

**UNITED NATIONS
ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR EUROPE**

ECE/CES/BUR/2014/OCT/15
16 September 2014

CONFERENCE OF EUROPEAN STATISTICIANS

For decision

Meeting of the 2014/2015 Bureau
Geneva (Switzerland), 21-22 October 2014

Item 6 of the Provisional Agenda

UNITED NATIONS ECONOMIC COMMISSION FOR EUROPE
Conference of European Statisticians
Task Force on Indicators of Gender Equality

Indicators of Gender Equality

4 September 2014

Acknowledgement

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- National Statistics Institute, Spain – Education
- Australian Bureau of Statistics – Health
- Istat, Italy – Violence
- Central Bureau of Statistics, Israel and UNECE – Economy
- UNECE – Power and decision-making, Media, Childhood and adolescents
- Statistics Portugal – Human rights
- European Institute for Gender Equality – Environment
- Eurostat – Demographic background

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1 Introduction

1.1 Background and objective

1. The need to monitor progress towards internationally agreed gender-related policy goals has led to the proliferation of indicators. The 2010 United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) Work Session on Gender Statistics recognized that it is important to review the indicators developed for monitoring internationally agreed policy agendas with a strong gender dimension and to identify the key indicators that member countries of the Conference of European Statisticians (CES)¹ would be able to produce. Such a review would assess the indicators' suitability for describing major gender inequalities, for monitoring gender-relevant policies, their regular availability and comparability across countries.
2. In November 2010, the UNECE Task Force on Indicators of Gender Equality was set up to tackle these issues. The aim was to improve the monitoring of gender equality in the UNECE region by consolidating and systematizing the existing proliferation of gender relevant statistical indicators, including developing a framework for grouping indicators by domain and a hierarchy of indicators (headline and supporting indicators in each domain), and by proposing measurement approaches where internationally consistent measures are lacking. This report presents the results of this work.

1.2 Framework

3. In recent years, the demand for statistical information by the media, policymakers and the scientific world has grown considerably together with the rapid and substantial changes that have characterized the lifestyles of men and women in the society. For this reason, the national statistical offices are facing a growing demand for more timely and detailed statistics.
4. Statistics and indicators that reflect the realities of the lives of women and men are needed to describe their role in the society, economy and family, formulate and monitor policies and plans, monitor changes, and inform the public. Gender indicators have the function of pointing out gender-related changes in society over time, and therefore to measure whether or to what extent gender equality is being achieved. The compilation of gender equality indicators relies on international monitoring initiatives and takes into account the existing demand for statistical information in this field at national and international levels.
5. The Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics under the United Nations Statistical Commission has established a minimum set of gender indicators for international

¹ The Conference of European Statisticians is composed of national statistical organizations in the UNECE region (for UNECE member countries, see http://www.unece.org/oes/nutshell/member_states_representatives.html) and includes in addition Australia, Brazil, Chile, China, Colombia, Japan, Mexico, Mongolia, New Zealand and Republic of Korea. The major international organizations active in statistics in the UNECE region also participate in the work, such as the statistical office of the European Commission (Eurostat), the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the Interstate Statistical Committee of the Commonwealth of the Independent States (CIS-STAT), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank.

compilation worldwide, to provide a basis for monitoring gender issues on the global level (United Nations, 2012). This Global Minimum Set contains the minimum common denominator for statistics on gender equality and women's empowerment. It is expected to be the basis for regional and national exercises of indicator development. The indicator set presented here incorporates the great majority of the indicators of the global minimum while including many in addition. The few Global Minimum Set indicators that are not included either are not relevant for most CES member countries or can be substituted with a more precise indicator available for most of these countries. For ease of reference, a list of these indicators is provided in Annex B.

1.3 Selection criteria

6. The criteria for indicator selection were the following:

- The indicator clearly addresses a relevant policy issue related to gender equality and/or women's empowerment;
- The indicator is relevant to the CES member countries;
- The indicator is conceptually clear, easy to interpret, and has an agreed international definition;
- The indicator is sensitive to changes and changes in the value of the indicator have a clear and unambiguous meaning;
- The indicator is feasible, robust and reliable;
- The indicator is comparable over time and enables international comparison.

7. An essential feature of this set of indicators is the hierarchy of headline and supporting indicators. The headline indicators cover the most essential aspects. Their purpose is to provide simple and clear information to decision-makers and the public about progress towards internationally agreed gender-related policy objectives. The supporting indicators provide further information on more specific aspects of gender equality. They are valuable to achieve a deeper comprehension of the phenomenon.

8. Gender indicators, whether headline or supporting, are not merely statistics on men and women. They highlight the contributions of men and women to the society, their different needs and problems. A set of indicators that covers all relevant aspects is necessary, because in isolation, the interpretation of some indicators may be misleading. For example, the traditional focus on labour statistics has mainly been on employment and unemployment, but there is now a growing awareness that looking only at gender disparities in the work environment is insufficient. Gender inequality at the labour market can be underestimated if only employment and unemployment rates are included in the analysis. In fact, the employment rate can increase and unemployment rate can decrease at the cost of the growth of female inactivity, because these rates do not take into account the discouragement of women who give up looking for a job.

1.4 Domains

9. The Beijing Platform for Action (BPA) (United Nations, 1995) is taken as a starting point for identifying the domains of gender equality, because it provides an internationally agreed framework for establishing a relationship between the indicators and the policy concerns. Indicators are proposed in the following domains:

- Poverty (area A of BPA);
- Education and training (B);
- Health (C);
- Violence against women (D);
- Economy, including the labour market and work-and-family issues (F);
- Women in power and decision-making (G);
- Media (J);
- Environment (K);
- The girl child (L).

10. Domain E of BPA, “Women and armed conflict” is less relevant for the CES member countries and will not be considered in this framework. In domain H, “Institutional mechanism for the advancement of women”, no indicators would require statistical methods for monitoring. This domain was therefore considered to be beyond the scope of the present set of statistical indicators.

11. The BPA promotes the human rights of women and girls through the full implementation of all human rights under Domain I, “Human rights of women”, including civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights, including the right to development). This topic was considered, with the conclusion that the human rights aspects are covered under other domains and no additional indicators need to be proposed under this domain. This report retains an individual discussion of this domain in Annex A.8.

12. As general background information relevant to the present indicator set, a few indicators describing the demographic situation have been selected.

13. Although not explicitly addressed in BPA, the topic of power and decision-making in the household was deemed highly relevant for CES member countries. Different policy documents of the United Nations have called for designing programmes to address unequal decision-making powers within families and to support men’s and women’s joint control of household assets and joint household decision-making to guarantee adequate livelihoods for their families (United Nations, 2010) (United Nations, 2011). This topic is therefore included.

1.5 Outline

14. This report first presents a summary of proposed indicators (chapter 2), followed by an overview of issues requiring further work (chapter 3). The considerations for the selection of indicators are presented by topic in Annex A.

15. Annex A is structured according to the domains described in section 1.4. Within each section, proposals for indicators are developed using a common approach, which is reflected in the structure of each of these sections. To begin with, a range of background information is considered. This includes the international policy background, along with identification of gender issues and/or of existing indicator frameworks relevant to that domain, depending on the nature of the area in question and the extent of previous methodological progress made in defining indicators in that area. Available indicators from a range of existing sources are considered, including the UNECE Gender Statistics Database², GenderInfo 2010³, the

² <http://w3.unece.org/pxweb>

³ <http://www.devinfo.info/genderinfo>

Millennium Development Goals⁴ database, GenderStats⁵ (World Bank), and the OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base⁶, as well as OECD 'key data' indicators from their Gender Equality Initiative⁷. If the data for an indicator could not be found in any of these international gender-oriented databases, a primary source (survey) is considered.

16. Following the presentation of the relevant background information, detailed consideration is given to how best measure each identified topic with available indicators. The rationale for the choice of indicators for each topic is explained in terms of gender issues and the limitations of the available data, with reference to the criteria described in section 1.3, and taking into account conventions adopted by existing indicator frameworks. In the presentation of chosen indicators for each domain, the sources indicated are international databases, or where indicated, a primary source such as the labour force surveys.

17. Care is taken to make the proposed indicators consistent with existing indicator frameworks. In particular, this includes the Global Minimum Set of gender indicators developed by the Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS) (United Nations, 2012), the indicators for monitoring Millennium Development Goals, EU indicators for the BPA, and OECD indicator frameworks. Additionally, the Task Force included members from the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), which allowed the recommendations of this report to be informed by EIGE's work on the EU Gender Equality Index (EIGE, 2013).

⁴ <http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals>

⁵ <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender>

⁶ <http://www.oecd.org/dev/povertyreductionandsocialdevelopment/genderinstitutionsanddevelopmentdatabase.htm>

⁷ <http://www.oecd.org/gender/data/>

2 Summary of Proposed Indicators

18. An overview of the selected headline and supporting indicators is displayed below in tabular format. Headline indicators are numbered using the convention that the first number represents the domain to which the indicator relates, and the second number is the number of the headline indicator, so that indicator 1.3 is the third headline indicator in the first domain (Poverty).

19. Supporting indicators are additionally identified with a third number, such that 1.3.1 is the supporting indicator for the headline indicator 1.3.⁸ Given the remit of the Task Force to harmonise its recommended indicators with existing gender indicator frameworks and policy commitments, columns are displayed detailing the relevant indicators from the Global Minimum Set, as well as BPA Strategic Objectives.

20. Since the purpose of the indicators is to measure gender equality, each indicator is to be calculated separately for men and women. The specification “by sex” is not repeated in the name of the indicator.

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
<i>Poverty</i>			
1.1	A country’s most commonly used poverty indicator	—	A1, A2
1.1.1	A country’s most commonly used poverty indicator, by age	—	A1, A2
1.1.2	A country’s most commonly used poverty indicator, by household type	—	A1, A2
Relative poverty			
1.2	At-risk-of-poverty-rate	—	A1, A2
1.2.1	At-risk-of-poverty-rate, by age	—	A1, A2
1.2.2	At-risk-of-poverty-rate, by household type	—	A1, A2
Absolute poverty			
1.3	Rate below basic-needs level	—	A1, A2
1.3.1	Rate below basic-needs level, by age	—	A1, A2
1.3.2	Rate below basic-needs level, by household type	—	A1, A2
1.4.1	Proportion of people living below the ‘one-dollar-a-day’ level	—	A1, A2
Material deprivation			
1.5.1	Proportion of people living in households who lack at least four out of nine EU-items on material deprivation (severe material deprivation)	—	A1, A2

⁸ Where a supporting indicator exists without reference to a headline indicator, it is numbered corresponding to a “dummy” headline indicator. For example, indicator 1.4.1 is a standalone supporting indicator. Following this numbering system, headline indicators always have duplex numbering, and supporting indicators have triplex numbering.

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Education			
Enrolment			
2.1	Tertiary gross enrolment rate	23, 24	B1
2.2	Upper secondary gross enrolment rate	22, 24	B1
2.3.1	Lower secondary net enrolment rate	22, 24	B1
2.3.2	Primary net enrolment rate	21	B1, L4
Lifelong learning			
2.4.1	Percentage of population in lifelong learning	—	B3, B6
Graduation			
2.5	Graduation rate in tertiary education	—	B1
2.6	Share of female graduates in science, engineering, manufacturing and construction	25	B3, B4, L4
2.7	Graduation rate in upper secondary education	—	B1
2.7.1	Graduation rate in lower secondary education (ISCED 2)	29	B1
Level of education and literacy attained			
2.8	Distribution of 25-64 years old, by highest level of education attained	31	B1
2.8.1	Distribution of 30-34 years old, by highest level of education attained	—	B1
2.8.2	Literacy rate of persons aged 15-24 years	—	B2
Others			
2.9	Young people (aged 15-24) not in employment and not in education and training	—	B2
2.10	Proportion of females among third level teachers or professors	26	B4, L4
Health			
Health Status			
3.1	Healthy life years at birth	—	C1, C2
3.1.1	Causes of mortality (death rate): • cerebrovascular disease • ischaemic heart disease • circulatory system disease • suicides • motor vehicle accidents • external causes of injury • poisoning and accidents by age group	42	C1, C2
3.1.2	Infant mortality rate	—	C1, C2
3.1.3	Maternal mortality rate	34	C1, C2
3.1.4	Prevalence of HIV/AIDS, 15-24 year olds	39	C1, C2
Determinants of health			
3.2	Smoking prevalence	37	C2
3.2.1	Smoking prevalence , by age group	37	C2
3.3	Proportion of adults overweight or obese	38	C2

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
3.3.1	Proportion of adults overweight or obese, by age group	38	C2
Role of the health system			
3.4.1	Percentage of 15-24 year olds with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS	—	C2, C3
3.4.2	Legally-induced abortions per 1000 live births	—	C3
Violence			
Physical violence			
4.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months	—	D1, D2
4.1.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months, by frequency (every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month), severity and relationship to perpetrator	48, 49	D1, D2
4.2.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence during lifetime, by frequency (once, few times, many times), severity and relationship to perpetrator	—	D1, D2
Sexual violence			
4.3	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual violence in the last 12 months	—	D1, D2
4.3.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual violence in the last 12 months, by frequency (every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month), severity and relationship to perpetrator	48, 49	
4.4.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual violence during lifetime, by frequency (once, few times, many times), severity and relationship to perpetrator	—	D1, D2
Psychological and economic violence			
4.5.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to psychological violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner	—	D1, D2
4.6.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to economic violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner	—	D1, D2
Violence by the partner			
4.7	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months	—	D1, D2
4.7.1	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months, by frequency (every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month)	—	D1, D2
4.8.1	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner during lifetime, by frequency (once, few times, many times)	—	D1, D2
4.9	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, killed by a current or a former partner in the last 12 months	—	D1, D2

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Under reporting			
4.10	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence who did not report the crime to the authorities/to the police	—	D2
Violence in childhood			
4.11.1	Rate of women/men subjected to sexual violence in childhood (occurring before sixteen years old)	—	D1, D2
<i>Economy</i>			
Labour force participation			
5.1	Inactivity rate	3	F1, F2
5.1.1	Inactivity rate, by age	3	F1, F2
5.1.2	Inactivity rate, by reason for inactivity	3	F1, F2
5.1.3	Inactivity rate, by family context	3	F1, F2
Employment			
5.2	Employment rate	—	F1, F2
5.2.1	Employment rate of 25-64 year-olds, by sector of the economy	—	F1, F2
5.2.2	Employment rate of 25-64 year-olds, by family context	—	F1, F2
5.3	Status in employment (employees, own-account workers, employers and family workers)	4, 5, 6	F1, F2, F5
5.3.1	Status in employment (employees, own-account workers, employers and family workers), by family context	4, 5, 6	F1, F2, F5
5.4	Minimum number of occupations that account for half of the total employment	—	F1, F2, F5
5.5	Hourly gender pay gap	13	F1, F2
5.5.1	Hourly gender pay gap, by education level	13	F1, F2
5.6	Proportion of employed working part-time	14	F1, F2
5.6.1	Proportion of employed working part-time, by age, family context	14	F1, F2
5.7	Proportion of employed in time-related underemployment	—	F1, F2
5.7.1	Proportion of employed in time-related underemployment, by family context and age of youngest child	—	F1, F2
5.8	Informal employment of workers in the non-agricultural sector	9	F1, F2, F5
5.8.1	Informal employment of workers in the non-agricultural sector, by family context	9	F1, F2, F5
5.9	Unemployment rate	10	F1, F2
5.9.1	Unemployment rate, by age	10	F1, F2
5.9.2	Long-term unemployment		F1, F2
Unpaid work and work-life balance			
5.10	Proportion of workers working over 50 hours per week (paid work)	—	F1, F2, (F5), F6

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
5.10.1	Proportion of workers working over 50 hours per week (paid work), by family context	—	F1, F2, (F5), F6
5.11	Average hours spent in total work (employment and unpaid forms of work)	2	F1, F2, F6
5.11.1	Average hours spent in total work (employment and unpaid forms of work), by family context	2	F1, F2, F6
5.12	Average hours spent in own-use production work ⁹	1	F1, F2, F6
5.12.1	Average hours spent in own-use production work, by family context	1	F1, F2, F6
5.13	Employment rate of 25-49 year-olds	15	F1, F2, F6
5.13.1	Employment rate of 25-49 year-olds, by age of youngest child	15	F1, F2, F6
5.14	Proportion of children aged 3 to mandatory school age in formal care	16	F1, F2, F6
5.14.1	Proportion of children under age three in formal care	16	F1, F2, F6

Power and decision-making in society

Representation of men and women in different social decision-making roles

6.1	Female legislators, senior officials and managers (% of total)	—	G1, G2
6.1.1	Women's share of central bank board members	—	G1, G2
6.1.2	Women's share of constitutional court members	—	G1, G2
6.1.3	Women's share of core ministers		G1, G2
6.1.4	Women's share of heads of universities	—	G1, G2
6.1.5	Women's share of judges	47	G1, G2
6.1.6	Women's share of members of national parliament	44	G1, G2
6.1.7	Women's share of managerial positions	45	G1, G2
6.1.8	Women's share of police officers	46	G1, G2
6.1.9	Women's share of senior level civil servants	—	G1, G2

Power and decision-making in the household

Organisation of household finances, work, and participation in other household decision-making

6.2	Percentage of women in a co-residential partnership who state that their partner or spouse manages all the money and gives them their share	—	—
6.3	Percentage of women in a co-residential partnership who state that their partner or spouse always or usually makes decisions in the household on the following issues: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • large household purchases • routine household purchases • the time she spends in paid work • way of child raising (for couples with children only) • social activities 	—	—
6.4.1	Percentage of women's incomes on partners ¹⁰ incomes	—	—
6.5.1	Percentage of women's time spent in unpaid work on partners time spent in unpaid work ¹¹	—	—

⁹ Comprises production of goods and services for own final use (ICLS, 2013).

¹⁰ Dual earners

¹¹ Housework and child/family members care, unpaid family work

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Media			
Media Use			
7.1	Proportion of individuals using mobile/cellular telephones	18	J1
7.2	Proportion of individuals using the Internet (both weekly, and over last 3 months)	17	J1
Stereotypes and portrayal of men and women			
7.3.1	<p>Attitudes of women and men, with regard to the following opinions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When parents are in need, daughters should take more caring responsibility than sons • If a woman earns more than her partner, it is not good for the relationship • On the whole, men make better political leaders than women • Women should be able decide how to spend money without asking partner • When jobs are scarce, men have more right to a job than women 	—	J2
Environment			
Representation of women amongst environmental scientists and decision-making bodies			
8.1	Proportion of women among government representatives to climate change decision-making bodies at the international level	—	K1
8.2.1 (also 2.6)	Share of female graduates in science, engineering, manufacturing and construction	—	K1
Children and adolescents			
Early marriage and sexual activity			
9.1	Number of 20-24 year old women who were married before age 18	51	L2, L3, L9
9.2	Proportion of young people aged 15-19 years who had sex before age 15	—	L2, L3, L5
9.3	Adolescent fertility rate (15-19 years olds)	52	L2, L3, L5
Self-esteem or self-image			
9.4.1	Percentage of underweight adolescents (15-19 year-olds)	—	L2, L3, L5
Violence in childhood			
9.5.1 (also 4.12.1)	Rate of women/men subjected to sexual violence in childhood (occurring before sixteen years old)	—	L3, L7, L9, (also D1, D2)
9.6.1	Female genital mutilation	50	L1, L2, L3, L5, L7, L9
9.7.1	Child discipline	—	L2, L3, L7, L9
Demography			
10.1.1	Sex ratio for total population	—	Multiple domains
10.1.2	Sex ratio for population aged 65 and over	—	Multiple domains
10.1.3	Life expectancy at birth	—	Multiple domains
10.1.4	Life expectancy at age 65	41	Domain C
10.1.5	Infant mortality rate	—	Domain C

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
10.1.6	Mean age at first marriage	—	Multiple domains
10.1.7	Mean age of women at birth of first child	—	Multiple domains
10.1.8	Total fertility rate	—	Multiple domains

3 Issues Requiring Further Work

3.1 Proposals for enhancing the UNECE Gender Statistics Database

21. It would be desirable to update the contents of the UNECE Gender Statistics Database so that it includes all the headline indicators proposed in this report. This may involve some degree of modification or rationalisation of existing data tables, where the proposed indicators differ from those already available.
22. The feasibility of collecting data on those headline indicators that are currently not represented in the UNECE Statistical Database needs to be investigated. This has to consider:
- a) Availability of such data in other international databases and periodicity of their updating
 - b) Resources available to the UNECE Statistical Division for maintaining and collecting the additional data
 - c) Response burden to national statistical organizations
 - d) Feasibility to collect data retroactively to achieve the same kind of time series as with the existing data in the UNECE Database

3.2 Methodological and data issues

23. The following areas have been identified as meriting further methodological work, which are grouped according to the relevant section heading.

3.2.1 Poverty

24. The difficulty in the measurement of poverty necessitates further work on the following issues:
- Inclusion of social transfers in kind in income estimates (e.g., the Canberra concept of income);
 - Creation of meaningful measures of poverty that take into account the financial (in)dependence of people, other than measures at household level, and considering how to get more detailed breakdowns (by sex, by sex and age, by sex and household type) of existing poverty indicators. The lack of other than household-level measures of poverty is a particular impediment in measuring the gender differential in poverty;
 - Combining of income, and consumption and wealth measures, following the completion of the work of the OECD Expert Group on Income, Consumption and Wealth.
 - Considering asset ownership, pensions, and possibly debts.
25. The OECD Framework for Statistics on the Distribution of Household Income (OECD, 2013) could be a basis for such work.

3.2.2 Health

26. With regard to the role of a country's health system in determining health outcomes, many of the indicators considered lacked relevance or widespread availability in CES member countries (see section A.3.3.3 in the Appendix). Access to health care and unmet health care needs are relevant, but require further methodological work before they could be included in this indicator set. Other indicators related to issues that may affect developed health systems such as polypharmacy could further be considered in this area.

27. Further work should also look at developing comparable indicators across CES member countries that address more sophisticated health policy areas, such as monitoring disabilities, psychological health/mental illnesses and long-term health conditions that can impact on the human function. Health determinants typical for developed countries, such as lack of physical activity, could also be considered in an indicator set for the CES member countries.

3.2.3 Violence

28. In addition to the violence indicators defined in section A.4, further work is suggested in some areas.

29. Stalking is a relevant phenomenon within the framework of violence against women. It is a type of violence itself and it is a strong predictor for further and severe violence.

30. Whilst countries have different national legal definitions of stalking, a statistical definition is necessary to accurately represent this behaviour, and to maximise the comparability of measurements of stalking between countries. Careful consideration would need to be given to potential cultural differences in responses between different countries, because of the somewhat subjective nature of such a statistical definition of stalking.

31. Harassment and workplace violence are forms of violence that are not covered by our proposed indicators. It is worth noting that the recent study by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2014)¹², has developed indicators on stalking and on sexual harassment. We propose that further work should aim to clearly define these forms of violence, and the potential overlap of their definitions with the indicator on psychological violence proposed in this report.

32. In general, further methodological examination of the data from the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights would be beneficial to assess the cross-country comparability of the underlying data. In addition to being a potential source of data on stalking and harassment, it could provide data for some of our proposed indicators (on physical, sexual and childhood violence). However, the counter-intuitive finding of this study, that countries with higher gender equality¹³ also tend to have higher prevalence of violence, needs to be examined before a recommendation can be made to utilise this data as a source for the indicators. The report itself discusses the possibility that it may be more or less culturally-acceptable to discuss experiences of violence in different countries. It is

¹² The underlying data is available at <http://fra.europa.eu/DVS/DVT/vaw.php>

¹³ Based on the EU Gender Equality Index (EIGE, 2013)

understood that the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) plans to examine the survey microdata to assess its quality, and this might inform future work in this area.

3.2.4 Economy

33. Further work is proposed in the area of entrepreneurship. Given the difficulties in translating the concept of entrepreneurship into gender-sensitive statistical measures using existing data collections, this indicator framework has not been able to propose indicators in this important area.

34. Such indicators would require a change in the focus of the data from the characteristics of the enterprises to the characteristics of the people managing/owning the enterprises, including sex. Elements of the entrepreneurial role may be split across shareholders, directors and other senior staff, making it difficult to determine the impact of gender on entrepreneurship. However, such an indicator may not be a suitable proxy for entrepreneurship because registered female owners of businesses may not be the real owners of such businesses that they run.

35. Various international statistical work is being done on entrepreneurship statistics, including the UNSD-UN Women project Evidence and Data for Gender Equality (EDGE), the OECD-Eurostat Entrepreneurship Indicators Programme (EIP), and the UNECE task force on international guidelines on statistical business registers. Projects such as these may allow future recommendations to be made regarding indicators for gender equality in entrepreneurship.

36. Some of the further work recommended on poverty (including asset ownership, pensions, and debts) may have relevance to the Economy domain, particularly in relation to entrepreneurship.

3.2.5 Power and decision-making in the household

37. Further work on establishing a robust statistical indicator of gender equality related to decisions to have children would be of merit, given the importance of this issue to the CES member countries, both in terms of those constraints external to the family (e.g. income, childcare), and in terms of decision-making between partners. Such work would be especially useful if it led to the creation of suitable indicators on gender equality in this respect.

38. Additionally, given that the proposed indicators in this domain are from the Generations and Gender Surveys (GGS) that have limited coverage of Eastern Europe, the Caucasus and Central Asia, it would be advantageous to investigate whether proxy indicators for these indicators could be obtained from Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) or the European Values Study¹⁴ (albeit that the long time interval between surveys would preclude this from being the main source of data for the indicators).

¹⁴ <http://www.europeanvaluesstudy.eu/>

3.2.6 Human rights

39. Whilst Human rights are an important topic for gender equality, further work would be needed before a set of indicators could be proposed in this area to represent the situation of women vis-à-vis men. At this stage, it is unclear whether the topic of gender equality in human rights could be sufficiently characterised using a compact set of indicators, or whether the breadth of human rights would require a separate indicator framework similar work done by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR, 2012). Further discussion of the methodological difficulties and possible avenues for further work is presented in section A.8.

3.2.7 Institutional mechanisms for the advancement of gender equality

40. The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) is pursuing the development of indicators on institutional mechanisms for the advancement of gender equality. Once completed, it would be useful to review the report to identify whether the indicators proposed could also be adopted beyond EU countries.

3.2.8 Media

41. Section A.9.3.3 discussed some methodological work on indicators for the Beijing media domain, being undertaken by the European Institute for Gender Equality at the time of writing. This includes women's representation in media organisations and related bodies, such as non-executive boards and regulatory bodies. Once this work is completed, it would be useful to consider whether the definitions proposed in this regard could be employed beyond EU countries, taking into consideration the possibility that media-related decision-making may be structured differently in non-EU countries.

