

Goal 5 Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

(Updated on 31 March 2016)

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Target 5.1 End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere.

Indicator 5.1.1: Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex

From UN-WOMEN:

Targets 5.1:	End all forms of discrimination against women and girls everywhere
Indicator 5.1.1:	Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex
Definition:	<p>Indicator 5.1.1 measures whether or not: 1) national laws exist to promote gender equality and non-discrimination against women and girls and 2) there exist mechanisms to ‘enforce and monitor’ the implementation of legal frameworks for each area of law.</p> <p>Note: Based on the Beijing Plus 20 review and the work of the CEDAW Committee, possible areas of law to be included under the indicator could be the definition of discrimination against women, equal pay for work of equal value, work prohibitions, family leave, inheritance/property, nationality, marriage and divorce, violence against women, quotas, pensions and legal capacity.</p> <p>A concept paper has been commissioned to explore the various areas of laws that could be monitored and the justification for each area as well as a discussion on possible elements that could be captured to measure the ‘enforce and monitor’ component of the indicator.</p>
Method of computation:	<p>The indicator is a Tier III indicator, as such method of computation will need to be developed.</p> <p>UN Women has begun working on a methodology through a series of activities, including (i) a concept paper on areas of law that could be covered and the justification for each; (ii) an Expert Group Meeting during the first half of 2016 to propose the areas of law covered by the indicator and way forward in terms of data</p>

	collection and monitoring and reporting of results; (iii) presentation of the findings and proposed methodology to the IAEG-SDGs in first quarter of 2017.
Unit:	Per cent (%).
Disaggregation:	Disaggregation by area of law.
Suitability:	<p>Removing discriminatory laws and putting in place laws that promote gender equality is a prerequisite to ending discrimination against women and girls.</p> <p>Most of the indicators proposed to monitor the targets in SDG5 and the gender-related indicators to monitor the targets in the other goals focus on outcomes. By focusing on laws, it is possible to juxtapose the different areas of law that are measured under 5.1 (e.g. laws to prevent sexual assault) to the actual ‘results’ (rates of sexual violence against women and girls as measured in target 5.2). Therefore, the proposed focus on laws is meant to complement the outcome indicators proposed under the other targets in Goal 5 and the gender-related targets in other goals.</p>
Sources and data collection:	<p>There are a number of global databases that collect national level information on laws that promote gender equality. Two well-known examples are:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) The World Bank’s Women Business and the Law database. The database looks at various areas, including laws and regulations that prevent women from improving their own well-being and that of their families. The data is collected at the national level and validated with primary sources. Data is collected for 173 countries. 2) OECD’s Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI). The database maintained by the SIGI project uses qualitative and quantitative data to measure discrimination at national level in laws. Data is collected for 160 countries. <p>The Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women is the body of independent experts that monitors implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). During each of its regular sessions the Committee considers reports from States parties to the CEDAW on their progress in adhering to the Convention, including in many area of laws.</p>

Limitations:	The overarching and all-encompassing nature of the target makes it difficult to measure using a single indicator. Therefore the indicator is a proxy measure and only addresses part of the target. The proposed focus on laws can however be useful to complement the outcome indicators proposed under the other targets in Goal 5 and the gender-related targets in other goals.
Policy relevance:	Despite progress, discriminatory constitutional and legislative provisions continue in many countries, including in family, divorce and personal laws, penal codes, nationality laws, and laws relating to inheritance and ownership and control over land and other resources. In 1995 in the Beijing Platform for Action, States pledged to revoke any remaining laws that discriminate on the basis of sex. In 2000, during the five-year review of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action by the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly, States committed to reviewing legislation with a view to striving to remove discriminatory provisions against women as soon as possible, preferably by 2005. This target has not been achieved and is long overdue. Action is required to finally end legal discrimination against women and ensure there are strong legal frameworks in place to advance gender equality.
References:	http://wbl.worldbank.org/aboutus http://www.genderindex.org/

Target 5.2 Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.

Indicator 5.2.1: Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age

From UN-Women and UNFPA

Definition:

The different forms of violence included in the indicator are defined as follows:

- 1. Physical violence consists of acts aimed at physically hurting the victim and include, but are not limited to, pushing, grabbing, twisting the arm, pulling the hair, slapping, kicking, biting or hitting with the fist or object, trying to strangle or**

suffocate, burning or scalding on purpose, or threatening or attacking with some sort of weapon, gun or knife.

2. **Sexual violence is defined as any sort of harmful or unwanted sexual behavior that is imposed on someone. It includes acts of abusive sexual contact, forced engagement in sexual acts, attempted or completed sexual acts without consent, incest, sexual harassment, etc. In intimate partner relationships, experiencing sexual violence is commonly defined as being forced to have sexual intercourse, having sexual intercourse out of fear for what the partner might do, and/or being forced to do something sexual that the woman considers humiliating or degrading.**
3. **Psychological violence includes a range of behaviors that encompass acts of emotional abuse and controlling behavior. These often coexist with acts of physical and sexual violence by intimate partners and are acts of violence in themselves.**

For a more detailed definition of physical, sexual and psychological violence against women see *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women- Statistical Surveys* (UN, 2014).

Method of computation:

This indicator calls for disaggregation by form of violence and by age group and yields the following sub-indicators for each form of violence.

1) Sub-indicator 1 (physical violence):¹

$$\frac{\text{Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) who experience physical violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months}}{\text{Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above)}} \times 100$$

2) Sub-indicator 2 (sexual violence):²

$$\frac{\text{Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) who experience sexual violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months}}{\text{Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above)}} \times 100$$

3) Sub-indicator 3 (physical and/or sexual violence):³

$$\frac{\text{Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) who experience physical and/or sexual⁴ violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months}}{\text{Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above)}} \times 100$$

¹ Aligned to the Friends of the Chair indicator I: Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to physical violence in the past 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency.

² Aligned to Friends of the Chair indicator III: Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to sexual violence in the past 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency.

³ Aligned to Friends of the Chair indicator V: Total and age-specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the past 12 months by frequency.

⁴ Includes (i) women and girls who experience only physical violence; (ii) women and girls who experience only sexual violence and (iii) women and girls who experience both physical and sexual violence.

Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above)

4) Sub-indicator 4 (psychological violence):⁵

Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) who experience psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months x100

Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above)

For each one of the above sub-indicators data will be disaggregated by age, as per the table below:

Age	Any partner (current or former intimate partner)								
	Total ever-partnered women and girls N	Physical violence		Sexual violence		Physical and/or sexual violence		Psychological violence	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
15-19									
20-24									
25-29									
30-34									
35-39									
40-44									
45-49									
50-54									
55-59									
60+									
TOTAL									

Unit: Percentage

Sources, data collection and production of aggregates:

Source: The main sources of intimate partner violence prevalence data are (1) national surveys dedicated to measuring violence against women and (2) broader surveys that include a module of questions on experiences of violence by women, mainly the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and to a lesser extent other surveys, such as Reproductive Health Surveys and Crime Victimization Surveys.

Although administrative data from health, police, courts, justice and social services, among other services used by survivors of violence, can provide information on violence against women and girls, these do not produce prevalence data, but rather incidence data or number of cases received in/reported to these services. We know that many abused women do not report violence and those who do, tend to be only the most serious cases.⁶ Therefore, administrative data should not be used as a data source for this indicator.

⁵ Aligned to Friends of the Chair indicator VII: Total and age-specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to psychological violence in the past 12 months by an intimate partner.

⁶ In the majority of countries with available data, less than 40 per cent of the women who experience violence seek help of any sort. Among women who do, most look to family and friends and very few look to formal institutions and mechanisms, such as police and health services. Less than 10 per cent of those women seeking help for experience of violence sought help by appealing to the police (UN, 2015, p. 159).

Data collection: Availability of data on violence against women has increased significantly in recent years. Since 1995, more than 100 countries have conducted at least one survey addressing the issue. More than 40 countries conducted at least two surveys in the period between 1995 and 2014 (UN, 2015). **These surveys collect data on all forms of violence required for this indicator. However, not all collect data for women aged 15 and above; in some cases the lower age limit of 18 is used instead of 15 and in many other cases, data are available only for the 15-49 age group.**⁷

Production of aggregated regional and global data: Given that to date only a number of countries have available data on intimate partner violence and given that national data are expected to become available at a slow pace, the calculation of regional and global aggregates is expected to be a challenge. In particular, aggregates for the age groups 15-19 and for those above 49 will be challenging to produce in the short term.

Disaggregation:

Required: form of violence and age.

Additional desirable disaggregation: income, education, ethnicity (including indigenous status), disability status, geographic location, frequency of violence.⁸

Suitability:

Over the past decade, there has been a rapid growth in the body of research evidence on intimate partner violence. This is, in part, a result of a growing consensus on how best to measure women's exposure to intimate partner violence through household surveys, while also taking into consideration ethical and safety issues. Also, knowledge and practice relating to this form of violence is better developed relative to other forms of violence against women and girls.

Evidence has shown that intimate partner violence is among the most prevalence forms of violence against women and girls globally, with an estimated one in three women worldwide having experienced physical or sexual violence at some point in their lives, mostly by an intimate partner (WHO et al., 2013).

Global and regional estimates of lifetime intimate partner violence by age group, suggest that this violence is prevalent among all age groups, with some variations in the magnitude. Estimated prevalence ranged from 15.1% in the 55-59 age group to 37.8% in the 40-44 age group. Estimated prevalence was 29.4% in the youngest age group (15-19) and 22.2% in the eldest one (56-69) (WHO et al., 2013).

Evidence suggests that women with disabilities are at significantly higher risk of experiencing violence,⁹ including violence by an intimate partner,¹⁰ as well as women from ethnic

⁷ See "limitations" section for further discussion on disaggregation by age.

⁸ See 'relevance/suitability' section for further discussion on desirable disaggregation categories.

⁹ 2012 Annual Report to the General Assembly of the Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, its Causes and Consequences- Report on violence against women with disabilities; Astbury, J, Walji, F. Triple Jeopardy: Gender-based violence and human rights violations experienced by women with disabilities in Cambodia. AusAid Research Working Paper 1, January 2013.

¹⁰ A survey on violence against women conducted in 2012 in the 28 European Union countries (FRA, 2014) found that 34% of women with disabilities had ever experienced physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner, compared to 19% of women without disabilities.

minorities.¹¹ Furthermore, although evidence is inconclusive, income and geographic location have been associated with increased risk of violence by an intimate partner.¹²

Frequency of violence is a variable for disaggregation suggested by the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission on indicators on violence against women.¹³ Having information on this indicator will help understand women's risk of and vulnerability to violence and potential consequences of this violence.

