Gender equality and women’s rights in the post-2015 agenda: A foundation for sustainable development

- Gender equality and women’s rights are key to addressing the unfinished business of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and accelerating global development beyond 2015. Gender equality matters in its own right, and as a prerequisite for the health and development of families and societies, and a driver of economic growth.

- The post-2015 framework should 1) retain a strong, stand-alone goal on gender equality and women’s empowerment, as recommended by the UN High Level Panel on the Post-2015 Development Agenda (HLP); and 2) include gender-specific targets and indicators in the other goals.

- A strong post-2015 framework will take a holistic view of gender inequalities: 1) addressing girls’ completion of a quality education, 2) women’s economic empowerment, 3) universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights, 4) ending violence against women and girls, 5) women’s voice, leadership and influence, 6) women’s participation in peace and security, 7) women’s contributions to environmental sustainability.

- The new framework will need to confront the discriminatory social norms and practices that underlie gender inequality, such as early marriage or tolerance of violence against women.

- Targets and indicators on gender equality act as a powerful stimulus for action. When girls and women are visible in data collection and reporting, governments and donors invest more in gender equality. There is an urgent need for ongoing investment in statistical capacity building and monitoring to improve the measurement of gender equality indicators and the collection of data disaggregated by sex.

Why focus on gender equality in the post-2015 agenda?

There is no chance of making poverty history without significant and rapid improvements to the lives of women and girls in all countries. Millennium Development Goal 3 – “to promote gender equality and empower women” – signalled global recognition that this is both an important development goal in itself, and a key to the success of all the other goals.

The post-2015 framework presents a unique opportunity to build on the achievements of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), while also addressing the dimensions that lag behind. It is time to act now – to increase both the political will and the resources to achieve full and lasting gender equality, women’s empowerment and women’s rights.
Reviewing the Millennium Development Goal on gender equality

Progress towards the Millennium Development Goal 3 (MDG 3; see Box 1) target has been mixed. Although gender equality in access to primary schooling has almost been achieved in most countries, there are still 68 countries where the disparity remains significant. Girls’ enrolment in basic education is lowest in sub Saharan Africa, Oceania and the Middle East. Moreover, gender disparities widen in secondary and tertiary education in most developing countries. While more women have entered the workforce in recent decades, they typically work at the informal end of labour markets with poor earnings and insecure conditions. This increases the risk of poverty across their lifecycle and makes it less likely that they will be covered by social protection schemes and benefits such as pensions. Women still face a gender pay gap, segregation in occupations and glass ceilings, with over-representation in low-paying jobs and under-representation in senior positions. Around 800 women die every day from preventable causes during pregnancy and childbirth, making MDG 5 on maternal health the most off track MDG goal in 2013.

Box 1. Millennium Development Goal 3

MDG 3: To promote gender equality and empower women.

Target: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015.

Indicators:

- ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education
- share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector
- proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments.


Despite progress in some areas, the OECD report Closing the Gender Gap: Act Now (2012a) found that gender equality and women’s empowerment remain “unfinished business” across all countries. Its key findings were:

- Better gender equality in education boosts female labour force participation and economic growth.

- In many low-income countries, young women are less likely than young men to be in paid work, education or training. They are also less likely to complete secondary education.

- Schools need to be made safer and more affordable for girls.

- Women in informal employment tend to be over-represented among domestic and family workers. They are at greater risk of poverty and have limited prospects of upward mobility.

- Occupational segregation has not improved and gender pay gaps persist.
• Cultural barriers need to be challenged, as well as the stereotyping of women’s roles in society, business and the public sector.

• Women entrepreneurs remain a minority in all countries. Enterprises owned by women are significantly smaller and less well represented in capital-intensive sectors.

• In developing economies, women are much more likely to own small enterprises in the informal sector than the formal one. Ensuring equal access to finance for male and female entrepreneurs is a priority.

• In most countries, women are still under-represented in parliaments, judicial systems, executive branch of governments, and senior civil service – even in countries where they account for the majority of public sector workers.

**A stand-alone goal on gender equality and women’s rights**

Eminent persons recognised the need to keep gender equality as a stand-alone goal in the UN Secretary General’s High Level Panel on the Post-2015 Development Agenda (HLP, 2013). They also proposed national targets on eliminating violence against women and girls; ending early marriage; ensuring access, ownership and inheritance of assets; and eliminating discrimination against women in political, economic and public life.