42. With regard to the topic of gender attitudes and stereotypes, discussed in section A.9.3.1, more work and empirical testing is required to see how a robust index of gender attitudes could be constructed based on the items currently available from the Generations and Gender Surveys (GGS). Alternatively, one or two of the attitudes could be selected to represent the dimension of gender stereotypes.

3.2.9 Children and adolescents

43. The BPA objective L6 "Eliminate the economic exploitation of child labour and protect young girls at work" is not addressed due to the lack of available data on both child labour and child domestic work. Some data on child labour exists, but it is not disseminated at the country level and does not take into account unremunerated domestic work. Given the international interest in this topic and its high policy relevance, we see this as an area where further methodological work and data collection would be useful.

Annex A: Indicators by Topic

A.1 Poverty

A.1.1 Introduction

44. This section of the report deals with measurement of poverty in a gender context, whilst section A.5 deals with gender and the economy.

A.1.1.1 Policy background

A.1.1.1.1 Beijing Platform for Action

45. The text of the poverty section of the BPA is wide-ranging, mentioning numerous topics, of which a summary of the measurable areas are listed below:

- Lack of income;
- Hunger and malnutrition;
- Ill health, morbidity, mortality;
- Lack of access to services, like education;
- Homelessness, inadequate housing;
- Unsafe environments;
- Social exclusion, discrimination.

46. Whilst this list illustrates the interrelationship between poverty and other domains of concern to the BPA (health, education, environment and violence), the fact that these topics are already addressed within other BPA domains, leads us to narrow our consideration towards monetary poverty and its impact on living conditions.

47. The BPA defines the following Strategic Objectives for the poverty domain:

- A1. Review, adopt and maintain macroeconomic policies and development strategies that address the needs and efforts of women in poverty;
- A2. Revise laws and administrative practices to ensure women's equal rights and access to economic resources;
- A3. Provide women with access to savings and credit mechanisms and institutions;
- A4. Develop gender-based methodologies and conduct research to address the feminization of poverty.

48. Of these, the issue of access to savings and credit mechanisms and institutions is treated as a contributing factor, rather than a measure of poverty itself, and is dealt with in section A.1.3.2.2 concerning retirement and wealth.

A.1.1.1.2 EU initiatives

49. Since the March 2000 Lisbon Summit of the EU Heads of State and Government, EU member states and the European Commission have cooperated in the field of social policy. Their main goal was to make a decisive impact on the eradication of poverty by 2010. For monitoring this, EU countries and the European Commission have adopted commonly agreed indicators. This set of indicators is continuously updated and completed. The first set of commonly agreed indicators was adopted in 2001 and the most recent list in 2009 (Atkinson, Marlier, Montaigne, & Reinstadler, 2010). Poverty is, amongst others, an important domain of attention. In June 2010, poverty targets for 2020 were set by the European Council.

50. In addition, in the recent past several working groups and commissions have been elaborating on the subject of 'women and poverty' (The Council of European Union, 2007). A major starting point for their work was the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (BPA), adopted at United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women (United Nations, 1995). Their common goal was to develop a comprehensive set of indicators that adequately describe the topic of women and poverty. Most working groups and commissions considered the topic as a broad one. They did not restrict themselves to monetary and material poverty, but also considered poverty of women in the fields of (access to) education, labour market, health, security and social participation/inclusion.

51. The target (Europe 2020 goal¹⁵) of the June 2010 European Council consists of lowering by 20 million the number of people who are at risk of poverty and/or severely¹⁶ deprived and/or living in households with low work intensity (European Council, 2010). In 2010 it concerned in total over 115 million people. Around six per cent of them lived in households who were at risk of poverty, had low work intensity and were severely materially deprived.

A.1.1.2 Existing frameworks

52. In this section, we summarize some well-known poverty indicators in existing frameworks, specifically, the poverty indicators for monitoring the Millennium Development Goal of poverty reduction and the EU poverty indicators based on the BPA. In contrast with other domains, the Global Minimum Set does not touch the topic of poverty. The indicators mentioned in this subsection will be further elaborated in relation to gender in section A.1.3, together with some other well-known poverty indicators.

A.1.1.2.1 Millennium Development Goals

53. The MDG indicators in the field of poverty are not related to gender but distinguishing them by sex would make sense anyway:

- Population below \$1 (PPP) per day;
- Poverty gap ratio;
- Proportion of employed people living below \$1 (PPP) per day.

A.1.1.2.2 EU Indicators for the Beijing Platform for Action

54. The EU Indicators on poverty for the BPA relevant to gender are in short:

- At-risk-of-poverty-rate (men, women, gap);
- At-risk-of-poverty-rate among older people – 65 years and over (men, women, gap);
- At-risk-of-poverty-rate among single parents with dependent children;
- Pensions.

55. The BPA indicated that pensions as a subject of poverty has to be further developed. Eurostat does provide some indicators on the topic, e.g. 'Gender differences in the relative median income ratio (65+)' and 'Gender differences in the aggregate replacement ratio'. Such indicators are grouped under the topic "Monetary poverty for elderly people".

¹⁵ http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/index_en.htm

¹⁶ Lack at least four out of the nine EU-indicators on material poverty (see 3.2.9A.1.3.1.3).

A.1.1.2.3 Madrid International Platform of Action on Aging

56. This framework¹⁷ calls for the measurement of:

- Income poverty, by sex, age and household type;
- Material deprivation, by sex, age and household type.

A.1.1.2.4 Other Frameworks

57. One of the recommendations of the Stiglitz-Sen-Fitoussi Commission Report on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress (Stiglitz, Sen, & and Fitoussi, 2009) has also been to define well-being as multidimensional. The Commission identified a number of key dimensions that should be taken into account, at least in principle, simultaneously. Amongst others, these include material living standards (income, consumption and wealth) and economic insecurity.

A.1.2 Available sources of indicators

A.1.2.1 Indicator availability from dedicated gender databases

58. In order to consider harmonisation with existing gender indicator sets, we must begin by considering whether suitable indicators and measures of poverty are already available relating to gender differences. We begin by considering international gender databases, such as the following:

- Gender Info 2010 (an initiative of the United Nations Statistics Division, produced in collaboration with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA));
- GenderStats (a World Bank database);
- UNECE Gender Database;
- OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base;
- Eurostat.

59. However, these international gender databases do not contain poverty measures that can be directly utilised without first considering more broadly measurement of poverty from a gender perspective, which is undertaken in the following section.

A.1.3 Consideration of poverty indicators by topic

60. Because of the limited availability of sex-disaggregated poverty indicators from existing gender databases, we must now begin a more general consideration of the most frequently used indicators to describe poverty. This discussion does not address means of alleviation of poverty, since this is an input rather than an outcome with which to compare the extent of the phenomenon between different countries. Some of those vulnerable groups, mentioned in the BPA, are considered here either as potential supporting breakdowns of proposed indicators, or as proxy indicators for poverty.

¹⁷ The indicators proposed to monitor the specific measures through which these objectives should be met are listed in (ECSWPR)

A.1.3.1 Monetary and material poverty

61. The discussion focuses on monetary and material poverty. Whilst deprivation is not explicitly referred to in the BPA text, it is nevertheless a sufficiently important concept in the field of poverty measurement to be considered alongside monetary poverty. Following the lead of the EU Working Party on Social Questions (The Council of European Union, 2007), and (Atkinson, Marlier, Montaigne, & Reinstadler, 2010), we consider the following measures of monetary and material poverty.

A.1.3.1.1 Relative poverty

At-risk-of-poverty rate by sex and age or by sex and type of household, including at-risk-of-poverty rate of single parents with dependent children (a.)

62. The at-risk-of-poverty rate is one of the Laeken indicators and it is defined as the proportion of the population below the monetary poverty line, defined as 60 per cent of the median equivalised disposable (net of taxes) household income (OECD reports often rely on 50 per cent of the median disposable household income (OECD, 2008)). 'Income' refers here to the total household disposable income. In order to reflect differences in household size and composition, total household disposable income is divided by an equivalence scale (OECD modified scale), which gives a weight of 1 to the first adult, 0.5 to other household members aged 14 and over and 0.3 to each child under 14.¹⁸

63. The at-risk-of-poverty rate is an indicator on the personal level, but it takes into account the sharing of income within a household by using the household income: one's wealth naturally depends on the income (wealth) of other household members. The equivalised household income can be viewed as an indicator of the economic resources available to each individual in the household. It can therefore be used for comparing the income situation of individuals (person level).

64. This poverty indicator (a.) is thus a relative measurement: the threshold strongly depends on the wealth of a country. It provides information on household income scarcity and integrates important elements about the phenomenon of poverty as related to personal attributes, such as sex (which emphasises the gender dimension) and age (which reflects the lifecycle perspective). Distinguished by household type it emphasises household attributes that have a particular impact on poverty among women, such as single parenthood.

65. An important factor in the at-risk-of-poverty rate is the definition of income. For example, social transfers in kind are often excluded from income definitions due to the absence of appropriate data. However, an individual with access to social provisions such as education and health care is likely to be better off than an individual with the same monetary resources but without access to such social provisions. The relative position of certain subpopulations may also be significantly affected by the income definition used. In Denmark, for example, the inclusion of imputed rent in the income definition lowers the (relative) at-risk-of-poverty headcount of the elderly from around ten to around four per cent (OECD, 2008).

66. The at-risk-of-poverty rate has some other limitations. By setting the low income threshold as a fraction of the median value, by definition, it is not possible to have a rate higher than 50 per cent. In practice, between 1998 and 2010 the 60 per cent of median based at-risk-of-poverty rates never exceeded 26 per cent in European countries.

¹⁸ This is one of the equivalence scales and the choice of the equivalence scale depends on many factors including the purpose of the analysis.

67. Furthermore, if the shape of the income distribution does not change, the same proportion of people will remain in relative poverty regardless of any changes in their circumstances. For example, if all incomes in society increased by ten per cent in real terms, the proportion of people identified below the relative poverty line will not change. On the other hand, if the shape of the distribution does change, the proportion of people identified by the measure can change dramatically. For example, in the Australian context, the thresholds identified at 40 and 50 per cent of median incomes are particularly sensitive to change depending on the location of single and couple pension payment points in the income distribution.

68. A useful addition to mention here is the indicator that measures persistent poverty. This indicator shows the percentage of the population whose equivalised disposable income was below the 'at-risk-of-poverty threshold' for the current year and at least two out of the preceding three years. This will mean however collecting income data for at least three years, which can only be possible in longitudinal surveys and not in cross-sectional surveys. The poverty risk gap¹⁹, which indicates how far people fall below the poverty line, is also used as an indicator of material poverty. Lastly, we mention the in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate (the share of persons belonging to a household in which most of the income was earned by work and whose equivalised disposable income is below the risk-of-poverty threshold).

A.1.3.1.2 Absolute poverty

69. Because of the measurement issues associated with the relative measures of poverty described above, many analysts measure poverty based on a poverty line fixed in real terms at a specified date. In this case the poverty level is not a relative but an absolute standard (OECD, 2008). The number of years for which the fixed line in the base year can reasonably be carried forward depends on the growth of real income and on the changes that have taken place in the distribution (Atkinson, Cantillon, Marlier, & Nolan, 2002).

Rate of men and women below basic-needs level (b.)

70. A frequently used poverty indicator, based on a fixed level, is the so-called basic-needs indicator. The basic-needs approach attempts to define the absolute minimum resources necessary for long-term physical well-being, usually in terms of consumption goods. The poverty line is then defined as the amount of income required to satisfy those needs. The basic-needs approach was introduced by the ILO in 1976 at its World Employment Conference.

71. A traditional list of immediate basic needs is food (including water), shelter and clothing. Many modern lists emphasize the minimum level of consumption of basic needs of not just food, water, and shelter, but also sanitation, education, and healthcare. Different agencies use different lists. The basic-needs level is thus generally based on the cost of a nutritional basket considered minimal for the health of a typical family, to which a provision is added for non-food needs. Considering that large parts of the populations of developing countries survive with the bare minimum or less, reliance on an absolute rather than a relative poverty line often proves to be more relevant. Especially non-EU countries often rely on such an indicator and it could therefore be considered as a counterpart for the at-risk-of-poverty-rate that is more common in EU-countries. The World Bank provides data on the basic-needs indicator for many countries.

¹⁹The median percentage by which households fall below the income poverty threshold.

Rate of population below \$1 (PPP) per day (c.)

72. To measure poverty in the developing world as a whole, the World Bank's "\$1 a day"-measures apply a common standard, anchored to what "poverty" means in the world's poorest countries. The original "\$1-a-day" line was based on a compilation of national lines for only 22 developing countries, mostly from academic studies in the 1980s (Ravallion, Datt, & van de Walle, *Quantifying Absolute Poverty in the Developing World.*, 1991). While this was the best that could be done at the time, the sample was hardly representative of developing countries even in the 1980s. Since then, national poverty lines have been developed for many other countries. Based on a new compilation of national lines for 75 developing countries, (Ravallion, Chen, & Sangraula, *Dollar a Day Revisited*, 2009) proposed a new international poverty line of \$1.25 a day. This is the average poverty line for the poorest 15 countries in their data set.

73. To convert the nominal value of poverty lines measured in different currencies to a common unit of account, the World Bank uses purchasing power parities (PPPs) from the 2005 round of the International Comparison Program, which surveyed prices in 146 countries. One PPP can be defined as the number of units of a country's currency needed to buy the same amount of goods and services in that country as one U.S. dollar would buy in the United States. Statistically, PPPs are expenditure-weighted averages of the relative prices of commonly purchased goods and services. The weights are derived from expenditures recorded in the national accounts of each country²⁰.

A.1.3.1.3 Material Deprivation

74. A major novelty in the latest EU-set of indicators on poverty (see A.1.1.1.2) is that it now includes measures of material deprivation²¹. The motivation for this inclusion is that purely income-based indicators of poverty (like indicators (a.), (b.) and (c.)) are not sufficient to reflect the concept of material poverty satisfactorily. The income poverty approach focuses on the means available to individuals (households) for meeting a 'minimum living pattern' in the society where they live. It is therefore an indirect approach to poverty and social exclusion: it signifies what people potentially can (or cannot) achieve. Material deprivation directly indicates what individuals actually manage to achieve. The main indicators are measured (by the surveys on Income and Living Conditions: EU-SILC) as follows (Fusco, Guio, & Marlier, 2010):

- Proportion of people living in households who lack at least four out of nine²² EU-items on material deprivation (severe material deprivation) (by sex) (d.)
- The mean number of items (from 0 to 9) lacked by people (by sex) (e.)

A.1.3.2 Vulnerable groups and social exclusion

75. One approach to measuring poverty (or risk of suffering from poverty) is to measure the size of groups that are known to be vulnerable to poverty. These include those engaged in unremunerated work (for example work for family businesses), those who are inactive or unemployed, the elderly, homeless, and migrants.

²⁰ Data with explanation can be found at

<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/DATASTATISTICS/Resources/WDI08supplement1216.pdf>

²¹ Material deprivation can be defined as the inability to possess goods and services and/or engage in activities that are ordinary in the society or that are socially perceived as 'necessities'.

²² 1) (arrears on) mortgage or rent payments, utility bills, hire purchase instalments or other loan payments; 2) one week's annual holiday away from home; 3) a meal with meat, chicken, fish (or vegetarian equivalent) every second day; 4) unexpected financial expenses; 5) a telephone (including mobile phone); 6) a colour TV; 7) a washing machine; 8) a car and 9) heating to keep the home adequately warm.

76. Out of these groups, the economically inactive is likely to be the largest. It has a particular gender relevance to those with childcare responsibilities, to those who are retired and have not paid into social security systems for pensions, and may therefore rely on the pension of a husband whom they may outlive.

77. In the context of the Europe 2020 Agenda, the June 2010 European Council adopted, besides the at-risk-of-poverty rate (indicator (a.)) and the material deprivation rate (d.) also an indicator of (near) joblessness to reflect poverty and social exclusion. Below we examine some measures of vulnerable groups, which may serve as a proxy measurement of poverty and social exclusion.

A.1.3.2.1 Unemployment and Inactivity

78. Employment is a key factor for social inclusion and offers the most important means of escaping the poverty cycle. Being employed and earning wages is crucial for the economic independence of women and men. For this reason we explore the following indicators.

Economic inactivity by sex and age:	(f.)
share of men and women who are economically inactive by age;	(f.1.)
share of economically inactive men and women who are not looking for a job for family care reasons.	(f.2.)

79. Being economically active is here defined as belonging to the labour force (employed and unemployed). The employed population consists of those persons aged 15 to 64 who have any work for pay or profit for at least one hour, or are not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent. Unemployed persons comprise persons who were:

- Without work during the reference week of the survey;
- Currently available for work, i.e. were available for paid employment or self-employment before the end of the two weeks following the reference week;
- Actively seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in the four weeks period ending with the reference week to seek paid employment or self-employment or who found a job to start later, i.e. within a period of, at most, three months.

80. The economically inactive ones are just the opposite of the active ones²³.

81. The second of these indicators (f.) mainly focuses on the differences between men and women with regard to the interruption of their working lives and inactivity for family care reasons (which generate a loss in economic independence and, later on in life, a lower level of social protection). Note that both indicators shed light on poverty at an individual level inside the household. A shortage of these indicators is that people can be inactive due to various reasons such as studying full time, temporary illness or retirement. If someone is a full time student that does not necessarily mean that they are at-risk of any disadvantage. Although age tackles part of the problem, a useful addition here is to incorporate the reason for inactivity (if available).

Rate of households with low work intensity	(g.)
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82. This is the annual rate/number of people aged 0-59 living in households where none of the members aged 18-59 are working or where members aged 18-59 have on average very limited work attachment (less than 20 per cent of their total work potential). The annual rate is based on monthly observations. Students aged 18-24 who live in households composed

²³ See: http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_unemployment_ifs/methodology/definitions.

solely of students of the same age class are not included. Note that retired people are by definition excluded, assuming that this age for all countries is at least 60 years.

A.1.3.2.2 Retirement and Wealth

83. In principle, the indicators discussed in section A.1.3.1 do not complete the list of indicators on monetary and material poverty, because the main indicators proposed are based only on income. But income alone provides only a partial view of economic wellbeing. Wealth and consumption should also be taken into account. For some lifecycle stages, income alone may not be sufficient to provide a complete picture of the economic wellbeing. Older people who have retired may have low income but may be materially well-off if they have accumulated substantial wealth during their working life. Here the issue of access to credit and savings mechanisms and institutions becomes relevant, as a contributing factor to measuring poverty, or as a pre-condition to being able to accrue savings. The importance of considering income and wealth together when assessing economic well-being has been given new impetus by several recommendations in the 'Report by the Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress' (Stiglitz, Sen, & and Fitoussi, 2009).

84. However, analysis of data on proportions of men and women with accounts at formal financial institutions²⁴ showed only small differences between men and women within most UNECE countries (even though large variations existed between different countries). This suggests that it is rather the saving behaviour and/or income of men and women that create gender differences, rather than having access to the mechanism to save (i.e., bank accounts). This points to the need for investigating more direct measures of wealth in UNECE countries.

85. On the other hand, many countries lack data on wealth, so adding a poverty indicator based on (income and) wealth seems rather pointless at the moment. Furthermore, income out of wealth (property) is normally included in the income definition, so in this way wealth is accounted for. Nevertheless we mention a possible indicator that combines income and wealth poverty:

- the rate of men and women whose (household) income is below a certain poverty threshold and whose wealth is below a certain threshold.

86. Since the indicator is new and data is mostly not available (let alone comparable), we do not to include such indicator. Further work on the development of such an indicator could be undertaken, based on the OECD Framework for Statistics on the Distribution of Household Income, Consumption and Wealth (OECD, 2013).

A.1.3.3 Consideration of measurement issues

87. Many of the most widely used poverty indicators measure it at the level of households, rather than individuals, which is disadvantageous to measuring gender differences. Generally speaking, household indicators often tend to address differences between single men and women and differences between single fathers and mothers. However, bringing in an indicator solely based on personal merits, for instance the share of men and women who are economically inactive (see A.1.3.2.1), is certainly no solution here. First, this indicator actually belongs to the 'women and the economy' domain (UNECE Task Force on Indicators of Gender Equality, 2012). Second, although the inactivity indicator gives some primary

²⁴ World Bank, percentage of the population aged 15 and older with accounts at formal financial institutions, 2011 data.

insight into the (in)ability to cope for oneself, people are not necessarily financially independent when they work. This is especially of importance since some life events, like a divorce or the death of a partner, can cause severe financial problems.

88. A possible way to express the financial (in)dependence of people²⁵ is the share of men and women whose personal income from work lies under a certain threshold (for example the social security level). However, such an indicator is not easy to interpret. For example, a divorced mother which has to maintain her children, results as an “independent woman” if her income is higher than the threshold, even if it is not sufficient to maintain her children. And a married woman is considered dependent if her income is lower than the threshold, even if her husband is a very rich person. Such indicator seems to be a (biased) poverty-risk factor more than an actual sign of deprivation/difficulties. Moreover, defined in this way, the effect of the income redistribution (alimonies, survivors’ benefits, etc.) is not taken into account. Data availability may also be a problem here, but some countries (like the Netherlands) might have national data. The subject has been explored (Ponthieux, 2010), but at the EU-level (or other levels) no consensus has been derived on it yet and future research seems still to be needed. In short, especially to measure gender-based poverty there still seems to be no solid indicator on the personal level. But given the disadvantages above, it seems beyond the scope of the Task Force to investigate this topic further.

89. At this point, it is therefore not advisable to put in an indicator on the personal level to measure gender-based poverty. However, to meet the above shortcomings, we might consider entering ‘households with low work intensity’ (indicator (g.) in section A.1.3.2.1) into the list of poverty indicators. Whilst this indicator only denotes a risk of poverty (nobody in the household has work or there is only limited work), as opposed to a direct measurement, this is inherent in the role of an indicator. Having little money only indicates that a household might live in poverty, but on the other hand, it could possess a nice house and a holiday home somewhere.

90. A point of discussion here is that the (nearly-) jobless household indicator might also fit into the ‘women and economy domain’ or even another BPA domain. In a jobless household, it is the well-being of the whole household that is put at risk by the fact that no-one in the household is working. Beyond the dependency on social benefits, living in a jobless household extends the lack of contact to the labour market, and for children it increases the risk of intergenerational transmission of poverty since no working adult is in a position to act as a role model. Joblessness may obviously lead to a risk of poverty, but it initially refers to the lack of connection with the labour market. An additional disadvantage of the indicator is that if, for instance, single females are more likely to be unemployed than single males the jobless households-indicator will show some gender effect. But if unemployed males are more likely to be without a partner, the opposite will happen. So the indicator might show more about partnership formation chances of unemployed people rather than about gender.

91. Since poverty indicators are almost naturally on the household level, another point of discussion is how to deal with student households in this. Such households tend to fall under the poverty level anyway. In some countries they are therefore left out of the target

²⁵Commonly used measures at Statistics Netherlands for this are (i) the rate of people who are economically independent, which is the case if personal income from primary sources (income out of earnings or self-employment) exceeds the net social security level, by sex, and (ii) the rate of people who are financially independent, i.e. the personal income from primary income sources and social insurances is higher than the poverty threshold, by sex. The poverty threshold represents the same purchasing power for all years for all households. It is based on the welfare benefit level for a single person in 1979.

population, also because they are of no policy interest when it comes to deal with poverty. In addition, a number of students living away from home might be subsidized by their parents. Data on such transfers is not always available, for instance when income data stem from tax registrations. But at the EU-27 level, we do have data on intra-household transfers²⁶. Anyway, by leaving students out of the target population we circumvent the problem of unknown transfers but we tend to underestimate the poverty rate. And by including student households into the target population, we might overestimate the poverty rate due to unobserved money transfers from parents (for instance by paying the rent of their student child).

A.1.4 Data availability

92. From previous sections, we note that there is a significant difference between the measurement of poverty in developed and in developing countries, which is reflected in the different measures available for these two sets of countries. Unfortunately, this makes the task of finding indicators that are available for both groups of countries for comparison very difficult.

93. Of the poverty indicators discussed in this section, those most suitable for measuring poverty in a developed-country context are mostly available for EU-countries, primarily from the EU-SILC surveys. EU-countries as well as the non-EU ones often (also) rely on poverty indicators based on a fixed poverty level, such as the basic-needs indicator.

94. Of the poverty indicators most applicable to developing countries (the 'rate below basic needs' and 'one-dollar-a day' indicators) are available from the World Bank, for some (but not all) UNECE countries.

95. Whilst there is a large difference between data availability for developed and developing countries, amongst developing countries there is a high degree of non-uniformity in available poverty indicators²⁷. Nevertheless, regardless of which indicator is chosen to measure poverty, one might reasonably expect that differences between men and women will be revealed by whatever indicator is chosen to reflect the prevalence of poverty within a given country, even if comparability between countries is sacrificed. This is the main approach that is proposed in the following section.

A.1.5 Proposed indicators

96. Although cross-country comparisons are very important, poverty differences between men and women will be revealed by no matter what poverty measure we use for a country. Since our focus is the gender difference in poverty, we propose as a headline indicator the one that is commonly used in a country. This could be an indicator based on either a relative or an absolute level. We have to keep in mind however that we cannot compare countries by using an absolute measure, not only due to methodological issues but also to cultural differences among countries.

- For each country, the commonly used indicator on poverty by sex and age (indicator I)

²⁶ Specifically, in EU-SILC information is gathered on intra-household cash transfers referring to regular monetary amounts received during the income reference period from other households or persons. These include: 1) compulsory alimony and child support, 2) voluntary alimony and child support received on a regular basis, 3) regular cash support from persons other than household members, and 4) regular cash support from households in other countries. Also free or subsidised housing provided by another household is included as 'Imputed rent'.

²⁷ This can be seen by examining country-level data availability from the UNECE Millennium Development Goal database.

- For each country, the commonly used indicator on poverty by sex and household type (indicator II)

97. It is important to emphasise that, for measuring gender equality, it is the ratio of men and women living in poverty that should be compared across countries (according to the most suitable measure used in that country), and not the poverty levels between different countries.

98. It is not contradictory to obtain household indicators broken down by sex or age, since these breakdowns can exist for individuals who live alone as well as for one-parent families (depending upon the availability of data disaggregated to this level of detail). Furthermore, even for indicators that express household attributes, a sex breakdown reveals the numbers of men and women living in such households.

99. Considering the indicators listed in section A.1.1.2 we propose as supporting indicators for EU-countries:

- the at-risk-of-poverty rate by sex and age (indicator Ia)
- the at-risk-of-poverty rate by sex and household type (indicator IIa)

100. A point of discussion is the income concept. The EU-concept (Wolff, Montaigne, & González, 2010) differs from that proposed by the Canberra Group (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2011), for instance because social transfers in kind and imputed rent²⁸ are not taken into account by the Eurostat. For the purpose of measuring gender differences, we stick to a commonly used income concept for which data are available for most countries. This implies for the time being to use the EU concept. We support Eurostat's work for assessing possible methodologies in order to valuate for instance social transfers in kind in view of possible further production of complementary data according to the preferable (Canberra) income concept.

