Last updated: March 2020  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
Organization(s):  
  
United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)  
  
United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women)  
  
United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC)  
  
United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)  
  
United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)  
  
World Health Organization (WHO)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
Definition:  
  
This indicator measures the percentage of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older who have experienced physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner, in the previous 12 months. Definition of violence against women and girls and of the forms of violence specified under this indicator are presented in the next section (Concepts).  
  
NOTE: Due to constraints related to feasibility (as noted in the Feasibility section below), this indicator currently globally reports only on the percentage of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 to 49 who have experienced physical and/or sexual partner violence.  
  
Rationale:  
  
Intimate partner violence is the most common form of violence that women and girls face globally. Given prevailing social norms that sanction male dominance over women, violence between intimate partners is often perceived as an ordinary/normal element of relationships, particularly in the context of marriage or other unions. Violence against women and girls is an extreme manifestation of gender inequality.  
  
Prevalence data are required to measure the magnitude of the problem; understand the various forms of violence and their consequences; identify groups at high risk; 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. They also allow countries to monitor change over time and optimally target resources to maximise the effectiveness of interventions (especially in resource-constrained settings).  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
According to the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993), violence against women is “Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life. Violence against women shall be understood to encompass, but not be limited to, the following: Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family […]”. See here for full definition: http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r104.htm   
  
Intimate partner violence against women includes any abuse perpetrated by a current or former partner within the context of marriage, cohabitation or any other formal or informal union.  
  
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 acts like pushing, grabbing, twisting the arm, pulling hair, slapping, kicking, biting or hitting with a 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, whether by use of force, intimidation or coercion. It includes acts of abusive sexual contact, forced engagement in sexual acts, attempted or completed sexual acts without consent, non-contact acts such as being forced to watch or participate in pornography, etc. In intimate partner relationships, sexual violence is commonly defined as: being physically forced to have sexual intercourse, having sexual intercourse out of fear for what the partner might do or through coercion, and/or being forced to so something sexual that the woman considers humiliating or degrading.  
  
3. Psychological violence consists of any act intended to induce fear or emotional distress caused by a person’s behaviour or act. It includes a range of behaviors that encompass acts of emotional abuse such as being frequently humiliated in public, intimidated or having things you care for destroyed, etc. These often coexist with acts of physical and sexual violence by intimate partners. In addition, surveys often measure controlling behaviours (e.g., being kept from seeing family or friends, or from seeking health care without permission).   
  
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) and the International Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes ICCS (UNODC, 2015).  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
Comparability:  
  
The availability of comparable data remains a challenge in this area as many data collection efforts have relied on different survey methodologies, used different definitions of partner or spousal violence and of the different forms of violence and different survey question formulations, used diverse age groups, or used different denominators, as well as the quality of interviewer training. Willingness to discuss experiences of violence and understanding of relevant concepts may also differ according to how the survey is implemented, and the cultural context and this can affect reported prevalence levels.  
  
Regularity of data production:  
  
Since 2005, only about 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, whether they are obtained through stand-alone dedicated surveys or through modules in other surveys. Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) are conducted every 5 years or so and dedicated surveys, if repeated, are conducted usually 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.  
  
Feasibility:  
  
This indicator calls for global reporting on three types of intimate partner violence: physical, sexual, and psychological. While there is global consensus on how physical and sexual intimate partner violence are generally defined and measured, psychological partner violence—which may be conceptualised differently across cultures and in different contexts—is still a Tear III sub-indicator. Since it is not yet feasible to report on psychological partner violence, this indicator currently reports on physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence only. Efforts are underway by custodian agencies to develop a global standard for measuring and reporting on psychological intimate partner violence. This will enable reporting on the three stipulated types of partner violence in the future.   
  
Similarly, this indicator calls for global reporting of violence experienced by ever-partnered women aged 15 years and above. However, a majority of data come from DHS, which typically sample only women aged 15-49, and there is a lack of consistency in the age range of sample populations across other country surveys. For those surveys that interview a sample of women from a different age group, the prevalence for the 15-49 age group is often published or can be calculated from available data. The global indicator therefore currently reports violence experienced by ever-partnered women and girls 15-49 years of age. Efforts are underway by custodian agencies to address this issue and to better understand and measure partner violence against women aged 50 and above.   
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
Computation Method:  
  
This indicator calls for breakdown by form of violence and by age group. Countries are encouraged to compute prevalence data for each form of violence as detailed below to assist comparability at the regional and global levels:  
  
1. Physical violence:   
  
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 divided by the number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) in the population multiplied by 100   
  
2. Sexual violence:   
  
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 divided by the number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) in the population multiplied by 100   
  
3. Psychological violence:   
  
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 divided by the number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) multiplied by 100   
  
4. Any form of physical and/or sexual violence:   
  
Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) who experience physical and/or sexual violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months divided by the number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) multiplied by 100  
  
5. Any form of physical, sexual and/or psychological violence:  
  
Number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) who experience physical, sexual and/or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months divided by the number of ever-partnered women and girls (aged 15 years and above) multiplied by 100  
  
NOTE: To assist comparability at the regional and global level, countries are encouraged to additionally compute the above figures for ever-partnered women aged 15 to 49. Regional and global reporting on this indicator currently only includes data computed by countries for #4 above (i.e., any form of physical and/or sexual partner violence, and for the 15-49 age group). For further details, see Feasibility section above.   
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
In addition to form of violence and age, income/wealth, education, ethnicity (including indigenous status), disability status, marital/partnership status, relationship with the perpetrator (i.e. current/former partner), geographic location and frequency of violence are suggested as desired variables for disaggregation for this indicator. Though disaggregated data by these variables is not yet feasible to report on at regional and global levels, countries are encouraged to report these levels of disaggregation in their national reports; and—whenever possible—include these data for the age group 15 to 49.   
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
At country level  
  
When data for a country are entirely missing, no country-level estimate is published.   
  
At regional and global levels  
  
No imputations are made in cases where country data are not available. Where regional and global figures are presented, clear notes on data limitations are provided. The number of countries included in the average is clearly indicated.   
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
Global aggregates are weighted averages of all the countries that make up the world. Regional aggregates are weighted averages of all the countries within the region. Weights used are the population of women and girls aged 15 to 49 from the most recent UN population prospects. Where data are not available for all countries in any given region, regional aggregates may still be calculated. The number of countries included in the average is clearly indicated.  
  
It should be noted that regional and global figures should be interpreted with caution, as they do not necessarily represent with accuracy the region or world as a whole, especially for regions where population coverage is below 50 per cent.   
  
Custodian agencies, in consultation with Member States, are currently in the process of producing up-to-date global, regional and country estimates, enhancing the quality and accuracy of 5.2.1 reporting and addressing the comparability challenges outlined above. New regional and global estimates are expected to become available in mid-2020.  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
In most cases, only figures published by countries are used. However, in a small number of countries data may be recalculated to enhance comparability. Recalculation is done primarily to reflect the 15 to 49 preponderant age group, or to reflect the aggregate of physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence, for countries where this information is gathered but not published as such. Calculations are done using survey datasets made public by countries or using raw data available in published survey reports.   
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
  
  
Countries gather data on intimate partner violence through (1) specialized national prevalence surveys dedicated to measuring violence against women, (2) violence against women modules that are added to international/national household surveys, such as the DHS; and (3) 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 provide prevalence data, but rather incidence data or service use (i.e., number of cases received in/reported to these services). Many abused women do not report violence and those who do, tend to be the most serious cases. Therefore, administrative data are not recommended to be used as a data source for this indicator.   
  
For more information on recommended practices in production of violence against women statistics see: UN Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women- Statistical Surveys (UN, 2014).  
  
Quality assurance  
  
  
  
The Interagency Working Group on Violence against Women Data, which comprises all custodian agencies for this SDG indicator, thoroughly reviews all country data, including its primary source when deemed necessary, to assess quality and comparability based on exclusion/inclusion criteria agreed upon a priori. These criteria refer to, inter-alia, survey population coverage, operational definitions, methodology, and time period. All data points have been discussed and a consensual decision made for every data point included/excluded from the current SDG Indicators Database.   
  
Starting in 2020, a country consultation and validation process of data compiled by custodian agencies for this indicator will be undertaken, including with identified SDG indicators focal points and other relevant ministries.   
  
Data Sources  
  
Description:  
  
The SDG 5.2.1 Indicator Database comprises namely data from population-based household surveys implementing an internationally standardised methodology. A significant proportion of data are gathered through the inclusion of a Domestic Violence Module in the DHS. In addition, some data come from dedicated surveys on violence against women in countries that have implemented, for example, WHO’s violence against women survey methodology. Where available, other dedicated surveys are included if the data are deemed comparable. All sources date from 2005 onwards.   
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
Data are collated by the Inter-Agency Working Group on Violence against Women Data from data published by National Statistics Offices or other relevant national entities. For efficiency, some data are collated using existing data compiling online platforms (e.g., DHS StatCompiler). For a few countries, data are recalculated for harmonization regarding age group (15 to 49) and type of intimate partner violence (any form of physical and/or sexual partner violence).   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
Description:  
  
bout Since 2015, 139 countries had conducted violence against women national prevalence surveys or have included a module on violence against women in a DHS or other national household survey. However, not all these data are comparable and in many cases they are not collected on a regular basis.  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
Time series are available for some countries. Global time series with comparable data not yet available.   
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
Data collection:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
National Statistical Offices (in most cases) or line ministries/other government agencies that have conducted national surveys on violence against women and girls.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
Data are compiled and reviewed by the Interagency Working Group on Violence against Women Data (UN Women, UNICEF, UNSD, WHO, UNFPA, UNODC).   
  
  
  
  
  
References  
  
URL:  
  
http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en  
  
data.unicef.org  
  
http://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/default.html  
  
  
  
References:  
  
1. United Nations, 2014. Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women- Statistical Surveys.   
  
2. United Nations, 2015. The World’s Women 2015, Trends and Statistics.   
  
3. 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.   
  
4. UN Women. 2016. Global Database on Violence against Women. Available at: http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en  
  
5. UNICEF Data portal: http://data.unicef.org/child-protection/violence.html  
  
6. UNSD Portal on the minimum set of gender indicators: https://genderstats.un.org/#/home   
  
7. UNSD dedicated portal for data and metadata on violence against women: http://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/vaw/  
  
8.UNODC, 2015. International Classification of Crime for Statistical Purposes.   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
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  
  
11.7.2:  
  
Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and pace of occurrence, in the previous 12 months  
  
16.1.3:  
  
Proportion of population subjected to physical, psychological or sexual violence in the previous 12 months  
  
16.2.3:  
  
Proportion of young women and men aged 18-29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18  
  
  
  
  
  
1

Last updated: 09 July 2017  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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 5.2.2: 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  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
Organization(s):  
  
United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women)  
  
United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)  
  
United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD)  
  
World Health Organization (WHO)  
  
United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
Definition:  
  
This indicator measures the percentage of women and girls aged 15 years and older who have experienced sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner, in the previous 12 months.   
  
Definition of sexual violence against women and girls is presented in the next section (Concepts).  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Violence against women and girls is one of the most pervasive forms of human rights violations in the world. Evidence has shown that globally, an estimated 7% of women have been sexually assaulted by someone other than a partner at some point in their lives (WHO et al., 2013). Having data on this indicator will help understand the extent and nature of this form of violence and develop appropriate policies and programmes.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
According to the UN Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993), Violence against Women is “Any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life. Violence against women shall be understood to encompass, but not be limited to, the following: […], Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women and forced prostitution […]”. See here for full definition: http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r104.htm  
  
Sexual violence is defined as any sort of harmful or unwanted sexual behaviour 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 and girls 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).  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
Comparability:  
  
The availability of comparable data remains a challenge in this area as many data collection efforts have relied on different survey methodologies and used different definitions of sexual violence and different survey question formulation. Diverse age groups are also often utilized. Willingness to discuss experiences of violence and understanding of relevant concepts may also differ according to the cultural context and this can affect reported prevalence levels.  
  
Efforts and investment will be required to develop an internationally-agreed standard and definition of sexual violence by non-partners that will enable comparison across countries.  
  
Regularity of data production:  
  
Since 1995, only some 40 countries have conducted more than one survey on violence against women and girls. Obtaining data on violence against women and girls 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. Not all VAW surveys, however, collect information on non-intimate partner violence. Monitoring this indicator with certain periodicity may be a challenge if sustained capacities are not built and financial resources are not available.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
Computation Method:  
  
This indicator 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 computation method below.   
  
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 divided by the number of women and girls aged 15 years and above in the population multiplied by 100.  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
In addition to age and place of occurrence, income/wealth, education, ethnicity (including indigenous status), disability status, geographic location, relationship with the perpetrator (including sex of perpetrator) and frequency and type of sexual violence (as proxy to severity) are suggested as desired variables for disaggregation for this indicator.   
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
At country level  
  
When data for a country are entirely missing, no country-level estimate is published.   
  
At regional and global levels  
  
No imputations are made in cases where country data are not available. Where regional and global figures are presented, clear notes on data limitations are provided. The number of countries included in the average is clearly indicated.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
Global aggregates are weighted averages of all the sub-regions that make up the world. Regional aggregates are weighted averages of all the countries within the region. Where data are not available for all countries in a given region, regional aggregates may still be calculated if the minimum threshold for population coverage is met. The number of countries included in the average is clearly indicated.   
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
Only figures published by countries are used.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
Description:  
  
The main sources of intimate partner violence prevalence data are (1) specialized national surveys dedicated to measuring violence against women and (2) international household surveys that include a module on experiences of violence by women, such as the DHS.  
  
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. Therefore, administrative data should not be used as a data source for this indicator.   
  
For more information on recommended practices in production of violence against women statistics see: UN Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women- Statistical Surveys (UN, 2014).  
  
  
  
List:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
An Inter-Agency Group on Violence against Women Data and its Technical Advisory Group is currently being established (jointly by WHO, UN Women, UNICEF, UNSD and UNFPA) to establish a mechanism for compiling harmonized country level data on this indicator.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
Description:  
  
About 100 countries have conducted violence against women national prevalence surveys or have included a module on violence against women in a national household survey on other topic, although not all include data on non-partner sexual violence. Moreover, not all these data are comparable and in many cases they are not collected on a regular basis.  
  
Comparable data are available for a sub-sample of women and girls aged 15-49 for 37 low- and middle-income countries.  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
Time series are available for some countries. Global time series with comparable data not yet available.   
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
Data collection:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
Name:  
  
National Statistical Offices (in most cases) or line ministries/other government agencies that have conducted national surveys on violence against women and girls.  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
National Statistical Offices (in most cases) or line ministries/other government agencies that have conducted national surveys on violence against women and girls.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
Name:  
  
UN Women, UNICEF, UNSD, WHO, UNFPA  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
UN Women, UNICEF, UNSD, WHO, UNFPA  
  
  
  
Comment:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
References  
  
URL:  
  
http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en  
  
data.unicef.org  
  
http://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/default.html  
  
  
  
References:  
  
1. United Nations, 2014. Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women- Statistical Surveys.   
  
2. United Nations, 2015. The World’s Women 2015, Trends and Statistics.   
  
3. 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.   
  
4. UN Women. 2016. Global Database on Violence against Women. Available at: http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en  
  
5. UNICEF Data portal: http://data.unicef.org/child-protection/violence.html  
  
6. UNSD Portal on the minimum set of gender indicators: http://genderstats.un.org/beta/index.html#/home  
  
7. UNSD dedicated portal for data and metadata on violence against women: http://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/vaw/  
  
   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
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  
  
11.7.2:  
  
Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and pace of occurrence, in the previous 12 months  
  
16.1.3:  
  
Proportion of population subjected to physical, psychological or sexual violence in the previous 12 months  
  
16.2.3:  
  
Proportion of young women and men aged 18-29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18  
  
  
  
Comments:  
  
NA  
  
  
  
2

Last updated: 30 January 2018  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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(b): Proportion of seats held by women in local governments  
  
  
  
Institutional Information  
  
  
  
Custodian Organization:   
  
UN-Women  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
Indicator 5.5.1(b) measures the proportion of positions held by women in local government.  
  
It is expressed as a percentage of elected positions held by women in legislative/ deliberative bodies of local government.   
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Women’s and men’s right to exercise their political rights on an equal basis, and at all levels of decision-making, is recognized in the SDGs and enshrined in many human and political rights declarations, conventions and resolutions agreed to by most countries in the world. Indicator 5.5.1(b) measures the degree to which gender balance has been achieved in, and women have equal access to, political decision-making in local government.   
  
  
  
Indicator 5.5.1(b) complements the Indicator 5.5.1(a) on women in national parliaments, and accounts for the representation of women among the millions of members of local governments that influence (or have the potential to influence) the lives of local communities around the world. All tiers of local government are covered by the indicator, consistent with national legal frameworks defining local government.   
  
  
  
Concepts:   
  
Local government is one of the sub-national spheres of government and a result of decentralization, a process of transferring political, fiscal, and administrative powers from the central government to sub-national units of government distributed across the territory of a country to regulate and/or run certain government functions or public services on their own.   
  
  
  
The definition of local government follows the 2008 System of National Accounts (SNA) distinction between central, state, and local government (para 4.129). Local government consists of local government units, defined in the SNA as “institutional units whose fiscal, legislative and executive authority extends over the smallest geographical areas distinguished for administrative and political purposes” (para 4.145). What constitutes local government of a given country is defined by that country’s national legal framework, including national constitutions and local government acts or equivalent legislation.  
  
  
  
Each local government unit typically includes a legislative/ deliberative body and an executive body. Legislative/ deliberative bodies, such as councils or assemblies, are formal entities with a prescribed number of members as per national or state legislation. They are usually elected by universal suffrage and have decision-making power, including the ability to issue by-laws, on a range of local aspects of public affairs.   
  
  
  
Executive bodies, consisting of an executive committee or a mayor, may be elected, appointed or nominated and they prepare and execute decisions made by the legislative/ deliberative body.   
  
  
  
Elected positions are the most common manner of selection of local government members. They are selected in local elections, based on a system of choosing political office holders in which the voters cast ballots for the person, persons or political party that they desire to see elected. The category of elected positions includes both elected persons who competed on openly contested seats and persons selected during the electoral processes on reserved seats or through a candidate quota.  
  
  
  
By comparison, members selected on appointed positions (the least common manner of selection of local government members) are nominated, typically by government officials from higher-ranking tiers of government. Appointed members of local government are more frequent among the leadership positions, such as the heads of the executive body, representatives of specific groups (e.g., women, disadvantaged groups, youth); and, temporary committees/delegations/caretakers appointed by government officials when a council has been dissolved.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
Indicator 5.5.1(b) refers to the representation of women among elected positions of legislative/deliberative bodies of local government. This is a strength, because it ensures comparability across countries, at low cost, and mirrors the SDG indicator measuring women’s representation at national level, in parliament. This is also a limitation in that the indicator does not consider other positions in local government. Local government officials holding executive positions who are not simultaneously holding a position within the legislative/deliberative body, or who are appointed and not elected, are not considered in this indicator.   
  
  
  
It is recommended that women’s representation in executive positions, particularly at the level of the head of the executive (such as mayor), is monitored separately at national and global levels, but not as a headline SDG indicator.  
  
  
  
Importantly, the indicator refers to representation among members of local government and not the quality of their participation. Countries may therefore consider assessing political participation through national or subnational studies involving qualitative and/or quantitative methods of research. Additional indicators of political participation may also be monitored at national level, such as women’s share among voters and candidates in local elections, to monitor the closing of other gaps on women’s political participation.   
  
  
  
Finally, aspects of local governance beyond the formal institutions of local government, such as public administration staff, are not included in the indicator 5.5.1(b), and may be covered by other indicators in the SDG framework, particularly within the Goal 16 on inclusive societies.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
The method of computation is as follows:   
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Unit:  
  
%  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:   
  
Data on elected positions in legislative/deliberative bodies of local government have to be disaggregated by sex to enable the calculation of the indicator. No additional disaggregation is required for SDG reporting.   
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:   
  
At country level  
  
Not Imputed  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
Not Imputed  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
There are no discrepancies. Data are reported by entities of National Statistical Systems, including Electoral Management Bodies and National Statistical Offices.  
  
  
  
Data sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
Administrative data based on electoral records are the main source of data on elected members of local government, and the recommended data source for Indicator 5.5.1(b). Electoral records are produced and upheld by Electoral Management Bodies (EMBs) or equivalent bodies tasked with organizing elections at local level. EMBs are part of the National Statistical System, and often specifically mentioned in the national statistics acts as producers of official statistics.   
  
  
  
The use of electoral records to measure women’s representation in local government and monitoring of Indicator 5.5.1(b) is cost-effective, straightforward and timely. No adjustments or estimates are necessary to transform the administrative information into statistics for monitoring the indicator. The conceptual framework at the basis of Indicator 5.5.1(b) is consistent with the conceptual framework at the basis of local elections, as both are provided by national legal framework. The data used to calculate Indicator 5.5.1(b) refer to information on election winners, disaggregated by sex, and the coverage of the reference population (in this case, the elected officials) should be complete. In countries where the electoral records are electronic and centralized, information on numbers of women and men in elected positions can be made available as soon as the official results of elections are released.   
  
  
  
Two other types of sources of data may be used in the few instances where electoral records are not electronic or not centralized. One additional type of source is also administrative, and refers to public administration data available to line ministries overseeing local government. However, its use for statistics may be less straightforward compared to centralized electoral records. The scope of public administration records is beyond the elected positions, and information on women and men in elected positions of local government may be mixed with information on public administration employees, which are not covered by this indicator. Therefore, additional data processing and resources may be required to carefully extract the information needed. In some cases, the forms used as the basis for administrative records may need to be modified to ensure recording of the positions as being elected, in legislative/deliberative bodies, as well as the sex of persons in those positions. In other cases, some elected positions may not be covered in the records maintained, for example, if the administrative records are restricted to only those positions that are on the government payroll.   
  
  
  
Another type of data source that may provide information on women and men in local government in the absence of centralized electronic election records, refers to existing surveys or censuses using local government units as units of observation. These surveys or censuses may be undertaken by National Statistical Offices and/or line ministries and may take the form of (a) local government censuses or surveys; (b) establishment survey; and (c) municipality surveys. These surveys/census may already include, in the data collection tool dedicated to their main purpose, a few questions on the number of members of local legislative/deliberative and executive bodies by sex and other individual characteristics such as age and education; or may require the integration of such questions. Similar to other censuses and surveys, a low response rate can result in bias of the statistics obtained. Sampling errors may also add to the bias, in ways that cannot be assessed in the absence of a good understanding of distribution of women’s and men’s representation across different local government units across the territory of a country.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
The compilation of data, coordinated by UN Women and undertaken with the support of UN Regional Commissions, uses two mechanisms:  
  
  
  
data request forms sent to EMBs and NSOs directly or through UN Regional Commissions   
  
on-line dissemination of data by NSS entities who are the primary source of data or in charge with coordination of SDGs, including EMBs and/or NSOs. This process will be done in a transparent manner, based on communication with NSS focal points, so that the NSS has a chance to validate or dismiss a country’s compiled data.  
  
  
  
  
  
Data availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
Data on women’s and men’s representation in elected positions of legislative/ deliberative bodies of local government are currently estimated as available for 89 of countries in the world. This estimate is based on a count of countries covered by regional databases in Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, and ad-hoc studies in Asia and Pacific. However, the indicator used vary from one region to another. The count of countries is expected to change after the methodology of the indicator is used consistently across countries and regions.  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
After establishing the global baseline, the data will be compiled every year, in January of each year, and/or after local elections have taken place.  
  
  
  
Data release:   
  
Second quarter of the year.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
Data are provided by Electoral Management Bodies and/or in coordination with National Statistical Offices.  
  
   
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
UN Women with the support of UN Regional Commissions.  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
ECLAC, 2016a. CEPALSTAT: Databases and statistical publications. http://interwp.cepal.org/sisgen/ConsultaIntegrada.asp?idAplicacion=11&idioma=e (accessed January-April 2016)  
  
  
  
European Commission, 2016a. Database on women and men in decision-making (WMID). http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/index\_en.htm (accessed January-April 2016)  
  
  
  
European Commission, International Monetary Fund, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, United Nations and the World Bank, 2009. The 2008 System of National Accounts.  
  
  
  
UNECE, 2016a. Public life and decision-making database. http://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT\_\_30-GE\_\_05-PublicAnddecision (accessed January-April 2016).  
  
  
  
UNDP, 2014. Gender Equality: Women’s participation and leadership in governments at the local level. Asia and the Pacific 2013. Bangkok, UNDP.  
  
  
  
United Nations, 2011. Using Administrative and Secondary Sources for Official Statistics: A Handbook of Principles and Practices. UNECE.  
  
  
  
UNPAN (United Nations Public Administration Network), 2016. UN Public Administration Glossary. http://www.unpan.org/Directories/Glossary/tabid/1398/language/en-US/Default.aspx (March 2016)  
  
  
  
UN Women, 2017. Review of National Constitutions and Local Government Acts. Unpublished.   
  
  
  
UN Women and UNDP, 2015. Inclusive Electoral Processes: A guide for Electoral Management Bodies on Promoting Gender Equality and Women’s Participation.  
  
  
  
1

Last updated: 7 March 2019  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
Target 5.3: Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation  
  
Indicator 5.3.2: Proportion of girls and women aged 15-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
  
  
United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
  
  
Proportion of girls and women aged 15-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting is currently being measured by the proportion of girls aged 15-19 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
FGM/C is a violation of girls’ and women’s human rights. There is a large body of literature documenting the adverse health consequences of FGM/C over both the short and long term. The practice of FGM/C is a direct manifestation of gender inequality   
  
  
  
FGM/C is condemned by a number of international treaties and conventions. 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.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
  
  
Female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C) refers to “all procedures involving partial or total removal of the female external genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for non-medical reasons" (World Health Organization, Eliminating Female Genital Mutilation: An interagency statement, WHO, UNFPA, UNICEF, UNIFEM, OHCHR, UNHCR, UNECA, UNESCO, UNDP, UNAIDS, WHO, Geneva, 2008, p.4)  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
Number of girls and women aged 15-49 who have undergone FGM/C divided by the total number of girls and women aged 15-49 in the population multiplied by 100  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
  
  
Age, income, place of residence, geographic location, ethnicity, education  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
When data for a country are entirely missing, UNICEF does not publish any country-level estimate  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
Regional aggregates are only published when at least 50 per cent of the regional population for the relevant age group are covered by the available data.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
Global aggregates are weighted averages of all the countries with nationally representative prevalence data  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
The estimates compiled and presented at global level come directly from nationally produced data and are not adjusted or recalculated.  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
  
  
Countries gather data on FGM/C through household surveys such as UNICEF-supported MICS or Demographic and Health Surveys. In some countries, such data are also collected through other national household surveys.  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
  
  
UNICEF maintains the global database on FGM/C that is used for SDG and other official reporting. Before the inclusion of any data point in the database, it is reviewed by technical focal points at UNICEF headquarters to check for consistency and overall data quality. This review is based on a set of objective criteria to ensure that only the most recent and reliable information are included in the databases. These criteria include the following: data sources must include proper documentation; data values must be representative at the national population level; data are collected using an appropriate methodology (e.g., sampling); data values are based on a sufficiently large sample; data conform to the standard indicator definition including age group and concepts, to the extent possible; data are plausible based on trends and consistency with previously published/reported estimates for the indicator.   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
UNICEF undertakes a wide consultative process of compiling and assessing data from national sources for the purposes of updating its global databases on the situation of children. Up until 2017, the mechanism UNICEF used to collaborate with national authorities on ensuring data quality and international comparability on key indicators of relevance to children was known as Country Data Reporting on the Indicators for the Goals (CRING).  
  
