Social Institutions and Gender Index

SIGI 2019 Global Report

TRANSFORMING CHALLENGES INTO OPPORTUNITIES



OECD DEVELOPMENT CENTRE

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Preface

Placing women and men on an equal footing in every walk of political, economic and social life – gender equality – is not only a moral imperative, but also an economic one. As this report points out, the cost to the global economy of gender-based discrimination in social institutions is USD 6 trillion (7.5% of the global GDP). The social impact of gender inequality affects the quality of life of millions of women in every sphere, but also has consequences for their families and communities. Much more is needed to achieve *de facto* equality between women and men. Social media movements as #MeToo, #BalanceTonPorc, #NiUnaMenos, and #JusticeforAsifa, are a stark reminder that violence against women and girls is an ongoing and pervasive problem that laws have been insufficient to remedy.

Decision makers have agreed on a new global compact: Agenda 2030. It puts gender equality and social norms at the core of sustainable and inclusive development. Governments are introducing gender-equality principles into their national and foreign policies as never before. World leaders have declared themselves feminists, supporting equal rights and opportunities for all citizens, regardless of their gender. Investments in gender equality issues, including collecting gender data, are at an all-time high. New partners, including the private sector and philanthropy, are stepping up to support gender equality, challenging the status quo and exploring new ways to advance the rights and empowerment of women and girls.

For the last decade, the Development Centre's Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) has been supporting countries in better understanding the barriers to gender equality better. By looking at the *de jure* and the *de facto* situations, often placing their effects in opposition to each other the SIGI 2019 Global Report shows that, despite impressive advances towards gender equality since the last SIGI report in 2014, the statutory legal system can be thwarted by parallel structures embedded in society. The power of the SIGI – and of this report, which analyses its data – demonstrates that reforms can have limited traction unless cultural, social and religious norms and structures are taken into account. This is why the SIGI report calls for rethinking how gender equality is tackled, emphasising the need to challenge entrenched ideas and prejudices to achieve the SDGs.

Indeed, empowering all women and girls, which is the objective of SDG 5, requires changing the way we think and act. This whole-of-society shift can best happen through better data collection, better analysis and better sharing of innovative approaches. The OECD Development Centre remains committed to supporting this paradigm shift and to making the SIGI even more relevant to policy makers as they advance towards achieving gender equality in all spheres of life.

Mario Pezzini

Director, OECD Development Centre

Special Advisor to the OECD Secretary General on Development

Foreword

For the past decade, the OECD Development Centre's Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) has been measuring and addressing gender-based discrimination by looking at the invisible part of the iceberg and providing a clearer vision of how social institutions shape women's lives. The SIGI looks at the gaps that legislation, social norms and practices create between women and men in terms of rights and opportunities. This innovative tool enables policy makers and development practitioners to understand the barriers to gender equality better and to identify the drivers behind persistent forms of discrimination. First launched in 2009, and subsequently in 2012, 2014 and 2019, the SIGI has served as the basis for a series of reports analysing the level of discrimination in social institutions and the progress on gender equality. SIGI publications have included global reports, regional reports and country studies.

The SIGI 2019 Global Report assesses social institutions holistically by looking at the *de jure* and the *de facto* situations, often placing their effects in opposition to each other to show that, despite impressive advances towards gender equality since the last SIGI report in 2014, the statutory legal system can be thwarted by parallel structures embedded in society. The SIGI 2019 has also been adapted to meet the needs of the development community as it works towards Agenda 2030. The SIGI is an official data source for SDG Indicator 5.1.1. on legal frameworks, but also provides data for almost all targets included in SDG 5, providing a comprehensive vision of national progress on gender equality.

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Abbreviations and acronyms

AFI	Alliance for Financial Inclusion
CCT	Conditional cash transfer
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CSO	Civil society organisations
DF	Discrimination in the family
DHS	Demographic and Health Surveys
EBRD	European Bank for Reconstruction and Development
EIGE	European Institute for Gender Equality
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FGM	Female Genital Mutilation
GDP	Gross domestic product
GID-DB	Gender Institutions and Development Database
ICRW	International Center for Research on Women
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
ITUC	International Trade Union Confederation
LGBTI	Lesbian Gay Bi Transgender and Intersex
MP	Member of Parliament
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OGMAP	City of Osh Municipal Auto Transport Enterprise
RAFPR	Restricted access to productive and financial resources
RCL	Restricted civil liberties
RPI	Restricted physical integrity
SDGs	United Nations Sustainable Development Goals
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
UCLG	United Cities and Local Governments
UN	United Nations
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAW	Violence against women
WHO	World Health Organization

Executive summary

This report provides an overview of the main outcomes of the SIGI in relation to women and the family, their physical integrity, access to productive and financial resources and their civic rights. Building on these outcomes, the report provides a set of policy recommendations to enhance governments' efforts to deliver their gender-equality commitments.

Greater gender equality in laws and social norms represents an opportunity for governments to achieve Agenda 2030

By restricting women's contribution to sustainable and inclusive development, discriminatory laws, social norms and practices have negative consequences, not only for women's well-being but also for their families and entire societies. Such discrimination induces a loss of 8% in the global level of investment, reduces women's average years of schooling by 16% and decreases labour force participation by 12%. As a result, the current level of discrimination, as measured by the SIGI, reduces global income by 7.5%, a loss of USD 6 trillion, or USD 1 552 per capita. If gender parity in social institutions can be achieved by 2030 it could increase the world's GDP growth by 0.4% every year until then.

Promoting gender equality and women's empowerment requires political and social commitments and action. Yet, economic growth by itself cannot achieve gender equality. If wealthier OECD countries have lower levels of discrimination, it is not the result of economic development but, rather, of long-term political and social investments in gender equality. Most OECD countries have implemented highly gender-responsive legal reforms and policies over the past century, fostering a long process of shifts in patriarchal social norms. Most OECD countries have opened new avenues for women's economic, political and social empowerment. Consequently, they have benefited more from women's economic contributions. Indeed, in 2014 women contributed 38% in Western Europe's GDP compared to 18% in the Middle East and North Africa.

Building on the momentum for greater gender equality, progress has been made since the last edition of the SIGI

New legislation to enhance gender equality and abolish discriminatory laws reflects increasing political commitment. Since the last edition of the SIGI in 2014: 15 countries have enacted legislation to criminalise domestic violence (e.g. Algeria and Solomon Islands); 15 countries have eliminated legal exceptions that allow underage (<18) girls to marry (e.g. Democratic Republic of the Congo and Panama); 8 countries introduced legal measures to promote gender-balanced representation in elected public offices (e.g. Republic of Moldova and Timor-Leste); paid maternity leave is guaranteed in all but Papua New Guinea and the United States; Iraq and Senegal have removed discriminatory requirements regarding women's passport and ID applications, respectively.

Similarly, transformative gender policies and programmes are starting to produce results: some social norms that are detrimental to equality have become less prominent. Social acceptance of domestic violence is becoming less common; while 50% of the female population globally said they thought it was acceptable under certain circumstances in 2012, the proportion who expressed that view in 2014 had dropped to 35% and, by 2018, the proportion was 27%, which may still be shocking, but is, nonetheless, almost half what it had been six years before. In Sudan, the proportion of women who said they supported female genital mutilation (FGM) declined from 27% to 18% between 2014 and 2018. This attitude shift and the resulting decrease in the practice of "cutting" make a compelling case for public health policy to eradicate FGM.

Yet, improvements are too slow, due to legal discriminations, loopholes and inadequacies, weak implementation of laws, and discriminatory customary laws and social norms

It will take at least two centuries (or nine generations), at the current rate of change and despite increasing investments and efforts over the last 25 years, to reach the UN's Sustainable Development Goal #5: *Achieve Gender Equality and Empower Women and Girls*. In many countries, political commitments, legal reforms and gender-sensitive programmes are still not being translated into real changes for women and girls. On a global level, the prevalence of girl child marriage has stagnated at 16%, the proportion of women who have suffered intimate partner violence at least once in their lives has remained unchanged since 2012, and fewer than 24% of parliamentary seats are occupied by women, only two points better than in 2014.

Several interrelated reasons explain why progress is so slow. Among them:

- **Legal discriminations and loopholes continue to constrain women's opportunities**. Nearly half of all countries (88) prohibit women from entering certain professions; the majority of countries (108) impose conditions on legal abortion (mother's life at risk, pregnancy by rape, foetal impairment, or the protection of the physical or mental health of the woman); 32 countries prohibit women from remarrying within a specified period of time after a divorce; and 29 countries do not grant female surviving spouses and daughters the same rights as their male counterparts to inherit land and non-land assets. In certain cases, legal loopholes also allow discrimination to continue, despite the supposed equality or protection of women's rights. For example, while most countries set the minimum legal age of marriage at 18, early marriage continues to be possible and practiced because of derogations for parental or judicial consent for (112 countries). While almost all countries have criminalised rape, in 11 countries perpetrators can escape prosecution if they marry the victim.
- **Existing laws and programmes are not always adequate**. Legislation on violence against women, for example, does not evolve at the same pace as the diversity of violence available to predators. New forms of violence have emerged with digitalisation, such as online harassment and stalking, that are not covered by previous legal reforms. The criminalisation of sexual relations outside marriage in Mauritania puts rape survivors at risk. In Ghana, in addition to a lack of consent, the law also requires proof of penetration. However, victims are often unable to pay the medical fees necessary to provide such proof and sue the man who has raped them.

- **Implementation and enforcement of the law is uneven within and across countries and can take time.** Legal reforms, particularly changes in statutory law, typically take time because of the need to build a constituency to support legislative bodies. Moreover, such reforms may lead to changes in the behaviour of elected officials, judges and civil servants. For example, courts of law may rule based on the new guidelines regarding the settlement of marital disputes; once both spouses are allowed to own property equally, support may grow for efforts to register land jointly in men's and women's names, thus depriving women of sole title when they may be entitled to it. Living far from courts also impinges on the enforcement of women's rights and leaves them more exposed to pressure from societal prejudice. In Ethiopia for example, evidence of the implementation of 2003 reforms of community-based land registration and changes in the Family Code from 2000 were only significantly observed in 2009.
- **Lack of information, limited legal literacy and restricted access to justice make women unable to claim their rights.** In Burkina Faso for example, nine inhabitants in ten do not know that the law mandates equal inheritance rights for women and men. Kenyan property law provides a married woman the right to own property which means she can sue her husband to protect her rights. Case law under this legislation establishes that, in case of division of family property, women are entitled to half of the family property if they can prove contribution. However, in practice, rural women do not benefit from this law as many of them are not aware of their rights and often end up with much less than half of the family property.
- **Where customary laws and social norms still largely determine communities' and individuals' behaviour, standard policies to promote gender equality are insufficient to create the necessary social transformation.** In some African countries, for example, dowry, which is banned by law, is practiced in almost all betrothals and 80% of the population will not abandon it because of religious or traditional beliefs. In Bolivia, indigenous women experience double discrimination as do not benefit from the improved legal framework because they are still governed by discriminatory indigenous laws.

Social norms can be double-edged swords for women: they can act as either barriers or agents of change

Norms around girls' education have been positive drivers of social change. In Asian and African countries, for example, parents place greater value on girls' education and young men aspire to marry educated young women, who can financially support the family. This increased value given to educated women has had positive consequences for delaying the age at first marriage and pregnancy, while correcting the unbalanced sex ratio at birth. The removal of prohibitions on certain jobs has also reduced gender segregation at work.

However, social expectations on gender roles still stigmatise working mothers and women in politics, negatively affecting women's economic and political leadership. Half of the world's population believes than children will suffer when the mother takes paid outside the home and continues to believe that men make better political leaders than women. Some communities force-feed girls to be fatter and, hence, more desirable for marriage, with the belief that heavier girls appear wealthier and more attractive to men. At the other extreme, in most OECD countries, the social norm of thinness seriously

affects women's psychological well-being and self-esteem, health and health-related behaviours, relationships with others, and careers.

The most difficult area of change is the family

In all regions of the world, women face the highest levels of discrimination in their own households, especially when their caring and domestic responsibilities within the family are concerned. Globally, women undertake 75% of unpaid care and domestic work. In some Asian and African countries, laws and social norms governing family matters still subordinate women's status to their husband's authority: 41 countries solely recognise a man as the head of household; 27 countries require women to obey their husbands by law; 24 countries require women to have the permission of their husbands or legal guardians to choose a profession or work. Even within best performing regions (Europe and the Americas), a woman's role is often confined to her traditional reproductive and caring responsibilities.

Meanwhile, the most pervasive and conservative social norms still govern the private sphere, which has considerable consequences for women's economic, social and political empowerment and leadership. Policies to protect women's workplace rights and promote more balanced political representation are important and contribute to recognising women's equal access to political, social and economic empowerment. Yet, legal protection is not enough. Women will be unable to access equal opportunities and fully benefit from inclusive and sustainable development if their families continue to express negative attitudes about them, such as stigmatising working mothers. As long as society expects women to bear the brunt of unpaid care and domestic work, or that they are denied equal status and decision-making power in their household, real change will not happen and legal reforms will only have a limited effect.

While some discriminatory social institutions are region-specific, others are universal

Restrictions on women's physical integrity, such as female genital mutilation, and missing women are concerns mainly in Africa and Asia, respectively. However, violence against women at home inflicted by intimate partners and/or at work or in the public space by acquaintances or strangers is a global issue. Similarly, the unequal distribution of burdensome caring and domestic responsibilities affects all women across the globe, wherever they live or whatever their level of education or income.

Women living in African and Asian countries face higher levels of discrimination. Legal reforms and a shift in discriminatory social norms have made European countries the best performers, overall, with an average level of discrimination as measured by the SIGI of 17%,[1]compared to 25% in the Americas,[2] 36% in Asian countries[3] and 40% in African countries.[4] North Africa and Southern Asia are most in need of efforts to eradicate discriminatory laws and to address social norms that lead to gender discrimination in practice.

The SIGI's theory of change calls for an adaptive, whole-society approach to advancing gender equality

Gender-based discrimination is a lifelong problem for women and girls that requires a life-cycle approach for change to take hold. Gender inequalities begin even before birth

and continue until old age. Discrimination against the girl child, such as sex-selective abortion and unequal intra-household investments in caring for, nurturing and allocating resources to sons and daughters, limits her likelihood to survive. Similarly, early marriage limits girls' education, increases their chances of adolescent pregnancy and restricts their decision-making authority within the family, as well as a woman's ability to make informed choices about her income or her family's well-being. Gender-transformative policies and programmes should consider how discrimination in multiple forms overlaps throughout a woman's life.

Effective gender-transformative policies and programmes should abandon the one-size-fits-all approach and tailor diverse approaches to women depending on their specific circumstances. Indeed, women are not a homogenous group, nor have all women benefitted from new legal rights, economic opportunities or evolving social norms. Poor, less educated and rural women are at higher risk, as a result of intersectional discrimination, than other women may be.[5] Often, policies overlook the realities of women facing cumulative discrimination that need particular consideration and remedies. Such women may be – and often are – underserved and even more marginalised.

The multidimensional aspect of gender discrimination requires going beyond the "usual" mainstreaming approach and effectively implementing an integrated multi-sectoral strategy. Gender mainstreaming, as it has been implemented to date, has shown limitations. Since 1995 and the Beijing Platform for Action, gender mainstreaming has often merely been used as rhetoric by governments or suffered from tokenism by development organisations: it has not really affected the lives of men and women all over the world. Far from being a marginalised issue, gender equality calls for a more integrated and multi-sectoral approach. Governments should use a multiple-points-of-entry strategy that clearly understands the complexity of the political economy, involving all concerned ministries and not just Gender Ministries.

Eliminating discriminatory laws, social norms and practices requires a "whole-of-society approach'', including governments, development co-operation stakeholders, local civil society, foundations, the private sector and, of course, women, themselves. This may also include teachers, health professionals, justice and police officers, the media, the private sector and others.

Locally designed and place-specific solutions combined with adequate legislation are indispensable for social change to happen. Drivers of change are multiple. Legal reforms can drive social transformation. Nevertheless, a context where statutory and customary laws coexist in a plural-legal system requires involving community and religious leaders and thus cannot start solely with legal reforms initiated by policy makers. In addition, shifting social norms is not a gendered responsibility; the engagement of all – women and men, girls and boys – is indispensable.

Notes

[1] The European countries' average ranges from 8% in Switzerland to 27% in Greece.

[2] The Americas countries' average ranges from 18% in the United States to 40% in Haiti.

[3] The Asian countries' average ranges from 16% in Australia to 64% in Yemen.

[4] The African countries' average ranges from 22% in South Africa to 57% in Guinea.

[5] Intersectional discrimination refers to the overlap of discrimination against certain women who belong to more than one category. These inequalities include ethnicity, education, age, disability, sexual orientation, gender identity, religion/belief, economic status or place of residence (see Chapter 2 Box 2.1). For example, a black woman may be subjected to labour market discrimination both because she is a woman (gender discrimination) and because she is black (racial discrimination).