A strong, stand-alone goal is needed to tackle the gender inequalities that remain widespread and persistent across the world and which leave women disproportionately represented amongst the poorest and most marginalised people. A stand-alone gender equality goal is also strategically important in order to remove barriers to progress in the other goals. This paper does not attempt to identify specific targets and indicators, but recommends that a stand-alone gender equality goal should have a limited number of targets, without which gender equality and women’s empowerment cannot be achieved. The proposed targets for ending early marriage and stopping violence against women and girls are good examples (see the section on measurement and data below).
Gender-specific targets across all goals

An effective post-2015 framework must prioritise gender equality across other goals through concrete, gender-specific targets and indicators, including in the areas of poverty, education, health, jobs and livelihoods, food security, environmental and energy sustainability, and stable and peaceful societies. None of these development goals will be achieved without addressing gender inequality.

The UN’s HLP report recognises this need for integration across the goals, both to challenge the underlying gender inequalities that impede women’s progress and to intensify the “multiplier” effect of gender equality on achieving other development goals. For example, greater gender equality in education allows countries to reap the economic benefits of female human capital, which in turn supports overall economic growth.

There is strong evidence that closing gender gaps accelerates progress towards other development goals. Analysis based on the OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) data finds that lower levels of discrimination against women are linked to better outcomes in several areas, including educational attainment, child health and food security. For example, where women have a more equal status in the family, children are more likely to complete primary school, even when allowing for differences in country income level, urbanisation and the fertility rate. Where women have greater “physical integrity” (control over their own bodies), child health outcomes improve. Countries with the greatest restrictions on women’s physical integrity – for example, where there are high levels of violence against women, and where women lack the power to make choices about their sexual and reproductive lives – have an average infant mortality rate more than three times the rate of countries with low levels of restrictions (Figure 1). Similarly, countries where women lack any right to own land have on average 60% more malnourished children.

**Figure 1:** Child mortality rates are higher in countries where women’s physical integrity is highly restricted

Measurement and data

A strong focus on gender equality in the post-2015 framework would incentivise better tracking of progress towards this goal, thereby increasing demand for gender equality data and statistical capacity building. These are essential to fill the significant remaining gaps in data availability, comparability, quality and coverage on vital gender equality issues. These include violence against women; women’s access to and control over assets; women’s political empowerment and voice at a local level; and time spent in unpaid domestic and care work. Many countries do not measure gender equality indicators, not only because their capacity for data collection is limited, but also because they do not prioritise these issues. Prioritising gender equality in a global framework would provide an impetus to change this.

The OECD has developed a range of tools which can be applied globally to improve measurement and data collection on gender equality.

- In 2012, as a follow up to the OECD Gender Initiative, the OECD launched its one stop Gender Data Portal that provides easy access to data and interactive visualisations for more than 40 gender equality indicators, including historical trends.

- The OECD/Eurostat Entrepreneurship Programme documents the large and persistent gender inequalities that hinder women from owning and growing successful businesses. It has developed definitions, indicators and analysis to measure these inequalities.

- The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) is a composite measure of gender inequality. It captures discriminatory laws, norms and practices in over 100 non-OECD countries across five dimensions including discrimination in the family, violence against women, women’s access to resources and access to public space. This data uniquely complements the more usual gender equality indicators, such as employment and education, to give a clearer picture of the social norms that restrict women’s and girls’ opportunities.

- The OECD Better Life Index is an interactive web-based tool that allows people to compare well-being across countries, according to living conditions – housing, income, jobs; and quality of life – community, education, environment, governance, health, life satisfaction, safety and work life balance. The Index shows how life compares for women and men, and for those at the top and bottom of the social and economic ladder.

- The OECD’s Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) has identified and reported on gender gaps in student learning achievement since its launch in 2000 (OECD, 2013a). PISA has also collected data on and analysed the career plans of girl and boy students, their levels of motivation to learn, and the various socio-economic factors that affect their schooling. More than 70 countries participate in PISA, including 28 low income and middle income countries such as Brazil, Peru and Vietnam. The OECD’s new PISA for Development initiative seeks to increase developing countries’ participation in PISA.

- The OECD International Network on Financial Literacy has developed a financial literacy survey to collect data on financial knowledge. These data can be used to study the extent of gender differences in financial literacy and the links to socio-economic background and financial inclusion.
Financing gender equality and women’s rights

The effective implementation of the post-2015 agenda will require financing at country level. One of the global indicators for monitoring development co-operation effectiveness measures the proportion of developing countries which have systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment. UN Women and the OECD Secretariat worked with developing countries on the design and field-testing of this indicator. The results of the first monitoring survey will be available in 2014.