  
  
As of 2018, UNICEF launched a new country consultation process with national authorities on selected child-related global SDG indicators it is custodian or co-custodian to meet emerging standards and guidelines on data flows for global reporting of SDG indicators, which place strong emphasis on technical rigour, country ownership and use of official data and statistics. The consultation process solicited feedback directly from National Statistical Offices, as well as other government agencies responsible for official statistics, on the compilation of the indicators, including the data sources used, and the application of internationally agreed definitions, classification and methodologies to the data from that source. Once reviewed, feedback is made available to countries on whether or not specific data points are accepted, and if not, the reasons why. More details on the consultation process can be found in the guidance note.   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Nationally representative prevalence data are currently available for 30 low- and middle-income countries  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
UNICEF will undertake an annual country consultation likely between December and January every year to allow for review and processing of the feedback received in order to meet global SDG reporting deadlines.  
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
March 2019.  
  
  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
National Statistical Offices (in most cases)  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
UNICEF  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
  
  
data.unicef.org  
  
  
  
References:  
  
  
  
https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-protection/female-genital-mutilation/

Last updated: 10 June 2019  
  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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: Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
UN Statistics Division (UNSD)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
This indicator is defined as the proportion of time spent in a day on unpaid domestic and care work by men and women. Unpaid domestic and care work refers to activities related to the provision of services for own final use by household members, or by family members living in other households. These activities are listed in ICATUS 2016 under the major divisions “3. Unpaid domestic services for household and family members” and “4. Unpaid caregiving services for household and family members”.   
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
  
  
Unpaid domestic and care work refers to activities including food preparation, dishwashing, cleaning and upkeep of the dwelling, laundry, ironing, gardening, caring for pets, shopping, installation, servicing and repair of personal and household goods, childcare, and care of the sick, elderly or disabled household and family members, among others. These activities are listed in ICATUS 2016 under the major divisions “3. Unpaid domestic services for household and family members” and “4. Unpaid caregiving services for household and family members”.  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions for this indicator are based on the following international standards:  
  
System of National Accounts 2008 (SNA 2008)  
  
The Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization, adopted by the International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) at its 19th Session in 2013  
  
International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics 2016 (ICATUS 2016)  
  
  
  
Relevant specific concepts are presented below:  
  
  
  
An activity is said to be productive or to fall within the “general production boundary” if it satisfies the third-person criterion (the activity can be delegated to another person and yield the same desired results).  
  
Productive activities can be further classified based on the ILO framework for work statistics (included in the 19th ICLS resolution) into:  
  
Own-use production work (activities to produce goods and services for own final use; the intended destination of the output is mainly for final use of the producer in the form of capital formation, or final consumption by household members or by family members living in other households; in the case of agricultural, fishing, hunting or gathering goods intended mainly for own consumption, a part or surplus may nevertheless be sold or bartered)  
  
Employment (activities to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit)  
  
Unpaid trainee work (any unpaid activity to produce goods or provide services for others, in order to acquire workplace experience or skills in a trade or profession)  
  
Volunteer work (any unpaid, non-compulsory activity to produce goods or provide services for others)  
  
Other forms of work  
  
The own-use production work can be differentiated based on whether goods or services are produced.  
  
  
  
Indicator 5.4.1 only considers the own-use production work of services, or in other words, the activities related to unpaid domestic services and unpaid caregiving services undertaken by households for their own use. These activities are listed in ICATUS 2016 under the major divisions “3. Unpaid domestic services for household and family members” and “4. Unpaid caregiving services for household and family members”.  
  
  
  
As much as possible, statistics compiled by UNSD are based on the International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics 2016 (ICATUS 2016), which classifies activities undertaken by persons during the survey period. ICATUS 2016 was adopted by the United Nations Statistical Commission for use as an international statistical classification at its 48th session, 7-10 March 2017.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
Time use statistics have been used for: (1) provide a measure of quality of life or general wellbeing of individuals and households; (2) offer a more comprehensive measurement of all forms of work, including unpaid household service work; (3) produce data relevant for monitoring gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls and are essential inputs for the policy and political dialogue on gender equality.  
  
  
  
International comparability of time-use statistics is limited by a number of factors, including:   
  
Diary versus stylized time-use survey. Data on time-use can be collected through a 24-hour diary (light diary) or stylized questionnaire. With diaries, respondents are asked to report on what activity they were performing when they started the day, what activity followed, and the time that activity began and ended, and so forth through the 24 hours of the day. Stylized time-use questions ask respondents to recall the amount of time they allocated to a certain activity over a specified period, such as a day or week. Often, stylized time-use questions are attached as a module to a multipurpose household survey. The 24-hour diary method yields better results than the stylized method but is a more expensive mode of data collection. Data obtained from these two different data collection methods are usually not comparable, and even data collected with different stylized questions might not be comparable given that the level of details asked about activities performed might differ from one instrument to another, thus impacting the total time spent on a given activity.   
  
Time-use activity classification. Regional and national classifications of time-use activities may differ from ICATUS 2016, resulting in data that are not comparable across countries.   
  
Time-use data presented refer to the “main activity” only. Any “secondary activity” performed simultaneously with the main activity is not reflected in the average times shown. For instance, a woman may be cooking and looking after a child simultaneously. For countries reporting cooking as the main activity, time spent caring for children is not accounted for and reflected in the statistics. This may affect international comparability of data on time spent caring for children; it may also underestimate the time women spend on this activity.   
  
Different target age population used by countries and age groups used also make time use data difficult to compare across countries.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Data presented for this indicator are expressed as a proportion of time in a day. Weekly data is averaged over seven days of the week to obtain the daily average time.   
  
  
  
Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work is calculated by dividing the daily average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and care work by 24 hours.   
  
  
  
Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work () is calculated as:  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
where  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
If data on time spent are weekly, data are averaged over seven days of the week to obtain daily time spent.  
  
  
  
Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and care work derives from time use statistics that is collected through stand-alone time-use surveys or a time-use module in multi-purpose household surveys. Data on time-use may be summarized and presented as either (1) average time spent for participants (in a given activity) only or (2) average time spent for all population of a certain age (total relevant population). In the former type of averages, the total time spent by the individuals who performed an activity is divided by the number of persons who performed it (participants). In the latter type of averages, the total time is divided by the total relevant population (or a sub-group thereof), regardless of whether people performed the activity or not.   
  
  
  
SDG indicator 5.4.1 is calculated based on the average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic and unpaid care work for the total relevant population. This type of measures can be used to compare groups and assess changes over time. Differences among groups or over time may be due to a difference (or change) in the proportion of those participating in the specific activity or a difference (or change) in the amount of time spent by participants, or both.   
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
This indicator should be disaggregated by the following dimensions: sex, age and location.  
  
The categories for disaggregation, by dimension, are as follows:   
  
Sex: female/male;  
  
Age: the recommended age groups are: 15+, 15-24, 25-44, 45-54, 55-64 and 65+  
  
Location: urban/rural (following national definitions given the lack of international definition)  
  
  
  
These categories have been recommended by the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS) during its 11th meeting in Rome, Italy on 30-31 October 2017.  
  
  
  
Available data are currently disaggregated by sex, age and location.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
UNSD does not produce estimates for missing values  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
No imputation is done  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
The number of countries conducting such surveys is insufficient to allow the computation of regional aggregates. Furthermore, limited comparability across national data hampers the computation of regional aggregates.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
Do not apply  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics 2016: https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic-social/time-use/icatus-2016/  
  
Guide to Producing Statistics on Time-Use: Measuring Paid und Unpaid Work: https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/SeriesF/SeriesF\_93E.pdf  
  
System of National Accounts 2008 (SNA 2008): https://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/sna2008.asp  
  
The Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization:  
  
http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutions-adopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS\_230304/lang--en/index.htm  
  
  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
UNSD has been reviewing in detail the survey methodology followed to collect time use data and the classification of activities used by countries, to assess the level of comparability across countries and over time in a given country.   
  
  
  
Consultation/validation process with countries for adjustments and estimates  
  
Most of the data are provided and validated by national statistical offices. In some cases, data have been obtained from publicly available national databases and publications. UNSD communicates with countries if there are inconsistencies or possible errors in the data.  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
Most data on time use are collected through dedicated time use surveys or from time-use modules integrated in multi-purpose household surveys, conducted at national level.  
  
  
  
Data on time-use can be collected through a 24-hour diary (light diary) or stylized questionnaire. With diaries, respondents are asked to report on what activity they were performing when they started the day, what activity followed, and the time that activity began and ended (in most of the cases based on fixed intervals), and so forth through the 24 hours of the day. Stylized time-use questions ask respondents to recall the amount of time they allocated to a certain activity over a specified period, such as a day or a week. Often, stylized time-use questions are attached as a module to a multipurpose household survey. The 24-hour diary method yields better results than the stylized method but is a more expensive mode of data collection.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
The official counterparts at the country level are the national statistical offices. Data are compiled and validated. If there are inconsistencies or issues with the data, UNSD consults the focal point in the national statistical office. The data for SDG 5.4.1 are, as much as possible, in line with relevant international standards, or properly footnoted. International standards include:  
  
Guide to Producing Statistics on Time-Use: Measuring Paid und Unpaid Work  
  
The International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics 2016 (ICATUS 2016)  
  
System of National Accounts 2008 (SNA 2008)  
  
Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
91 countries with data between 2000 and 2018  
  
  
  
By Year:  
  
From 2000 – 2004: 41 countries  
  
From 2005 – 2009: 38 countries  
  
From 2010: 65 countries  
  
  
  
By Region (2000 – 2018)  
  
Africa: 16 countries  
  
Americas: 19 countries  
  
Asia: 21 countries  
  
Europe: 32 countries  
  
Oceania: 3 countries  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
From 2000 to 2018  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
Once national time use data become available, they are added to the UNSD database.   
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
June 2019  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
National Statistical Offices  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
United Nations Statistics Division  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
http://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/default.html  
  
  
  
References:  
  
Guide to Producing Statistics on Time-Use: Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work (https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/SeriesF/SeriesF\_93E.pdf)  
  
International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics 2016 (https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic-social/time-use/icatus-2016/)  
  
Minimum Set of Gender Indicators (http://genderstats.un.org)

Last updated: March 2020  
  
Goal: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
Target: 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: 5.5.2: Proportion of women in managerial positions  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
ILO  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
This indicator refers to the proportion of females in the total number of persons employed in managerial positions. It is recommended to use two different measures jointly for this indicator: the share of females in (total) management and the share of females in senior and middle management (thus excluding junior management). The joint calculation of these two measures provides information on whether women are more represented in junior management than in senior and middle management, thus pointing to an eventual ceiling for women to access higher-level management positions. In these cases, calculating only the share of women in (total) management would be misleading, in that it would suggest that women hold positions with more decision-making power and responsibilities than they actually do.  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
The indicator provides information on the proportion of women who are employed in decision-making and management roles in government, large enterprises and institutions, thus providing some insight into women’s power in decision making and in the economy (especially compared to men's power in those areas).  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
Employment comprises all persons of working age who, during a short reference period (one week), were engaged in any activity to produce goods or provide services for pay or profit.  
  
Employment in management is determined according to the categories of the latest version of the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO-08), which organizes jobs into a clearly defined set of groups based on the tasks and duties undertaken in the job. For the purpose of this indicator, it is preferable to refer separately to senior and middle management only, and to total management (including junior management). The share of women tends to be higher in junior management than in senior and middle management, so limiting the indicator to a measure including junior management may introduce bias. Senior and middle management correspond to sub-major groups 11, 12 and 13 in ISCO-08 and sub-major groups 11 and 12 in ISCO-88. If statistics are not available disaggregated at the sub-major group level (two-digit level of ISCO), then major group 1 of ISCO-88 and ISCO-08 can be used as a proxy and the indicator would then refer only to total management (including junior management).  
  
  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
This indicator's main limitation is that it does not reflect differences in the levels of responsibility of women in these high- and middle-level positions or the characteristics of the enterprises and organizations in which they are employed. Its quality is also heavily dependent on the reliability of the employment statistics by occupation at the ISCO two-digit level.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Using ISCO-08:  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Which can be also expressed as:   
  
  
  
And  
  
  
  
  
  
Using ISCO-08:  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Which can also be expressed as:  
  
  
  
And  
  
  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
This indicator requires no disaggregation per se, although employment statistics by both sex and occupation are needed to calculate it. If statistics are available and the sample size permits, it may be of interest to cross-tabulate this indicator by economic activity (ISIC) or disaggregate further to observe the share of women across more detailed occupational groups.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
Multivariate regression and cross-validation techniques are used to impute missing values at the country level. The additional variables used for the imputation include a range of indicators, including labour market and economic data. However, the imputed missing country values are only used to calculate the global and regional estimates; they are not used for international reporting on the SDG indicators by the ILO.   
  
  
  
For a more detailed methodological description, please refer to the ILO modelled estimates methodological overview, available at https://www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/TEM.pdf.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
The aggregates are derived from the ILO modelled estimates that are used to produce global and regional estimates of, amongst others, employment by occupation and gender. These models use multivariate regression and cross-validation techniques to impute missing values at the country level, which are then aggregated to produce regional and global estimates. The regional and global proportions of women in managerial positions are obtained by first adding up, across countries, the numerator and denominator of the formula that defines the proportion of women in managerial positions - outlined above. Once both magnitudes are produced at the desired level of aggregation, the ratio between the two is used to compute the rate for each regional grouping and the global level. Notice that this direct aggregation method can be used due to the imputation of missing observations. For further information on the estimates, please refer to the the ILO modelled estimates methodological overview, available at https://www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/TEM.pdf.  
  
  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
In order to calculate this indicator, data on employment by sex and occupation is needed, using at least the 2-digit level of the International Standard Classification of Occupations. This data are collected at the national level mainly through labour force surveys (or other types of household surveys with an employment module). For the methodology of each national household survey, one must refer to the most comprehensive survey report or to the methodological publications of the national statistical office in question.  
  
ILO Guidebook - Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators (https://www.ilo.org/stat/Publications/WCMS\_647109/lang--en/index.htm )  
  
ILO Manual – Decent Work Indicators, Concepts and Definitions – Chapter 8, Equal opportunity and treatment in employment http://www.ilo.org/integration/resources/pubs/WCMS\_229374/lang--en/index.htm (second version, page 146)  
  
Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutionsadopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS\_230304/lang--en/index.htm   
  
International Standard Classification of Occupations 2008 (ISCO-08) http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco08/   
  
ILOSTAT Database (https://ilostat.ilo.org/)  
  
ILOSTAT– Indicator Descriptions (Employment by occupation, at: https://ilostat.ilo.org/resources/methods/description-employment-by-occupation/).   
  
  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
Data consistency and quality checks are regularly conducted for validation of the data before dissemination in the ILOSTAT database. In many cases, data are obtained through ILO processing of microdata sets of national household surveys. Data are also reported to the ILO Department of Statistics through its annual questionnaire on labour statistics, by national statistical offices or other relevant national agencies. The primary source of the data as well as the repository where applicable are indicated in the relevant metadata and/or footnotes in ILOSTAT and in the SDG Indicators Global Database.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
The recommended source for this indicator is a labour force survey or, if not available, other similar types of household surveys, including a module on employment. In the absence of any labour-related household survey, establishment surveys or administrative records may be used to gather information on the female share of employment by the required ISCO groups. In cases where establishment surveys or administrative records are used, the coverage is likely to be limited to formal enterprises or enterprises of a certain size. Information on the enterprises covered should be provided with the figures. When comparing figures across years, any changes in the versions of ISCO that are used should be taken into account.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
Indicator 5.5.2 is calculated from statistics submitted to the ILO Department of  
  
Statistics via the annual ILOSTAT questionnaire as well as through special agreements with regional and national statistical offices or through the processing of microdata sets of national household surveys.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
Data for this indicator is available as of 2000 in the SDG Indicators Global Database, but time series going back several decades are available in ILOSTAT.  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
 The ILO Department of Statistics sends out its annual questionnaire on labour statistics every year, usually in the 2nd quarter, with a view to receiving the requested statistics by the 3rd quarter or the end of the year at the latest. Data received in batch from regional and national statistical offices and data obtained through the processing of microdata sets of national household surveys by the ILO Department of Statistics are continuously updated in ILOSTAT as they become available.  
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
The ILO online database ILOSTAT is continuously updated to reflect statistics compiled and processed every week. In general, statistics for EUROSTAT and OECD countries are available around the 2nd or 3rd quarter of the year following the year of reference, whereas they are usually available around the 3rd or 4th quarter of the year following the year of reference for the other countries.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
National statistical offices  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
ILO  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
ILOSTAT database: https://ilostat.ilo.org   
  
Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators: https://www.ilo.org/stat/Publications/WCMS\_647109/lang--en/index.htm Decent work indicators - ILO Manual: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---integration/documents/publication/wcms\_229374.pdf   
  
ISCO-08: http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/isco08/   
  
Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization, adopted by the 19th ICLS: http://ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutions-adopted-byinternational-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS\_230304/lang--en/index.htm   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities

Last updated: 19 February 2020  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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(a): Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments   
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
The proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments, currently as at 1 January of reporting year, is currently measured as the number of seats held by women members in single or lower chambers of national parliaments, expressed as a percentage of all occupied seats.  
  
  
  
National parliaments can be bicameral or unicameral. This 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. Seats are usually won by members in general parliamentary elections. Seats may also be filled by nomination, appointment, indirect election, rotation of members and by-election.  
  
  
  
Seats refer to the number of parliamentary mandates, or the number of members of parliament.  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
The indicator measures the degree to which women have equal access to parliamentary decision making. Women’s participation in parliaments is a key aspect of women’s opportunities in political and public life, and is therefore linked to women’s empowerment. Equal numbers of women and men in lower chambers would give an indicator value of 50 per cent.  
  
  
  
A stronger presence of women in parliament allows new concerns to be highlighted on political agendas, and new priorities to be put into practice through the adoption and implementation of policies and laws. The inclusion of the perspectives and interests of women is a prerequisite for democracy and gender equality, and contributes to good governance. A representative parliament also allows the different experiences of men and women to affect the social, political and economic future of societies.  
  
  
  
Changes in the indicator have been tracked over time. Although the international community has supported and promoted women’s participation in political decision-making structures for several decades, improvement in women’s access to parliament has been slow. This has led to the introduction of special policy and legal measures to increase women’s shares of parliamentary seats in several countries. Those countries that have adopted special measures generally have greater representation of women in parliament than countries without special measures.  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
Seats refer to the number of parliamentary mandates, also known as the number of members of parliament. Seats are usually won by members in general parliamentary elections. Seats may also be filled by nomination, appointment, indirect election, rotation of members and by-election.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
The number of countries covered varies with suspensions or dissolutions of parliaments. As of 1 February 2016, 193 countries are included.  
  
There can be difficulties in obtaining information on by-election results and replacements due to death or resignation. These changes are ad hoc events which are more difficult to keep track of. By-elections, for instance, are often not announced internationally as general elections are.  
  
The data excludes the numbers and percentages of women in upper chambers of parliament. The information in available on the IPU website at https://data.ipu.org/women-ranking.  
  
Parliaments vary considerably in their internal workings and procedures, however, generally legislate, oversee government and represent the electorate. In terms of measuring women’s contribution to political decision making, this indicator may not be sufficient because some women may face obstacles in fully and efficiently carrying out their parliamentary mandate.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
The proportion of seats held by women in national parliament is derived by dividing the total number of seats occupied by women by the total number of seats in parliament.  
  
  
  
There is no weighting or normalising of statistics.  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
The indicator can be disaggregated for analysis by geographical region and sub-region, legislature type (single or lower, parliamentary or presidential), the method of filling seats (directly elected, indirectly elected, appointed) and the use of special measures.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
No adjustments are made for missing values.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
Data are not adjusted for international comparability. Though, for international comparisons, generally only the single or lower house is considered in calculating the indicator.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
The data used are official statistics received from parliaments.  
  
  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
The data are provided by national parliaments and updated after an election or parliamentary renewal. National parliaments also transmit their data to the IPU at least once a year and when the numbers change significantly. IPU member parliaments provide information on changes and updates to the IPU secretariat. After each general election or renewal a questionnaire is dispatched 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, parliamentary web sites or Internet searches. Additional information gathered from other sources is regularly crosschecked with parliament.   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
Data are available for 193 countries. Information is available in all countries where a national legislature exists and therefore does not include parliaments that have been dissolved or suspended for an indefinite period.  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
According to the IPU website the data extraction has changed over time as follows;  
  
2020 – Present As at 1 January  
  
2013 – 2019 As at 1 February  
  
1999 As at 5 February  
  
2002 As at 4 February  
  
2003, 2005 – 2007, 2009 - 2012 As at 31 January  
  
2001, 2004 As at 30 January  
  
2008 As at 29 January  
  
1998, 2000 As at 25 January  
  
1997 As at 1 January  
  
Prior to 1997 Unknown  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
Data are updated on a monthly basis, up to the last day of the month.  
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
Data are updated on a monthly basis, up to the last day of the month.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) member parliaments  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU)  
  
  
  
References  
  
URL:  
  
https://data.ipu.org/women-ranking  
  
http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif-arc.htm  
  
  
  
References:  
  
Inter-parliamentary Union (2008). Equality in Politics: A Survey of Women and Men in Parliaments. Geneva. Available from http://www.ipu.org/english/surveys.htm#equality08.  
  
Inter-parliamentary Union (2010). Is Parliament Open to Women? Available from http://www.ipu.org/PDF/publications/wmn09-e.pdf  
  
Inter-parliamentary Union (2011). Gender-Sensitive Parliaments. A Global Review of Good Practice. Available from http://www.ipu.org/pdf/publications/gsp11-e.pdf  
  
United Nations Development Fund For Women (2009). Progress of the World’s Women 2008/2009. New York. Available from http://www.unifem.org/progress/2008.   
  
UN-Women (2011). Progress of the World’s Women 2011-2012. New York. Available from http://progress.unwomen.org/pdfs/EN-Report-Progress.pdf  
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
Indicator 16.7.1: Proportions of positions (by age group, sex, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local), including (a) the legislatures; (b) the public service; and (c) the judiciary, compared to national distributions.

Last updated: 29 March 2019  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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  
  
  
  
Institutional Information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
UN Women, World Bank Group, OECD Development Centre   
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definitions:  
  
Indicator 5.1.1 measures Government efforts to put in place legal frameworks that promote, enforce and monitor gender equality.   
  
  
  
The indicator is based on an assessment of legal frameworks that promote, enforce and monitor gender equality. The assessment is carried out by national counterparts, including National Statistical Offices (NSOs) and/or National Women’s Machinery (NWMs), and legal practitioners/researchers on gender equality, using a questionnaire comprising 45 yes/no questions under four areas of law: (i) overarching legal frameworks and public life; (ii) violence against women; (iii) employment and economic benefits; and (iv) marriage and family. The areas of law and questions are drawn from the international legal and policy framework on gender equality, in particular the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which has 189 States parties, and the Beijing Platform for Action. As such, no new internationally agreed standard on equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex was needed. The primary sources of information relevant for indicator 5.1.1 are legislation and policy/action plans.  
  
  
  
The 45 questions in the questionnaire are:  
  
  
  
Area 1: Overarching legal frameworks and public life  
  
  
  
Promote  
  
  
  
If customary law is a valid source of law under the constitution, is it invalid if it violates constitutional provisions on equality or nondiscrimination?   
  
  
  
If personal law is a valid source of law under the constitution, is it invalid if it violates constitutional provisions on equality or nondiscrimination?   
  
  
  
Is there a discrimination law that prohibits both direct and indirect discrimination against women?   
  
  
  
Do women and men enjoy equal rights and access to hold public and political office (legislature, executive, judiciary)?   
  
  
  
Are there quotas for women (reserved seats) in, or quotas for women in candidate lists for, national parliament?  
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to confer citizenship to their spouses and their children?  
  
  
  
  
  
Enforce and monitor   
  
  
  
Does the law establish a specialized independent body tasked with receiving complaints of discrimination based on gender (e.g., national human rights institution, women’s commission, ombudsperson)?   
  
  
  
Is legal aid mandated in criminal matters?   
  
  
  
Is legal aid mandated in civil/family matters?  
  
  
  
Does a woman’s testimony carry the same evidentiary weight in court as a man’s?   
  
  
  
Are there laws that explicitly require the production and/or dissemination of gender statistics?  
  
  
  
Are there sanctions for noncompliance with mandated candidate list quotas, or incentives for political parties to field women candidates in national parliamentary elections?   
  
  
  
Area 2: Violence against women  
  
  
  
Promote  
  
  
  
Is there legislation on domestic violence that includes physical violence?  
  
  
  
Is there legislation on domestic violence that includes sexual violence?  
  
  
  
Is there legislation on domestic violence that includes psychological/emotional violence?  
  
  
  
Is there legislation on domestic violence that includes financial/economic violence?  
  
  
  
Have provisions exempting perpetrators from facing charges for rape if the perpetrator marries the victim after the crime been removed, or never existed in legislation?   
  
  
  
Have provisions reducing penalties in cases of so-called honour crimes been removed, or never existed in legislation?  
  
  
  
Are laws on rape based on lack of consent, without requiring proof of physical force or penetration?   
  
  
  
Does legislation explicitly criminalize marital rape or does legislation entitle a woman to file a complaint for rape against her husband or partner?  
  
  
  
Is there legislation that specifically addresses sexual harassment?   
  
  
  
Enforce and monitor  
  
  
  
Are there budgetary commitments provided for by government entities for the implementation of legislation addressing violence against women by creating an obligation on government to provide budget or allocation of funding for the implementation of relevant programmes or activities?   
  
  
  
Are there budgetary commitments provided for by government entities for the implementation of legislation addressing violence against women by allocating a specific budget, funding and/or incentives to support non-governmental organizations for activities to address violence against women?   
  
  
  
Is there is a national action plan or policy to address violence against women that is overseen by a national mechanism with the mandate to monitor and review implementation?   
  
  
  
  
  
Area 3: Employment and economic benefits  
  
  
  
Promote  
  
  
  
Does the law mandate nondiscrimination on the basis of gender in employment?  
  
  
  
Does the law mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value?   
  
  
  
Can women work in jobs deemed hazardous, arduous or morally inappropriate in the same way as men?  
  
  
  
Are women able to work in the same industries as men?  
  
  
  
Are women able to perform the same tasks as men?  
  
  
  
Does the law allow women to work the same night hours as men?   
  
  
  
Does the law provide for maternity or parental leave available to mothers in accordance with the ILO standards?   
  
  
  
Does the law provide for paid paternity or parental leave available to fathers or partners?  
  
  
  
Enforce and monitor  
  
  
  
Is there a public entity that can receive complaints on gender discrimination in employment?   
  
  
  
Is childcare publicly provided or subsidized?  
  
  
  
Area 4: Marriage and family  
  
  
  
Promote  
  
  
  
Is the minimum age of marriage at least 18, with no legal exceptions, for both women and men?  
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to enter marriage (i.e., consent) and initiate divorce?   
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to be the legal guardian of their children during and after marriage?   
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to be recognized as head of household or head of family?  
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to choose where to live?   
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to choose a profession?  
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to obtain an identity card?  
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to apply for passports?   
  
  
  
Do women and men have equal rights to own, access and control marital property including upon divorce?  
  
  
  
Enforce and monitor   
  
  
  
Is marriage under the legal age void or voidable?  
  
  
  
Are there dedicated and specialized family courts?   
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
Equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex are core principles under the international legal and policy framework, including the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which has 189 States parties, and the Beijing Platform for Action. This framework sets out the commitments of States to eliminate discrimination against women and promote gender equality, including in the area of legal frameworks.   
  
  
  
In the Beijing Platform for Action, States pledged to revoke any remaining laws that discriminate on the basis of sex. The five-year review and appraisal of the Beijing Platform for Action (Beijing + 5) established 2005 as the target date for the repeal of laws that discriminate against women. This deadline has come and gone. While there has been progress in reforming laws to promote gender equality, discrimination against women in the law continues in many countries. Even where legal reforms have taken place, gaps in implementation persist.  
  
  
  
Removing discriminatory laws and putting in place legal frameworks that advance gender equality are prerequisites to ending discrimination against women and achieving gender equality (Goal 5, Target 5.1). Indicator 5.1.1 will be crucial in accelerating progress on the implementation of SDG 5 and all other gender-related commitments in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.  
  