101. EU-SILC offers a harmonized source for the at-risk-of-poverty rate with a 60 per cent standard line after social transfers. We mention that the 2010 module to EU-SILC on intra-household allocation of resources could be another important measurement tool; the results and analyses²⁹ have been made available.

102. Eurostat has breakdowns of at-risk-of-poverty by sex and age, and by household type. The latter distinguishes between lone males and lone females. Whilst single parents are not divided by male/female parents, it is likely that the majority of single-parent families will have a female parent.

103. For non-EU countries the supporting indicators of I and II and -at the same time- counterparts for Ia and IIa would be:

- rate below the basic-needs level, by sex and age (indicator Ib)
- rate below the basic-needs level, by sex and household type (indicator IIb)

104. Both breakdowns (age and household type) in the indicators I and II (a, b) make sense in a gender perspective. Women are more likely to be living alone after the death of their spouses (life expectancy of women is higher). As fewer women have gained pension rights

²⁸ According to EU-SILC (EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions) since the 2007, the imputed rent and other non-monetary income components are required data items. However, a final decision by the Indicator Sub-Group is pending regarding the inclusion of these components in EU income indicators.

²⁹

See http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/income_social_inclusion_living_conditions/data/ad_hoc_modules

during their working age, the risk of being poor for elderly women is higher than that for men of the same age. Furthermore, as more women head single-parent families, the risk of poverty for women aged 20 to 40 is above that for men (OECD, 2008). To put it briefly, age differences in poverty between men and women can for a large part be attributed to household type differences (singles and single parents), and vice versa.

105. Considering this the age breakdown proposal would be: 15-24, 25-44, 45-64 and 65 years and over. Eurostat, for instance, provides poverty indicators for elderly people (65+ and 60+; see section A.1.1.2.2). The proposal for the household breakdown would be: single person, single parent, couple with children, couple without children, other.

106. To cover also the direct aspect of experiencing poverty, as another supporting indicator is proposed:

- the proportion of people living in households who lack at least four out of nine EU-items on material deprivation (severe material deprivation), by sex (indicator III).

107. The EU-items are specific to (some) EU countries and may not be relevant in other countries. As in Australian context but also in Western European countries, some of these items have no importance. Most households in those countries irrespective of their income have a phone, washing machine or colour TV. Within this scope we mention the 'financial stress'³⁰ indicator used by the Australian Bureau of Statistics, which might be a lead for further discussion. However, a revision of the EU-items list is rather challenging. The list is the result of a long consultation process among experts from EU countries, which makes them available for all European countries by the EU-SILC surveys. In countries that use an alternative item list, cross-country comparisons can be made by focusing on the ratio of men/women living in material deprivation according to that list, rather than comparing levels of material deprivation between different countries.

108. Since non-EU countries lack data on material deprivation we propose as a counterpart for indicator III the proportion of people living below the 'one-dollar-per-day' level, by sex (indicator IV). Using World Bank data on this indicator we would be able to compare non-EU countries with each other.

109. Table A.1-I displays the gender equality indicators that are proposed for the poverty domain. Where applicable, indicators and their breakdowns in this table are to be calculated by sex.

Table A.1-I

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
1.1	A country's most commonly used indicator on poverty	Depends on indicator used	—	A1, A2
1.1.1	A country's most commonly used poverty indicator by age ³¹	Depends on indicator used	—	A1, A2

³⁰The 'financial stress' indicator used by the Australian Bureau of Statistics. Persons in households with high financial stress are defined as those people whose household reported an incidence of 5 or more out of 15 items (like cash flow problems, unable to pay bills on time, afford a special meal once a week). These items may serve as a useful addition to discuss, even though many countries lack data on them.

³¹Age and household type breakdown as proposed in section A.1.5.

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
1.1.2	A country's most commonly used poverty indicator household type ³¹ .	Depends on indicator used	—	A1, A2
Relative poverty				
1.2	At-risk-of-poverty-rate	Eurostat	—	A1, A2
1.2.1	At-risk-of-poverty-rate by age ³¹ .	Eurostat	—	A1, A2
1.2.2	At-risk-of-poverty-rate by household type ³¹ .	Eurostat	—	A1, A2
Absolute poverty				
1.3	Rate below basic-needs level,	(Not available)	—	A1, A2
1.3.1	Rate below basic-needs level, by age ³¹ .	(Not available)	—	A1, A2
1.3.2	Rate below basic-needs level, by household type ³¹ .	(Not available)	—	A1, A2
1.4.1	Proportion of people living below the 'one-dollar-a-day' level	(Not available)	—	A1, A2
Material deprivation				
1.5.1	Proportion of people living in households who lack at least four out of nine EU-items on material deprivation (severe material deprivation)	Eurostat	—	A1, A2

110. From Table A.1-I, it is clear that we do not have data on all indicators at our disposal yet. We therefore only proposed the age and household type breakdown in supporting indicators, rather than at the headline level. The material deprivation rate and the one-dollar-a-day indicator are supporting indicators anyway and are only broken down by sex.

111. Although the World Bank does not provide the data, the rate-below-basis-needs and the one-dollar-a-day indicator stem from (household) surveys of countries as well as World Bank country departments, so the sex breakdown should be feasible.

112. Some discussion of issues requiring further methodological work is given in section 3.2.1.

A.2 Education

A.2.1 Introduction

A.2.1.1 Policy background

113. The education and training of women was the second critical area of concern targeted by the international community in BPA (United Nations, 1995); the following six strategic objectives were specified:

- B1. Ensure equal access to education;
- B2. Eradicate illiteracy among women;
- B3. Improve women's access to vocational training, science and technology, and continuing education;
- B4. Develop non-discriminatory education and training;

B5. Allocate sufficient resources for and monitor the implementation of educational reforms;

B6. Promote life-long education and training for girls and women.

114. The BPA text defines specific areas in education for the promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women, as follows.

A.2.1.1.1 Lifelong learning

115. Lifelong learning is essential to competitiveness, employability, social inclusion, active citizenship and personal development. As regards age, it refers to all learning undertaken by adults aged 25-64 after they have left their initial education and training.

116. Lifelong learning covers formal, non-formal and informal learning for improving basics skills, obtaining new qualifications, up-skilling or re-skilling for employment, participating in social, cultural, artistic and societal learning for personal development and fulfilment.

117. The participation of women in lifelong learning is relevant to, inter alia, promoting gender equality, empowering women in society, eliminating gender disparity in labour market participation and salaries.

A.2.1.1.2 Women's access to vocational education and training

118. The provision of information to women and girls on the availability and benefits of vocational training and programmes of continuing education help to provide the skills, knowledge and competences needed in the labour market. Faced with challenges such as intensified global competition, high numbers of low-skilled workers and an ageing population, vocational education and training is vital to prepare men and women for today's society, providing more opportunities for disadvantaged groups such as school drop-outs, low-skilled and unemployed.

119. Vocational education and training comprise formal, non-formal and informal learning in schools, public and private vocational centres and institutes, higher education institutions and workplaces. They provide young people with the right skills to find suitable jobs and adults with an opportunity to update skills throughout their working life.

A.2.1.1.3 Tertiary education: science and technology

120. Specific emphasis is put on the need to increase the participation of women in such fields as science, mathematics, engineering, environmental sciences and technology, information technology and high technology, specifically also at the tertiary level.

A.2.1.1.4 Unequal opportunities in employment: return of education

121. The return to education in terms of level of employment status still differs between women and men. While equal access to education for girls and boys is ensured, where young women have drawn level with and even partly overtaken boys and young men in formal educational qualifications, disparity between women and men emerges once students enter professional life.

A.2.1.1.5 Academia: gender equality at scholarly and decision-making levels

122. The BPA underlines academia's responsibility to demonstrate gender equality in practice in all areas and at all levels. Access for and retention of girls and women at all levels of education, including the higher level, and all academic areas is one of the factors for women's continued progress in professional activities, increasing the proportion of women gaining access to educational policy and decision-making, particularly women teachers at all

levels of education and in academic disciplines that are traditionally male-dominated, such as the scientific and technological fields

A.2.1.1.6 Recent background

123. Education plays a critical role in the empowerment of women and girls. Good practices, such as abolishing school fees, have resulted in steady advances towards meeting international targets in:

- Improving girls' access to education, particularly at the primary level. However, progress remains uneven between and within regions and countries;
- Secondary and university education remains crucial for expanding opportunities for women and girls;
- Non-formal education, including vocational programmes, is an important complement to formal education;

124. Participants emphasized the need to ensure that educational gains of women and girls translate into better employment opportunities.

125. The 54th session of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women reaffirms the Dakar Framework for Action on education for all (United Nations, 2000) and commits by 2015:

- To ensure access to complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality and to achieve gender equality in education by 2015;
- To strengthen policies aimed at ensuring full and equal access of women and girls to education at all levels through lifelong learning, including adult and long distance education and training;
- To eradicate illiteracy in order to promote women's economic empowerment.

A.2.1.2 Existing frameworks

126. Existing frameworks for this domain include the Global Minimum Set of Gender Indicators, the EU Indicators for the BPA, and the Millennium Development Goals, as well as the 'key data' indicators from the OECD Gender Equality Initiative³².

A.2.1.2.1 Global Minimum Set

127. Section 2 of the Global Minimum Set includes following indicators:

- Literacy rate for 15-24 by sex;
- Net enrolment ratio in primary education by sex;
- Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education by sex;
- Gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education, by sex;
- Gender parity index in enrolment at primary, secondary and tertiary;
- Share of female science, engineering, manufacturing and construction graduates at tertiary level;
- Proportion of females among third-level teachers or professors;
- Net intake in first grade of primary education, by sex;
- Primary education completion rate, by sex;
- Graduates from lower secondary education, by sex;
- Transition rate to secondary education, by sex;

³² <http://www.oecd.org/gender/data/>

- Education attainment of population aged 25 and over, by sex.

A.2.1.2.2 Millennium Development Goals

- Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education
 - Target 2.A: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.
- Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women.
 - Target 3.A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015.

A.2.1.2.3 EU Indicators for the Beijing Platform for Action

128. The EU Indicators are:

- Proportion of female graduates and male graduates of all graduates in mathematics, the sciences and technical disciplines (tertiary education);
- Employment rate of women and men (aged between 25 and 39 years; and aged between 40 and 64) by highest level of education attained;
- Proportion of female/male ISCED 5a-graduates of all ISCED 5a-graduates and proportion of female/male PhD graduates of all PhD graduates by broad field of study and total;
- Proportion of female and male academic staff differentiated by level of seniority and in total.

A.2.1.2.4 OECD Gender Equality Initiative

129. The OECD developed a set of 'key data' indicators to highlight gender gaps in education, employment and entrepreneurship³². The indicators concerning education are:

- Population who attained upper secondary education, by sex and age group;
- Population with tertiary education, by sex and age group;
- Graduation rates in tertiary education, by sex;
- Percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to women by field of education;
- PISA scores, by sex:
 - Reading
 - Mathematics
 - Science
- Top performers, by sex and subject;
- Low-achieving students, by sex and subject;
- Percentage of young people in education, in employment and Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEETs);
- Percentage of 25-64 years old participating in adult education, by sex.

A.2.2 Available sources of indicators

130. Table A.2-I displays those indicators that are available from existing online gender databases, grouped against those occupational areas highlighted in the section on policy background and recent background (United Nations, 1995), (United Nations, 2010) above.

Table A.2-I

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDGs</i>
Ensure equal access to education	—	—	Percentage of female students. Total number of female students in a given level of education (percentage of total number enrolled at the level) (pre-primary, primary, total secondary, tertiary).	Children out of school, primary, female	2.1 Net enrolment ratio in primary education 2.2 Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary 2.3 Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds, women and men 3.1 Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education
Eradicate illiteracy among women	—	Adult illiterate population number females 15+ years. Women's share adult illiterate population. Women's share young illiterate population Adult literacy rate per cent female 15+years. Gender Parity Index. Gender parity index literacy rate of 15-24 years.	Youth illiteracy (15-24 years) % females Adult illiteracy (15 +). % females Female literacy. Literacy rate, adult females (% of females ages 15 and above).	Literacy rate, youth female (% of females ages 15-24) Literacy rate, adult female (% of females ages 15 and above)	2.3 Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds, women and men
Access at primary level	—	Enrolment in primary education. Number. Females Gross and net enrolment ratio Gender parity index adjusted net enrolment Gender parity index gross enrolment Gender parity index net enrolment Primary school net enrolment/attendance	Gross enrolment ratio (pre-primary, primary). Gender parity index (GPI)	School enrolment primary, female (% gross) School enrolment primary, female (% net) Ratio of female to male primary enrolment (%) Net intake ratio in grade 1, female (% of official school age population)	2.1 Net enrolment ratio in primary education 2.2 Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDGs</i>
Access to secondary and tertiary level	Enrolment ratio at secondary level by sex Upper and postsecondary students by sex	Enrolment in secondary education. Number. Females. Enrolment in tertiary education. Number. Females. Gross and net enrolment ratio Gender parity index gross enrolment Gender parity index net enrolment Secondary school net enrolment/attendance	Gross enrolment ratio (secondary) Gender parity index (GPI) Gross enrolment ratio (tertiary). Gender parity index (GPI).	School enrolment secondary, female (% gross) School enrolment secondary, female (% net) School enrolment tertiary, female (% gross) Persistence to grade 5, female (% of cohort)	3.1 Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education
Vocational education and training	—	—	—	—	—
Lifelong Learning	Percentage of population in lifelong learning by sex	—	—	—	—
Educational attainment, adult population	Educational attainment by level of education, age and sex	—	—	—	—
Tertiary education: science and technology	Tertiary students by field of study, type of program and sex	Women's share of tertiary enrolment by field	Percentage of graduates that are female (total tertiary)	Female share of graduates in tertiary by field (% tertiary)	
Unequal opportunities in employment return of education	—	—	—	—	—
Academia: gender equality at scholar and decision making level	Teachers by level of education and sex	Women's share of teachers in pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary	Percentage of female teachers Percentage of trained teachers (total, male, female)	Secondary education, teachers (% female) Primary education, teachers (% female) Tertiary education, teachers (% female)	—

A.2.3 Consideration of indicators by topic

131. In this section, we consider the suitability of the available indicators for measuring the BPA topics. In the following, we will see how the existing frameworks and databases cover the different fields of interest.

A.2.3.1 *Ensure equal access to education*

132. This is analysed by the enrolment rate indicators proposed, and the lifelong learning indicator. The level of education of adult population is an outcome indicator of the education system through the years, which is available in the UNECE Gender Database and in the Global Minimum Set of Gender indicators, so is proposed in the UNECE set as well.

A.2.3.2 *Eradicate illiteracy among women*

133. There are a number of existing indicators in relation to literacy and illiteracy of adult and young women available in international databases, but not at the European level. The literacy rate for 15-24 year olds by sex is incorporated into the Global Minimum Set of gender indicators; we recommend its inclusion in the UNECE set as well.

A.2.3.3 *Access at primary level, secondary, tertiary level of education*

134. The Millennium Development Goal 2 is “Achieve universal primary education” and its Target 2A “to ensure that by 2015, children everywhere boys and girls will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling”.

135. The goal for the Final Report of the World Education Forum (United Nations, 2000) is similar. Progress towards this goal is principally monitored by, amongst other indicators, the net enrolment rate (NER) with a view that the general target should be 100 per cent for every country.

136. The net enrolment rates are more appropriate for compulsory education levels (primary and lower secondary) to measure the education coverage in a specific level of the education system. At primary level, the target should be 100 per cent, so the number of children of official primary school age who are enrolled in primary education should be equal to the total children of the official school age population. This logic can be the same for compulsory lower secondary education.

137. Children’s access to, and participation in, different levels of education is often analysed alongside the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER). This is defined as the number of pupils enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to that level of education. The GER is widely used to show the general level of participation in a given level of education. It can be a complementary indicator to NER by indicating the extent of over- aged and under- aged enrolment, because of early or late entrants, and grade repetition.

138. A sharp discrepancy between the GER and the NER indicates that enrolled boys and girls enter late to the grades or do not progress regularly through the grades and that the system’s internal efficiency could be improved.

139. Using gross rates of enrolment is better for higher levels of education (upper secondary, tertiary), assuming that an individual will graduate from these levels during his or her lifetime.

140. Since the adjusted net enrolment ratio in primary education, the gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, and the gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education are incorporated

into the Global Minimum Set of gender indicators, we recommend their inclusion in the UNECE set as well.

141. In terms of the breakdown by educational level, it was decided to use the following four levels: primary, lower secondary, upper secondary, and tertiary.

A.2.3.4 Vocational education and training

142. There are several problems related to monitoring and evaluating vocational education and training, including, the fragmented provision of it in many countries, the methodological problems related to definition of vocational education and training programmes and relevant indicators. It has a multitude of very different institutional arrangements, organisational approaches and regulations. We therefore do not propose an indicator for this topic.

A.2.3.5 Lifelong learning

143. The indicator on lifelong learning provides essential information in the context of employment and is included in the UNECE Gender Statistics Database. It is relevant to issues such as promoting gender equality, empowering women, eliminating gender disparities in labour market participation, and salaries. We therefore propose an indicator on the percentage of the population in lifelong learning.

A.2.3.6 Tertiary education: science and technology

144. The proportion of female graduates and male graduates of all graduates in mathematics, the sciences and technical disciplines (tertiary education) is included in the EU Indicators for BPA.

145. A key initiative at the European level was the Education and Training 2010 Programme (Council of the European Union, 2010) by promoting women's access to scientific and technical careers in line with the European objective of redressing the gender imbalance in this field.

146. The share of female science, engineering, manufacturing and construction graduates at tertiary level is incorporated in the Global Minimum Set of Gender indicators and is decided to use it in the present indicator set as well

A.2.3.7 Unequal opportunities in employment: return of education

147. It is necessary to ensure that educational gains of women and girls translate into better employment opportunities, following the completion of their education.

148. While equal access to education for girls and boys is largely ensured in many countries, where young women have drawn level with and even partly overtaken boys and young men in formal educational qualifications, disparity between women and men emerges once students enter professional life. More often than not, women and men with equivalent educational qualifications do not reach the same level of earnings or an equal share of decision-making positions. In particular, the return of education in terms of level of employment status still differs between women and men

149. However, given that this topic overlaps with the domain on the economy, consideration of indicators on labour market participation by level of education are excluded from the education domain.

A.2.3.8 Academia: gender equality at scholarly and decision making level

150. The gender disparity in the professional advancement of women in academia is particularly noticeable and of specific relevance to the education domain. Traditionally, fewer women than men have pursued an academic career, and even today, the proportion of women in higher education decreases with seniority. This persistent vertical segregation not only inhibits the academic potential of women from being cultivated but also prevents women from gaining access to and participating in educational policy and decision-making.

151. The proportion of females among third-level teachers or professors is incorporated in the Global Minimum Set of Gender indicators and is decided to use it in the present indicator set as well.

A.2.4 Proposed indicators

152. The table below displays the gender equality indicators that are proposed for the education domain for UNECE countries. Where applicable, indicators and their breakdowns in this table are to be calculated by sex.

Table A.2-II

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Enrolment				
2.1	Tertiary gross enrolment rate	GenderStats	23, 24	B1
2.2	Upper secondary gross enrolment rate	UNESCO	Similar to 22 (gross), 24	B1
2.3.1	Lower secondary net enrolment rate	UNESCO	Similar to 22 (gross), 24	B1
2.3.2	Primary net enrolment rate	GenderStats	Similar to 21 (adjusted rate)	B1, L4
Lifelong learning				
2.4.1	Percentage of population in lifelong learning	UNECE Gender Database	—	B3, B6
Graduation				
2.5	Graduation rate in tertiary education	UNECE Gender Database	—	B1
2.6	Share of female graduates in science, engineering, manufacturing and construction	UNESCO	25	B3, B4, L4
2.7	Graduation rate in upper secondary education	Eurostat has Graduates in ISCED 3 by age and sex	—	B1
2.7.1	Graduation rate in lower secondary education (ISCED 2)	UNESCO	29	B1
Level of education and literacy attained				
2.8	Distribution of 25-64 years old by highest level of education attained	Eurostat	Similar to 31	B1

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
2.8.1	Distribution of 30-34 years old by highest level of education attained	Eurostat	—	B1
2.8.2	Literacy rate of persons aged 15-24 years old	GenderStats	—	B2
Others				
2.9	Young people (aged 15-24) not in employment and not in education and training	Eurostat	—	B2
2.10	Proportion of females among third level teachers or professors	UNECE Gender Database	26	B4, L4

Since these indicators figure in existing indicator sets, their definition can be obtained from the metadata available from the corresponding websites.

A.3 Health

A.3.1 Introduction

A.3.1.1 Policy background

153. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), health is ‘a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity’ (World Health Organization, 1946). Over the past two decades, international commitments such as BPA (United Nations, 1995) and the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations) have raised the need to promote equality and empowerment of women in areas of health.

154. This section takes into account indicators developed in response to the MDGs and BPA, and the existing frameworks implemented since these agreements. It recognises that health indicators should consider an all-round view of health and not simply be focused on end-measure statistics such as mortality rates.

155. A large part of these commitments centred on improving the health of women in developing countries where factors such as inadequate maternal health care, increased adoption of unhealthy lifestyle behaviours and HIV/AIDS have contributed to poor health outcomes for women. There may also be interest in monitoring health outcomes for men (compared to women) in both developed and developing countries given women’s longer life expectancies and a lower prevalence of health-risk factors (OECD, 2006). Perhaps due to biological factors, females are less predisposed to some health conditions than males, but it could be that males may engage in specific lifestyle and behavioural factors that adversely impact their health (United Nations, 2010). Indicators proposed in this section reflect areas of gender equality for both men and women, recognising that while many existing indicators are useful for their focus on women’s equality, indicators which also represent the health of men would be beneficial for UNECE countries.

A.3.1.1.1 Beijing Platform for Action

156. BPA has the following strategic health objectives:

- C1. Increase women’s access throughout the life cycle to appropriate, affordable and quality health care, information and related services.
- C2. Strengthen preventative programmes that promote women’s health.
- C3. Undertake gender-sensitive initiatives that address sexually transmitted diseases, HIV/AIDS, and sexual and reproductive health issues.
- C4. Promote research and disseminate information on women’s health.
- C5. Increase resources and monitor follow-up for women’s health.

157. The detailed BPA text discusses the following topics:

- Access to basic health resources, including primary health services for the treatment and presentation of certain common illnesses, such as childhood diseases, communicable diseases, and emergency obstetric services;
- Goal to reduce maternal mortality to half the 1990 levels by the year 2000; and by a further half by 2015;
- Goal to reduce mortality of infants and under 5’s by one third of the 1990 level by the year 2000, or to 50-70 per 1000 live births; by 2015 an infant mortality rate of below 35 per 1,000 live births, and an under 5 mortality rate below 45 per 1,000;

- Healthcare may be unaffordable to some people;
- Factors, such as increased risk of poverty of women, vulnerability to violence, limited power over their reproduction, and lack of influence in decision-making may make them more vulnerable to inequalities in health status and access to healthcare (some of these issues relate to other domains of the BPA);
- Provision of reproductive healthcare information;
- Universal access to safe drinking water and sanitation;
- Women should be able to control their own fertility;
- Abortion and the risk it poses to women's health, especially unsafe abortions;
- Females may be subject to harmful practices, such as female genital mutilation, childbirth at an early age;
- Early sexual experiences pose risks of pregnancy, sexually transmitted diseases;
- Women's mental health may be related to marginalization, powerlessness, poverty, overwork and stress;
- There is a growing incidence of domestic violence, substance abuse, and tobacco use among women;
- In the context of population ageing, ensuring healthy lifestyles of older people is necessary, and health problems related to ageing may become more prominent;
- Statistical data on health are often not systematically disaggregated by age, sex and socio-economic status, and by established demographic criteria to understand subgroups. Available disaggregations of mortality and morbidity data may not clearly isolate those diseases which particularly effect women from other diseases.

A.3.1.1.2 Millennium Development Goals

158. The Millennium Development Goals have the following health objectives and targets related to gender:

- Goal 5: Improve maternal health

Targets:

- Reduce by three-quarters the maternal mortality rate;
- Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health.

- Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases

Targets:

- Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS;
- Empowering women through AIDS education;
- Disparities are found in condom use by women and men;
- Mounting evidence shows a link between gender-based violence and HIV;
- Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it;
- Expanded treatment for HIV-positive women also safeguards their newborns.

159. Other health-related objectives and targets that are not gender-specific but support existing gender-related frameworks and BPA objectives:

- Goal 4: Reduce child mortality rates

Target:

- Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate.

- Goal 8: Develop a global partnership for development

Target:

- In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries

A.3.1.1.3 Madrid International Plan for Action on Ageing

160. In addition, the Commitment 8 of the UNECE Regional Implementation Strategy of the Madrid International Plan for Action on Ageing (MIPAA) is to “Mainstream a Gender Approach in an Ageing Society”. A main policy objective of this commitment is achieving full gender equality in a variety of areas, including health care (Monitoring RIS). The policy goes on to state:

“Governments are encouraged to address the specific exigencies of women's health, throughout the women's life cycle, including reproductive and sexual health. Opportunities should be provided for older women to advocate on health issues that concern them and encourage their participation in developing programmes, so as to address better the problems older women themselves identify. In this context, explicit short- and long-term time bound targets or measurable goals should be set, and where appropriate, quotas and/or other measures could be considered.”

A.3.1.2 Existing frameworks

161. Existing frameworks for this domain include the Global Minimum Set of Gender Indicators, the EU Indicators for the BPA, and the Millennium Development Goal Indicators.

A.3.1.2.1 Global Minimum Set

162. Section III “Health and related services” of the Global Minimum Set includes 11 indicators that are highly relevant to international commitments such as those from the BPA and the MDGs:

- Contraceptive prevalence among women who are married or in a union, aged 15-49;
- Under-5 mortality rate, by sex;
- Maternal mortality rate;
- Antenatal care coverage;
- Proportion of births attended by skilled health professional;
- Smoking prevalence among persons aged 15 and over, by sex;
- Proportion of adults who are obese, by sex;
- Women's share of population aged 15-49 living with HIV/AIDS;
- Access to antiretroviral drug, by sex;
- Life expectancy at age 60, by sex;
- Adult mortality by cause and age groups.

A.3.1.2.2 EU Indicators for the Beijing Platform for Action

163. In 1995, the European Council acknowledged the commitment of the European Union (EU) to the BPA and expressed its intent to review its implementation across Member States on a yearly basis (EIGE). In 2006, the following indicators were developed to monitor women and health:

- Healthy life years, as a percentage of total life expectancy or as an absolute value at birth;
- Access to health care (unmet demand);

- All cardio-vascular diseases, coronary heart disease (CHD), stroke, other CHD.