Therefore, it is essential that we **understand the different forms of intimate partner violence experienced by all women and girls, of different ages and characteristics, so that policies and programmes are developed that address and tailor the specific realities and needs of all women and girls.**

Limitations:

(1) Comparability of data

There are still many countries who do not have available data on intimate partner violence. Among those who do, data cannot always be compared. Surveys sometimes use different definitions of intimate partner, of the different forms of violence, they use different methodologies to collect data, or they use different age groups. And these differences occur between surveys conducted in the same country and between surveys conducted across different countries. Worth noting is that while the measurement of physical violence is quite robust and comparable, sexual violence measure is not as robust and comparable, and psychological violence measure poses greater challenges in terms of comparability.

(2) Disaggregation of data

Although available data are not always presented disaggregated by age and the types of violence suggested for this indicator, age and type of violence are collected in most of the existing surveys and this disaggregated data can be easily obtained.

Dedicated surveys on violence against women are increasingly collecting data for women aged 15 and above, without setting an upper age limit (see FRA, 2014). However, for many countries surveys on broader topics that include a module on violence against women are the main source of data on violence against women and they are limited to women aged 15-49 (e.g. DHS). Efforts will therefore be required to ensure dedicated surveys are increasingly used as the main source of data and to revise, if feasible, the age range of those surveys that include a module on violence.

Although income and geographic location are usually collected in any violence against women survey, the other characteristics suggested for disaggregation are not systematically collected in all surveys and it may be challenging to include them in upcoming surveys.

Additionally, adding too many levels of disaggregation will compromise the statistical power of certain data due to low prevalence of different types of violence in certain groups.

(3) Capacity to implement surveys on violence against women

¹¹ Tokuç B, Ekuklu G and Avcioglu S (2010). Domestic violence against married women in Edirne. *J Interpers Violence* 25:832-846.

¹² Income and geographic location are usually collected in most household surveys on violence against women.

¹³ Adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission in 2009, E/CN.3/2009/29.

Because prevalence studies on violence against women require very specific technical capacities, knowledge and experience,¹⁴ national studies often rely heavily on external expertise, which can be problematic. Outside consultants tend to be expensive; there is a limited pool to select from, and this dependence on external support may diminish country ownership of the results and the possibilities to repeat the surveys over time. Therefore, capacity building of national statistics offices to ensure capacity to collect reliable data regularly, is an urgent priority to produce regular and reliable data on this indicator.

(4) Regularity of data production

To date, only some 40 countries have conducted more than one survey on violence against women. Obtaining data on violence against women is a costly and time consuming exercise, no matter if they are obtained through stand-alone dedicated surveys or through modules inserted in other surveys. DHS are conducted every 5 years at the best and dedicated surveys, if repeated, it is with less periodicity than this. Monitoring this indicator with certain periodicity may be a challenge if sustained capacities are not built and financial resources are not available.

Policy connections:

Prevalence data are required to measure the magnitude of the problem; understand the various types of violence and their consequences; identify groups at high risk and their particular conditions; explore the barriers to seeking help; and ensure that the appropriate responses are being provided. These data are the starting point for informing laws, policies, and developing effective responses and programmes, as needed. They also allow countries to monitor change over time and assess the effectiveness of their interventions.

Supplementary information and references

References

1. FRA (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights), 2014. Violence against women: an EU-wide survey.
2. United Nations, 2014. Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women-Statistical Surveys.
3. United Nations, 2015. The World's Women 2015, Trends and Statistics.
4. World Health Organization, Department of Reproductive Health and Research, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, South African Medical Research Council, 2013. Global and regional estimates of violence against women: prevalence and health effects of intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence.

Supplementary information

¹⁴ VAW is a sensitive issue. Implementing a survey on violence against women that produces reliable data has various methodological and ethical implications. For example, it is important that the interviewers are well trained in the interviewing methods (including ethical principles) and establish a rapport with the women being interviewed and make them feel safe to speak openly about their experiences, in order for the data to present a realistic picture. Also, failure to adhere to ethical and safety standards can compromise the quality of the data and put respondents and interviewers at risk. Implementing a survey on violence against women will require the existence of support services to refer women who disclose a history of violence. Also, sampling methods need to ensure women are not put at risk by being selected to complete a survey. All these methodological and ethical and safety issues, among others equally relevant, are addressed in the Guidelines referred to above (UN, 2014), and should be considered to ensure reliability of the data.

1. Domestic violence module of the Demographic and Health Survey.
2. Ellsberg, M., Heise, L. PATH, World Health Organization, 2005. Researching Violence against Women: A Practical Guide for Researchers and Activists.
3. Garcia-Moreno C, Jansen HAFM, et al., 2005. WHO multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence. Initial results on prevalence, health outcomes and women's responses.
4. UNECE Survey Module on Violence against Women and accompanying materials.
5. UNFPA/Jansen, H.A.F.M., 2010. Swimming against the Tide: Lessons Learned from Field Research on Violence against Women in Solomon Islands and Kiribati.
6. World Health Organization, 2001. Putting women first: Ethical and safety recommendations for research on domestic violence against women.

Indicator 5.2.2: Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence

From UN-Women and UNFPA

Definition:

Sexual violence is defined as harmful or unwanted sexual behavior that is imposed on someone. It includes acts of abusive sexual contact, forced engagement in sexual acts, attempted or completed sexual acts without consent, incest, sexual harassment, etc. However, in most surveys that collect data on sexual violence against women by non-partners the information collected is limited to forcing someone into sexual intercourse when she does not want to, as well as attempting to force someone to perform a sexual act against her will or attempting to force her into sexual intercourse.

For a more detailed definition of sexual violence against women see *Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women- Statistical Surveys* (UN, 2014).

Method of computation:

This indicator¹⁵ calls for disaggregation by age group and place of occurrence. No standard definitions and methods have been globally agreed yet to collect data on the place where the violence occurs, therefore this is not presented at this point in the formula and table below. See “disaggregation” section below for a more detailed discussion on this point.

Number of women and girls (aged 15 years and above) who experience sexual violence
by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months x100

15 Aligned to Friends of the Chair indicator III: Total and age-specific rate of women subjected to sexual violence in the past 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency.

Number of women and girls (aged 15 years and above)

Data will be disaggregated by age, as per the table below:

15-19		
20-24		
25-29		
30-34		
35-39		
40-44		
45-49		
50-54		
55-59		
60+		
TOTAL		

Unit: Percentage

Sources, data collection and production of aggregates:

Source: The main sources of non-partner sexual violence prevalence data are (1) national surveys dedicated to measuring violence against women and (2) broader surveys that include a module of questions on experiences of violence by women, mainly the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and to a lesser extent other surveys, such as Reproductive Health Surveys and Crime Victimization Surveys.

Although administrative data from health, police, courts, justice and social services, among other services used by survivors of violence, can provide information on violence against women and girls, these do not produce prevalence data, but rather incidence data or number of cases received in/reported to these services. We know that many abused women do not report violence and those who do, tend to be only the most serious cases.¹⁶ Therefore, administrative data should not be used as a data source for this indicator.

Data collection: Availability of data on violence against women has increased significantly in recent years. Since 1995, more than 100 countries have conducted at least one survey addressing the issue. More than 40 countries conducted at least two surveys in the period between 1995 and 2014 (UN, 2015). **It should be noted, however, that not all collect data for women aged 15 and above; in some cases the lower age limit of 18 is used instead of 15, and in other many cases, data are available only for the 15-49 age group.**¹⁷

Production of aggregated regional and global data: Given that to date only a number of countries have available data on non-partner sexual violence and given that national data are expected to become available at a slow pace, the calculation of regional and global aggregates is

¹⁶ In the majority of countries with available data, less than 40 per cent of the women who experience violence seek help of any sort. Among women who do, most look to family and friends and very few look to formal institutions and mechanisms, such as police and health services. Less than 10 per cent of those women seeking help for experience of violence sought help by appealing to the police (UN, 2015, p. 159).

¹⁷ See "limitations" section for further discussion on disaggregation by age.

expected to be a challenge. In particular, aggregates for the age groups 15-19 and for those above 49 will be challenging to produce in the short term.

Disaggregation:

Required: age and place of occurrence.¹⁸

Additional desirable disaggregation: income, education, ethnicity (including indigenous status), disability status, geographic location, relationship with the perpetrator (including sex of perpetrator), frequency and severity of the violence.¹⁹

Suitability:

Over the past decade, there has been a rapid growth in the body of research evidence on violence against women, including non-partner sexual violence. As with intimate partner violence, this is, in part, a result of a growing consensus on how best to measure women's exposure to non-partner sexual assault through household surveys, while also taking into consideration ethical and safety issues. Also, knowledge and practice relating to this form of violence is better developed relative to other forms of violence against women and girls.

Evidence has shown that globally, 7% of women have been sexually assaulted by someone other than a partner at some point in their lives (WHO et al., 2013). Unfortunately, global age-specific prevalence rates for non-partner sexual violence are not easily available. Age disaggregated data is needed in order to better understand the association between age and non-partner sexual violence, including differences in vulnerability to this form of violence throughout the life course.

Although little evidence exists on the place of occurrence of non-partner sexual assault, literature suggests that in some contexts, the prevalence of sexual assault in public spaces is high.²⁰ Furthermore, more knowledge is needed on the extent of sexual violence in the workplace, school and other spaces where it is estimated that this violence also occurs (FRA, 2014).

Evidence suggests that women with disabilities are at significantly higher risk of experiencing violence,²¹ as well as women from ethnic minorities.²² Furthermore, although evidence is inconclusive, income and geographic location have been associated with increased risk of violence against women.²³

Relationship with the perpetrator (including sex of perpetrator) and severity and frequency of violence were variables for disaggregation suggested by the Friends of the Chair of the United

¹⁸ See "limitations" section for further discussion on disaggregation by place of occurrence.

¹⁹ See 'suitability' section for further discussion on desirable disaggregation categories.

²⁰ In London, a 2012 study revealed that 43% of young women experienced some form of street harassment in 2011 (Ending Violence Against Women Coalition, 2012); In New Delhi, India, a study published in 2010 showed that almost two out of every three women faced sexual harassment between 2-5 times in the past year, and that the largest number of incidents took place on the roadside, followed by public transport, waiting for public transport and at market place (New Concept & Jagori, 2010).

²¹ 2012 Annual Report to the General Assembly of the Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, its Causes and Consequences- Report on violence against women with disabilities; Astbury, J, Walji, F. Triple Jeopardy: Gender-based violence and human rights violations experienced by women with disabilities in Cambodia. AusAid Research Working Paper 1, January 2013; FRA, 2014.

²² Tokuç B, Ekuklu G and Avcioglu S (2010). Domestic violence against married women in Edirne. J Interpers Violence 25:832-846.

²³ Income and geographic location are usually collected in most household surveys on violence against women.

Nations Statistical Commission on indicators on violence against women.²⁴ Having information on these indicators will help understand women's risk of and vulnerability to violence and potential consequences of this violence, respectively.