  
  
Concepts:   
  
  
  
Article 1 of CEDAW provides a comprehensive definition of discrimination against women covering direct and indirect discrimination and article 2 sets out general obligations for States, in particular on required legal frameworks, to eliminate discrimination against women. Article 1 of CEDAW states: “… the term "discrimination against women" shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field”.  
  
  
  
The term “legal frameworks” is defined broadly to encompass laws, mechanisms and policies/plans to ‘promote, enforce and monitor’ gender equality.   
  
  
  
Legal frameworks that “promote” are those that establish women’s equal rights with men and enshrine non-discrimination on the basis of sex. Legal frameworks that “enforce and monitor’ are directed to the realization of equality and non-discrimination and implementation of laws, such as policies/plans, establishment of enforcement and monitoring mechanisms, and allocation of financial resources.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
To avoid duplication, the indicator does not cover areas of law that are addressed under 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’, and indicator 5.6.2, ‘Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education’. Indicator 5.1.1 complements these other indicators.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Scoring:  
  
  
  
The indicator is based on an assessment of legal frameworks that promote, enforce and monitor gender equality using a questionnaire comprising 45 Yes/No questions under four areas of law drawn from the international legal and policy framework on gender equality, in particular, CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action.   
  
  
  
The answers to the questions are coded with simple “Yes/No” answers with “1” for “Yes” and “0” for “No”. For questions 1 and 2 only, they may be scored “N/A” in which case they are not included as part of the overall score calculation for the area.   
  
  
  
The scoring methodology is the unweighted average of the questions under each area of law calculated by: .  
  
  
  
Where Ai refers the area of law i; mi refers to the total number of questions under the area of law i; q1+...+qmi refers to the sum of the coded questions under the area of law and where qi=”1” if the answer is “Yes” and qi=”0” if the answer is “No”.    
  
  
  
Results of the four areas are reported as percentages as a dashboard: . The score for each area (a number between 0 and 100) therefore represents the percentage of achievement of that country in that area, with 100 being best practice met on all questions in the area.   
  
  
  
The choice of presenting all four area scores without further aggregation is the result of adopting the posture that high values in one area in a given country need not compensate in any way the country having low values in some other area, and that a comprehensive examination of the value of those four numbers for each country is potentially more informative than trying to summarize all four numbers into a single index.  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:   
  
  
  
Four areas of law: (i) overarching legal frameworks and public life; (ii) violence against women; (iii) employment and economic benefits; and (iv) marriage and family.  
  
  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:   
  
  
  
At country level: Not imputed.  
  
  
  
At regional and global levels: Not imputed.   
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
The regional and global aggregate calculations will be the unweighted average of the scores of each country in that region (or globally), per area of law.   
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
There should be no discrepancies. Data is collected through validated surveys.  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
  
  
Methodology used by countries for the compilation of the data at the national level: The questionnaires provided to countries include guidance, definitions and instructions.   
  
International recommendations and guidelines: The areas of law and questions are drawn from the international legal and policy framework on gender equality, in particular the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which has 189 States parties, (http://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/CEDAW/Pages/CEDAWIndex.aspx), and the Beijing Platform for Action (http://www.unwomen.org/en/how-we-work/intergovernmental-support/world-conferences-on-women). The attached Methodological Note sets out the international standards supporting the areas of law and questions and also attaches the background paper for the expert workshop which provides a useful summary of the international legal and policy framework on equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex and the relevance for SDG indicator 5.1.1.  
  
  
  
Quality assurance:  
  
  
  
The assessment of laws is initially carried out by national counterparts, and legal practitioners and researchers on gender equality. The data is checked and verified by the World Bank Group, OECD Development Centre, and UN Women. The data is then sent to the designated focal points/country counterparts to review and validate. Please refer to the next section on Data sources for more details.    
  
  
  
  
  
Data sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
The data for the indicator are derived from an assessment of legal frameworks using primary sources/official government documents, in particular laws, policies/action plans. The assessment is carried out by national counterparts, including National Statistical Offices (NSOs) and/or National Women’s Machinery (NWMs), and legal practitioners/researchers on gender equality, using a questionnaire comprising 46 yes/no questions under four areas of law: (i) overarching legal frameworks and public life; (ii) violence against women; (iii) employment and economic benefits; and (iv) marriage and family. The areas of law and questions are drawn from the international legal and policy framework on gender equality, in particular the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which has 189 States parties, and the Beijing Platform for Action.    
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
Countries are asked to designate a focal point to undertake the coordination at the country level necessary for the collection and validation of the data. Most designated focal points are within the NWMs, a number are within the NSOs and some are within both the NWMs and the NSOs. After verification, the data with relevant laws, polices and other sources included, is sent to the designated focal points/country counterparts to review and validate. Final answers are arrived at after the process of validation with country counterparts.  
  
  
  
Data availability  
  
Pilot data collection and validation was carried out for 14 countries.   
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
Data will be compiled every two years starting in 2018.   
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
First quarter 2019.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
National counterparts, including National Statistical Offices and National Women’s Machinery.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
The World Bank Group, the OECD Development Centre, UN Women.  
  
  
  
References  
  
World Bank Group: http://wbl.worldbank.org/.  
  
OECD Development Centre: http://www.genderindex.org/.  
  
UN Women: http://data.unwomen.org/en/sdg-monitoring.  
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
There are other legal SDGs indicators:   
  
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’; and   
  
Indicator 5.6.2, ‘Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education’.   
  
To avoid duplication, indicator 5.1.1 does not cover areas of law that are addressed under indicators 5.a.2 and 5.6.2. Indicator 5.1.1 complements these other indicators.  
  
  
  
Legal frameworks that advance gender equality generally relate to all of Goal 5 as well as other Goals since gender equality is central to the achievement of all SDGs.  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
5

Last updated: March 2020  
  
  
  
Goal: 5 Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls   
  
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  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
Proportion of women aged 15-49 years (married or in union) who make their own decision on all three selected areas i.e. decide on their own health care; decide on use of contraception; and can say no to sexual intercourse with their husband or partner if they do not want. Only women who provide a “yes” answer to all three components are considered as women who make their own decisions regarding sexual and reproductive health.  
  
  
  
Women’s autonomy in decision-making and exercise of their reproductive rights is assessed from responses to the following three questions:  
  
  
  
Who usually makes decisions about health care for yourself?  
  
RESPONDENT   
  
HUSBAND/PARTNER  
  
RESPONDENT AND HUSBAND/PARTNER JOINTLY  
  
SOMEONE ELSE  
  
OTHER SPECIFY   
  
  
  
Who usually makes the decision on whether or not you should use contraception?   
  
RESPONDENT   
  
HUSBAND/PARTNER   
  
RESPONDENT AND HUSBAND/PARTNER JOINTLY  
  
SOMEONE ELSE  
  
OTHER SPECIFY  
  
  
  
Can you say no to your husband/partner if you do not want to have sexual intercourse?  
  
YES   
  
NO   
  
DEPENDS/NOT SURE  
  
  
  
A woman is considered to have autonomy in reproductive health decision making and to be empowered to exercise their reproductive rights if they (1) decide on health care for themselves, either alone or jointly with their husbands or partners, (2) decide on use or non-use of contraception, either alone or jointly with their husbands or partners; and (3) can say no to sex with their husband/partner if they do not want to.  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Women’s and girls’ autonomy in decision making about sexual and reproductive health services, contraceptive use and consensual sexual relations is key to their empowerment and the full exercise of their reproductive rights.    
  
  
  
Women who make their own decision regarding seeking healthcare for themselves are considered empowered to exercise their reproductive rights.  
  
  
  
Regarding decision-making on use of contraception, a clearer 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 empowered or has bargaining skills. Conversely, it is safe to assume that a woman that does not participate, at all, in making contraceptive choices is disempowered as far as sexual and reproductive decisions are concerned.   
  
  
  
A woman’s ability to say no to her husband/partner if she does not want to have sexual intercourse is well aligned with the concept of sexual autonomy and women’s empowerment.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
A union involves a man and a woman regularly cohabiting in a marriage-like relationship.   
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
Until recently, the indicator captured results for married and in-union women and adolescent girls of reproductive age (15–49 years old) who are using any type of contraception. In the phase of the national Demographic and Health Survey (DHS–7) and later rounds, the questionnaire are extended to respondents whether they are using contraception or not. One limitation of the data is that unmarried women and girls are not included.  
  
  
  
As of early 2020, a total of 57 countries, the majority in sub-Saharan Africa, have at least one survey with data on all three questions necessary for calculating Indicator 5.6.1. Broader data sources are needed and efforts to increase data coverage are underway. Current data on the indicator are mainly derived from the DHS and efforts are being made to include the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS), the Generation and Gender Survey (GGS) and other country-specific surveys.  
  
  
  
In many national contexts, household surveys, which are the main data source for this indicator, exclude the homeless and are likely to under-enumerate linguistic or religious minority groups.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Numerator: Number of married or in union women aged 15-49 years old:  
  
for whom decision on health care for themselves is not usually made by the husband/partner or someone else; and  
  
for whom the decision on contraception is not mainly made by the husband/partner; and   
  
who can say no to sex.  
  
Only women who satisfy all three empowerment criteria are included in the numerator.   
  
  
  
Denominator: Total number women aged 15-49 years old, who are married or in union.   
  
  
  
Proportion = (Numerator/Denominator) \* 100  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
Based on available household survey data, disaggregation is possible by age, geographic location, place of residence, education, and wealth quintile.   
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
No attempt from UNFPA to provide and publish estimates for individual countries or areas when country or area data are not available.   
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates are based on countries where data are available within the region. They should not be treated as country-level estimates for countries with missing values within the region.   
  
  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
Global and regional aggregates are computed as weighted averages of country level data. The weighting is based on the estimated population of married women aged 15-49, who are using any type of contraception in the reporting year. The estimates of number of women married/ in union and contraceptive prevalence rate are obtained from UN Population Division.   
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
Not applicable.  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
Current data on the indicator are mainly derived from nationally representative DHS. Data sources increasingly include MICS and GGS, and other country-specific surveys.   
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
Data is collected in line with the methodology used for the relevant national survey.   
  
  
  
Relevant country-specific surveys  
  
  
  
Data for SDG indicator 5.6.1 may be collectecd through existing county-specific surveys. For existing national household surveys, it must be ascertained that the sampling design does not systematically exclude subgroups of the population that are important to SDG 5.6.1, specifically, women of reproductive age (15-49) that are currently married or in union. Surveys that cover only certain population subgroups, such as women who speak the dominant language or women from the main ethnic group, may exclude the experiences of a large number of women. Data on the ethnicity and religion of the survey participants should be collected whenever available. The survey should have a large sample size (usually between 5,000 and 30,000 households), be nationally-representative, and representative, at least, at one administrative level below the national level.  
  
  
  
Surveys on unrelated topics may not be good candidates for the incorporation of the SDG 5.6.1 questions. The sensitivity of the topics addressed in health surveys, in particular, those examining women’s health, making them a feasible instrument for incorporating questions on women’s experience of decision making in sex relations, use of contraceptive, and health care for themselves.  
  
  
  
In order to generate data for SDG 5.6.1, all three questions must be included in the survey. The three questiones in the Definition section provides generic questions that can be used in country-specific surveys. For the first and the second questions, these should include distinct categories for women making decisions herself, and women making decisions jointly with her husband/partner.   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
Currently, a total of 57 countries have at least one survey with data on all the 3 questions above which are necessary for calculating Indicator 5.6.1. The 57 countries with data are distributed as follows:   
  
Central Asia and Southern Asia (5)  
  
Eastern Asia and South-eastern Asia (5)   
  
Northern America and Europe (2)  
  
Western Asia and Northern Africa (2)  
  
Latin America and the Caribbean (7)   
  
Sub-Saharan Africa (36)  
  
  
  
Several other countries have only one or two of the three questions needed to calculate Indicator 5.6.1. UNFPA engages with major international and regional survey programmes, as well as national and international organizations and agencies to incorporate the questions in relevant household surveys with a view to covering all countries on a global scale.   
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
Currently data comes from household surveys which have three to five- year cycles.  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
As per DHS, MICS, GGS and country-specific survey cycles  
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
On-going as new data becomes available   
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
Agencies responsible for household surveys at national level.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
UNFPA   
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:   
  
Not available.  
  
  
  
References:  
  
Not available.  
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
SDG Indicator 5.6.2

Last updated: March 2020  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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 5.6.2: Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Indicator 5.6.2 seeks to measure the extent to which countries have national laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education.   
  
  
  
The indicator is a percentage (%) scale of 0 to 100 (national laws and regulations exist to guarantee full and equal access), indicating a country’s status and progress in the existence of such national laws and regulations. Indicator 5.6.2 measures only the existence of laws and regulations; it does not measure their implementation.   
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Indicator 5.6.2 seeks to provide the first comprehensive global assessment of legal and regulatory frameworks in line with the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Programme of Action, the Beijing Platform for Action, and international human rights standards. The indicator measures the legal and regulatory environment across four thematic sections, defined as the key parameters of sexual and reproductive health care, information and education according to these international consensus documents and human rights standards:  
  
  
  
Maternity care  
  
Contraception and family planning  
  
Comprehensive sexuality education and information  
  
HIV and HPV  
  
  
  
Each of the four thematic areas (sections) is represented by individual components, reflecting topics that are: i) critical from a substantive perspective, ii) span a broad spectrum of sexual and reproductive health care, information and education, and iii) the subject of national legal and regulatory frameworks. In total, Indicator 5.6.2 measures 13 components, categorized as follows:  
  
  
  
SECTION I: MATERNITY CARE  
  
Component 1. Maternity care  
  
Component 2. Life-saving commodities  
  
Component 3. Abortion  
  
Component 4. Post-abortion care  
  
SECTION II: CONTRACEPTION AND FAMILY PLANNING  
  
Component 5. Contraception  
  
Component 6. Consent for contraceptive services  
  
Component 7. Emergency contraception  
  
SECTION III: COMPREHENSIVE SEXUALITY EDUCATION AND INFORMATION  
  
Component 8. CSE law  
  
Component 9. CSE curriculum  
  
SECTION IV: HIV and HPV  
  
Component 10. HIV testing and counselling  
  
Component 11. HIV treatment and care  
  
Component 12. Confidentiality of health status for men and women living with HIV  
  
Component 13. HPV vaccine  
  
  
  
For each of the 13 components, information is collected on the existence of i) specific legal enablers (positive laws and regulations) and ii) specific legal barriers. Such barriers encompass restrictions to positive laws and regulations (e.g. by age, sex, marital status and requirement for third party authorization), as well as plural legal systems that contradict co-existing positive laws and regulations. For each component, the specific enablers and barriers on which data are collected are defined as the principle enablers and barriers for that component. Even where positive laws are in place, legal barriers can undermine full and equal access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education; the methodology is designed to capture this.  
  
  
  
The percentage value reflects a country’s status and progress in the existence of national laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to sexual and reproductive health care, information, and education. By reflecting the “extent to which” countries guarantee full and equal access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education, this indicator allows across country comparison and within-country progress over time to be captured.   
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
Laws: laws and statutes are official rules of conduct or action prescribed, or formally recognized as binding, or enforced by a controlling authority that governs the behavior of actors (including people, corporations, associations, government agencies). They are adopted or ratified by the legislative branch of government and may be formally recognized in the Constitution or interpreted by courts. Laws governing sexual and reproductive health are not necessarily contained in one law.   
  
  
  
Regulations: are considered to be executive, ministerial or other administrative orders or decrees. At the municipal level, regulations are sometimes called ordinances. Regulations and ordinances issued by governmental entities have the force of law, although circumscribed by the level of the issuing authority. Under this methodology, only regulations with national-level application are considered.   
  
Restrictions: many laws and regulations contain restrictions in the scope of their applicability. Such restrictions, which include, though are not limited to, those by age, sex, marital status, and requirement for third party authorization, represent barriers to full and equal access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education.   
  
  
  
Plural legal systems: are defined as legal systems in which multiple sources of law co-exist. Such legal systems have typically developed over a period of time as a consequence of colonial inheritance, religion and other socio-cultural factors. Examples of sources of law that might co-exist under a plural legal system include: English common law, French civil or other law, statutory law, and customary and religious law. The co-existence of multiple sources of law can create fundamental contradictions in the legal system, which result in barriers to full and equal access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education.   
  
  
  
“Guarantee” (access): for the purpose of this methodology, “guarantee” is understood in relation to a law or regulation that assures a particular outcome or condition. The methodology recognizes that laws can only guarantee “in principle”; for the outcomes to be fully realized in practice, additional steps, including policy and budgetary measures will need to be in place.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
Indicator 5.6.2 measures exclusively the existence of laws and regulations and their barriers. It does not measure the implementation of such laws/regulations. In addition, the 13 components are intended to be indicative of sexual and reproductive health care, information and education, instead of a complete or exhaustive list of the care, information and education. These components were selected because they were identified as key parameters according to international consensus documents and human rights standards.   
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
The indicator measures specific legal enablers and barriers for 13 components across four sections. The calculation of the indicator requires data for all 13 components.  
  
  
  
The 13 components are placed on the same scale, with 0% being the lowest value and 100% being the most optimal value. Each component is calculated independently and weighted equally. Each component is calculated as:  
  
  
  
  
  
: Data for component i  
  
: Total number of enablers in component i  
  
: Number of enablers that exist in component i  
  
: Total number of barriers in component i  
  
: Number of barriers that exist in component i  
  
: Data for component i  
  
: Total number of enablers in component i  
  
: Number of enablers that exist in component i  
  
: Total number of barriers in component i  
  
: Number of barriers that exist in component i  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Value for Indicator 5.6.2 is calculated as the arithmetic mean of the 13 component data. Similarly, the value for each section is calculated as the arithmetic mean of its constituent component data.   
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
Data will be disaggregated by section and component. This will enable countries to identify the particular areas of sexual and reproductive health care, information and education in which progress is required.   
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level:  
  
  
  
No imputation will be made for a country with missing data.   
  
   
  
At regional and global levels:  
  
  
  
No imputation will be made at regional and global levels.   
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
Global and regional aggregates are computed as unweighted averages of country-specific data for constituent countries.   
  
   
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
Not applicable, as indicator 5.6.2 relies on official data provided by national governments, and no estimation is produced at the international level.   
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
Indicator 5.6.2 is calculated based on official government responses collected through the United Nations Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development. The Inquiry, mandated by the General Assembly in its resolution 1838 (XVII) of 18 December 1962, has been conducted by the Secretary-General since 1963. All questions required for indicator 5.6.2 are integrated into Module II on fertility, family planning and reproductive health of the Inquiry.   
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
Indicator 5.6.2 relies on official responses provided by national governments. UNFPA may follow-up with national governments and request further information if the responses differ from country specific information on legal and regulatory developments on issues pertaining to respective mandates of key stakeholders including UN Country teams and UN agencies. UNFPA also encourages each country to establish a national validation committee to review and validate all input from the Inquiry.   
  
  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Indicator 5.6.2 is calculated based on official government responses collected through the United Nations Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development. The Inquiry, mandated by the General Assembly in its resolution 1838 (XVII) of 18 December 1962, has been conducted by the Secretary-General since 1963. All questions required for indicator 5.6.2 are integrated into Module II on fertility, family planning and reproductive health of the Inquiry.   
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
The Inquiry is sent to the Permanent Missions by UN Population Division (DESA). UNFPA then follow-up with UNFPA Country Offices.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
107 countries have complete or partial data for indicator 5.6.2, covering 75 percent of the world’s population. A total of 75 countries have complete data, allowing calculation of data for indicator 5.6.2.   
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
Not applicable  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
 Baseline data is collected in 2019. Next data collection will be in 2021; further data collection will be scheduled every 4 years.   
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
2020  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
Data will be provided by relevant government ministries, departments and agencies.   
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
UNFPA, with inputs from partner international agencies.   
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Target 3.7: By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes.  
  
  
  
  
  
1

Last Updated: 16 October 2017  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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, by type of tenure  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
The indicator is divided in two sub-indicators.   
  
  
  
Sub-indicator (a) is a prevalence measure. It measures the prevalence of people in the agricultural population with ownership or tenure rights over agricultural land, disaggregated by sex.  
  
  
  
No. people in agricultural population with ownership or tenure rights over agricultural land  
  
\* 100, by sex  
  
Total agricultural population  
  
  
  
  
  
Sub-indicator (b) focusses on the gender parity, measuring the extent to which women are disadvantaged in ownership / tenure rights over agricultural land.   
  
  
  
No. women in the agricultural population with ownership or tenure rights over agricultural land  
  
\* 100  
  
Total in the agricultural population with ownership or tenure rights over agricultural land  
  
  
  
  
  
Concepts  
  
Definition of all concepts and terms associated with the indicator are reported below:   
  
  
  
Agricultural land:   
  
In compliance with the classification proposed by the World Census of Agriculture 2020 (WCA 2020), land is considered ‘agricultural land’ according to its use. Moreover, a reference period is usually required in order to characterize the use of a specific area of agricultural land and identify subcategories.  
  
  
  
As clearly shown in the figure below, agricultural land is a subset of the total land.  
  
  
  
Classification of land use (WCA 2020)  
  
  
  
In particular, following the WCA 2020, agricultural land includes:  
  
land under temporary crops  
  
land under temporary meadows and pastures  
  
land temporarily fallow  
  
land under permanent crops  
  
land under permanent meadows and pastures  
  
  
  
It excludes:  
  
land under farm buildings and farmyards  
  
forest and other wooded land  
  
area used for aquaculture (including inland and coastal waters if part of the holding)  
  
other area not elsewhere classified  
  
  
  
Since the indicator 5.a.1 focuses on agricultural land, it excludes all the forms of land that are not considered ‘agricultural’, including land under farm buildings and farmyards.  
  
  
  
Agricultural population:  
  
  
  
Indicator 5.a.1 uses ‘agricultural population’ as denominator, instead of the total population, because tenure rights over agricultural land are relevant especially for individuals whose livelihood relies on agriculture. As a consequence, in the context of 5.a.1, the term ‘agricultural population’ has to be interpreted as equivalent of ‘individuals engaged in agriculture’.  
  
  
  
Although an official definition of ‘agricultural population’ does not exist, an operational definition of this term shall be proposed for the scope of indicator 5.a.1.   
  
Investigating involvement in agriculture is not trivial, because:  
  
Agricultural work is highly irregular and strongly affected by seasonality, therefore if the survey questions adopt a short recall period, we risk excluding individuals engaged in agriculture because they did not practice agriculture at the time of the survey or simply because they were interviewed off-season.  
  
Agricultural work may take a lot of individual’s time – so be the main activity – but not necessarily be the main source of income  
  
Agriculture is sometimes practiced only or mainly for self-consumption, without any market orientation (so, with no or little income) and therefore not necessarily perceived an economic activity.  
  
Finally, the individual’s livelihood cannot be completely detached from the livelihood of the other household members, thus the necessity of a household-level perspective.  
  
  
  
In view of this, in the context of the indicator 5.a.1, an individual is part of ‘adult agricultural population’ if the following conditions are met:   
  
is adult  
  
s/he belongs to a household where at least one member is mainly engaged in an agricultural work over the past 12 months, regardless the final purpose (whether for income-generation or self-consumption) and the status in employment.   
  
  
  
The adoption of a household perspective is particularly important from the gender perspective, because in many agricultural households, women often consider themselves as ‘not involved in agriculture’ whereas they provide substantive support to the household’s agricultural activities.  
  
  
  
Ownership and tenure rights over agricultural land:  
  
  
  
It is challenging to define and to operationalize ownership and tenure rights in a way that provides reliable and comparable figures across countries.  
  
  
  
Land ownership is a legally recognised right to acquire, to use and to transfer land. In private property systems, this is a right akin to a freehold tenure. However, in systems where land is owned by the State, the term ‘land ownership’ refers to possession of the rights most akin to ownership in a private property system – for instance, long-term leases, occupancy, tenancy or use rights granted by the State, often for several decades, and that are transferrable. In this context, it is more appropriate to speak of tenure rights.  
  
  
  
Nonetheless, as emphasized by the EDGE (Evidence and Data for Gender Equality) project, focusing on legally recognized documents is not sufficient to analyse the complexity of rights related to land, especially in developing countries and from the gender perspective. The main factor limiting the universal applicability of legally recognized documents is the diverse penetration of such legally binding documents.   
  
  
  
Considering the above, as well as the need to propose an indicator valid at global level, the indicator 5.a.1 relies on the three conditions (proxies): 1) Presence of legally recognised documents in the name of the individual; 2) right to sell; 3) right to bequeath.   
  
  
  
1) Presence of legally recognised documents in the name of the individual  
  
  
  
It refers to the existence of any document an individual can use to claim property rights before the law over an asset by virtue of the individual’s name being listed as owner or holder on the document.   
  
Given the differences between legal systems across countries it is not possible to clearly define an exhaustive list of documents that could be considered a proof of tenure security. However, depending on the national legal framework the following documents may be considered as formal titles:  
  
Title deed: “a written or printed instrument that effects a legal disposition”  
  
Certificate of occupancy or land certificate “A land certificate is a certified copy of an entry in a land title system and provides proof of the ownership and of encumbrances on the land at that time”  
  
Purchase agreement: a contract between a seller and a buyer to dispose of land  
  
Registered certificate of hereditary acquisition  
  
Certificate of customary tenure: an official state document indicating the owner or holder of the land because customary law has recognized that particular person as the rightful owner. It can be used as proof of legal right over the land. These certificates include, among others, certificates of customary ownership and customary use.  
  
Registered certificate of perpetual / long term lease: “a contractual agreement between a landlord and a tenant for the tenancy of land. A lease or tenancy agreement is the contractual document used to create a leasehold interest or tenancy”  
  
Registered short term (less than 3 years) rental contract  
  
Certificate issued for adverse possession or prescription: is a certificate indicating that the adverse possessor acquires the land after a prescribed statutory period.   
  
  
  
In order to overcome the lack of written documentation and to generate a globally valid indicator it becomes crucial to take into account also the alienation rights over land, which can be present even in contexts where tenure rights are not documented.   
  
  
  
Alienation is defined as the ability to transfer a given asset during lifetime or after death. The right to sell and to bequeath are considered as objective facts that carry legal force as opposed to a simple self-reported declaration of tenure rights over land. In particular:  
  
  
  
2) Right to sell  
  
It refers to the ability of an individual to permanently transfer the asset in question in return for cash or in-kind benefits.   
  
  
  
3) Right to bequeath  
  
It refers to the ability of an individual to pass on the asset in question to another person(s) after his or her death, by written will, oral will (if recognized by the country) or when the deceased left no will, through intestate succession.   
  
  
  
The decision to rely on the three proxies above (availability of a legal document, right to sell, right to bequeath) is justified by the results of the seven field tests conducted under the framework on the EDGE project. In particular, the tests demonstrated:   
  
  
  
The lack of reliability of reported ownership/possession. In fact reported ownership/possession was often neither supported by any kind of documentation nor by the possession of any alienation right.   
  
  
  
The need to consider as ‘owners’ or ‘holders of tenure rights’ only the individuals who are linked to the agricultural land by an objective right over it, including both formal legal possession and alienation rights.   
  
  
  
The need to combine different proxies, as no single proxy is universally valid.   
  
  
  
Rationale and interpretation  
  
  
  
Indicator 5.a.1 aims to monitor the gender balance on ownership / tenure rights over agricultural land. Sub-indicator (a) and sub-indicator (b) are based on the same data and they simply monitor ownership / tenure rights from two different angles. Indeed, while sub-indicator (a) uses the total male/female agricultural population as reference population, and it tell us how many male/female own land, sub-indicator (b) focusses on the agricultural population with land ownership/tenure rights, and it tell us how many of them are women.  
  
  
  
Therefore, it is sufficient to have:   
  
The number of adult individuals in agriculture with ownership or tenure rights over agricultural land (by sex), and  
  
The total adult agricultural population  
  
to compute both the sub indicators. The example below show that the same data can be used to construct both part (a) and part (b) of the indicator.  
  