A.3.1.2.3 Millennium Development Goal Indicators

164. The Millennium Development Goal indicators relevant to the Health targets for gender are:

- Goal 4: Reduce child mortality
 - Under-five mortality rate;
 - Infant mortality rate;
 - Proportion of 1 year-old children immunised against measles.
- Goal 5: Improve maternal health
 - Maternal mortality rate;
 - Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel;
 - Contraceptive prevalence rate;
 - Adolescent birth rate;
 - Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit and at least four visits);
 - Unmet need for family planning.
- Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
 - HIV prevalence among population aged 15-24 years;
 - Condom use at last high-risk sex;
 - Proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS;
 - Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non-orphans aged 10-14 years;
 - Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to retroviral drugs;
 - Incidence and death rates associated with malaria;
 - Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets;
 - Proportion of children under 5 with fever who are treated with appropriate anti-malarial drugs;
 - Incidence, prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis;
 - Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course.
- Goal 8E: Develop a global partnership for development – in cooperation with pharmaceutical companies; provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries.
 - Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis

A.3.1.2.4 Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing

165. The European Centre for Social Welfare Policy and Research designed and developed a set of gender-specific mainstreaming ageing indicators. These align with the UNECE Regional Implementation Strategy for indicators for implementing the MIPAA.

- Gender gap in life expectancy at birth and at age 65 and at age 80;
- Life expectancy gains at age 80, by gender;
- Difference in life expectancy at age 65 and 80, by gender;
- Population 65+ with severe disability by age group;
- Population with severe activity restriction, by gender and age group;
- Prevalence rates of dementia, by gender and age group;

- Healthy life expectancy.

166. The indicators proposed to monitor the specific measures through which these objectives should be met are listed in the document 'Indicators and Website for Monitoring.' by the European Centre for Social Welfare Policy and Research.

A.3.1.3 Health frameworks

167. To assist with reviewing the relevance of the variety of indicators on health, it may be useful to consider wider frameworks for health. Frameworks for health are commonly used to help evaluate performance of a nation's health system and identify relationships between health-related factors. In the OECD health system performance assessment, for instance, a person's health status is determined by a function of an adequate health system and non-medical determinants of health (OECD, 2011).

168. Frameworks commonly feature the roles of health status, determinants of health and the role of the health system. These three elements help with grouping the indicators identified above.

A.3.2 Available sources of indicators

169. Table A.3-I to Table A.3-III display those indicators that are available (as of September 2012) from online databases that have a gender disaggregation. These are grouped against the occupational areas highlighted in the section on policy background above, organised by framework component.

A.3.2.1 Health Status

Table A.3-I

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database³³</i>	<i>OECD Health Database³⁴</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Life expectancy and gains	Life expectancy at birth and at age 65 by sex	—	—	—	Life expectancy at birth and ages 1, 15, 45 and 65 years	Life expectancy at birth, 40, 60, 65 and 80 years	Global minimum data availability notes on life expectancy at age 60: UN Population Division - Data are produced by the United Nations Population Division. The indicators are obtained from the estimates and projections prepared every two years by the Population Division, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations.

³³ <http://www.euro.who.int/en/what-we-do/data-and-evidence/databases/european-health-for-all-database-hfa-db2>

³⁴ OECD Health Database

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database³³</i>	<i>OECD Health Database³⁴</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Healthy life years and expectancy	—	—	—	—	—	—	WHO global health observatory - Healthy life expectancy and expectation of healthy life years lost at birth for 2002, by sex EurOhex European Commission HEIDI data tool ³⁵ Healthy life years, 2004 onward, birth and at age 65, by sex
Causes of mortality	Death rate by causes of death and sex	—	—	—	All causes of death, 0-64 years and total Particular cardiovascular causes: SDR, diseases of circulatory system, 0-64 and all ages per 100,000 by sex SDR, ischaemic heart disease, 0-64 and all ages per 100,000 by sex	All causes of death Particular cardiovascular causes: Number and death per 100,000 females, males and total deaths from diseases of the circulatory system, ischaemic heart diseases and acute myocardial infarctions	—
Child mortality	Infant mortality by sex	Infant mortality rate	—	Mortality rate, infant – female and male (per 1,000 live births)	Infant mortality per 1,000 births Probability of dying before age 5 years, per 1,000 births	Infant mortality	—

³⁵ http://ec.europa.eu/health/indicators/indicators/index_en.htm

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database³³</i>	<i>OECD Health Database³⁴</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Maternal mortality	—	—	—	Maternal mortality rate (modelled estimate, per 100,000 live births) Number of maternal deaths	Maternal deaths per 100,000 live births	Maternal deaths per 100,000 live births Number (and deaths per 100,000 females) of female deaths due to complications of pregnancy, childbirth and puerperium	UNICEF - International system (estimates produced by WHO, UNICEF, UNFPA and The World Bank)
HIV/AIDS	—	Population with HIV/AIDS: Women's share* Among 15-24* Among most at-risk groups in capital city * estimate, high estimate and low estimate HIV prevalence in most at-risk groups in capital city	—	Female adults with HIV (% of population ages 15+ with HIV) Prevalence of HIV, females and males (% ages 15-24)	—	Number of deaths due to HIV/AIDS (male, female and total) Deaths per 100,000 females/ males/ total due to HIV/AIDS	Global minimum data availability notes: UNAIDS REPORT ON THE GLOBAL AIDS EPIDEMIC

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database³³</i>	<i>OECD Health Database³⁴</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Disability	—	—	—	—	—	Number of deaths due to congenital malformations and chromosomal abnormalities (females, males and total)	WHO health statistics - Death and Disability-Adjusted Life Year (DALY) estimates for WHO member states. Available by persons, males and females and all ages or by 3 age groups ³⁶ .
Dementia	—	—	—	—	—	Number of deaths caused by dementia (females, males and total)	—
Activity restrictions	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

³⁶ http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/estimates_country/en/index.html

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database³³</i>	<i>OECD Health Database³⁴</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Other indicators	—	Child disability	—	Malnutrition prevalence, height for age (% of children under 5), females and males Malnutrition prevalence, weight for age (% of children under 5), females and males Prevalence of wasting (% of children under 5), males and females	Disability-adjusted life expectancy Foetal, neonatal, perinatal deaths Self-assessed health status	Perceived health status by age (15-24, 25-44, 45-64 and 65 and over) and sex Neonatal and perinatal deaths per 1,000 total births	—

A.3.2.2 Determinants of health

Table A.3-II

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database</i>	<i>OECD Health Database</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Maternal health care	—	Antenatal care coverage (at least one or four visits) Births attended by skilled health personnel Per cent of births delivered by caesarean section	Births attended by skilled health personnel (as % of total)	Births attended by skilled health staff (% of total) Pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%)	Abortions per 1,000 live births % of live births to mothers Caesarean sections per 1,000 live births Proportion (%) of births attended by skilled health personnel	Caesarean section Number of in-patient cases/Procedures per 100,000 females (in-patient)/procedures per 1,000 live births Practising midwives/midwives licensed to practice (Number, density per 1,000 population and per 1,000 live births)	Global minimum data availability notes on 1) Antenatal care: UNICEF - National-level household surveys are the main data sources used to collect data for the antenatal care indicators. 2) Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel: UNICEF - Data from national-level household surveys are compiled in the UNICEF global database. Latest available estimates of skilled health personnel at delivery are published annually, in December, by UNICEF in The State of the World's Children report, and are available on www.childinfo.org
Smoking prevalence	Smokers as a percentage of population by age and sex			Smoking prevalence, females and males (% of adults)	% of regular daily smokers in the population, age 15+ females and males	% of population aged 15+ who are daily smokers (total, male and female)	WHO report on the global tobacco epidemic 2008 ³⁷ - Appendix III.

³⁷ http://www.who.int/tobacco/global_report/2011/en/

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database</i>	<i>OECD Health Database</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Obesity	Population by level of Body Mass Index, by ages and sex	Prevalence of obesity among adults	—	Prevalence of overweight (% of children under 5), females and males Prevalence of overweight (% of population ages 15+), females and males)	—	Overweight population, (self-reported and measured data) % of males, females and total Obese population, (self-reported and measured data separately) % of males, females and total Overweight or obese population, (self-reported and measured data separately) % of males, females and total	Global minimum data availability notes: 1) WHO - Global Database on body mass index 2) Data is also available from the International Obesity Task Force, which is part of the International Association for the Study of Obesity 3) DHS
Access to drugs	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database</i>	<i>OECD Health Database</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Other indicators	—	Proportion of young people aged 15-24 years who had sex with more than one partner in last 12 months Percentage of young women 15-24 who had more than one sexual partner in the past 12 months Percentage of young people aged 15-24 years who had sex with a non-marital, non-cohabiting partner in the last 12 months Open defecation practices Prevalence of underweight (moderate and severe), based on NCHS/WHO reference population Prevalence of underweight children	—	Improved sanitation facilities (% of population with access) Improved water source (% of population with access)	—	—	WHO Global Health Observatory – heavy episodic alcohol drinking by sex

A.3.2.3 Role of the health system

Table A.3-III

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database</i>	<i>OECD Health Database</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Access to health care	—	HIV-infected pregnant women in need of/receiving ARVs for PMTCT (reported number, estimate, high estimate and low estimate) Estimated antiretroviral therapy coverage among children aged 0-14	—	Personally paid for health insurance, females and males (% age 15+)	—	—	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions Survey (EU-SILC) - un-met health care needs
Immunisation	—	Immunization - Measles coverage	—	Immunization, DPT (% of children ages 12-23 months) Immunization, measles (% of children ages 12-23 months)	—	—	

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database</i>	<i>OECD Health Database</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
HIV education	—	Proportion of 15-49 year-olds who have comprehensive knowledge of HIV	—	—	—	—	Global Minimum Set indicates that: These data are collected through household surveys, such as Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) and Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), reproductive and health surveys, and behavioural surveillance surveys. The results are reported regularly in the final reports of these surveys. In addition most data are available at http://www.measuredhs.com/hivdata

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database</i>	<i>OECD Health Database</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Contraception and family planning	—	<p>Condom use at last high-risk sex</p> <p>Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate</p> <p>Contraceptive prevalence rate (any method, condom, modern methods)</p> <p>Percentage of female and male sex workers reporting the use of a condom with their most recent client</p> <p>Percentage of men who used a condom the last time they had sex with a male partner</p> <p>Percentage of young people 15-24 who had more than one sexual partner in the past 12 months reporting the use of a condom during their last sexual intercourse.</p> <p>Proportion of young people aged 15-24 years with multiple partners who used a condom at last sex</p> <p>Percentage of young people aged 15-24 years who say they used a condom the last time they had sex with a non-marital, non-cohabiting partner, of those who have had sex with such a partner in the last 12 months</p>	Contraceptive prevalence (%)	<p>Contraceptive prevalence (% of women ages 15-49)</p> <p>Female adults with HIV (% of population ages 15+ with HIV)</p> <p>Met need for contraception (% of married women ages 15-49)</p> <p>Unmet need for contraception (% of married women ages 15-49)</p>	Contraceptive use among currently married women aged 15-49 (%), any method	—	<p>The global minimum refer to UN Population Division “Data are produced from nationally representative surveys including the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), the Fertility and Family Surveys (FFS), the CDC-assisted Reproductive Health Surveys (RHS), the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) and national family planning, or health, or household, or socio-economic surveys. Survey data from sources other than the National Statistical system are included when other data are not available”.</p>
Adolescent births	—	—	—	—	% of all live births to mothers, age under 20 years	—	—

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>WHO European Health for All Database</i>	<i>OECD Health Database</i>	<i>Other sources</i>
Malaria and other disease treatment	—	Proportion of children aged 0-59 months with fever receiving anti-malarial medicines same day/next day					
		Proportion of population in malaria risk areas using effective malaria prevention measures					
		Proportion of population in malaria risk areas using effective malaria treatment measures	—	—	Tuberculosis incidence per 100,000 by sex	—	—
		Proportion of under-five children sleeping under a mosquito net					
Other indicators	—	Proportion of under-five children with diarrhoea receiving oral rehydration and continued feeding					
		Children under age five sleeping under insecticide-treated net, male and female and ratio of male to female	—	—	—	—	—

A.3.3 Consideration of indicators by topic

A.3.3.1 Health status

A.3.3.1.1 Life expectancy

170. Life expectancy has limitations as an indicator of health status. It does not reflect certain aspects of well-being such as quality of life years, and growing recognition of healthy life expectancy has been the feature of health policy among developed nations (e.g. MIPAA, EU indicators for the Beijing Platform for Action). Life expectancy is also not exclusively tied to providing background information on health. For instance, life expectancy could help understand patterns in paid work for women in the economy domain, or the longer life expectancy of females may have implications for women in the poverty domain. Therefore, life expectancy is included as a demographic indicator in section A.12.

A.3.3.1.2 Healthy life expectancy / healthy life years

171. Although men and women may be living longer than ever before, morbidity and other conditions may reduce the quality of life of the extra years gained. The EU indicators for the BPA identify healthy life years as an indicator and data in the European Commission's HEIDI data tool are available for EU countries at birth and at age 65 going back as far as 1995³⁸.

172. Data on healthy life expectancy is available from the WHO's global health observatory. Latest data for 2002 has very good coverage (192 WHO member states) and is presented at age birth and at age 60. WHO anticipates this will be available on a five-yearly frequency.

173. With the absence of a suitable disability rate indicator (see section A.3.3.1.7), it is suggested that healthy life years form a headline indicator reflecting health status. While it may only cover EU countries it appears to be a more regular and reliable indicator that has agreement and comparability between countries³⁹.

A.3.3.1.3 Causes of mortality

174. A wide variety of causes of mortality information is readily accessible across UNECE countries, and the challenge is to select those indicators with gender relevance for the UNECE region.

175. MDG indicators identify causes associated with malaria and tuberculosis. Deaths from tuberculosis exist in WHO and OECD databases only, while an indicator on deaths associated with malaria could not be identified in either the UNECE, WHO or OECD database lists of causes. However, these indicators lack relevance to the UNECE region.

176. The EU indicators for the BPA identify cardio-vascular diseases comprising of coronary heart disease (CHD), stroke and other CHD as relevant indicators. Data on cerebrovascular, ischaemic heart disease and circulatory system diseases are readily available in the UNECE, WHO and OECD databases that are a good fit for the EU indicators on the BPA and would make useful supporting indicators that fit this description.

177. Maternal mortality, mentioned in the global minimum and the MDG indicators, is discussed under section A.3.3.1.5.

³⁸ http://ec.europa.eu/health/indicators/indicators/index_en.htm

³⁹ http://apps.who.int/gho/indicatorregistry/App_Main/view_indicator.aspx?iid=66
and <http://apps.who.int/ghodata/>

178. The Global Minimum Set acknowledges the need for an indicator on mortality by cause, but this varies from country to country. Nevertheless, there are several causes with very clear and consistent gender inequality that has information are readily available (e.g. UNECE database) that would also make useful supporting indicator inclusion - namely: suicides, motor vehicle accidents, external causes of injury and poisoning and accidents.

A.3.3.1.4 Infant mortality

179. Given the abundance of information on infant mortality (infants aged less than one year) and the identified policy relevance it is suggested to include this as a supporting indicator.

180. The notes on the availability of under-five mortality rates (U5MR) from the report on the Global Minimum Set state the following:

“Current estimates of U5MR are generally based on empirical data from several or even many years before. Vital registration data are available on a yearly basis but often are published at the country level with a lag of two or more years. Unfortunately, vital statistics are unreliable in most developing countries. Population censuses are regularly conducted every 10 years and results are published within one to three years after the population count. Household surveys, such as DHS and MICS, are in general implemented every 3-5 years with results published within a year of field data collection. On average, the most recent U5MR estimates from household surveys refer to 2.5 years before the time of the survey or 3.5 years at the moment of publication of findings.”⁴⁰

A.3.3.1.5 Maternal mortality

181. Maternal mortality rate is available in several databases and features prominently in the international agreements. It is included as a supporting indicator.

A.3.3.1.6 HIV/AIDS

182. Prevalence indicators of HIV/AIDS feature in the global minimum and MDG indicator frameworks. The global minimum specifies this indicator for women aged 15-49, while the MDG refers to the prevalence among the population aged 15-24 years. GenderInfo and GenderStats databases have information on the prevalence of HIV/AIDS among the population aged 15-24 years and would be particularly useful supporting indicator data for some UNECE regions where reducing HIV/AIDS is an important policy goal. It is suggested as a supporting indicator for health status.

A.3.3.1.7 Disability

183. A review of the databases could not find a suitable disability rate indicator. Disability adjusted life years may provide some information here; however the indicator on healthy life expectancy seems to cover an aspect of this. Other information on congenital deformities may only provide partial information on disabilities.

⁴⁰ Page 14 of the following document:

<http://www1.unece.org/stat/platform/download/attachments/58491927/UNSD+MinimumGlobalSet+Indicators+Analysis.pdf?version=1&modificationDate=1319534794660>

A.3.3.1.8 Dementia

184. Deaths from dementia are readily available in the OECD database. The MIPAA indicator aims to understand the prevalence of dementia. Men and women with dementia may die from other causes. Therefore it is not proposed to include an indicator for dementia.

A.3.3.1.9 Activity restrictions

185. International data on activity restrictions (identified as an indicator to respond to the MIPAA) could not be located in any databases.

A.3.3.1.10 Other indicators

186. Other indicators identified in the review of source databases include information on disabilities, malnutrition, wasting, foetal/ neonatal/ perinatal deaths, and self-assessed health status.

187. Indicators on disabilities and self-assessed health status have methodological issues in their consistency and collection across UNECE countries. Other indicators are either not relevant for most UNECE countries (malnutrition and wasting) or adequately represented via another indicator (foetal/ neonatal/ perinatal deaths may be adequately represented by antenatal care indicators). It is not proposed to adopt any other indicators identified in the review of data sources.

A.3.3.2 Determinants of health

A.3.3.2.1 Maternal health care

188. Access to reproductive health services are identified under BPA strategic objective C3 and are a MDG target. Antenatal care coverage is listed as a global minimum indicator and a MDG indicator.

189. There are several sources which have an indicator on births attended by skilled health personnel; however, this may not be a comprehensive indicator of antenatal care and may share some relationship with maternal mortality rate that is already included. What seems a more appropriate indicator on the level of care would be antenatal care coverage and the number of visits, which is an indicator available in GenderInfo. However, this information is only available in 13 of the 56 UNECE countries. There may also be questions over the relevance of an indicator on antenatal care in UNECE countries that have universal health care.

A.3.3.2.2 Smoking prevalence

190. Smoking prevalence (tobacco) is generally given as the proportion of people who report smoking every day, and included as a global minimum indicator. While far more men than women smoke (globally speaking), the gender gap appears to be closing as the rate decreases faster for men than women e.g. in OECD countries (OECD, 2006). Reasonable availability of data is apparent across countries in the UNECE database, and it is suggested that smoking prevalence form a headline indicator. There also is a generational aspect to smoking prevalence - with improved education on the negative health outcomes of smoking; it would be worthwhile considering an age breakdown for this indicator.

A.3.3.2.3 Obesity

191. UNECE database features the population by level of Body Mass Index by ages and sex and this indicator features in the Global Minimum Set. Body Mass Index is based on the WHO classification, where adults with a BMI from 25 to 30 are defined as overweight and

those with a BMI of 30 or over are obese. Information is widely available and generally obtained through health surveys. Some data are taken from health examinations (OECD, 2011). The proportion of adults who are overweight or obese is suggested as another headline indicator.

A.3.3.2.4 Access to drugs

192. No gender-specific databases feature information about men or women's access to particular drugs, such as antiretroviral drugs.

A.3.3.2.5 Other indicators

193. Other indicators identified in the review of databases relate to:

- sexual partners;
- underweight prevalence;
- sanitation;
- heavy episodic alcohol consumption, weekly.

194. Underweight prevalence indicators have a focus on children in particular, and this may be partly represented by the infant mortality indicator. It is also something not widely available across all UNECE countries.

195. Sanitation facilities and practices are not available or relevant in most UNECE regions.

196. Alcohol consumption (both heavy episodic and consumption at risky levels) has known health risks. The WHO indicator referring to heavy episodic drinking is available in many UNECE countries (but some data is quite old and comparable years differs country-to-country). But alcohol consumption is not referred to in any indicator frameworks and requires some additional work to determine the most appropriate measure to apply in measuring gender equity. For instance, the European Community Health Indicators Monitoring final report (National Public Health Institute, 2008) describes no operationalization for an indicator on hazardous alcohol consumption.

A.3.3.3 Role of the health system

A.3.3.3.1 Access to health care

197. The BPA reflects a need for equal access to health care, and the MDG targets in particular improving treatment for HIV-positive women. There were not suitable indicators identified to measure any inequality in accessing health care or having unmet health care needs that are widely available and consistent across all UNECE countries. Access to antiretroviral drugs does not appear relevant across all UNECE regions.

198. The GenderStats indicator on personal payment for health insurance only represents 19 UNECE countries. It can be argued that factors such as the nation's public health system may influence this indicator.

199. The EU-SILC indicator on unmet healthcare needs is vaguely defined and may have problems with comparability. The Eurostat website describes the EU-SILC indicator as:

“the share of the population perceiving an unmet need for medical examination or treatment. Reasons include problems of access (could not afford to, waiting list, too far to travel) or other (could not take time, fear, wanted to wait and see, didn't know any

good doctor or specialist, other). Due to cultural differences between countries this indicator should not be used to make international comparisons.”⁴¹

200. Data from this source would also only be available for the EU only.

A.3.3.3.2 Immunisation

201. Immunisation against measles and DPT featured in the review of databases and measles immunisation is a MDG indicator. However, immunisation data available on GenderStats or GenderInfo do not appear to have a gender breakdown, which limits the extent to which they can inform gender equity in this area.

A.3.3.3.3 HIV education

202. HIV/AIDS education initiatives have a strong focus in the BPA and MDG targets. The Global Minimum Set and MDG indicators include an indicator based on 15-24 year olds having comprehensive correct knowledge on HIV/AIDS., Data for only 13 UNECE countries are available at the GenderInfo database and prevalence levels are not high. Nevertheless, a number of UNECE countries have experienced increases in HIV prevalence in recent years. On this basis, we include an indicator on the percentage of 15-24 year olds with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS.

A.3.3.3.4 Contraception and family planning

203. Contraception is mentioned in the BPA text, and contraceptive prevalence features as a global minimum indicator and a MDG indicator (among women who are married or in a union aged 15-49). While this indicator has reasonable coverage among UNECE countries (28 are covered among data sources), this indicator is perhaps limited in its relevance among UNECE countries. It also addresses issues outside of the health domain, such as decisions around fertility and family planning, which would be better represented outside of this domain.

204. Indicators around condom use (at last high-risk sex) are available in less than ten UNECE countries on the GenderInfo database and some data is quite outdated. This indicator also seems to be of more interest for developing countries.

205. Indicators around met and unmet need for contraception identified in the GenderStats database are perhaps the most relevant for UNECE countries among those identified; however, there are issues around the availability of this information across countries. Therefore we recommend an indicator on (legally-induced) abortions per 1000 live births, which is widely available and reflects a clear unmet healthcare need.

A.3.3.3.5 Adolescent births

206. Indicators on adolescent fertility are discussed in the childhood and adolescence concept section.

A.3.3.3.6 Malaria and other disease treatment

207. Recognised indicator for MDG 6, malaria treatment data for children under 5 is available from GenderInfo; however this is largely restricted to developing countries and not a policy priority area for most UNECE regions. Similarly, the indicators on children aged under-five sleeping under a mosquito net and children aged under-five with diarrhoea

⁴¹ <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&plugin=1&language=en&pcode=tsdph270>

receiving oral rehydration and continued feeding were mostly restricted to developing countries and not highly suitable for UNECE regions.

A.3.3.3.7 Other indicators

208. An indicator for children under age five sleeping under insecticide-treated net was also noticed in the review of available sources, however has limited data only available in developing countries and is not a priority for most UNECE regions.

A.3.4 Proposed indicators

209. Table A.3-IV summarises the gender equality indicators that are proposed for the health domain for UNECE countries. Where applicable, these indicators should be calculated by sex.

Table A.3-IV

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Health Status				
3.1	Healthy life years at birth	European Commission, HEIDI	—	C1, C2
3.1.1	Causes of mortality (death rate): • cerebrovascular disease • ischaemic heart disease • circulatory system disease • suicides • motor vehicle accidents • external causes of injury • poisoning and accidents by age group ⁴²	UNECE database	42	
3.1.2	Infant mortality rate	UNECE database	—	
3.1.3	Maternal mortality rate	GenderStats	34	
3.1.4	Prevalence of HIV/AIDS, 15-24 year olds	GenderInfo; GenderStats	Similar to 39	
Determinants of health				
3.2	Smoking prevalence ³⁶	UNECE database	37	C2
3.2.1	Smoking prevalence , by age group	UNECE database	37	C2
3.3	Proportion of adults overweight or obese ³⁶	UNECE database; GenderInfo; GenderStats	38	C2

⁴² Indicators, particularly those around mortality are often age standardised by national statistical offices, which is a technique used on an indicator to improve comparison of populations where the age profiles are quite different. This is particularly important for indicators that are more pronounced in particular age groups, such as some types of causes of death. Age standardised measures would improve comparability across countries; however performing this technique may not be possible for many UNECE countries to perform. The recommendation is where it is relevant and possible to perform age standardisation on health indicators in addition to presenting data by age groupings, but where this is not possible then data should be presented by age groupings.

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
3.3.1	Proportion of adults overweight or obese, by age group	UNECE database; GenderInfo; GenderStats	38	C2
Role of the health system				
3.4.1	Percentage of 15-24 year olds with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS	GenderInfo	—	C2, C3
3.4.2	Legally-induced abortions per 1000 live births	UNECE database	—	C3

210. Since these indicators figure in existing indicator sets, their definition can be obtained from the metadata available from the corresponding websites.

A.4 Violence

A.4.1 Introduction

A.4.1.1 Policy background

211. The Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (Istanbul Convention 2011)⁴³ is based on the understanding that violence against women is a form of gender-based violence that is committed against women because they are women. It underlines that it is an obligation of the state to fully address it in all its forms and to take measures to prevent violence against women, protect its victims and prosecute the perpetrators. It also points out that men and children, as well as the elderly can also be victims of violence in the household.

212. To estimate the true dimensions of the phenomenon and the volume, prevalence and incidence of violence, it is important to define and elaborate indicators to study and reveal violence.