Therefore, it is essential that data on non-partner sexual violence are disaggregated by these characteristics, **so that policies and programmes are developed that address and tailor the specific realities and needs of all women and girls.**

Limitations:

(5) Comparability of data

There are still many countries who do not have available data on non-partner sexual violence. Among those who do, data cannot always be compared. Surveys sometimes use different definitions of sexual violence, they use different methodologies to collect data, or they use different age groups. And these differences occur between surveys conducted in the same country and between surveys conducted across different countries.

(6) Disaggregation of data

Although available data are not always presented disaggregated by age for this indicator (because percentages are very small for each cell), age is collected in most of the existing surveys.

Dedicated surveys on violence against women are increasingly collecting data for women aged 15 and above, without setting an upper age limit (see FRA, 2014). However, for many countries surveys on broader topics that include a module on violence against women are the main source of data on violence against women and they are limited to women aged 15-49 (e.g. DHS). Efforts will therefore be required to ensure dedicated surveys are increasingly used as the main source of data and to revise, if feasible, the age range of those surveys that include a module on violence.

Regarding the required disaggregation by place of occurrence, as mentioned before, further work will be required to develop definitions and methods for data collection on this variable. Worth noting is that the study conducted in the European Union included place of occurrence for certain forms of non-partner violence, including sexual violence (FRA, 2014).

Although income and geographic location are usually collected in any violence against women survey, as well as the severity of the violence and the relationship with the perpetrator, the other characteristics suggested for disaggregation are not systematically collected in all surveys.

Additionally, adding too many levels of disaggregation will compromise the statistical power of certain data due to low numbers in certain groups.

(7) Capacity to implement surveys on violence against women

Because prevalence studies on violence against women require very specific technical capacities, knowledge and experience,²⁵ national studies often rely heavily on external expertise, which can

²⁴ Adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission in 2009, E/CN.3/2009/29.

²⁵ VAW is a sensitive issue. Implementing a survey on violence against women that produces reliable data has various methodological and ethical implications. For example, it is important that the interviewers are well trained in the interviewing methods (including ethical principles) and establish a rapport with the women being interviewed and make them feel safe to speak openly about their experiences, in order for the data to present a realistic picture. Also, failure to adhere to ethical and safety standards can compromise the quality of the data and put respondents and interviewers at risk. Implementing a survey on violence against women will require the existence of support services to refer women who disclose a history of violence. Also, sampling

be problematic. Outside consultants tend to be expensive; there is a limited pool to select from, and this dependence on external support may diminish country ownership of the results and the possibilities to repeat the surveys over time. Therefore, capacity building of national statistics offices to ensure capacity to collect reliable data regularly, is an urgent priority to produce regular and reliable data on this indicator.

(8) Regularity of data production

To date, only some 40 countries have conducted more than one survey on violence against women. Obtaining data on violence against women is a costly and time consuming exercise, no matter if they are obtained through stand-alone dedicated surveys or through modules inserted in other surveys. DHS are conducted every 5 years at the best and dedicated surveys, if repeated, it is with less periodicity than this. Monitoring this indicator with certain periodicity may be a challenge if sustained capacities are not built and financial resources are not available.

(9) Measurement of sexual violence

In most available surveys on violence against women, only some aspect of sexual violence are captured. Sexual violence against women by non-partners is usually defined as forcing someone into sexual intercourse when she does not want to, as well as attempting to force someone to perform a sexual act against her will or attempting to force her into sexual intercourse. Other important areas of sexual violence, such as acts of sexual harassment, including unwelcome remarks/jokes of sexual nature that are offensive, unwanted attempts to stroke, fondle, grab or kiss, and indecent exposure are less widely captured and measured in available surveys on violence against women. Consideration may be given to have a separate sub-indicator on sexual harassment.

Policy connections:

Prevalence data are required to measure the magnitude of the problem; understand the various types of violence and their consequences; identify groups at high risk and their particular conditions; explore the barriers to seeking help; and ensure that the appropriate responses are being provided. These data are the starting point for informing laws, policies, and developing effective responses and programmes, as needed. They also allow countries to monitor change over time and assess the effectiveness of their interventions.

Supplementary information and references

References

5. FRA (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights), 2014. Violence against women: an EU-wide survey.
6. United Nations, 2014. Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women-Statistical Surveys.
7. United Nations, 2015. The World's Women 2015, Trends and Statistics.

methods need to ensure women are not put at risk by being selected to complete a survey. All these methodological and ethical and safety issues, among others equally relevant, are addressed in the Guidelines referred to above (UN, 2014), and should be considered to ensure reliability of the data.

8. World Health Organization, Department of Reproductive Health and Research, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, South African Medical Research Council, 2013. Global and regional estimates of violence against women: prevalence and health effects of intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence.

Supplementary information

7. Domestic violence module of the Demographic and Health Survey.
8. Ellsberg, M., Heise, L. PATH, World Health Organization, 2005. Researching Violence against Women: A Practical Guide for Researchers and Activists.
9. Garcia-Moreno C, Jansen HAFM, et al., 2005. WHO multi-country study on women's health and domestic violence. Initial results on prevalence, health outcomes and women's responses.
10. UNECE Survey Module on Violence against Women and accompanying materials.
11. UNFPA/Jansen, H.A.F.M., 2010. Swimming against the Tide: Lessons Learned from Field Research on Violence against Women in Solomon Islands and Kiribati.
12. World Health Organization, 2001. Putting women first: Ethical and safety recommendations for research on domestic violence against women.

Target 5.3 Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.

Indicator 5.3.1: Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18

From UNICEF:

Definition and method of computation

This indicator provides the proportion of women aged 20 to 24 years who were first married or in union by age 18. It is calculated by dividing the number of women aged 20-24 who were first married or in union by age 18 by the total number of women aged 20-24 in the population.

Rationale and interpretation

Marriage before the age of 18 is a fundamental violation of human rights. Child marriage often compromises a girl's development by resulting in early pregnancy and social isolation, interrupting her schooling, limiting her opportunities for career and vocational advancement and placing her at increased risk of intimate partner violence. In many cultures, girls reaching puberty are expected to assume gender roles associated with womanhood. These include entering a union and becoming a mother.

The issue of child marriage is addressed in a number of international conventions and agreements: The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (Article 16); Universal Declaration of Human Rights; Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages; African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child; and the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa. Although marriage is not mentioned directly in the Convention on the Rights of the Child, child marriage is linked to other rights – such as the right to freedom of expression, the right to protection from all forms of abuse, and the right to be protected from harmful traditional practices.

Sources and data collection

Household surveys such as UNICEF-supported MICS and DHS have been collecting data on this indicator in low- and middle-income countries since around the late 1980s. In some countries, such data are also collected through national censuses or other national household surveys.

Disaggregation

Data are available by place of residence, wealth quintiles, education and other background characteristics.

Comments and limitations

There are existing tools and mechanisms for data collection that countries have implemented to monitor the situation with regards to this indicator. The modules used to collect information on

marital status among women and men of reproductive age (15-49 years) in the DHS and MICS have been fully harmonized.

Gender equality issues

The practice of early/child marriage is a direct manifestation of gender inequality.

Data for global and regional monitoring

UNICEF has estimates for the percentage of women aged 20-24 who were first married or in union before age 18, disaggregated by place of residence and wealth quintile for the world as a whole and by (flexible) regional groupings. The global and regional estimates are based on available data from 113 countries.

Supplementary information and references

UNICEF website on child marriage data:

<http://data.unicef.org/child-protection/child-marriage.html>

UNICEF 2014 brochure – Ending Child Marriage: Progress and prospects

http://data.unicef.org/corecode/uploads/document6/uploaded_pdfs/corecode/Child-Marriage-Brochure-HR_164.pdf

Responsible entities

UNICEF

UNICEF is the agency that currently has the mandate for global monitoring on child marriage indicators within the UN system, as confirmed most recently by the Statistical Commission in 2014 (cf. E/CN.3/2014/18).

Indicator 5.3.2: Proportion of girls and women aged 15-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age

From UNICEF:

Definition and method of computation

This indicator provides the proportion of girls and women aged 15 to 49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C). It is calculated by dividing the number of girls and women aged 15-49 who have undergone FGM/C by the total number of girls and women aged 15-49 in the population.

Rationale and interpretation

FGM/C is a violation of girls' and women's human rights. There is also a large body of literature documenting the adverse health consequences of FGM/C over both the short and long term.

FGM/C is condemned by a number of international treaties and conventions including the Universal Declaration of Human Right (Article 25). FGM/C can also be considered as a form of violence against women, and therefore the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women can be invoked. Similarly, defining it as a form of torture brings it under the rubric of the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman, or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. Moreover, since FGM/C is regarded as a traditional practice prejudicial to the health of children and is, in most cases, performed on minors, it violates the

Convention on the Rights of the Child. Existing national legislation in many countries also include explicit bans against FGM/C.

Sources and data collection

Household surveys such as UNICEF-supported MICS and DHS have been collecting data on this indicator in low- and middle-income countries since the late 1980s. In some countries, such data are also collected through other national household surveys.

Disaggregation

Data are available by many stratifies including age, region, ethnicity, religion, education, place of residence and wealth quintiles.

Comments and limitations

There are existing tools and mechanisms for data collection that countries have implemented to monitor the situation with regards to this indicator. The modules used to collect information on the circumcision status of girls aged 0-14 and women aged 15-49 in the DHS and MICS have been fully harmonized.

Gender equality issues

This issue specifically affects girls and women and is one direct manifestation of gender inequality.

Data for global and regional monitoring

UNICEF has estimates of the percentage of girls and women aged 15 to 49 years who have undergone FGM/C in the 29 countries in which the practice is concentrated in Africa and the Middle Est. Additional data points are expected to be made available in the next few weeks.

Supplementary information and references

UNICEF website on FGM/C data:

<http://data.unicef.org/child-protection/fgmc.html>

UNICEF 2013 report - Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting: A statistical overview and exploration of the dynamics of change:

http://data.unicef.org/corecode/uploads/document6/uploaded_pdfs/corecode/FGMC_Lo_res_Final_26.pdf

Responsible entities

UNICEF.

UNICEF is the agency that currently has the mandate for global monitoring on FGM/C indicators within the UN system, as confirmed most recently by the Statistical Commission in 2014 (cf. E/CN.3/2014/18).

From WHO:

Definition and method of computation

The numerator is the number of women and girls who have undergone a FGM procedure (Type 1 to IV).

The denominator is the number of women and girls in the same population

Rationale and interpretation

Female genital mutilation (FGM) comprises all procedures that involve the partial or total removal of external genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for non-medical reasons [1]. Although it is internationally recognized as a violation of human rights (including: the right to non-discrimination on the grounds of sex; the right to life; the right to the highest attainable standard of health; the right to freedom from torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment; and the rights of the child), and legislation to prohibit the procedure has been put in place in many countries, the practice has still been documented.