  
  
   
  
male  
  
female  
  
total  
  
Adult individuals in agricultural population with ownership / tenure rights over agricultural land  
  
100  
  
10  
  
110  
  
Agricultural population  
  
200  
  
100  
  
300  
  
  
  
Sub-indicator (a): incidence  
  
  
  
  
  
It is crucial that the incidence is disaggregated by sex and that the two measures are compared, in order to appreciate the gap between men and women. In this example, overall, 37 percent of the agricultural population has ownership or tenure rights over ag land. But when the indicator is disaggregated by sex, we clearly appreciate the difference between men and women.   
  
  
  
Sub-indicator (b): share  
  
  
  
  
  
the focus is on the total number of people (in ag population) with tenure rights over agricultural land. The purpose of the sub-indicator (b) is to show how many of them are women.  
  
  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations  
  
  
  
If a country adopts the strategy of interviewing one randomly selected person per household, this may result in a small sample size. Countries are recommended to take into consideration the impact on the expected sample size on the precision of the estimates and the tabulation plan. If necessary, countries may consider to interview more than one individual per household, or all individuals. Alternatively, countries may consider to collect information on all household member through a proxy respondent (option 1 above).   
  
  
  
It is critical that the list of legally binging documents proposed above is customized in order to consider only documents that are enforceable before the law and that guarantee individual’s tenure rights.   
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
How the indicator is calculated:  
  
The indicator 5.a.1 considers as owners or holders of tenure rights all the individuals in the reference population (agricultural population) who:  
  
Are listed as ‘owners’ or ‘holders’ on a certificate that testifies security of tenure over agricultural land  
  
OR  
  
Have the right to sell agricultural land  
  
OR  
  
Have the right to bequeath agricultural land  
  
  
  
The presence of one of the three proxies is sufficient to define a person as ‘owner’ or ‘holder’ of tenure rights over agricultural land. The advantage of this approach is its applicability to different countries. Indeed, based on the analysis of the seven EDGE pilot countries, these proxies provide the most robust measure of ownership/tenure rights that is comparable across countries with diverse prevalence of documentation. In fact, individuals may still have the right to sell or bequeath an asset in the absence of legally recognized document, therefore the indicator combines documented ownership / tenure rights with the right to sell or bequeath to render it comparable across countries.  
  
  
  
Operationalization of indicator 5.a.1 expressed through mathematical formulas are the following:   
  
Sub-indicator (a)   
  
  
  
Total agricultural population with:  
  
Legally recognized document on agricultural land OR the right to sell it OR the right to bequeath it  
  
\* 100, by sex  
  
Total agricultural population  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Sub-indicator (b)   
  
Number of women in agriculture with:  
  
Legally recognized document on agricultural land OR the right to sell it OR the right to bequeath it  
  
\* 100  
  
Number of people in agriculture with:  
  
Legally recognized document on agricultural land OR the right to sell it OR the right to bequeath it  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Disaggregation\*:  
  
  
  
We can distinguish between levels of disaggregation which are ‘mandatory’ for the global monitoring and levels of disaggregation which are recommended especially for the country level analysis, as they provide an in-sight for policy making.   
  
  
  
‘mandatory’ levels of disaggregation  
  
  
  
‘recommended’ levels of disaggregation   
  
(not exhaustive list)  
  
[for sub-indicator (a)] sex of the individuals   
  
[for both sub-indicators]  
  
Income level  
  
age group  
  
ethnic group  
  
geographic location (urban/rural)  
  
tenure type  
  
type of legally recognized document  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
Missing values will be imputed only if a sufficient number of data points from the same region. In such a case, missing values will be imputed through the regional mean value.  
  
At regional and global levels   
  
Regional and global aggregates will be computed only when a sufficient number of data points is available at regional or global level. Metadata will complement the regional and global level estimates to avoid that users interpret these aggregates as pertaining to all countries in the region.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
There is currently no known source of difference.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
Weighted regional aggregates will be generated by taking into consideration the number of individuals engaged in agriculture and the number of individuals classified as owners or holders of agricultural land.   
  
Weighted regional aggregates will be generated only if a sufficient number of countries in the region report on the indicator.   
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description  
  
  
  
Recommended data sources:   
  
In the specific case of indicator 5a1, household surveys are the most recommended data source. Examples of household surveys that could be used to generate the indicator 5a1 are:  
  
Household budget surveys (HBS)  
  
Living standard measurement surveys (LSMS)  
  
Living Conditions Surveys   
  
Labour Force Surveys (LFS)  
  
Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS)  
  
Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS)  
  
Multipurpose Household Surveys  
  
  
  
Why are National Household Surveys a recommended data source for indicator 5a1?  
  
Generally speaking, surveys are more cost-effective than censuses because they are carried out on a representative sample which is then used to estimate the parameters at the population level.  
  
National Household surveys are the most common data source available in both developed and developing countries  
  
National Household surveys tend to be very broad in scope and they are normally used to generate social, demographic and economic statistics. Therefore they: i) can accommodate questions needed for the computation of indicator 5a1; ii) allow exploring associations between the individual status on indicator 5a1 and other individual or household characteristics, such as education, health, income level, etc; iii) can include additional data for a more detailed analysis of the indicator (eg., land size).  
  
  
  
Alternative sources include Population and Housing Censuses, Agricultural Surveys.  
  
  
  
In principle, Population and Housing Censuses (PHC) can be considered an alternative data source for indicator 5a1 because, like household surveys, they refer to the whole population living in a given area. Nonetheless, Population and Housing Censuses present some disadvantages:   
  
Censuses are usually conducted every 10 years; therefore they do not allow countries to closely monitor the progress on indicator 5.a.1.  
  
Population and Housing Censuses are large scale and costly operations focussing on the structure of the population.  
  
Population and Housing Censuses heavily rely on proxy respondents, an approach which is in contrast with the respondents’ selection procedure recommended for indicator 5.a.1.   
  
  
  
If a country does not succeed in appending a module on 5.a.1 to a National Household Survey, it may consider using Agricultural Surveys as an alternative vehicle because they can accommodate questions on agricultural land tenure rights.   
  
  
  
However, Agricultural Surveys present the following disadvantage: they may not adequately cover the households where members are engaged in agriculture as wage labourers. Therefore, they miss a part of the reference population.  
  
If, despite this constraint, a country chooses to append a module on 5.a.1 to an Agricultural Survey, then it is crucial to report this choice in the metadata. In such a case, global comparability is compromised, but the country can still be able to monitor its own progress on this indicator over time, provided that the same data source is retained.  
  
  
  
Who should respond? How many people?   
  
For indicator 5a1, it is crucial to: i) choose the number of individuals on which information is to be collected, and ii) determine who should report this information. Two options are suggested:  
  
Option 1: Each adult member of the household is interviewed on his/her ownership / tenure rights over agricultural land (self-respondent approach applied to all members)  
  
Option 2: One randomly selected adult household member is interviewed on his/her ownership / tenure rights over agricultural land (self-respondent approach applied to one member)  
  
  
  
In practice, due to budget constraints and time limitations, interviewing only one adult member per household will be the most viable option. However, if a country wants to study intra-household dynamics or to increase the precision of the 5a1 estimates, it may decide to collect information about each household member, using self-reported data.   
  
  
  
FAO does not recommend the option of using proxy respondents, whereby the most knowledgeable household member is usually interviewed to collect information on all the household members. However, if the survey used as a vehicle for the collection of 5.a.1 data cannot adopt the self-respondent approach, then proxy respondents should be used to collect information on all household members.  
  
  
  
Minimum Set of Data  
  
A minimum set of data is needed to calculate the indicator. These are:   
  
  
  
Whether or not at least one household member has been mainly engaged in agriculture in the past 12 months  
  
Sex of the selected individual  
  
Age of the selected individual  
  
Whether or not the selected individual holds any agricultural land  
  
Whether or not any of the land held by the respondent has a legally recognized document (or certificate) that allows protecting his/her ownership / tenure rights over the land  
  
Whether or not the selected individual is listed as an owner or holder on any of the legally recognized documents, either alone of jointly with someone else  
  
Whether or not the selected individual has the right to sell any of the agricultural land, either alone or jointly with someone else  
  
Whether or not the selected individual has the right to bequeath any of the agricultural land, either alone or jointly with someone else  
  
  
  
Questions to Capture the Agricultural Population  
  
As mentioned above, an individual is part of ‘adult agricultural population’ if the following conditions are met:   
  
is adult  
  
belong to a household where at least one member is mainly engaged in an agricultural occupation over the past 12 months, regardless the final purpose (whether for income-generation or self-consumption) and the status in employment.  
  
The recommendations below propose ways for capturing this concept in a survey questionnaire. They are particularly relevant in case the survey does not have a ‘labor module’ or if the ‘labor module’ included in the survey questionnaire does not inform on the individuals’ involvement in growing crops and/or raising livestock over the past 12 months.  
  
  
  
We distinguish 2 main scenarios:  
  
Scenario A:  
  
The survey can include individual level questions of engagement in agriculture  
  
Scenario B:  
  
The survey cannot append individual level questions of engagement in agriculture in the household roster. Therefore questions shall be asked at the household level.  
  
  
  
Scenario A  
  
  
  
If the survey can include individual level questions of engagement in agriculture, such questions can be easily appended to a household roster (or to a labor module), and the can be asked to the most knowledgeable individual in household. They aim to capture individual involvement in agriculture over the past 12 months.   
  
Individual level questions  
  
function  
  
Q1. In the last 12 months, that is from [MONTH] to [MONTH], did [NAME] do or help with:  
  
a. farming land to produce food  
  
or   
  
b. raising or tending livestock  
  
 |\_\_| 1 – yes   
  
|\_\_| 2 – no (end of questions)  
  
Capture whether the respondent grew crops or raised livestock over the past 12 months  
  
Screening question. It is not essential and could be cancelled if the country wants to limit the number of questions.  
  
Q2. Which of the following best describes what [NAME] was mainly doing in the past 12 months, that is from [MONTH] to [MONTH]?  
  
READ AND TICK THE TWO MAIN ACTIVITIES  
  
|\_\_| 1 – Farming or raising livestock  
  
|\_\_| 2 – Forestry or fishing  
  
|\_\_| 3 – Working in a sector other than agriculture or fishing (questions end)  
  
|\_\_| 4 – Studying (questions end)  
  
|\_\_| 5 – Looking for work (questions end)  
  
|\_\_| 6 – Taking care of household or family (questions end)  
  
|\_\_| 7 – With long-term illness or disability (questions end)  
  
|\_\_| 8 – Retired or pensioner (questions end)  
  
|\_\_| 9 – Other (specify): \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ (questions end)  
  
Understand whether growing crops and / or raising livestock were the main activities in terms of time.  
  
  
  
Q3. In farming and raising livestock was [NAME]…   
  
READ AND TICK ALL THAT APPLIES  
  
|\_\_| 1. working as own-account worker (without regular employees)   
  
|\_\_| 2. working as an employer (with regular employees)   
  
|\_\_| 3. helping in the household / family business   
  
|\_\_| 4. helping a family member who works for someone else for a pay  
  
|\_\_| 5. working for someone else for pay (ie., employee, on paid apprentice / internship)  
  
  
  
Status in employment  
  
Supplementary question. It is not essential and could be cancelled if the country wants to ‘limit’ the number of questions.  
  
  
  
Scenario B  
  
Questions below are asked at the household level, to the most knowledgeable individual in the household. They aim to capture household involvement in agriculture over the past 12 months.   
  
Household level questions  
  
function  
  
Q1. Over the past 12 months, which is from [MONTH] up to [MONTH], did anybody in the household do or help with any of the following activities?  
  
a. farming land to produce food  
  
or   
  
b. raising or tending livestock  
  
 |\_\_| 1 – yes  
  
 |\_\_| 2 – no (end of questions)  
  
Capture whether somebody in the household grew crops over the past 12 months, regardless the final purpose of the activities  
  
  
  
Screening question. It is not essential and could be cancelled if the country wants to limit the number of questions.  
  
Q2. In the past 12 months, that is from [MONTH] up to [MONTH], did any member of this household spend most of his/her time farming, raising or raising/tending livestock?  
  
|\_\_| 1 – yes, farming or raising livestock were the main activity for at least one member  
  
|\_\_| 2 – yes, farming or raising livestock were the second main activity for at least one member  
  
|\_\_| 3 – no (questions end)  
  
Understand whether growing crops and / or raising livestock were the main activities in terms of time.  
  
  
  
Q3. In these activities were these people…   
  
READ AND TICK ALL THAT APPLIES  
  
|\_\_| 1. working as own-account worker (without regular employees)   
  
|\_\_| 2. working as an employer (with regular employees)   
  
|\_\_| 3. helping in the household / family business   
  
|\_\_| 4. helping a family member who works for someone else for a pay  
  
|\_\_| 5. working for someone else for pay (ie., employee, on paid apprentice / internship)  
  
  
  
  
  
Status in employment  
  
Supplementary question. It is not essential and could be cancelled if the country wants to ‘limit’ the number of questions.  
  
  
  
\*\*\*\*\*\*  
  
Based on the minimum set of data outlined above, we present below the set of questions proposed for the calculation of the 5a1 indicator. In particular, we present two scenarios:   
  
A minimum set of questions collected at the individual-level   
  
A module where data are collected at the parcel level  
  
  
  
Minimum set of questions collected at the individual-level  
  
List of standard questions  
  
Function  
  
Q1. Do you hold (alternatively ‘do you have, use or occupy’) any agricultural land, either alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
  
  
1 - Yes  
  
2 - No  
  
  
  
Reported possession (ie., self-perception of respondent’s possession status)  
  
This questions refers to whether the respondent, not the respondent’s household, holds any agricultural land.  
  
It measures reported possession, which captures the respondent’s self-perception of his/her possession status, irrespective of whether the respondent has a formal documentation.  
  
Q2. Is there a formal document for any of the agricultural land you hold (alternatively ‘you possess, use, occupy) issued by the Land Registry/Cadastral Agency? (allow for more than one type of document to be listed)  
  
  
  
  
  
1 - Title deed  
  
2 - Certificate of customary tenure  
  
3 - Certificate of occupancy  
  
4 – Registered will or registered certificate of hereditary acquisition  
  
5 – Registered certificate of perpetual / long term lease  
  
6 – Registered rental contract  
  
7 - Other (specify: \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_)  
  
9 - No document (skip to Q4)  
  
98 - Don’t known (skip to Q4)  
  
99 – refuses to respond (skip to Q4)  
  
  
  
  
  
This question identifies whether there is a legally recognized document for any of the agricultural land the respondent reports having, and the type of documentation. Documented ownership / tenure rights refers to the existence of any document an individual can use to claim ownership or tenure rights in law over the land.  
  
The list of options is indicative and countries are encouraged to adopt country-specific list.   
  
However, it is of utmost importance that the list includes only country relevant documents that are enforceable before the law.  
  
Q3. Is your name is listed as an owner or use right holder on any of the legally recognized documents?  
  
  
  
1 - Yes  
  
2 - No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
  
  
  
  
As above  
  
  
  
Because individual names can be listed as witnesses on a document, it is important to ask if the respondent is listed “as an owner” or “holder” on the document. It is recommend that the measure of documented ownership / tenure rights not be conditional on the respondent producing the document for the enumerator to confirm.  
  
Q4. Do you have the right to sell any of the parcel hold (alternatively ‘parcel possessed, used or occupied’), alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
  
  
1 - Yes  
  
2 – No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
  
  
Alienation rights  
  
  
  
This question obtains information on whether the respondent believes that he/she has the right to sell any of the agricultural land s/he reports possessing. When a respondent has the right to sell the land, it means that he or she has the right to permanently transfer the land to another person or entity for cash or in kind benefits.  
  
Q5. Do you have the right to bequeath any of the parcel hold (alternatively ‘parcel possessed, used or occupied’), alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
  
  
1 - Yes  
  
2 - No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
Alienation rights  
  
  
  
This question obtains information on whether the respondent believes that he/she has the right to bequeath any of the agricultural land he/she reports possessing.  
  
When a respondent has the right to bequeath the land, it means that he/she has the right to give the land by oral or written will to another person(s) upon the death of the respondent.  
  
  
  
A module where data are collected at the parcel level  
  
Countries may opt to collect information at the parcel level for two reasons:   
  
First, the country implements a nationally-representative survey that already collects a roster of parcels (e.g. the LSMS-ISA and many agricultural surveys) to which the questions on ownership or tenure rights can be appended.  
  
Second, the country wants to go beyond the data strictly needed for the computation of the indicator and collect a broader set of information in order to carry out a comprehensive analysis of women’s and men’s ownership, rights and control of agricultural land. Collecting such information, including on the characteristics of agricultural land, should be done at the parcel level.   
  
  
  
When a module on the ownership / tenure rights of agricultural land is appended to an existing survey, the total number and sequence of questions in the module will depend on the general objectives and structure of the survey. Yet, for calculation of SDG Indicator 5.a.1, the following rules should be followed:   
  
  
  
i) If the main survey questionnaire already captures a roster of parcels belonging to the household, the respondent randomly selected to complete the module on agricultural land ownership / tenure rights should be asked if she/he hold any agricultural land. If yes, the respondent should report which of the roster of parcels generated at the household level he/she possesses. In addition, the respondent should be given the opportunity to report any additional parcels not included in the household parcel roster. The questions in the module will only be asked for the agricultural parcels held by the respondent (see example below).  
  
  
  
Parcel-level module on the ownership / tenure rights over agricultural land based on household parcel roster  
  
Q1. Do you hold (alternatively ‘do you have, use or occupy’) any agricultural land, either alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
1 – Yes  
  
2 – No (end of module)  
  
  
  
Q2  
  
Q3  
  
Q4  
  
Q5  
  
Q6  
  
Parcel ID  
  
Please tell me which agricultural parcels you hold (alternatively ‘you have, use or occupy’)  
  
ENUMERATOR: LIST PARCEL ID CODES FROM THE HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE THAT ARE HELD INDIVIDUALLY OR JOINTLY BY RESPONDENT  
  
Is there a formal document or certificate for this [PARCEL] issued by the Land Registry/Cadastral Agency?  
  
(tick all that applies)  
  
  
  
1 - Title deed  
  
2 - Certificate of customary tenure  
  
3 - Certificate of occupancy  
  
4 – Registered will or registered certificate of hereditary acquisition  
  
5 – Registered certificate of perpetual / long term lease  
  
6 – Registered rental contract  
  
7 - Other (specify: \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_)  
  
9 - No document (skip to Q4)  
  
98 - Don’t known (skip to Q4)  
  
99 – refuses to respond (skip to Q4)  
  
  
  
Is your name is listed as owner or use right holder on the formal document for this [PARCEL]?  
  
1 - Yes (alone or jointly with someone else)  
  
2 - No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
Do you have the right to sell this [PARCEL], either alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
  
  
  
  
1 - Yes (alone or jointly with someone else)  
  
2 – No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
  
  
Do you have the right to bequeath this [PARCEL], either alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
  
  
  
  
1 - Yes (alone or jointly with someone else)  
  
2 – No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
  
  
1  
  
  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
2  
  
  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
…  
  
  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
N  
  
  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
  
  
ii) If all household members are interviewed, a roster of parcel should be created at the household level and the same procedure described in rule i) should be followed.  
  
iii) If the main survey questionnaire does not capture a roster of parcels at the household level and one randomly-selected adult household member will be administered the module on agricultural land ownership /tenure rights, a respondent roster of parcels can be created in the individual questionnaire by asking the respondent to list all of the parcels that s/he holds (see example below).  
  
  
  
Parcel-level module on the ownership / tenure rights of agricultural land based on respondent parcel roster  
  
Q1. Do you hold (alternatively ‘you have, use or occupy’) any agricultural land, either alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
1 – Yes  
  
2 – No (end of module)  
  
  
  
Q2  
  
Q3  
  
Q4  
  
Q5  
  
Q6  
  
Parcel ID  
  
List all of the agricultural parcels you hold (alternatively ‘you have, use or occupy’), either alone or jointly with someone else  
  
Is there a formal document or certificate for this [PARCEL] issued by the Land Registry/Cadastral Agency?  
  
(tick all that applies)  
  
  
  
1 - Title deed  
  
2 - Certificate of customary tenure  
  
3 - Certificate of occupancy  
  
4 – Registered will or registered certificate of hereditary acquisition  
  
5 – Registered certificate of perpetual / long term lease  
  
6 – Registered rental contract  
  
7 - Other (specify: \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_)  
  
9 - No document (skip to Q4)  
  
98 - Don’t known (skip to Q4)  
  
99 – refuses to respond (skip to Q4)  
  
  
  
Is your name is listed as owner or use right holder on the formal document for this [PARCEL]?  
  
  
  
  
  
1 - Yes (alone or jointly with someone else)  
  
2 - No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
Do you have the right to sell this [PARCEL], either alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
  
  
  
  
1 - Yes (alone or jointly with someone else)  
  
2 – No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
  
  
Do you have the right to bequeath this [PARCEL], either alone or jointly with someone else?  
  
  
  
  
  
1 - Yes (alone or jointly with someone else)  
  
2 – No   
  
98 - Don’t know  
  
99 - Refuses to respond  
  
  
  
1  
  
  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
2  
  
  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
…  
  
  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
N  
  
  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
|\_\_|  
  
  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
As a new indicator, 5.a.1 is not yet produced by any country as of 2017.  
  
  
  
Breakdown of the number of countries covered by region is as follows:  
  
World  
  
  
  
  
  
Africa  
  
  
  
  
  
Northern Africa  
  
  
  
  
  
Sub-Saharan Africa  
  
  
  
  
  
Eastern Africa  
  
  
  
  
  
Middle Africa  
  
  
  
  
  
Southern Africa  
  
  
  
  
  
Western Africa  
  
  
  
  
  
Americas  
  
  
  
  
  
Latin America and the Caribbean  
  
  
  
  
  
Caribbean  
  
  
  
  
  
Latin America  
  
  
  
  
  
Northern America  
  
  
  
  
  
Asia  
  
  
  
  
  
Central Asia  
  
  
  
  
  
Eastern Asia  
  
  
  
  
  
Southern Asia  
  
  
  
  
  
South-Eastern Asia  
  
  
  
  
  
Western Asia  
  
  
  
  
  
Europe  
  
  
  
  
  
Eastern Europe  
  
  
  
  
  
Northern Europe  
  
  
  
  
  
Southern Europe  
  
  
  
  
  
Western Europe  
  
  
  
  
  
Oceania  
  
  
  
  
  
Australia and New Zealand  
  
  
  
  
  
Melanesia  
  
  
  
  
  
Micronesia  
  
  
  
  
  
Polynesia  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
Through its programme of capacity development activities, FAO will encourage countries to include the monitoring of SDG indicator 5.a.1 in the next national household surveys and to identify the most appropriate data vehicle. It is not a standalone data collection exercise administered by FAO at a regular time interval. Thus it is not possible to predict the number of countries that will generate SDG 5.a.1 in the next year.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
National Statistical Offices. If agricultural surveys are used, the responsible organization will be the Ministry of Agriculture or, more generally, the organization responsible for agricultural surveys at country level.   
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
FAO  
  
  
  
References  
  
URL: http://www.fao.org/sustainable-development-goals/indicators/5.a.1/en/

Last updated: 30 January 2018  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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: Percentage of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment  
  
  
  
Institutional Information  
  
  
  
Custodian Organization(s):  
  
UN Women in collaboration with OECD and UNDP.  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Indicator 5.c.1 seeks to measure government efforts to track budget allocations for gender equality throughout the public finance management cycle and to make these publicly available. This is an indicator of characteristics of the fiscal system. It is not an indicator of quantity or quality of finance allocated for gender equality and women’s empowerment (GEWE). The indicator measures three criteria. The first focuses on the intent of a government to address GEWE by identifying if it has programs/policies and resource allocations to foster GEWE. The second assesses if a government has planning and budget tools to track resources for GEWE throughout the public financial management cycle. The third focuses on transparency by identifying if a government has provisions to make allocations for GEWE publicly available.  
  
  
  
The indicator aims to encourage national governments to develop appropriate budget tracking and monitoring systems and commit to making information about allocations for gender equality readily available to the public. 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.  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
Adequate and effective financing is essential to achieve SDG 5 and the gender related targets across the SDG framework. By tracking and making public gender equality allocations, governments promote greater transparency in and hence this could result in better accountability. 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 more effective public financial management.   
  
  
  
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 a high as 90% with critical shortfalls in infrastructure, productive and economic sectors.  
  
  
  
The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Agenda commits to a “significant increase in investments to close the gender gap.” Ensuring requisite resources for gender equality is central to implementing and achieving SDG 5 and all gender targets across the framework. Tracking these allocations and making the data publicly available are important steps 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 which commits to track gender equality allocations and increase transparency on public spending. Furthermore, the Commission on the Status of Women at its 60th session called upon states to support and institutionalize gender-responsive budgeting and tracking across all sectors of public expenditure to address gaps in resourcing for gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls.  
  
  
  
Indicator 5.c.1 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 Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation that has been piloted, tested and rolled out in 81 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. Indicator 5.c.1 is defined in almost identical terms to Indicator 8 of the GPEDC. In addition, Indicator 5.c.1 is the only indicator in the SDG monitoring framework that links national budgeting systems with implementation of legislation and policies for gender equality and women’s empowerment.  
  
The refined methodology for Indicator 5.c.1 is an improvement over the original methodology for Indicator 8. The increased specificity of the criteria provides a greater level of detail and therefore, captures the variability in countries’ gender equality policies and public financial management systems. The application of a tiered scoring approach with specific thresholds increases the indicator’s rigor and gives incentive to countries to improve these systems over time.   
  
  
  
Further, it is envisaged that the OECD Survey of Budget Practices and Procedures, conducted regularly among OECD countries, will be modified and updated to align closely with Indicator 5.c.1. This will allow greater global coverage by strengthening the indicator’s relevance to ministries of finance in all countries.  
  
  
  
Concepts:   
  
To determine if a country has a system to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment, the following questionnaire will be sent to its Ministry of Finance, or agency in charge of the government budget:  
  
  
  
Criterion 1. Which of the following aspects of public expenditure are reflected in your government programs and its resource allocations? (In the last completed fiscal year)  
  
Question 1.1. Are there policies and/or programs of the government designed to address well-identified gender equality goals, including those where gender equality is not the primary objective (such as public services, social protection and infrastructure) but incorporate action to close gender gaps? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
Question 1.2. Do these policies and/or programs have adequate resources allocated within the budget, sufficient to meet both their general objectives and their gender equality goals? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 1.3. Are there procedures in place to ensure that these resources are executed according to the budget? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Criterion 2. To what extent does your Public Financial Management system promote gender-related or gender-responsive goals? (In the last completed fiscal year)  
  
  
  
Question 2.1. Does the Ministry of Finance/budget office issue call circulars, or other such directives, that provide specific guidance on gender-responsive budget allocations? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 2.2. Are key policies and programs, proposed for inclusion in the budget, subject to an ex ante gender impact assessment? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 2.3. Are sex-disaggregated statistics and data used across key policies and programs in a way which can inform budget-related policy decisions? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 2.4. Does the government provide, in the context of the budget, a clear statement of gender-related objectives (i.e. gender budget statement or gender responsive budget legislation)? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 2.5. Are budgetary allocations subject to “tagging” including by functional classifiers, to identify their linkage to gender-equality objectives? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 2.6. Are key policies and programs subject to ex post gender impact assessment? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 2.7. Is the budget as a whole subject to independent audit to assess the extent to which it promotes gender-responsive policies? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Criterion 3. Are allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment made public? (In the last completed fiscal year)  
  
Question 3.1. Is the data on gender equality allocations published? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 3.2. If published, has this data been published in an accessible manner on the Ministry of Finance (or office responsible for budget) website and/or related official bulletins or public notices? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Question 3.3. If so, has the data on gender equality allocations been published in a timely manner? (Yes=1/No=0)  
  
  
  
Scoring:  
  
A country will be considered to satisfy each criterion as follows:   
  
  
  
  
  
Requirements per criterion  
  
A country will satisfy Criterion 1  
  
if it answers “Yes” to 2 out of 3 questions in Criterion 1  
  
  
  
A country will satisfy Criterion 2  
  
if it answers “Yes” to 4 out of 7 questions in Criterion 2  
  
  
  
A country will satisfy Criterion 3  
  
if it answers “Yes” to 2 out of 3 questions in Criterion 3  
  
  
  
  
  
Each question within each criterion has the same weight. A country would need to satisfy the threshold of “yes” responses per criterion to satisfy a criterion.  
  