213. The United Nations defined gender base violence as “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 private life” (United Nations, 1993). Experts underline that the Secretary-General’s study addresses, inter alia, the following forms of violence against women: intimate partner violence; harmful traditional practices, including female genital mutilation/cutting, female infanticide and prenatal sex selection, early marriage, forced marriage, dowry-related violence, crimes against women committed in the name of “honour”, maltreatment of widows; femicide; sexual violence by non-partners; sexual harassment and violence in the workplace, educational institutions and in sport; and trafficking in women (United Nations, 2004) (United Nations, 2006) (United Nations, 2006).

214. Not all these forms are easy to investigate and not all of these forms are present in all countries. Therefore, as a common starting point, physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence were identified as areas to be addressed through indicators that measure the scope, prevalence, frequency, intensity and severity of violence. Collecting these indicators is a concrete step in developing policies aimed at stopping and preventing violence against women.

215. The collection of these indicators should be accompanied by capacity building and institutional development, focused in particular on the national statistical offices and their role in the collection of data on violence against women. National Statistical Systems play a crucial role in providing and improving data to measure the scope, prevalence and frequency of violence against women and men. They can develop and maintain a sustainable statistical system, able to regularly produce and disseminate proper data on violence against women.

216. Given the sensitivity of the subject area, advocacy of the importance of such data collections are an important part of such capacity building, as well as demonstration of the feasibility of addressing the violence phenomenon and support through guidelines and knowledge sharing in building up their own statistical capabilities.

217. Studying violence, and above all the hidden violence phenomenon, is possible only thanks to victimization survey-based statistics, since many women do not report violence to

⁴³ Council of Europe Convention , 12 April 2001.

any agency and only such surveys give a reliable representation of the extent of violence against women.

218. Statistical offices can choose between a dedicated survey or a module regarding violence attached preferably to a health or demographic survey, according to their statistical capabilities and funding arrangements. It is not possible to use data from administrative statistics, in order to study violence, such as police or court statistics, because they are affected by high levels of non-reporting. In particular, data on rape and sexual assault are very much affected by the problem of non-reporting, with the only exemption for homicide. For example, in Italy less than ten per cent of cases of rape are reported to the authority. Furthermore, an increase in reported violence does not necessarily correspond to an increase in the underlying phenomenon, but could be related to changes in cultural habits, in violence awareness and in progress in boosting women's reporting and disclosing.

A.4.1.2 Existing frameworks

219. In 2007, an expert group composed by United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women, the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, the United Nations Statistical Division and some experts from various countries started to develop indicators aimed at studying the prevalence and incidence of violence. Subsequently, the group of the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission on Statistical Indicators on Violence against Women was constituted in 2008 with the aim of defining and recommending indicators on violence against women, to be developed at UN level⁴⁴.

220. The group defined core and optional indicators. The core indicators relate to the issues of physical violence, sexual violence, domestic violence, economic violence, psychological violence and female genital mutilation.

221. Indicators concerning physical violence, sexual violence, and domestic violence separately consider the reference periods of the last 12 months, and within the person's lifetime so far (asked from age 15 years); they are also articulated in terms of the relationship to the perpetrator, severity, frequency.

222. To better define domestic violence, two indicators regarding economic and psychological violence in intimate partnership, concerning the last twelve months, were added. These are very important because they contribute to a holistic view of domestic violence, but also because they are a very good predictor of physical violence.

223. The core indicators are detailed as follows:

- i. Total and age specific rate of women subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency
- ii. Total and age specific rate of women subjected to physical violence during lifetime by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency
- iii. Total and age specific rate of women subjected to sexual violence in the last 12 months by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency
- iv. Total and age specific rate of women subjected to sexual violence during lifetime by severity of violence, relationship to the perpetrator and frequency

⁴⁴ The United Nations Statistical Commission has created a Friends of the Chair group on violence against women indicators (FoC), currently comprising representatives from 14 countries. This is an advisory group to UNSD in their work on defining indicators and developing guidelines on measuring violence against women, mandated by the United Nations Statistical Commission.

- v. Total and age specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months by frequency
- vi. Total and age specific rate of ever-partnered women subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner during lifetime by frequency
- vii. Total and age specific rate of women subjected to psychological violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner
- viii. Total and age specific rate of women subjected to economic violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner
- ix. Total and age specific rate of women subjected to female genital mutilation

A.4.2 Data availability

224. At the moment, little comparable data are available. Many countries have their own survey and many of them are similar from the methodological point of view. Nevertheless, the lack of consistency between sources of data creates obstacles for international comparison. For example, statistics on homicides are available in the UNECE Gender Database, but information related to the victim-perpetrator relationship is unavailable for many countries.

225. From a methodological point of view many considerations have to be addressed, including which kind of survey is the best to be used (a dedicated statistical survey versus a module, preferably attached to a health or demographic survey), how to design the questionnaire and questions, what helps to encourage disclosure, safety and ethical considerations. The United Nations Statistics Division has published guidelines that will address some of these issues (United Nations, 2013).

226. One source of data which would merit further investigation is the study undertaken by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2014)⁴⁵, as this data could potentially be used as a source for a number of the indicators proposed. However, further methodological examination of the data is required to assess the cross-country comparability of the underlying data. Of particular interest is the counter-intuitive finding that countries with higher gender equality⁴⁶ also tend to have higher prevalence of violence according to the surveys conducted for this study. It is understood that the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) plans to examine the survey microdata to assess its quality. Other methodological concerns

A.4.2.1.1 The definition of gender-based violence

227. As a starting point it is important to define what gender related violence is.

228. Gender is a conceptual category that refers to social relations between men and women, not to men or women in general but to the relationship between them and the way this is socially constructed. This means, for instance, that not all violence suffered by men and women has to be included in the indicators. The violence that should be represented in the data is the violence that is a consequence of different power relationships between men and women. For example, not all homicides and physical assaults are gender oriented, for instance assaults deriving from thefts or robberies, or homicides deriving from organized crimes should not be included. This problem relates to the definition of the victim-perpetrator relationship.

⁴⁵ The underlying data is available at <http://fra.europa.eu/DVS/DVT/vaw.php>

⁴⁶ Based on the EU Gender Equality Index (EIGE, 2013)

A.4.2.1.2 The definition of intimate partner relationship

229. An intimate partnership is considered to be any kind of current or former relationship (it can be officially recognised or unofficial).

230. A current partner is a husband/wife, a living together man/woman, a boyfriend/girlfriend, any man/woman with whom the woman/man has a relationship.

231. A former partner is an ex-husband/wife (divorced spouse), an ex-coresidential partner, an ex- fiancé, any man/woman with whom the woman/man had a relationship.

A.4.3 Consideration of indicators by topic

A.4.3.1 Physical violence

232. Surveying violence requires careful selection of the most suitable questions, their wording and sequencing, to guarantee valid estimates. To help disclosure, the best way is to ask about behaviours, asking them through different questions, one for each violence form, organized in a screening, where questions are ranked from the lowest to the highest severity.

233. The list should not be exhaustive or closed-ended, as country specific types of violence need to be incorporated as distinct modalities. In that context, the wording of the modalities requires careful consideration due to linguistic and other peculiarities.

234. As an example for physical violence, the United Nations Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women (United Nations, 2013) recommends the following minimum list of violent acts:

- Slapping her
- Throwing something at her that could hurt
- Pushing or shoving or pulling her hair
- Hitting her with something
- Hitting her with fists or other objects
- Kicking, biting or dragging her
- Beating her
- Choking or burning her
- Threatening her with a knife, gun or other weapon
- Using a knife, gun or other weapon against her
- Other (leave open for the respondent to specify)

A.4.3.2 Sexual violence

235. For sexual violence, the same approach as for physical violence can be adopted, in terms of listing individual acts of sexual violence rather than attempting to develop a general definition. The following minimum list is recommended (United Nations, 2013), although it is also recommended that this list should be expanded, depending on the specific country context:

(a) Rape: Refers to engaging in the non-consensual vaginal, anal or oral penetration of a sexual nature of the body of another person with any bodily part or object, including through the use of physical violence and by putting the victim in a situation where she cannot say no or complies because of fear;

(b) Attempted rape: Refers to attempting to have non-consensual sexual intercourse through the use of force or threats;

(c) Other sexual acts: Refers to:

- Intimate touching without consent
- Sexual acts other than intercourse forced by money
- Sexual acts other than intercourse obtained through threats of physical violence
- Sexual acts other than intercourse obtained through threats to the well-being of family members
- Use of force or coercion to obtain unwanted sexual acts or any sexual activity that the female partner finds degrading or humiliating
- Other acts of sexual violence

A.4.3.3 *Psychological violence*

236. Psychological violence includes a range of behaviours that encompass acts of emotional abuse and controlling behaviour. These often coexist with acts of physical and sexual violence by intimate partners and are acts of violence in themselves. Studies have shown that the use of multiple types of psychological violence is associated with an increased risk of physical and sexual violence against female partners and can have serious impacts on such women, regardless of whether or not other types of violence occurred.

237. Examples of behaviours that fall within the definition of psychological violence include the following (United Nations, 2013):

(a) Emotional abuse:

- Insulting her or making her feel bad about herself
- Belittling or humiliating her in front of other people
- Deliberately scaring or intimidating her
- Threatening to hurt her or others she cares about

(b) Controlling behaviour:

- Isolating her by preventing her from seeing family or friends
- Monitoring her whereabouts and social interactions
- Ignoring her or treating her indifferently
- Getting angry if she speaks with other men
- Making unwarranted accusations of infidelity
- Controlling her access to health care
- Controlling her access to education or the labour market

238. Owing to concerns about the reliability of reports of psychological violence over the duration of a relationship, it is recommended that information collected on this form of violence should be limited to the past 12 months. It is further recommended that experience of psychological violence should be limited to psychological violence perpetrated by current and former intimate partners.

239. .

A.4.3.4 *Economic violence*

240. Economic violence is said to occur when an individual denies their intimate partner access to financial resources, typically as a form of abuse or control or in order to isolate them or to impose other adverse consequences to their well-being (based on the definition in (United Nations, 2013)).

241. Some examples of economic violence include denying access to financial resources resulting in adverse consequences to the wellbeing of the woman, denying access to property and durable goods, deliberate non-compliance of the intimate partner regarding economic responsibilities, such as alimony or financial support for the family, thereby resulting in considerable exposure of the victim to poverty and hardship, denying access to the labour market and education, denying participation in decision-making relevant to economic status.

242. The above examples should be considered illustrative only. Psychological and economic violence, in particular, can vary significantly according to cultural context and country circumstances and should be developed with this in mind. As with data on psychological violence, the collection of data on economic violence should be limited to the past 12 months in order to avoid problems related to the ability to accurately recall events.

A.4.3.5 *Perpetrator-victim relationship*

243. Violence indicators are articulated by kind of perpetrator. Although the United Nations Guidelines for Producing Statistics on Violence against Women (United Nations, 2013) recommend several categories of perpetrator, for the sake of developing a concise set of indicators, we recommend only the main overarching categories of intimate partner and non-partner. The definition of intimate partner should be subject to national circumstances, but it includes both the current partner (husband, cohabitant, boyfriend, fiancé) and the former partner (ex-husband, ex-cohabitant, ex-boyfriend). A non-partner is defined as any other men apart from a partner. He could be an unknown person as well as a known one: a relative, a parent, a colleague, a neighbour.

244. It is important to collect data on this topic with the aim of establishing the power relationship that exists between aggressor and victim. Violence suffered, its frequency and severity, varies very much according to the perpetrator typology.

A.4.3.6 *Severity*

245. Severity of a given violent act can be perceived differently by victims depending on the perpetrator. Following that, it is not recommended to assign a severity level to individual acts of violence and it would be preferable to assess the topic of severity by developing a scale based on consequences suffered by the victim. Violence consequences can be either physical or emotional and can have a deep impact on everyday life.

246. Unfortunately, there is not a single indicator to represent severity, so multiple variables are required. Between them, injuries suffered and type of injuries are very important, as well as the perception of own life in danger, having fear of partner, the victim's incapability to lead her daily life as a result of violence. Furthermore, some acts, such as rape, attempts to strangle or suffocate, to be burned or scalded on purpose or the use or threatened use of a knife or gun, are severe by themselves.

A.4.3.7 *Frequency*

247. The frequency of physical violence carries a different weight depending of the recollection period and the perpetrator. Violence from unknown people often happens only once, while intimate partner violence is usually very frequent.

248. In the case of the experience of physical violence in the last 12 months, frequency should ideally consist of counting each individual violent act that the victim suffered in that period. However, the available studies and research shows that counting individual events presents considerable difficulties. For this reason, the question should not ask for the exact

count, but should instead allow categorisation of responses into the categories of every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month. For violence experienced in the lifetime, frequency refers to a different count, allowing the less precise approximation, such as once, few times, many times.

A.4.3.8 Female genital mutilation

249. The United Nations Statistical Commission decided to include female genital mutilation amongst the core indicators. Because female genital mutilation is an extreme form of physical, sexual and psychological violence, the meeting decided that it is convenient to distinguish it as an independent indicator. At the same time, the Friends of the Chair group recognized that the dedicated surveys for violence against women are not an adequate means of data collection on this topic, but the demographic and health surveys are better suited for the task.

A.4.3.9 Femicide

250. Homicide is unique amongst crimes that are not under-estimated in, administrative data (from police and court registers) that are very useful sources in order to study homicide. Experts state that homicides statistics are relatively easy to compare. They cover almost the universe of cases and they are more comparable between countries, less affected by investigation procedures, statistical system and penal code differences. Not all homicides are gender-based, and therefore not all homicides have to be considered for our scope, not for instance homicides related to organized crimes or homicides that are the consequence of a theft or a robbery. However, since it is not an easy issue to define what a gender related homicide is and due to the difficulty in understanding the victim-author relationship, we suggest considering only those homicides in intimate partnership.

A.4.4 Proposed indicators

251. The scope of the Task force on gender statistics includes core indicators on both males and females.

252. Whilst the work of the different United Nations expert groups focused on measuring violence against women (rather than both men and women), this new aim leads us to consider the importance of selecting those indicators that measure violence against both genders and that allow identification of the extent and profile of violence suffered by women and men respectively.

253. Studies carried out on violence suffered by women and men underline that both of them suffer violence (Statistics Canada, 2005) (Home Office, 2011). Whilst prevalence rates are indeed not so different between men and women, data on the incidence and consequences show a very diverse picture as studies have pointed out. The percentage of women suffering injuries and serious injuries as a consequence of violence, who felt their life in danger because of violence, who took time off from their everyday activities because of the violence is much higher. Furthermore, for those women who were in partnerships, violence tended to happen or increased after the separation, while for men this is a very rare situation. This confirms the idea that it is quite important to focus on indicators on severity and on frequency in order to better measure domestic violence for both men and women.

254. The following minimum set of indicators is proposed for measuring violence against women and men, taking into account the work of the Friends of the Chair group (FOC)⁴⁴ and the UNECE expert group⁴⁷ as well as the context of the UNECE region.

⁴⁷ The development and testing of a short survey module to measure violence against women is part of a United Nations Development Account project on “enhancing capacities to eradicate violence against women through networking of local knowledge communities”. This project is being implemented by all five United Nations Regional Commissions, in cooperation with the United Nations Statistical Division (UNSD) and the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (UNDAW).

Table A.4-I

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Physical violence				
4.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months	Violence survey required	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2
4.1.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence in the last 12 months, by frequency (every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month), severity and relationship to perpetrator	Violence survey required	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2
4.2.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to physical violence during lifetime, by frequency (once, few times, many times), severity and relationship to perpetrator	Violence survey required	—	D1, D2
Sexual violence				
4.3	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual violence in the last 12 months	Violence survey required	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2
4.3.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual violence in the last 12 months, by frequency (every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month), severity and relationship to perpetrator			
4.4.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual violence during lifetime, by frequency (once, few times, many times), severity and relationship to perpetrator	Violence survey required	—	D1, D2
Psychological and economic violence				
4.5.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to psychological violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner	Violence survey required	—	D1, D2
4.6.1	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to economic violence in the past 12 months by the intimate partner	Violence survey required	—	D1, D2
Violence by the partner				
4.7	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months	Violence survey required	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2
4.7.1	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner in the last 12 months, by frequency (every day or nearly every day, once or twice a week, once or twice a month, less than once a month)	Violence survey required	Similar to 48, 49	D1, D2

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
4.8.1	Rate of ever-partnered women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence by current or former intimate partner during lifetime, by frequency (once, few times, many times)	Violence survey required	—	D1, D2
4.9	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, killed by a current or a former partner in the last 12 months	Administrative sources	—	D1, D2
Under reporting				
4.10	Rate of women/men aged 15-49 years, subjected to sexual and/or physical violence who did not report the crime to the authorities/to the police	Violence survey required	—	D2
Violence in childhood				
4.11.1	Rate of women/men aged 16-49 years, subjected to sexual violence in childhood (occurring before sixteen years old)	Violence survey required	—	D1, D2

A.5 Economy

A.5.1 Introduction

255. This section of the report deals with issues related to gender and the economy, whilst section A.1 deals with measurement of poverty.

A.5.1.1 *Policy background – Beijing Platform for Action*

256. The Economy domain as defined in the Beijing Platform for Action (BPA) addresses gender equality in the context of work, but also in relation to constraints between work and family life. It defines the following Strategic Objectives:

- F1. Promote women's economic rights and independence, including access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over economic resources;
- F2. Facilitate women's equal access to resources, employment, markets and trade;
- F3. Provide business services, training and access to markets, information and technology, particularly to low-income women;
- F4. Strengthen women's economic capacity and commercial networks;
- F5. Eliminate occupational segregation and all forms of employment discrimination;
- F6. Promote harmonization of work and family responsibilities for women and men.

A.5.1.2 *Gender issues⁴⁸*

A.5.1.2.1 Labour force participation

257. Promoting gender equality in employment is widely recognized as an essential component of economic and social development and a key mechanism to combat poverty. It is also an important factor contributing to the economic empowerment of women in their families and communities, and in society at large. Women's employment increases their contribution to household resources and their control over the allocation of those resources. This leads to greater economic independence and self-determination, which are both important for women's empowerment.

258. Women's labour market participation is rising in most countries, but remains lower than men's. The frequently mentioned factors of this gender difference include the following:

- Inflexible working conditions (e.g. working hours that are not compatible with family responsibilities or with the need to breastfeed at work);
- Non-availability of part-time work;
- Unequal sharing of family responsibilities, particularly of domestic work and care provision to children, or to sick or frail family members;
- Stereotypes of gender roles and other gender-related attitudes;
- Women's stronger engagement in unpaid work in family enterprises;
- Difficulty in re-entering the labour market after pregnancy.

A.5.1.2.2 Employment

259. Inequalities in employment could be related to the following issues:

⁴⁸ This section is based on (United Nations; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, World Bank Institute, 2010)

- Occupational segregation – men are often concentrated in higher-status occupations;
- Women are often paid less than men, both on a monthly and hourly basis. This phenomenon, known as the gender pay gap, can be linked to a number of factors, such as type of occupation and lower pay for part-time workers;
- Discrimination in hiring, remuneration, retention, promotion, or horizontal mobility practices;
- Women may face unfavourable work conditions in relation to the following areas:
 - working hours (e.g. long working hours);
 - health and safety;
 - sexual harassment;
 - job security;
 - social security.

260. BPA refers separately to paid and unpaid, informal and formal employment. This indicates that each of these would need to be considered to get a full appreciation of the scope of women's economic activity, especially given that some types of work may not be routinely measured by labour force surveys.

261. Informal employment is a primary source of livelihood for many people, particularly women. Because workers in informal employment are not fully covered by formal labour arrangements, they lack protection, rights and representation. Moreover, women are concentrated in the more precarious types of informal employment and the average earnings from these types of informal employment are low (Chen, et al., 2005).

A.5.1.2.3 Entrepreneurship

262. Entrepreneurship is an important factor in the national economy for creating and increasing employment opportunities and fuelling economic growth and innovation (OECD, 2006). Men are more likely to be involved in entrepreneurial activity than women, and this gender gap is greatest in the high-income country group (Allen, Langowitz, & Minniti, 2006). A significant gender gap exists for both early stage entrepreneurial participation and established business ownership. Women's business is mainly concentrated in the areas of small-scale entrepreneurship, which primarily includes retail and services.

263. It is difficult to translate the concept of entrepreneurship into gender-sensitive statistical measures using existing data collections. It is necessary to change the focus of the data from the characteristics of the enterprises to the characteristics of the people managing/owning the enterprises, including sex. Elements of the entrepreneurial role may be split across shareholders, directors and other senior staff, making it difficult to determine the impact of gender on entrepreneurship.

264. Entrepreneurship of women can enable them to generate economic rewards as an alternative to other forms of employment, especially where they are unfavourable to women. Entrepreneurship influences the number of self-employed women, and small/medium size businesses owned by women. There are a number of prerequisites to being involved in entrepreneurship or starting a business, which can include access to credit, technology and natural resources, depending on the sort of business involved. Another important factor is how favourable the business environment is to small businesses.

A.5.1.2.4 Unpaid work

265. Labour statistics capture only one part of the work life of women and men. A range of non-remunerated productive activities in the home and community have great importance for the well-being of families and communities, and for the overall production of the economy. Among others, the Stiglitz Commission recommended to broaden income measures to non-market activities (Stiglitz, Sen, & Fitoussi, 2009).

266. World-wide, women tend to be employed for fewer hours in employment than men, even in places where women's labour force participation rates are similar to those of men. This pattern is largely a result of the fact that women tend to have more domestic roles and responsibilities than men. In particular, women tend to perform the bulk of the unpaid care work, spending in general more time on unpaid work than on employment, while it is the opposite for men. However, because the SNA places these activities outside of its production boundary, they are excluded from the scope of employment statistics. As a result, a significant component of women's work remains invisible and their full contribution to the economy is often undervalued in national accounts.

267. Currently, only volunteer work that leads to the production of goods and services for market enterprises or for non-profit enterprises receiving fees is considered within the scope of the SNA production boundary. This results in the exclusion from employment measures of a broad range of productive activities performed by women and men on a voluntary basis. Little effort has gone into measurement of these despite the enormous scale of such work and the contributions they make to the economy and to the quality of life in countries everywhere (far more significant than currently recognized).

A.5.1.2.5 Work-life balance

268. As yet, the concept of co-responsibility within households for unpaid household service work (that includes caring for children) is far from widely implemented. Women are most often faced with difficulties to balance paid work time, family time (burden vs. co-responsibility) and free time. This family time is therefore a major constraint on women's participation in the labour force, since it is women who do most of the unpaid care work. While women's employment rates are generally lower than men's, the extent and form of their participation is highly connected to whether they have small children or other persons requiring care in their households. This is not the case for men. In fact, in most of Europe, women without children have higher employment rates than women with children, while the opposite is true for men (Eurostat, 2005). Lack of institutional arrangements such as childcare services, leave facilities and stable labour contracts are an obstacle for women to participate fully in the labour market.

269. Domestic work and care activities are often undertaken more by women, than by men. Of particular concern is that women's increased participation in work has not been matched by a reduction in unpaid household work.

A.5.1.3 Existing indicator frameworks

A.5.1.3.1 Global Minimum Set

270. The Global Minimum Set of Gender Indicators contains a domain "Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources" with the following indicators relevant to the Economy domain:

- Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic work, by sex (Note: separate housework and child care if possible);

- Average number of hours spent on paid and unpaid work combined (total work burden), by sex;
- Labour force participation rates for persons aged 15-24 and 15+, by sex;
- Proportion of employed who are own-account workers, by sex;
- Proportion of employed who are working as contributing family workers, by sex;
- Proportion of employed who are employers, by sex;
- Percentage of firms owned by women;
- Percentage distribution of employed population by sector, each sex;
- Informal employment as a percentage of total non-agricultural employment, by sex;
- Youth unemployment, by sex;
- Proportion of population with access to credit, by sex;
- Proportion of adult population owning land, by sex;
- Gender gap in wages;
- Proportion of employed working part-time, by sex;
- Employment rate of persons aged 25-49 with a child under 3 living in a household and with no children living in the household, by sex;
- Proportion of children under age 3 in formal care.

A.5.1.3.2 EU Indicators for the Beijing Platform for Action

271. The EU Indicator framework for the BPA considered the topic Women in the economy (Reconciliation of work and family life) in 2000, and proposed the following indicators:

- Employed men and women on parental leave (paid and unpaid) within the meaning of Directive 96/34/EC on the framework agreement between the social partners on parental leave, as a proportion of all employed parents;
- Allocation of parental leave between employed men and women as a proportion of all parental leave;
- Children cared for (other than by the family) as a proportion of all children of the same age group:
 - before entry into the non-compulsory pre-school system (during the day);
 - in the non-compulsory or equivalent pre-school system (outside pre-school hours);
 - in compulsory primary education (outside school hours).
- Comprehensive and integrated policies, particularly employment policies, aimed at promoting a balance between working and family life;
- Dependent elderly men and women (unable to look after themselves on a daily basis) over 75
 - living in specialised institutions;
 - who have help (other than the family) at home;
 - looked after by the family;
 as a proportion of men and women over 75
- Normal opening hours of public services (i.e. local authority offices, post offices, crèches, etc.) during the week and at weekends;
- Normal opening hours of shops during the week and at weekends;
- Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living with a partner, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent:
 - paid working time;

- travelling time;
- basic time spent on domestic work;
- other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults)
- Total "tied" time per day for each employed parent living alone, having one or more children under 12 years old or a dependent:
 - paid working time;
 - travelling time;
 - basic time spent on domestic work;
 - other time devoted to the family (upbringing and care of children and care of dependent adults)

272. In addition to this, the EU Indicator framework for the BPA considered Women in the economy (on equal pay) the following year, and proposed the following indicators:

- Ratio for all employees;
- Ratio for the total sum of wages;
- Ratio for part-time work;
- Ratio by age and education;
- Wage penalties in female-concentrated occupations;
- Breakdown of the hourly wage gap between men and women using the Oaxaca technique;
- Indicator on laws, regulations and measures to combat discrimination and inequalities at work;
- Indicator of the influence of public authorities on wage bargaining;
- Indicator relating to part-time work and temporary career breaks.

A.5.1.3.3 Millennium Development Goals

273. Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 1, Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, identifies the attainment of full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people, as one of its key targets. Goal 3, Promote gender equality and empower women, uses the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector as one of the key indicators to track progress in its attainment.

274. The following indicators relevant to this domain are used for the monitoring of MDGs:

- Employment-to-population ratio (MDG indicator 1.5);
- Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment (1.7);
- Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (3.2).

A.5.1.3.4 UNECE Gender Statistics Database

275. The work and the economy section of the database contains the following data tables:

- labour force by age;
- employment by public and private sector;
- employment by occupation;
- employment by activity, occupation;
- employment by level of education, occupation;
- employment by status in employment;
- employment by full-time and part-time status, measurement;

- employment by age of youngest child;
- employment rate by number of children under 17;
- employment rate by age, marital status;
- unemployment by age;
- youth unemployment by sex, country and year;
- long-term unemployment by sex, country and year;
- economically inactive population by age, reason for inactivity;
- gender pay gap by indicator, country and year.