Key policy recommendations

Each thematic chapter provides detailed policy recommendations on the 16 SIGI indicators (detailing a comprehensive legal framework to address violence against women, for example), while this section lists cross-cutting policy recommendations. Transforming challenges into opportunities requires a three-pronged approach to all discriminatory social institutions included in the SIGI:

Start with legal reforms and transformative-gender policies

- Governments must translate international conventions into their national legal frameworks and abolish discriminatory laws. This is essentially referring to discriminatory legal provisions that concern women's workplace rights and reproductive autonomy. It also includes taking measures to close legal loopholes that allow negative practices, such as early marriage or unequal distribution of household responsibilities, to continue. More comprehensive legal frameworks should address all forms of violence without exception against women.
- Where statutory law coexists alongside customary, traditional and religious laws and practices, policy makers should seek to align all frameworks at the national and sub-national levels to ensure that women's and girls' human rights are guaranteed irrespective of their location, marital status, ethnicity or religion. Community beliefs and practices governing women's access to inheritance, land tenure, financial resources and justice undermine the effectiveness of laws and policies for gender equality and women's rights.
- Public policies and programmes should take a gender-transformative approach putting social norm change at their core. Shifting discriminatory social norms can lead to catalytic change; they can imply impacting social expectations of what it means to be a man or a woman. Public policies should address the root causes of gender inequality and include advocacy campaigns and/or educational programmes to address negative gender stereotypes. This is particularly true when focusing on women's political empowerment and the unequal distribution of caring responsibilities within the family. Quotas and parental leave schemes are clearly insufficient to challenge widespread stigmatisation of women in politics and as working mothers.
- Instead of "traditional" gender mainstreaming,[1] national and international gender strategies should draw on a multi-sectoral approach to create an enabling environment for women's empowerment. Gender mainstreaming has been a fundamental buzzword in the discussion around gender issues. In practice, it has been used to increase the efficiency of gender policies by revealing the gendered nature of processes and outcomes. We need to go beyond gender mainstreaming. A multi-sectoral and integrated approach is critical to address all women's issues from a full-lifetime perspective, whatever their ethnic group and wherever they

live. Leaving no one behind means tackling gender discrimination in all the SDGs and involving several government ministries, such as, for example, those concerned with the economy and with health, education or justice. Instead of having separate policies for gender equality or adding gender-equality concerns to pre-formulated policies, a gender political economy analysis should be introduced from the beginning into national development strategies. This means identifying the variety of factors that both drive and block change and defining multiple entry points for change This also includes gender budgeting (Council of Europe, 2005[1]) initiatives.[2] Gender-responsive governance requires a better understanding of the ecosystem and an appropriate allocation of resources to ensure the quality of gender-transformative policies (OECD, 2017[2]).

- Ensuring the enforcement of women's rights requires improving both the gender-sensitivity of the judicial system as well as women's legal literacy. Women often find it more difficult than men to access the justice system as a result of discriminatory norms and practices and/or a lack of sensitivity to women's needs and realities within the justice system. Moreover, many women and girls are not aware of their legal rights and/or do not know how to exercise them. An inclusive and comprehensive legal framework should integrate a legal-training dimension, legal services for more vulnerable women, and/or awareness-raising and legal-literacy programmes.

Enforce laws through community mobilisation and empowerment

- A "whole-of-society approach" is needed to ensure SDG 5 is achieved. Eliminating discriminatory laws, social norms and practices needs to be a shared concern and commitment. Every citizen and all institutions have a role to play, including governments, development co-operation stakeholders, local civil society, community and religious leaders, teachers, health professionals, justice and police officers, the media, foundations, the private sector and others. Legal reforms can propel social transformation, but this also requires change on the ground. Locally designed solutions combined with adequate legislation are indispensable for social change to take hold. In addition, shifting social norms is not a female responsibility: the engagement of men and boys is also necessary.
- Harmful norms and practices should be recognised publicly by officials, community leaders and citizens as discriminatory. Harmful practices, such as female genital mutilation and violence against women, persist over time, despite legal reforms criminalising them, notably because victims and communities do not recognise them as discrimination. To improve the gender-responsiveness of policies, to ensure the rightful implementation of laws and increase the number of prosecutions and convictions, it is also critical to acknowledge and tackle the deeply entrenched acceptance of gender-based discrimination. As long as men prefer marrying excised women, female genital mutilation will persist with women's complicity. As long as men express their masculinity through violence and harassment, a woman's right to live free from violence is not guaranteed.
- Further support women's rights movements and amplify them through community engagement. The last decade has seen new actors get involved in supporting gender equality and an unprecedented upsurge of movements (e.g. #Metoo, #HeforShe) supporting women's rights. These calls to action and public naming

and shaming have helped unearth persisting discriminatory practices across the globe. It is critical to draw on the momentum generated by social media and civil-society campaigns and to amplify it through community dialogue and innovative practices aimed at changing norms across society.

Learn about the efficiency of policies and programmes through a continuous accountability and monitoring process

- Governments should establish or strengthen accountability and monitoring processes to improve the gender responsiveness of public policies. Strong national accountability and monitoring mechanisms on gender equality are necessary to ensure that policies are assessed from the perspective of women's and men's needs and interests, as well as to hold decision makers accountable for their performance in reducing the gender gap. This requires establishing targeted goals and indicators to monitor progress on gender equality, reporting on progress, and being accountable in the event of a failure to meet objectives. Moreover, monitoring exercises should occur periodically to track the implementation of a policy or a programme and should be based on a set of sex-disaggregated indicators. This notably includes indicators to identify the specific characteristics of the target female population, monitor outcomes such as gender gaps, and, track the financial and human resources dedicated to gender goals, but also include output and efficiency indicators to measure the relationship between the resources used and the results. These monitoring exercises are essential to track progress, yet insufficient to determine which policies are most effective in promoting women and girls' empowerment. Governments should in addition invest in rigorous impact evaluations of innovative, strategic or scalable gender-initiatives to understand which approaches have the highest impact.
- More evidence and more data are needed to strengthen the business case in support of gender equality and to highlight its pivotal role in achieving Agenda 2030. Investments in gender equality and women's rights need to be informed by quality research and data.[3] Policy makers and investors must understand the scope and the drivers of gender inequalities, not only to identify relevant policy solutions, but also to track the evolution of major determinants of the gender gap. The revised SIGI is a testament to the increased availability of data on gender and social norms. The official designation of SIGI as a data source for monitoring SDG 5.1.1 on "whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex" recognises that comparable and reliable data on legal discrimination are critical for monitoring the SDGs.[4] Yet, more investments in data and statistics are needed at the national level. New efforts include the UN flagship programme "Making Every Woman and Girl Count" as well as SIGI country studies which seek to strengthen both the statistical and analytical capacities of governments. Producing research is a valuable first step, but data takes on added power when it is used by decision makers to inform policy. In 2018, Mexico launched an online platform to track progress towards achieving Agenda 2030, including the monitoring of all the targets of SDG 5. The Mexican SDG Portal now contains data on 25 indicators from 1994 to the present. The data can be disaggregated by state, gender and age, among other variables (Government of Mexico, n.d.[3]).

Notes

[1] Gender mainstreaming refers to the design of all public policies and use of policy instruments with the promotion of gender equality in mind.

[2] Since the adoption of a new finance law in Morocco in 2014 and in Burkina Faso in 2018, for example, the needs of women and girls are increasingly reflected in government spending and in integrating gender priorities throughout the budgeting process.

[3] Data scarcity is not a developing-country issue. No country has yet managed to build a full set of indicators to monitor SDG 5. For instance, data on the prevalence of female genital mutilation is only available in 29 countries, whereas the evidence shows that the phenomenon is much more widespread. Outcome data may reveal, for example, how many adolescent girls have been married before turning 18, but say nothing about the percentage of women, men, boys and girls that believe the practice should end. This is why the SIGI Country studies are investing in further data collection at the national and infra-national levels.

[4] The World Bank Group, Women Business and the Law is the second official data source for SDG indicator 5.1.1. For more information see https://unstats.un.org/wiki/display/SDGeHandbook/Indicator+5.1.1.

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Introduction

Gender equality is an integral part of the United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which contains the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). "Agenda 2030'' represents a unique opportunity for all development partners – governments, donors, the private sector, philanthropy and civil society – to work together for gender equality and the commitments made in the Agenda. Gender equality and women's empowerment are included as a mainstreamed target and stand-alone Sustainable Development Goal (SDG 5). This represents political recognition that the world cannot achieve the SDGs while holding back half the global population.

The ambitious and forward-looking nature of the SDGs presents an enormous challenge to all stakeholders. Despite increasing investment in efforts to reduce gender gaps and empower women over the last 25 years, at the current rate of progress it will still require over 200 years to achieve SDG 5, which is the equivalent to nine generations. Since 1995 and the Beijing call for action, policy makers and researchers have increasingly turned their attention and resources to closing gender gaps on key economic and social elements. This has led to impressive improvements: the share of women in paid employment outside the agricultural sector increased from 35% to 41% between 1990 and 2015 (UN, 2015[1]); gender parity in primary education has been achieved in 64% of developing countries (UN, 2015[1]). However, the promise of gender equality remains unfulfilled. Despite accounting for 41% of the global labour force, women generate only 37% of global GDP due to their over-representation in part-time jobs and low-productivity sectors (Woetzel et al., 2015[2]); the gender pay gap stands at 23% globally (UN Women, 2018[3]).

Over the past decade, the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) has consistently shown that governments need to look at discriminatory laws, social norms and practices to achieve gender equality and promote women's empowerment. Discriminatory laws and social norms define what is legally and socially acceptable to think, do, say or act in relation to gender. As such, they closely link individual sets of rights and opportunities to a person's gender. Individual and collective beliefs and behaviours are still influenced by patriarchal norms that influence, for example, the allocation of land and may make gender equality more difficult to achieve. Daily, across the globe, women and girls experience some form of discrimination solely because they were born female. Throughout their whole life cycle, they encounter different types of discrimination that restrict their ability to choose their own development paths.

The SIGI is a policy tool for governments, development partners and researchers to understand better the progress and challenges each country faces in moving towards achieving gender equality and the commitments of Agenda 2030. The SIGI sheds light on the multiple layers that drive gender-based discrimination, from the legal framework, to discriminatory customs, practices and attitudes. Comprehensive legal frameworks that guarantee women's and men's rights, regardless of their marriage status, ethnicity,

location, education, religion or income, represent the first steps towards substantive gender equality. The SIGI data goes further than the examination of statutory law, alone, by measuring gender-based discrimination in religious, customary and traditional law. In plural legal systems, where statutory law exists alongside customary, traditional or religious law, women of certain groups may continue to face discrimination, despite statutory legal reform. Where customs and traditions still largely determine people's behaviour, standard legal reforms to promote gender equality are essential but not necessarily, sufficient. The SIGI also points to the need for governments to link strong legal frameworks with policies and advocacy that support their implementation and challenge discriminatory social norms.

Putting discriminatory laws, social norms and practices at the core of gender strategies opens new opportunities for the achievement of the 2030 Agenda. Discriminatory social institutions (Box 1) impinge on sustainable and inclusive development by restraining women and girls from realising their political, economic and social rights. Women's restricted access to land, resources and finance, makes families more vulnerable to poverty and shocks. When women's sexual and reproductive health and rights are not guaranteed, women and their children endure greater health risks. In the household, the burden of unpaid care and domestic homework limits women's ability to take paid employment. Discriminatory social institutions limit the potential for the achievement of the development objectives set in the Sustainable Development Agenda: sustained and inclusive economic growth (SDG 1, 8 and 10), well-being for all (SDG 3), healthy lives (SDG 3), quality education (SDG 4) and full and productive employment (SDG 8). Indeed, such discrimination induces a loss of 8% in the global level of investment, reduces women's average years of schooling by 16% and their labour force participation by 12%. As a result, the current levels of discrimination, as measured by the SIGI, reduce global income by 7.5%, an impressive loss of USD 6 trillion (Chapter 2).

Box 1. What are discriminatory social institutions

Formal and informal laws, social norms and practices that restrict or exclude women and girls, consequently curtailing their access to rights, justice, empowerment opportunities and resources.

For more information: visit www.genderindex.org

Challenges urgently need to be transformed into opportunities. Legal reforms and shifts in social norms can lead to catalytic change. In Ethiopia, for example, the emergence of opportunities for young women as domestic workers in the Gulf countries has led to changing perceptions concerning girls' independent mobility, the value of education and the role of marriage. This has had impressive consequences for delaying the age of first marriage and for social expectations of women's economic role. Social transformation implies changing what are legally and socially feasible activities for women and men.

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Woetzel, J. et al. (2015), "The power of parity: How advancing women's equality can add $12 trillion to global growth", https://www.mckinsey.com/~/media/McKinsey/Featured%20Insights/Employment%20and%20Growth/How%20advancing%20womens%20equality%20can%20add%2012%20trillion%20to%20global%20growth/MGI%20Power%20of%20parity_Full%20report_September%202015.ashx (accessed on 27 January 2019). [2]

Chapter 1. SIGI 2019 results

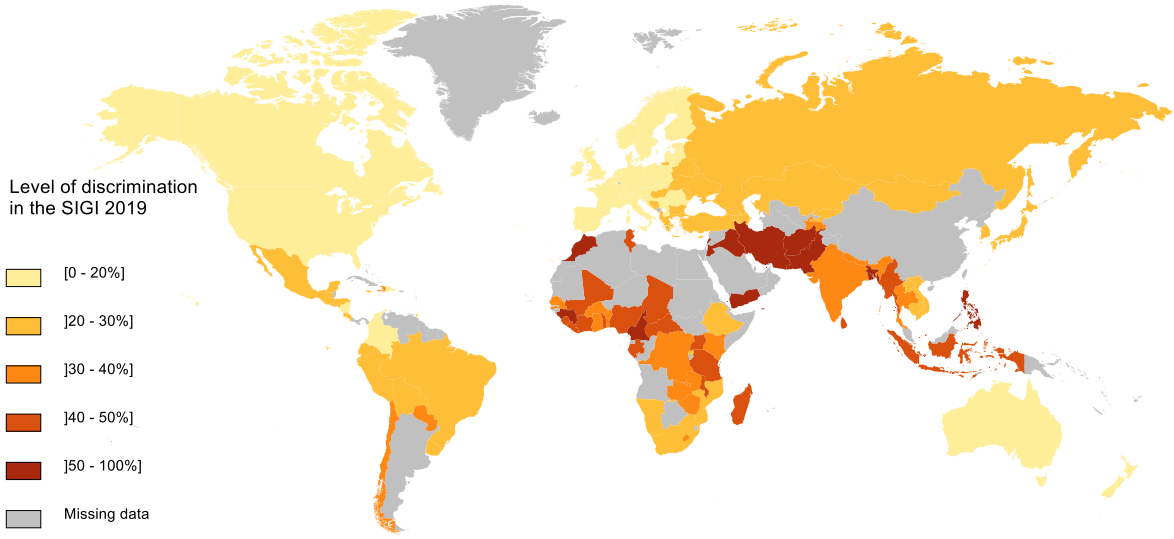
This chapter presents an overview of the global trends and results from the 2019 Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) and its four dimensions: discrimination in the family, physical integrity, access to productive and financial assets, and civil liberties. It outlines the main areas of progress and the main challenges regarding formal and informal laws, social norms and practices related to gender equality worldwide. It emphasises geographical disparities and the heterogeneity of progress. Finally, it briefly presents the SIGI components.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

SIGI's overview

Legal reforms and transformative gender policies and programmes conducted by governments, civil society, philanthropy and the private sector are starting to pay off. The SIGI results indicate that the global level of discrimination in social institutions is 29%, ranging from 8% in Switzerland to 64% in Yemen (Figure 1.1). Thanks to strong legal frameworks and transformative gender policies, almost two thirds of the 120 countries ranked in the SIGI have low to very low levels of discrimination in social institutions (Box 1.1, Figure 1.2). All 33 best-performing countries provide women and men with equal inheritance rights and equivalent parental authority, while domestic violence and rape are defined as criminal offences. In these countries, 9% of women justify domestic violence, 20% of the population claim than men make better political leaders and fewer than 5% deny women's right to paid work outside the home, compared to 27%, 47% and 17% at the global level, respectively.

Figure 1.1. SIGI 2019 results



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender, Institutions and Development Database, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

This relatively good performance is explained by increasing political commitment to the elimination of gender inequality and shifts in some social norms that are detrimental to equality at the global level. New legislation has enhanced equality and abolished discriminatory laws. For instance, since the last edition of the SIGI, 15 countries strengthened their legal frameworks to delay the age of a first marriage by eliminating legal exceptions; 2 countries have eliminated discriminatory legal provisions related to women's inheritance; 15 countries enacted legislation to criminalise domestic violence; and 3 countries have criminalised Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) since 2014. To date, 164 countries explicitly recognise women's rights to own, use, make decisions and use land as collateral on equal terms with men; paid maternity leave is now guaranteed in all but two countries, and 91 countries mandate paid paternity leave. Similarly, some social norms that are detrimental to equality have become less prominent. For instance, social acceptance of domestic violence decreased from 50% in 2012 to 37% in 2014 and 27% in

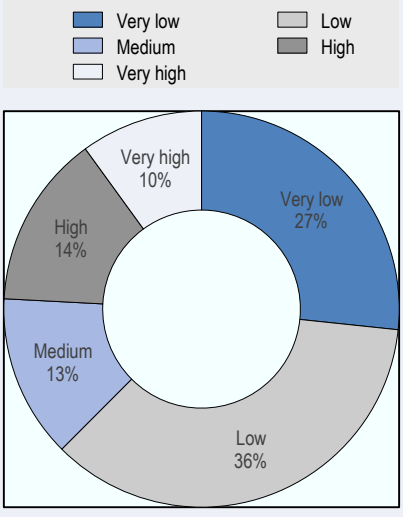
2018, which has important consequences for women and girls' well-being. In Sudan, for example, the proportion of the population supporting FGM went from 27% to 18% between 2014 and 2018. The shift in attitude and the resulting decrease in FGM prevalence make a compelling case for public health policy to eradicate the practice altogether.

Box 1.1. SIGI 2019 classification

The SIGI scores 120 countries and classifies them into five groups:

- Very low level of discrimination (SIGI < 20%): 33 countries, representing 28% of the countries ranked;
- Low level of discrimination (20% < SIGI < 30%): 42 countries, representing 35% of the countries ranked;
- Medium level of discrimination (30% < SIGI < 40%): 16 countries, representing 13% of the countries ranked;
- High level of discrimination (40% < SIGI < 50%): 17 countries, representing 14% of the countries ranked;
- Very high level of discrimination (SIGI > 50%): 12 countries, representing 10% of the countries ranked.

Figure 1.2. SIGI 2019 distribution



Note: Based on SIGI 2019 data.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender, Institutions and Development Database, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Tell me where you live, I will tell you what level of discrimination you face. The SIGI reveals clear regional trends, making the case for applying a social norm lens to gender equality. While in the SIGI classification no African countries and only two Asian countries appear to have very low levels of discrimination in social institutions, the majority of European countries do (25 out of 36). On the other hand, all high to very high

discriminatory countries are located in Africa and Asia (17 and 12 respectively). More precisely, this is in North Africa that legislation, social norms and practices create the highest gaps between women and men (49%), followed by Southern Asia (48%), Middle Africa (44%), Western Africa (44%) and Western Asia (41%).