  
  
Countries then will be classified as ‘fully meets requirements’, ‘approaches requirements’, and ‘does not meet requirements’ per the following matrices (There are 8 possible combinations of criteria being satisfied, Cases A-G below):  
  
  
  
  
  
Fully meets requirements  
  
   
  
Criterion 1  
  
Criterion 2  
  
Criterion 3  
  
Case A  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Note: “Checked” boxes represent satisfied criteria;   
  
“unchecked” boxes represent unsatisfied criteria.  
  
  
  
Approaches requirements  
  
   
  
Criterion 1  
  
Criterion 2  
  
Criterion 3  
  
Case B  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Case C  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Case D  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Case E  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Case F  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Case G  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Note: “Checked” boxes represent satisfied criteria;   
  
“unchecked” boxes represent unsatisfied criteria.  
  
  
  
Does not meet requirements  
  
   
  
Criterion 1  
  
Criterion 2  
  
Criterion 3  
  
Case H  
  
   
  
   
  
   
  
Note: “Checked” boxes represent satisfied criteria;   
  
“unchecked” boxes represent unsatisfied criteria.  
  
  
  
Because the three criteria are equally important, a country would need to satisfy the three to fully meet requirements.  
  
  
  
Concept Definitions:  
  
  
  
For Criterion 1:  
  
“Programs or policies of the government, that are designed to address well-identified gender equality goals” can be defined as:  
  
Programs or policies that specifically target only women and/or girls. For example, a government program that provides scholarships for girls only, or a prenatal care program, or a National Action Plan on Gender Equality; or  
  
Programs or policies that target both women or girls and men or boys and have gender equality as the primary objective. For example, a national public information campaign against gender violence, or on-the-job training programs on gender equality; or  
  
Programs or policies where gender equality is not the primary objective but the program includes action to close gender gaps. These programs could include provision of infrastructure, public services and social protection. For example, an infrastructure program that has a provision for using women labour, or a public transportation program that takes into consideration the mobility needs of women in its design.   
  
  
  
“Programs or policies have adequate resources allocated within the budget, sufficient to meet both their general objectives and their gender equality goals” can be defined as:  
  
The programs or policies that are designed to address well-identified gender equality goals are allocated sufficient resources to cover the costs of meeting those goals from funding that is included in the budget rather than from off-budget sources.  
  
  
  
“Procedures in place to ensure that these resources are executed according to the budget” can be defined as:  
  
There are procedures established in laws or regulations so that resources for programs or policies that are designed to address well-identified gender equality goals are executed as specified in the budget or if there are deviations in the exercise from the budgeted allocations, government agencies must justify to a supervising entity (e.g. ministries of finance, parliaments, audit bodies, or other relevant authorities) the reason for not executing resources according to budget.  
  
  
  
For Criterion 2:  
  
“Call circulars” can be defined as:  
  
Call circulars are the official notices that are issued by the Ministry of Finance or Budget Office in a country towards the beginning of each annual budget cycle. The circular instructs government agencies how they must submit their bids or demands for budget allocations for the coming year (in some countries the notice may have another name, such as budget guidelines or Treasury guidelines). It may inform each agency what its budget “ceiling” for the next fiscal year.  
  
  
  
“Key programs and policies” can be defined as:  
  
Programs or policies of the government, that are designed to address well-identified gender equality goals (as identified in Criterion 1).  
  
  
  
“Ex-ante gender impact assessment” can be defined as:  
  
Assessing individual resource allocations, in advance of their inclusion in the budget, specifically for their impact on gender equality. For example, before its inclusion in the budget, there is an estimate of how a conditional cash transfer program will impact school attendance of girls.  
  
  
  
“Sex-disaggregated statistics and data are available in a systematic manner across all key programs and policies” can be defined as:  
  
There is routine availability of gender-specific data sets and statistics that would greatly facilitate the evidential basis for the identification of gender equality gaps, design of policy interventions, and the evaluation of impacts.  
  
  
  
“Gender budget statements” can be defined as:  
  
A document that, either as part of the budget documentation or separately, provides a clear statement of gender-related goals. It is a document produced by a government agency, usually the Ministry of Finance or Budget Office, to show what its programs and budgets are doing in respect of gender. It is generally prepared after government agencies have completed the process of drawing up the budget and allocating resources to different programs in response to the annual call circular.  
  
  
  
“Functional classifiers” can be defined as:  
  
Categorization of expenditure according to the purposes and objectives for which they are intended. A functional classifier on gender would identify expenditure that goes to programs or activities that address gender issues.  
  
  
  
“Ex-post gender impact assessment” can be defined as:   
  
Assessing individual resource allocations, after their implementation, specifically for their impact on gender equality. For example, once the resources are spent and the program executed, how did a conditional cash transfer program affected the school attendance rate of girls as when compared to boys’ attendance rate?  
  
  
  
“The budget as a whole is subject to independent audit, to assess the extent to which it promotes gender-responsive policies” can be defined as:  
  
Independent, objective analysis, conducted by a competent authority different from the central budget authority, of the extent to which gender equality is effectively promoted and/or attained through the policies set out in the annual budget.  
  
  
  
For Criterion 3:  
  
“Published in an accessible manner” can be defined as:  
  
Allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment are published on the Ministry of Finance (or office responsible for budget) website and/or related official bulletins or public notices in a way that is clearly signalled and/or made available in hard copies that are distributed to parliamentarians and NGOs.  
  
  
  
“Published in a timely manner” can be defined as:  
  
Allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment and/or its exercise are published in the same quarter as when approved/exercised.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
The indicator does not measure allocation of resources but the existence of mechanisms to track resource allocations and that make that information available publicly. However, there is an optional question in the questionnaire (not scored) that requests countries to report the percentage of the government budget allocated for gender equality programs.   
  
  
  
Another limitation is that the indicator, which is process oriented, does not provide data on the adequacy or quality of resource allocations.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
The method of computation is as follows:   
  
  
  
  
  
Unit:  
  
%  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:   
  
In addition to reporting Indicator 5.c.1 as described above, the following two country classification global proportions will also be reported:  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Additional disaggregation by region as follows:  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
Where x refers to the region of analysis and y refers to the country classification based on the questionnaire.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:   
  
At country level  
  
Not Imputed  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
Not Imputed  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
Since data is reported by countries via a validated questionnaire, there should be no discrepancies.  
  
  
  
Data sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
An electronic questionnaire with accompanying monitoring guidance will be used to collect data on this indicator.  
  
   
  
Collection process:  
  
It is envisaged that data collection will be undertaken as part of the country-level monitoring of effective development cooperation (SDG 17.16.1) where the Global Partnership monitoring framework provides a useful platform and mechanism. The Global Partnership monitoring is led by national coordinators appointed by their respective government to coordinate data collection and validation across relevant government ministries, departments and agencies.   
  
  
  
For this indicator, the national coordinator will liaise with the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Women and other relevant ministries to complete the questionnaire. UN Women country office focal points will be available for support. With the GPEDC monitoring process generally launched early in the year, national coordinators will have until the end of the year to complete the data collection and validation at country level before submission to the JST for consolidation and analysis.   
  
  
  
Data availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
As identified in the pilot exercise for Indicator 5.c.1, the information that is collected through administering the questionnaire is readily available by Ministries of Finance and/or Budget Offices.  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
First quarter of 2018  
  
  
  
Data release:   
  
Fourth quarter of 2018  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
Response to questionnaire completed by Ministries of Finance—as part of national statistical systems—or Budget Office in coordination with National Statistical Offices and relevant sectoral ministries and national women’s machineries.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
UN Women and the UNDP-OECD joint support team.  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
Information on the Global Partnership for Effective Development Corporation can be found here: http://effectivecooperation.org/about/global-monitoring-framework/  
  
  
  
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  
  
  
  
IMF research on gender responsive budgeting and tracking systems: https://www.imf.org/external/np/res/dfidimf/topic7.htm   
  
https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2016/wp16149.pdf  
  
  
  
Gender budgeting and tracking in OECD countries:  
  
https://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/wp/2016/wp16149.pdf  
  
https://www.oecd.org/gender/Gender-Budgeting-in-OECD-countries.pdf  
  
  
  
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  
  
9

Last updated: 19 July 2016  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
  
  
International Telecommunication Union (ITU)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
  
  
The proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex is defined as the ‘proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex’.   
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
Missing values are not estimated.   
  
  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
Missing values are not estimated.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
ITU has not produced any global estimates but is working on a methodology to produce global estimates for this indicator. This methodology is expected to be published at the end of 2016.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
None. ITU uses the data provided by countries, including the in-scope population that is used to calculate the percentages.  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
This indicator is a newly developed ITU indicator that was approved by the World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Symposium (WTIS) 2014. The indicator’s 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 were first collected in 2015, through an annual questionnaire that ITU sends to national statistical offices (NSO). 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.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
ITU collects data on this indicator through an annual questionnaire that it sends to the heads of the national statistical offices (NSO). 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 Availability  
  
  
  
2013 to 2015 (latest) data are available for 23 countries, including some OECD countries.  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
  
  
Data are collected through the ITU long household questionnaire that is sent to all NSOs in Q3 each year. Data are released in December of each year.  
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
  
  
December 2016.   
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
National Statistical Offices (NSOs).  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
ITU  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
  
  
http://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/default.aspx  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
1.4, 2.c, 11.b, 12.8, 13.1, 16.10, 17.8

Last updated: 19 March 2019  
  
  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
  
  
United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
  
  
Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18  
  
  
  
Rationale:  
  
  
  
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 practice of early/child marriage is a direct manifestation of gender inequality.   
  
  
  
The issue of child marriage is addressed in a number of international conventions and agreements. 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.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
  
  
Both formal (i.e., marriages) and informal unions are covered under this indicator. Informal unions are generally defined as those in which a couple lives together for some time, intends to have a lasting relationship, but for which there has been no formal civil or religious ceremony (i.e., cohabitation).  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
Number of women aged 20-24 who were first married or in union before age 15 (or before age 18) divided by the total number of women aged 20-24 in the population multiplied by 100  
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
  
  
Age, income, place of residence, geographic location, education, ethnicity (for some countries)  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
At country level  
  
  
  
When data for a country are entirely missing, UNICEF does not publish any country-level estimate  
  
At regional and global levels  
  
  
  
The regional average is applied to those countries within the region with missing values for the purposes of calculating regional aggregates only but are not published as country-level estimates.  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
  
  
Global aggregates are weighted averages of all the sub-regions that make up the world. Regional aggregates are weighted averages of all the countries within the region.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
  
  
The estimates compiled and presented at global level come directly from nationally produced data and are not adjusted or recalculated.  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
  
  
Countries gather data on child marriage through household surveys such as UNICEF-supported MICS or Demographic and Health Surveys. In some countries, such data are also collected through other national household surveys.  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
  
  
UNICEF maintains the global database on child marriage that is used for SDG and other official reporting. Before the inclusion of any data point in the database, it is reviewed by technical focal points at UNICEF headquarters to check for consistency and overall data quality. This review is based on a set of objective criteria to ensure that only the most recent and reliable information are included in the databases. These criteria include the following: data sources must include proper documentation; data values must be representative at the national population level; data are collected using an appropriate methodology (e.g., sampling); data values are based on a sufficiently large sample; data conform to the standard indicator definition including age group and concepts, to the extent possible; data are plausible based on trends and consistency with previously published/reported estimates for the indicator.   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
  
  
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.  
  
  
  
Collection process:  
  
  
  
UNICEF undertakes a wide consultative process of compiling and assessing data from national sources for the purposes of updating its global databases on the situation of children. Up until 2017, the mechanism UNICEF used to collaborate with national authorities on ensuring data quality and international comparability on key indicators of relevance to children was known as Country Data Reporting on the Indicators for the Goals (CRING).  
  
  
  
As of 2018, UNICEF launched a new country consultation process with national authorities on selected child-related global SDG indicators it is custodian or co-custodian to meet emerging standards and guidelines on data flows for global reporting of SDG indicators, which place strong emphasis on technical rigour, country ownership and use of official data and statistics. The consultation process solicited feedback directly from National Statistical Offices, as well as other government agencies responsible for official statistics, on the compilation of the indicators, including the data sources used, and the application of internationally agreed definitions, classification and methodologies to the data from that source. Once reviewed, feedback is made available to countries on whether or not specific data points are accepted, and if not, the reasons why. More details on the consultation process can be found in the guidance note.   
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Comparable data on this indicator are currently available for 126 countries  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
UNICEF will undertake an annual country consultation likely between December and January every year to allow for review and processing of the feedback received in order to meet global SDG reporting deadlines.  
  
  
  
Data release:  
  
March 2019.  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
  
  
National Statistical Offices (in most cases)  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
  
  
UNICEF  
  
  
  
References  
  
  
  
URL:  
  
  
  
data.unicef.org  
  
  
  
References:  
  
  
  
https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-protection/child-marriage/

Last updated: 21 October 2019  
  
Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls  
  
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.2: Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women’s equal rights to land ownership and/or control  
  
  
  
Institutional information  
  
  
  
Organization(s):  
  
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)  
  
  
  
Concepts and definitions  
  
  
  
Definition:  
  
Indicator 5.a.2 looks at the extent to which the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women’s equal rights to land ownership and/or control.   
  
  
  
The indicator “measures” the level to which a country’s legal framework supports women’s land rights, by testing that framework against six proxies drawn from international law and internationally accepted good practices , in particular the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) ratified by 189 countries, and the Voluntary Guidelines for the Responsible Governance of the Tenure of Land Fisheries and Forestry (VGGT) endorsed unanimously by Committee of Food Security (CFS) members in 2012.  
  
  
  
The six proxies through which indicator 5.a.2 is monitored are the following:  
  
Proxy A: Joint registration of land compulsory or encouraged through economic incentives  
  
Proxy B: Compulsory spousal consent for land transactions  
  
Proxy C: Women’s and girls’ equal inheritance rights  
  
Proxy D: Allocation of financial resources to increase women’s ownership and control over land  
  
Proxy E: In legal systems that recognise customary land tenure, existence of explicit protection of the land rights of women  
  
Proxy F: Mandatory quotas for women’s participation in land management and administration institutions  
  
  
  
Rationale and interpretation:  
  
Indicator 5.a.2 measures the extent to which countries’ legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women’s equal rights to land ownership and/or control.  
  
  
  
The focus on land of Indicator 5.a.2 reflects the recognition that land is a key economic resource inextricably linked to access to, use of and control over other economic and productive resources. It is a key input for agricultural production; it can be used as collateral to access financial resources, extension services or to join producer organisations; and, it can generate income directly, if rented or sold. It also acknowledges that women’s ownership of and/or control of land is critical for poverty reduction, food security, inclusiveness and overall sustainable development objectives. Finally, gender equality in land ownership and control is a human right. For example, Article 3 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) guarantees equality between women and men, and prohibits discrimination based on sex in Article 2. Article 26 of the treaty enshrines equality before the law, and can be applied to defend women’s right to non-discrimination and equality, not only with respect to civil and political rights, but also with economic and social rights. Further, the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), emphasizes that discrimination against women “violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity".  
  
  
  
The following paragraphs describe the scope and rationale of the proxies, as well as its specific content.   
  
  
  
Proxy A: Is the joint registration of land compulsory or encouraged through economic incentives?  
  
  
  
Without the inclusion of their names on the land title, deed or certificate, women’s property rights remain insecure, especially in the context of land registration programs and of property acquired by the spouses during the marriage. This is particularly the case for married women who separate, divorce, are abandoned or become widows.  
  
  
  
For guidance on the meaning of the terms used in the proxy please refer to the terminology in section 3.2 of this document. For detailed information on the conditions determining whether the proxy exists in the legal and policy framework please refer to the methodological document.   
  
  
  
The proxy therefore assesses whether the legal and policy framework include provisions requiring joint registration of land or encouraging joint registration through economic incentives for both married and unmarried couples. For the proxy to be present it is sufficient that joint registration is provided at least for married couples.  
  
  
  
Proxy B: Does the legal and policy framework require spousal consent for land transactions?  
  
  
  
Whenever actions are taken unilaterally by a husband or male partner regarding land related transactions such sale, mortgage or lease, especially when they concern the family home or other critical assets, they can leave women and any children homeless and without means of subsistence. Therefore, spousal or partner consent requirements prior to any land transaction strengthen women’s control rights over land whether they are married or within an unmarried couple. By supporting equality in the marriage and the joint administration of important property, such provisions directly contribute to the achievement of indicator 5.a.2, particularly with regard to gender equality in the control over land.   
  
  
  
The proxy examines whether countries incorporate into the legal and policy framework a spouse or partner consent for land transactions. As with proxy A, the assessment covers both married and unmarried couples. Yet, for the proxy to be present it is sufficient that joint registration is provided at least for married couples.  
  
  
  
Proxy C: Does the legal and policy framework support women’s and girls’ equal inheritance rights?  
  
  
  
Inheritance is one of the main channels through which women acquire property and secure independent land rights. However, the persistence of discriminatory cultural and legal norms often denies women’s and girls’ equal inheritance rights and hinder women’s opportunity to acquire property on an equal footing to men. Personal laws and customary laws in particular have often denied women’s right to inherit or at least to inherit equal shares, and many post-colonial governments have incorporated these rules in the formal legal architecture. In some cases, daughters may only be entitled to inherit in the absence of a traceable male relative.   
  
  
  
Proxy C examines the extent to which states have incorporated into their legal and policy framework provisions that guarantee equal inheritance rights over land to surviving children and surviving spouses.  
  
This proxy aims to identify if the legal and policy framework of a country:   
  
1. Provide that sons and daughters have equal inheritance rights; and  
  
2. Provide that male and female surviving spouse and/or partner are entitled to an equal share of the deceased spouse’s estate and/or to a lifetime user right to the family home.  
  
Both equal inheritance rights for sons and daughters and surviving spouse and/or partner have to be ensured for Proxy to be present.  
  
  
  
Proxy D: Does the legal and policy framework provide for the allocation of financial resources to increase women’s ownership and control over land?  
  
  
  
Legal reforms to support gender equality in land ownership and/or control and access to other productive resources have not always translated into practice. The poor implementation of land and agriculture related policies and laws geared towards enhancing gender equality, is partially due to the lack or insufficiency of financial resources.   
  
  
  
For this reason, this proxy identifies any legal provision that commits the government to allocate financial resources for the purpose of increasing women’s ownership and control over land or access to productive resources, including land. Such provisions are widely regarded as innovative measures to support women’s land rights, and have been consistently endorsed by the CEDAW Committee in its deliberations and comments on state parties’ reports under the treaty. For the purpose of the assessment the amount of the fund or financial resources is not relevant. It is, however a “condition sine qua non” for this proxy to be satisfied that the fund is anchored into the national law.  
  
  
  
Since Proxy D amounts to a “special measure”, as per Art. 4 of CEDAW, countries that do not include this measure in their legal and policy framework, yet provide official national statistical data showing the achievement of at least 40 percent of women’s ownership and/or control over land (e.g. data on SDG 5.a.1, or 1.4.2.), will equally satisfy the proxy.  
  
  
  
Proxy E: In legal systems that recognise customary land tenure, does the legal and policy framework explicitly protect the land rights of women?  
  
  
  
Many countries have incorporated customary land tenure rights into the formal legal system, in effect ‘formalizing’ them. The legal recognition of customary land tenure however may reinforce discriminatory practices where there is no explicit protection for women’s customary land rights. Further, the use of gender neutral provisions in the context of formalisation of customary land tenure has in practice been associated with a lack of protection of women’s rights. To avoid such outcomes explicit provisions securing the protection of the land rights of women should accompany any legal provision recognizing customary land rights.   
  
  
  
Proxy E assesses whether the Constitution and/or any land related law that recognises customary land tenure provides explicit protections for women’s land rights.   
  
  
  
It is important to note that for those countries where customary law has not been incorporated into the legal framework, Proxy E is not applicable and will not be assessed in the computation. As noted above, the only feasible way to take into account/to measure the customary dimension of this indicator is when it has been legally recognised, and therefore incorporated in the legal framework.   
  
  
  
Proxy F: Does the legal and policy framework mandate women’s participation in land management and administration institutions?  
  
  
  
Land related institutions are responsible for governing the land tenure systems, and are in charge of land administration and management. Women are often excluded from participating in the day-to-day processes of land governance at all levels, and therefore have limited capacity to influence decision-making. A lack of women’s representation in land governance tends to lead to biased outcomes in land recording and registration processes and the hindering of women’s land claims, for instance by overlooking women’s rights on common lands.   
  
  
  
Proxy F aims to identify provisions within the legal framework requiring mandatory participation of women (quotas) in land related management and administration institutions.  
  
  
  
Since Proxy F amounts to a “special measure”, as per Art. 4 of CEDAW, countries that do not include this measure in their legal and policy framework, yet provide official national statistical data showing the achievement of at least 40 percent of women’s ownership and/or control over land (e.g. data on SDG 5.a.1, or 1.4.2.), will equally satisfy the proxy.  
  
  
  
Concepts:  
  
The indicator tracks progress on legal reforms that guarantee women’s land rights (including customary) in terms of ownership and/or control.   
  
  
  
The indicator refers to customary law. The inclusion of the customary dimension in the indicator is very important because in many contexts in which these systems prevail, women’s land rights tend to be denied or insecure. However, the enormous diversity of customs and social norms that govern customary land among countries and their unwritten nature, create a significant challenge for assessing whether the proxies are present in these systems. To solve this issue, it is proposed that the customary dimension will be considered only when the formal legal framework recognizes customary land tenure.   
  
  
  
Finally, the indicator refers to ownership and/or control of land which are two critical but different dimensions regarding women’s land rights. Land ownership refers to the legally recognised right to acquire, to use and to transfer landed property, while the control over land is associated with the ability to make decisions over land.  
  
  
  
Key definitions are the following:  
  
  
  
Land  
  
Land is defined as all immovable property – for instance the house, the land upon which a house is built and land which is used for other purposes, such as agricultural production. It also encompasses any other structures built on land to meet permanent purposes. Legal frameworks commonly use the terms ‘immovable property’ or ‘real property’ when referring to land.  
  
  
  
Land ownership  
  
Land ownership is a legally recognised right to acquire, to use and to transfer land. In private property systems, this is a right akin to a freehold tenure. In systems where land is owned by the state, the term land ownership refers to possession of the rights most akin to ownership in a private property system – for instance, long-term leases, occupancy, tenancy or use rights granted by the state that are transferrable and are granted to users for several decades (for instance 99 years).  
  
  
  
Control over land  
  
Control over land is the ability to make decisions over land. It may include rights to make decisions about how the land should be used, including what crops should be planted, and to benefit financially from the sale of crops, including what crops should be planted, and to benefit financially from the sale of crops.   
  
  
  
Customary land tenure  
  
Customary land tenure is defined as the bodies of rules and institutions governing the way land and natural resources are held, managed, used and transacted within customary legal systems.  
  
  
  
Customary legal systems  
  
Customary legal systems are systems that exist at the local or community level, that have not been set up by the state, and that derive their legitimacy from the values and traditions of the indigenous or local group. Customary legal systems may or may not be recognized by national law.   
  
  
  
Legal and policy framework  
  
The legal and policy framework encompasses the Constitution, policy, primary legislation and secondary legislation. The legal and policy framework includes customary legal systems where they have been recognised by statutory law.  
  
  
  
   
  
Personal laws   
  
Personal law is defined as a set of codified rules and norms applying to a group of people sharing a common religious faith with regard to personal matters. These laws usually cover family relations, marriage, and inheritance. The term can be used interchangeably with ‘religious laws’.  
  
  
  
  
  
Primary legislation   
  
Primary legislation refers to (i) acts or statutes that have been formally adopted at national level following the official parliamentary procedure for the passage of laws (in parliamentary systems); (ii) other acts at the national level with the force of law, such as decree-laws and legislative decrees and otherwise (in parliamentary systems); (iii) other legal instruments that have that have been formally endorsed by a law-making body, for instance presidential and royal orders or presidential and royal decrees (in non-parliamentary systems or systems where law-making power lies in an additional institution to the parliament). In all cases, primary legislation must have the force of law, be binding. For the purposes of this assessment primary legislation also includes the Constitution.   
  
  
  
Secondary legislation  
  
Secondary legislation includes subsidiary, delegated or subordinate legal instruments that have the force of law, are binding and shall not be in contradiction with primary legislation. They are usually passed by the executive, such as national regulations, rules, by-laws, determinations, directions, circulars, orders, and implementing decrees.  
  
  
  
Joint registration  
  
Joint registration is where the names of both spouses or both partners in an unmarried couple, are entered into the land registry as the owners or principal users of the land being registered. Joint registration signifies a form of shared tenure over the land – usually either a joint tenancy/occupancy or a tenancy in common). In legal systems which include a framework for land titling, joint registration is commonly referred to as joint titling.   
  
  
  
Unmarried couples  
  
Unmarried couples are defined as couples who live together (cohabit) in an intimate relationship, but who are not married in accordance with the marriage law of the country. Often this will refer to couples who were married under custom or religious laws, where such marriages are not recognised or do not comply with the requirements of the formal law. It may also refer to relationships that are recognised by the state but that are not considered a marriage – for instance a civil partnership and a de facto relationship that is registered with the state. The term ‘unmarried couples’ is often used interchangeably with ‘de facto unions’, ‘consensual unions’ or ‘irregular unions’. The members of an unmarried couple are referred to as ‘partners’.  
  
  
  
Land transactions  
  
Land transactions for the purpose of the methodology are major land transactions, specifically the sale and encumbrance (mortgage) of land.   
  
  
  
Inheritance  
  
Inheritance is defined as property passing at the owner's death to the heir or those entitled to succeed.  
  
  
  
Deceased’s estate  
  
The deceased’s estate encompasses the legal rights, interests and entitlements, to property of any kind (not only land) which the deceased spouse or partner enjoyed at the time of death, less any liabilities. Depending on the legal system, marital property may be excluded fully from the calculation of deceased’s estate, or, the deceased’s 50% share in the marital property will be included.   
  
  
  
Equal inheritance rights for sons and daughters  
  
Equal inheritance rights for sons and daughters refer to the situation when the lines of succession in the legal and policy framework governing inheritance states equality of rank and shares between brothers and sisters or between daughters and sons, or are gender neutral.  
  
  
  
Comments and limitations:  
  
  
  
Customary law. Indicator 5.a.2 entails an important challenge in terms of the assessment and computation of the results due to the reference to customary law in the title of the indicator. Customary law is not a homogenous system of law. Therefore, unless it is recognised by the general legal system, it will be extremely difficult to monitor whether or not customary law guarantees men and women equal rights to land ownership and(/or) control. In order to guarantee feasibility of the assessment, the choice of the methodology has been to monitor customary law to the extent that it has been recognised in the legal framework of a country. This however is a major limitation for the purposes of the SDGs of “leaving no one behind’ as it excludes from the assessment many legal systems where customary practices which have not been endorsed in statutory law which are one of the major factors of discrimination against women. Further, given that customary law does not exist in all countries, it is not universally applicable and computation of the results represents a major challenge. The methodology has addressed this issue by creating a dual system of computation of the results which allows to assess separately those systems where customary law has been recognized, and those where no recognition of customary law is present.   
  