In addition, the OECD will continue to track, analyse and publish data on the gender equality focus of OECD members’ development co-operation, using the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) gender equality policy marker and other established statistical tools. Efforts are under way to better measure development co-operation commitments to ending violence against women and girls. One particularly effective strategy for ensuring accountability is supporting women’s organisations to improve their capacity to actively monitor investments.

A holistic approach to gender equality in the new framework

While MDG 3 has been successful in promoting gender equality in some important areas, it misses critical dimensions. The post-2015 framework should build on the current MDG goals to take a holistic approach to addressing gender inequality, including through tackling discriminatory social norms and practices that impede progress towards gender equality in each of the areas below. This brief does not make specific proposals regarding gender equality targets and indicators; rather it identifies seven priority areas that need to be addressed.

1. The quality of girls’ secondary and higher levels of education and learning outcomes

Secondary and higher levels of education have enormous pay-offs for women’s empowerment, yet the world is far from reaching parity between girls’ and boys’ rates of enrolment and school completion (see Box 3). Just one additional year of school gives women much better economic prospects, more decision-making autonomy, greater control over their own fertility, healthier children, and better chances of sending their own children to school. If adolescent girls are kept in school to complete a quality secondary education, they will be much better equipped to reach their full potential and make informed choices about their lives. Girls’ completion of a quality secondary education should be a top priority for the post-2015 framework, including a focus on learning outcomes, as recommended by the HLP (2013).
Box 3. Tackling social norms which discriminate against women

Discriminatory social norms and practices affect educational outcomes for girls and boys. The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) data shows a strong relationship between the prevalence of early marriage and the gender gap in secondary school enrolments. Countries with a higher share of girls who are married have a greater gender gap in secondary school enrolments. When this gender gap is analysed according to all dimensions of the SIGI, the most significant factors are “Restricted Civil Liberties” (women and girls’ access to public space) and “Restricted Physical Integrity” (women and girls’ control over their own bodies), even when allowing for country income level and urbanisation. There are only six girls for every ten boys in secondary school in countries where women and girls’ physical integrity is most restricted (Figure 2). This suggests that strengthening access to sexual and reproductive rights, addressing violence against women and girls, and ensuring women and girls’ equal participation and voice in the public sphere are important for improving girls’ educational outcomes. Similarly, the SIGI data show a relationship between discriminatory social norms and women’s employment outcomes, including the share of women in vulnerable employment.


Figure 2: There are only 6 girls for every 10 boys in secondary school in countries where women and girls’ physical integrity is most restricted$^{12}$

![Graph showing the female/male secondary enrolment ratio (predicted values) across different levels of discrimination.](image)

2. Women’s economic empowerment

The primary focus of the MDGs’ targets for gender equality was on social development. While this directed welcome attention towards improving women and girls’ health and education, women’s roles in and contributions to the economy were largely ignored. Women’s economic empowerment must be a priority in the post-2015 framework.

The post-2015 development agenda should include targets and indicators on women’s ownership of and access to assets; engagement in quality employment; entrepreneurship; and time spent in unpaid caring and household work. Women’s ownership of and access to assets, resources and services – land, housing, income, employment, water, technology, credit, markets, banking and financial services – are critical to women’s empowerment, rights and wellbeing. Women’s economic empowerment is also a driver of development that addresses poverty, reduces inequalities, and improves children’s health, nutrition, and school attendance. For example, the SIGI data for 2009 shows that countries where women have equal rights to land produce around three times more annual cereal yields compared to countries where women have no rights to land. Similar findings are evident looking at the relationship between women’s access to resources and child malnutrition.

Yet, globally and across sectors, women face more severe constraints (formal and informal) than men in accessing decent jobs, productive resources, financial services, investment opportunities and credit. The gender gap in earnings remains pervasive across the globe. Today four out of ten workers worldwide are women, but the average woman earns only 20% as much as the average man in countries as diverse as the Ivory Coast, Jordan, Latvia and the Slovak Republic. In Germany the figure is only 60% (World Bank, 2012). Around two thirds of working women in developing countries are in vulnerable jobs, as own account (self-employed) or unpaid family workers, casual or seasonal agricultural labourers, workers in urban factories and workshops, or as domestic servants. Discriminatory social institutions are a factor in the quality of women’s employment. The post-2015 framework should therefore include indicators to monitor progress in women’s access to quality employment and the gender pay gap.