276. In addition, the Work-life balance section of the database contains the following tables:

- couples by working pattern, age of youngest child;
- employment by age of youngest child;
- employment rate by number of children under 17;
- employment rate by age, marital status;
- child care by indicator;
- time use by activity;
- time use of employed persons by activity;
- time spent in domestic activities by activity;
- free time spent by activity.

277. Some of these items exist in both sections of the database.

A.5.1.3.5 ILO Key Indicators for the Labour Market

278. Mainstreaming of gender in employment policies is among the aims of the International Labour Organization (ILO). ILO makes recommendations about topics that should be contained within Labour Force Surveys. It has produced a set of indicators recommended for monitoring labour markets, called the Key Indicators for the Labour Market (KILM). These indicators do not necessarily focus on areas of gender disparities, but rather on measures of inherent aspects of labour markets (e.g. participation, unemployment, employment, etc.). We include these indicators as background material.

- Labour force participation rate ;
- Employment-to-population ratio;
- Status in employment;
- Employment by sector;
- Employment by occupation;
- Part-time workers;
- Hours of work;
- Employment in the informal economy;
- Unemployment;
- Youth unemployment;
- Long-term unemployment;
- Time-related underemployment;
- Inactivity;
- Educational attainment and illiteracy;
- Average monthly wages;
- Hourly compensation costs;
- Labour productivity;

- Poverty, income distribution and the working poor.

A.5.1.3.6 OECD Gender equality key data

279. The OECD describes women's economic empowerment as being a prerequisite for achieving the Millennium Development Goals, and has a gender initiative project to strengthen gender equality in several areas, including employment and entrepreneurship. The outputs of this project include a final report to the OECD Ministerial Council Meeting⁴⁹.

280. The OECD also has key data indicators⁵⁰, including the following indicators on employment which are most relevant to this domain:

- Labour force participation rate;
- Employment/population ratio by age group;
- Youth unemployment rate, 15-24 years old;
- Employment and Unemployment rate by age group;
- Percentage of employed in part-time employment;
- Percentage of employed in involuntary part-time employment, by age group;
- Full-time equivalent employment rates, 15-64 years old;
- Percentage of employed in temporary employment, by age group;
- Gender wage gap;
- Percentage distribution of the population in employment by aggregate sector;
- Occupational concentration. Minimum number of occupations that account for half the total employment;
- Time spent in unpaid, paid and total work;
- Expected years in retirement;
- Length of maternity leave;

A.5.2 Pre-school enrolment rates, children aged 3 to 5 years old.

Available sources of indicators

281. In considering data availability, it should be mentioned that a primary source of labour data is the Labour Force Survey (LFS), which is undertaken in nearly all UNECE countries⁵¹. Given the comprehensive nature of the LFS with regard to a person's working life, and its near-standardisation across a large number of diverse countries, our preferred approach is to consider how the available variables can be cross-tabulated to gain more detailed insights into gender issues than would be available from dedicated gender indicator databases. This is especially important given the complex nature of work and family, and the lack of certain breakdowns of interest to this field.

282. However, the limitation of such survey data is the sample size limit, which may constrain the level of detail of a cross-tabulation. This in turn depends on the overall sample size, number of different categories into which individuals are to be grouped, and the proportion of individuals that tend to be categorised in each grouping. This is considered in recommending indicators.

283. In addition to the Labour Force Surveys, some other surveys, such as earnings and household budget surveys may be needed. Time use surveys are required to understand work-life balance. Depending on the country concerned, some of the information may be

⁴⁹ <http://www.oecd.org/els/familiesandchildren/50423364.pdf>

⁵⁰ <http://www.oecd.org/gender/equality>

⁵¹ <http://www.ilo.org/dyn/lfsurvey/lfsurvey.home>

sourced from earnings surveys, administrative data on state care provision and benefits and establishment-based surveys of employment and earnings.

284. The EU Labour Force Surveys additionally has a number of ad hoc modules, of which those on the reconciliation of work and family life are the most relevant to this topic⁵².

A.5.3 Considerations for indicator choice by topic

A.5.3.1 Labour force participation

285. From the perspective of economic activity, the fundamental mutually exclusive and exhaustive population groups are the employed, unemployed and inactive, defined by ILO (ILO). The way in which men and women are distributed across these groups form the core of the gender equality indicators related to the economy.

286. First, we consider the ratio between the economically active (employed plus unemployed) and inactive population. We recommend the headline indicator to measure inactivity (rather than its complement, participation), because this indicator can then be broken down by reason for inactivity that we believe is a central aspect for statistical measurement. An individual's ability and opportunity for work varies largely over the life course and the gender differences observed for different age-groups arise from different reasons. We therefore recommend this indicator to focus on the age-groups of 15-24, 25-54 and 55-64, to distinguish the life stages dominated by education and early retirement from the prime working ages. We also propose to use the family context variable as recommended by ILO.

A.5.3.2 Employment

287. The most elemental indicator to represent the employment situation of men and women is the employment rate, which compliments earlier discussion on labour force participation, along with unemployment. For this indicator, the age range of 25 to 64 is chosen to reflect the situation for adults in employment.

A.5.3.2.1 Part-time work and working hours

288. We begin our consideration of gender differences amongst those employed by examining the prevalence of part-time work and how part-time workers differ in terms of labour outcomes of workers. The motivation for this is the prevalence of part-time working amongst women, combined with the difficulty in interpreting the value of part-time work. Based on available data from the UNECE database for 2008, a significant proportion of female workers are part-time, ranging from 30 per cent in Georgia, to 91 per cent in Luxembourg. The Global Minimum Set includes an indicator on the extent of part-time working.

289. It is difficult to judge whether part-time workers represent a disadvantaged group, as the OECD describes a premium to part-time work in terms of control over working time, stress and health (OECD, 2010). However, there are also some penalties to part-time working, such as lower pay. Amongst women, an association exists between motherhood and part-time working (OECD, 2012)

290. This leads to the concern that part-time working could be a confounding factor, and that when indicators are averaged over both full-time and part-time workers, important

⁵² See http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/employment_unemployment_ifs/data/database

information could be hidden. In the case of the gender pay gap, the EU indicators for the BPA separate out part-time workers from full-time.

291. As mentioned above, the interpretation of the benefit of part-time working is not straightforward. It is therefore necessary to include among the supporting indicators the breakdowns by the family context variable. Job availability is a major reason for part-time working for both men and women, whereas care for children or incapacitated adults is predominantly a reason given by females.

292. Furthermore, one of the OECD's key findings is that part-time work is rarely a stepping stone into full-time employment. Whilst the reasons for this are unclear, and could include the presence of flexible working practices (OECD, 2012), it is informative to examine the issue of time-related underemployment, which reflects a person's inability to find employment with longer hours, despite being free to work longer and wishing to do so⁵³. Time-related underemployment is one of the ILO's Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), so should be widely available through the LFS.

293. When expressed as a proportion of part-time workers, time-related underemployment is higher for women than men in many countries. In other words, women appear more likely to be "trapped" in part-time work compared to men in some countries, despite being available to work for longer hours, and wanting to work longer. The reasons for this are not immediately apparent, but one possible explanation might be with regard to the situation where a parent tries to convert their part-time job into a full-time one, once their child is old enough to go to school. It is for this reason that the supporting breakdowns of this indicator are proposed by family context and age of youngest child.

A.5.3.2.2 Status in employment

294. We now consider status in work as a variable to give insight into working conditions. The Global Minimum Set and MDGs have indicators relating to particular breakdowns of work status, such as own-account workers, and contributing family workers, which together comprise vulnerable employment⁵⁴. The Global Minimum Set also concerns employed who are employers. We propose the headline indicator of status in employment with a breakdown by family context.

A.5.3.2.3 Occupational segregation

295. Examining the existing gender indicator frameworks, we see that there are a number of indicators related to horizontal segregation of workers. This phenomenon may mediate gender inequalities where genders may be limited to certain types of work, which may then be subject to different working conditions. The choices that young people make in fields of study perpetuate segregation in labour markets, with women under-represented in the business sector and concentrated in health, welfare, education and administrative areas of work (OECD, 2012).

296. The Global Minimum Set includes an indicator on employment by sector. Additionally, the Global Minimum Set, and MDGs have indicators regarding employment in the non-agricultural sector, with that of the Global Minimum Set specific to informal employment.

⁵³ <http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/statistics-overview-and-topics/underemployment/current-guidelines/lang--en/index.htm>

⁵⁴ http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/features/WCMS_120470/lang--en/index.htm

297. In our opinion, the measure that best summarises the distribution of men and women across occupations is the minimum number of occupations that account for half of the total of employment. This indicator is used by the OECD and we include this in our proposed indicators.

A.5.3.2.4 Gender pay gap

298. Pay is a vitally important aspect of realising benefits from employment, so gender differences in pay are central to evaluating gender equality in a work context. However, it is necessary to consider carefully which measure to use in order to gain the most meaningful indicator. The OECD report that a great part of the gender pay gap is due to women working shorter hours and in lower-paid occupations than men, although in many countries a large part of the gender pay gap remains unexplained by observed characteristics (OECD, 2012). In some countries, such as the Netherlands, the 2008 gender pay gap was actually negative when one considered full-time childless workers, between the ages of 25-44 years (OECD, 2012).

299. Among existing gender indicator frameworks, the Global Minimum Set includes an indicator on the gender pay gap. The EU indicators for the BPA have a whole suite of indicators dedicated to the gender pay gap (as detailed in section A.5.1.3.2), which include hourly and periodic measures of the gender pay gap, along with breakdowns by part-time work, age, education, and occupation. These detailed breakdowns of the gender pay gap mirror papers presented to the 2012 UNECE work session on gender statistics by Israel and Austria, which indicated that a number of associated factors could account for some of the gender pay gap, including hours of work, education, occupation, length of service, age, economic activity and age of youngest child.

300. These factors make it hard to interpret unambiguously the gender pay gap as representing discrimination, and other personal characteristics and labour market differences in terms of career choices may explain differences between men and women (OECD, 2012).

301. We recommend only the gender pay gap measure based on the hourly wage, because the monthly measure can already be constructed from other indicators proposed in this section, so would contain extraneous information. The most important breakdown is by education level.

A.5.3.3 Entrepreneurship

302. Both the Global Minimum Set and OECD indicators of key gender outcomes contain just one common measure of entrepreneurship – the proportion of employed who are employers. However, such an indicator may not be a suitable proxy for entrepreneurship because registered female owners of businesses may not be the real owners of such businesses that they run. Given these difficulties, we do not propose any indicators for this domain at the present time, but instead propose further work in the area of defining gender equality measures for entrepreneurship, as discussed in Section 3.2.4. Such further work should also consider the broader context of asset ownership, wealth and debts.

A.5.3.4 Unpaid work and work-life balance

303. Time use is an important method of examining how the burden of care for children and incapacitated adults, as well as domestic work, is divided between the sexes. It is also relevant to barriers to part-time and full-time working that are related to care and domestic work.

304. The gender difference in total working time (paid and unpaid, including travel time) is close to zero in many countries (OECD, 2012). Therefore, it can be seen that comparisons of the household work time of men and women only makes sense when paid working patterns are accounted for to enable like-for-like comparisons.

305. The biggest change in individuals' time use occurs with the arrival of children (OECD, 2012). This highlights the importance of breaking down time use data by the number of young children, in order to answer question such as whether women who decide to work still have to do a disproportionate amount of housework, compared to their partner.

306. The Global Minimum Set contains indicators on time spent in paid and unpaid work and recommends subdividing housework and childcare. The EU indicators for the BPA have a very detailed set of indicators on time use, focused on those with children under 12 years old or a dependant.

307. We recommend an indicator on formal provision of childcare for children aged from 3 years up to mandatory school age, and a supporting indicator on the proportion of children in formal childcare under age 3 years, to reflect the existence of this indicator in the Global Minimum Set of gender indicators.

A.5.4 Proposed indicators

308. The table below displays the gender equality indicators that are proposed for the economy domain for UNECE countries. All indicators and their breakdowns in this table are to be calculated by sex.

Table A.5-I

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Primary source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Labour force participation				
5.1	Inactivity rate	LFS	3	F1, F2
5.1.1	Inactivity rate, by age	LFS	3	F1, F2
5.1.2	Inactivity rate, by reason for inactivity	LFS	3	F1, F2
5.1.3	Inactivity rate, by family context	LFS	3	F1, F2
Employment				
5.2	Employment rate of 25-64 year-olds	LFS	—	F1, F2
5.2.1	Employment rate of 25-64 year-olds, by sector of the economy	LFS	—	F1, F2
5.2.2	Employment rate of 25-64 year-olds, by family context	LFS	—	F1, F2
5.3	Status in employment (employees, own-account workers, employers and family workers)	LFS	4, 5, 6	F1, F2, F5
5.3.1	Status in employment (employees, own-account workers, employers and family workers), by family context	LFS	4, 5, 6	F1, F2, F5
5.4	Minimum number of occupations that account for half of the total employment	LFS	—	F1, F2, F5
5.5	Hourly gender pay gap	earning/income surveys or other	13	F1, F2

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Primary source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
5.5.1	Hourly gender pay gap, by education	earning/income surveys or other	13	F1, F2
5.6	Proportion of employed working part-time	LFS	14	F1, F2
5.6.1	Proportion of employed working part-time, by age, family context	LFS	14	F1, F2
5.7	Proportion of employed in time-related underemployment ⁵⁵	LFS	—	F1, F2
5.7.1	Proportion of employed in time-related underemployment, by family context and age of youngest child	LFS	—	F1, F2
5.8	Informal employment of workers in the non-agricultural sector	LFS	9	F1, F2, F5
5.8.1	Informal employment of workers in the non-agricultural sector, by family context	LFS	9	F1, F2, F5
5.9	Unemployment rate	LFS	10	F1, F2
5.9.1	Unemployment rate, by age		10	F1, F2
5.9.2	Long-term unemployment	LFS		F1, F2
Unpaid work and work-life balance				
5.10	Proportion of workers working over 50 hours per week (paid work)	LFS or other Working conditions surveys	—	F1, F2, (F5), F6
5.10.1	Proportion of workers working over 50 hours per week (paid work), by family context	LFS or other Working conditions surveys	—	F1, F2, (F5), F6
5.11	Average hours spent in total work (employment and unpaid forms of work)	Time use surveys	2	F1, F2, F6
5.11.1	Average hours spent in total work (employment and unpaid forms of work), by family context	Time use surveys	2	F1, F2, F6
5.12	Average hours spent in own-use production work ⁵⁶	Time use surveys	1	F1, F2, F6
5.12.1	Average hours spent in own-use production work, by family context	Time use surveys	1	F1, F2, F6

⁵⁵ The ILO definition of time-related underemployment can be found at <http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/statistics-overview-and-topics/underemployment/current-guidelines/lang-en/index.htm>

⁵⁶ Comprises production of goods and services for own final use (ICLS, 2013).

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Primary source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
5.13	Employment rate of 25-49 year-olds	LFS	15	F1, F2, F6
5.13.1	Employment rate of 25-49 year-olds, by age of youngest child	LFS	15	F1, F2, F6
5.14	Proportion of children aged 3 to mandatory school age in formal care	National administrative and other sources	—	F1, F2, F6
5.14.1	Proportion of children under age in formal care	National administrative and other sources	16	F1, F2, F6

309. Of the BPA strategic objectives listed in section A.5.1, the objective F3 (on providing business services, training and access to markets, information and technology, particularly to low-income women) does not appear to be covered by the chosen indicators. However, given that this objective is input-related, rather than outcome-related, we are satisfied that no further indicators are required to address this objective.

310. Similarly, objective F4, to strengthen women's economic capacity and commercial networks, is hard to measure statistically, and is not covered, at least directly, by our proposed indicators.

A.5.5 Variables and classifications

311. The variables are defined according to ILO recommendations, such as resolutions from the 13th International Conference on Labour Statistics, October 1982 and the Resolution of the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS, 2013) concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization, and are based on standard classifications of education (ISCED-97), occupation (ISCO-88, ISCO-08), and sector of economy (ISIC).

312. Age: 15-24, 25-54, 55-64

313. Family context:

- Not in a partnership (married or cohabiting), no children under 17;
- Not in a partnership (married or cohabiting), with children under 17;
- In a partnership (married or cohabiting), no children under 17;
- In partnership (married or cohabiting), with children under 17.

314. Sector of the economy. ISIC – International Standard Industrial Classification of all economic activities. As currently used in the UNECE Gender Database:

- A: Agriculture, forestry and fishing;
- B, C, D, E: Manufacturing, mining and quarrying and other industry;
- F: Construction;
- G, H, I: Wholesale and retail trade, transportation and storage, accommodation and food service activities;
- J: information and communication;
- K: Financial and insurance activities;
- L: Real estate activities;
- M, N: Professional, scientific, technical, administration and support service activities;
- O, P, Q: Public administration, defence, education, human health and social work activities;
- R, S, T, U: Other services;

315. Education, ISCED 1st digit level: 0-2, 3-4, 5-6

316. Age of youngest child: below 3, 3-5, 6-16, older, no children

317. Reason for inactivity: study, retirement, home-making, other (including sickness)

318. Indicators from time-use surveys are consistent with the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe Guidelines for Harmonizing Time-Use Surveys (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2013).

A.6 Power and decision-making in society

A.6.1 Introduction

A.6.1.1 Policy background

319. BPA has the following Strategic Objectives for the Power and Decision-making domain:

- G1. Take measures to ensure women's equal access to and full participation in power structures and decision-making;
- G2. Increase women's capacity to participate in decision-making and leadership.

320. The detailed BPA text defines a number of specific areas of importance in terms of the balance of males and females in top-level roles or positions of authority:

- Political or State decision-making;
- Decision-making at local, national, regional and international levels;
- Judiciary;
- Diplomats;
- Political parties, policymakers, trade unions, employer organizations;
- Ministerial positions;
- Candidates nominated for appointment to UN bodies;
- Economic decision-making;
- Representation in the formulation of macro-economic decision-making (from the Poverty section of BPA text);
- Art, culture, sports, media, education and law;
- The private sector, corporations, banks, academic and scientific institutions;
- Other areas.

A.6.1.2 Existing frameworks

321. Existing frameworks for this domain include the Global Minimum Set of Gender Indicators, the EU Indicators for the BPA, and the Millennium Development Goals.

A.6.1.2.1 Global Minimum Set

322. Section IV “Public life and decision-making” of the Global Minimum Set includes the following indicators:

- Women’s share of government ministerial positions;
- Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament;
- Women’s share of managerial positions;
- Percentage of female police officers;
- Percentage of female judges.

A.6.1.2.2 Millennium Development Goals

323. The only MDG indicator relevant to gender in this domain is indicator 3.3: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament. This indicator is also present in the Global Minimum Set of Gender Indicators.

A.6.1.2.3 EU Indicators for the Beijing Platform for Action

324. The EU Indicators are grouped under political and economic decision-making.

325. Women in political decision-making (1999):

- The proportion of women in the single/lower houses of the national/federal Parliaments of the Member States and in the European Parliament;
- The proportion of women in the regional Parliaments of the Member States, where appropriate;
- The proportion of women in the local assemblies of the Member States;
- Policies to enhance balanced participation in political elections;
- The proportion of women of the members of the national/federal Governments and the proportion of women members of the European Commission;
- The number of women and men senior/junior ministers in the different fields of action (portfolios/ministries) of the national/federal governments of the Member States;
- Proportion of the highest ranking women civil servants (after the Minister) of the ministries (appointed, elected or nominated) (central government) and the respective levels in the European Institutions (A1 and A2);
- The distribution of the highest-ranking women civil servants in different fields of action;
- The proportion of women of the members of the Supreme Courts of the Member States and the proportion of women of the members of the European Court of Justice and the Court of First Instance.

326. Women and men in economic decision-making (2003):

- The proportion and number of women and men among:
 - Governors and deputy/vice-governors of the Central Banks;
 - Members of the decision-making bodies of the Central Banks;
 - Ministers and deputy ministers of the Economic Ministries;
 - Presidents and vice-presidents of the Labour Confederations;
 - Members of total governing bodies of the Labour Confederations;
 - Presidents and vice-presidents of the Employer Confederations;
 - Members of total governing bodies of the Employer Confederations;
 - Chiefs of executive boards of the top 50 firms publicly quoted on the national stock exchange;
 - Members of executive boards of the top 50 firms publicly quoted on the national stock exchange.

A.6.2 Available sources of indicators

327. Table A.6-I to Table A.6-III display those indicators that are available from existing online gender databases, grouped against those occupational areas highlighted in section A.6.1.1 on policy background.

A.6.2.1 Political or state decision-making

Table A.6-I

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDGs</i>
At local & regional levels	Members of municipal councils or other local area governing bodies by sex	—	—	—	—
Judiciary	Judges by sex	—	—	—	—
Diplomats	Ambassadors by sex	—	—	—	—
Trade unions	—	—	—	—	—
Employer organisations	—	—	—	—	—
Parliamentarians	Members of national parliament by sex	Women's share of parliamentary seats in single or lower chamber	Women in Parliament (as % of total)	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)	3.3 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
		Women's share of parliamentary seats in upper house or senate			
		Seats held by women in national parliament			
		Seats in national parliament			
		Parliamentary seats in single or lower chamber			
		Parliamentary seats in upper house or senate			
Ministerial positions, such as	Core ministers by sex	—	—	Proportion of women in	—

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDGs</i>
Cabinet positions	Government ministers by sex			ministerial level positions (%)	
Civil Service	Senior level civil servants by sex	—	—	—	—

A.6.2.2 *Economic decision-making*

Table A.6-II

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDGs</i>
Representation in the formulation of macro-economic decision-making	Central bank board members by sex	—	—	—	—
Banks					

A.6.2.3 Other areas defined by the BPA

Table A.6-III

<i>Occupational area</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDGs</i>
Art, culture, sports	—	—	—	—	—
Media	Journalists by sex	—	—	—	—
Academic and scientific institutions, education	Heads of universities by sex	—	—	—	—
	Researchers by sector of research and sex				
Law	Police staff by sex	—	—	—	—
	Constitutional court members by sex				
The private sector, corporations	—	—	—	Percentage of firms with a female top manager (average reported by firms)	—
				Percentage of firms with female participation in ownership (average reported by firms)	
				Female professional and technical workers (% of total)	

A.6.3 Consideration of indicators by topic

328. The only substantive topic identified is that of the share of positions occupied by men and women in various fields of interest to society. In the following, we will see how the existing frameworks and databases cover the different fields of interest.

329. The UNECE Gender Database covers the broadest range of occupational areas, ranging from ministers and judges to journalists and researchers. Four out of the five indicators of the Global Minimum Set are present in the UNECE Database as well as the MDG indicator “Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament”. The only indicator from the Minimum Set not already present in the UNECE database is the “Women’s share of managerial positions”.

330. From the tables of available indicators (Table A.6-I to Table A.6-III), we see that the UNECE Gender Database does not cover the following occupational areas:

- The private sector, corporations;
- Trade unions and employer organisations;
- Art, culture and sports.

331. For the private sector and corporations, a number of indicators are available from the GenderStats database, such as:

- Percentage of firms with a female top manager (average reported by firms);
- Percentage of firms with female participation in ownership (average reported by firms);
- Female professional and technical workers (per cent of total).

332. None of these are however suitable for an indicator, because the first of them is not available for many UNECE countries, in the second it is difficult to establish the gender split of ownership of companies owned by shareholders, and the third because we are focused on powerful decision makers rather than occupational groups as a whole. Since the Global Minimum Set has recommended the indicator “Women’s share of managerial positions”, we shall also propose this for the UNECE set.

333. The usefulness of indicators related to journalists and researchers are limited because these indicators do not consider the seniority of men and women in these fields. The differing extent of researchers in the public and private sectors is considered to limit the comparability of this indicator across countries.

334. For trade union and employer organisations, the EU indicators for BPA include decision makers in trade unions and employer confederations. However, no data appear to be available, so these are not proposed. In art and culture, it is difficult to establish the most influential positions. Whilst artistic and cultural institutions do exist, their officials may not always be more influential than individual artists, based on the subjective opinion of their peers, and of those who appreciate their work. Since the degree of influence of artists is difficult to measure, we do not propose indicators for this occupational area.

335. In addition to these indicators, a composite indicator exists called “Female legislators, senior officials and managers (per cent of total)”, available from the GenderStats and OECD databases. This indicator is available for 42 UNECE countries from the GenderStats website. Since one of the aims of the taskforce is to have a limited set of gender indicators, we

propose this composite indicator be the headline indicator, with all of the more detailed indicators being supporting indicators.

336. Given that many indicators are available that reflecting a range of important occupations, an analysis of multi-collinearity was performed to ensure that each of the proposed indicators reflected a unique aspect of the gender balance in power and decision-making. Based on this analysis, it was decided to withdraw indicators on the female share of ambassadors, (non-core) government ministers, and members of municipal councils or other local area governing bodies.

A.6.4 Proposed indicators

Table A.6-IV summarises the gender equality indicators that are proposed for this domain for UNECE countries.

Table A.6-IV

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Representation of men and women in different social decision-making roles				
6.1	Female legislators, senior officials and managers (% of total)	GenderStats	—	G1, G2
6.1.1	Women's share of central bank board members	UNECE Database	—	G1, G2
6.1.2	Women's share of constitutional court members	UNECE Database	—	G1, G2
6.1.3	Women's share of core ministers	UNECE Database	—	G1, G2
6.1.4	Women's share of heads of universities	UNECE Database	—	G1, G2
6.1.5	Women's share of judges	UNECE Database	47	G1, G2
6.1.6	Women's share of members of national parliament	UNECE Database	44	G1, G2
6.1.7	Women's share managerial positions of	Same source as used by Global Min Set	45	G1, G2
6.1.8	Women's share of police officers	UNECE Database	46	G1, G2
6.1.9	Women's share of senior level civil servants	UNECE Database	—	G1, G2

Since these indicators figure in existing indicator sets, their definition can be obtained from the metadata available from the corresponding websites.

A.7 Power and decision-making in the household

A.7.1 Introduction

337. Although not specifically addressed in BPA, power and decision-making in the household is an important aspect of gender equality. There is ample evidence on the impact of household decision-making on development, health, education, poverty and the division of paid work and household work. Gender inequalities in the household reinforce gender inequalities in society. Different policy documents of the United Nations have therefore called for designing programmes to address unequal decision-making powers within families and to support men's and women's joint control of household assets and joint household decision-making to guarantee adequate livelihoods for their families (United Nations, 2010) (United Nations, 2011). A crucial aspect of household decision-making pertains to reproduction, including voluntary choice in marriage, family formation and determination of the number, timing and spacing of one's children and the right to have access to the information and means needed to exercise voluntary choice. These issues are addressed by the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (United Nations, 1995) and its follow-up.