  
  
Geographical scope. The data collected for the SDG indicators is collected at the national level to ensure that it is representative of the country situation. This means that the 5.a.2 assessment to determine the existence of the proxies should focus on legal and policy instruments that have nationwide authority. In countries where law-making power for land or gender matters are not within the authority of the national government (or are shared between the national government and a sub-national government level), there may be a number of different state/provincial or county laws and policy that can be analysed. Further there may be inconsistencies between these different sub-national laws in terms of the presence of a proxy and the degree of its integration in the legal and policy framework.   
  
  
  
Where this is the case, the assessment should be conducted in as many states or counties needed to cover at least 50 percent of the total country’s population. Therefore, the proxy should be located in all of the legal and policy frameworks relevant to these locations. If it is not the case, the proxy is not present.  
  
  
  
Methodology  
  
  
  
Computation Method:  
  
The qualitative and legal nature of this indicator required the development of nuanced and articulated methodology that could be feasible, universally relevant and meaningful.   
  
  
  
The computation of results under Indicator 5.a.2 involves two steps: (1) classification of country according the number of proxies located in primary or primary and secondary legislation and (2) consolidation of all country results for global reporting.  
  
  
  
Step 1: Classification categories of country   
  
  
  
The country will be classified according to the total number of proxies found in primary legislation or primary and secondary legislation. Given that not in all countries customary land tenure rules exist or customary law is recognised (related to proxy E), for the purpose of computation a two-scale (or dual) approach has been developed:   
  
  
  
For countries where customary land tenure is NOT recognised in the legal framework (either via statute or the constitution), regardless of whether it exists de facto or not, Proxy E is marked non-applicable and the country will be assessed out of the five remaining proxies.   
  
  
  
For countries where customary land tenure is recognised in the legal framework, the country will be assessed against all six proxies,  
  
  
  
The table below describes the dual approach classification and the classification bands. As is shown below, in countries where customary law is applicable (Proxy E) the presence of five or six proxies are included in the same band (band 6 - very high levels of guarantees). This is due to the necessity of making universal the calculation of the component of customary law - a component of the indicator which in itself is not universal to all countries.  
  
  
  
Table 1: Classification categories  
  
  
  
Result of assessment   
  
Where Proxy E is applicable  
  
Result of assessment   
  
Where Proxy E is not applicable  
  
Classification   
  
None of the six proxies are present in the primary or primary and secondary legislation  
  
None of the five proxies are present in the primary or primary and secondary legislation  
  
Band 1: No evidence of guarantees of gender equality in the land ownership and/or control in the legal framework.  
  
One of the proxies present in primary or primary and secondary legislation  
  
One of the proxies present in primary or primary and secondary legislation  
  
Band 2: Very low levels of guarantees of gender equality in land ownership and/or control in the legal framework.  
  
Two the proxies present in primary or primary and secondary legislation  
  
Two of the proxies present in primary and secondary legislation  
  
Band 3: Low levels of guarantees of gender equality in land ownership and/or control in the legal framework.  
  
Three of the proxies are present in primary legislation or primary and secondary legislation  
  
Three of the proxies are present in primary legislation or primary and secondary legislation  
  
Band 4: Medium levels of guarantees of gender equality in land ownership and/or control in the legal framework.  
  
Four of the proxies are present in primary legislation or primary and secondary legislation  
  
Four of the proxies are present in primary legislation or primary and secondary legislation  
  
Band 5: High levels of guarantees of gender equality in land ownership and/or control in the legal framework.  
  
Five or six proxies are present in primary legislation or primary and secondary legislation  
  
All five proxies are present in primary legislation or primary and secondary legislation  
  
Band 6: Very high levels of guarantees of gender equality in land ownership and/or control in the legal framework.  
  
  
  
Under the methodology all proxies have an equal weight. This implies that no dimension is more important than another in terms of supporting gender equality in land ownership and/or control.   
  
  
  
Disaggregation:  
  
NA.  
  
  
  
Treatment of missing values:  
  
  
  
Although data availability is ensured and all UN countries are expected to report, this might not be the case. Different countries may report at different times and a non-negligible share of countries may choose not to report on the indicator at all during the reporting period creating missing values.  
  
The missing values will be treated in the following way:  
  
  
  
a) For countries, which have reported in only 1 period, FAO does not have information on whether they are making progress on the indicator. However, FAO can take a few steps to alleviate the problem with missing values. First, FAO can assume that there was no progress on the indicator over the reporting periods. This is quite a reasonable assumption since primary and secondary legislation do not change rapidly. While the assumption may be hard to substantiate over a longer a period of time, say 10 years, it should be fairly accurate in a short period of time as between two reporting periods. To avoid imputing values as much as possible, FAO will also take a further step of reaching out to countries, and based on the earlier submitted metadata, FAO can ask them to fairly quickly confirm that there was no change since the last reporting period.  
  
  
  
b) For countries which only start reporting later, say in the second or third reporting period, FAO will make an attempt to ask the countries to fill in the data retrospectively, if possible and willing. It is not clear at this stage how many countries would be willing to do this. The aim of completing the metadata retrospectively is to increase the available data to better measure progress on the indicator.  
  
  
  
c) The only way to include countries that will never report is to cluster them in a category of missing information. This is because no assumption can be done regarding the status of each country’s laws. However, it is important to keep track of the countries which do not report rather than limit the analysis to the reporting countries  
  
  
  
Regional aggregates:  
  
In each reporting period, the reporting countries are classified in 1 of 6 bands depending on how many proxies are present in the primary or primary and secondary legislation as detailed in Table 1. The share of countries in each band is estimated in each year using the following formula:   
  
  
  
  
  
As there is currently no treatment of missing values at country level, regional and global aggregates will be based solely on those countries for which data are available. This may result in users interpreting these aggregates as pertaining to all countries in the region, which is the equivalent of treating countries with missing data as if they were the same as those for which data are available.  
  
  
  
In the first expected reporting period, which is 2020, we will only have one data point per country. In the first reporting period, we can only measure and report the shares of countries in each of the 6 bands as well as the share of countries which have not reported yet. This first reporting period will also serve as the baseline against which future progress will be measured.  
  
  
  
  
  
Obtaining internationally comparable data for global monitoring:  
  
As noted above delegated national institutions will be responsible for undertaking the legal assessment at the national level. It is recommended that the results of the final assessment are shared widely and validated by a cross-section of relevant institutions prior to final submission to FAO.  
  
  
  
Both the national legal expert(s) and institutions carrying out the assessment and the FAO Gender and Land Rights team will follow the detailed Guidelines in assessing whether the proxy is present or not present in the legal framework. The detailed Guidelines are a mechanism to ensure the robustness and comparability of the data collected at the national level, and to ensure that like situations are treated like. The initial legal research and the piloting process was invaluable in delineating the threshold of each proxy and ensuring that countries are treated equitably under the methodology in terms of the different ways in which the proxies may appear in national legislation. A good example of this is proxy B, spousal consent for land transactions, under which the Guidelines provide outline which type of legal provisions meet the proxy threshold with specific reference to the three different marital regimes – separate, partial community or community property. Similarly, the methodology provides clear guidance on how to treat legal regimes that do not provide for private ownership – by providing examples of what type of ‘ownership’ would equate the equivalent to a freehold estate under systems where all land is owned by the state.  
  
  
  
Sources of discrepancies:  
  
NA.  
  
  
  
Methods and guidance available to countries for the compilation of the data at the national level:  
  
NA.  
  
  
  
Quality assurance  
  
NA.  
  
  
  
  
  
Data Sources  
  
  
  
Sources and data collection:  
  
Sources of data for measuring Indicator 5.a.2 are the official versions of national policies, primary law and secondary legislation which must be publicly available. More specifically, the relevant laws include the following: land, family, marriage, inheritance, land registration, gender equality laws, constitution, agrarian reform. Relevant policies include policies include policies on land, agriculture and gender.   
  
  
  
For the purpose of the official reporting at the global level, ONLY the proxies localized in the primary and/or secondary law will be reported because of their binding nature. The only exception to this rule is Proxy D where also national wide programs are considered for the purpose of the assessment. However, for the meaningfulness of the assessment, relevant policies are considered for the analysis because they represent the foundations of the law setting out the principles that indicate the direction towards which the country aims to move and very often suggest reforms that need to be adopted in the legal framework. In this sense, if the proxies are present in these types of instruments they constitute an important step towards a more gender sensitive legal framework.  
  
  
  
The data are extracted directly from the laws in force at the moment when the assessment is carried out. Data collection/provision entails the assessment of the relevant laws to determine if the six proxies are present or not in the legal framework. Data will be compiled in an electronic questionnaire organized as follows:  
  
A checklist of policy and legal instruments Relevant for the assessment in order to guide the expert in the identification of the proxies in the policy and legal framework of the country analysed.  
  
Form 1 “Policy and legal instruments, including provisions for Proxy (x)”. This form composed of a set of questions to be answered (YES or No) to determine if the proxy is present. The details of the instruments containing the Proxy are to be provided in this form.  
  
Form “results of Assessment – Proxy (x)”. This form summarizes the results of the assessment for each proxy.  
  
  
  
To complete the indicator 5.a.2 assessment, national legal experts must examine the national legal and policy framework and complete the electronic questionnaire following the methodological guidelines. This involves three steps that must be repeated for each proxy.   
  
  
  
Collect all the relevant policy and legal documents, using the checklist contained in the electronic questionnaire as a guide as to the instruments to check for the concerned proxy.  
  
Using the detailed methodological guidelines, determine whether the proxy exists in the legal and policy framework and in which instruments.   
  
Complete the questionnaire for each proxy, citing the instrument and the relevant provisions where the proxy was located as well as any further relevant information or exception. Include a hyperlink to the text of the legal and policy instrument.   
  
  
  
After these three steps have been undertaken for all six proxies the national responsible institution will identify the level of protection to women’s land rights present in the legal framework according to the number of proxies located and then will classify the country in one of the six classification bands described above.   
  
  
  
These results will be communicated to FAO for the quality control and global reporting to the UN SDGs Secretariat.  
  
  
  
Data Availability  
  
  
  
Description:  
  
NA.  
  
  
  
Time series:  
  
NA.  
  
  
  
Calendar  
  
  
  
Data collection:  
  
 Countries are expected to report every two years starting from 2018.  
  
   
  
Data release:  
  
All countries are in a position to start reporting on the first year as the source of data (the laws) are available in all of them and “measuring” the indicator is very straightforward. Moreover, the assessment can be conducted by one legal expert in a very short timeframe (about 15 days).  
  
  
  
Data providers  
  
Governments should nominate a national entity responsible for the collection of data and monitoring for indicator 5.a.2. The concerned indicator has three important features that should guide Government’s decision in the selection of the institution that will have the responsibility for the monitoring of tis indicator: the legal nature of the indicator, land tenure aspects and gender/women’s rights. In view of this, the most adequate national institutions that could be designated for having this responsibility are land related institutions (i.e. Ministries of Land or the national institution governing land matters) or a national gender institution (i.e. Gender Equality Commissions, Women´s Affairs or Gender Ministries). Alternatively, a national institution with responsibility for upholding the rule of law such as the Ministries of Justice or Human Rights Commissions would be also appropriate.  
  
  
  
Data compilers  
  
FAO is responsible for compilation and reporting on this indicator at the global level. After checking and validating the results, the national responsible entity submits the questionnaire to FAO. Upon receipt of the questionnaire, FAO will undertake a quality check, and revert to the national responsible institution in case clarifications or revisions are needed. FAO will then compute the indicator based on the information supplied by countries and communicate the results to the UN SDGs Secretariat.  
  
  
  
References  
  
http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/en/   
  
  
  
http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/legislation-assessment-tool/en/   
  
  
  
http://www.fao.org/nr/tenure/voluntary-guidelines/en/   
  
  
  
http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/   
  
  
  
Related indicators as of February 2020  
  
Goal 1, specifically indicator 1.4.2, and Goal 5, specifically 5.a.1 and 5.1.1.

**Gender**



**Gender** is the range of characteristics pertaining to, and differentiating between,[masculinity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Masculinity) and [femininity.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Femininity) Depending on the context, these characteristics may include biological [sex](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex) (i.e., the state of being male, female, or an [intersex](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intersex) [variation), sex-based social structures (i.e., gender roles), or gender](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_identity)



[identity.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_identity)[[1][2][3]](#page22) [Most cultures use a](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_identity) [gender binary,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_binary) [having two genders](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_identity) [(boys/men](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Men) and [girls/women);](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women)[[4]](#page22) those who exist outside these groups fall under the umbrella term [*non-binary* or *genderqueer*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Non-binary_gender). Some societies have specific genders besides "man" and "woman", such as the [hijras](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hijra_(South_Asia)) of [South Asia;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Asia) these are often referred to as [*third genders*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Third_gender) (and *fourth genders*, etc).



[Sexologist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexology) [John Money](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Money) introduced the terminological distinction between [biological sex and gender as a role](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_and_gender_distinction) in 1955. Before his work, it was uncommon



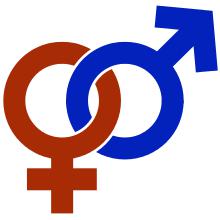
to use the word *gender* to refer to anything but [grammatical categories.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_gender)[[1][2]](#page22) However, Money's meaning of the word did not become widespread until the 1970s, when [feminist theory](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminist_theory) embraced the concept of a distinction between biological sex and the [social construct of gender.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_construction_of_gender_difference) Today, the distinction is



followed in some contexts, especially the social sciences[[5][6]](#page22) and documents written by the [World Health Organization](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Health_Organization) (WHO).[[3]](#page22)



Gender symbols intertwined. The red (left) is the female [Venus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Venus) symbol. The blue (right) represents the male [Mars](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mars) symbol.



In other contexts, including some areas of the social sciences, *gender* includes *sex* or replaces it.[[1][2]](#page22) For instance, in non-human animal research, *gender* is commonly used to refer to the biological sex of the animals.[[2]](#page22) This [change in the meaning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Semantic_change) of gender



can be traced to the 1980s. In 1993, the US [Food and Drug Administration](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Food_and_Drug_Administration) (FDA) started to use *gender* instead of *sex*.[[7]](#page23) Later, in 2011, the FDA reversed its position and began using *sex* as the biological classification and *gender* as "a person's self representation as male or female, or how that person is responded to by social institutions based on the individual's gender presentation."[[8]](#page23)



The [social sciences](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_science) have a branch devoted to [gender studies.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_studies) Other sciences, such as [sexology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexology) and [neuroscience,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neuroscience) are also interested in the subject. The social sciences sometimes approach gender as a [social construct,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_constructionism) and gender studies particularly do, while research in the [natural sciences](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Natural_science) investigates whether [biological differences](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_differences_in_humans) in males and females influence the development of gender in humans; both inform debate about how far biological differences influence the formation of gender identity. In some English literature, there is also a trichotomy between biological sex, psychological gender, and social gender role. This framework first appeared in a feminist paper on [transsexualism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transsexualism) in 1978.[[2][9]](#page23)



**Contents**



[**Etymology and usage**](#page2)

[Derivation](#page2)

[History of the concept](#page2)

[As a grammatical category](#page3)

[As a social role](#page3)

[**Gender identity and gender roles**](#page4)

[Social assignment and gender fluidity](#page5)

[Social categories](#page5)

[Non-binary and third genders](#page5)

[Measurement of gender identity](#page6)

[Feminist theory and gender studies](#page6)

[Social construction of sex hypotheses](#page8)

[**Biological factors and views**](#page10)

[Gender taxonomy](#page11)

[Sexual dimorphism](#page11)

[Human brain](#page12)

[**Gender studies**](#page13)

[**Psychology and sociology**](#page13)

[**Legal status**](#page14)

[Intersex people](#page15)

[Non-binary and third genders](#page15)

[**Gender and society**](#page15)

[Languages](#page15)

[Science](#page16)

[Religion](#page16)

[Poverty](#page17)

[General strain theory](#page18)

[Economic development](#page18)

[Climate change](#page20)

[Social media](#page20)

[**See also**](#page22)

[**References**](#page22)

[**Bibliography**](#page32)

[**External links**](#page32)

**Etymology and usage**



**Derivation**

[The modern English word *gender* comes from the Middle English *gender*, *gendre*, a loanword from Anglo-Norman and Middle](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle_French) [French *gendre*. This, in turn, came from](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle_French) [Latin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Latin) *[genus](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/genus" \l "Latin)*[. Both words mean "kind", "type", or "sort". They derive ultimately from a](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Middle_French)



widely attested [Proto-Indo-European](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Proto-Indo-European_language) (PIE) [root](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Root_(linguistics)) *gen-*,[[10][11]](#page23) which is also the source of *kin*, *kind*, *king*, and many other English



words.[[12]](#page23) It appears in Modern [French](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/French_language) in the word [*genre*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Genre) (type, kind, also [*genre sexuel*](https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/genre_sexuel)) and is related to the [Greek](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Greek_language) root *gen-* (to produce), appearing in [*gene*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gene), [*genesis*](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/genesis), and [*oxygen*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Oxygen). The *Oxford Etymological Dictionary of the English Language* of 1882 defined



*gender* as *kind, breed, sex*, derived from the Latin ablative case of *genus*, like *genere natus*, which refers to birth.[[13]](#page23)Thefirstedition of the [*Oxford English Dictionary*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Oxford_English_Dictionary) (OED1, Volume 4, 1900) notes the original meaning of *gender* as "kind" had already become obsolete.



**History of the concept**

The concept of gender, in the modern sense, is a recent invention in human history.[[14]](#page23) The ancient world had no basis of understanding gender as it has been understood in the humanities and social sciences for the past few decades.[[14]](#page23) The term *gender* had been associated with grammar for most of history and only started to move towards it being a malleable culturalconstruct in the 1950s and 1960s.[[15]](#page23)

[Sexologist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexology) [John Money](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Money) introduced the terminological distinction between [biological sex and gender as a role](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_and_gender_distinction) in 1955. Before his work, it was uncommon to use the word *gender* to refer to anything but [grammatical categories.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_gender)[[1][2]](#page22) For example, in a bibliography of 12,000 references on marriage and family from 1900-1964, the term *gender* does not even emerge once.[[1]](#page22) Analysis of more than 30 million academic article titles from 1945–2001 showed that the uses of the term *"gender"*, were much rarer than uses of *"sex"*, was often used as a grammatical category early in this period. By the end of this period, uses of *"gender"* outnumbered uses of *"sex"* in the social sciences, arts, and humanities.[[2]](#page22) It was in the 1970s that feminist scholars adopted the term *gender* as way of distinguishing “socially constructed” aspects of male–female differences (gender) from “biologically determined” aspects (sex).[[2]](#page22)



In the last two decades of the 20th century, the use of *gender* in academia has increased greatly, outnumbering uses of *sex* in the social sciences. While the spread of the word in science publications can be attributed to the influence of feminism, its use as a synonym for sex is attributed to the failure to grasp the distinction made in feminist theory, and the distinction has sometimes become blurred with the theory itself; [David Haig](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/David_Haig_(biologist)) stated, "Among the reasons that working scientists have given me for choosing gender rather than sex in biological contexts are desires to signal sympathy with feminist goals, to use a more academic term, or to avoid the connotation of copulation."[[2]](#page22)



In legal cases alleging [discrimination,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrimination) *sex* is usually preferred as the determining factor rather than *gender* as it refers to biology



rather than socially constructed [norms](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Norm_(sociology)) which are more open to interpretation and dispute.[[16]](#page23) Julie Greenberg writes that although gender and sex are separate concepts, they are interlinked in that [gender discrimination](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_discrimination) often results from [stereotypes](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_stereotype) based on



[what is expected of members of each sex.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antonin_Scalia)[[17]](#page23) [In](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antonin_Scalia) *J.E.B. v. Alabama ex rel. T.B.*, United States Supreme Court Justice Antonin [Scalia wrote:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antonin_Scalia)



The word ‘gender’ has acquired the new and useful connotation of cultural or attitudinal characteristics (as opposed to physical characteristics) distinctive to the sexes. That is to say, gender is to sex as feminine is to female and masculine is to male.[[18]](#page23)

**As a grammatical category**

The word was still widely used, however, in the specific sense of [grammatical gender](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_gender) (the assignment of nouns to categories such



as *masculine*, *feminine* and *neuter*). According to [Aristotle,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aristotle) this concept was introduced by the Greek philosopher [Protagoras.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Protagoras)[[19]](#page23)



In 1926, [Henry Watson Fowler](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Henry_Watson_Fowler) stated that the definition of the word pertained to this grammar-related meaning:



"Gender...is a grammatical term only. To talk of persons...of the masculine or feminine g[ender], meaning of the male or female sex, is either a jocularity (permissible or not according to context) or a blunder."[[20]](#page23)

**As a social role**

Sexologist [John Money](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Money) coined the term *gender role*, and was the first to use it in print in a scientific trade journal. In a seminal 1955 paper he defined it as "all those things that a person says or does to disclose himself or herself as having the status of boy or man, girl or woman."[[21]](#page23)



The modern academic sense of the word, in the context of social roles of men and women, dates at least back to 1945,[[22]](#page23) and was popularized and developed by the feminist movement from the 1970s onwards (see § Feminism theory and gender studies below), which theorizes that human nature is essentially [epicene](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Epicenity) and social distinctions based on sex are arbitrarily constructed. In this context, matters pertaining to this theoretical process of [social construction](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_construction_of_gender) were labelled matters of *gender*.

The popular use of *gender* simply as an alternative to *sex* (as a biological category) is also widespread, although attempts are still made to preserve the distinction. The [*American Heritage Dictionary*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_American_Heritage_Dictionary_of_the_English_Language) (2000) uses the following two sentences to illustrate the difference, noting that the distinction "is useful in principle, but it is by no means widely observed, and considerable variation in usage occurs at all levels."[[23]](#page24)



Gender depicted as an ambiguous phenomenon, by a young Swedish actor

The effectiveness of the medication appears to depend on the sex (not gender) of the patient.

In peasant societies, gender (not sex) roles are likely to be more clearly defined.

**Gender identity and gender roles**



*Gender identity* refers to a personal identification with a particular gender and gender rolein society. The term [*woman*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Woman) has historically been used interchangeably with reference to the female body, though more recently this usage has been viewed as controversial by some [feminists.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminist)[[24]](#page24)



There are qualitative analyses that explore and present the representations of gender; however, [feminists](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminist) challenge these dominant ideologies concerning gender roles and biological sex. One's biological sex is directly tied to specific social roles and the expectations. [Judith Butler](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Judith_Butler) considers the concept of being a woman to have more challenges, owing not only to society's viewing women as a social category but also as a felt sense of self, a culturally conditioned or constructed subjective identity.[[25]](#page24) *Social* *identity* refers to the common identification with a collectivity or social category that[creates a common culture among participants concerned.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_identity_theory)[[26]](#page24) [According to social identity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_identity_theory)



[theory,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_identity_theory)[[27]](#page24) [an important component of the self-concept is derived from memberships in](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_identity_theory) social groups and categories; this is demonstrated by group processes and how inter-group relationships impact significantly on individuals' self perception and behaviors. The



groups people belong to therefore provide members with the definition of who they are and how they should behave within their social sphere.[[28]](#page24)

Categorizing males and females into [social roles](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_role) creates a problem, because individuals feel they have to be at one end of a linear spectrum and must identify themselves as man or woman, rather than being allowed to choose a section in between.[[29]](#page24) Globally, communities interpret biological differences between men and women to create a set of social expectations that define the behaviors that are "appropriate" for men and women and determine women's and men's different access to rights, resources, power in society and health behaviors.[[30]](#page24) Although the specific nature and degree of these differences vary from one society to the next, they still tend to typically favor men, creating an imbalance in power and [gender inequalities](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_inequality) within most societies.[[31]](#page24) Many cultures have different systems of norms and beliefs based on gender, but there is no universal standard to a masculine or feminine role across all cultures.[[32]](#page24) Social roles of men and women in relation to each other is based on the cultural norms of that society, which lead to the creation of [gender systems.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_systems) The gender system is the



A protester holding a flyer with the words "Gender is like that old jumper from my cousin. It was given to me and it doesn't fit" at a rally for transgender equality in Washington D.C. in 2013



basis of social patterns in many societies, which include the separation of sexes, and the primacy of masculine norms.[[31]](#page24)

Philosopher [Michel Foucault](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Michel_Foucault) said that as sexual subjects, humans are the object of power, which is not an institution or structure,



rather it is a signifier or name attributed to "complex strategical situation".[[33]](#page24) Because of this, "power" is what determines individual attributes, behaviors, etc. and people are a part of an ontologically and epistemologically constructed set of names and

labels. For example, being female characterizes one as a woman, and being a woman signifies one as weak, emotional, and irrational, and incapable of actions attributed to a "man". Butler said that gender and sex are more like verbs than nouns. She reasoned that her actions are limited because she is female. "I am not permitted to construct my gender and sex willy-nilly," she said.[[25]](#page24) "[This] is so because gender is politically and therefore socially controlled. Rather than 'woman' being something one is, it is something one does."[[25]](#page24) More recent criticisms of Judith Butler's theories critique her writing for reinforcing the very conventional dichotomies of gender.[[34]](#page24)

**Social assignment and gender fluidity**

According to [gender theorist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_studies) [Kate Bornstein,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kate_Bornstein) gender can have ambiguity and fluidity.[[35]](#page24) There are two contrasting ideas regarding the definition of gender, and the intersection of both of them is definable as below:



The [World Health Organization](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Health_Organization) defines gender as the result of socially constructed ideas about the behavior, actions, and roles a



particular sex performs.[[3]](#page22) The beliefs, values and attitude taken up and exhibited by them is as per the agreeable norms of the society and the personal opinions of the person is not taken into the primary consideration of assignment of gender and imposition of gender roles as per the assigned gender.[[3]](#page22) Intersections and crossing of the prescribed boundaries have no place in the arena of the social construct of the term "gender".

