality in Evaluations*, New York: UNEG.

UN Women (2015) *How to Manage Gender-Responsive Evaluation*, New York: UN Women.

Washington Group on Disability Statistics, www.washingtongroup-disability.com

Sources of statistics and indicators related to gender

Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security and Peace Research Institute Oslo, "Women, Peace, and Security Index", <https://giwps.georgetown.edu/the-index/>

Harvard Kennedy School Women and Public Policy Program, "Gender action portal", http://gap.hks.harvard.edu/?mc_cid=92cb093509&mc_eid=f566387e2b

Inter-Parliamentary Union, "Women in national parliaments", <http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif-arc.htm>

OECD, "Gender data portal", www.oecd.org/gender/data/

OECD, "Gender, institutions and development database", <https://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?datasetcode=GIDDB2014>

OECD, "Social institutions & gender index", www.genderindex.org/

Ritchie, H., M. Roser, J. Mispy and E. Ortiz-Ospina (2018) "Measuring progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals", <https://sdg-tracker.org/>

UNDP, “Gender inequality index (GII)”, <http://hdr.undp.org/en/data>

UN Statistics Division, “Minimum set of gender indicators”, <https://genderstats.un.org/#/home>

UN Women, “Global database on violence against women”, <http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en>

US Agency for International Development DHS Program, “Demographic and health surveys – Gender”, <https://dhsprogram.com/topics/gender/index.cfm>

WikiGender, “Statistics”, www.wikigender.org/statistics/

WomanStats Project, “WomanStats database”, www.womanstats.org/

World Bank, “Gender data portal”, <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/>

World Economic Forum (2018) “Global gender gap report 2018”, <https://www.weforum.org/reports/the-global-gender-gap-report-2018>

Sources for general statistics

Sustainable Development Goals Helpdesk, “Data portals”, <https://sdghelpdesk.unescap.org/>

UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, “Global SDG indicators database”, <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>

UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, “UN system SDGs action database”, <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/unsurvey/index.html>

UN Economic Commission for Africa, “Datasets and publications”, <https://ecastats.uneca.org/data/Default.aspx>

UN Economic Commission for Europe, “Statistical database”, <https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb/en>

UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, “Data and statistics”, www.cepal.org/en/datos-y-estadisticas

UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, “Statistics division”, http://data.unescap.org/escap_stat/

UN Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia, “Statistics information portal”, www.unescwa.org/sub-site/statistics-information-portal

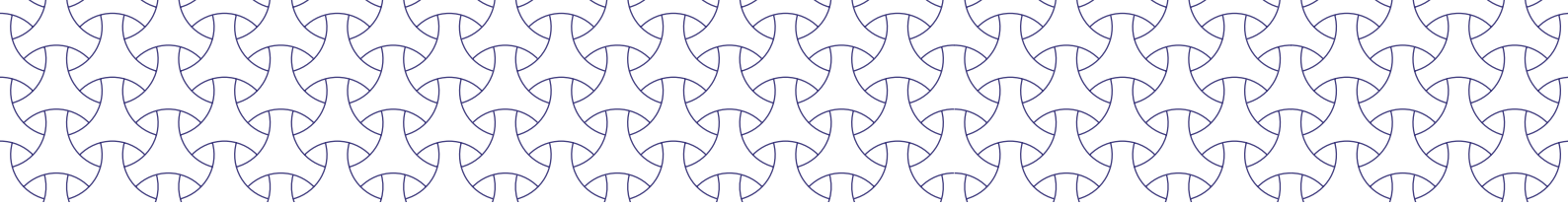
UNHCR, “Population statistics”, <http://popstats.unhcr.org/en/overview>

UN Statistics Division, “National statistics systems”, by country, <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/dnss/cp/searchcp.aspx>

US Agency for International Development, “DHS program”, <https://dhsprogram.com/>

World Bank, “World Bank open data”, <https://data.worldbank.org/>





Annex 1: Examples of gender-related indicators for the security and justice sector

This annex gives examples of indicators for projects related to advancing gender equality or integrating a gender perspective in the security and justice sector. Some are quantitative, some qualitative. As explained in this Tool, indicators are always best developed when derived directly from a project's theory of change and its gender analysis. These examples are not an exhaustive list, nor should they be copied and pasted directly into a monitoring framework. Among other things, the list does not indicate at which level the indicator should be used – in the short term, medium term or long term.

1. Building support for gender equality within the institution

Percentage of members of senior leadership who attended an awareness-raising activity (disaggregated by sex, rank, department and any other relevant factor)

Percentage of members of senior leadership who increased their (self-reported or tested) level of understanding of gender equality (compared to baseline: their level of understanding at the commencement of the project)

2. Leadership

Number and types of actions initiated by leadership to improve institutional culture (towards promoting gender equality)

Number and types of public addresses made by leadership where gender equality and a gender perspective are the focus or are mentioned

Number and types of actions initiated by leadership to support women's, LGBTI or other staff associations of the organization

3. Representation of women (or gender balance)

Ratio of women compared to men, and compared to (for example) national data on women working and ratio of women in other public agencies

Ratio of women (and other identified underrepresented groups) in leadership roles, compared to men (or other dominant groups)

Rate of turnover of women (and other identified underrepresented groups) in the institution, compared to men (or other dominant groups).