Progress is far from homogeneous across regions. One in four countries has high to very high levels of discrimination in social institutions. In the lowest-performing countries, a woman's role is confined to her reproductive and caring responsibilities. This is reflected in both legal frameworks and social norms. Two-thirds of these countries only recognise men as heads of household, three times more than at the global level; 64% of the population say that children will suffer if the mother is working outside the home and 70% believe that men make better political leaders than women do. This leads to a high prevalence of discriminatory practices: 22% of adolescent girls are or have been ever married or in informal unions and women spend five times more time than men in unpaid care and domestic work, compared to 15% and 3 times at the global level, respectively. Legal discrimination, loopholes and inadequacy, as well as weak law enforcement and deeply entrenched acceptance of discriminatory social practices by communities, including women, still hamper global progress towards gender equality (see Figure 1.3, Box 1.2):

- Comprehensive legal frameworks that guarantee women's and men's rights – regardless of their marital status, ethnicity, location, education, religion or income – are not yet the norm. The SIGI data on legal discrimination reveals that women in all countries continue to face legal discrimination in a myriad of places, including courtrooms or in the workplace. In 88 countries, for example, the law prohibits women from entering certain professions. Legal loopholes allow discrimination to continue, despite supposed equality or protection of women's rights. For example, while most countries have established a minimum marriage age of 18, early marriage continues to be conducted legally due to provisions that allow parents or judges to consent to child marriage in 112 countries. While almost all countries have criminalised rape, perpetrators can escape prosecution if they marry the victim in 11 countries.

- Laws and programmes are not always appropriate. Countries have also been slow, for example, to enact laws to protect women from emerging forms of gender-based violence. By the end of 2017, only ten countries provided women with legal protection from cyber harassment or cyber stalking. FGM is still not universally classified as harmful, despite increasing evidence of geographical extension of the practice, notably related to migration flows. Only 43 countries abide by international commitments and have enacted comprehensive laws criminalising FGM. Access to birth registration records is still restricted in some areas with implications for the rights of women to hold land, vote or register a business because a claim requires an identity card.

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implications for the rights of women to hold land, vote or register a business because a claim requires an identity card.

- The implementation and enforcement of laws take time and are uneven within a country. In plural legal systems, where statutory law exists alongside customary, traditional or religious laws, women of certain groups may continue to face discrimination. This exposes the more vulnerable women to higher risk, especially those living in remote areas that are difficult to reach. Indigenous women in Bolivia, for example, experience double discrimination because they do not benefit from improved legal frameworks but are still governed by discriminatory indigenous laws. In some African and Asian countries, laws granting equality of access to land tenure are ignored and it remains a male privilege in many rural communities.

- Even when legal frameworks to protect women's rights exist, the lack of information, limited legal literacy and restricted access to the justice system limit women's ability to claim their rights. In Burkina Faso, for example, only one-third of the population knows there is a legal minimum age of marriage for girls; one-tenth are aware that the law mandates equal inheritance rights for women and men. While there is often ignorance of laws governing family matters, workplace or political legislation may also be unrecognised: fewer than a third of the Burkinabé population, for example, knows there is a quota mandating 30% of women candidates on electoral lists (OECD, 2018[1]).

- Where customary laws still largely determine communities' and individuals' behaviour, standard policies to promote gender equality are insufficient to create social transformation. Discriminatory customary and religious laws may undermine the implementation of gender-transformative statutory law and expose women and girls to continuing discriminatory practices. This is particularly true in remote areas and some Least Developed Countries with weak rule of law. In some African countries, for example, dowry payment is banned by state law but remains in practice for almost all weddings and 80% of the population continue to have it practiced because of religious or traditional beliefs.

- Social norms weaken the implementation of gender-sensitive laws and policies and justify harmful and discriminatory practices. For example, despite legal frameworks addressing domestic violence in 132 countries, 27% of women globally accept that spousal violence is justifiable under certain circumstances. Similarly, despite criminalisation of FGM in 59 countries, 23% of women believe that FGM should continue. While more jurisdictions are introducing paternity-leave provisions, its uptake remains low. Paternity leave, on its own, is not enough to redistribute caring responsibilities within the household if men choose not to take it for fear of social stigma or because they feel their job might suffer from it. Therefore, while 91 countries have some sort of paternity-leave provisions in place, few fathers are taking time off to care for their children. Quotas can only support women's political participation if women have the knowledge, support and time needed to run for office and if they feel supported doing so. Indeed, almost half of the world's population (47%) believe that men make better political leaders than women do. In addition, without enforcement mechanisms, quotas may be ineffective on their own. Women occupy on average 26% of parliamentary seats in countries that have established quotas or other special measures, compared with 22% in countries where no special measures

exist. Global outrage over the endemic nature of gender-based harassment points to the insufficiency of laws against harassment, especially when women do not report it, due to fear of retaliation, limited knowledge of legal recourses, lack of financial means or the belief that the authorities will not take them seriously.

Figure 1.3. SIGI's approach



Box 1.2. Changes in gender norms do not always come from direct gender interventions

The SIGI's approach recognises the multiplicity of entry points for change:

- Government led-actions (e.g. legal reforms, gender-transformative policies and programmes): in Viet Nam, for example, awareness campaigns to highlight the health risks of adolescent pregnancy and the economic advantages of completing secondary school had challenged social acceptance towards early marriage (Marcus et al., 2015[2]);
- Focusing on education: in Burkina Faso, the educated population is more likely to challenge deeply entrenched acceptance of early marriage and female genital mutilation (OECD, 2018[1]);

- Further urbanisation: discriminatory social norms are more widespread in remote areas where community laws highly influence individuals' beliefs and where social stigma may create severe deprivation. In urban areas, however, awareness campaigns and public policies are more likely to influence individuals' opinions about the discriminatory aspect of some social norms (OECD, 2018[1]);
- Economic development and improvements in a household's economic situation: shift in discriminatory social norms affecting girls' education and young women's job opportunities in India and Bangladesh have been largely driven by recognition of the economic benefits of these activities (Jensen, 2012[3]; Hossain, 2011[4]). Adolescent girls living in wealthier households are less likely to be married than those from poor families (OECD, 2018[1]). Yet, economic growth alone is insufficient to accelerate gender equality;
- Digitalisation: new technologies offer opportunities for a higher number of people to access information, but also to spread role models more widely (see Chapter 2).

Global progress and challenges by SIGI's dimensions

Discrimination in the family seems to be the most difficult dimension to address. The SIGI shows that discrimination within the private sphere is an issue, regardless of the region or the income level (Figure 1.4). The global level of discrimination in the laws, social norms and practices in the family is 44% and reaches 56% and 53% on the African and Asian continents, respectively (Chapter 3). Even in the best-performing European countries, women and men still do not have the same status within the family (level of discrimination: 25%). There are notable major gender gaps in the performance of household responsibilities (60%), divorce (38%), child marriage (36%) and inheritance rights (34%). This is attributable to:

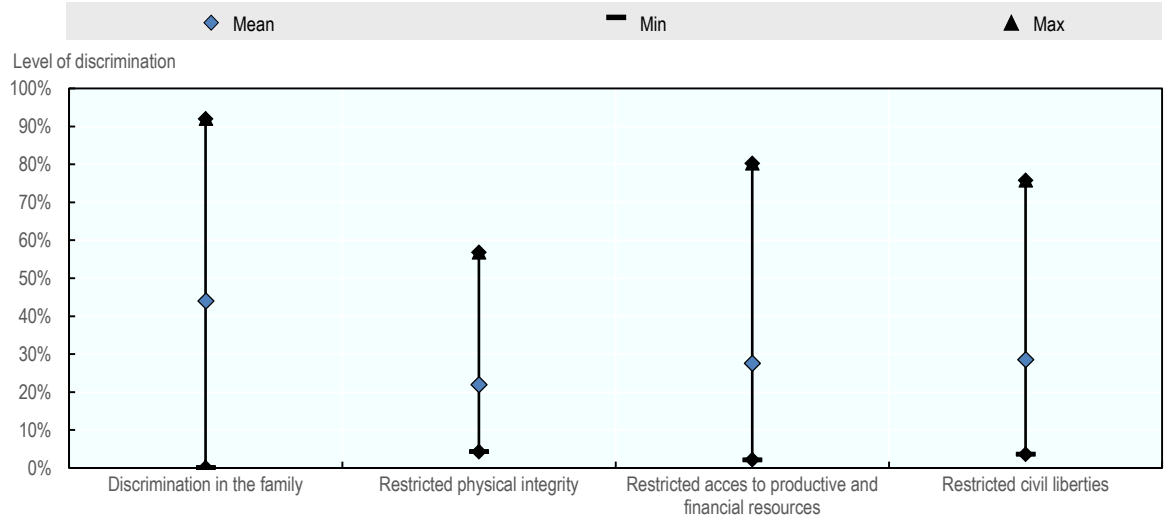
- The unequal distribution of caring and domestic activities – women continue to bear 75% of the burden of unpaid care and domestic work;
- The lower legal status of women – 41 countries recognised a man only as the head of households, while in 27 countries women are required by law to obey their husbands;
- Legal loopholes over girl child marriage – 160 countries allow it, one way or another.

Despite women's *physical integrity* having attracted much attention, guaranteeing women's and girls' sexual and reproductive health and rights, as well as their freedom from violence, remain key challenges. The physical integrity dimension of the SIGI reflects a mixed picture: FGM and missing-women issues are clearly region-specific, while restricted reproductive autonomy and violence against women are undeniably universal. Globally, the level of restriction on women's physical integrity is 22%, ranging from 4% in Canada to 57% in Guinea (Chapter 4). This is the best score across the four dimensions of the SIGI because FGM and the phenomenon of missing women mainly occur in Africa and Asia, respectively, automatically improving the restrictive physical integrity sub-index score in other regions of the world, and, hence, the global score. In these two indicators, the global level of discrimination is 6%. However, violence against

women and restricted reproductive autonomy are universal and have pervasive impacts on women's control over their bodies, with respective global levels of discrimination at 41% and 31%. This is notably due to:

- The social acceptance of domestic violence – more than one in four women justifies men's use of violence against their wife/partner; and
- The lack of legal protection and infrastructure to promote women's reproductive autonomy – abortion is illegal in 11 countries and very restricted in an additional 87 jurisdictions; 12% of women of reproductive age have unmet needs for family planning.

Figure 1.4. SIGI 2019 results by sub-index



Note: Global averages by SIGI sub-index, with the minimum and maximum scores.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender, Institutions and Development Database, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

The economic case for women's economic empowerment has been translated into political commitments to improve women's *access to productive and financial resources*. The global level of discrimination in this sub-index is 27%, varying from 2% in Sweden to 80% in Kuwait (Chapter 5). While regional disparities are wide, some common challenges do exist. African (39%) and Asian (34%) women face the highest barriers to accessing productive and financial resources, compared to their European (13%) and American (22%) counterparts. In contrast to African (42%) and Asian (29%) countries, the best-performing European countries (9%) have almost achieved legal and substantive gender equality in access to and control over land, as women's rights are seen as socially legitimate. Indeed, while all European countries provide women and men with equal rights to own, use and control land, legal barriers remain in ten and five African and Asian countries, respectively. However, discrimination against women's workplace rights is a universal issue: the global level of discrimination is 44% (from 28% in Europe, to 59% in Asia). This is notably due to:

- legal loopholes –19 countries do not mandate non-discrimination on the basis of sex in employment and 31 do not have laws requiring equal remuneration for work of equal value;

- legal barriers – 94 countries restrict women's access to employment; and
- social norms that confine women to their reproductive and caring role – 50% of the global population believes that children will suffer when the mother is gainfully employed outside the home and 17% do not find it acceptable for a woman family member to have a job.

The upsurge of support for women's rights activism has led to substantial advances in securing women's *civil liberties*. The restricted civil liberties dimension of the SIGI gives a mixed picture. It indicates a global level of discrimination of 29%, from 4% in Senegal to 76% in Yemen (Chapter 6). In regional terms, North Africa (58%) remains the worst region in this respect, followed by Southern Asia (43%), Western Asia (42%) and South-east Asia (41%). Thanks to legal reforms, women's citizenship rights (28%) have been improved. However, women's access to justice (18%) and freedom of movement (24%) are restricted by insecurity and lack of trust in both judicial institutions and men. The gender gap in insecurity is larger in high-income countries. Women represent two-thirds of those who do not feel safe walking alone in their neighbourhoods in high-income countries. This proportion reaches nine out of ten in Finland and Iceland, but it falls to 58% in low-income countries. It is in the most patriarchal regions of the world that women feel safest: the sense of insecurity in sub-Saharan African and Western Asian countries is not linked to gender. Meanwhile, barriers to women's political empowerment remain a universal issue. Globally, the high level of discrimination against women's political voice (44%) is deeply entrenched in social expectations of what a woman's role in public life should be:

- 69 countries have no legal quotas or special measures or incentives for political parties to promote women's political participation; and
- Almost half of the world's population (47%) believe that men make better political leaders than women do.

About the SIGI

The OECD Development Centre's Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) is a unique cross-country measure of discriminatory social institutions, that are formal and informal laws, social norms and practices that restrict women's and girls' rights, access to empowerment opportunities and resources.

The SIGI is comprised of four components:

1. Country profiles containing comprehensive qualitative information on legal frameworks and action plans to protect women's rights and promote gender equality (for 180 countries);[1]
2. The Gender, Institutions and Development Database (GID-DB) comprising variables measuring the level of discrimination in laws (categorical variable), social norms (attitudinal data) and practices (prevalence rates) for 180 countries;[2] and
3. A cross-country ranking classifying 120 countries according to their level of discrimination in social institutions (Annex A, Table A.1).
4. A policy simulator allowing policy makers to scope out reform options and assess their likely effects on gender equality in social institutions (oe.cd/sigiSIM).

It is worth noting that, while the SIGI score is only available for 120 countries, some variables measuring the level of discrimination in laws, social norms or practices are available for each of 180 countries (Box 1.3).

The SIGI and its dimensions look at the gaps that legislation, attitudes and practices create between women and men in terms of rights and opportunities. The SIGI covers four dimensions, spanning major socio-economic areas that affect the entire lifetimes of women and girls and analysed in the SIGI as sub-indices (Figure 1.4 and Figure 1.5):

- The discrimination in the family (DF) dimension captures social institutions that limit women's decision-making power and undervalues their status in the household and the family;
- The restricted physical integrity (RPI) dimension captures social institutions that increase women's and girls' vulnerability to a range of forms of violence and limit women's control over their bodies and reproductive autonomy;
- The restricted access to productive and financial resources (RAPFR) dimension captures women's restricted access to and control over critical productive and economic resources and assets; and
- The restricted civil liberties (RCL) dimension captures discriminatory laws and practices restricting women's access, participation and voice in the public and social spheres.

Box 1.3. List of countries by region and sub region

Africa

- *Eastern Africa:* Burundi, Comoros, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Rwanda, Seychelles, Somalia and South Sudan, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.
- *Middle Africa:* Angola, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Democratic Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Republic of Congo, and Sao Tome and Principe.
- *Northern Africa:* Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Sudan, Tunisia.
- *Southern Africa*: Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland.
- *Western Africa:* Benin, Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Côte d'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo.

Americas

- *The Caribbean:* Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Grenada, Haiti, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago.
- *Central America:* Belize, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Panama.
- *Northern America:* Canada and the United States.

- *South America*: Argentina, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Guyana, Peru, Plurinational State of Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay.

Asia

- *Central Asia:* Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.
- *Eastern Asia:* China (People's Republic of); Hong Kong, China; Japan; Korea; Mongolia and Chinese Taipei.
- *The Pacific:* Australia, Fiji, Papua New Guinea, New Zealand, Samoa and Solomon Islands.
- *South-eastern Asia:* Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Timor-Leste, Thailand and Viet Nam.
- *Southern Asia:* Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.
- *Western Asia*: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Cyprus, Georgia, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, West Bank and Gaza Strip, and Yemen.

Europe

- *Eastern Europe:* Belarus, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovak Republic and Ukraine.
- *Northern Europe:* Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Sweden and United Kingdom.
- *Southern Europe:* Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (now the Republic of North Macedonia),Greece, Italy, Kosovo, Malta, Montenegro, Portugal, Serbia, Slovenia and Spain.
- *Western Europe*: Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, Netherlands and Switzerland.

Note by Turkey: The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognises the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of the United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".
Note by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Union: The Republic of Cyprus is recognised by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

Figure 1.5. The composition of the SIGI 2019



Notes

[1] Available at www.genderindex.org/.

[2] Available at https://stats.oecd.org/. The number of countries covered depends on data availability.

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Chapter 2. The complexity of discriminatory social institutions for sustainable and inclusive growth

This chapter discusses the complexity of discriminatory social institutions and how these create barriers to the achievement of SDG 5 by 2030. It describes how barriers impede economic growth and outlines the economic costs of gender-based discrimination in formal and informal laws, social norms and practices. The chapter analyses gender gaps in social protection as an example of discriminatory social institutions, emphasising how these gaps increase women's vulnerability. Moreover, it focuses on the importance of acknowledging intersectional discrimination, describing how migrant women and rural women are affected differently by gender-based discriminatory social institutions. Finally, the chapter evaluates the opportunities and challenges that digitalisation offers for women's empowerment and gender equality.

The SIGI is an innovative tool to provide policy makers and development practitioners with analysis of the underlying drivers of gender (in)equality. The previous chapter has set the scene, indicating key progress and describing the challenges facing the achievement of Agenda 2030, including SDG 5. The scores and ranking of each country are complemented by detailed country notes that provide national contexts including how social institutions can discriminate against women and girls.

The SIGI also offers vital new evidence and perspectives on emerging topics around gender and development. This chapter indicates how the complexity of discriminatory social institutions creates barriers to achieving SDG 5 by the target date of 2030. These barriers impact the economic cost of gender-based discrimination in laws, social norms and practices. Discriminatory social institutions take various forms, such as gender gaps in social protection, and their effects are exacerbated by intersectionality where a woman may suffer from other forms of discrimination, not based on gender (Box 2.1). Digitalisation offers both new opportunities and challenges for enhancing gender equality and women's empowerment.

Box 2.1. Definition of intersectional discrimination

Intersectional discrimination refers to discrimination against certain women who belong to more than one "category". The overlap between gender and other forms of discriminated or marginalised population categories leads to increased inequalities and may further disadvantage some women. These categories include ethnicity, education, age, disability, sexual orientation, gender identity, religion/belief, economic status or place of residence.