The assignment of gender involves taking into account the physiological and biological attributes assigned by nature followed by the imposition of the socially constructed conduct. *Gender* is a term used to exemplify the attributes that a society or culture constitutes as "masculine" or "feminine". Although a person's sex as male or female stands as a biological fact that is identical in any culture, what that specific sex means in reference to a person's gender role as a woman or a man in society varies cross culturally according to what things are considered to be masculine or feminine.[[36]](#page24) These roles are learned from various, intersecting sources such as parental influences, the socialization a child receives in school, and what is portrayed in the local media. Learning gender roles starts from birth and includes seemingly simple things like what color outfits a baby is clothed in or what toys they are given to play with. However, a person's gender does not always align with what has been assigned at birth. Factors other than learned behaviors play a role in the development of gender.[[37]](#page24)

**Social categories**

Sexologist John Money [coined the term](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neologism) *gender* *role* in 1955. The term [*gender role*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_role) is defined as the actions or responses that may reveal their status as boy, man, girl or woman, respectively.[[38]](#page24) Elements surrounding gender roles include clothing, speech patterns, movement, occupations, and other factors not limited to biological sex. In contrast to taxonomic approaches, some feminist philosophers have argued that gender "is a vast orchestration of subtle mediations between oneself and others", rather than a "private cause behind manifest behaviours".[[39]](#page24)



**Non-binary and third genders**

Historically, many if not most societies have recognized only two distinct, broad classes of gender roles, a [binary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_binary) of masculine and feminine, largely corresponding to the biological



sexes of male and female.[[4][40][41]](#page25) When a baby is born, society allocates the child to one gender or the other, on the basis of what their genitals resemble.[[36]](#page24)

However, some societies have historically acknowledged and even honored people who fulfill a gender role that exists more in the middle of the continuum between the feminine and masculine polarity. For example, the Hawaiian [māhū,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Māhū) who occupy "a place in the



middle" between male and female,[[42][43]](#page25) or the [Ojibwe](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ojibwe_language) *ikwekaazo*, "men who choose to



[Mary Frith](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mary_Frith) ("Moll Cutpurse") scandalized 17th century society by wearing male clothing, smoking in public, and otherwise defying gender roles.



function as women",[[44]](#page25) or *ininiikaazo*, "women who function as men".[[44]](#page25) In the language of the [sociology of gender,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sociology_of_gender) some of [these people may be considered third gender, especially by those in gender studies or anthropology. Contemporary Native](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Native_Americans_in_the_United_States) [American and](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Native_Americans_in_the_United_States) [FNIM](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/FNIM) [people who fulfill these traditional roles in their communities may also participate in the modern,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Native_Americans_in_the_United_States) [two-spirit](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Two-spirit)



community,[[45]](#page25) however, these umbrella terms, neologisms, and ways of viewing gender are not necessarily the type of cultural constructs that more traditional members of these communities agree with.[[46]](#page25)

The [hijras](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hijra_(South_Asia)) of [India](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/India) and [Pakistan](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pakistan) are often cited as [third gender.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Third_gender)[[47][48]](#page25) Another example may be the [muxe](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Muxe) (pronounced [[ˈmuʃ](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Help:IPA)e]),



found in the state of Oaxaca, in southern Mexico.[[49]](#page25) The [Bugis](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bugis) people of [Sulawesi,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sulawesi) [Indonesia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indonesia) have [a tradition](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_in_Bugis_society) that incorporates all the features above.[[50]](#page25)



[In addition to these traditionally recognized third genders, many cultures now recognize, to differing degrees, various non-binary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Genderqueer) [gender identities. People who are non-binary (or genderqueer) have gender identities that are not exclusively masculine or](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Genderqueer) feminine. They may identify as having an overlap of gender identities, having two or more genders, having no gender, having a fluctuating gender identity, or being third gender or other-gendered. Recognition of non-binary genders is still somewhat new to mainstream Western culture,[[51]](#page25) and non-binary people may face increased risk of assault, harassment, and discrimination.[[52]](#page25)



[Joan Roughgarden](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joan_Roughgarden) argues that some non-human animal species also have more than two genders, in that there might be multiple templates for behavior available to individual organisms with a given biological sex.[[53]](#page25)



**Measurement of gender identity**

Early gender identity research hypothesized a single bipolar dimension of masculinity-femininity, with masculinity and femininity being opposites on one continuum. Assumptions of the unidimensional model were challenged as societal stereotypes changed, which led to the development of a two-dimensional gender identity model. In the model, masculinity and femininity were conceptualized as two separate and orthogonal dimensions, coexisting in varying degrees within an individual. This conceptualization on femininity and masculinity remains the accepted standard today.[[54]](#page25)

Two instruments incorporating the multidimensional nature of masculinity and femininity have dominated gender identity research: The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and the [Personal Attributes Questionnaire](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Personal_Attributes_Questionnaire) (PAQ). Both instruments categorize individuals as either being sex typed (males report themselves as identifying primarily with masculine traits, females report themselves as identifying primarily with feminine traits), cross sex-typed (males report themselves as identifying primarily with feminine traits, females report themselves as identifying primarily with masculine traits), [androgynous](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Androgyny) (either males or females who report themselves as high on both masculine and feminine traits) or undifferentiated (either males or females who report themselves as low on both masculine and feminine traits).[[54]](#page25) Twenge (1997) noted that men are generally more masculine than women and women generally more feminine than men, but the association between biological sex and masculinity/femininity is waning.[[55]](#page25)



**Feminist theory and gender studies**

Biologist and feminist academic [Anne Fausto-Sterling](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anne_Fausto-Sterling) rejects the discourse of biological versus social determinism and advocates a deeper analysis of how interactions between the biological being and the social environment influence individuals' capacities.[[56]](#page25) The philosopher and feminist [Simone de Beauvoir](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Simone_de_Beauvoir) applied [existentialism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Existentialism) to women's experience of life: "One is



not born a woman, one becomes one."[[57]](#page26) In context, this is a philosophical statement. However, it may be analyzed in terms of biology—a girl must pass [puberty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Puberty) to become a woman—and sociology, as a great deal of mature relating in social contexts is



learned rather than instinctive.[[58]](#page26)

Within [feminist theory,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminist_theory) terminology for gender issues developed over the 1970s. In the 1974 edition of *Masculine/Feminine or* *Human*, the author uses "innate gender" and "learned sex roles",[[59]](#page26)butin the 1978 edition, the use of *sex* and *gender* isreversed.[[60]](#page26) By 1980, most feminist writings had agreed on using *gender* only for socioculturally adapted [traits.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trait_theory)

In [gender studies](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_studies) the term *gender* refers to proposed social and cultural constructions of masculinities and femininities. In this



context, *gender* explicitly excludes reference to biological differences, to focus on cultural differences.[[61]](#page26) This emerged from a number of different areas: in sociology during the 1950s; from the theories of the psychoanalyst [Jacques Lacan;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jacques_Lacan" \l "Lacan_and_his_discontents) and in the work of French psychoanalysts like [Julia Kristeva,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Julia_Kristeva) [Luce Irigaray,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Luce_Irigaray) and American feminists such as [Judith Butler.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Judith_Butler) Those who followed



Butler came to regard gender roles as a practice, sometimes referred to as ["performative".](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Performative)[[62]](#page26)



Charles E. Hurst states that some people think sex will, "...automatically determine one's gender demeanor and role (social) as well as one's [sexual orientation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexual_orientation) (sexual attractions and behavior).[[63]](#page26) Gender sociologists believe that people have [cultural](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cultural) origins and habits for dealing with gender. For example, Michael Schwalbe believes that humans must be taught how to act appropriately in their designated gender to fill the role properly, and that the way people behave as masculine or feminine interacts with social expectations. Schwalbe comments that humans "are the results of many people embracing and acting on similar ideas".[[64]](#page26) People do this through everything from [clothing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Clothing) and hairstyle to relationship and employment choices. Schwalbe believes that these distinctions are important, because society wants to identify and categorize people as soon as we see them. They need to place people into distinct categories to know how we should feel about them.



Hurst comments that in a society where we present our genders so distinctly, there can often be severe consequences for breaking these cultural norms. Many of these consequences are rooted in [discrimination](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrimination) based on sexual orientation. Gays and lesbians are



often discriminated against in our legal system because of societal prejudices.[[65][66][67]](#page26) Hurst describes how this discrimination works against people for breaking gender norms, no matter what their sexual orientation is. He says that "courts often confuse sex, gender, and sexual orientation, and confuse them in a way that results in denying the rights not only of gays and lesbians, but also of those who do not present themselves or act in a manner traditionally expected of their sex".[[63]](#page26) This prejudice plays out in our legal system when a person is judged differently because they do not present themselves as the "correct" gender.

[Andrea Dworkin stated her "commitment to destroying male dominance and gender itself" while stating her belief in radical](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Radical_feminism) [feminism.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Radical_feminism)[[68]](#page26)



Political scientist [Mary Hawkesworth](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mary_Hawkesworth) addresses gender and feminist theory, stating that since the 1970s the concept of gender has transformed and been used in significantly different ways within feminist scholarship. She notes that a transition occurred when several feminist scholars, such as [Sandra Harding](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sandra_Harding) and [Joan Scott,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joan_Wallach_Scott) began to conceive of gender "as an analytic category within which humans think about and organize their social activity". Feminist scholars in [Political Science](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_Science) began employing gender as an analytical category, which highlighted "social and political relations neglected by mainstream accounts". However, Hawkesworth states "feminist political science has not become a dominant paradigm within the discipline".[[69]](#page26)



American political scientist Karen Beckwith addresses the concept of gender within political science arguing that a "common language of gender" exists and that it must be explicitly articulated in order to build upon it within the political science discipline. Beckwith describes two ways in which the political scientist may employ 'gender' when conducting empirical research: "gender as a category and as a process." Employing gender as a category allows for political scientists "to delineate specific contexts where behaviours, actions, attitudes and preferences considered masculine or feminine result in particular" political outcomes. It may also demonstrate how gender differences, not necessarily corresponding precisely with sex, may "constrain or facilitate political" actors. Gender as a process has two central manifestations in political science research, firstly in determining "the differential effects of structures and policies upon men and women," and secondly, the ways in which masculine and feminine political actors "actively work to produce favorable gendered outcomes".[[70]](#page26)

With regard to gender studies, Jacquetta Newman states that although sex is determined biologically, the ways in which people express gender is not. Gendering is a socially constructed process based on culture, though often cultural expectations around women and men have a direct relationship to their biology. Because of this, Newman argues, many privilege sex as being a cause of oppression and ignore other issues like race, ability, poverty, etc. Current gender studies classes seek to move away from that and examine the intersectionality of these factors in determining people's lives. She also points out that other non-Western cultures do not necessarily have the same views of gender and gender roles.[[71]](#page26) Newman also debates the meaning of equality,

which is often considered the goal of feminism; she believes that *equality* is a problematic term because it can mean many different things, such as people being treated identically, differently, or fairly based on their gender. Newman believes this is problematic because there is no unified definition as to what equality means or looks like, and that this can be significantly important in areas like public policy.[[72]](#page26)

**Social construction of sex hypotheses**

Sociologists generally regard gender as a social construct, and various researchers, including many [feminists,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminism) consider sex to only be a matter of biology and something that is not about social or cultural construction. For instance, [sexologist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexology) [John Money](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Money) suggests the distinction between biological sex



and gender as a role.[[38]](#page24) Moreover, [Ann Oakley,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ann_Oakley) a professor of sociology and social policy, says "the constancy of sex must be admitted, but so also must the variability of gender."[[73]](#page26) The [World Health Organization](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_Health_Organization) states, "'[s]ex' refers to the biological and physiological characteristics that define men and women," and "'gender' refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women."[[74]](#page26) Thus, sex is regarded as a category studied in biology (natural sciences), while gender is studied in [humanities](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Humanities) and [social sciences.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_sciences) Lynda Birke, a feminist



biologist, maintains "'biology' is not seen as something which might change."[[75]](#page26) Therefore, it is stated that sex is something that does not change, while gender can change according to social structure.

["Rosie the Riveter"](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rosie_the_Riveter) was an iconic symbol of the American [homefront](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Home_front_during_World_War_II) in [WWII](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World_War_II) and a departure from restrictive, "feminine", [gender roles](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_role) due to [wartime necessity.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Total_war)



However, there are scholars who argue that sex is also socially constructed. For example, gender theorist [Judith Butler](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Judith_Butler) states that "perhaps this construct called 'sex' is as culturally constructed as gender; indeed, perhaps it was always already gender, with the consequence that the distinction between sex and gender turns out to be no distinction at all."[[76]](#page26)



She continues:



It would make no sense, then, to define gender as the cultural interpretation of sex, if sex is itself a gender-centered category. Gender should not be conceived merely as the cultural inscription of meaning based on a given sex (a juridical conception); gender must also designate the very apparatus of production whereby the sexes themselves are established. [...] This production of sex as the pre-discursive should be understood as the effect of the apparatus of cultural construction designated by gender.[[77]](#page26)

Butler argues that "bodies only appear, only endure, only live within the productive constraints of certain highly gendered regulatory schemas,"[[78]](#page26) and sex is "no longer as a bodily given on which the construct of gender is artificially imposed, but as a cultural norm which governs the materialization of bodies."[[79]](#page26) Marria Lugones states that, among the [Yoruba people,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yoruba_people) there was no concept of gender and no gender system at all before [colonialism.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Colonialism) She argues that colonial powers used a gender system as a



tool for domination and fundamentally changing social relations among the indigenous.[[80]](#page26)

With regard to history, Linda Nicholson, a professor of history and [women's studies,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women's_studies) points out that the understanding of human bodies as sexually dimorphic was historically not recognised. She argues that male and female genitals were considered inherently the same in Western society until the 18th century. At that time, female genitals were regarded as incomplete male genitals, and the difference between the two was conceived as a matter of degree. In other words, there was a belief in a gradation of physical forms, or a spectrum.[[81]](#page26)



[In addition, drawing from the empirical research of intersex children, Anne Fausto-Sterling, a professor of biology and gender](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_studies) [studies, describes how the doctors address the issues of intersexuality. She starts her argument with an example of the birth of an](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_studies) intersexual individual and maintains "our conceptions of the nature of gender difference shape, even as they reflect, the ways we structure our social system and polity; they also shape and reflect our understanding of our physical bodies."[[82]](#page26) Then she adds how gender assumptions affects the scientific study of sex by presenting the research of intersexuals by John Money et al., and she concludes that "they never questioned the fundamental assumption that there are only two sexes, because their goal in studying intersexuals was to find out more about 'normal' development."[[83]](#page26) She also mentions the language the doctors use when they talk with the parents of the intersexuals. After describing how the doctors inform parents about the intersexuality, she asserts that because the doctors believe that the intersexuals are actually male or female, they tell the parents of the intersexuals that it will take a little bit more time for the doctors to determine whether the infant is a boy or a girl. That is to say, the doctors' behavior is formulated by the cultural gender assumption that there are only two sexes. Lastly, she maintains that the differences in the ways in which the medical professionals in different regions treat intersexual people also give us a good example of how sex is socially constructed.[[84]](#page26) In her *Sexing the body: gender politics and the construction of sexuality*, she introduces the following example:



A group of physicians from Saudi Arabia recently reported on several cases of XX intersex children with [congenital adrenal hyperplasia](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Congenital_adrenal_hyperplasia) (CAH), a genetically inherited malfunction of the [enzymes](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Enzyme) that aid in making [steroid hormones.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Steroid_hormones) [...] In the United States and Europe, such children, because they have the potential to bear children later in life, are usually raised as girls. Saudi doctors trained in this European tradition recommended such a course of action to the Saudi parents of CAH XX children. A number of parents, however, refused to accept the recommendation that their child, initially identified as a son, be raised instead as a daughter. Nor would they accept feminizing surgery for their child. [...] This was essentially an expression of local community attitudes with [...] the preference for male offspring.[[85]](#page26)



Thus it is evident that culture can play a part in assigning gender, particularly in relation to intersex children.[[84]](#page26)

Another work of Ann Fausto-Sterling's in which she discusses gender is *The Five Sexes: Why Male and Female Are Not Enough.* In this article, Fausto-Sterling states that Western culture has only two sexes and that even their language restricts the presence of more than two sexes. She argues that instead of having a binomial nomenclature for organizing humans into two distinct sexes (male and female), there are at least five sexes in the broad spectrum of gender. These five sexes include male, female, hermaphrodite, female [pseudohermaphrodites](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pseudohermaphrodites) (individuals who have ovaries and some male genitalia but lack testes), and male pseudohermaphrodites (individuals who have testes and some female genitalia but lack ovaries). Fausto-Sterling additionally adds that in the category of hermaphrodites, there are additional degrees and levels in which the genitalia are developed; this means that there may be more intersexes that exist in this continuum of gender.



Fausto-Sterling argues that gender has been gradually institutionally disciplined into a binary system through medical advances. She brings up multiple instances where gender in history was not split into strictly male or female, and states that, by the end of the Middle Age, intersex individuals were forced to pick a side in the binary gender code and to adhere by it. She adds on that "hermaphrodites have unruly bodies" and they need to fit into society's definition of gender.[[86]](#page26) Thus, modern-day parents have been urged by medical doctors to decide the sex for their hermaphroditic child immediately after childbirth. She emphasizes that the role of the medical community is that of an institutionalized discipline on society that there can only be two sexes: male and female and only the two listed are considered "normal." Lastly, Fausto-Sterling argues that modern laws require humans to be labelled either as male or female and that "ironically, a more sophisticated knowledge of the complexity of sexual systems has led to the repression of such intricacy."[[86]](#page26) She mentions this quote to inform the prevailing thought that hermaphrodites, without medical intervention, are assumed to live a life full of psychological pain when in fact, there is no evidence in which that is the case. She finishes up her argument asking what would happen if society started accepting intersex individuals.

The article *Adolescent Gender-Role Identity and Mental Health: Gender Intensification Revisited* focuses on the work of Heather A. Priess, Sara M. Lindberg, and [Janet Shibley Hyde](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Janet_Shibley_Hyde) on whether or not girls and boys diverge in their gender identities during adolescent years. The researchers based their work on ideas previously mentioned by Hill and Lynch in their gender intensification hypothesis in that signals and messages from parents determine and affect their children's [gender role](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_role) identities. This hypothesis argues that parents affect their children's gender role identities and that different interactions spent with either parents will affect gender intensification. Priess and among other's study did not support the hypothesis of Hill and Lynch which stated "that as adolescents experience these and other socializing influences, they will become more stereotypical in their gender-role identities and gendered attitudes and behaviors."[[87]](#page27) However, the researchers did state that perhaps the hypothesis Hill and Lynch proposed was true in the past but is not true now due to changes in the population of teens in respect to their gender-role identities.



Authors of *Unpacking the Gender System: A Theoretical Perspective on Gender Belief’s and Social Relations*, Cecilia Ridgeway and Shelley Correll, argue that gender is more than an identity or role but is something that is institutionalized through "social relational contexts." Ridgeway and Correll define "social relational contexts" as "any situation in which individuals define themselves in relation to others in order to act."[[88]](#page27) They also point out that in addition to social relational contexts, cultural beliefs plays a role in the gender system. The coauthors argue that daily people are forced to acknowledge and interact with others in ways that are related to gender. Every day, individuals are interacting with each other and comply with society's set standard of [hegemonic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hegemonic) beliefs, which includes gender roles. They state that society's hegemonic cultural beliefs sets the rules which in turn create the setting for which social relational contexts are to take place. Ridgeway and Correll then shift their topic towards sex categorization. The authors define sex categorization as "the sociocognitive process by which we label another as male or female."[[88]](#page27)



**Biological factors and views**



In most cases, men and women and boys and girls are similar in behavior, with little gender difference, but some gendered behavior is influenced by prenatal and early life androgen exposure. This includes, for example, gender normative play, self-identification with a gender, and tendency to engage in aggressive behavior.[[89]](#page27) Males of most mammals, including humans, exhibit more rough and tumble play behavior, which is influenced by maternal testosterone levels. These levels may also influence sexuality, with non-heterosexual persons exhibiting sex atypical behavior in childhood.[[90]](#page27)

The [biology of gender](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexual_dimorphism" \l "Psychological_and_behavioral_differentiation) became the subject of an expanding number of studies over the course of the late 20th century. One of the [earliest areas of interest was what became known as "gender identity disorder" (GID) and which is now also described as gender](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_dysphoria) [dysphoria. Studies in this, and related areas, inform the following summary of the subject by John Money. He stated:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_dysphoria)



The term "gender role" appeared in print first in 1955. The term *gender identity* was used in a press release, November 21, 1966, to announce the new clinic for transsexuals at The Johns Hopkins Hospital. It was disseminated in the media worldwide, and soon entered the vernacular. The definitions of gender and gender identity vary on a doctrinal basis. In popularized and scientifically debased usage, sex is what you are biologically; gender is what you become socially; gender identity is your own sense or conviction of maleness or femaleness; and gender role is the cultural stereotype of what is masculine and feminine. Causality with respect to gender identity disorder is sub-divisible into genetic, prenatal hormonal, postnatal social, and post-pubertal hormonal determinants, but there is, as yet, no comprehensive and detailed theory of causality. Gender coding in the brain is bipolar. In gender identity disorder, there is discordance between the natal sex of one's external genitalia and the brain coding of one's gender as masculine or feminine.[[91]](#page27)

Money refers to attempts to distinguish a difference between biological sex and social gender as "scientifically debased", because of our increased knowledge of a continuum of [dimorphic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexual_dimorphism) features (Money's word is "dipolar") that link biological and behavioral differences. These extend from the exclusively biological "genetic" and "prenatal hormonal" differences between men and

women, to "postnatal" features, some of which are social, but others have been shown to result from "post-pubertal hormonal" effects.

Although causation from the [biological—genetic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Genetics) and [hormonal—to](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_steroids) the behavioral has been broadly demonstrated and accepted, Money is careful to also note that understanding of the causal chains from biology to behavior in sex and gender issues is very far from complete. For example, the existence of a ["gay gene"](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Biology_and_sexual_orientation) has not been proven, but such a gene remains an acknowledged possibility.[[92]](#page27)



There are studies concerning women who have a condition called [congenital adrenal hyperplasia,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Congenital_adrenal_hyperplasia) which leads to the overproduction of the masculine sex [hormone,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hormone) [androgen.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Androgen) These women usually have ordinary female appearances (though nearly all girls with congenital adrenal hyperplasia (CAH) have corrective surgery performed on their genitals). However, despite taking hormone-balancing medication given to them at birth, these females are statistically more likely to be interested in activities traditionally linked to males than female activities. Psychology professor and CAH researcher Dr. Sheri Berenbaum attributes these differences to an exposure of higher levels of male sex hormones in utero.[[93]](#page27)



**Gender taxonomy**

The following [gender taxonomy](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_taxonomy) illustrates the kinds of diversity that have been studied and reported in medical literature. It is placed in roughly chronological order of biological and social development in the human [life cycle.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Biological_life_cycle) The earlier stages are more purely biological and the latter are more dominantly social. Causation is known to operate from chromosome to gonads, and from gonads to hormones. It is also significant from brain structure to gender identity (see Money quote above). Brain structure and processing (biological) that may explain erotic preference (social), however, is an area of ongoing research. Terminology in some areas changes quite rapidly as knowledge grows.



[chromosomes: 46,XX (genetic female); 46,XY (genetic male) ;45,X (Turner's syndrome); 47,XXY (Klinefelter](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Klinefelter_syndrome) [syndrome); 47,XYY](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Klinefelter_syndrome) [(XYY syndrome);](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/XYY_syndrome) [47,XXX](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Klinefelter_syndrome) [(XXX syndrome);](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/XXX_syndrome) [48,XXYY](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Klinefelter_syndrome) [(XXYY syndrome);](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/XXYY_syndrome) [46,XX/XY](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Klinefelter_syndrome) [mosaic;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mosaic_(genetics)) other mosaic;



[gonads:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gonad) [testicles;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Testicle) [ovaries;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ovary) ovarian and testicular tissues, not in same gonad [(true hermaphroditism),](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/True_hermaphroditism) [ovotestes,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ovotestis) or other [gonadal dysgenesis;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gonadal_dysgenesis)



[hormones:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hormone) [androgens](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Androgen) (including [testosterone,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Testosterone) [dihydrotestosterone,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dihydrotestosterone) etc.), [estrogens](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Estrogen) (including [estradiol,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Estradiol) [estriol,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Estriol) etc.), [antiandrogens,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antiandrogen) [progestogens,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Progestogen) and [others;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_human_hormones)



[primary sexual characteristics:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_organ) [genitals](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_organ" \l "External_and_internal_organs)[[94]](#page27)



[secondary sexual characteristics:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Secondary_sex_characteristic" \l "In_humans) dimorphic physical characteristics, other than primary characteristics (such as [body hair,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Androgenic_hair) development of [breasts);](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Breast) certain changes in brain structure due to organizing effects of sex hormones[[95]](#page27)



[gender identity:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_identity) one’s sense of oneself as a [man,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Man) [woman,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Woman) or [gender non-conforming;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_variance)



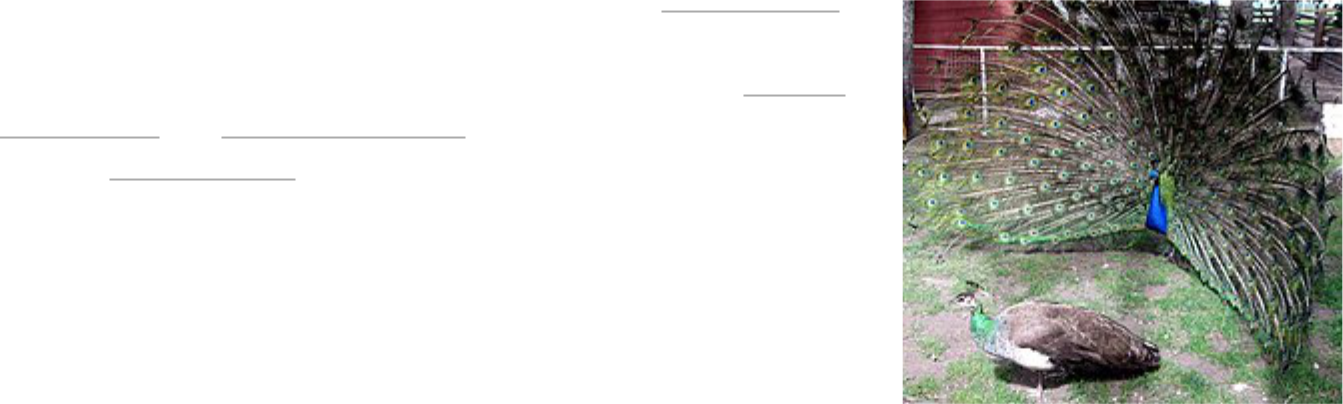
[gender expression:](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_expression) presentation and behaviors that express aspects of gender identity or [gender role](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_role)



**Sexual dimorphism**

Although sexual reproduction is *defined* at the cellular level, key features of sexual reproduction operate *within* the structures of the gamete cells themselves. Notably, gametes carry very long molecules called [DNA](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DNA) that the biological processes of reproduction can "read" like a book of instructions. In fact, there are typically many of these "books", called *chromosomes*. Human gametes usually have 23 chromosomes, 22 of which are common to both sexes. The final chromosomes in the two human gametes are called *sex* chromosomes because of their role in [sex determination.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex-determination_systems) [Ova](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ovum) always have the same sex chromosome, labelled [*X*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/X_chromosome). About half of [spermatozoa](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spermatozoa) also have this same X chromosome, the rest have a [Y-chromosome.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Y_chromosome) At fertilization the gametes fuse to form a cell, usually with 46 chromosomes, and either XX female or XY male, depending on whether the sperm carried an X or a Y chromosome. Some of the other possibilities are listed [above.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender" \l "Gender_taxonomy)

Genes which are specific to the X or Y chromosome are called [sex-linked genes.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex-linked_genes) For example, the genes which create red and green retinal photoreceptors are [located on the X chromosome, which men only have one of. Thus red-green](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Red-green_color_blindness) [color blindness is an](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Red-green_color_blindness) [X-linked recessive trait](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/X-linked_recessive_inheritance) [and is much more common in men.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Red-green_color_blindness) However, [sex-limited genes](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex-limited_genes) on any chromosome can be expressed to indicate, for example, "if in a male body, do X; otherwise, do not."



The human [XY system](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/XY_sex-determination_system) is not the only sex determination system. Birds typically



have a reverse, ZW system—males are ZZ and females ZW.[[96]](#page27) Whether male or female birds influence the sex of offspring is not known for all species. Several species of [butterfly](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Butterfly) are known to have female parent sex determination.[[97]](#page27)

Sexual differentiation in [peafowl](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peafowl)

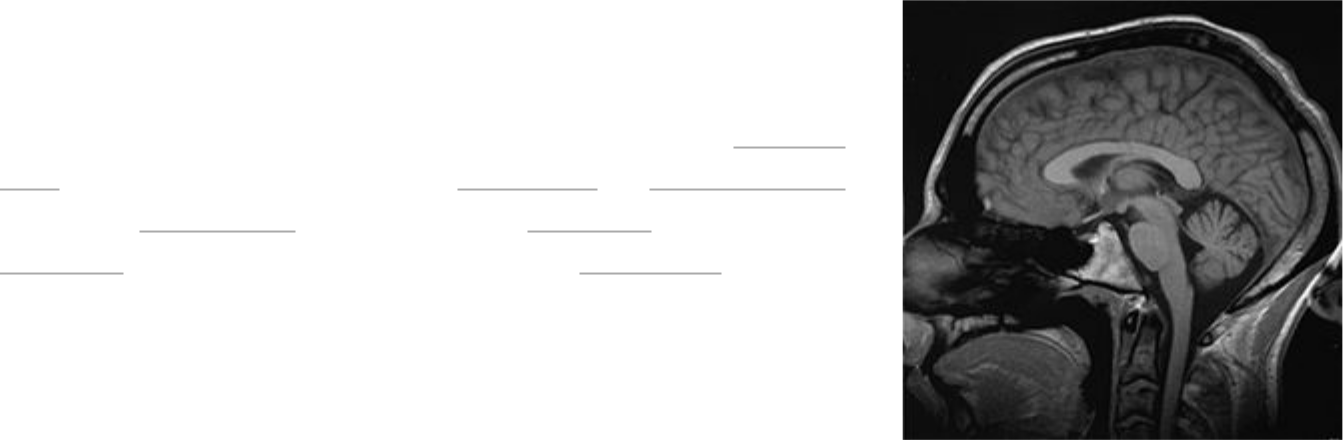


The [platypus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Platypus) has a complex hybrid system, the male has ten sex chromosomes, half X and half Y.[[98]](#page27)



**Human brain**

"It is well established that men have a larger cerebrum than women by about 8– 10% (Filipek et al., 1994; Nopoulos et al., 2000; Passe et al., 1997a,b; Rabinowicz et al., 1999; Witelson et al., 1995)."[[99][100]](#page27) However, what is [functionally relevant are differences in composition and "wiring". Richard J.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Richard_J._Haier) [Haier and colleagues at the universities of](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Richard_J._Haier) [New Mexico](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/University_of_New_Mexico) [and](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Richard_J._Haier) [California (Irvine)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/University_of_California,_Irvine) found, using [brain mapping,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Brain_mapping) that men have more [grey matter](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grey_matter) related to general [intelligence](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intelligence) than women, and women have more [white matter](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/White_matter) related to intelligence than men – the ratio between grey and white matter is 4% higher for men than women.[[99]](#page27)



Grey matter is used for information processing, while white matter consists of

the connections between processing centers. Other differences are measurable Human brain but less pronounced.[[101]](#page27) Most of these differences are produced by hormonal

activity, ultimately derived from the Y chromosome and sexual differentiation.