Existence of discriminatory practices and other formal and informal barriers to women (and other identified underrepresented groups) in promotions

Existence of adapted requirements for physical fitness tests for women

Existence of targeted institutional mechanisms to increase the skills and capacity of women (and other identified underrepresented groups)

Image: Participants at "Voices against violence" curriculum training learn how to develop an advocacy campaign or community-based project to prevent a specific form of violence that they have identified as a priority
© UN Women/Urjasi Rudra.

4. Representation of LGBTI people

Percentage of personnel who self-identify as LGBTI (compared to national or best available data on percentage of LGBTI people within working-age population)

Number of complaints received of homophobic or transphobic discrimination or harassment

5. Human resources policies and procedures

Existence and quality of policies and procedures to prevent and respond to gender-related harassment, discrimination, bullying and abuse

Number and types of actions taken to adapt job descriptions so posts are accessible to all people, including women and other underrepresented groups

Number and types of actions taken to adapt training and professional development opportunities so they are accessible to all personnel, including women and other underrepresented groups

Extent to which performance assessments include objectives and criteria related to integrating a gender perspective

Extent to which gender training is a requirement for recruitment and/or professional development

6. Gender policies (or gender strategies, action plans, etc.)

Extent to which the policy uses inclusive language regarding women, girls, men, boys and LGBTI persons

Number and type of representative organizations consulted to develop the policy

Existence of an implementation plan to accompany the policy, with clear actions, timeline, distribution of responsibilities, budget and review mechanism, etc.

7. Gender training

Percentage of training participants who increased their (self-reported or tested) level of understanding of how to integrate a gender perspective in their daily tasks (disaggregated by sex, rank, department, region and other relevant factors)

Extent to which participants can explain the different impacts of their work on women, girls, men and boys, and any other target groups within these groups

8. Gender Focal Points and Gender Advisers

Existence of terms of reference/standard operating procedure/budget for the role of Gender Focal Point/Gender Adviser

Types of activities (and frequency) undertaken by the Gender Focal Point/Gender Adviser

Number of types of request for support/advice/training received by the Gender Focal Point/Gender Adviser

9. Security sector reform process

Extent to which the SSR process meaningfully consults different groups within the population, including women's civil society organizations, women's human rights defenders and victims' organizations

Extent to which the SSR process meaningfully includes the Ministry of Women's Affairs (or similar ministry) and parliamentary women's caucus

Extent to which a national security policy and national security strategy/action plan refer to gender equality and gendered security needs

Extent to which the SSR process refers to law on gender equality (e.g. in frameworks, terms of reference, policies, communications, etc.)

Extent to which gender training is a requirement for recruitment and/or professional development

10. Violence against women*

Total and age-specific percentage of women subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency

Total and age-specific percentage of women subjected to physical violence during their lifetime by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency

Total and age-specific percentage of women subjected to sexual violence in the last 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency

Total and age-specific percentage of ever-partnered women subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months by frequency

Total and age-specific percentage of ever-partnered women subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner during their lifetime by frequency

Total and age-specific percentage of women subjected to psychological violence by the intimate partner in the past 12 months

Total and age-specific percentage of women subjected to economic violence by the intimate partner in the past 12 months

Total and age-specific percentage of women subjected to female genital mutilation

11. Security services

Prevalence of use of mixed gender teams (that include women and men) in operations

Prevalence of consideration of a written gender analysis in operational planning processes

Reported satisfaction with the security service (e.g. policing, border service), disaggregated by sex and age (and other relevant characteristics)

Perception of the role of security actors in different communities (disaggregated by sex, age, reported community membership and other relevant factors)

12. Justice system^

Extent to which case management statistics and reporting are disaggregated by sex and age (and other relevant characteristics)

Extent to which case management statistics and reporting identify different forms of GBV

Extent to which transitional and restorative justice processes actively recognize and address GBV

Extent to which women participate and are represented in transitional and restorative justice processes

13. Civil society engagement

Types and frequency of formal and informal consultation and dialogue between community organizations and security actors

Number and types of community outreach activities made in the last year

14. Parliamentary oversight of the security sector

Frequency with which a gender analysis of a new law or a budget is discussed within parliament (including at committee level)

Ratio of women to men in the security and/or defence committee (compared to ratio of women in parliament and ratio of women in other parliamentary committees)

* UN Economic and Social Council (2010) "Report of the Friends of the Chair of the UN Statistical Commission on indicators on violence against women", Aguascalientes: Statistical Commission, ESA/STAT/AC.193/L.3, pp. 3–4.

^ Further examples of indicators for justice reform can be found in DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW (2008) *Gender and Security Sector Reform Toolkit*, Geneva: DCAF, Tool 11, "Security Sector Reform Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation and Gender".

15. Oversight of the security sector by ombuds institutions and national human rights institutions

Percentage of complaints received from women (or other target groups) compared to percentage within overall population (disaggregated by sex, rank, department and other relevant factors)
Types of complaints received from women and men or other target groups (disaggregated by sex, rank, department, region and other relevant factors)
Inquiries or recommendations conveyed to security sector institutions related to women, LGBTI persons or other identified groups of personnel
Frequency with which women's staff associations and women's civil society organizations are consulted in face-to-face meetings