WHO classifies FGM into four types: [1]

Type I: Partial or total removal of the clitoris and/or the prepuce (clitoridectomy).

Type II: Partial or total removal of the clitoris and the labia minora, with or without excision of the labia majora (excision).

Type III: Narrowing of the vaginal orifice with the creation of a covering seal by cutting and appositioning the labia minora and/or the labia majora, with or without excision of the clitoris (**infibulation**).

Type IV: All other harmful procedures to the female genitalia for non-medical purposes, for example: pricking, pulling, piercing, incising, scraping and cauterization.

The removal of or damage to healthy, normal genital tissue interferes with the natural functioning of the body and causes several immediate and long-term health consequences.

Sources and data collection

Household surveys

Disaggregation

By type of FGM

Comments and limitations

The indicator will be collected by self-report; thus the identification of type FGM can be difficult; and due to varying social norms, factual disclosure of whether or not the individual has undergone FGM can be difficult to ascertain (eg, depending on the context, a woman/girl may be more or less willing to state that she has undergone the procedure).

Gender equality issues

The broader scope of gender inequality is believed to perpetuate FGM, and violation of human rights by FGM represent the need to monitor the persistence of this harmful practice.

Data for regional and global monitoring

Supplementary information

Women and girls living in diaspora with history of undergoing FGM should be considered in monitoring and evaluation frameworks.

References

1. Eliminating female genital mutilation: an interagency statement UNAIDS, UNDP, UNECA, UNESCO, UNFPA, UNHCHR, UNHCR, UNICEF, UNIFEM, WHO. Geneva, 2008.

Target 5.4 Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.

Indicator 5.4.1: Percentage of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location

From UN-WOMEN:

Target 5.4:	Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies, and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate
Indicator 5.4.1:	Percentage of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age group and location
Definition:	<p>Unpaid domestic and care work activities include the unpaid production of goods for own final consumption, these include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Unpaid work that involves the production of goods for self-consumption (e.g., collecting water or firewood); – Unpaid work that involves the provision of services for self-consumption (e.g., cooking or cleaning as well as person-to-person care for other people); and – ‘Voluntary work’ which consists of service or activity undertaken without pay for the benefit of the community, the environment, and persons other than close relatives or those within the household [1]
Method of computation:	$= (Time\ spent\ in\ unpaid\ care\ and\ domestic\ work) / (total\ time) \times 100$
Unit:	Per cent (%)
Disaggregation:	<p>Required disaggregation: by sex, age group and location (urban/rural)</p> <p>Recommended areas of disaggregation: marital status, income, disability, race/ethnicity etc.</p> <p>Note: As recommended by the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics, this indicator should be disaggregated by tasks and distinguish between person to person care and other household management-related tasks. [4]</p>
Suitability:	The provision of unpaid care and domestic work has a profound implication on our understanding of poverty and well-being. As a result of their socially ascribed roles,

	<p>women and girls do the bulk of unpaid care and domestic work, which includes household maintenance activities such as cooking and cleaning as well as person-to-person care activities such as child and elder care. [3]</p> <p>Producing time use statistics thus contributes to increasing the visibility of women’s work through better statistics on their contribution to the economy – with particular emphasis on the value of goods and services they produce. [2]</p>
Sources:	At the international level, UN Women, UNDP and UNSD have compiled statistics from national and international surveys on time use.
Data collection:	This indicator is generally derived through time use surveys or time use modules in general purpose or labour force surveys. Multi-purpose household surveys can also be used to produce time use statistics, for example through a modular approach [2].
Regional and global aggregates:	<p>Based on data compiled by UN Women in 2015, 75 countries currently have data measuring paid and unpaid work activities. In most cases the survey is national representative, but not all.</p> <p>However, based on an assessment by (Charmes, 2016) the number falls to 63 countries (97 surveys) in total when the following criteria is used:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - surveys conducted at national level, or at least on large samples of different regions in the country (India, China) or at urban level (Iran, Panama), have been taken into account, and not surveys covering only the capital city, - surveys based on a diary, i.e. a questionnaire designed for the collection of time spent in the various activities, per time slots of - at most - one hour (and more usually 10, 15 or 30 minutes slots) along the 24 hours of a day. Living standards surveys collecting data for a limited list of activities (less than 10) and for a reference period of a week or a month have not been taken into account. - surveys based on weekly hours spent, a detailed questionnaire for each eligible household member asking for the number of hours weekly spent (on weekdays, on the one hand, on weekend days, on the other hand) according a detailed list of activities. - surveys using a detailed classification of time-use activities, i.e. one of the international classifications (ICATUS or HETUS), or national classifications based on a systematic classification of the activities. Data collection based a too-short list of activities (less than 10 items) have not been taken into account.
Limitations:	<p>Differences in surveys methodologies across the world present a significant impediment to international comparisons [7]. The main issues are summarized below (see [7] Charmes, Forthcoming for further details):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The diversity of age groups used for data collection on time use: from 5 and 6 (and even 3) to 15, 18 and even 20, with some countries using a maximum age of 65 or 74.

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Classification of activities: Different classifications of activities are used by different country groupings. For example, while the International Trial Classification of Time Use Surveys is mainly used in developing countries in Africa and Asia, the Harmonized European Time Use Survey (HETUS) classification is used in much of Europe and in transition countries. In contrast, in most of Latin America and the Caribbean, the Classification of Time-use activities for Latin America (CAUTAL) is used. Finally in New Zealand and the United States, national classifications are used. A new version of - Capture of weekly and annual (seasonal) variations in time use. Many surveys, especially in developing countries do not capture seasonal variations in time use, limiting the data collection to a duration of one or two months. Others organised the data collection in two, three or four rounds. Most countries organised a rotating sample over the year (an equal share of the total sample is surveyed each month). - Another issue that is too rarely addressed in the survey methodologies is the representativeness of the sample, especially with regard to the non-responses. The persons who are often absent from home (at work or at school for example) will be more difficult to be interviewed. It is therefore necessary to adjust the sample before extrapolating the results to the whole population. This issue is of particular importance when one wants to analyse the global indicators of time use for the whole population of a country, and not only for a sub-category of this population.
<p>Policy relevance:</p>	<p>With the availability of time use statistics on hours spent on paid and unpaid work, the extent of the gender gaps in division of unpaid work can be examined.</p> <p>Based on available data, women devote on average 2.5 more time on unpaid care and domestic work than men: when both paid and unpaid total workloads are combined, women work more than men, resulting in more time poverty for them [4]. On the intergenerational transmission of gender roles, according to ILO (2009) 10 percent of girls aged 5 to 14 perform household chores for 28 hours a week or more, representing approximately twice the hours spent by boys, resulting in lower school attendance. [5]</p>
<p>Supplementary information:</p>	<p>The UN Guide to Producing Statistics on Time Use: Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work aims to serve as a reference tool for countries interested in conducting time-use surveys. It is aimed at facilitating the harmonization of methods and practices in collecting, processing and disseminating time use statistics. [1]</p>
<p>References:</p>	<p>[1] ILO. 2011. Manual on the measurement of volunteer work. International Labour Office. - Geneva: ILO, 2011</p> <p>[1] United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, <i>UN Guide to Producing Statistics on Time Use: Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work</i>, UN, New York, 2005.</p>

[2] UN Women, *Monitoring Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women and Girls in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: Opportunities and Challenges*, UN Women, New York, 2015.

[3] United Nations Statistics Division, *Minimum Set of Gender Indicators*. 2015.

[4] UN Women. *Progress of the World's Women: Transforming Economies, Realizing Rights*. 2015

[5] ILO. *Give girls a chance. Tackling child labour, a key to the future*.

[6] United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, *Guidelines for Harmonising Time Use Survey*, UNECE, Switzerland, 2013.

[7] Background paper for UNDP's Human Development Report Office. *Time use across the world: Findings of a world compilation of time-use surveys*, Charmes, Jacques, forthcoming.

Target 5.5 Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.

Indicator 5.5.1: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments

From UN-WOMEN and IPU:

<p>Goal and target addressed</p>	<p>Goal 5, Targets 5.5: Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.</p>
<p>Indicator 5.5.1</p>	<p>Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments</p>
<p>Definition</p>	<p>Indicator 5.5.1 measures women’s proportional representation in two distinct areas of government: 1) national parliaments and 2) local government.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) In the case of women in national parliaments the indicator covers the single chamber in unicameral parliaments and the lower chamber in bicameral parliaments. It does not cover the upper chamber of bicameral parliaments. 2) With respect to women in local government the indicator refers to the proportion of women holding leadership positions in lower (i.e. sub-national) levels of government. <p><i>Note:</i> The definition for women’s participation in local governments and related concepts on local government are currently under review as part of the ongoing process of developing a standardized measurement of women’s participation in local government. UN Women is leading this process, with involvement of multiple organizations and researchers.</p>
<p>Method of computation</p>	<p>The method of computation for the first part of the indicator on proportion of seats held by women in national parliament is:</p> $= \frac{\text{Number of seats in the single or lower chambers of national parliaments occupied by women}}{\text{Number of seats occupied by women and men}} \times 100$ <p>The method of computation for the second part of the indicator on proportion of seats held by women in local government is:</p>

	$= \frac{\text{Number of positions held by women}}{\text{Number of positions held by women and men}} \times 100$
Unit:	Per cent (%).
Sources:	<p>Data on the proportion of women in parliaments exist for almost all countries in the world and are regularly compiled at the global level by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU).</p> <p>Data on women’s political participation in local government are not systematically collected at the global level. Data are collected at the country level but vary across countries, including in terms of definitions, indicators and sources.</p> <p>UN Women has put in place a process to inform the development of internationally agreed standards on women’s participation in local government. Working with multiple partners from UN and other global, regional and country-level agencies and academia, the following key activities are planned for 2016: (i) concept paper draft by UN Women on developing a standardized measurement of women’s participation in local government, to be shared and discussed with key partners; (ii) an Expert Group Meeting organized by UN Women and key partners, to discuss and decide on a proposed standardized methodology; (iii) testing data compilation forms in selected countries; and (iv) presentation of the findings and proposed methodology to the IAEG-SDGs in first quarter of 2017.</p>
Data collection:	<p>The data on women in parliaments are provided by IPU member parliaments. After each general election or renewal a questionnaire is dispatched by IPU secretariat to parliaments to solicit the latest available data. If no response is provided, other methods are used to obtain the information, such as from the electoral management body and parliamentary web sites. Additional information gathered from other sources is regularly crosschecked with parliament.</p> <p>Data on the proportion of women in local government can be collected through official sources, including (i) electoral records and (ii) administrative data from ministries overseeing local governments. Other sources may include compilations of statistics by national associations of local government.</p> <p>Plans for testing data compilation forms in a few countries are being made as part of the UN Women-led process for developing a standardized methodology for measuring women’s participation in local government.</p>
Regional and global aggregates:	<p>Women in national parliaments: Regional averages are determined by dividing the total number of women members by the total number of seats filled in single or lower chambers of parliament per region. The global average is determined by dividing the total number of women members divided by the total number of seats filled in single or lower chambers in all</p>