Discriminations may be cumulative. For example, a black woman may be subject to labour-market discrimination because she is a woman (gender discrimination) and because she is black (racial discrimination).

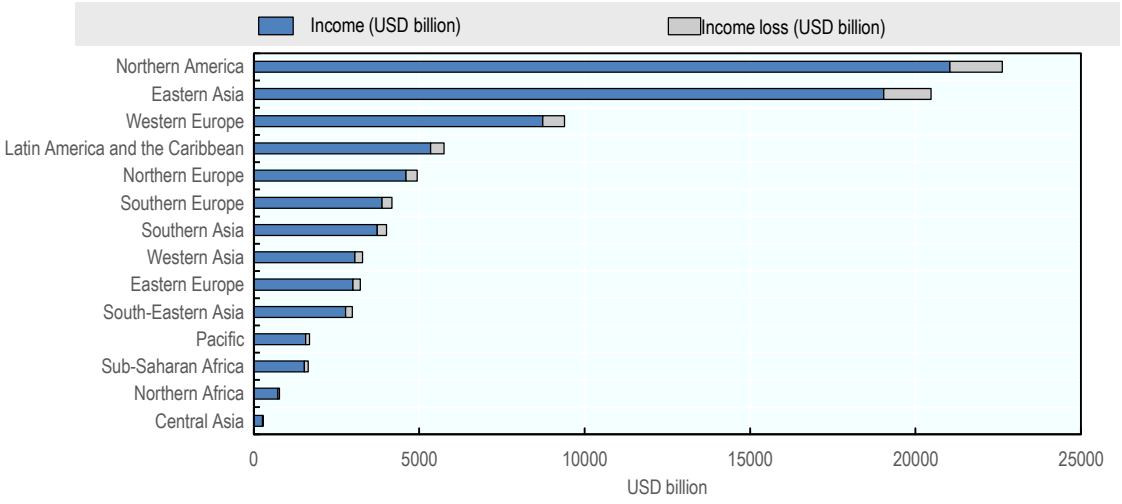
Discrimination may also differ in nature. For example, only women (not men) with disabilities (not without disabilities) are subjected to coercive practices such as involuntary abortions.

The economic cost of discriminatory social institutions

Gender-based discrimination in social institutions impedes economic growth. Through their influence on the unequal distribution of power between men and women in the family, in the economic sphere and in public life, discriminatory social institutions constrain women's economic opportunities. For example, the practice of early marriage limits their access to education and has an impact on their future employment opportunities (OECD, 2014[1]). Similarly, threats to women's physical integrity can transform schools and workplaces into unsafe spaces. The absence of paid maternity leave, child-care facilities or family-friendly job policies creates barriers to women's full participation in economic life. The global economy cannot operate at its full potential with constraints holding back half of the world's population. In addition to fulfilling fundamental human rights, gender equality in social institutions could therefore generate substantial macroeconomic gains benefiting all.

The current level of discrimination induces a loss of up to USD 6 trillion or 7.5% of global income. This loss amounts on average to USD 1 552 per capita. After taking into account other geographic, economic and institutional factors that also explain economic growth, regional income losses associated with current levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions are significant: about USD 3 722 billion in OECD economies (USD 3 266 per capita); USD 1 598 billion in Asia (USD 1 652 per capita); USD 294 billion in the Americas (USD 1 104 per capita); USD 169 billion in Africa (USD 466 per capita); and USD 164 billion in Europe (USD 1 584 per capita) (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1. Income loss associated with discrimination in social institutions by region



Note: Regional income losses associated with current levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions. Income losses are measured in terms of 2017 real income at current PPP.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, http://stats.oecd.org; and World Bank (n.d.), *World Development Indicators*, https://datacatalog.worldbank.org/dataset/world-development-indicators (accessed 13 November 2018).

Gender-based discrimination in social institutions hampers global development by lowering women's human capital by 16% and labour-force participation by 12%, as well as reducing global investment by 8%. The growth literature suggests that a country's level of economic growth depends on its levels of physical and human capital, as well as on total factor productivity (Mankiw, Romer and Weil, 1992[2]; Solow, 1956[3]). Given a similar distribution of innate abilities between men and women, the exclusion of women from the job market artificially reduces the pool of talent from which employers can draw, and therefore decreases countries' ability to accumulate physical and human capital and to innovate (Ferrant and Kolev, 2016[4]). Discriminatory social institutions affect growth through three channels:

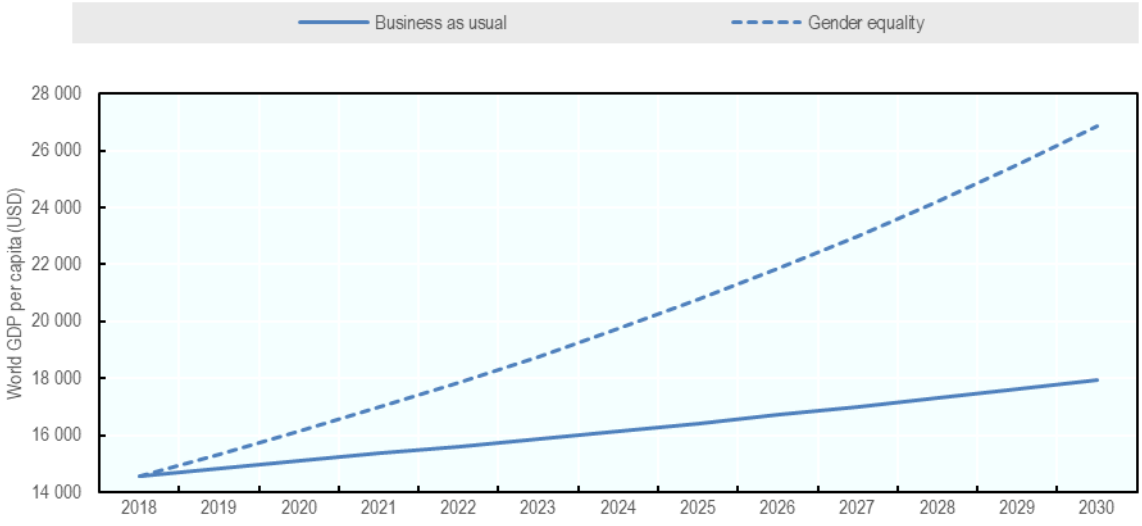
- Discriminatory practices and attitudes against girls, such as early marriage, early pregnancies, domestic responsibilities or son preference, reduce women's average years of schooling;
- Gender-based violence, including missing women, unequal sharing of household and caring responsibilities, discriminatory workplace legislations, stereotypes of

working mothers or restricted freedom of movement, constrain women's participation in the labour market; and

- Discriminatory inheritance practices and restricted access to land and non-land productive assets or financial services limit women's ability to contribute to physical capital accumulation.

Gender parity represents an immense economic opportunity. Reducing gender-based discrimination in social institutions through appropriate policy measures could yield substantial economic benefits. A gradual reduction of gender-based discriminatory social institutions by 2030 could increase the global annual GDP growth rate by 0.4 percentage points over the next 11 years (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2. Income gains associated with reduced discrimination in social institutions



Note: GDP forecasts for 2030 in two scenarios: (i) business as usual, using available growth forecast, and assuming no change in the global level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions between 2018 and 2030; (ii) gender parity, assuming that each country would have eliminated gender-based discrimination in social institutions by 2030. GDP forecasts are measured in terms of 2010 real GDP per capita at current PPPs. *Source*: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019 and ERS International Macroeconomic Dataset (2017).

Gender social-protection gaps: An illustration of discriminatory social institutions

The impacts of social-protection programmes are not gender-neutral. Female and male beneficiaries of social-protection programmes have different experiences, notably linked to the reproductive role of women and prevailing gender patterns in the workplace. Moreover, the eligibility criteria do not consider intra-household inequalities that frequently disadvantage women. As such, social-protection programmes can reinforce gender inequality and negatively affect women's empowerment opportunities. For example, some conditional cash transfer (CCT) programmes have exacerbated women's unpaid-care work burden (Cameron, 2014[5]; Benderly, 2011[6]). CCT often places major responsibility for achieving programme goals on wives and mothers, such as sending children to school or regular health check-ups, despite restricted access to basic infrastructure, such as child-care, transport and sanitation facilities. As a result, some women beneficiaries had to reduce their paid working hours or delegate domestic and

care responsibilities to their daughters, proving detrimental to the girls' education (Cameron, 2014[5]; Benderly, 2011[6]).

Gender gaps in social protection exacerbate women's vulnerability, especially for retired women and widows. Women are particularly disadvantaged in social protection systems, experiencing lower coverage rates and substantially lower benefit levels (ITUC, 2018[7]): in the absence of social-protection floors, women are often left behind without any support (UN Women, 2015[8]). This is particularly crucial during the first months after childbirth, following retirement age and by widowhood. Despite universal provision of paid maternity leave (only 2 out of the 180 SIGI countries do not provide paid maternity or parental leave for mothers), only 41% of mothers with new-borns receive a maternity benefit (with fewer than 16% in Africa), while 83 million remain uncovered (ILO, 2017[9]). Only 58% of women of pensionable age receive a pension, compared to 68% of men; the gender pension gap reaches 55 percentage points in Northern African countries where only 8% of elderly women receive an old-age pension compared to 64% of men (ILO, 2014[10]). In Europe, the relatively narrowed gender gap in old-age pension coverage (6.5 percentage points) hides extensive gender disparities in benefit level: women's pensions are on average 40% lower than those of men (Directorate for Citizens Rights and Constitutional Affairs, 2016[11]). Women represent two thirds of people above the retirement age living without a regular pension (ILO, 2016[12]).

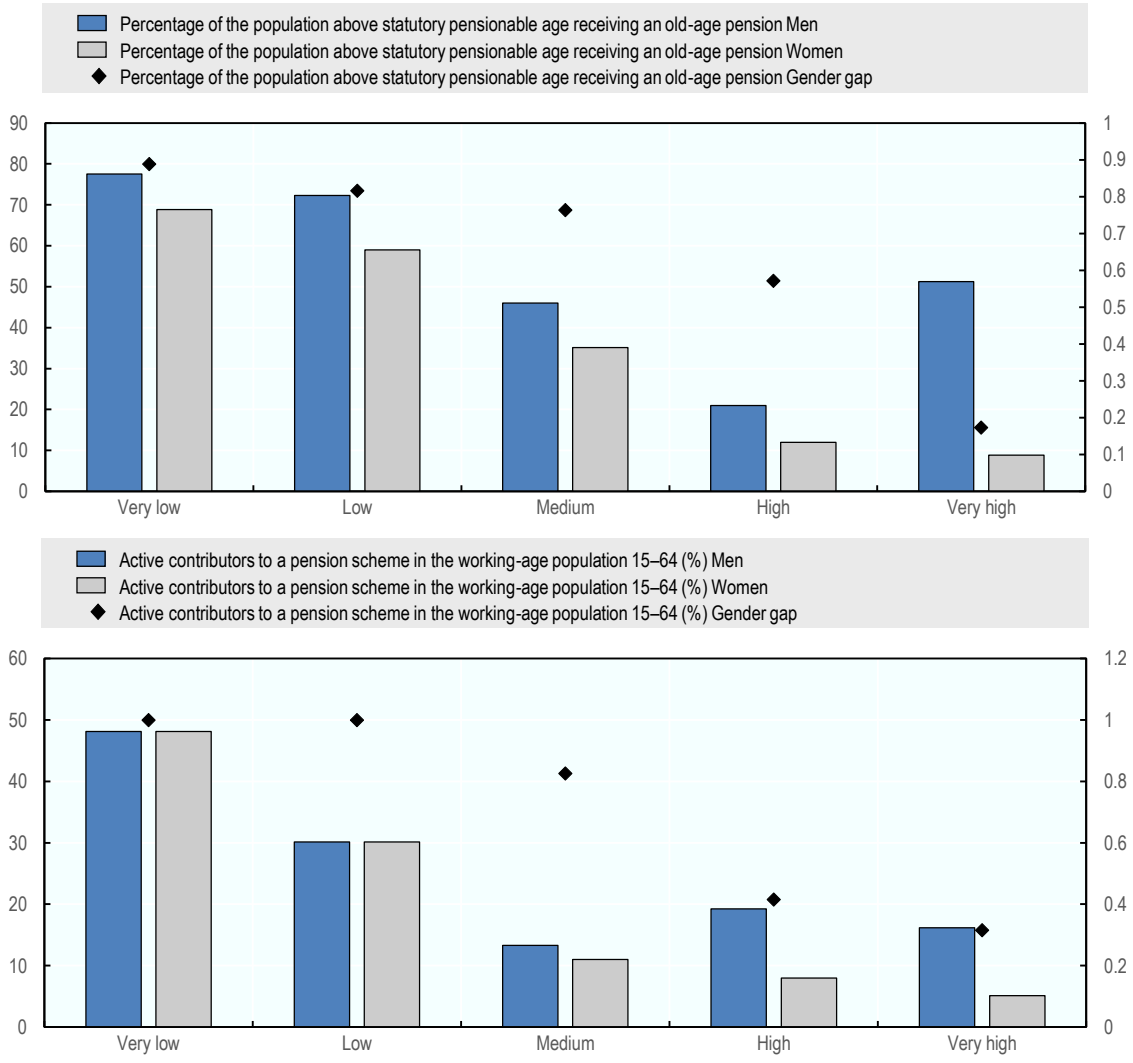
Discriminatory social institutions may partially explain gender social-protection gaps in two ways (Figure 2.4):

- First, legal barriers and gender norms based on the male-breadwinner model expect women to be confined in their reproductive role. At the global level, one person in two has negative attitudes towards "working mothers", by thinking that children will suffer if the mother is gainfully working outside the home. One person in six denies women the right to work, declaring that it is not acceptable for a female family member to have paid work outside the home because her role is to take care of both the children and the household. In addition, women devote an average of five hours per day to unpaid care and domestic work, compared to fewer than two hours for men. These facts could explain why female labour-force participation has stagnated over past decades and why women are under-represented in the work force, even in informal, low-paid and part-time jobs;
- Secondly, patriarchal social institutions often include social-protection schemes that have been designed for working men with an uninterrupted and full-time career in the formal economy. Women are more vulnerable to poverty and dependent on their husbands, family and community because they benefit less from formal safety nets throughout their entire lives. Existing schemes are not "women friendly" and lead by default to huge gender gaps. Being less active on the labour market and lower paid, women contribute less to the contributory social protection programmes and have lower saving levels.

Higher levels of discrimination in social institutions are correlated with lower female shares of beneficiaries and higher gender gaps in social protection. Controlling for income per capita and regional dummy variables, the level of discrimination in social institutions as measured by the SIGI is negatively correlated with women's share as pension contributors and their percentage as beneficiaries (Figure 2.3). Only 9% of women above statutory pensionable age receive an old-age pension in countries with very high levels of discrimination, compared to 69% in very low-discrimination countries; only 5% of the working-age female population and 16% of the working-age male

population are active contributors to a pension scheme in very-high-discrimination countries, compared to 48% and 48%, respectively, in very low-discrimination countries. As a result, the gender gap increases across SIGI's classification.

Figure 2.3. Gender patterns in pension contributors and beneficiaries by SIGI classification

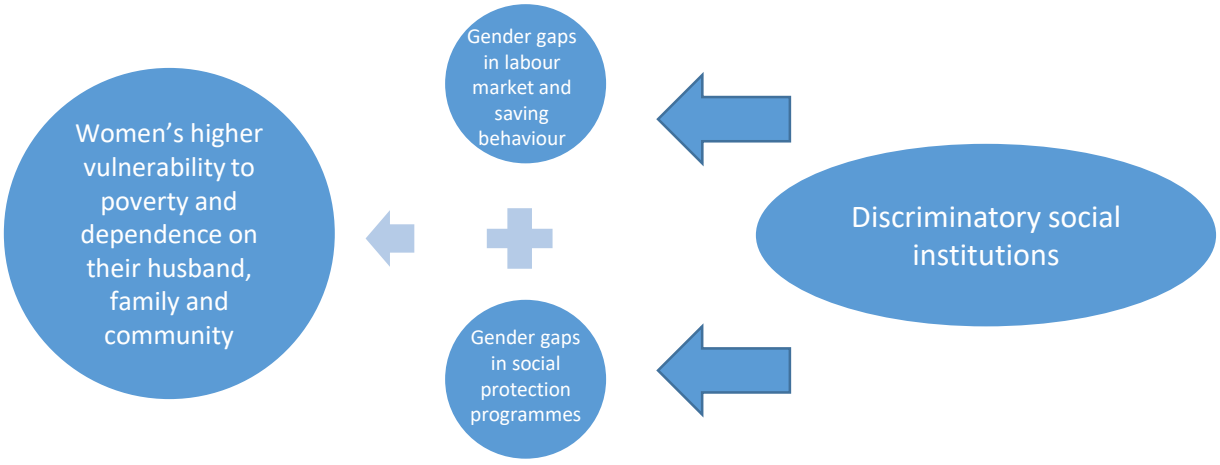


Note: Gender gaps in social protection is associated with levels of discrimination in social institutions, as measured by the SIGI, controlling for income per capita level and regional dummies.
Source: World Social Protection Report 2017/2018, ILO.

Gender-sensitive social-protection policies offer an opportunity to accelerate the path towards gender equality: applying a gender lens to social protection would better address women's specific needs from childhood to old age. Evidence shows, for example, that selecting women as the principal beneficiaries of social-protection programmes could enhance their decision-making power within the family, with benefits for children's nutrition, health and education (Newton, 2016[13]). Similarly, a transformative gender-sensitive pension scheme would reduce elderly women's poverty, by considering their higher life expectancy, gender disparities in labour participation (wage gaps and access to

contributory pension schemes), women's specificities in savings behaviour and their caring responsibilities (Box 2.2).

Figure 2.4. The vicious circle of discriminatory social institutions and social protection



Box 2.2. Policy recommendations for a transformative gender social protection policy

- Reduce barriers to women's labour-market participation;
- Tackle the gender pay gap;
- Support the transition to the formal economy;
- Develop credit periods of care in social security contributions; and
- Guarantee adequate universal social-protection floors.