338. In the following, we are considering the measurement of the following areas of household decision-making, focusing on the power relation of a woman and a man who live in a co-residential partnership:

- Family formation and dissolution, divorce or separation, having children, family planning;
- Household responsibilities, such as domestic work and childcare;
- Family finances and work, decision-making on household spending, financial arrangements, choice to work;
- Recreation spare time, social life and contact with friends and relatives;
- Health care;
- Education.

339. Whilst households can comprise many different configurations of living arrangements, we will limit ourselves to partnerships, because the power relations between the female and male partner constitute the core gender issue that requires measurement.

A.7.2 Selecting indicators

A.7.2.1 Available sources of indicators

340. Neither the United Nations, EU, nor OECD publish data that directly addresses decision-making in households, therefore a number of demographic household surveys are examined for variables of relevance to these questions:

- The Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) that in the UNECE region cover Central Asia, Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Republic of Moldova, Turkey and Ukraine;
- The Generations and Gender Surveys (GGG)⁵⁷ that have collected data from 15 EU countries, plus Australia, Georgia, Japan, Norway and Russia;
- The European Values Study⁵⁸, which covers most European countries, including Eastern Europe, Russia, the Caucasus and Turkey. However, the long interval

⁵⁷ <http://www.ggp-i.org>

between waves of this survey (approximately ten years), make this source potentially unsuitable for the source of indicators;

- Data from EU-SILC 2010 (ad-hoc module on intra-household allocation of resources), carried out in 27 European countries;
- Data from UNICEF's MICS are available through the Gender Info website. However, only 15 UNECE countries have ever taken a MICS and only 8 are involved in its current fourth round.

341. We summarize the variables available in these surveys in Table A.7-I to Table A.7-V.

⁵⁸ <http://www.europeanvaluesstudy.eu/>

A.7.2.1.1 Family planning

Table A.7-I

<i>DHS</i>	<i>GGS</i>	<i>MICS (Unicef)</i>
Women's attitude to refusing sex (various situations when she feels she is justified to refuse)	Self-response on dependence of decision to have children on various factors, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial situation • Work • Housing conditions • Health • Childcare 	Women reporting their final say in family decision making process alone or jointly for using contraception
Discussion of family planning with spouse	Intention to have children in the next 3 years (for Respondent and Partner),	Men reporting their wife's final say in family decision making process alone or jointly for deciding on the number of children
Attitude of couples towards family planning	Effect of having children on different areas of life	—
Wanted & Actual Fertility rates	—	—

A.7.2.1.2 Organisation of household finances

Table A.7-II

<i>DHS</i>	<i>GGS</i>	<i>EU-SILC 2010</i>	<i>MICS (Unicef)</i>
Final say on a number of specific issues: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large purchases • Daily purchases 	Who makes decisions about the household in a number of different areas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large household purchases • Routine household purchases 	Who makes decisions about the household in a number of different areas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everyday shopping • Important expenses • Expensive purchases of consumer durables and furniture • borrowing money • use of savings 	Women reporting their final say in family decision making process alone or jointly for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • borrowing money • making daily purchases • making large purchases
—	—	Ability to decide about: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • expenses for own personal consumption, leisure activities and hobbies • purchases for children's needs (including giving them pocket money) 	Men reporting their wife's final say in family decision making process alone or jointly for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • making daily purchases • making large purchases • what to do with the money the wife earns

Decision on the use of earnings (respondent, partner, jointly with partner, etc.)	How household income is organized, including the following categories: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • we each keep our own money separate • we pool all the money • we pool some of the money • my partner/spouse manages all the money and gives me my share 	Regime of household finances ⁵⁹ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • we treat all incomes as common resources • we treat some incomes as common resources and the rest as private resources • we treat all incomes as private resources of the person receiving them • we do not receive any income in the household 	Men receiving cash earnings for employment and decision for its use being taken by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • husband/living partner • other person • other person/missing • someone (missing information) • women • women and husband/living partner • women as husband has no earnings
—	—	Management of common household finances ⁶⁰ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One or more household members • At least one person inside the household and at least one person outside the household is involved in managing the common household finances • No person inside the household and at least one person outside the household is involved in managing the common household finances • There are no common household finances 	Women receiving cash earnings for employment and decision for its use being taken by: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • husband/living partner • other person • other person/missing • someone (missing information) • women • women and husband/living partner • women and other person
—	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Proportion of personal income kept separate from the common household budget⁶¹ • All my personal income • More than half of my personal income • About half of my personal income • Less than half of my personal income • None • The respondent has no personal income 	—

⁵⁹ This variable is available for all households with at least two adult members (aged 16 and above), not only couples.

⁶⁰ This variable is available for all households with at least two adult members (aged 16 and above), not only couples. ID of up to 5 individuals responsible for household finances management is available.

⁶¹ This variable is available for all household member aged 16 and above.

—	—	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to a bank account • Yes • No • Time spent • commuting to and from work • on leisure • on household work, child care and care for other dependants • Money spent • for own use • for children by the person interviewed 	—
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A.7.2.1.3 Decision to work

Table A.7-III

<i>DHS</i>	<i>GGS</i>	<i>MICS (Unicef)</i>
—	Who makes decisions about the household in a number of different areas <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Own time in paid work • Partners time in paid work 	Women reporting their final say in family decision making process alone or jointly for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • whether to earn money

A.7.2.1.4 Participation in other household decision-making

Table A.7-IV

<i>DHS</i>	<i>GGS</i>	<i>MICS (Unicef)</i>
Participation in decision making (general)	Who makes decisions about the household in a number of different areas <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Way of child raising • Social activities 	Women reporting their final say in family decision making process alone or jointly for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • all specific decisions • assisting their own family • none the of specific decisions • their own health care • using contraception • visiting family or relatives • what food to cook each day

Final say on a number of specific issues:		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Own healthcare • Visits to Family, relatives and Friends • What food to cook • All • None 	—	Women who say that a wife should have greater say or equal say with husband regarding child's health care
—	—	Men who say that a wife should have greater say or equal say with husband regarding child's health care
—	—	Men reporting their wife's final say in family decision making process alone or jointly for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • all specific decisions • none the of specific decisions • their own health care • visiting family or relatives

A.7.2.1.5 Satisfaction, perception of control and attitudes

Table A.7-V

<i>DHS</i>	<i>GGS</i>	<i>MICS (Unicef)</i>
Women's attitude towards husband beating wife – feels justified if: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Burns the food • Argues with him • Goes out without telling him • Neglects the children • Refuses sex 	Feelings of personal control in different areas: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial situation • Work • Housing Conditions • Health • Family Life 	—
—	Relationship satisfaction	—
—	Partners' reaction to disagreements (calm, angry, etc.)	—

A.7.2.2 Consideration of indicators by topic

A.7.2.2.1 Family planning

342. Dealing first with the decision to have children, DHS has a number of variables related to the human right to contraception and consent to sex, for example:

- Women's attitude to refusing sex;
- Women's attitude towards husband beating wife if she refuses sex;
- Discussion of family planning with spouse;
- Attitude of couples towards family planning.

343. There may be a difference in emphasis in the decision-making to have children between developing countries (which may have more traditional attitudes, and higher birth rates), and developed countries (where use of contraception is widespread). Many of the indicators available for developing countries focus on the decision not to have children, whereas those available in the developed world focus on the decision to have children.

344. It can be seen that both of these questions are relevant to the UNECE region, where for example in 2000, only 65 per cent of women in Armenia said that a woman was justified in refusing sex with her husband if tired or not in the mood for sex. In that year, 55 per cent of Armenians said that they had never discussed contraception with their partner (DHS Survey). Turkmenistan had similar figures of 61 and 32 per cent for that year.

345. In developed countries, however, there is a well-known gap between the intended number of children and the number actually born. Significant proportions of women surveyed by the GGS said that the decision to have children would depend on work or their financial situation. Where contraception is used, it is the decision to stop using it that is significant. Obviously, the degree of influence that each partner had over the decision is a very complex question that can be addressed by multivariate analysis and not by a single indicator.

346. Due to the differences in the nature of family planning decisions across countries, and the differences in the data collected within such countries, we refrain from proposing indicators on decision-making in family planning.

A.7.2.2.2 Organisation of household finances and work

347. Another major area of importance in a partnership is that of household finances. Whilst the income of each partner gives an indication of a certain type of influence within the relationship, the organization of household income, including how decisions are made on its use, is an important area to consider.

348. The range of survey variables presented in Table A.7-II, about who makes decisions about household expenditure, have two common themes:

- How household or personal income is managed by household members / Decision on use of earnings;
- Differentiating decision-making for large purchases versus routine or daily purchases.

349. Because each survey covers a different collection of countries, rather than picking a particular variable from a given survey, we propose further methodological work to explore comparability of variables between different surveys, in order to choose the most appropriate variable.

350. In any case, indicators would first have to be developed and tested based on these survey variables, and it could be that using similar variables from different surveys could allow greater coverage of countries in the UNECE region. One way for the testing could be to compare responses to variables from different surveys in countries with both surveys.

351. Closely related to decision-making in household finances, is the decision to work. This can be especially important for parents who have to distribute responsibilities for paid work and childcare. Whilst the choice to work can be empowering for some women, others may not have had much control over that decision. The possibility of using variables from different surveys could be explored to maximize the coverage of UNECE countries.

352. Gender inequality in time devoted to domestic activities is also relevant: women usually spend more time than their partner in domestic work even if they work and earn the same, showing the persistence of an asymmetric division of gender roles in European countries.

353. Differences in partners earning may also reflect into gender inequality in decision making and economic power: although information on earnings are not easily available, on the base of EU-SILC a comparison between partners earning, decision making on several domains, ability to spend money, bank access and time devoted to domestic work may be done.

A.7.2.2.3 Participation in other household decision-making

354. Data from the GGS would be needed to have the information on the more developed UNECE countries. Unfortunately, only the topics of child raising and social activities are covered, which do not correspond well to the variables present in the other surveys. For this reason, we do not propose additional indicators for this section.

A.7.2.2.4 Satisfaction, perception of control and attitudes

355. Respondents' answers to questions relating to satisfaction or feeling of control are subjective, and potentially vulnerable to gender differences in perception.

356. Attitudes of women to whether it is justified for a husband to beat his wife in various circumstances are of interest to power within relationships. This issue is relevant to the UNECE region, where for example in 2005 in Albania 17 per cent of 15-49 year old women said that they believed that a husband was justified in beating his wife when she went out without telling him (UNICEF MICS survey⁶²). Whilst these variables are very illuminating, this area is perhaps more in the domains of Violence.

357. The partners' reaction to disagreements variable in the GGS is indicative of the atmosphere in a relationship, but it does not directly indicate the degree of influence that different parties have over decision-making. It is also only available in the GGS, which has limited geographical coverage.

A.7.3 Proposed indicators

358. The table below summarises the gender equality indicators that are proposed for this domain for UNECE countries. The indicators proposed here would have limited geographical coverage. They have not been subjected to extensive testing that would allow to make conclusions on their robustness in measuring household decision-making. The proposal is therefore conditional on further methodological work in this area.

⁶² http://www.childinfo.org/mics3_surveys.html

Table A.7-VI

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Organization of household finances, work, and participation in other household decision-making				
6.2	Percentage of women in a co-residential partnership who state that their partner or spouse manages all the money and gives them their share	GGS, plus proxy indicators (if available) from MICS or DHS	—	—
6.3	Percentage of women in a co-residential partnership who state that their partner or spouse always or usually makes decisions in the household on the following issues: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • large household purchases • routine household purchases • the time she spends in paid work • way of child raising (for couples with children only) • social activities 	GGS, EU-SILC 2010, plus proxy indicators (if available) from MICS or DHS	—	—
6.4.1	Percentage of women's incomes on partners incomes	EU-SILC	—	—
6.5.1	Percentage of women's time spent in domestic work on partners time spent in domestic work	EU-SILC 2010	—	—

A.8 Human rights

359. Whilst Human Rights are an important topic for gender equality, a number of challenges exist for the development of indicators for this area.

360. One challenge is how to define suitable measures of specific human rights. Previous work done by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) has developed illustrative examples of structural, process and outcome indicators for promoting and monitoring the implementation of human rights (OHCHR, 2012). However, these examples contain a multitude of potential indicators, and further work would be required to identify those suitable for inclusion within this set of indicators.

361. Secondly, human rights cover quite a broad range of aspects of a person's life, including parts of the other Beijing domains (such as aspects of Education, Health and Violence), which have already been considered as separate topics. Therefore, one of the challenges is that of overlap with existing indicators. Some human rights indicators have already been proposed by this taskforce and could potentially be cross-referenced as human rights indicators as well as within a specific theme.

362. To assist with this cross-referencing, it might be helpful to consider the difference between equality and human rights indicators. Equality indicators can be seen as monitoring the relative position of individuals and groups across different areas of life, whereas human rights indicators are absolute standards for evaluating compliance with, and progress towards, the implementation of human rights.

363. After such cross-referencing has been achieved, the remaining human rights issues that are missing from the indicators could be assessed and to investigate whether additional indicators might be defined within the agreed criteria to cover those areas.

364. Further work could be considered to review the current indicators to identify and cross-reference those most closely related to human rights issues, and to consider what additional indicators would be suitable additions to the set of indicators to cover missing human rights issues.

A.9 Media

A.9.1 Introduction

A.9.1.1 *Policy background*

365. BPA contains policy commitments on gender equality in the media. Media can be a means of empowerment, but can also perpetuate negative attitudes and stereotypes towards women and men. Whilst the word "internet" is not used in the BPA, it does discuss information technology and global communications networks that transcend national boundaries – descriptions that today are held to be synonymous with the internet.

366. The BPA defines the following Strategic Objectives:

- J1. Increase the participation and access of women to expression and decision-making in and through the media and new technologies of communication;
- J2. Promote a balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media.

367. The BPA text on the media considers the following issues:

- Stereotypes and portrayal of men and women, including;

- media products containing inferior, violent, degrading or pornographic presentations of women;
- media freedom, to allow positive involvement of media in social issues.
- Media use, including;
 - ability to access information;
 - use of communication systems and new technologies;
 - ability to communicate internationally;
 - ability to form networks (to facilitate exchange of information and collaboration in business and in other spheres).
- Participation in the media and communications sector.

A.9.1.2 Existing frameworks

368. This section considers how the above-mentioned topics are addressed in existing indicator frameworks, such as the Global Minimum Set, the EU indicators for BPA, and MDGs.

369. The Global Minimum Set of Gender Indicators contains a domain “Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources” with the following indicators:

- Proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, TV, Internet), by sex of household head;
- Proportion of individuals using mobile/cellular telephones, by sex;
- Proportion of individuals using the Internet, by sex.

370. The following indicators relevant to this domain are used for the monitoring of MDGs:

- Fixed telephone lines per 100 inhabitants (MDG indicator 8.14);
- Mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants (8.15);
- Internet users per 100 inhabitants (8.16).

371. The European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE) has commissioned a study in order to collect data and develop indicators regarding the media (EIGE, 2013). The study considers the following indicators:

- women’s presence in the decision-making bodies within media companies;
- the existence of codes of conduct and/or other forms of self-regulation and development by the media companies, to avoid discrimination on the grounds of sex.
- The proportion of women and men in decision-making posts in media organisations in the EU
- The proportion of women and men on the boards of media organisations in the EU
- Policies to promote gender equality in media organisations

A.9.2 Available sources of indicators

372. This section looks into data availability from dedicated gender databases. The MDG indicators are not listed because they are not available by sex.

A.9.2.1 Media use

Table A.9-I

<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>
—	Computer use by age and sex	Internet users, female (%)
—	Internet use by age and sex	Internet users, male (%)

A.9.2.2 Stereotypes and portrayal of women (indirect measure based on social attitudes)

Table A.9-II

<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>
Men who believe a husband is justified in beating his wife if she ⁶³		
• has relations with another man		
• argues with him		
• burns the food		
• does not obey elders	—	—
• goes out without telling him		
• neglects the children		
• prepares food late		
• refuses sex with him		
• shows disrespect for in-laws		
Women who believe a husband is justified in beating his wife (similar categories to the above ⁶⁴)	—	—

A.9.2.3 Participation in communications sector

Table A.9-III

<i>GenderInfo 2010</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>
—	Journalists by sex	—

373. The GenderInfo website includes some indicators from the UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS). The Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) also collect similar data⁶⁴. Together, DHS and MICS have these indicators for 16 UNECE countries.

374. The Generations and Gender Survey also has various indicators related to attitudes and values of men and women towards each other. The EU Eurobarometer⁶⁵ was examined for data relating to the media, but only a small number of questions could be found related to the media (such as trust in the media).

375. The European Values Study⁶⁶, which covers most European countries, has some information relevant to this area. However, the long interval between waves of this survey (approximately ten years), make this source potentially unsuitable for the source of indicators.

⁶³ This indicator is from the MICS survey. www.micscompiler.org

⁶⁴ <http://www.measuredhs.com/What-We-Do/Survey-Types/DHS.cfm>

⁶⁵ http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/index_en.htm

⁶⁶ <http://www.europeanvaluesstudy.eu/>

A.9.3 Consideration of indicators by topic

376. In this section, we consider the suitability of the available indicators for measuring the BPA topics. We explain the choice of indicators for each topic, considering the limitations of available data and the rationale of the existing indicator frameworks.

A.9.3.1 *Stereotypes and portrayal of men and women*

377. This topic is hard to measure directly due to a lack of internationally comparable data. Because of this, we concentrate on stereotypes and portrayal of men and women through indirect measures.

378. Some indicators indirectly relating to stereotypes have been discussed within the section on power and decision-making in the household, where an indicator was proposed on the decision regarding time spent in work. This is related to stereotypes around men going out to work and women staying at home; however, it focuses more on who makes the decision, rather than on attitudes towards the appropriateness of work for women.

379. Whilst limited data on attitudes is available, one prominent indicator, available for less developed UNECE countries, is that of circumstances under which women believe that a man is justified in beating his partner, e.g. when she:

- burns the food;
- argues with him;
- goes out without telling him;
- neglects the children;
- refuses sex with him.

380. Whilst each one of the available categories is directly related to certain stereotypes about women, and ‘macho’ attitudes about solving problems through violence, the strong nature of these examples, and the perceived assumption that women should be submissive, is problematic from the gender equality perspective. They are also less relevant to more developed countries that have undergone significant changes in attitude over recent generations.

381. For this reason, we examine alternative sources of data on attitudes. From the Generations and Gender Survey, the following selection of relevant core survey questions is identified:

- Opinion: When parents are in need, daughters should take more caring responsibility than sons;
- Opinion: If a woman earns more than her partner, it is not good for the relationship;
- Opinion: On the whole, men make better political leaders than women;
- Opinion: Women should be able decide how to spend money without asking partner;
- Opinion: When jobs scarce, men have more right to a job than women.

382. These questions are designed to measure gender values and attitudes and have a straightforward normative value interpretation. Currently, the data are available for fourteen UNECE countries⁶⁷.

⁶⁷ <http://www.ggp-i.org/>

383. Further work may be needed to develop these survey questions into indicators, as is discussed further in section 3.2.8. For example, Table A.9-IV displays responses for Georgia and Norway in relation to the opinion that men make better political leaders than women. Interestingly, there appears to be a bigger difference between the responses of the two countries than between men and women. We recommend these for future consideration as supporting indicators. Based on some empirical testing, a robust index of gender attitudes could be constructed from these questions or, alternatively, one or two of the attitudes chosen to represent this dimension.

Table A.9-IV: Agreement with the statement “On the whole, men make better political leaders than women” in Georgia and Norway, per cent

	<i>Georgia</i>			<i>Norway</i>		
	male	female	Total	male	female	Total
strongly agree	23.3	16.2	19.3	2.0	1.0	1.5
agree	50.4	39.3	44.2	6.8	3.8	5.2
neither agree nor disagree	12.2	17.4	15.1	32.1	15.8	23.2
disagree	13.7	25.9	20.5	25.7	25.0	25.3
strongly disagree	0.4	1.3	0.9	33.4	54.3	44.7
N=	4 405	5 595	10 000	4 868	5 774	10 642

Source: Generations and Gender Surveys online: www.ggp-i.org.

A.9.3.2 Media use

384. A key aspect of the BPA text is that of women using the media as a tool to empower themselves, including access to information, use of communication, and networking, including internationally. These are all outcomes that we would today associate with the internet, but also of other technologies, such as cellular phones.

385. The MDG indicators include rates of internet use and cellular phone subscriptions, and the Global Minimum Set of gender indicators contains sex-disaggregated indicators on internet use and cellular phone use. Given the clear relevance of these indicators to the BPA topics, and to existing gender indicator frameworks, we also propose them here. (Internet use was also identified as a supporting indicator in the Education domain.) We propose that both weekly and long-term (e.g. in the last three months) internet use be measured. The UNECE Gender Database contains these measures of internet use data for nearly all UNECE countries.

386. No source of sex-disaggregated data on mobile phone use or subscription could be identified, except for EU countries from Eurostat. Additionally, the Global Minimum Set includes an indicator on proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, TV, Internet), by sex of household head. However, following recent recommendations from the Conference of European Statisticians (CES, 2010) regarding promotion of the household reference concept over household head, and the difficulty that this would imply in measuring gender differences, we do not propose this as a supporting indicator.

A.9.3.3 Participation in the media and communications sector

387. Number and percentage of journalists by sex is the only available indicator on participation in the media and communications sector. Data are available for about half of the UNECE countries from the UNECE Statistical Database. However, not all journalists work in the communications sector. Whilst the Labour Force Survey could be used as a source of information on the gender balance of those working in the communications sector, this may

not necessarily give an insight into vertical segregation that may exist within this sector between men and women.

388. We do not propose any indicator at this stage, as EIGE has been examining this area, including women's representation in media organisations and related bodies, such as non-executive boards and regulatory bodies. Section 3.2.8 discusses potential for further work in the media area.

A.9.4 Proposed indicators

389. The table below summarises the gender equality indicators that are proposed for the media domain for UNECE countries. Where applicable, indicators and their breakdowns in this table are to be calculated by sex.

Table A.9-V

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Media use				
7.1	Proportion of individuals using mobile/cellular telephones	(Same as for Global Minimum Set. Eurostat has this for EU countries.)	18	J1
7.2	Proportion of individuals using the Internet, by sex (both weekly, and over last 3 months)	UNECE Gender Database	17	J1
Stereotypes and portrayal of men and women				
7.3.1	<p>Attitudes of women and men, with regard to the following opinions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When parents are in need, daughters should take more caring responsibility than sons • If a woman earns more than her partner, it is not good for the relationship • On the whole, men make better political leaders than women • Women should be able decide how to spend money without asking partner • When jobs scarce, men have more right to a job than women 	Generations and Gender Survey	—	J2

390. Since these indicators are obtained from existing indicator sets, their definition and specifications can be derived from the metadata available in the relevant websites.

A.10 Environment

A.10.1 Introduction

A.10.1.1 Policy background

391. BPA's area of "Women and the Environment" has three associated objectives:

- K1. Involve women actively in environmental decision-making at all levels;
- K2. Integrate gender concerns and perspectives in policies and programmes for sustainable development;
- K3. Strengthen or establish mechanisms at the national, regional and international levels to assess the impact of development and environmental policies on women.

392. Women's participation in climate change decision-making is an important prerequisite for more gender-responsive and efficient climate change policies that best serve the needs of society. In most countries, women continue to be under-represented in decision-making processes and positions. Gender equality in decision-making is one of the priority areas and education is another important area of intervention in the effort to achieve the Beijing objectives. BPA states that one of the key actions to be taken by governments at all levels, including local and regional authorities, to achieve objective K1 is to "facilitate and increase women's access to information and education, including in the areas of science, technology and economics, thus enhancing their knowledge, skills and opportunities for participation in environmental decisions". Women's higher enrolment in science- and technology-related fields that lead to careers in the energy and transport sectors is a prerequisite for obtaining access to the institutions and power structures which control and support climate change policy making.

393. The Rio+20 summit emphasised the importance of women in sustainable development. Whilst there has been a relatively large amount of research on gender dimensions of climate change for the developing world, similar research is scarce for many developed countries, such as those in the EU. Nevertheless, the issue is important and it requires not only further research to form a stronger evidence base, but also further consideration in policy-making. Climate change is a complex issue containing a number of over-lapping gender dimensions and their psychological, socio-economic, cultural, legal, political and biological aspects.

394. The following issues have been identified for measurement: women's participation in climate-change decision-making and segmentation of education by gender.

A.10.1.2 Existing frameworks

395. This section considers how the topic Women and the Environment is addressed in existing indicator frameworks.

396. Four indicators have been established for measuring objective K1 of BPA "Involve women actively in environmental decision-making at all levels" at the EU level. These indicators have been developed and adopted during the Danish Presidency of the European Union in 2012 (EIGE, 2012). Three of the indicators analyse the actual numbers of women in high-level positions in relevant institutions at the national, EU and international level. The fourth indicator informs on the proportion of women among tertiary graduates of total graduates in natural sciences and technologies at EU and Member State level.

397. Neither the Global Minimum Set nor the indicators used for the monitoring of MDGs contain a specific domain devoted to Women and Environment or to Climate Change from gender perspective.

A.10.2 Available sources of indicators

398. This section looks into data availability from dedicated gender databases.

399. EIGE's website Women and Men in EU – facts and figures⁶⁸ presents the data collected for the report Women and Environment - Gender Equality and Climate Change. The data cover all 27 EU Member States and refer to year 2011.

400. The MDG indicators are not sex disaggregated for the given topic in climate change and environment. The GenderInfo website also does not present indicators suitable for measurement this topic.

A.10.3 Consideration of indicators by topic

401. In this section, the present EU indicators for measuring the BPA topics are presented. They aim at measuring objective K1 of the BPA, which is to "Involve women actively in environmental decision-making at all levels", with a focus on climate change. The outcomes of the literature review, the data collected and the analysis of collected data served the basis for the development of the indicators. A number of general principles for indicator development and issues specific to this area have been taken into account when proposing indicators, such as:

- The indicators should be objectively verifiable using quantitative data that are readily available, reliable and comparable across the 27 EU Member States;
- The indicators should be suitable for yearly review and updating;
- The indicators should be conceptually designed so that they provide relevant information about the extent to which the objective (in this case Objective K1 of the BPA) has been achieved. There should be a clear causal link between the situation measured by the indicator and the progress towards the objective.

402. The aim was to establish indicators that would cover women's participation in climate change decision-making at the national, EU and international levels, as well as education in the fields related to environment, specifically climate change.

403. With these points in mind, four indicators were developed and proposed (EIGE, 2012). The first three indicators address decision-making directly, by analysing the numbers of women occupying high-level positions in relevant government institutions. The fourth indicator addresses education in the scientific and technological fields related to climate change. These indicators (excluding the one referring to EU institutions) are considered below.