	<p>national parliaments.</p> <p>Women in local government: Data compilation at the regional level covers nearly half of countries in the world, including in Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, Asia, and Northern Africa and West Asia. However, in the absence of agreed international standards on women’s participation in local government, the existing methodologies involved in data collection vary among regions and sometimes among countries.</p>
Disaggregation:	Data on women’s participation in local government can be collected by tiers of local government, in which case disaggregation may be possible by tiers of local government.
Suitability:	<p>For the past 30 years, the standard measurement of women’s political participation has focused only on the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments. More recently, the measurement has expanded to include the number of women heads of state and government, as well as women ministers, by country. This indicator has been instrumental in showing that women’s participation in politics is one of the areas of greatest gender inequality, both in developed and developing regions.</p> <p>In many respects, however, the existence and quality of this data has meant that other areas and levels of political participation have been under-reported. Unlike women’s representation in national parliaments, the proportion of women elected to local government seats worldwide remains unknown. The lack of harmonized statistics and a global baseline on women’s participation in local government is a key data gap raised in the Secretary-General’s 2013 Report on “Measures taken and progress achieved in the promotion of women and political participation”.</p> <p>Broadening the focus on women’s political participation to local level political decision-making provides new opportunities for monitoring progress and setbacks of gender equality at the local level.</p> <p>By measuring the proportion of seats held by women in local governments, it will now be possible to capture a more holistic assessment of women’s representation. Furthermore, different dynamics of women’s participation are expected at different levels of government. Local level politics can provide more opportunities for women to be elected because there are more seats available to them than at national levels. Women’s entry into local politics thus has the potential to influence a wide range of policy decisions and local community programmes and more directly impact on communities and citizens’ lives.</p>
Limitations:	<p>Key limitations for:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Component of the indicator that measures ‘women in national parliaments’: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There can be difficulties in obtaining information on by-election results and replacements due to death or resignation. As these

	<p>changes are ad hoc events, they can be more difficult to track.</p> <p>2) Component of the indicator that measures ‘women in local government’:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Countries vary in terms of tiers of local governments and the power, roles and functions associated with each tier. No international standard for how to consistently define and measure participation in ‘local government’ currently exists. <p>Note: In attempting to address some of the challenges with existing data, UN Women is developing a typology of local government structures and conducting a review of current practices in collecting data on women’s participation in local government. These two elements are providing a strong foundation for developing a standardized measurement on women’s participation in local government.</p>
<p>Policy connections:</p>	<p>Women’s political empowerment and leadership is fundamental to gender equality and promotion of inclusive institutions. High quality and comparable data on women’s participation across all levels of government is critical for monitoring progress towards SDG 5 – gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls – overall.</p> <p>IPU’s reliable and frequent collection and reporting on women’s representation in national parliaments over the past three decades has enabled policymakers to track progress in the advancement of women’s political decision-making and raise awareness where progress is slow. These data have influenced research which has shown that women’s inclusion in political processes improves them. Specifically, IPU statistical data combined with qualitative research suggests that women consistently demonstrate political leadership by working across party lines through parliamentary women’s caucuses – even in the most politically combative environments – and by championing issues of gender equality related to targets of SDG 5, such as the elimination of gender-based violence, parental leave and childcare, pensions, gender-equality laws and electoral reform.</p> <p>The measurement of women’s participation in local government is equally vital, as is the documentation of women’s experiences in local-level politics. Women’s entry into local politics has the potential to influence a wide range of policy decisions and local community programmes. There is a widely-held assumption that women elected at the local level are more likely to respond to women’s service provision priorities and directly impact on communities and citizens’ lives, but little empirical evidence to support it. Having available, reliable quantitative data on a global level on the number of women in local government, combined with qualitative research will enable validation of these research assumptions, and give visibility to local women leaders’ contributions.</p> <p>Finally, stronger statistical evidence of where there are greater or fewer women</p>

	<p>elected would indicate where there are shortfalls of women in local government, and therefore where the UN, donors and assistance agencies should strategically allocate resources or approach country-level programming and assistance. Additional evidence provided by disaggregation of data within countries by tiers of government and qualitative assessments in selected settings can add nuance or change the focus of policies.</p>
<p>Supplementary information and references</p>	<p>Economic and Social Council, 2014, <i>Review and appraisal of the implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and the outcomes of the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly Report of the Secretary-General</i>, Paragraph 388, page 104.</p> <p>European Commission. Database on women and men in decision-making (WMID). http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/index_en.htm</p> <p>IPU, 2008, <i>Equality in Politics: A Survey of Men and Women in Parliaments</i></p> <p>IPU, (annual publication) <i>Women in Parliament – the year in review</i>: (http://www.ipu.org/english/perdcls.htm#wmn-year)</p> <p>IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union). Women in national parliaments. www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm</p> <p>United Nations Report of the Secretary-General on Measures taken and progress achieved in the promotion of women and political participation, 2013, A/68/184</p> <p>UNECE. Public life and decision-making database. http://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT_30-GE_05-PublicAnddecision</p> <p>UNECLAC. CEPALSTAT: Databases and statistical publications. http://interwp.cepal.org/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp?idAplicacion=11&idioma=e</p> <p>UNDP, 2014. Gender Equality: Women’s participation and leadership in governments at the local level. Asia and the Pacific 2013. Bangkok, UNDP.</p> <p>UNDP, 2010. Women’s Representation in Local Government in Asia-Pacific. Status Report 2010. Going beyond national targets in monitoring status for MDG 3 on women’s political empowerment.</p> <p>UN Women ‘In Brief: Women’s Leadership and Political Participation.’</p>

Indicator 5.5.2: Proportion of women in managerial positions

From UN-Women:

<p>Definition and method of computation</p>	<p>The indicator proposed measures the proportion of women in leadership positions across a number of areas, including:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • in the executive branch of government: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Number of women Heads of State and Governments as a percentage of total (Tier 1) ○ Number of ministerial positions that are held by women as a percentage of total (Tier 1 – part of Minimum set of gender indicators) ○ Number of leadership positions held by women in local governments as a percentage of total (Tier 3) • in the legislative branch of government: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Number of seats in national parliaments held by women as a percentage of total (Tier 1 – part of Minimum set of gender indicators) • in the judiciary branch of government and law enforcement: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Number of women judges as a percentage of total (Tier 2 – part of Minimum set of gender indicators) ○ Number of women police officers as a percentage of total (Tier 2 – part of Minimum set of gender indicators) <p>; and</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the share of managers in public and private sector enterprises that are women (Tier 1 – part of Minimum set of gender indicators). <p>Some of these data are already collected while others need further development. For example, UN Women routinely collects data on women Heads of State and Government; the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) regularly collects data on the proportion of women ministers and in parliaments; indicators on women in law enforcement are also readily available; and ILO regularly publishes data on women managers using data from national labour force surveys. Data on women’s political participation at the local level have not been as systematically collected at the global level. Measuring women’s participation in local government is important, however, because of the responsibilities of local governments and the significantly higher number of opportunities (that is, seats) available to women candidates at this level. To measure women’s representation in local governments, methodologies and standards are currently being developed by UN Women and United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG).</p>
<p>Rationale and interpretation</p>	<p>Women participate in politics and decision-making at all levels, in different functions and across all spheres. They participate as candidates for local, regional and national elections, members of parliament or local council, heads of state and government, ministers, members of political parties, leaders and managers of business. Capturing an accurate assessment of women’s representation across these different forms of political and economic leadership is a key marker of progress in achieving gender equality and women’s empowerment.</p>
<p>Sources and data collection</p>	<p>Administrative and household surveys, including labour force surveys</p>

Disaggregation	
Comments and limitations	The standard measure of women’s political participation and involvement in decision-making, used to track progress for the Millennium Development Goals, was the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments. This indicator broadens the scope to include many more areas of leadership but several of the indicators (two Tier 2 indicators and one Tier 3 indicator) will need further development.
Gender equality issues	Women’s capacity to influence decision-making, whether in public or private institutions, is intimately linked with gender equality and empowerment. Having a voice and participating in the processes and decisions that determine their lives is an essential aspect of women’s freedoms.
Data for global and regional monitoring	Many of the indicators are part of the minimum set of gender indicators and data are currently available for the Tier 1 components.
Supplementary information	
References	<p>IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union). Women in national parliaments. www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm</p> <p>For data on managers, see International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) and ILO KILM database for cross-country data compilation: http://www.ilo.org/empelm/what/WCMS_114240/lang--en/index.htm</p> <p>Data on judges and police force, see: UNODC compilation of national statistics: https://www.unodc.org/unodc/en/data-and-analysis/United-Nations-Surveys-on-Crime-Trends-and-the-Operations-of-Criminal-Justice-Systems.html</p>

Target 5.6 Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences.

Indicator 5.6.1: Proportion of women aged 15-49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care

From UN-WOMEN:

Rationale:

This is an indicator measuring specific decisions by women (aged 15-49) on their own sexuality and reproduction. Interviewees will have to provide a “yes” answer to all three questions in order to count as a woman who makes her own sexual and reproductive decisions. The first question looks at the ability to say no to sexual intercourse as a critical condition of sexual autonomy. The second question measures the woman’s decision concerning using or not using contraception. The third question measures the woman’s decision about reaching sexual and reproductive healthcare for her.

The three questions are as follows:

1. *Whether a woman can say no to her husband/partner if she does not want to have sexual intercourse (DHS q. 1054)*
2. *Whether using contraception or not using contraception has been mainly the woman’s decision (DHS phase 7 q. 819 and 820)*
3. *Whether a woman can make a decision about sexual and reproductive healthcare for herself (DHS q.922 with added language)*

Denominator:

Women of reproductive age 15-49

Disaggregation:

By age, location, economic quintile, education, marital status (married, in union, unmarried), and disability.

Measurement:

Indicator will be measured through DHS and MICS covering most of low and middle income countries. In developed countries the indicator will be measured through national household surveys

From UNFPA:

The indicator is based on three central elements measuring the empowerment of women (married, in union and ever sexually active women) aged 15-49 to make the following decisions, : (a) whether they are able to reject unwanted sexual relations; (b) using or not using contraception; and (c) whether they can access sexual and reproductive health care for herself.

Methodology

- The methodology for this indicator has been developed by UNFPA in close collaboration with UN Women by building on available information from DHS surveys. These three questions are already included in the DHS: (a) DHS q. 1054; (b) DHS Phase 7, q. 819 & 820; (c) DHS q. 922). In all cases these questions are currently asked to women married or in union. Therefore the denominator will need to be expanded to include ever sexually active women. In the case of the last question, the current DHS question just refers to ‘healthcare for herself’, not specifically SRH care, which will need to be added.
- UNFPA is also compiling and analyzing data from available countries across different regions to understand better how the indicator behaves and whether some additional tweaking will be needed in the formulation of the indicator and its specific components.
- In DHS, the indicator is already disaggregated by location, economic quintile, and education. For the component related to contraceptive use the indicator is also disaggregated by method of contraception. The proposal is to add age, marital status (married, in union, unmarried) and disability.