Intersectional discrimination

Gender-based discriminatory social institutions do not affect all women in the same way; there is a need for a tailor-made approach that recognises diversity. Women are not a homogeneous group, so blanket, inflexible approaches would not benefit all women and may even marginalise some of them even more. All women have overlapping identities that, in some cases, can compound their inability to break the cycle of inequality. The discrimination women and girls face is exacerbated by intersecting inequalities, such as age and/or ethnicity and can be further increased by conflict and fragility, climate change and/or extreme poverty (Box 2.1). As a cross-cutting issue, however, gender equality-related policy measures can also be a cross-cutting solution (Box 2.3). Discriminatory social institutions can intersect and taking them into account in policy making is important to a comprehensive approach that leaves no woman or girl behind.

Rural, indigenous and migrant women are among the most vulnerable categories, as they are the furthest away from the shared benefits of social, political and economic development. Rural and indigenous women, for example, suffer inherently from multi-dimensional discrimination and poverty, due to inequitable access to resources and infrastructure. Migrant women and girls may suffer from endemic rape and sexual abuse, while their voices are often silenced or ignored, and while they often have limited or no access to many of the protection measures that should be available to all migrants and refugees. Therefore, adopting an intersectional approach to policy making would allow a better understanding of the reality of discrimination and a better design of equality policies.

The lack of attention to intersectional discrimination and the scarcity of data challenge the design of policies targeted to the needs of all women**.** In terms of official policy responses, South Africa is the only country whose constitution recognises and prohibits intersectional discrimination. In 100 countries, the constitution only prohibits discrimination of a list of precise and mutually exclusive grounds of discrimination, including gender. In 79 countries, the constitution does not contain a clause on discrimination that includes gender at all. All SDG 5 indicators are supposed to be disaggregated by location and some by age cohort to provide a more accurate estimation of the discrimination women face according to where they live, their ethnic group, disability, age, etc. However, measuring intersectionality is challenging. The following examples try to make the case for more disaggregated data.

Box 2.3. Good practices to tackle intersectional discrimination

- Guatemala has taken action to facilitate access to justice for indigenous women who do not speak Spanish. Since 2013, the judiciary has had an Indigenous Interpretation and Translation Centre to facilitate access to justice, especially for indigenous women and children, in their own language. In 2014, it also developed a guide to sensitise judiciary staff to the specific rights of indigenous women. In addition, the Office for the Defence of Indigenous Women was set up to promote the full realisation of their rights and contribute to the elimination of all forms of violence against indigenous women.
- The Toolkit on Eliminating Violence against Women and Children with Disabilities in Fiji aims to ensure women and girls with disabilities are included in broader programmes to eliminate violence against women. Developed through a consultative process, the Toolkit provides information on the various forms of discrimination faced by women and girls with disabilities. It also presents approaches that can be used by development actors to include a disability dimension in projects to tackle violence against women and girls.

Source: SIGI country profiles, https://www.genderindex.org/.

Migrant women

Migration attracts policy attention at the international and national levels, but little attention is paid to the particular needs of female migrants, especially of refugees. With an increasing number of people crossing borders in hope of better opportunities, migration policies are high on the global policy agenda. Out of 258 million international migrants, 48% are women (UNDESA, 2017[14]). Yet, migrants are often considered as a homogeneous group and little attention is paid to the specific needs of female migrants. While all migrants are vulnerable to discrimination, especially refugees, female migrants and refugees are disproportionately at risk. This double discrimination is often compounded by other causes of vulnerability, such as ethnicity, language barriers or level of poverty.

Box 2.4. Recommendations to protect the fundamental rights of female migrants

- Ratify and implement international instruments on the rights of migrants (ILO Convention 97 on migration for employment, ILO Convention 143 on migrant workers, 1990 UN Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their families, CEDAW General Recommendation No. 26 on women migrant workers).
- Provide gender-sensitive training to state actors interacting with migrants, such as the police, customs officers or workers in detention centres.
- Involve migrant women's rights organisations and other relevant organisations in the formulation and implementation of public policies.
- Include the protection of female migrants in strategies to tackle violence against women and ensure sexual and reproductive health services are available and accessible to all women.
- Encourage the creation and support of networks and mechanisms to encourage the socio-economic integration of female migrants in countries of destination: migrant women's rights associations, information services or money-lending schemes.

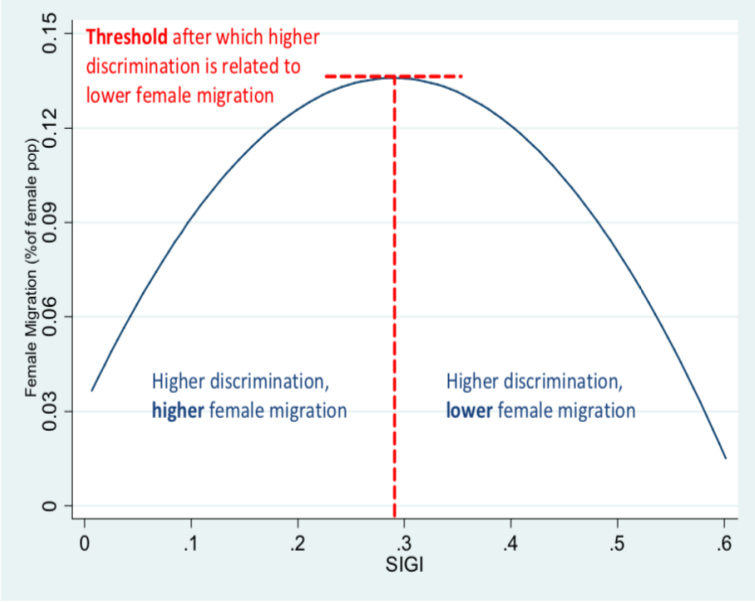
Discriminatory social norms in both the origin and the destination countries are additional factors influencing female migration.

- In countries of origin, discriminatory social institutions influence women's decisions to emigrate in two ways (Ferrant and Tuccio, 2015[15]). On the one hand, on top of other reasons for emigration (conflict, climate change, poverty…), discriminatory social institutions represent an additional incentive. This may, for instance, be to avoid forced or early marriage, gender-based violence, or when there are *de jure* or *de facto* limitations on women's economic, political or social rights. For example, sex-based discrimination in the labour market has been identified as an important factor driving female North-North migration (Baudassé and Bazillier, 2012[16]). On the other hand, women's willingness to emigrate might be hampered by highly discriminatory social institutions. Severe discrimination in the family and/or restricted civil liberties often make it

impossible for women to migrate or to do so with their children. For example, in ten countries women need permission from their husbands or male guardians to travel. All in all, discriminatory social institutions in countries of origin can be an additional incentive for women to migrate, but only up to a certain threshold, where it becomes an obstacle for female emigration (Figure 2.5) (Ferrant and Tuccio, 2015[15]).

- Discriminatory social institutions also influence migrant women's choice of destination. Female migrants are attracted by countries with low levels of gender-based discrimination. Women tend to migrate to countries where they can enjoy greater freedom and rights. For example, 62% of the main destination countries for women from low discriminatory countries also have a low level of discrimination (Ferrant and Tuccio, 2015[15]).

Figure 2.5. Discriminatory social institutions in origin countries are both an incentive for and a constraint on female migration



Note: The chart shows the relationship between the SIGI 2012 in origin countries and the predicted value of female migration flows. The SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Additional controls are GDP per capita, income differential, distance, contiguity, language differential, population size and unemployment rates for origin and destination country, civil liberties, conflict, network and male migration flows. All coefficients are significant at the 5% level with the expected sign.
Source: Ferrant and Tuccio (2015), "South-south migration and discrimination against women in social institutions: A two-way Relationship", *World Development*, Vol. 72, pp. 240-254.

Women migrants' wellbeing in both transit and destination countries is highly affected by intersectionality: discriminatory social norms are even more binding on women migrants than they are for men.

- In transit countries, migrant women are particularly vulnerable to violations of their physical integrity stemming from pervasive discriminatory social norms. No woman in the world lives in an environment guaranteeing her physical integrity and this is particularly true for migrant women (IOM, 2013[17]). When travelling or residing in camps, women often lack access to adequate infrastructure or live in

overcrowded surroundings where the rates of violence, including sexual exploitation and trafficking, are disproportionately high. Furthermore, migrant women in transit countries often do not have access to sexual and reproductive health services, such as family planning or maternal-health services.

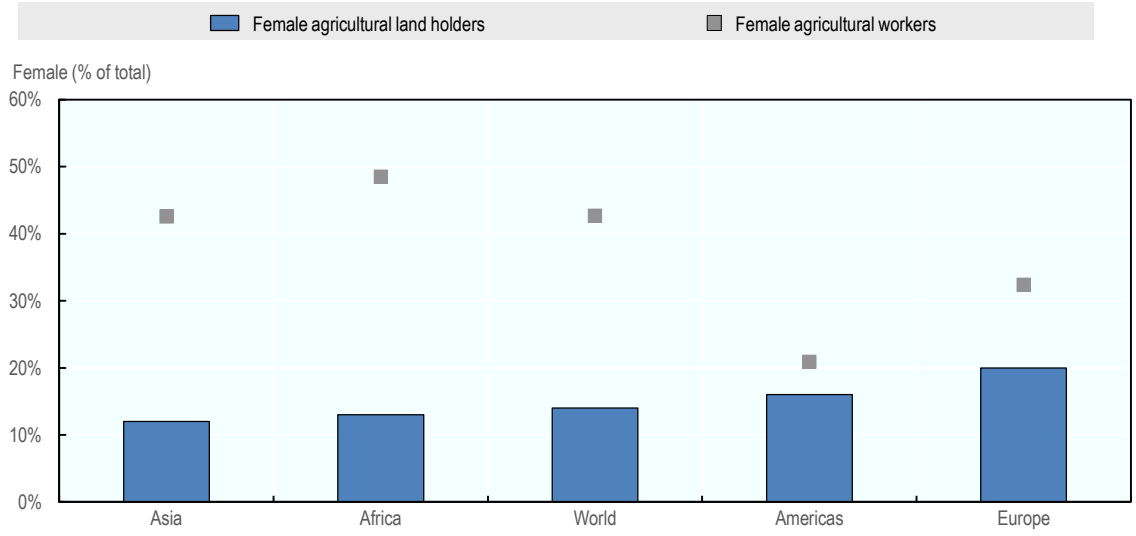
- In destination countries, economic empowerment opportunities are disproportionately restricted for female migrants. Discriminatory social norms defining which jobs are suitable for women mean that labour markets in destination countries are segmented and female migrants are primarily offered low-skilled and low-paid jobs (IOM, 2013[17]). In addition, these opportunities are often located in unregulated sectors of the economy where women do not benefit from social protection, in particular maternity leave and health coverage, where their collective bargaining rights are neglected and where they are at risk of exploitation.
- Migration is not always an effective way for women and girls to escape discriminatory social norms and practices. Women may prefer to migrate to avoid early marriage, female genital mutilation or fear (or even experiences) of gender-based violence. There is evidence from South-east Asia of women migrating in order to avoid involuntary marriages (Lam and Hoang, 2010[18]); in Ethiopia, 23% of migrant adolescent girls reported that they migrated to escape early marriage (Erulkar et al., 2006[19]). However, poor migrant families may adopt coping mechanisms, such as marrying off their daughters, in the hope of improving their situation (Girls not Brides, 2018[20]). Moreover, they often face tremendous difficulties in seeking judicial redress for violation of their rights (UN Women, 2011[21]).

Rural women

Rural women provide another example of intersectionality: they face both specific challenges related to rural settings and endemic women's deprivation. People living in rural areas have generally less access to infrastructure (energy, water and sanitation), basic services (health and education), decent employment opportunities and social protection. This has specific effects on women and girls because discriminatory social norms are more prevalent, more important for the community and the anonymity offered by big cities is not an option. For example, while one third of Burkinabés thinks there is no need for a bride to give her consent to be married, the proportion drops to a fifth in urban areas, but it is up to almost half in the remote areas of the Sahel (OECD Development Centre, 2018[22]).

Even if rural communities need women's economic contributions, they relegate women to less valuable activities. Women significantly contribute to agricultural and food production as producers, family labourers and food processors. Globally, women average 43% of the agricultural labour force but only constitute 16% of agricultural land owners (Figure 2.6).Women make up almost half of the agricultural labour force in the developing world and the share continues to rise in several countries in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa because a growing number of men are migrating to urban areas and overseas. The proportion of women employed in the agricultural sector in North Africa increased from about 30% in 1980 to 43% in 2010. Nevertheless, women's jobs in agriculture tend to be more precarious; women are over-represented in seasonal, part-time and low-wage work and the informal sector constitutes the primary source of employment for rural women (FAO, 2012[23])

Figure 2.6. Women's share as agricultural landholders and workers



Note: Average female share of agricultural workers in Asia excludes Japan and in Americas excludes the United States and Canada.
Source: FAO (2018), *Gender and Land Rights Database*, http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/en/ and FAO (2011), *The State of Food and Agriculture 2010-2011*.

Women and girls living in rural areas face structural barriers to their empowerment. They suffer from the effects of the marginalisation of the territories where they live. The SIGI country study in Burkina Faso shows, for example, that 44% of rural women live more than an hour away from basic water infrastructures (OECD Development Centre, 2018[22]). They are also particularly affected by natural disasters and the effects of climate change on agriculture and are the first to "absorb the shocks" of food crises. In 1991, during the cyclone disasters in Bangladesh, 90% of victims were women (Neumayer and Plümper, 2007[24]). After droughts hit in India, girls were more likely to be malnourished and stunned compared to their peer boys in Andhra Pradesh (FAO, 2018[25]). Moreover, they are under-represented in organisations and institutions that play a key role in governing rural areas. For example, only 1.6% of women have been elected as representatives in rural councils in Sri Lanka and 31% in Pakistan (UNDP, 2010[26]).

Rural women have multiple overlapping identities and endure intersecting forms of discrimination. For instance, in Latin America and the Caribbean, indigenous and afro-descendant women who live in rural settings often encounter forms of discrimination based on their ethnicity, language and way of life. Rural women who belong to other ethnic minority and religious groups, as well as single-female-headed households, are more vulnerable to social exclusion, stigmatisation and higher levels of poverty. Women working in rural settings, including livestock keepers, farmers, pastoralists, peasants and fishers, equally suffer from discrimination on different grounds. Furthermore, women with disabilities living in rural areas face specific challenges related to the lack of adequate health-care facilities and services. In addition, older women, widows and women affected by HIV/AIDS living in rural areas may face stigmatisation, deprivation and social isolation, exposing them to greater risks of illness and mortality.

These challenges are further compounded in rural areas by women's triple burden of work. Across all countries, rural women's time is constrained by their productive (income generating activities), reproductive (household duties) and community roles (organisation

of weddings, celebrations, etc.). Rural women might also have to juggle their household responsibilities with work in the fields. In this case, their ability to dedicate time to paid agricultural activities is severely limited. Therefore, rural women often engage in informal jobs to balance their paid and unpaid responsibilities better. The female burden of unpaid care work is exacerbated by reduced access to basic infrastructure and deeply embedded social expectations of female reproductive roles. For instance, in Burkina Faso rural women spend more than twice the time collecting wood and water per week than their counterparts in urban areas (OECD Development Centre, 2018[22]).

Digitalisation: A double-edged sword for women's empowerment

Digitalisation could either be an opportunity to achieve SDG 5 or a major threat to the gains of the past decades. Applying a social norm lens to the digitalisation and women's empowerment nexus increases the complexity of the issue: discriminatory social norms and the digital revolution have an ambiguous relationship of reverse causality:

- On one hand, digitalisation theoretically opens new doors for women to overcome institutional barriers to their empowerment. However, given the gender digital divide, the increasing role of digitalisation in the global economy can exacerbate gender inequalities and reinforce discriminatory gender norms.
- On the other hand, social and cultural obstacles prevent or limit women's access to, use of, and benefits from ICTs, increasing the gender digital divide.

When women are able to engage with digital technology, a wide range of personal, family and community benefits become possible, whatever the social expectations of women's roles**.** Digitalisation increases the opportunities for women's voices to be heard and for their access to knowledge and employment, outdating discriminatory social norms that negatively influence women's rights. For example, technology has offered new ways of communication for women's rights movements in countries where women's freedom of expression and association were limited by social and customary practices. Similarly, the digital revolution has transformed the way women and girls can access education and employment. Access to knowledge no longer depends on a girl's freedom of movement, but on her physical access to technology. The distance to school, threats on their physical integrity at school and vulnerability while *en route* to school have no impact on girls' access to online training or courses. Similarly, the "gig economy" may offer more flexible working hours, improving women's work-life balance and overcoming some stereotypes against working mothers (Hunt and Samman, 2019[27]). Indeed, half of the global population still thinks that children will suffer when their mother is in paid employment outside the home and this figure rises to two thirds in Northern Africa. One person in six people thinks that it is not acceptable for a woman family member to have a paid job outside the home, because her perceived role is to take care of both the children and the household; this proportion rises to one in three in Southern Asia.