Women’s entrepreneurship must also be addressed, as this is an untapped source of growth, prosperity and poverty reduction, as well as being fundamental to women’s empowerment. In both developed and developing countries, female-owned firms tend to operate in a restricted number of sectors, be small in size and characterised by low growth potential. Women need access to the full range of credit, training and business services beyond microfinance to develop strong and viable enterprises. In the East Asia and Pacific region, output per worker could be 7-18% higher if female entrepreneurs and workers were in the same sectors, types of jobs and activities as men, and had the same access to productive resources. Women also need the knowledge, confidence and skills to take advantage of economic and financial opportunities (OECD, forthcoming).

Box 4. OECD-MENA Women’s Business Forum

Lessons on women’s entrepreneurship can be drawn from the OECD-MENA Women’s Business Forum, which works with members and partners across the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region to help accelerate women’s enterprise development and economic participation. The MENA OECD Investment Programme also examines the impact of legal, cultural and financial frameworks of selected MENA countries in order to determine how much their implementation impacts women’s economic participation.

In all countries, women do the vast bulk of unpaid work and are the main providers of care to children, the elderly and the sick. Heavy domestic and childcare responsibilities either hinder women from entering or maintaining formal, waged labour, or restrict women to low-paid, low status jobs, such as home-based work. Heavy, unpaid work burdens also limit their opportunities to gain new skills and qualifications and increases women’s exposure to exhaustion, stress and related diseases. The OECD How’s Life? (2011) shows, for example, that across all OECD countries, women confront a “double burden” when trying to reconcile family and professional responsibilities. The same challenges can be seen in developing countries, where unpaid care and domestic tasks can be even more time consuming when the infrastructure is poor and access to resources such as water and energy is restricted.

Unpaid work should be a central element in the design of economic and social development policies (such as the cost-benefit assessment of care facilities and other social infrastructure). As shown by the work of the MENA OECD Women in Government Platform, even in the public sector – which is the main employer of women in many countries around the world – there is still a considerable lag in providing work life balance solutions that would fully enable women to carry out their paid work and family responsibilities, and achieve full empowerment. Policies such as childcare, tax and benefits systems, parental leave and flexible working arrangements can help promote greater gender equality in the distribution of paid and unpaid work.

3. Violence against women and girls

Violence against women and girls is a universal phenomenon rooted in persistent discrimination against women and historically unequal power relations between women and men. It cuts across all cultures, countries, regions and generations. It harms women’s health and well being, violates their human rights, and impoverishes women, families and society as a whole. Domestic violence is the most common form of violence globally, experienced by one in three women in their lifetime. Sexual violence against women and girls is particularly widespread in conflict situations.

The 2012 SIGI found that despite improvements in legal protection on violence against women, violence and abuse remain a reality in all regions. This is driven in part by the persistence of social norms and attitudes that condone violence against women. For countries where data is available, on average around one in two women believe domestic violence is justified in certain circumstances. The SIGI data shows that the prevalence of domestic violence is closely linked to discriminatory attitudes. Where there is a high social acceptance of domestic violence, its prevalence is more than double the average of countries where there is little acceptance. The link continues to be significant even when taking into account the existence and quality of domestic violence laws and country income level, signalling that laws alone will not reduce violence against women. It is critical that the post-2015 framework include indicators on prevalence of, and attitudes towards, violence against women.

Box 5. Global voices on transforming social norms to prevent violence against women

Wikigender.org, the OECD’s crowd-sourcing and collaborative platform on gender equality, hosted an online discussion on “transforming social norms to prevent violence against women and girls” in February 2013. With 70 contributions from around the world, participants in this public consultation agreed that tackling underlying social norms to prevent violence against women is a top priority. Participants emphasised that women’s empowerment is an essential prerequisite for preventing violence against women and that improving data and evidence is key to fostering progress in this area.

4. Sexual and reproductive health and rights

Sexual and reproductive health and rights are central to increasing women’s opportunities – not only for responsible decision making on reproductive matters, but also for finishing their education and breaking out of poverty. Yet the SIGI found that on average one in five women has an unmet need for family planning. The SIGI also shows that adolescent girls are twice as likely to be infected with HIV in countries where there are very high restrictions on women and girl’s physical integrity, such as their freedom to make choices about their fertility and sexual lives, compared to countries where there are low restrictions. Almost 10% of girls become mothers by the age of 16, with the highest rates in sub-Saharan Africa and Asia. Despite this, funding for family planning and reproductive health has declined since the mid 1990s as a share of development co-operation to population policies and programmes (Figure 3).