Country coverage

- For the time being, this indicator is available in approximately 70 countries covered by DHS. Meanwhile, UNFPA is holding conversations with MICS and other organizations to incorporate these questions in other surveys with a view to covering all countries on a global scale. While a combination of DHS and MICS would cover most low and middle-income countries, the possibility to integrate these questions in the *gender and generations survey* run by UNECE in several European countries and World values survey would ensure near universal coverage. A few high middle income countries such as Brazil and Mexico run their own national surveys, which tend to be similar in content to DHS.

Alignment between proposed sub-questions and the concept embodied in this indicator.

- Indicator 5.6.2 measures the level of empowerment of women (aged 15-49 to make sexual and reproductive decisions. UNFPA has held a number of expert consultations on the proposed indicators in which there was a general agreement that the first question of the indicator (whether a woman can say no to a husband/partner if she does not want to have sex) is well aligned with the concept of women’s empowerment.
- With regard to the second question (decision concerning using or not using contraception) the expert views as well as the initial data charts being developed for a number of countries indicate that a more clear understanding of women empowerment is obtained by looking at the indicator from the perspective of decisions being made “mainly by the partner”, as opposed to decision being made “by the woman alone” or “by the woman jointly with the partner”. Depending in the type of contraceptive method being

used, a decision by the woman “alone” or “jointly with the partner” does not always entail that the woman is more empowered or has bargaining skills. Conversely, it is safe to assume that a woman that does not participate in making contraceptive choices is disempowered as far as sexual and reproductive decisions are concerned. A disaggregation by type of contraceptive method will provide a more clear understanding of the level of women’s empowerment, in particular in cases such as condom use or withdrawal for which a woman’s empowerment relies on her bargaining skills.

- With regard to the third question, there is a clear view that a woman’s decision about seeking sexual and reproductive health care is directly related to the concept of empowerment.

Considerations regarding the age range of the indicator

- UNFPA advocates for the expansion of the age range of several indicators in the SDG framework that currently rely on DHS and MICS as primary sources of information. This is critical in order to better assess the health, education and general wellbeing of very young adolescents, particularly adolescent girls aged 10-14, at a critical point in their lives in which they transition from childhood to adulthood and are exposed to specific vulnerabilities that can hamper their physical and emotional integrity and their actual development as empowered rights-holders. While this is a central concern for UNFPA, expanding the age range for indicator 5.6.1 poses particular challenges. On the one hand, household surveys would not be the most appropriate tools to capture this information given the way these surveys are designed and rolled-out. On the other hand, the ability for a very young girl to make sexual and reproductive decisions has to be seen in light of legal considerations such as the “minimum age of consent to sexual relations” and the “evolving capacity of the child”. For instance a very young girl who declares that she can say “yes” to sexual intercourse may not have the level of maturity or the minimum age of consent to make a valid autonomous decision in that regard. Beyond normative and ethical considerations, these legal variables differ a lot from country to country, thus making it difficult to ensure comparability of data. It will be less problematic to capture information on the situation of very young adolescent girls through other indicators such as those related to sexual and gender-based violence (5.2) and child marriage (5.3).

Indicator 5.6.2: Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee women aged 15-49 access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education

From UN-WOMEN:

Legal/regulatory frameworks covered by this indicator include laws and regulations that explicitly guarantee:

1. Access to SRH services without third party authorization (from the spouse, guardian, parents or others);
2. Access to SRH services without restrictions in terms of age and marital status;
3. Access by adolescents to SRH information and education.

Note: the indicator also measures the absence of laws that prohibit or restrict access to SRH services

Denominator: All Member States, for federal states this will be reflected in central governments' self-reporting

Sources of information and methodology:

The suggested methodology consists of initial *self-reporting by governments* through a detailed survey to be developed based on the indicators below with detailed questions that safeguard the replicability and reliability of state responses. This procedure was applied for the ICPD+20 review survey with support to governments from UNFPA's country offices where needed.

The self-reported data will undergo *validation and qualitative assessment by responsible UN agencies* assigned to the task. At this stage other stakeholders and data sources could be consulted, e.g. National Human Rights Institutions, human rights treaty bodies or other international, regional or national monitoring bodies.

Status of indicator:

Some baselines available. This indicator is universally applicable and should therefore be considered as a global indicator.

Proposed research questions:²⁸

1. Access to SRH services without third party authorization (from the spouse, guardian, parents or others)
 - a: Are there national laws, regulations or policies that recognize a person's right to freely decide whether or not to accept health services?
 - b: Are there national laws, regulations or policies requiring someone other than the patient to provide authorization to seek and receive health services? If yes, in what circumstances? Whose authorization is required? What procedures are followed?
 - c: Do national laws, regulations or policies reflect the general principle that once a child has acquired "sufficient maturity and/or understanding" in relation to a particular decision on an important matter, he or she is entitled to make the decision independently?
 - *: Provide a summary of legal/policy provisions relating to informed consent and relating to respecting the best interests, evolving capacities and views of the child.

2. Access to SRH services without restrictions on the basis of age and marital status
 - d: Are there national laws, regulations or policies that explicitly restrict access to SRH services on the basis of minimum age and marital status?
 - *: Provide a summary of legal/policy provisions relating to access to SRH services for adolescents and unmarried women and girls

3. Access by adolescents to SRH information and education
 - e. Are there national laws, regulations or policies ensuring that all individuals have access to health information, including sexual and reproductive health information?

²⁸ Based on WHO: "Reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health and human rights: A toolbox for examining laws, regulations and policies" and the ICPD+20 review survey

f: Are there national laws, regulations or policies that regulate the provision of sexuality education in primary, secondary and higher education institutions, and for adolescents not enrolled in school?

*: Provide a summary of legal/policy provisions relating to universal access to information and comprehensive sexuality education.

From UNFPA:

This indicator measures the proportion of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee women and adolescents access to sexual and reproductive health services, information and education irrespective of age, marital status and without third party authorization.

Methodology and feasibility of data collection

- The indicator will measure the number of countries with legal and regulatory frameworks guaranteeing access to sexual and reproductive services, education and information without any of the above restrictions. Therefore, to count as a “yes” all the four requirements included in this indicator will need to be met: (i) access without third party authorization; (ii) access without age restrictions; (iii) access irrespective of marital status; and (iv) access to education and information at all levels. For countries counting as “no”, nevertheless, data will be disaggregated in accordance to each of those requirements to be able to measure progress on each particular front.

Sources of information and methodology:

- The suggested methodology consists of initial ***self-reporting by governments*** through a detailed survey to be developed based on the indicators below with detailed questions that safeguard the replicability and reliability of state responses. This procedure was successfully applied for the ICPD+20 review survey with support to governments from UNFPA’s country offices where needed.
- Information provided by States can be complemented with information from UN treaty monitoring bodies, including the Committee on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the Committee on the Rights of the Child and the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. These three committees are systematically collecting information and issuing recommendations to State parties on all the issues covered by this indicator. A combined use of these three committees as sources of information will ensure near universal coverage of States and will also increase the periodicity of information.
- Moreover, other actors with a monitoring role such as regional human rights mechanisms, national human rights institutions and civil society organizations often provide information on the components covered by this indicator. UN agencies such as WHO, UNFPA and UN Women also compile country specific information on legal and regulatory developments on issues pertaining to their respective mandates.

Status of indicator:

- Baseline information is already available from WHO on laws and regulations and third party authorization. UNFPA will be gathering additional information on all the other requirements by drawing on the concluding observations issued by the UN treaty monitoring bodies listed above.

Proposed research questions for future surveys with member States:²⁹

1. Access to SRH services without third party authorization (from the spouse, guardian, parents or others)

a: Are there national laws and regulations that recognize a person's right to freely decide whether or not to accept health services?

b: Are there national laws and regulations requiring someone other than the patient/client to provide authorization to seek and receive health services? If yes, in what circumstances? Whose authorization is required? What procedures are followed?

c: Do national laws and regulations reflect the general principle that once a child has acquired "sufficient maturity and/or understanding" in relation to a particular decision on an important matter, he or she is entitled to make the decision independently?

*: Provide a summary of legal provisions relating to informed consent and relating to respecting the best interests, evolving capacities and views of the child.

2. Access to SRH services without restrictions on the basis of age and marital status

d: Are there national laws and regulations that explicitly restrict access to SRH services on the basis of minimum age and marital status?

*: Provide a summary of legal/policy provisions relating to access to SRH services for adolescents and unmarried women and girls

e: Are there national laws and regulations that explicitly ensure access to SRH services without restrictions of age and marital status?

3. Access by adolescents to SRH information and education

f: Are there national laws and regulations ensuring that all individuals have access to health information, including sexual and reproductive health information?

g: Are there national laws and regulations that regulate the provision of sexuality education in primary, secondary and higher education institutions, and for adolescents not enrolled in school?

*: Provide a summary of legal/policy provisions relating to universal access to information and comprehensive sexuality education.

²⁹ Based on WHO: "Reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health and human rights: A toolbox for examining laws, regulations and policies" and the ICPD+20 review survey

Target 5.a Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.

Indicator 5.a.1: (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, type of tenure

From FAO:

1. Precise definition of the indicator

Definition of indicator:

The indicator is divided in two parts: (a) measures the incidence of people with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land among the total agricultural population; while (b) focusses on the gender parity measuring the extent to which women are disadvantaged in ownership or rights over agricultural land. Part (a) and part (b) cannot be seen as two different indicators, they rather provide two complementary information. Plus, they can be computed using (almost) the same data, the main difference between the 2 parts being only the denominator.

We propose using the 'total agricultural population' as denominator of part (a), instead of the total population, because ownership or right-security over agricultural land is obviously relevant only for the people whose livelihood rely on agriculture.

Part (a)

$$\left(\frac{\text{People with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land}}{\text{Total agricultural population}} \right) \cdot 100$$

Part (b)

$$\left(\frac{\text{Women with ownership or rights over agricultural land}}{\text{Total owners or rights bearers over agricultural land}} \right) \cdot 100$$

Definition of agricultural land:

Since Target 1.4 explicitly refers to equal rights on economic resources, the proposed indicator focuses on land that can be used as a productive resource for livelihood development, thus the focus on agricultural land.

The focus on land as productive resource (or for livelihood development) helps deriving indication on empowerment and advancement towards poverty reduction, compared to lands used for other purposes that are not economically and livelihood-related. This is particularly true in developing countries where poverty reduction strategies are necessarily linked to agricultural development.