Digitalisation appears as an innovative way to challenge discriminatory social norms by unlocking women's empowerment opportunities and disseminating information about women's rights. Social transformation is a complex process that the digital revolution has made easier (Chapter 1, Box 1.2). With the #meetoo movement, technology firmly established itself as a means of challenging social norms. This has been not only an effective way to raise awareness of violence against women but also to break the norm of acceptance and silence, to show to survivors of sexual violence they are not alone and to warn would-be and actual perpetrators that they could be socially held responsible and

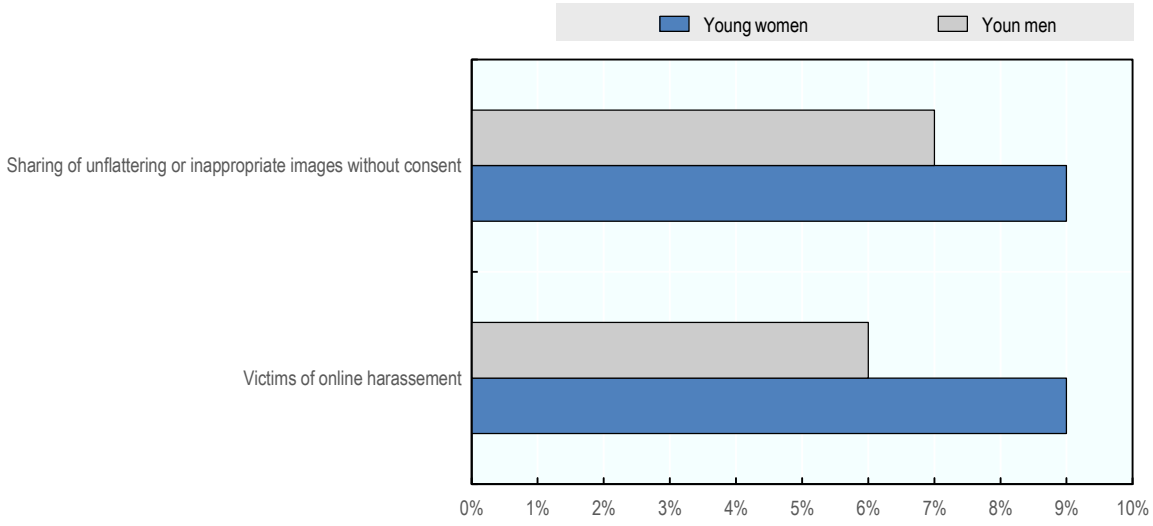
legally prosecuted. This has also resulted in a new political commitment to enact laws protecting women from violence (in France, for example). In March 2014, the NGO *Shoft Taharosh* ("Harassment Seen") released footage online of the harassment of a female student in an Egyptian University that resulted in the implementation of a new anti-sexual harassment policy. Similarly, social, political and economic empowerment resulted from new digital opportunities that provided women with the "power" to challenge discriminatory social norms that imprison them in an artificial social straitjacket. Mobile-money accounts, for example, offer an effective way to boost women's financial inclusion and to challenge social norms preventing women from access to finance.

Digitalisation appears to open new opportunities for women's financial inclusion. The use of technology in the financial sphere seems to improve the gender-responsiveness of the financial system, addressing women's specific needs. Increasing evidence shows that mobile-money accounts might be helping to narrow the gender gap in financial inclusion. In Côte d'Ivoire, for example, men are twice as likely as women to have a bank account but have the same likelihood of holding only a mobile-money account (World Bank, 2017[28]).

The gender-transformative impact of digitalisation is not automatic. The digital divide between women and men and among women has exacerbated the marginalisation of some women, reinforcing the negative influence of discriminatory gender norms. The gender digital divide includes several gaps in one. Women and girls enjoy less access to information technology than men and boys, especially in developing countries, because of technological, skill and content inequalities. In addition to infrastructure issues, the gender-digital divide also refers to the differences in resources and capabilities to access and effectively use technology: a lot of web-based information is simply not relevant to the real needs of women in developing countries, and most of the websites are in English. While digitalisation offers new ways of development, excluding women makes them even more vulnerable to discriminatory social norms and reinforces the male bread-winner model. Conservative gender roles become even more entrenched due to lack of exposure to alternative perspectives and women become increasingly marginalised as social connections are increasingly fostered and maintained online. On average, women are 26% less likely than men to have a smartphone and access mobile internet, a percentage that rises to 70% in South Asia (OECD, 2018[29]).

Digitalisation also creates new threats to women's rights, such as online violence, reinforcing offline discrimination. Specific violence facilitated by ICT includes, among other things, stalking, threats, hate speech, breaches of privacy, blackmail, non-consensual sharing of explicit images, human trafficking and prostitution. In the United States, 26% of women aged 18-24 have been stalked online (Pew Research Center, 2015[30]); in European countries, 9% of young women and 9% of 15-year-old girls have been victims of online harassment or unauthorised image sharing (Figure 2.7). Online violence perpetuates existing offline gender inequality, spanning the continuum from physical to digital spaces. For example, in-person stalking is often accompanied by stalking online. Online violence against women also limits their ability to take advantage of the opportunities that ICT provides for the full realisation of women's rights, including freedom of expression. Online violence uses the same pattern as offline violence to silence, control and keep women out of public spaces. Women's rights defenders face particular threats online, including cyberstalking (Aziz, 2017[31]).

Figure 2.7. Online threats to young women in Europe



Note: "Online harassment" refers to young women and men aged 15-24 in the EU-28; "Sharing images" refers to 15-year old girls.
Source: Eurobarometer 2013.

Legal loopholes and the private sector's inadequate responses reinforce women's vulnerability to online violence. The SIGI country notes show that very few countries have a legal framework to address online violence. Even when it exists, law enforcement structures and the courts are not taking appropriate action when web-enabled technology is used to commit acts of violence against women. The role of the private sector, especially of internet service providers, is held to be limited. Finally, national laws fail to recognise the continuum of violence that women experience offline and online (Aziz, 2017[31]). As a result, a culture of impunity has prevailed and access to the internet has, in itself, enabled perpetrators to aggress women anonymously.

Deeply entrenched discriminatory social norms exacerbate the gender digital divide, creating a vicious circle. Discriminatory social norms reduce women's opportunities and skills to use technology effectively. In countries where the level of discrimination in social institutions is higher, as measured by the SIGI, women's access to education is lower, reducing, by definition, their skill and their capacity to benefit from digitalisation, notably because the content of information is designed for English-speaking educated individuals. Hence, by widening gender gaps in access to education and technological knowledge, discriminatory social norms exacerbate the technological divide. In India for example, 51% of women can read compared to 75% of men, yet, without this fundamental skill digital technology and its benefits remain out of reach. Even literate women often have restricted *digital* literacy skills that are defined by social norms as a male prerogative. In India and Egypt, for example, 40% of women give a lack of familiarity with technology as a reason for not using the Internet. Discriminatory attitudes also restrict women's access to information and communication technology, even when they have the literacy skills. For example, one in five women in India and Egypt believe that the Internet is not appropriate for them, or that their families would disapprove (Dalberg Global Intel, 2013[32]). Often, telecentres are not open to women and, in several cultures, women's use of such facilities and their interaction with men in public locations is frowned upon.

Technology remains a male domain. Social norms still define technologies to be within the purview of men. As a result, women exclude themselves from STEM education and employment opportunities in ICT. In OECD countries, for example, fewer than 1% of girls aged 15 see a career as an ICT professional, compared to 5% of boys, and only 25% of graduates in ICTs were women (OECD, 2018[29]). Therefore, the content associated with technologies is largely male-centric, reinforcing the view that technologies are for men (Antonio and Tuffley, 2014[33]).

Identifying the role of social norms is critical for defining development policies increasing the benefits for women from digitalisation. "Use presumes access but not vice-versa" (Ono and Zavodny, 2007, p. 1137[34]). So, among the women non-users there is a need to know whether this is a freely made choice or whether this choice has been influenced by social norms. If a woman is not using technology because of lack of infrastructure or skills, we need to provide her with a computer and internet access and improve her digital education. However, if this choice is related to discriminatory social norms, this calls for a transformative gender policy, which is much more complex. Gender neutrality does not pay off: a gender-sensitive approach to digitalisation is necessary to reduce the gender digital divide and benefit from the new opportunities offered by digitalisation. For example, opening telecentres adapted to women's needs has narrowed the gender digital divide in South Africa's Western Cape Province (Alao, Lwoga and Chigona, 2017[35]).

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Chapter 3. Discrimination in the family

This chapter presents an overview of women's discrimination in the family. It examines discriminatory social institutions – formal and informal laws, social norms and practices – that limit women's decision-making power and undervalue their status in the household across 180 countries, covering areas such as child marriage, household responsibilities, parental authority, divorce and inheritance. The chapter also seeks to provide policy makers with the necessary tools and evidence to design effective gender-responsive policies to tackle gender inequality in the family sphere.



The *discrimination in the family* (DF) sub-index captures social institutions that limit women's decision-making power and undervalues their status in the household and the family. These formal and informal laws, social norms and practices co-exist in different types of legal systems including civil or common law, customary law and religious laws. They cover areas such as marriage, parental authority, household responsibilities, divorce and inheritance rights.

Women's decision-making power and their status in the family determine both their ability to choose their own development pathways and the well-being of their families.

The DF sub-index is composed of four indicators:

- "child marriage" captures both the prevalence of girls' formal marriages or informal unions under 18 years of age and the level of legal protection, i.e. whether the legal framework sets the minimum age of marriage for women and men at 18, without judicial exceptions or parental consent, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "household responsibilities" captures expectations towards men's and women's roles in the family, the prevalence of gender differences in the distribution of domestic duties, as well as legal acceptance of such differences, i.e. whether women and men enjoy the same legal rights and decision-making abilities and responsibilities within the household, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "divorce" captures whether women and men enjoy the same rights to initiate divorce without negative repercussions, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "inheritance" captures whether surviving spouses and siblings enjoy equal rights to inheritance of real estate and personal property irrespective of their sex, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.

Key messages

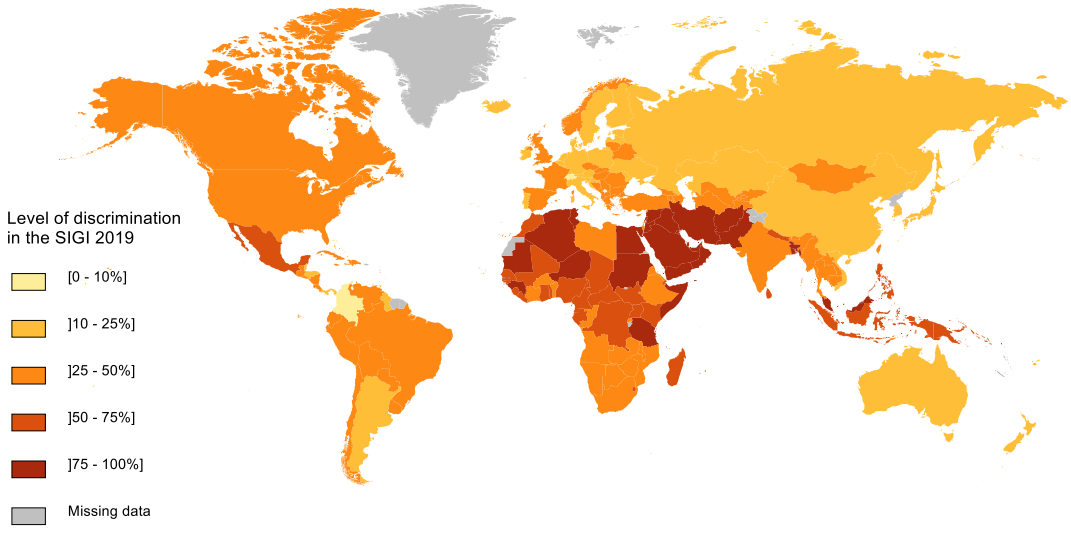
- The most universal and intractable issues women face globally derive from discriminatory social institutions governing the family:
  - The global level of discrimination in the family is 44%.
- Legal loopholes still allow discriminatory practices such as girl child marriage and unequal inheritance and status within the household:
  - Girl child marriage is legal under certain circumstances in all but 22 countries;
  - The legal frameworks of 127 countries do not contain an explicit provision providing women with the same right as men to be recognised as the head of household;
  - 29 countries discriminate against women's and girls' inheritance rights.
- Despite increasing coverage of legal frameworks protecting women's rights, customary laws still interfere with women's right to initiate divorce and to inherit in the same way as men:
  - In 45 countries, customary, traditional or religious laws allow men to repudiate a spouse without resorting to statutory legal proceedings, whereas women are required to seek and justify such a decision in a court of law;
  - In 55 countries, customary, traditional or religious laws provide daughters and/or widows with a lower share of inheritance than sons and/or widowers.
- Social norms governing gender roles in the family globally tend to view caring and domestic responsibilities as a female obligation, preventing men from assuming equal responsibilities and stigmatising working mothers:
  - Women allocate two to ten times more time to unpaid care and domestic work than men;
  - Half of the global population declare that they think children with working mothers will suffer.

How can governments effectively tackle discriminatory social institutions governing the family sphere?

- Close legal loopholes that perpetuate child marriage;
- Establish legal provisions that recognise women as head of households;
- Work with relevant customary and religious authorities to harmonise customary or religious laws governing divorce with the common and statutory law; and
- Support relevant authorities to align customary or religious laws of succession and inheritance with national legal frameworks.

Discrimination in the family sphere is the most pervasive and universal form of discriminatory social institution. The SIGI result for the DF sub-index indicates a global level of discrimination in the family of 44%, ranging from 1% in Switzerland to 92% in Bahrain (Figure 3.1). This is the worst score across the four sub-indices of the SIGI indicating that standard gender-sensitive policies have failed to eradicate laws, social norms and practices that perpetuate women's subordinate status and their low decision-making power in the household. It ranges from 34% in high-income countries to 60% in low-income countries, indicating that, whatever the level of economic wealth, all women around the world face discrimination within their families. Despite important regional disparities, not one single country treats men and women equally in the private sphere with extensive implications on for inter-generational transmission of discriminatory gender norms. Even within the best performing regions, this remains a challenge: in Europe (26%) and the Americas (31%), women's roles are often confined to their traditional reproductive and caring responsibilities. In some Asian (54%) and African (56%) countries, laws and social norms governing family matters still subordinate women's status to their fathers, husbands and/or male guardians.

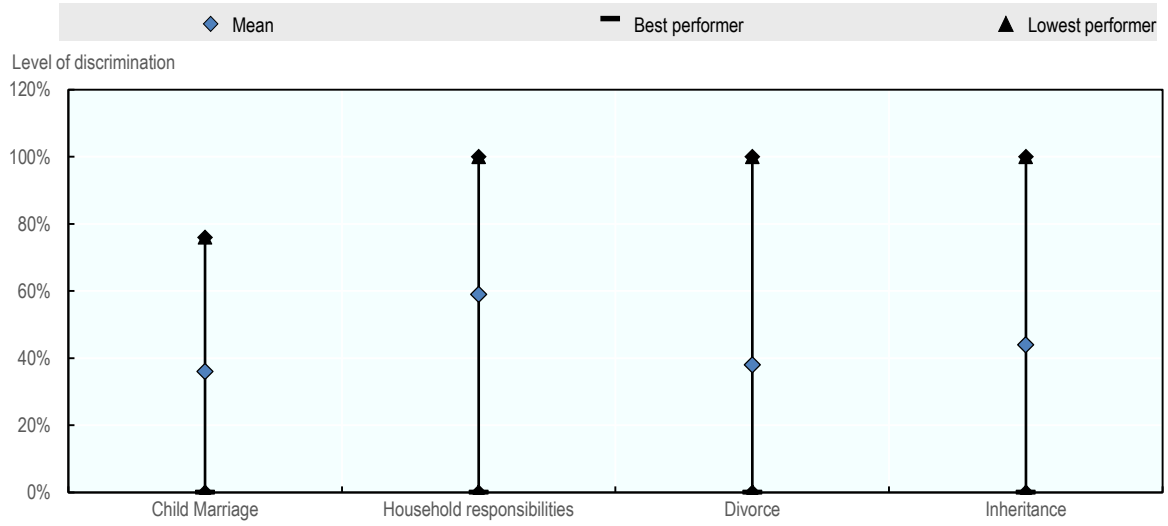
Figure 3.1. Level of discrimination in the family sub-index



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Discriminatory social institutions undermine women's capacity to participate as equal actors in the family sphere, particularly when it comes to household responsibilities: the global level of discrimination is 60% in this area. In other areas, such as inheritance, divorce and child marriage, the global level of discrimination is respectively 44%, 38% and 36% (Figure 3.2). While the unequal division of household responsibilities remains a global concern, discriminatory inheritance laws and practices continue to be a serious issue particularly across African and Asian countries.

Figure 3.2. SIGI results in the four discrimination in the family indicators



Note: Global average, best and lowest performers in the four discrimination in the family indicators.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Despite persistent unequal distribution of caring responsibilities between women and men, Switzerland emerges as the best performer in the family dimension because of a strong legislative framework. The statutory minimum age of marriage for women and men is 18, without any legal exception. Moreover, children are the joint responsibility of both the father and mother – regardless of the parents' civil status – until they attain the age of majority. Prior to a 2014 amendment, the assumption of joint custody was not automatic, and mothers were frequently awarded sole custody. However, since then, both parents regardless of their marital status are awarded joint custody without the need for a prior agreement or the approval of a judge. In addition, The Swiss Civil Code grants men and women equal inheritance and divorce rights. Property grabbing is criminalised in the Swiss Criminal Code, and punishable by a custodial sentence or a monetary penalty. However, women in Switzerland spend much longer than men on most household and family tasks, and caregiving remains overwhelmingly the domain of women (CEDAW, 2015[1]). Swiss women spend over four hours per day on unpaid care and domestic work compared to two and a half hours for men.

Child marriage

Key messages

- Despite governments' efforts to prevent child marriage by 2030, many hurdles remain. Since the last edition of the SIGI in 2014, 15 countries[1] have strengthened their legal frameworks to delay the age at which the first union can be established by eliminating legal exceptions that allowed children to marry. However, 67 and 45 countries legally allow girls to marry before the age of 18 with parental or judicial consent, respectively. Moreover, only 83 countries stipulate legal sanctions for those facilitating a marriage of an individual who is under the minimum age of marriage.

- Although child marriage rates are falling, the practice remains pervasive in some regions. Globally, girl child marriage has declined, from 1 in 4 girls to approximately 1 in 6 over the last decade. However, 16% of girls aged 15-19 are or have been married or are in informal unions, compared to 3% of boys. The highest rates of child marriage are concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa (26%) and Southern Asia (24%).
- There is a long way to go to achieve SDG 5.3. The practice of child marriage is declining, but at a very slow rate, implying that it would take 100 additional years to meet the 2030 target. If countries with high prevalence rates of child marriage do not considerably accelerate progress and if the international community and donors do not scale up existing efforts and investments, rapid population growth will adversely affect recent gains. Therefore, it is expected that the total number of child brides will increase from more than 700 million today to approximately 950 million by 2030, should change continue at the same pace.
- Denmark, Switzerland and Sweden are the best performers in this indicator: the legal frameworks set the age of marriage for girls and boys at 18 without exception. In addition, these countries have the lowest rates of child marriage in the world (less than 1%).