A.10.3.1 Proportion of women in climate change decision-making bodies at the national level

404. This indicator provides information on the percentage of women and men in national authorities with the highest level of decision-making competences (typically ministries) in environment/climate change, transport and energy policy.

⁶⁸ Available at <http://www.eige.europa.eu/content/women-and-men-in-the-eu-facts-and-figures>

405. The institutions serving as the relevant competent authorities for climate change (including transport and energy) differ considerably across the Member States (e.g. ministries or other government institutions with varying overall portfolios, e.g. environment and local government, energy and economy, etc.). Therefore, data were collected for the institutions in each Member State having competence for:

- Environment (and climate change where specified);
- Transport;
- Energy.

406. The decision-making positions in the institutions were divided in 3 levels. Level 1 covers the highest levels/positions in the Ministry (political level). These will usually be the Minister, the Vice or Deputy Minister and the high-level State Secretary. Level 2 covers the top level of managerial or administrative decision-making in the Ministry, usually the civil servant who is the head of the Ministry, e.g. Sub-Secretary, Secretary-General, Director-General etc. with responsibility for the sector concerned. Level 3 covers the heads of sectorial departments or divisions.

407. The data were gathered using a dedicated survey to governmental institutions in the EU Member States. For most Member States, data were easily accessible, either via the Ministry website or via a follow-up phone call to a person in the Ministry. Some difficulties were encountered due to the timing of the data collection (August) or due to procedural requirements on access to information.

408. This indicator is not proposed for the purposes of this task force because of limited data availability outside the EU.

A.10.3.2 Proportion of women in climate change decision-making bodies at the international level

409. This indicator measures the proportion of women in international climate change decision-making. International debates on climate change takes place within the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), including the annual meetings of the Conference of the Parties (COP) and its supporting bodies.

410. The COP delegations carry out the political negotiating and decision-making on international climate change policy, including agreeing targets for the reduction of greenhouse gas emissions. The COP negotiations are supported by the work of two additional bodies, known as Subsidiary Bodies (SBs). There is one SB for Scientific and Technological Advice, which advises the COP on matters of climate, environment, technology and method. Another SB for Implementation (SBI) helps review how the Convention is being applied, and deals with financial and administrative matters. Typically, the COP meets annually and the SB meets twice per year; once simultaneously with the COP and at a second time during each year.

411. Data on the gender of meeting delegates is available from lists of participants, which can be found for each of the meetings on the UNFCCC website. Where available, the final lists of participants published at the end of the sessions have been used, rather than provisional lists sent to the UNFCCC Secretariat. Varying levels of decision-making responsibility among participants (with the exception of Heads of Delegation) cannot be determined from the lists of participants and have therefore not been taken into account. Stakeholders, who often have an advisory function on the delegations, have not been taken into account in the data collection either; numbers have been restricted to official (government) delegation members.

A.10.3.3 Proportion of women tertiary graduates of total graduates (ISCED⁶⁹ levels 5 and 6) in natural sciences and technologies

412. This indicator measures the proportion of women awarded degrees in the scientific and technological fields relevant to climate change.

413. The levels most relevant for the indicator on the segmentation of education by sex in natural sciences and technologies are ISCED levels 5 and 6 – since it is these higher-level qualifications that frequently lead to careers with a decision-making authority.

414. The Eurostat data are organised according to eight broad fields, each of which is broken down into more narrow sub-fields of education, which enable a good level of specification for this analysis. The seven sub-fields that best correspond to the theme "natural science and technologies" within the context of climate change are:

Table A.10-I

<i>Code</i>	<i>Sub fields of education</i>	<i>Corresponding to</i>
EF42	life science and physical science	natural sciences
EF44	physical science	
EF52	engineering and engineering trades	technologies
EF54	manufacturing and processing	
EF58	architecture and building	
EF84	transport services	
EF85	environmental protection	

415. These data are generally available across all member states of the EU, plus another 10 UNECE countries⁷⁰. However, the similarity to indicators in the education domain leads us instead to cross reference indicator on the share of female graduates in science, engineering, manufacturing and construction.

A.10.4 Proposed indicators

416. The table below summarises the gender equality indicators that are proposed for the environment domain for UNECE countries.

⁶⁹ International Standard Classification of Education, <http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/international-standard-classification-of-education.aspx>

⁷⁰ There are occasional data gaps for some Member States, although data in the last two years 2008-2009 are mostly complete for all Member States. Also, there are no available data for some of the smaller Member States for some of the smaller fields, e.g. transport services, environmental protection.

Table A.10-II

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Representation of women amongst environmental scientists and decision-making bodies				
8.1	Proportion of women among government representatives to climate change decision-making bodies at the international level	UNFCCC	—	K1
8.2.1	Share of female graduates in science, engineering, manufacturing and construction	Unesco	—	K1

A.11 Children and adolescents

A.11.1 Introduction

A.11.1.1 Policy background

417. The Girl Child domain defined by BPA addresses gender equality in childhood. Other significant international policy commitments relevant to this domain include the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). UNICEF additionally specifies a number of focus areas, such as immunization, HIV & malaria, abolishing of school fees, disaster risk reduction and child soldiers, which are of limited significance to the UNECE region⁷¹.

418. Childhood is a critical time in a person's development, and disempowerment of children can have negative consequences that persist far into adulthood.

419. The BPA defines the following Strategic Objectives:

- L1. Eliminate all forms of discrimination against the girl-child;
- L2. Eliminate negative cultural attitudes and practices against girls;
- L3. Promote and protect the rights of the girl-child and increase awareness of her needs and potential;
- L4. Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and training;
- L5. Eliminate discrimination against girls in health and nutrition;
- L6. Eliminate the economic exploitation of child labour and protect young girls at work
- L7. Eradicate violence against the girl-child;
- L8. Promote the girl-child's awareness of and participation in social, economic and political life;
- L9. Strengthen the role of the family in improving the status of the girl-child.

420. The following issues were identified in the text for statistical measurement:

- Prenatal sex selection and/or female infanticide;
- Discrimination in allocation of food or nutrition;
- Early marriage or child marriage;
- Violence in childhood;
- Sexual exploitation, sexual abuse, child pornography, child prostitution;
- Female genital mutilation;
- Enrolment and retention of girls in education, especially mathematics and science;

⁷¹ <http://www.unicef.org>

- Domestic chores, child labour, early marriage or pregnancy affecting school performance and drop-out rates;
- Initiatives to improve self-esteem or self-image;
- Sexual education, adolescent pregnancy and risky behaviour with regard to sexually transmitted diseases;
- Children not brought up by parents (for example orphans, street children);
- Eliminating injustice relating to inheritance;
- Birth registration.

A.11.1.2 Existing frameworks

421. This section considers how the above-mentioned topics are addressed in existing indicator frameworks, such as the Global Minimum Set, the EU indicators for BPA, and MDGs.

422. The Global Minimum Set contains a domain 'Human Rights of women and the girl child' with the following indicators:

- Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in past 12 months by an intimate partner;
- Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in past 12 months by persons other than an intimate partner;
- Prevalence of female genital mutilation/cutting (for relevant countries only) ;
- Percentage of women aged 20-24 years old who were married or in a union before age 18;
- Adolescent fertility rate.

423. The EU Indicator framework for the BPA considered the Girl Child in 2008, and proposed the following indicators:

- Sex and relationship education: parameters of sexuality-related education in schooling (primary and secondary);
- Body self-image: dissatisfaction of girls and boys with their bodies;
- Educational accomplishments: comparison of 15-year-old students' performance in mathematics and science and the proportion of girl students in tertiary education in the field of science, mathematics and computing and in the field of teacher training and education science.

424. The first two of these do not specify the exact indicator used to represent these topics.

425. The following indicators relevant to this domain are used for the monitoring of MDGs:

- Adolescent birth rate (MDG indicator 5.4);
- Condom use at last high-risk sex (MDG indicator 6.2);
- Proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS (MDG indicator 6.3).

A.11.2 Available sources of indicators

426. This section looks into data availability from dedicated gender databases.

A.11.2.1 Female genital mutilation

Table A.11-I

<i>Gender Info 2010</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDG indicators</i>
Female genital mutilation/cutting	—	—	—	—
Female genital mutilation/cutting of daughters	—	—	—	—

A.11.2.2 Early or child marriage

Table A.11-II

<i>Gender Info 2010</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDG indicators</i>
Per cent ever married or in union among persons aged 15-19	First marriages by age and sex	Early marriage (women)	Age at first marriage, female	—
Per cent child marriage among women aged 20-24	—	—	Age at first marriage, male	—
Child marriage	—	—	Women who were first married by age 18 (% of women ages 20-24)	—

A.11.2.3 Sex education, risky sexual behaviour, adolescent pregnancy

Table A.11-III

<i>Gender Info 2010</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDG indicators</i>
Proportion of young people aged 15-19 years who had sex before age 15	Adolescent fertility rate	—	Adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women at age 15-19)	Adolescent fertility rate
Percentage of young people aged 15-24 years who had sex before age 15	—	—	—	Condom use at last high-risk sex
Condom use at last high-risk sex	—	—	—	Proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS
Population 15-24 year-olds who have comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS	—	—	—	—

Proportion of women aged 15-19 who have given birth	—	—	—	—
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A.11.2.4 Other topics

Table A.11-IV

<i>Gender Info 2010</i>	<i>UNECE Gender Database</i>	<i>OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base</i>	<i>GenderStats (World Bank)</i>	<i>Relevant MDG indicators</i>
Child discipline	Body Mass Index	Inheritance	—	—

427. In addition to the indicators in Table A.11-I to Table A.11-IV the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) of UNICEF collect data on the following:

- Child living arrangements, orphanhood;
- Nutritional status of children;
- Sexual behaviour;
- Exposure to mass media 15-19, and up to 49;
- Birth Registration.

428. However, only 15 UNECE countries have ever taken a MICS and only 8 are involved in its current fourth round.

A.11.3 Consideration of indicators by topic

429. In this section, we consider the suitability of the available indicators for measuring the BPA topics. We explain the choice of indicators for each topic, considering the limitations of available data and the rationale of the existing indicator frameworks.

A.11.3.1 Prenatal sex selection and/or female infanticide

430. This topic is an important one. However it is not prevalent in the UNECE region to an extent that it can be easily measured using national-level data. In 2011, the percentage of girls among new-borns was lower than 48 per cent only in three of the UNECE countries for which data was available – Albania, Armenia and Azerbaijan (for comparison, the figure for Norway in that year was 48.5% females amongst new-borns). The difficulty in detecting the effect of prenatal sex selection on the basis of national-level data is the reason why an indicator of sex ratio at birth is not recommended.

A.11.3.2 Discrimination in allocation of food or nutrition

431. An analysis of the indicator “prevalence of underweight children under five” in selected UNECE countries shows that there are more countries with a greater proportion of underweight male children than female children. We conclude that in the UNECE region, other factors may be driving these differences than the anticipated discrimination against girls in food allocation. We therefore do not consider this topic relevant to the UNECE region.

A.11.3.3 Early marriage, child marriage

432. There are a number of existing indicators available, including in the UNECE Gender Statistics Database, which indicates that some countries in the UNECE region have significant

numbers of marriages under the age of 15. Some of the indicators on child marriage actually refer to marriages before 18 (as opposed to marriages before say 15 or 16 years of age). Given that the Global Minimum Set has an indicator on the number of 20-24 year old women who were married before age 18, we recommend its inclusion in the UNECE set.

A.11.3.4 Violence in childhood

433. Violence and Human Rights both have their own domains in the BPA, so it is important to avoid unnecessary overlap in the scope of the indicators. The issues of child sexual abuse and female genital mutilation (FGM) are primarily discussed within the Girl Child domain of the BPA and the Global Minimum Set places them in the section “Human rights of women and the girl child”.

434. In terms of other forms of violence in the context of children only, a potential indicator of interest is that of child discipline, from the Gender Info 2010 database, which relates to 2-14 year olds suffering violent discipline. The availability of this indicator is limited geographically to some countries of Eastern and South-eastern Europe, so discussion would be needed on whether a comparable indicator might be found for other countries.

A.11.3.5 Sexual exploitation, sexual abuse, child pornography, child prostitution

435. We propose the retrospective indicator of child sexual abuse as defined by the Friends of the Chair of the United Nations Statistical Commission on Statistical Indicators on Violence against Women to represent this issue. Data for this indicator has to come from surveys.

436. It may be difficult to obtain representative data on the scope of Child Prostitution, Child Pornography or Trafficking, partly because administrative data may reflect differing successfulness of national crime agencies in detection and enforcement. The fact that these crimes can often have an international aspect (such as international travel or internet distribution of material) would make it difficult to make a comparison between different countries.

437. Although the Friends of the Chair group proposed an indicator on retrospective childhood sexual abuse, they do not consider child prostitution or child pornography. They do however consider people trafficking, suggesting that a survey would not be suitable to measure the phenomenon, and that further work is needed to examine the possibility of using administrative sources of data. We thus do not propose indicators other than the retrospective indicator of child sexual abuse.

A.11.3.6 Female genital mutilation

438. This is incorporated into the Global Minimum Set of Gender Indicators and has increasing relevance in some UNECE countries. However, this data is not available for most UNECE countries.

A.11.3.7 Enrolment and retention of girls in education, especially mathematics and science

439. This topic is covered in the Education domain.

A.11.3.8 Domestic chores, child labour, early marriage or pregnancy affecting school performance and drop-out rates

440. School enrolment and drop-out rates are dealt with in the Education domain.

441. Country-level data on child labour and child domestic work are not available, although the ILO and UNICEF have carried out surveys in a number of countries. Data on the legal

minimum working age are available. However, this would not reflect the actual age and may relate to remunerated employment only. We do not propose indicators on this topic because of the need for further methodological work.

A.11.3.9 Initiatives to improve self-esteem or self-image

442. Children and teenagers may not have fully developed their own identity or self-image, and can face enormous pressures from peers and the media to conform to norms regarding their appearance and behaviour. The EU Indicators for the BPA include body self-image within its framework.

443. Many countries in the UNECE region have seen an increase over recent decades in problems related to self-image, including eating disorders. Based on data from the UNECE database, a number of UNECE countries have over 20 per cent of female adolescents underweight. The proportion among males is much lower. This can increase the risk of health problems, or be directly detrimental to health in more severe cases.

444. Although a number of factors may influence the prevalence of low body mass (for example, poverty and eating disorders), it is informative to make comparisons between proportions of underweight males and females in each country as an indication of disparities in the age group 15-19. We therefore propose to include it among the supporting indicators in the UNECE set. Although also a risk factor to health, we propose its inclusion based on its connection to the self-image of adolescents and therefore belonging to the indicators of Childhood and Adolescence.

A.11.3.10 Sexual education, adolescent pregnancy and risky behaviour with regard to sexually transmitted diseases

445. Another area where pressure from peers and the media can influence the young individuals is in engaging in early or risky sexual behaviour. This could be measured by the proportion of 15-19 or 15-24 year olds who had sex before age 15, which is available in the Gender Info database. We propose the proportion of 15-19 year olds as the headline indicator.

446. Adolescent fertility rate is used for the monitoring of Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 5 (improvement of maternal health) and is included in the Global Minimum Set of indicators in the domain Human Rights of Women and the Girl Child. This indicator is available from multiple sources.

447. The BPA calls for the sexual education of children to mitigate potentially harmful implications of sexual activity, including the risks of unwanted pregnancy, infection by sexually transmitted disease and the potential risk of early sexual behaviour to the emotional wellbeing of adolescents. The EU indicators for the BPA also include sex and relationship education. The proportion of population aged 15-24 years with comprehensive correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS is a monitoring indicator for Millennium Development Goal, and is available from the Gender Info and MDG databases in sex-disaggregated form.

448. Whilst condom use is used for monitoring MDG 6 (combatting HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases), its relevance is toward sexually transmitted diseases and is less important in the UNECE region, where HIV is not as prevalent as in some other parts of the world. Indirectly, the adolescent fertility rate also reflects contraceptive use, so we do not propose it as an indicator for the UNECE region. Similarly, whilst knowledge of HIV is an important indicator, it is a less widespread issue in the UNECE region than some other areas.

A.11.3.11 Children not brought up by their own parents (orphans, street children)

449. Information on this could only be retrieved from MICS microdata. It is not available by sex among the MICS indicators available at the website⁷². A potential measurement issue is that the MICS surveys are household surveys, so some consideration would need to be given to whether the sampling frame included orphanages. In any case, the data would only be available for a small number of UNECE countries.

A.11.3.12 Eliminating injustice relating to inheritance

450. This topic relates to the Human Rights domain. The OECD Gender, Institutions and Development Data Base has an indicator to represent whether males or females are equal in receiving inheritance (either as a surviving partner or as son or daughter). A score of zero indicates equality. This indicator is only available for the countries of Eastern and South-Eastern Europe.

A.11.3.13 Birth registration

451. Unregistered births may lead to difficulties in interacting with institutions later in life. Data on this is only available from MICS that cover only a small number of UNECE countries.

A.11.4 Proposed indicators

452. The table below summarises the gender equality indicators that are proposed for the domain of children and adolescents for UNECE countries. Where applicable, indicators and their breakdowns in this table are to be calculated by sex.

Table A.11-V

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Source of indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Early marriage and sexual activity				
9.1	Number of 20-24 year old women who were married before age 18	Gender Info 2010 or GenderStats	51	L2, L3, L9
9.2	Proportion of young people aged 15-19 years who had sex before age 15	Gender Info 2010	—	L2, L3, L5
9.3	Adolescent fertility rate (15-19 years olds)	Widely available	52	L2, L3, L5
Self-esteem or self-image				
9.4.1	Percentage of underweight adolescents (15-19 year-olds)	UNECE Gender Database	—	L2, L3, L5
Violence in childhood				
9.5.1 (also 4.12.1)	Rate of women/men subjected to sexual violence in childhood (occurring before sixteen years old)	Violence survey needed	—	L3, L7, L9
9.6.1	Female genital mutilation	Gender Info 2010	50	L1, L2, L3, L5, L7, L9
9.7.1	Child discipline	Gender Info 2010	—	L2, L3, L7, L9

453. Since these indicators are obtained from existing indicator sets, their definition and specifications can be derived from the metadata available in the relevant websites.

⁷² www.micscompiler.org

454. The BPA Strategic Objective L4 “Eliminate discrimination against girls in education, skills development and training” is not reflected by the proposed indicators because it is covered under the Education domain.

455. Objective L6 “Eliminate the economic exploitation of child labour and protect young girls at work” is not addressed due to the lack of available data on both child labour and child domestic work. Some data on child labour exists, but it is not disseminated at the country level and does not take into account unremunerated domestic work.

A.12 Demography

A.12.1 Introduction

A.12.1.1 *Policy background*

456. The main criterion for selecting demographic indicators was that they should provide good background information on demographic trends that have a strong impact on societies and raise policy challenges in the UNECE region. The purpose of these indicators is to provide some background information for gender-based analyses but not necessarily to show links between demographic changes and gender issues.

A.12.1.2 *Existing frameworks*

457. The Global Minimum Set includes the following demographic indicators in different substantive groups:

- Under-5 mortality rate, by sex;
- Life expectancy at age 60, by sex;
- Adult mortality by cause and age groups;
- Adolescent fertility rate.

458. The set of EU Indicators for BPA does not include any demographic indicators.

A.12.2 Consideration of indicators by topic

459. After having reviewed demographic indicators based on the above mentioned criteria, eight indicators were selected. The indicators were grouped into the following sub-domains:

- Population structure and change;
- Mortality and life expectancy;
- Family and fertility.

460. Statistics on population structure and change are increasingly used to support policymaking and to provide the opportunity to monitor demographic behaviour within political, economic, social and cultural contexts. These statistics are used to support a range of analyses, including studies relating to population ageing and its effects on the sustainability of public finance and welfare. Most developed and some emerging economies in the UNECE region will undergo substantial changes in their demographic composition in the next four decades. The EU is especially confronted with this demographic challenge. Shrinking working age populations, a higher proportion of elderly persons, and in consequence increasing old age dependency rates suggest that there will be a considerable burden to provide social expenditure related to population ageing.

461. The following indicators are proposed in the "Population structure and change" sub-domain:

- Sex ratio for total population;
- Sex ratio for population aged 65 and over.

462. The most commonly used indicator for analysing mortality is that of life expectancy at birth. The gradual increase in life expectancy is one of the contributing factors to the ageing of populations, alongside relatively low levels of fertility that have persisted for decades in many countries in the UNECE region. A continuous increase in life expectancy at birth was due to improvements in living standards and the establishment and improvement in health

systems. One of the most significant changes in recent decades has been a reduction in infant mortality rates.

463. The following indicators were selected for the "Mortality and life expectancy" sub-domain:

- Life expectancy at birth by sex;
- Life expectancy at age 65 by sex;
- Infant mortality rate by sex.

464. Infant mortality rate is a more commonly used indicator in EU policy analysis and this is why it is proposed instead of under-5 mortality rate (listed in the Global Minimum Set). Furthermore, it had been decided that Health could be the primary domain for referencing the infant mortality indicator, but with this indicator cross-referenced by the Demography domain.

465. The indicator on adult mortality (listed in the Global Minimum Set) had been already proposed to be included in Health domain.

466. Statistics on marriage could show the main drivers of trends in family formation and their variation between countries. However, the family unit is a changing concept: what it means to be a member of a family and the expectations people have of family relationships vary with time and space, making it difficult to find a universally agreed and applied definition. Legal alternatives to marriage, like registered partnership, have become more widespread and national legislation has evolved to confer more rights to unmarried couples. Alongside these new legal forms, other forms of non-marital relationships have appeared, making it more difficult for statisticians to collect data within this domain that can be compared across countries. Fertility statistics gives an important background for family policymaking. A number of common demographic trends are apparent across many countries, such as a decline in fertility rates and an increasing mean age of mothers at childbirth.

467. The following indicators are proposed in the "Family and fertility" sub-domain:

- Mean age at first marriage by sex;
- Mean age of women at birth of first child;
- Total fertility rate;
- Adolescent fertility rate (listed in the Global Minimum Set) had been already proposed to be included in Girl Child domain.

A.12.3 Available sources of indicators

468. Data for all indicators, except two: mean age at first marriage by sex and mean age of women at birth of first child, are available for most countries of the UNECE region. It should be further checked if the countries of the UNECE region would be able to produce the following two indicators: mean age at first marriage by sex and mean age of women at birth of first child. Eurostat is in the process of developing these two indicators for the EU Members States. As mean age of man at birth of first child by sex is usually not available for men due to the lack of data from administrative sources Eurostat is not in position to provide this indicator in the near future.

A.12.4 Proposed indicators

The indicators in Table A.12-I are proposed to represent the topics of:

- Population structure and change;
- Mortality and life expectancy;
- Family and fertility.

469. Since the role of demographic indicators is to provide context to indicators from other domains, they are all supporting indicators. Where applicable, indicators and their breakdowns in this table are to be calculated by sex.

Table A.12-I

<i>Indicator number</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Relevant global min set indicator</i>	<i>Relevant BPA strategic objective</i>
Supporting Indicators			
10.1.1	Sex ratio for total population	—	Relevant to multiple domains
10.1.2	Sex ratio for population aged 65 and over	—	Relevant to multiple domains
10.1.3	Life expectancy at birth	—	Relevant to multiple domains
10.1.4	Life expectancy at age 65	41, (age 60)	Relevant to domain C
10.1.5	Infant mortality rate	—	Relevant to domain C
10.1.6	Mean age at first marriage	—	Relevant to multiple domains
10.1.7	Mean age of women at birth of first child	—	Relevant to multiple domains
10.1.8	Total fertility rate	—	Relevant to multiple domains

Annex B: Global Minimum Set Indicators

470. The Inter-agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics under the United Nations Statistical Commission has established a minimum set of gender indicators for international compilation worldwide, to provide a basis for monitoring gender issues on the global level Available from (United Nations, 2012).

I. Economic structures, participation in productive activities and access to resources

- 1 Average number of hours spent on unpaid domestic work by sex
Note: Separate housework and child care if possible
- 2 Average number of hours spent on paid and unpaid work combined (total work burden), by sex
- 3 Labour force participation rates for 15-24 and 15+, by sex
- 4 Proportion of employed who are own-account workers, by sex
- 5 Proportion of employed who are working as contributing family workers, by sex
- 6 Proportion of employed who are employer, by sex
- 7 Percentage of firms owned by women, by size
- 8 Percentage distribution of employed population by sector, each sex
- 9 Informal employment as a percentage of total non- agricultural employment, by sex
- 10 Youth unemployment by sex
- 11 Proportion of population with access to credit, by sex
- 12 Proportion of adult population owning land, by sex
- 13 Gender gap in wages
- 14 Proportion of employed working part-time, by sex
- 15 Employment rate of persons aged 25-49 with a child under age 3 living in a household and with no children living in the household, by sex
- 16 Proportion of children under age 3 in formal care
- 17 Proportion of individuals using the Internet, by sex
- 18 Proportion of individuals using mobile/cellular telephones , by sex
- 19 Proportion of households with access to mass media (radio, TV, Internet), by sex of household head

II. Education

- 20 Literacy rate of persons aged 15-24 years old, by sex
- 21 Adjusted net enrolment ratio in primary education by sex
- 22 Gross enrolment ratio in secondary education, by sex
- 23 Gross enrolment ratios in tertiary education, by sex
- 24 Gender parity index in enrolment at primary, secondary and tertiary levels
- 25 Share of female science, engineering, manufacturing and construction graduates at tertiary level
- 26 Proportion of females among tertiary education teachers or professors
- 27 Net intake in first grade of primary education, by sex
- 28 Primary education completion rate, by sex

29	Graduation from lower secondary education, by sex
30	Transition rate to secondary education, by sex
31	Education attainment of population aged 25 and over, by sex
<i>III. Health and related services</i>	
32	Contraceptive prevalence among women who are married or in a union, aged 15-49
33	Under-five mortality rate, by sex
34	Maternal mortality ratio
35	Antenatal care coverage
36	Proportion of births attended by skilled health professional
37	Smoking prevalence among persons aged 15 and over, by sex
38	Proportion of adults who are obese, by sex
39	Women's share of population aged 15-49 living with HIV/AIDS
40	Access to anti-retroviral drug, by sex
41	Life expectancy at age 60, by sex
42	Adult mortality by cause and age groups
<i>IV. Public life and decision-making</i>	
43	Women's share of government ministerial positions
44	Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
45	Women's share of managerial positions
46	Percentage of female police officers
47	Percentage of female judges
<i>V. Human rights of women and girl children</i>	
48	Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in the last 12 months by an intimate partner
49	Proportion of women aged 15-49 subjected to physical or sexual violence in the last 12 months by persons other than an intimate partner
50	Prevalence of female genital mutilation/cutting (for relevant countries only)
51	Percentage of women aged 20-24 years old who were married or in a union before age 18
52	Adolescent fertility rate

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