The term 'agricultural land' is used to indicate land used for farming, livestock and forestry activities. This emphasizes the importance to monitor ownership/secure rights on land of farm-based livelihood people as well as people whose main source of livelihood is livestock and forestry.

Similarly the term 'agricultural population' has to be intended in a broad sense – i.e. including people living out of farming, livestock and forestry, with land rights or without (landless).

Definition of ownership and rights over land:

The landowner is the legal owner of the land. Definitions of ownership may vary across countries and surveys. For instance, documented ownership means that ownership is verified through title or deed, while reported ownership relies on individuals' own judgment. Reported ownership may be more appropriate in countries where a formal registration system is not in place.

Additionally, in some countries, particularly where land private ownership is not applicable, it is more appropriate to investigate rights over land using proxies able to capture individuals' capability to control and take decisions over the land. This may include settings where customary rights prevail as opposed to individual ownership. Proxies of such "bundle of rights" may include the right to sell, to bequeath or the right to decide how to use the land.

Since the definition of ownership and land rights has to take into account what is more relevant in the country, the indicator will need to be complemented with metadata that specify what definition(s) of ownership or rights over land is/are employed.

Tenure Type

Finally and most importantly, this indicator has to be disaggregated by type of tenure. Therefore, the data collection methodology should always include a question on land tenure. Land tenure refers to the arrangements or rights under which people have access to land, and it is one of the key elements to tenure security.³⁰ There are different formal and informal tenure systems around the world and the distinction between legal and non-legal tenure is often blurred. When available, the indicator shall also be disaggregated by documented tenure rights.

The FAO World Census of Agriculture encourages countries to use country-specific types of tenure whilst ensuring the possibility to classify ex-post under the following broad categories: 1) legal ownership or legal owner-like possession; 2) Non-legal ownership or non-legal owner-like possession; 3) Rented land from someone else; 4) Various other types of land tenure³¹.

Broadly speaking, legal ownership or legal owner-like possession describes land rights that provide statutory security of tenure. This may be done through a formal land title system, but may also include certain forms of customary land tenure arrangements where land rights are registered or certified in some way. The following types of tenure arrangements may be included under this heading:

- *Ownership is certified through a title, which gives the individual the right to determine the nature and extent of the use of the land.*
- *Land is held under conditions that enable it to be operated as if legally owned. E.g., the land is operated under hereditary tenure, perpetual lease, or long-term lease, with nominal or no rent.*
- *The land is held under a tribal, communal, or traditional form of tenure, which is legally recognized by the state. Such arrangements usually involve land being held on a tribal, village, kindred or clan basis, with land ownership being communal in character but with certain individual rights being held by virtue of membership in the social unit. Such arrangements can be formalized through the establishment of legal procedures to identify the community's land and to manage the land rights of community members.*

2. How is the indicator linked to the specific TARGET as worded in the OWG report and copied above?

The indicator is related to Goal 1, target 1.4: "By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance."

³⁰ Land tenure refers to laws, policies, customs and institutions that define and govern people's rights to use, control and transfer land.

³¹ <http://www.fao.org/economic/ess/ess-wca/wca-guidelines/en/>

More specifically, this indicator monitors “ownership and rights over land” and it is particularly useful in terms of framing gender differences in land ownership and control whilst relating them specifically to the population of interest, namely the people who own land or with rights over land. As such it gives a clearer picture of gender and social inequalities in land ownership/control, than for instance looking at the incidence of female ownership/control over land in the entire population of a country. An increase in the percentage of women owning/controlling land indicates that, within the population of interest (i.e., the landowners/rights bearers), progress is made towards achieving equal rights over land among men and women.

3. Does the indicator already exist and is it regularly reported?

The indicator already exists. Until now, the indicator has been collected mainly through the LSMS-ISA surveys and to a smaller extent through DHS surveys in collaboration with National Institutes of Statistics. At the time of writing, the indicator is readily available for 11 countries. Additional, but yet unprocessed surveys (e.g., DHS, LSMS, national household income and expenditure surveys etc.) lead to a conservative estimate of an additional 10 countries for which the indicator could be derived. It cannot be excluded that many other surveys not currently available to FAO would be potential sources as well, for countries not covered by LSMS or DHS.

Thanks to a fruitful cooperation with IFPRI-PIM, FAO is already disseminating the available data for through the [Gender and Land Rights Database](#) (GRLD). In the next future, the same data will be also disseminated through FAO’s Rural Livelihood Monitoring (RLM) platform. The new World Programme for Agricultural Census (WCA 2020) has proposed the collection of land ownership data disaggregated by sex as a supplementary item. Furthermore, the FAO Statistics Division is starting a project called AGRIS (Agricultural Integrated Surveys) through which methodological guidelines will be provided to countries on how to conduct farm surveys (i.e. key indicators to collect, definitions, methods for data collection, periodicity, etc.), and effort will also be made to support countries in the actual implementation of the farm surveys. By doing so, the availability of this indicator will increase substantially in the future.

While comparability across countries (mainly due to differing definitions) and low current availability pose a challenge to this indicator, it is still fair to consider the indicator superior to the “share of female agricultural holders” – widely available through agricultural census data- because it provides intra-holding/household information and is usually made available in a shorter time span.

It also worth mentioning that the importance of a sex-disaggregated indicator on land is acknowledged in the *Minimum Set of Gender Indicators* approved by UNSC, where a place-holder indicator ‘proportion of the (adult) population who own land, by sex’ figures as one of the 52 indicators. Furthermore, the EDGE (Evidence and Data for Gender Equality) initiative³² is conducting methodological work on standards for the collection of reliable sex disaggregated data on land ownership.

4. Comment on the reliability, potential coverage, comparability across countries, and the possibility to compute the indicator at sub-national level.

Reliability

The indicator is expected to be reliable because the identification of the plot owner(s)/individual with rights over land in household surveys is a feasible task. Household surveys are usually done on a sample basis and are statistically representative at national and subnational level.

Coverage

The indicator is nationally representative insofar the survey data is nationally representative. The indicator can be collected periodically (about every 2-4 years) which is a reasonable frequency to capture significant changes in land ownership.

³² A joint UNWOMEN and UNSD project with the aim of accelerating existing efforts to generate comparable gender indicators on health, education, employment, entrepreneurship and asset ownership.

In most countries, national household surveys and agricultural surveys will be the main data sources for this indicator.

Acknowledging the relevance of land rights for indigenous populations, countries should work towards: i) including indigenous people in the survey sample frames; ii) collecting information on ethnicity and using it as disaggregation variable for this indicator. Oversampling and questionnaire adaptation might be required to guarantee representativeness and ensure adequacy of concepts and language to the indigenous populations. To this extent, representatives of indigenous populations may consider developing their own data collection capacity according to the existing national standards, and accompanying the national statistical offices in the various data collection efforts.

Comparability across countries

Different country definitions of ownership and rights over land can be problematic. Also, the indicator is collected in different years, depending on when surveys are conducted in individual countries. This can negatively affect comparability across countries.

Sub-national estimates

It is possible to disaggregate the indicator by geographic areas if the surveys are representative for these areas. The level of disaggregation depends on the sample design of the surveys.

5. Is there a baseline value for 2015?

We do not expect this indicator to change rapidly. It is worth highlighting that the baseline and follow-up values will be different across countries. To ensure correct comparisons linear interpolation between the actual data points will be necessary.

Indicator 5.a.2: Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control

From FAO:

1. Precise definition of the indicator

The precise definition of this indicator is: *“The legal framework includes special measures to guarantee women's equal rights to landownership and control”*.

The indicator monitors reforms that give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land. More specifically, the indicator allows for monitoring progress towards gender equity through the adoption of women-specific measures to promote women's secure rights to land. The indicator has a scoring system from 0 to 4, which signals the stage in the policy/legal framework working towards legal reform, as follows:

Score 0: Absence of the indicator in the legal framework

Score 1: A policy is being developed

Score 1.5: A policy is in place

Score 2: A draft legislation is to be submitted for deliberations

Score 3: The indicator appears in primary law

Score 4: The indicator appears in multiple legal instruments

N/A: Not applicable

The indicator considers whether:

- National legal framework gives priority to women heads of household under land distribution and titling programmes;
- National legal framework establishes targeted government funds to increase women access to land;
- Joint titling of private property (or user rights) is compulsory in the registration process for husband and wife;

The proposed indicator is supported by a number of international instruments, including:

- Maputo Protocol, Article 19(c):
- “States Parties shall **take all appropriate measures to [...] promote women’s access to and control over productive resources** such as land and guarantee their right to property”;
- It is in line with the Voluntary Guidelines for Responsible Governance of Tenure of Land, Fisheries and Forests (VGGT). Namely:
 - Principle 4 on Gender equality: “Ensure the equal right of women and men to the enjoyment of all human rights, while acknowledging differences between women and men and **taking specific measures** aimed at accelerating de facto equality when necessary. States should ensure that women and girls have equal tenure rights and access to land, fisheries and forests independent of their civil and marital status.”
 - Section 25.6: “**Special procedures** should, where possible, provide the vulnerable, including widows and orphans, with secure access to land, fisheries and forests.”

2. How is the indicator linked to the specific TARGET as worded in the OWG report and copied above?

The indicator is related to [Goal 5, target 5a](#): “Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.”

In particular, the indicator monitors legal reforms that promote **women’s land rights and increase their access and ownership of productive resources** through land ownership or other special measures. It provides a good indication of government’s efforts to move towards the realization of women’s land rights and more gender-equal land tenure.

3. Does the indicator already exist and is it regularly reported?

The indicator exists. It is being collected through the analysis of the legal and policy framework as part of the Legislation Assessment Tool for gender-equitable land tenure (LAT) of the Gender and Land Rights Database.

The indicator is not reported as such by the countries, but information can be extrapolated from the countries’ national laws. The legal information is mainly accessible in FAO’s [FAOLEX a database that collects](#) legal material from the official gazettes, compiling texts of laws and regulations that are sent by FAO’s Member Nations pursuant to Article XI of the FAO Constitution. The information is also available in as well as LandWise (Landesa).

The indicator is disseminated through the [FAO’s Gender and Land Rights database \(GLRD\)](#) through its [Legislation Assessment Tool](#).

The indicator has been applied to 18 countries and the results are available on the LAT map of the GLRD. The complete LAT analysis can be expanded to 83 countries and validated by national legal experts with a total investment of US\$450,000 partly funded by FAO. Results are comparable across countries; however, the indicator available in the GRLD only applies to the national legal framework and does not include regional legal frameworks.

4. Comment on the reliability, potential coverage, comparability across countries, and the possibility to compute the indicator at sub-national level.

Reliability

We expect this indicator to be accurate because it reflects the existence of legal measures to promote women's land rights and or productive resources. The indicator will have a value of 1 if one or more legal measures promote women's land rights (as the examples shown above) exist in the country legal framework.

Coverage

The indicator is nationally representative insofar these special measures apply to the national level.