Key policy recommendations

- Set 18 as the minimum age of marriage for girls and boys without any legal exceptions, in order to comply with international and regional legal frameworks such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Maputo Protocol (Box 3.1). In 2017, Honduran legislators unanimously outlawed child marriage and raised the minimum age of marriage for both women and men from 16 to 18 years and removed all exceptions for young people under the age of 18 in an effort to prevent child marriage (Plan International, 2017[2]).
- Ensure that all marriages, including religious and customary ones, are registered by the competent civil authorities to support the effective implementation and enforcement of laws on the minimum age of marriage. In Madagascar, the law requires marriages to be registered with a civil officer in order to help enforce the age requirement (Government of Madagascar, 2007[3]).
- Address the root causes of child marriage, which often stems from extreme poverty. Child marriage is most common in low-income countries and is often concentrated among the poorest household within those countries. Interventions that solely tackle child marriage, *per se*, in these communities are thus insufficient. In Mexico, the National Programme for the Equality of Opportunity and Non-Discrimination against Women 2014-2018 foresees stronger collaboration with indigenous municipalities in order to eradicate child and forced marriage of indigenous women and girls (Goverment of Mexico, 2013[4]).
- Adopt comprehensive national strategies to eradicate child marriage and integrate child-marriage prevention programmes into other government initiatives, particularly in the areas of education, health and employment. For instance, the Government of Uganda adopted the National Strategy to End Child Marriage and Teenage Pregnancy in 2015. The 2014/15-2019/20 Strategy is intended to provide comprehensive guidance on the implementation of programmes and policies to

help eliminate child marriage across Uganda (The Republic of Uganda/UNICEF, 2015[5]).

- Prioritise educational and training opportunities for girls, which have proven successful in delaying the age of marriage, and introduce scholarship programmes to enable poor, rural and pregnant adolescents to access education. In Burkina Faso, 47% of girls with no education are married before the age of 18, compared to 12% of girls who attended secondary education (OECD Development Centre, 2018[6]).
- Further raise awareness within communities of girls' rights and of the negative effects of child marriage on men through traditional and religious leaders. This implies empowering the most relevant agents of change and strengthening their duties to protect vulnerable young women. In Zambia, many local chiefs have banned the practice of child marriage and placed the girls affected by child marriage in schools (US Deparment of State, 2016[7]).
- Support civil society organisations (CSOs) committed to ending child marriage and further support the role of community-based organisations by increasing their un-ear-marked funding and ensuring that they are well equipped and have the necessary skills to mobilise communities to delay the age of marriage (Box 3.2).

Box 3.1. International standards condemning child marriage

Child marriage is recognised in international legal instruments to be a serious violation of a child's human rights. Since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, numerous international treaties and agreements have followed to prevent child marriage and protect the human rights of children, including:

- The Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage, and Registration of Marriages (1962) establishes that all State parties should take 'legislative action to specify a minimum age of marriage' (Arts. 1, 2 and 3);
- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) states that 'the betrothal and the marriage of a child shall have no legal effect' (Art. 16 (2));
- The Convention of the Rights of Child (1989) precluded State parties from permitting or giving validity to a marriage between persons who have not attained the age of majority;
- The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) (known as the Maputo Protocol) (Art. 6, clauses (a), (b), (d));
- The 2030 Agenda under the Sustainable Development Goals Target 5.3 aims to "eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage".

Results

The costs of child marriage do not solely fall on girls and their families, but also on international efforts to end poverty and achieve sustainable economic growth by 2030. According to recent estimates of the economic costs of child marriage at a global level,

ending this harmful practice could save up to USD 4 trillion by 2030. In Niger, for example, the annual welfare gains from ending child marriage could reach USD 1.7 billion by 2030, while equivalent gains would be USD 10 billion in India due to its large population (Wodon et al., 2017[8]).

Despite being at the front and centre of gender equality commitments, most governments have failed to protect girls from child marriage. Only 22 countries prohibit marriage for anyone under the age of 18 with no exceptions. Among the remaining 158 countries, 38 allow the marriage of girls under 18: 6 countries do not specify a minimum age of marriage and in 32 countries girls can legally marry before turning 18. While 131 countries have set 18 as the minimum age of marriage for boys and girls, 67 and 45 countries allow it with parental or judicial consent, respectively. Legal provisions also fail to protect the most vulnerable: 34 countries do not protect all groups of women and in 129 countries, communities governed by customary, religious or traditional laws encourage girl-child marriage.

Since the 2014 edition of the SIGI, only moderate progress has been made in preventing child marriage. Since 2014, 15 countries strengthened their laws on the minimum age of marriage by eliminating legal exceptions that allowed children to marry. However, legal protection from child marriage, while crucial, is not enough. Enforcement of the laws to eradicate child marriage is relatively weak. Currently, 65% of countries have not implemented public measures to generate social support for the enforcement of laws on the minimum age of marriage and 64% of countries have not established awareness-raising and/or education programmes around the minimum age of marriage.

Box 3.2. Preventing child marriage: The example of Breakthrough India

In India, child marriage is prohibited Under the Prohibition of Child Marriage Act (2006). While there has been a decline since the passage of the Act, the prevalence of child marriage remains high, while its reporting remains low. In this context, Breakthrough India is one of the many organisations that work to end the practice. They focus their efforts in local communities in three districts (Gaya, Ranchi and Hazaribagh) where there is the highest prevalence of child marriage.

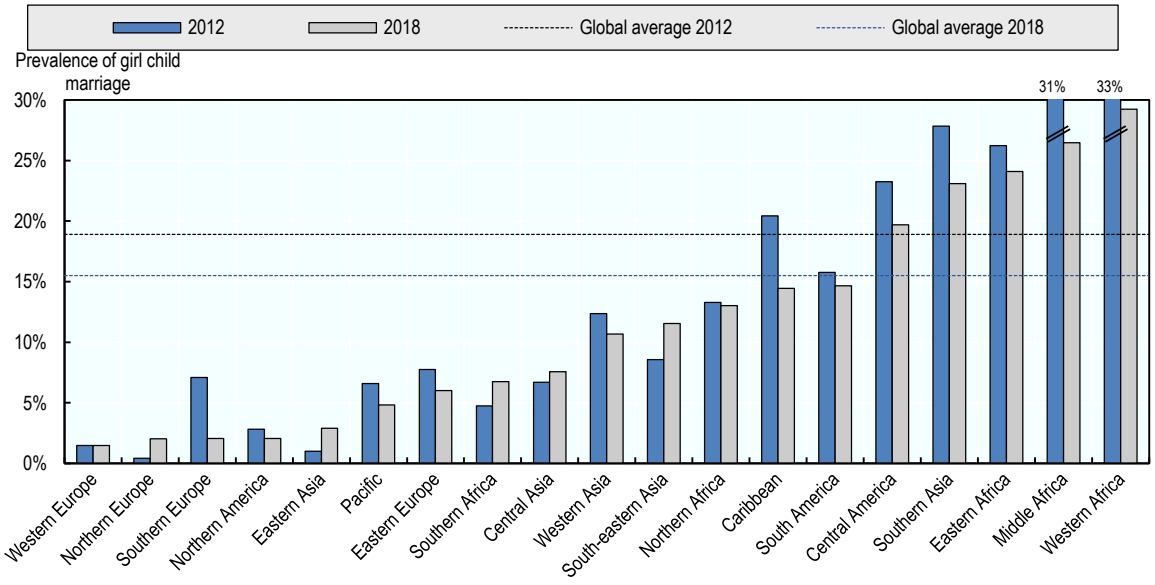
Breakthrough India aims at deepening individual, family, youth and community support to delay the age of marriage with a three-pronged approach:

- National mass-media campaigns aim to raise awareness on the negative impact of child marriage and to encourage public dialogue around the issue. The campaign "nation against early marriage" has reached 240 million people;
- Providing training for influential community and religious leaders will allow them to become actors of social change. Breakthrough India has seen a 16% increase in community engagement to tackle child marriage;
- Direct interventions in local communities trigger discussions around child marriage.
- This approach reached 7.5 million people and involved 250 000 supporters (Breakthrough India, 2018[9]).

Source: Breakthrough India (2018[9]), *Nation Against Early Marriage*, http://www.breakthrough.tv/earlymarriage/againstearlymarriage%E2%80%8F/ (accessed on 26 January 2019).

The human rights-based approach to ending child marriage has not been enough to bring about change. Child marriage disproportionally affects girls with a prevalence rate five times that for boys. Whatever the legal status of girl child marriage, communities and parents continue marrying off girls before their 18th birthdays: 16% of girls aged 15-19 are or have been married or in informal unions compared to 3% of boys (Figure 3.3). Countries with the highest prevalence of girl child marriage are concentrated in sub-Saharan Africa (26%) and Southern Asia (24%). While Niger and Central African Republic have the highest rates of child brides in the world (62% and 61%, respectively), India and Bangladesh have the highest absolute numbers of girl child marriage around the world (over 15 000 000 and almost 5 000 000 of women aged 20 to 24 were married before turning 18, respectively) (UNICEF, 2017[10]). In Latin America and the Caribbean, the situation widely varies from a sub-region/country to another: the practice is less common in the Caribbean (15%) than in Central America (20%) with 2% in Trinidad and Tobago, compared to 30% in Nicaragua.

Figure 3.3. Prevalence of girl child marriage in 2012 and 2018



Note: Percentage of girls aged 15-19 being married, divorced, widowed or in an informal union in 2012 and 2018. Data for Northern America, Northern Europe, the Pacific and Western Europe is for of 2014.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Although the child marriage rate is slowly decreasing worldwide, accelerated progress is needed to put an end to this harmful practice by 2030. Globally, girl child marriage has declined from 1 in 4 (25%) to approximately 1 in 6 (16%) in the last decade. Approximately 1 in 3 child marriages occurs in sub-Saharan Africa, compared to 1 in 6 a decade ago. However, if the current rates continue, the number of child brides will increase due to the rapid population growth in Africa. While the prevalence of child marriage has significantly declined in Southern Asia – where a girl's risk of marrying before turning 18 has dropped by more than a third, from almost 50% to 30% in the last decade – this practice remains pervasive in many other countries in the region. In Latin America and the Caribbean, child marriage rates have remained stagnant over the last

30 years. The region hosts 3 of the top 20 countries with the highest prevalence of child marriage (Nicaragua, Dominican Republic and Honduras).

Household responsibilities

Key messages

- Women's status in the private sphere remains generally subordinate to their husband's authority, worldwide. Men are recognised as the sole head of the household in 23% of countries. Additionally, 15% of countries require women to obey their husbands by law and 19% of countries do not accord equal parental authority to women and men during marriage.
- Despite shifts towards a dual-earner household model, social expectations still embrace the male-breadwinner model and accept gender segregation in household tasks. Traditional gender roles in the family have shown remarkable tenacity, confining women to domestic and reproductive roles. On average, 51% of people declare that children will suffer when a mother is in paid employment, ranging from 37% in Europe to 56% in Asia.
- The implementation of policies and measures promoting equal distribution of responsibilities within the household does not necessarily translate into lifting the burden on women's unpaid care and domestic work. Women disproportionately carry the burden of unpaid care for children, relatives and maintenance of the household. Women continue to spend substantially more time in unpaid care work than men in all regions, ranging from twice as much in Europe to four times more in sub-Saharan Africa, to seven times men's contribution in North Africa. Over the almost two decades since the start of the new millennium, men have started to take a more active role in unpaid care work. In 23 countries where series data is available, the gender gap in the time allocated to unpaid care work shortened by seven minutes. On that trajectory, it will take 210 years to close the gender gap in care responsibilities in these countries (ILO, 2018[11]).
- Switzerland is the best performer in this indicator. This is largely due to a comprehensive legal framework that provides women and men with equal rights and decision-making abilities and responsibilities within the household, including the right to be recognised as head of households and equal parental authority. However, social expectations on women's caring responsibilities are still stigmatising working mothers and defining caring responsibilities as a female prerogative. Approximately 43% of people declare that children will suffer when a mother is in paid employment and, women spend more than double the amount of time than men on unpaid care and domestic work.

Key policy recommendations

- Include legal provisions recognising women with equal right to be a head of household and guarantee equal parental authority during marriage and informal unions (Box 3.3). In Rwanda, the legal provision granting the status of heads of household only to men was removed in 2016. Under the revised Law Governing Persons and Family, spouses are expected to manage the household jointly and have equal rights and obligations.[2]

- Tackle entrenched social norms and traditional views of masculinity through training and awareness-raising campaigns targeting men in order to "de-feminise" care giving and reshape existing gender norms that prevent men from assuming equal caring responsibilities (Box 3.4).
- Provide better access to basic infrastructures and public services: better access to water and energy, childcare and care for the elderly reduces the time women spend on domestic care. Expanding school hours also enables women to replace time spent on childcare with more productive activities. In Cuba, children's circles administered by the Federation of Cuban Women provide daily care to children from forty-five days of age until school entry. This system has substantially contributed to reducing women's unpaid care work and enhanced women's participation in the labour market (Sáez, 2015[12]).

  Guarantee family-friendly working conditions that enable parents to balance their working hours and caring responsibilities. A flexible work schedule or teleworking allows women and men to choose working hours that better accommodate their caring responsibilities. In Croatia[3] and Uzbekistan,[4] the law establishes that parents are entitled to flexible/part-time schedules.

Box 3.3. International standards on gender equality in the family sphere

The right to gender equality in the family sphere is enshrined in several international treaties and benefits from a wide international consensus including:

- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), which affirms women's and men's equal rights and responsibilities as parents (Art. 16 (c)) and acknowledges that women have the same rights and responsibilities as men concerning guardianship, wardship and trusteeship of children (Art. 16 (g));
- The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) promotes the equal sharing of responsibilities for the family by men and women and considers its critical role to their well-being and that of their families (Art. 15);
- Target 5.4 of the Sustainable Development Goals (2015) advocates "the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family" and highlights the need to "recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work".

Results

A woman's position within the family remains subordinate to her husband's authority (Box 3.4). The man is still solely recognised as the head of household in 40 countries – giving him the role of sole economic agent. These legal restrictions are mainly suffered by women in Western and Middle Africa (15 countries) and Western Asia (9 countries). In some countries, the laws regulating family matters explicitly confine women to their domestic and reproductive roles. For instance, in Djibouti, the law states that the role of the wife is to manage the household, while the husband is responsible for the family expenditure and its protection. Elsewhere, women are only allowed to assume the role of head of the household under specific conditions, such as the absence or death of their husbands. Women are often still considered as a dependent household member: in

27 countries, women are required by law to obey their husbands and are exposed to legal consequences in 16 countries if they fail to. Furthermore, women's authority over their children is restricted in 34 countries where men are still recognised as holding full parental authority during marriage or informal unions.

Social expectations of the division of responsibilities within the family show a strong preference for stereotypical gender roles on the male-breadwinner model. Women's paid employment during their children's early years is closely associated with assumptions that children's development is negatively affected by it (Corrigall and Konrad, 2007[13]). On average, 51% of respondents declare that children will suffer when a mother is in paid employment, ranging from 37% in Europe to 56% in Asia. The lowest rates of social acceptance of working mothers during their children's childhood are found in Southern Asia (75%), Western Asia (68%) and Northern Africa (67%).

Box 3.4. Engaging Mozambican men in unpaid care work

Entrenched social norms may prevent the equal distribution of household tasks and responsibilities between men and women. In Mozambique, household chores and care work largely remain a woman's responsibility. In this context, Rede HOPEM (Men for Change Network) in partnership with the Institute for the Promotion of Small and Medium Companies (IPEME) implemented the "Men in the Kitchen" television programme aimed at challenging traditional masculine stereotypes and applying a gender-transformative approach. In addition, the programme seeks to:

- Expand men's involvement in domestic duties through cooking, nutrition and agro-processing courses and training;
- Prevent and reduce violence against women.

Since its inception in 2012, more than 600 men have participated in the training sessions (UN WOMEN, 2013[14]). Alongside the "Men in the Kitchen" television programme, men also receive further training on care work such as childcare and information on sexual and reproductive health rights.

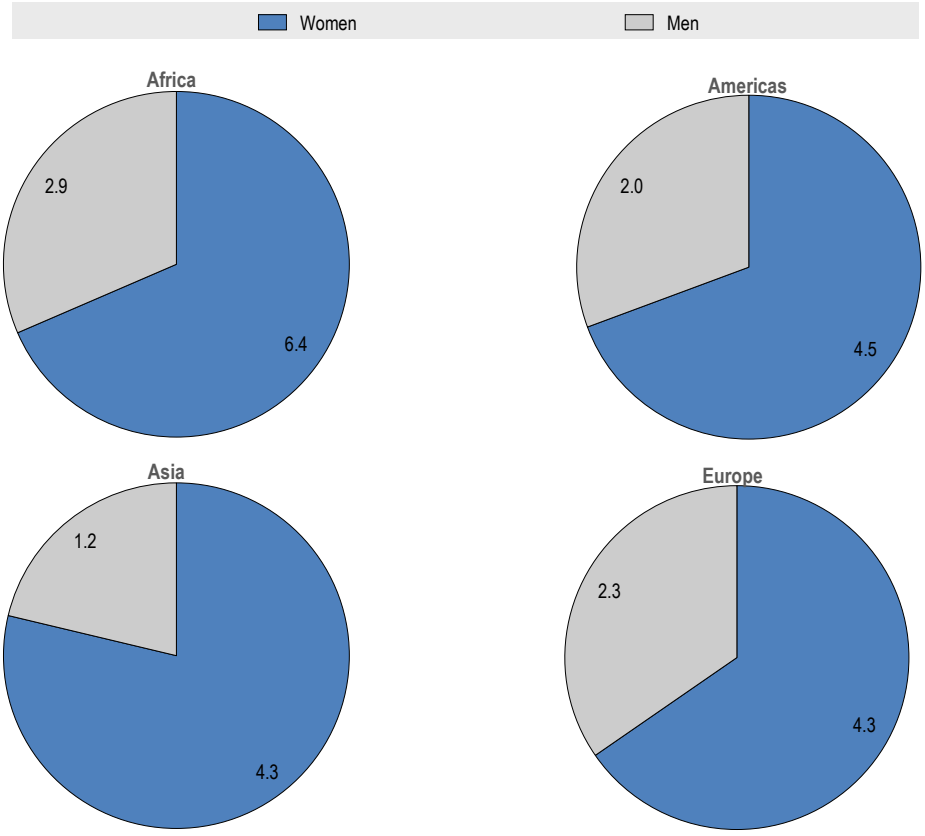
A survey revealed that after receiving the training, 90% of participants were in favour of equal sharing of domestic responsibilities between women and men (UN WOMEN, 2013[14]). Results of the evaluation of this programme revealed that the implementation of holistic and synchronised approaches is crucial to ensure that men's partners continue encouraging them to take part in household activities rather than questioning their masculinity or even underestimating them (Langa, n.d.[15]).