The potential benefits of funding for family planning are enormous:

- Addressing the unmet need for contraceptives would prevent 54 million unintended pregnancies and 26 million abortions.
- For every dollar spent on providing modern contraception, USD 1.40 would be saved in medical care costs.
- As many as 13% of under-five deaths in developing countries could be avoided by increasing the spacing between births.
- Lower fertility rates reduce poverty.

**Figure 3:** Funding for family planning and reproductive health has dropped since the mid-1990s as a percentage of development co-operation to population policies and programmes

5. Women’s leadership, voice and influence

Women’s capacity to participate in and influence the decisions that affect their lives – from the household to the highest levels of political decision making – is a basic human right and a prerequisite for responsive and equitable governance. Increasing women’s representation and participation at all levels is essential for advancing issues of importance to women on national and local agendas. A study of women elected to local government in India found that women’s leadership positively affected the provision of services for both men and women. Women’s participation also contributes to more inclusive, democratic and stable societies. For example, the OECD has found that in countries where women’s participation and access to the public sphere is more restricted, there is a higher level of political instability (OECD, 2012c). Empowering women and fully leveraging their talent and leadership in the global economy, politics and society has a catalytic impact on maximising a country’s development potential.

Yet women still comprise only one in five parliamentarians worldwide, accounting for just 19.7% of the world’s legislators in 2012. They make up just 27% of judges worldwide and primarily serve in lower courts where the stakes are thought to be lower (UN Women, 2011). This is despite the fact that courts function as a prime site for upholding gender equality, and evidence confirms that the presence of women jurists is vital to safeguarding equal rights for women and men. Increasing women’s participation and leadership at every level of society is a critical issue for the post-2015 framework.

6. Women, peace and security

Building peaceful and sustainable states requires the active engagement and inclusion of women in peace and security negotiations. Peace-building processes can also offer opportunities to advance gender equality; of the countries that have 30% or more women in parliament, around a third have experienced recent conflict, fragility or a transition to democracy (UN Security Council, 2012). Despite this, a review of 31 major peace processes between 1992 and 2011 showed that only 4% of signatories, 2.4% of chief mediators, 3.7% of witnesses, and 9% of negotiators are women (UN Women, 2012).

Any emphasis on conflict, peace-building and state-building issues in the post-2015 development agenda should build on the goals of the various United Nations Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security. These affirm the importance of women’s full participation in peace and security, recognise the disproportionate impact of conflict on women, and call for measures to protect women from sexual violence in conflict. The post-2015 framework will need to include specific commitments to accelerate and better co-ordinate efforts to implement these resolutions to advance women’s participation and leadership in peace-building, conflict resolution and state-building decision-making processes.

7. Women’s contribution to environmental and energy sustainability

The post-2015 energy and environmental sustainability goals will need to incorporate gender specific targets and indicators that recognise the differential impacts of environmental degradation and climate change on women and men, and women’s key contribution to effective responses. Women are the world’s main producers of food as well as being primarily responsible for collecting water and fuel. In these roles, they have extensive knowledge about the management of natural resources and ecosystems and can provide vital insights into effective climate change responses. Recognising
women and girls as agents of change, and ensuring their participation in environmental decision making from community to international levels, is therefore a prerequisite for effective and equitable responses.

However, women are also more vulnerable than men to the impacts of climate change. Women’s socially ascribed responsibility for the management of natural resources such as water and fuel means they are more adversely affected as resources become scarce. Women’s lack of access to land, agricultural technologies and financial capital hinders opportunities to diversify their livelihoods or increase resilience in the face of climate change. Tackling the underlying social norms which limit women’s access to social and economic resources – such as land and financial capital – will be key to implementing gender-responsive climate change measures.

What can the OECD offer?

**Best practices, policy and research support**

The OECD promotes and supports international and national debates and exchanges policy principles and good practices. It can contribute its policy knowledge, statistics and best practices to support the evidence based case for a gender equality goal and mainstreaming throughout the post-2015 framework.

The OECD Gender Initiative examined existing barriers to gender equality in education, employment, and entrepreneurship. Closing the Gender Gap: Act Now (OECD, 2012a) provides a rich set of data, analysis and actionable policy messages to improve policies for promoting gender equality.