Comparability across countries

As mentioned above, the indicator is comparable across countries. Even if countries take different promotional measures according to their context, the indicator measures whether countries are undertaking any legal measure to promote women's rights to land property and/or other productive resources.

Sub-national estimates

The indicator can be used as a sub-national indicator when special laws and legal procedures pertaining to one geographic area is analysed. However, up till now this indicator is only available at national level.

Target 5.b Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women.

Indicator 5.b.1: Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex

From ITU, UN-WOMEN and Partnership on Measuring ICT for Development:

Definition and method of computation:

This indicator is defined as the 'proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex'. An individual owns a mobile cellular phone if he/she has a mobile cellular phone device with at least one active SIM card for personal use. Mobile cellular phones supplied by employers that can be used for personal reasons (to make personal calls, access the Internet, etc.) are included. Individuals who have only active SIM card(s) and not a mobile phone device are excluded. Individuals who have a mobile phone for personal use that is not registered under his/her name are also included. An active SIM card is a SIM card that has been used in the last three months.

A *mobile (cellular) telephone* refers to a portable telephone subscribing to a public mobile telephone service using cellular technology, which provides access to the PSTN. This includes analogue and digital cellular systems and technologies such as IMT-2000 (3G) and IMT-Advanced. Users of both postpaid subscriptions and prepaid accounts are included.

Countries can collect data on this indicator through national household surveys. This indicator is calculated by dividing the total number of in-scope individuals who own a mobile phone by the total number of in-scope individuals.

Rationale and interpretation

Mobile phone networks have spread rapidly over the last decade and the number of mobile-cellular subscriptions is quasi equal to the number of the people living on earth. However, not every person uses, or owns a mobile-cellular telephone. Mobile phone ownership, in particular, is important to track gender equality since the mobile phone is a personal device that, if owned and not just shared, provides women with a degree of independence and autonomy, including for professional purposes. A number of studies have highlighted the link between mobile phone ownership and empowerment, and productivity growth.

Existing data on the proportion of women owning a mobile phone suggest that less women than men own a mobile phone. This indicator highlights the importance of mobile phone ownership to track and to improve gender equality, and monitoring will help design targeted policies to overcome the gender divide. The collection of this indicator was proposed by the Task Group on Gender of the Partnership on Measuring ICT for Development.

Sources and data collection

This indicator is a newly developed ITU indicator that was approved by the World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Symposium (WTIS) 2014. The indicator definition and methodology were developed under the coordination of ITU, through its Expert Groups and following an extensive consultation process with countries. Data for the proportion of individuals owning a mobile phone will be collected through an annual questionnaire that ITU sends to national statistical offices (NSO), starting in 2015. In this questionnaire, through which ITU already collects a number of ICT indicators, ITU collects absolute values. The percentages are calculated a-posteriori. The survey methodology is verified to ensure that it meets adequate statistical standards. The data are verified to ensure consistency with previous years' data and other relevant country-level indicators (ICT and economic).

Data are usually not adjusted, but discrepancies in the definition, age scope of individuals, reference period or the break in comparability between years are noted in a data note. For this reason, data are not always strictly comparable.

A number of countries already collect this indicator through official surveys but data will only be collected at the international level as of 2015.

Disaggregation

For countries that collect this indicator through a national household survey, and if data allow breakdown and disaggregation, the indicator can be broken down not only by sex but also by region (geographic and/or urban/rural), by age group, by educational level, by labour force status, and by occupation. ITU will collect data for all of these breakdowns from countries.

Comments and limitations

While the data on the 'proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone' currently only exist for very few countries, ITU is encouraging all countries to collect data on this indicator through national household surveys and the indicator is expected to be added to the Partnership on Measuring ICT for Development's Core List of Indicators. The number of countries with official data for this indicator is expected to increase in the near future.

Gender equality issues

Discrepancies exist between the proportion of men and women that access, own, use, and benefit from ICTs and this indicator is important to track the gender digital divide. Mobile phone ownership (as opposed to shared ownership), in particular, is important for a person's independence and autonomy, and increases the potential to fully benefit from mobile communications.

Data for global and regional monitoring

Data collection for this indicator will only commence in 2015 and no regional or global figures are available (yet).

Supplementary information

Once ITU has included this indicator in its regular data collection, year-end estimates will be released in December of the following year through the ITU World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Database.

References:

Since the definition and methodology of this indicator will only be collected as of 2015, the indicator is not yet included in the [ITU Manual for Measuring ICT Access and Use by Households and Individuals 2014](#). It will be included in the next version of the Manual.

For a discussion on the importance of this indicators, see also the [UNCTAD, Measuring ICT and gender: an assessment](#).

Target 5.c Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels.

Indicator 5.c.1: Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment

From UN-Women:

<p>Target 5.c:</p>	<p>Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels</p>
<p>Indicator 5.c.1</p>	<p>Percentage of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment</p>
<p>Definition:</p>	<p>This indicator seeks to measure government efforts to track budget allocations and actual expenditures for gender equality throughout the public finance management cycle and to make these publically available. Systems for tracking budget allocations and expenditure are an important first step to closing gender gaps. The system should be led by the Ministry of Finance in collaboration with the sectoral ministries and National Women’s Machineries and overseen by an appropriate body such as Parliament or Public Auditors.</p> <p>A system will be considered to be in place if the country meets the following criteria:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Public Finance Management systems incorporate gender equality: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Whether or not there are guidelines such as call circulars or directives that provide guidance on gender responsive budget allocations? ii. Whether or not the sectoral budgets allocate resources to programmes to promote gender equality and women’s empowerment? iii. Whether or not there is a gender budget statement? iv. Whether or not an ex ante gender impact assessment of the budget allocation is conducted? v. Whether or not an assessment is conducted of how the budget allocations were spent? <p>* for each of the 5 criteria above the reference period is the current fiscal year</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Allocations and expenditures for gender equality will be considered public when they are available in a timely and accessible manner through official government publications and channels including ministry websites, official bulletins and public

	<p>notices.</p> <p>For the purpose of this indicator, allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment are therefore defined as:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resources allocated for programmes that specifically target only women or girls. • Resources allocated to programmes that target both women and men but where gender equality is a primary objective. For example an action that promotes employment of women and men, equal representation within management posts, and equal pay • Resources allocated to programmes where gender equality is not a primary objective but where action is being taken to close gender gaps. For example, an infrastructure project that does not include gender equality as the primary objective but has specific measures to ensure that women and girls benefit equally with men and boys.
<p>Method of computation:</p>	<p>The method of computation is as follows:</p> $\frac{\text{Number of countries that have a system for tracking and making public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment}}{\text{Total number of countries}} \times 100$
<p>Unit:</p>	<p>Per cent (%)</p>
<p>Disaggregation:</p>	<p>Data can be collected by region and sector as appropriate.</p>
<p>Suitability:</p>	<p>The principle of adequate financing for gender equality is rooted in the Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action (para 345 and 346) adopted in 1995. However, the Secretary General’s report on the twenty-year review and appraisal of the Platform for Action found that underinvestment in gender equality and women’s empowerment has contributed to slow and uneven progress in all 12 critical areas of concern. Inadequate financing hinders the implementation of gender responsive laws and policies. Data shows that financing gaps are sometimes as high as 90% with critical shortfalls in infrastructure, productive and economic sectors.</p> <p>The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Agenda commits to “significant increase in investments to close the gender gap”. Costing and making available the requisite resources for gender equality is central to implementing and achieving SDG 5 and all gender targets across the framework. Tracking resource allocations for gender equality and making them</p>

	<p>publicly available is an important first step to assess progress towards meeting these goals. This has been reaffirmed at the third international conference on Financing for Development, where member states adopted the Addis Ababa Action Agenda, and in para 30 and 53, committed to track gender equality allocations and increase transparency on public spending.</p> <p>This indicator will measure the percentage of governments with systems to track and make public resource allocations for gender equality. It builds on Indicator 8 of the Busan Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation that has been piloted and tested in a number of countries. Indicator 8 allowed, for the first time, the systematic collection of data on government efforts to track resource allocations for gender equality across countries and therefore provides a much needed baseline for data collection.</p>
<p>Sources:</p>	<p>Response to questionnaire completed by Ministries of Finance in coordination with relevant sectoral ministries and national women’s machineries.</p>
<p>Data collection:</p>	<p>UN Women, UNDP and OECD will develop an appropriate survey instrument to collect data on this indicator. A discussion guide will be developed and will accompany the survey.</p>
<p>Production of aggregated regional and global data:</p>	<p>Aggregated global data will be computed as a percentage of countries where systems are in place compared to the total number of countries. The regional data will be computed using the number of countries in the region as the denominator.</p> <p>In addition, in the reporting of the indicator, progress will be tracked by monitoring from year to year how many countries satisfied any number of the criteria listed above.</p>
<p>Limitations:</p>	<p>As a Tier III indicator, the methodology for this indicator will need to be tested to ensure that it is consistently measured and standardized across countries.</p> <p>A key limitation is the prevalence of off-budget items, which are not subject to parliamentary scrutiny and public auditor’s oversight, and therefore pose particular challenges in tracking the gender quality dimensions and impacts. An example is largescale infrastructure financing from blended public and private sources.</p>

	<p>A further limitation is that the indicator, which is process oriented, does not provide data on the adequacy or quality of resource allocations.</p> <p>Another concern about the computation of this indicator is that financing for gender equality and women's empowerment is often narrowly interpreted and is often understood as resources for 'women specific programs' or national women's machineries, and not resources allocated to close gender gaps. Therefore, adequate training will be needed, particularly at the country level to ensure that it is properly understood as addressing financing in all areas.</p>
<p>Policy relevance:</p>	<p>Adequate and effective financing is essential to achieve SDG 5 and the gender related targets across all of the SDG framework. By tracking and making public gender equality allocations, governments promote great accountability and transparency. The indicator encourages governments to put in place a system to track and make public resource allocations which can then inform policy review, better policy formulation and effective implementation for the achievement of SDG 5.</p> <p>Gender Responsive Budgeting is an approach that enables governments to comply with this indicator by integrating gender into government planning and budgeting processes. This entails examining not only allocations and expenditures but also budgeting systems and the roles of various actors throughout the process. GRB aims to enhance the quality and efficiency of public finance management by introducing aspects of equality and equity in public spending.</p> <p>UN Women will explore, the connections with other fiscal indicators included in the IAEG SDG Report on the Global Indicators Framework, as appropriate.</p>
<p>References:</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information on the Global Partnership for Effective Development Corporation can be found here: http://effectivecooperation.org/about/global-monitoring-framework/ • Information on the Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability (PEFA) Program which provides guidance on assessment of public finance management systems can be found here: http://www.pefa.org/en. • Other useful technical materials on how to incorporate gender equality in to public finance management systems can be found here: http://gender-financing.unwomen.org/en