However, differences that arise directly from gene activity have also been observed.



A sexual dimorphism in levels of [expression](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gene_expression) in brain [tissue](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Biological_tissue) was observed by [quantitative](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantitative_research) [real-time](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Real-time_computing) [PCR,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Polymerase_chain_reaction) with females presenting an up to 2-fold excess in the abundance of PCDH11X [transcripts.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gene_transcription) We relate these findings to sexually dimorphic [traits](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trait_(biology)) in the human brain. Interestingly, PCDH11X/Y gene pair is unique to *Homo sapiens*, since the [X-linked gene](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_linkage) was [transposed](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transposition_(genetics)) to the Y chromosome after the human–chimpanzee [lineages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lineage_(evolution)) split.



[—](#page28) [[102]](#page28)

It has also been demonstrated that brain processing responds to the external environment. Learning, both of ideas and behaviors, appears to be coded in brain processes. It also appears that in several simplified cases this coding operates differently, but in some ways equivalently, in the brains of men and women.[[103]](#page28) For example, both men and women learn and use language; however, [bio-chemically,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Biochemistry) they appear to process it differently. Differences in female and male use of language are likely reflections *both* of biological preferences and aptitudes, *and* of learned patterns.



Testosterone acts on many organs of the body, including the [SDN-POA](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/INAH_3) located in the [sexually dimorphic nucleus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sexually_dimorphic_nucleus) of the brain and the [Onuf's nucleus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Onuf's_nucleus) in the [spinal cord,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spinal_cord) to create the masculinized patterns.[[104][105][106]](#page28)



**Gender studies**



Spain's desperate situation when invaded by [Napoleon](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Napoleon) enabled [Agustina de Aragón](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Agustina_de_Aragón) to break into a closely guarded male preserve and become [the only female professional officer in the Spanish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_Army) [Army of her time (and long afterwards).](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_Army)

[Gender studies](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_studies) is a [field](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Field_of_study) of [interdisciplinary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Interdisciplinary) study and [academic field](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_academic_disciplines) devoted to gender, [gender identity](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_identity) and gendered [representation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Representation_(politics)) as central categories of analysis. This field includes [Women's studies](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women's_studies) (concerning [women,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women) [feminity,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminity) their [gender roles](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_role) and politics, and [feminism),](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminism) [Men's studies](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Men's_studies) (concerning [men,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Men)



[masculinity,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Masculinity) their [gender roles,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_role) and politics), and [LGBT studies.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/LGBT_studies)[[107]](#page28) Sometimes Gender studies is offered together with Study of [Sexuality.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_sexuality) These disciplines study gender and sexuality in the fields of literature and language, [history,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History) [political science,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Political_science) [sociology,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sociology) [anthropology,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anthropology) [cinema](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Film_studies) and [media studies,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Media_studies) human



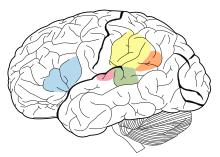
development, law, and medicine.[[108]](#page28) It also analyses [race,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Race_(human_classification)) [ethnicity,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ethnicity) [location,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Location_(geography)) [nationality,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nationality) and [disability.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Disability)[[109][110]](#page28)



**Psychology and sociology**



[Language](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language) areas of the brain:



[Angular gyrus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Angular_gyrus)



[Supramarginal gyrus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Supramarginal_gyrus)



[Broca's area](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Broca's_area)



[Wernicke's area](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wernicke's_area)



[Primary auditory cortex](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Primary_auditory_cortex)

Many of the more complicated human behaviors are influenced by both innate factors and by environmental ones, which include everything from genes, gene

expression, and body chemistry, through diet and social pressures. A large area of research in [behavioral psychology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Behavioralism) collates evidence in an effort to discover [correlations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Correlation) between behavior and various possible antecedents such as genetics, gene regulation, access to food and vitamins, culture, gender, hormones, physical and social development, and physical and social environments.



A core research area within sociology is the way human behavior operates on *itself*, in other words, how the behavior of one group or individual influences the behavior of other groups or individuals. Starting in the late 20th century, the feminist movement has contributed extensive study of gender and theories about it, notably within sociology but not restricted to it.

Social theorists have sought to determine the specific nature of gender in relation to biological sex and sexuality, with the result being that culturally established gender and sex have become interchangeable identifications that signify the allocation of a specific 'biological' sex within a categorical gender. The second wave feminist view that gender is socially constructed and hegemonic in all societies, remains current in some literary theoretical circles, Kira Hall and Mary Bucholtz publishing new perspectives as recently as 2008.[[111]](#page28)



Contemporary socialisation theory proposes the notion that when a child is first born it has a biological sex but no social gender. As the child grows, "...society provides a string of prescriptions, templates, or models of behaviors appropriate to the one sex or the other,"[[112]](#page28) which socialises the child into belonging to a culturally specific gender. There is huge incentive for a child to concede to their socialisation with gender shaping the individual's

opportunities for education, work, family, sexuality, reproduction, authority,[[113]](#page28) and to make an impact on the production of culture and knowledge.[[114]](#page28) Adults who do not perform these ascribed roles are perceived from this perspective as deviant and improperly socialized.[[115]](#page28)

Some believe society is constructed in a way that splits gender into a dichotomy via social organisations that constantly invent and reproduce cultural images of gender. Joan Acker believes gendering occurs in at least five different interacting social processes:[[116]](#page28)

The construction of divisions along the lines of gender, such as those produced by labor, power, family, the state, even allowed behaviors and locations in physical space



The construction of symbols and images such as language, ideology, dress and the media, that explain, express and reinforce, or sometimes oppose, those divisions



Interactions between men and women, women and women and men and men that involve any form of dominance and submission. Conversational theorists, for example, have studied the way that interruptions, turn taking and the setting of topics re-create gender inequality in the flow of ordinary talk



The way that the preceding three processes help to produce gendered components of individual identity, i.e., the way they create and maintain an image of a gendered self



Gender is implicated in the fundamental, ongoing processes of creating and conceptualising social structures.



Looking at gender through a Foucauldian lens, gender is transfigured into a vehicle for the social division of power. Gender difference is merely a construct of society used to enforce the distinctions made between what is assumed to be female and male, and allow for the domination of masculinity over femininity through the attribution of specific gender-related characteristics.[[117]](#page28) "The idea that men and women are more different from one another than either is from anything else, must come from something other than nature... far from being an expression of natural differences, exclusive gender identity is the suppression of natural similarities."[[118]](#page28)

Gender conventions play a large role in attributing masculine and feminine characteristics to a fundamental biological sex.[[119]](#page28) Socio-cultural codes and conventions, the rules by which society functions, and which are both a creation of society as well as a constituting element of it, determine the allocation of these specific traits to the sexes. These traits provide the foundations for the creation of hegemonic gender difference. It follows then, that gender can be assumed as the acquisition and internalisation of social norms. Individuals are therefore socialized through their receipt of society's expectations of 'acceptable' gender attributes that are flaunted within institutions such as the family, the state and the media. Such a notion of 'gender' then becomes naturalized into a person's sense of self or identity, effectively imposing a gendered social category upon a sexed body.[[118]](#page28)

The conception that people are gendered rather than sexed also coincides with Judith Butler's theories of gender performativity. Butler argues that gender is not an expression of what one is, but rather something that one does.[[120]](#page28) It follows then, that if gender is acted out in a repetitive manner it is in fact re-creating and effectively embedding itself within the social consciousness. Contemporary sociological reference to male and female gender roles typically uses *masculinities* and *femininities* in the plural rather than singular, suggesting diversity both within cultures as well as across them.

The difference between the sociological and popular definitions of gender involve a different dichotomy and focus. For example, the sociological approach to "gender" (social roles: female versus male) focuses on the difference in (economic/power) position between a male CEO (disregarding the fact that he is [heterosexual](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heterosexual) or [homosexual)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homosexuality) to female workers in his employ (disregarding whether they are straight or gay). However the popular sexual self-conception approach (self-conception: gay versus straight) focuses on the different self-conceptions and social conceptions of those who are gay/straight, in comparison with those who are straight (disregarding what might be vastly differing economic and power positions between female and male groups in each category). There is then, in relation to definition of and approaches to "gender", a tension between historic feminist sociology and contemporary homosexual sociology.[[121]](#page29)



**Legal status**



A person's sex as male or female has legal significance—sex is indicated on government documents, and laws provide differently for men and women. Many pension systems have different retirement ages for men or women. Marriage is usually only available to opposite-sex couples; in some countries and jurisdictions there are [same-sex marriage](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Same-sex_marriage) laws.



The question then arises as to what legally determines whether someone is female or male. In most cases this can appear obvious, but the matter is complicated for [intersex](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intersex) or [transgender](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transgender) people. Different jurisdictions have adopted different answers to this



question. Almost all countries permit changes of legal gender status in cases of intersexualism, when the gender assignment made at birth is determined upon further investigation to be biologically inaccurate—technically, however, this is not a change of status [*per se*](https://en.wiktionary.org/wiki/per_se).Rather, it is recognition of a status deemed to exist but unknown from birth. Increasingly, jurisdictions also provide aprocedure for changes of legal gender for transgender people.



[Gender assignment,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_assignment) when there are indications that genital sex might not be decisive in a particular case, is normally not defined by a single definition, but by a combination of conditions, including chromosomes and gonads. Thus, for example, in many jurisdictions a person with XY chromosomes but female [gonads](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gonad) could be recognized as female at birth.



The ability to [change legal gender](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Legal_aspects_of_transsexualism) for transgender people in particular has given rise to the phenomena in some jurisdictions of the same person having different genders for the purposes of different areas of the law. For example, in Australia prior to the Re Kevin decisions, transsexual people could be recognized as having the genders they identified with under many areas of the law, including social security law, but not for the law of marriage. Thus, for a period, it was possible for the same person to have two different genders under Australian law.



It is also possible in federal systems for the same person to have one gender under state law and a different gender under federal law.

**Intersex people**

For [intersex](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intersex) people, who according to the UN [Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Office_of_the_High_Commissioner_for_Human_Rights) "do not fit typical binary



notions of [male](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Male) or [female](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Female) bodies",[[122]](#page29) access to any form of identification document with a gender marker may be an issue.[[123]](#page29)



For other intersex people, there may be issues in securing the same rights as other individuals assigned male or female; other intersex people may seek non-binary gender recognition.[[124]](#page29)

**Non-binary and third genders**

Some countries now legally recognize non-binary or third genders, including [Canada,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Canada) [Germany,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Germany) [Australia,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Australia) [India](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/India) and [Pakistan.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pakistan) In



the [United States,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States) [Oregon](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Oregon) was the first state to legally recognize non-binary gender in 2017,[[125]](#page29) and was followed by [California](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/California)



and the [District of Columbia.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/District_of_Columbia)



**Gender and society**



**Languages**

Natural languages often make gender distinctions. These may be of various kinds, more or less loosely associated by analogy with various actual or perceived differences between men and women. Some grammatical gender systems go beyond, or ignore, the masculine-feminine distinction. [[126]](#page29)

Many languages include terms that are used asymmetrically in reference to men and women. Concern that current language may be biased in favor of men has led some authors in recent times to argue for the use of a more [gender-neutral vocabulary](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender-neutral_language_in_English) in English and other languages.



Several languages attest the use of different vocabulary by men and women, to differing degrees. See, for instance, [Gender differences in spoken Japanese.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_differences_in_spoken_Japanese) The oldest documented language, [Sumerian,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sumerian_language) records a distinctive sub-language only used by female speakers. Conversely, many [Indigenous Australian languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Indigenous_Australian_languages) have [distinctive registers with a limited lexicon used by men in the presence of their mothers-in-law (see Avoidance](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Avoidance_speech) [speech). As well, quite a few](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Avoidance_speech) [sign languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sign_language) [have a gendered distinction due to boarding schools segregated](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Avoidance_speech) by gender, such as [Irish Sign Language.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Irish_Sign_Language)

Several languages such as [Persian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Persian_language) or [Hungarian](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hungarian_language) are gender-neutral. In Persian the same word is used in [reference to men and women. Verbs, adjectives and nouns are not gendered. (See Gender-neutrality in](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender-neutrality_in_genderless_languages) [genderless languages)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender-neutrality_in_genderless_languages)



[Grammatical gender](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_gender) is a property of some languages in which every [noun](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Noun) is assigned a gender, often with no direct relation to its meaning. For example, the word for "girl" is [*muchacha*](https://es.wikipedia.org/wiki/muchacha) (grammatically feminine) in [Spanish,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_language) [*Mädchen*](https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mädchen) (grammaticallyneuter) in [German,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/German_language) and [cailín](https://ga.wikipedia.org/wiki/cailín) (grammatically masculine) in [Irish.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Irish_language)

**

The term ["grammatical gender"](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Grammatical_gender) is often applied to more complex [noun class](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Noun_class) systems. This is especially true when a noun class system includes masculine and feminine as well as some other non-gender features like animate, edible, manufactured, and so forth. An example of the latter is found in the [Dyirbal language.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dyirbal_language) Other gender systems exist with no distinction between masculine and feminine; examples include a distinction between animate and inanimate things, which is common to, amongst others, [Ojibwe,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ojibwe_language) [Basque](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Basque_language) and [Hittite;](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hittite_language) and systems distinguishing between people (whether human or divine) and everything else, which are found in the [Dravidian languages](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dravidian_languages) and [Sumerian.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sumerian_language)



Several languages employ different ways to refer to people where there are three or more genders, such as [Navajo](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Navajo_language) or [Ojibwe.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ojibwe_language)



**Science**

Historically, science has been portrayed as a masculine pursuit in which women have faced significant barriers to participate.[[127]](#page29) Even after universities began admitting women in the 19th century, women were still largely relegated to certain scientific fields, such as [home science,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Home_science) [nursing,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nursing) and [child psychology.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Child_psychology)[[128]](#page29) Women were also typically given tedious, low-paying jobs and denied



opportunities for career advancement.[[128]](#page29) This was often justified by the stereotype that women were naturally more suited to jobs that required concentration, patience, and dexterity, rather than creativity, leadership, or intellect.[[128]](#page29) Although these stereotypes have been dispelled in modern times, women are still underrepresented in prestigious ["hard science"](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hard_and_soft_science) fields such as [physics,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Physics) and are less likely to hold high-ranking positions.[[129]](#page29)



**Religion**

This topic includes internal and external religious issues such as [gender of God and deities](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_of_God) creation myths about human gender, roles and rights (for instance, leadership roles especially [ordination of women,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ordination_of_women) [sex segregation,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sex_segregation) [gender equality,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_equality) marriage, abortion, [homosexuality)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homosexuality_and_religion)



According to Kati Niemelä of the Church Research Institute, women are universally more [religious](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Religious) than men. They believe that the difference in religiosity between genders is due to biological differences, for instance usually people seeking security in life [are more religious, and as men are considered to be greater risk takers than women, they are less religious. Although religious](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Religious_fanaticism) [fanaticism is more often seen in men than women.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Religious_fanaticism)[[130]](#page29)



In [Taoism,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Taoism) [yin and yang](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yin_and_yang) are considered feminine and masculine, respectively. The Taijitu and concept of the Zhou period reach into family and gender relations. Yin is female and yang is male. They fit together as two parts of a whole. The male principle was equated with the sun: active, bright, and shining; the female principle corresponds to the moon: passive, shaded, and reflective. Male toughness



|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| was balanced by female gentleness, male | action and initiative by female endurance and need for |  |  | | | | | | | |
| completion, and male leadership by female supportiveness. | [*yin* and *yang*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yin_and_yang) |  | | | | | | | | |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| In [Judaism,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Judaism) [God](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/God) is traditionally described in the masculine, but in the mystical tradition of the |  |  | | | | | | | | |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| [Kabbalah,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kabbalah) the [Shekhinah](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shekhinah) represents the | feminine aspect of God's essence. However, Judaism |  |  | | | | | | | |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

[traditionally holds](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jewish_principles_of_faith) that God is completely non-corporeal, and thus neither male nor female. Conceptions of the gender of God notwithstanding, traditional Judaism places a strong emphasis on individuals following Judaism's traditional gender roles, though many modern [denominations of Judaism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jewish_religious_movements) strive for greater egalitarianism. As well, traditional Jewish culture dictates that there are [six genders.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_and_Judaism)

In [Christianity,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Christianity) God is traditionally described in masculine terms and the Church has historically been described in feminine terms. On the other hand, Christian [theology](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Theology) in many churches distinguishes between the masculine images used of God (Father, King, God the Son) and the reality they signify, which transcends gender, embodies all the virtues of both men and women perfectly, which may be seen through the doctrine of [Imago Dei.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Imago_Dei) In the [New Testament,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/New_Testament) Jesus at several times mentions with the masculine pronoun i.e. John 15:26 among other verses. Hence, [the Father,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/God_the_Father) [the Son](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/God_the_Son) and [the Holy Spirit](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Holy_Spirit) (i.e. [Trinity)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trinity) are all mentioned with the masculine pronoun; though the exact meaning of the masculinity of the Christian triune God is contended.



In [Hinduism](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hinduism)



One of the several forms of the [Hindu](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hinduism) God [Shiva,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shiva) is Ardhanarishwar (literally half-female God). Here Shiva manifests himself so that the left half is Female and the right half is Male. The left represents Shakti (energy, power) in the form of Goddess [Parvati](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Parvati) (otherwise his consort) and the right half Shiva. Whereas Parvati is the cause of arousal of Kama (desires), Shiva is the killer. Shiva is pervaded by the power of Parvati and Parvati is pervaded by the power of Shiva.



While the stone images may seem to represent a half-male and half-female God, the true symbolic representation is of a being the whole of which is Shiva and the whole of which is Shakti at the same time. It is a 3-D representation of only shakti from one angle and only Shiva from the other. Shiva and Shakti are hence the same being representing a collective of Jnana (knowledge) and Kriya (activity).

Adi Shankaracharya, the founder of non-dualistic philosophy (Advaita–"not two") in Hindu thought says in his "Saundaryalahari"—*Shivah Shaktayaa yukto yadi bhavati shaktah prabhavitum na che devum devona khalu* *kushalah spanditam api* " i.e., It is only when Shiva is united with Shakti that He acquires the capability ofbecoming the Lord of the Universe. In the absence of Shakti, He is not even able to stir. In fact, the term "Shiva" originated from "Shva," which implies a dead body. It is only through his inherent shakti that Shiva realizes his true nature.

This mythology projects the inherent view in ancient Hinduism, that each human carries within himself both female and male components, which are forces rather than sexes, and it is the harmony between the creative and the annihilative, the strong and the soft, the proactive and the passive, that makes a true person. Such thought, leave alone entail gender equality, in fact obliterates any material distinction between the male and female altogether. This may explain why in ancient India we find evidence of homosexuality, bisexuality, androgyny, [multiple sex partners](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multiple_sex_partners) and open representation of sexual pleasures in artworks like the Khajuraho temples, being accepted within prevalent social frameworks.



[—](#page29) [[131]](#page29)

**Poverty**

Gender inequality is most common in women dealing with poverty. Many women must shoulder all the responsibility of the household because they must take care of the family. Oftentimes this may include tasks such as tilling land, grinding grain, carrying water and cooking.[[132]](#page29) Also, women are more likely to earn low incomes because of gender discrimination, as men are more likely to receive higher pay, have more opportunities, and have overall more political and social capital then women.[[133]](#page29) Approximately 75% of world's women are unable to obtain bank loans because they have unstable jobs.[[132]](#page29) It shows that there are many women in the world's population but only a few represent world's wealth. In many countries, the financial sector largely neglects women even though they play an important role in the economy, as Nena Stoiljkovic pointed out in *D+C Development* *and Cooperation*.[[134]](#page29)In1978 Diana M. Pearce coined the term [feminization of poverty](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Feminization_of_poverty) to describe the problem of women

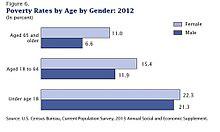
having higher rates of poverty.[[135]](#page29) Women are more vulnerable to chronic poverty because of gender inequalities in the distribution of income, property ownership, credit, and control over earned income.[[136]](#page29) Resource allocation is typically gender-biased within households, and continue on a higher level regarding state institutions.[[136]](#page29)

Gender and Development (GAD) is a holistic approach to give aid to countries where gender inequality has a great effect of not improving the social and economic development. It is a program focused on the gender development of women to empower them and decrease the level of inequality between men and women.[[137]](#page29)

The largest discrimination study of the transgender community, conducted in 2013, found that the transgender community is four times more likely to live in extreme poverty (income of less than $10,000 a year) than people who are [cisgender.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cisgender)[[138][139]](#page29)



A bar graph comparing poverty differences based on age and gender in 2012.



**General strain theory**

According to [general strain theory,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/General_strain_theory) studies suggest that gender differences between individuals can lead to externalized anger that may result in violent outbursts.[[140]](#page29) These violent actions related to gender inequality can be measured by comparing violent neighborhoods to non-violent neighborhoods.[[140]](#page29) By noticing the independent variables (neighborhood violence) and the dependent variable (individual violence), it's possible to analyze gender roles.[[141]](#page29) The strain in the general strain theory is the removal of a positive stimulus and or the introduction of a negative stimulus, which would create a negative effect (strain) within individual, which is either inner-directed (depression/guilt) or outer-directed (anger/frustration), which depends on whether the individual blames themselves or their environment.[[142]](#page30) Studies reveal that even though males and females are equally likely to react to a strain with anger, the origin of the anger and their means of coping with it can vary drastically.[[142]](#page30) Males are likely to put the blame on others for adversity and therefore externalize feelings of anger.[[140]](#page29) Females typically internalize their angers and tend to blame themselves instead.[[140]](#page29) Female internalized anger is accompanied by feelings of guilt, fear, anxiety and depression.[[141]](#page29) Women view anger as a sign that they've somehow lost control, and thus worry that this anger may lead them to harm others and/or damage relationships. On the other end of the spectrum, men are less concerned with damaging relationships and more focused on using anger as a means of affirming their masculinity.[[141]](#page29) According to the general strain theory, men would more likely engage in aggressive behavior directed towards others due to externalized anger whereas women would direct their anger towards themselves rather than others.[[142]](#page30)



**Economic development**

Gender, and particularly the role of women is widely recognized as vitally important to [international development](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_development) issues.[[143]](#page30) This often means a focus on gender-equality, ensuring [participation,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Participation_(decision_making)) but includes an understanding of the different roles and expectation of the genders within the community.[[144]](#page30)



[In modern times, the study of gender and development has become a broad field that involves politicians, economists, and human](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_rights_defender) [rights activists. Gender and Development, unlike previous theories concerning women in development, includes a broader view](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Human_rights_defender) of the effects of development on gender including economic, political, and social issues. The theory takes a holistic approach to development and its effects on women and recognizes the negative effects gender blind development policies have had on women. Prior to 1970, it was believed that development affected men and women in the same way and no gendered perspective existed for development studies. However, the 1970s saw a transformation in development theory that sought to incorporate women into existing development paradigms.



When [Ester Boserup](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ester_Boserup) published her book, *Woman’s Role in Economic Development*, there was a realization that development affected men and women differently and there began to be more of a focus on women and development. Boserup argued that women were marginalized in the modernization process and practices of growth, development, and development policy [threatened to actually make women worse off. Boserup's work translated into the beginning of a larger discourse termed Women](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women_in_Development) [in Development (WID) coined by the Women's Committee of the Washington DC Chapter of the Society for International](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Society_for_International_Development) [Development, a network of female development professionals. The primary goal of WID was to include women into existing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Society_for_International_Development) development initiatives, since it was argued that women were marginalized and excluded from the benefits of development. In so doing, the WID approach pointed out that the major problem to women's unequal representation and participation were male biased and patriarchal development policies. In short, the WID approach blamed patriarchy, which did not consider women's productive and reproductive work. In fact, women were tied to domestic work hence were almost invisible in development programs. The WID approach, however, began to gain criticism as ignoring how women's economic [marginalization](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Marginalization) was linked to the development model itself.



Some feminists argued that the key concept for women and development should be subordination in the context of new capitalist forms of insecure and hierarchical job structures, rather than marginalization as WID approaches emphasized. The rise of criticism against the WID approach led to the emergence of a new theory, that of Women and Development (WAD).[[145]](#page30)

However, just as WID had its critics, so did WAD. Critics of WAD argued that it failed to sufficiently address the differential power relations between women and men, and tended to overemphasize women's productive as opposed to reproductive roles. Also, rising criticism of the exclusion of men in WID and WAD led to a new theory termed [Gender and Development](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_and_Development) (GAD). Drawing from insights developed in psychology, sociology, and gender studies, GAD theorists shifted from understanding women's problems as based on their sex (i.e. their biological differences from men) to understanding them as based on gender – the social relations between women and men, their social construction, and how women have been systematically subordinated in this relationship.



At their most fundamental, GAD perspectives link the social relations of production with the social relations of reproduction – exploring why and how women and men are assigned to different roles and responsibilities in society, how these dynamics are reflected in social, economic, and political theories and institutions, and how these relationships affect development policy effectiveness. According to proponents of GAD, women are cast not as passive recipients of development aid, but rather as active agents of change whose empowerment should be a central goal of development policy. In contemporary times, most literature and institutions that are concerned with women's role in development incorporate a GAD perspective, with the United Nations taking the lead of mainstreaming the GAD approach through its system and development policies.[[146]](#page30)

Researchers at the [Overseas Development Institute](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Overseas_Development_Institute) have highlighted that policy dialogue on the [Millennium Development Goals](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Millennium_Development_Goals)



needs to recognize that the gender dynamics of power, poverty, [vulnerability](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_vulnerability) and care link all the goals.[[147]](#page30) The various United Nations international women's conferences in Beijing, Mexico City, Copenhagen, and Nairobi, as well as the development of the [Millennium Development Goals in 2000 have taken a GAD approach and holistic view of development. The United Nations](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Millennium_Declaration) [Millennium Declaration signed at the United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000 including eight goals that were to be reached](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Nations_Millennium_Declaration) by 2015, and although it would be a difficult task to reach them, all of them could be monitored. The eight goals are:



* Halve the proportion of people living in extreme poverty at the 1990 level by 2015.
* Achieve universal primary education
* Promote gender equality and empower women
* Reduce child mortality rates
* Improve maternal health
* Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases
* Ensure environmental sustainability
* Global partnership

The MDGs have three goals specifically focused on women: Goal 3, 4 and 5 but women's issues also cut across all of the goals.

These goals overall comprise all aspects of women's lives including economic, health, and political participation.