The OECD Recommendation of the Council on Gender Equality in Education, Employment and Entrepreneurship (2013d), adopted at the 2013 OECD Ministerial Council Meeting, sets out a number

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**Box 6. Worldwide voices call for a gender-sensitive approach to sustainability**

Participants across the globe in a 2012 Wikigender online discussion called for a gender sensitive approach when addressing the post-2015 energy and environmental sustainability goals. Key messages included:

- Women’s knowledge and expertise should be better recognised and harnessed in the context of climate variability.
- Women’s access to and control over productive and natural resources should be improved.
- Women’s burden of unpaid work and time poverty is often exacerbated in the context of climate change and needs to be monitored.
- Ensuring women’s active and full participation in decision making around environmental and energy sustainability is a priority.
- Improved data collection – for example, data on resilience and vulnerability post-disaster – and further gender analysis of the Kyoto Protocol Mechanisms and their impacts are essential for the post-2015 framework.

Source: Wikigender (2012), “How can gender equality be better integrated into climate change policies and programmes in order to ensure sustainable development?” synthesis of the Wikigender online discussion, 29 May - 8 June 2012, Wikigender website, www.wikigender.org/images/7/7c/Online_discussion_Summary_FINAL.pdf.
of measures that OECD members should consider to address gender inequalities in education, employment and entrepreneurship, including through their development co-operation programmes.

OECD publications explore diverse policy and research areas such as discriminatory social institutions and gender inequalities; the quality and quantity of development co-operation efforts focused on gender equality and women’s empowerment; gender gaps in education, employment, entrepreneurship and financial literacy; gender equality and state-building; and women’s economic integration, particularly in transition regions such as the Middle East and North Africa.¹⁴

The 2011 OECD surveys on “National Gender Frameworks, Gender Public Policies and Leadership in the OECD and in the MENA region” and on “Gender and Public Employment” collected information on gender mainstreaming and public employment in OECD countries and beyond. The surveys also included questions on sex-disaggregated data collection and public sector capacity to collect such data.

**Expertise on gender equality data and indicators**

The OECD can make a significant contribution to the post-2015 framework by continuing to collect and analyse data on the status of women globally and developing relevant gender equality indicators in its specialised areas.

**Facilitating policy dialogue**

The OECD is closely engaged in policy dialogue on gender equality with members, partner countries, civil society and key international organisations through several platforms including the DAC Network on Gender Equality (GENDERNET), the Development Centre, the Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation, the OECD MENA Women’s Business Forum and the OECD International Network on Financial Education (INFE). The OECD also engages with the broader gender equality and development communities through Wikigender, a global, interactive platform attracting over 50,000 visits per month.
END NOTES


2. See www.oecd.org/gender/data.


5. See www.oecd.org/pisa.


8. See http://stats.wikiprogress.org

9. One of ten as agreed by the 4th High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness.

10. The DAC gender equality policy marker is a statistical tool to measure development co-operation that is principally or significantly focused on gender equality.


12. Predicted values of the female to male ratio of secondary school enrolment rate (net), by SIGI 2012 ‘Restricted Physical Integrity’ sub index, controlling for all other SIGI sub-indices, GDP and level of urbanisation. Note that the R-squared of the regression is 0.63. Regression results available upon request.


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The United Nations (UN) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were established in 2000/1 and consist of eight development objectives to be achieved by 2015. It is widely agreed that the MDGs have been effective in mobilising worldwide awareness, leveraging resources, guiding global development efforts and increasing accountability. It is also impressive how close the world will get to most of the MDGs by 2015. There is need, however, for a successor framework once the MDGs expire in 2015 to keep the momentum built to date. The OECD played a pivotal role in defining the MDGs. With two years to go, the OECD is increasing its efforts to support the achievement of the MDGs, and at the same time thinking about how it can help the UN in developing a new agenda and framework post-2015. The OECD has a number of areas of expertise which could play an important role in shaping this post-2015 agenda and framework. In the overview brochure for this series, the OECD proposes eleven areas which would be of particular relevance (Beyond the MDGs: Towards an OECD contribution to the post-2015 agenda). This brochure focuses on one of these – achieving gender equality and women’s rights as a foundation for sustainable development.

Element 1: Measuring what you treasure and keeping poverty at the heart of development
Element 2: Developing a universal measure of educational success
Element 3: Achieving gender equality and women’s rights
Element 4: Integrating sustainability into development
Element 5: Strengthening national statistical systems
Element 6: Building effective institutions and accountability mechanisms
Element 7: Developing and promoting peacebuilding and statebuilding goals
Element 8: Ensuring policy coherence for development
Element 9: Sharing knowledge and engaging in policy dialogue and mutual learning
Element 10: Promoting the Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation
Element 11: Measuring and monitoring development finance

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