Sources: UN WOMEN (2013), "Men in the kitchen: Cooking up change in Mozambique", http://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2013/7/men-in-the-kitchen (accessed on 28 January 2019); Langa, J. (n.d.), *Mozambican Men in the Kitchen*, http://menengage.org/mozambican-men-in-the-kitchen/ (accessed on 27 January 2019).

Traditional societal views about care and domestic work are reflected in gender time-use gaps. Women continue to assume the burden of unpaid care and domestic responsibilities (Figure 3.4). Worldwide, women spend two to ten times more time on unpaid care work than men, including raising children, caring for sick or elderly family members and managing household tasks. Since the last edition of the SIGI in 2014, little progress has been achieved in reducing the disparity between women's and men's care responsibilities.

In 2018, women spent, on average, more than four and a half hours in unpaid and domestic work per day versus one and a half hours for men, compared to five hours and one hour in 2014, respectively. On that trajectory, it will take 210 years to close the gender gap in care responsibilities (ILO, 2018[11]).

Figure 3.4. Distribution of unpaid domestic and care work between women and men



Note: Number of hours that women and men spend on unpaid domestic and care work during 24 hours.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Gender inequality in unpaid care work is also related to the wealth of a country. Time-use data reveals a negative correlation between income and levels of gender inequality in unpaid care work: the distribution of responsibilities is the most equal in high-income countries. This is largely due to the fact that men in higher income countries are more engaged in care activities and have better employment arrangements. In OECD countries, men spend more than two hours per day doing unpaid care work compared to their counterparts in non-OECD countries who spend an average of one hour daily on such work.

Divorce

Key messages

- Despite formal, legal equality in many countries, restricted divorce rights still trap women in African and Asian countries. Women have guaranteed equal rights in 142 countries to initiate divorce. In 38 countries, the right to initiate divorce is unequal for men and women and 44 countries stipulate different requirements and conditions for women to finalise a divorce or annulment than they do for men.
- Legal guardianship and responsibilities for children after divorce mirror societal expectations of women and men in the family sphere. Women and men enjoy equal rights and responsibilities for children after a divorce in 146 countries. After a divorce, women and men continue to share legal guardianship in all but 40 countries while in 34 countries women and men do not have equal rights and obligations concerning their children after a divorce.
- Beyond statutory laws, customary, traditional and religious laws govern family affairs and divorce proceedings. Globally, 87 and 54 countries discriminate against women's legal right to initiate divorce or to be the legal guardian of their children, respectively.
- The best score in this indicator is shared by 64 countries. In these countries, women's divorce rights are protected by comprehensive legislative frameworks that provide women with the same rights as men to initiate and finalise divorce proceedings. Divorce legislation concerning child custody often allows for joint or single custody arrangements.

Key policy recommendations

- Harmonise civil, family, customary and religious laws to ensure that women have the same rights to initiate and finalise a divorce or annulment and be the legal guardians of their children after a divorce. Under customary, traditional and religious laws, women face more difficulties in obtaining a divorce and legal guardianship of their children after divorce proceedings.
- Strengthen the registration of marriages to protect the rights of spouses concerning property issues upon the dissolution of marriages by divorce.
- Provide free legal advice to women in family matters including family law and divorce to ensure that women have access to equal justice mechanisms and are not forced to abdicate their rights to obtain a divorce.

Results

The right to initiate divorce (Box 3.5) contributes to women's empowerment and especially their ability to escape violent partners without seeing their parental authority threatened. Women's equal rights to initiate divorce are guaranteed in 142 countries, while 146 countries grant equal rights and responsibilities for children after a divorce.

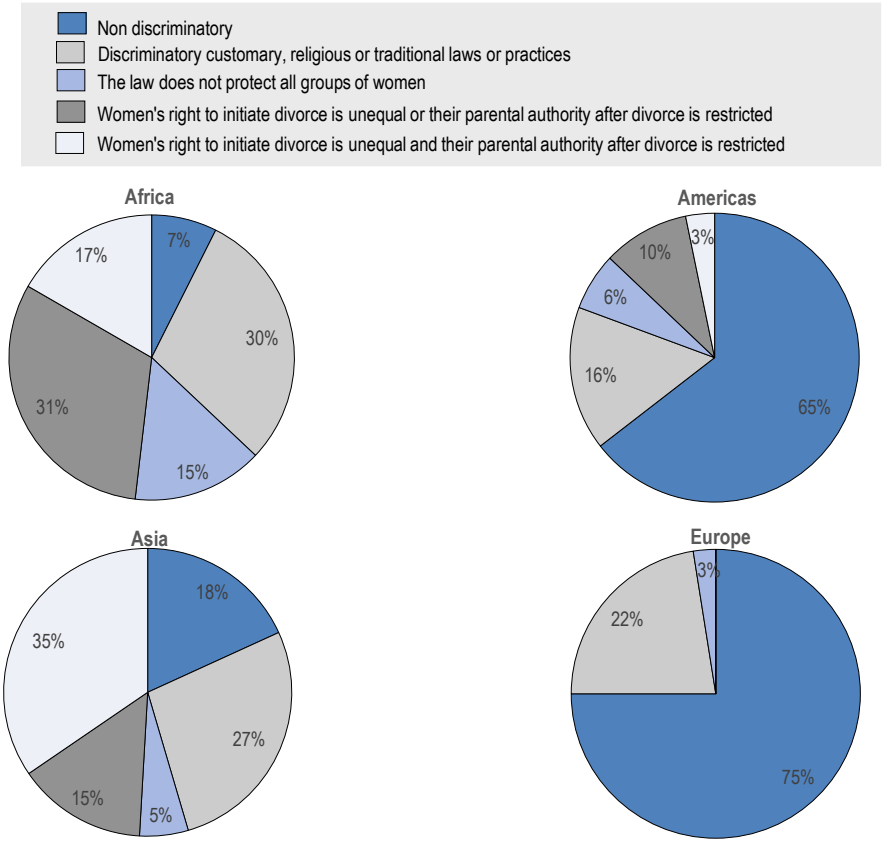
Box 3.5. International standards for women's rights during a divorce

Although women's entitlement to equality upon and after divorce is not considered a human right, it has been acknowledged by various international conventions and protocols, including:

- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) calls on State parties to eliminate discrimination against women at the inception of marriage, during and its dissolution by divorce (Art. 16 (1));
- The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) stipulates "State Parties shall enact appropriate legislation to ensure that women and men enjoy the same rights in case of separation, divorce or annulment of marriage. In this regard, they shall ensure that:
  - Separation, divorce or annulment of a marriage shall be effected by judicial order;
  - Women and men shall have the same rights to seek separation, divorce or annulment of a marriage;
  - In case of separation, divorce or annulment of marriage, women and men shall have reciprocal rights and responsibilities towards their children. In any case, the interests of the children shall be given paramount importance."

However, in some regions, women are still trapped by restricted rights (Figure 3.5). In 38 countries, the right to initiate divorce is not equal for men and women and 44 countries have different requirements and conditions for women to finalise a divorce or annulment. These discriminatory laws exist particularly in Western and Southern Asia (18 countries) and in Western and Northern Africa (9 countries). In most of these countries, there are differences in the legal grounds that each spouse may use as a basis for divorce. For instance, in Mauritania, a man has the unilateral right to divorce his wife without justification at any point in time, whereas women may only divorce their husband on specific grounds, such as injury to the wife or the abandonment. In in some other countries, while divorce is allowed on limited grounds for both women and men, it is far more restrictive for women. In Bangladesh, under the Christian law, a man can initiate divorce based on allegations that his wife committed adultery. A woman, however, must prove adultery but in the context of an additional act deemed admissible under the law including incestuous adultery, bigamy with adultery, sodomy and bestiality.

Figure 3.5. Legal framework governing divorce rights



Note: Share of countries per category of discrimination in divorce rights. See Annex B for more details on the coding.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Some groups of women are more likely to face legal barriers to divorce. Some 38 countries do not grant the same legal protection to initiate a divorce to all groups of women. In the Philippines, there are no laws governing divorce, except for the Muslim community. This means that a woman whose husband has committed physical abuse must remain legally married to the perpetrator. Furthermore, in 32 countries[5], discriminatory legal frameworks prohibit women from remarrying within a specified period of time after divorce. Legislative changes to this aspect have been very slow to develop. In 2010, Guatemala abolished article 229 of the Decree No. 17-73 (under which a divorced woman was unable to remarry for a period time set forth in the Civil Code). More recently, in 2016, the Japanese government passed an amendment to the divorce law allowing women with the same rights as men to remarry without waiting following divorce, with the exception of pregnant women. These restrictions on remarriage have had harmful consequences for women's ability to choose the life they want after divorce.

Box 3.6. Women challenging societal norms and discriminatory laws by initiating divorce in conservative West Africa

Traditionally, women have been expected to endure bad marriages in several conservative countries in West Africa. Yet, an increasing and unprecedented number of young women across the region are challenging taboos by exercising their right to initiate divorce. In Maradi, Niger, the number of women initiating divorce has doubled since 2016, despite the country's persistent discriminatory customary practices and the lack of equal divorce and legal guardianship rights. Similarly, in Senegal, the number of women seeking divorce through Dakar's Association of Female Lawyers has tripled in 4 years and in Ghana 73% of the divorce cases handled by the Legal Aid Scheme of Greater Accra between 2016 and 2017 were filed by women.

According to women's associations, academics, local officials and lawyers, this trend is spreading throughout urban and rural West Africa, both in Muslim and Christian areas. The phenomenon is attributed to increased access to media, government-sponsored radio broadcasts and sermons, which either inform women of their legal rights or remind them that they are entitled to leave failing relationships. This trend reflects not only a generational shift concerning women's attitudes towards divorce, but an increased awareness and application of women's legal rights, even if these are not yet the same as those enjoyed by men. Given the prevalence of discriminatory divorce laws in the region, it highlights the key role played by the media, government programmes and religious leaders in promoting change (Searcey, 2019[16]).

Source: Searcey, D. (2019), "A quiet revolution: More women seek divorces in conservative West Africa", https://www.nytimes.com/2019/01/06/world/africa/niger-divorce-women.html (accessed on 27 January 2019).

Despite formal legal equality, parental guardianship and responsibilities after a divorce are extensively determined by social norms that reinforce traditional gender stereotypes. After a divorce, women and men continue to share legal parental guardianship in all but 40 countries, while in 34 countries, women and men do not have equal rights and obligations towards their children after a divorce. Parental roles after a divorce are often determined by child-custody practices that tend to reflect and reinforce traditional gender roles, with fathers' holding fewer parenting responsibilities, generally as the financial provider, and mothers assigned to the primary child-rearing role. For instance, in Bolivia, the law stipulates that following parental separation sons aged over 7 remain the responsibility of their fathers, and that daughters under 18 and sons under 7 remain the responsibility of the mother. Similarly, in Somalia, a mother is automatically entitled to custody of male children until the age of 10 and female children until the age of 15. Child custody is often automatically awarded to the mother. This may happen at the detriment of the mother and of her children if the mother cannot afford the full cost of raising them.

Pervasive customary, religious or traditional practices or laws continue to undercut women's legal right to file for divorce and obtain legal guardianship of their children in 52% and 30% of countries, respectively. National legal frameworks may be subject to personal laws based on customary or religious jurisprudence that at times may be discriminatory against women in divorce proceedings. For instance, in countries where Islamic law is applied, men have a unilateral right to divorce – repudiation – without resorting to legal proceedings (*talaq*), whereas women are required to seek and justify

their decision in a court of law (*tatliq*). In practice, it is very difficult for women to divorce this way, as they must prove the grounds for divorce. In the event of divorce or repudiation by the husband, under customary law, women often lose custody of their children.

Women are confronted with psychological, social and financial consequences in all stages of divorce. In addition, divorced women tend to be stigmatised and have fewer chances to remarry than divorced men. Prevailing social norms regarding women's responsibility to ensure the stability of the family often inhibit women's legal rights to initiate divorce. In some countries, divorced women face discrimination in accessing social services such as housing or employment. Women also face discrimination in divorce settlements, property rights and the separation of financial assets. In some cases, women can only obtain physical custody over their children, as the father retains legal custody and guardianship. For instance, in Somalia, if a divorced woman remarries, she may lose custody of younger children, unless the father gives his consent to the continued custodianship of the mother. This carries significant implications for freedom of movement because the father can prevent his ex-wife from taking the children out of the country or the area.

Various obstacles prevent women from enjoying divorce rights on an equal footing with men. Lack of education and information, the time and the monetary costs involved in divorce and litigation proceedings obstruct women from seeking divorce. Women often do not initiate divorce if they are in a vulnerable economic situation. Under customary law in some countries, women may be required to repay dowry upon divorce, which may constitute a strong disincentive to divorce, especially for women in poverty. Women still struggle to access legal aid in cases of divorce, while procedures require each party to engage their own lawyer. Furthermore, in some countries, women lack equal access to courts because they must rely on a male relative or lawyer to represent them. This is particularly detrimental in divorce and child-custody cases in which the guardian is also likely to be the husband.

Inheritance

Key messages

- Inheritance laws remain strongly biased in many developing countries. Only 25% of countries grant women the same inheritance rights as men in law and in practice. This shortfall is mainly due to the influence of customary laws. Moreover, 16% of Asian and African countries do not guarantee equal inheritance rights between women and men.
- Legal reforms have been uneven. Only two sub-Saharan African countries[6] have eliminated discriminatory legal provisions related to women's inheritance, although the governments of Ghana,[7] Uganda,[8] and Namibia[9] have pending succession bills.
- The effectiveness of legislation governing inheritance matters is only made evident when social norms, attitudes and behaviours shift. To date, 57% of countries deny women's legal rights to inheritance under customary, religious or traditional laws and practices.
- The best score in this indicator is shared by 64 countries. These countries provide widows and daughters with equal inheritance rights without legal exceptions

regarding some groups of women. Furthermore, there are no discriminatory laws or practices restrict these rights in practice.

Key policy recommendations

- Prohibit discrimination against widows and daughters in inheritance laws. Legal frameworks should explicitly allow women to inherit land and non-land assets on equal basis with men and guarantee that all groups of women enjoy the same rights to inherit land and non-land assets as men. In Viet Nam, disinheritance of surviving spouses is explicitly prohibited, including after remarriage, and property dispossession is criminalised in its many forms, including through "spiritual intimidation[10]". Moreover, Decree No. 126/2014/ND-CP stipulates that the practice of dispossessing surviving wives of their inheritance or of their wedding presents should be eliminated.
- Close loopholes in national legislation by establishing the supremacy of civil law over customary, religious and traditional laws that discriminate women's and girls' rights to inheritance.
- Repeal discriminatory laws that do not allow a widow to maintain her inheritance rights over her dead husband's property if she re-marries. In 2015, the reform of the Civil Code in Gabon included the removal of discriminatory provisions – notably widows losing their usufruct (lifetime use, though not full title) of the familial property and land should they remarry outside the family. Furthermore, women should have the legal capacity to draw up their own wills, irrespective of their marital status. Recent legislative reforms in Rwanda granted women the same rights as men to make a will.[11]
- Engage religious and traditional leaders in discussions about the interpretations of customary law in relation to the inheritance rights of female surviving spouses and daughters.
- Run awareness-raising campaigns around inheritance rights in rural communities and ensure the provision of free legal advice, support and advocacy to access legal consultations and assistance. In Gabon, within the Ministry of Public Health and Population, a Branch for the Protection of Widows and Orphans was created. The Branch is tasked with informing families, especially women, of their rights regarding inheritance. With that objective, they offer legal advice on inheritance rights (Ministère de la Santé Publique et de la Population (Gabon), 2011[17]). In the wake of the adoption of the Code of Persons and Family, the government and NGOs are holding education campaigns for women about their rights to inheritance and property (US Department of State, 2016[18]).

Box 3.7. International standards for women's inheritance rights

Although most of the most important international human-rights instruments and treaties do not specifically mention the rights and needs of widows, the poverty incidence of women's restricted inheritance rights is widely recognised:

- The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) calls on governments to undertake legislative and administrative reforms to give women and girls full rights to the inheritance of land and other property (para. 60 (f)), and to review national inheritance tax systems to eliminate any existing bias against women (para. 165 (f));
- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, General Recommendation No. 29 (2013) establishes the principle of equal treatment of surviving females and males and prohibits the disinheritance of the surviving spouse (para. 53).
- Target 5.A of the Sustainable Development Goals (2015) calls upon all governments to "undertake reforms to give women equal rights to inheritance".

Results

Women's inheritance rights continue to be persistently denied in certain regions. Only 44 countries accord women the same inheritance rights as men in both law and practice, while 29 countries do not grant female surviving spouses and daughters the same rights as their male counterparts to inherit land and non-land assets. These discriminatory legal frameworks are more prevalent in Africa and Asia, especially in Western and Southern Asia (12 countries) and Northern and Eastern Africa (8 countries). For instance, women do not have equal access to inheritance rights as men under the three systems of law – statutory, customary and Islamic that govern inheritance rights in Tanzania. The pace of change is clearly too slow. Since the last edition of the SIGI in 2014, only two countries[12] have reformed their laws on inheritance and succession.

Legal loopholes negating women's inheritance rights, combined with poor law enforcement mechanisms, can negatively impact women's socio-economic rights. Disinheritance of the surviving spouse still occurs in a significant number of countries (96) where there are contradictory and/or no clear uniformity in legal regimes that govern inheritance rights (e.g. statutory, customary and religious laws, personal status codes), allowing simultaneous interpretations and applications of different legal systems. For instance, many countries have multiple personal status codes that regulate inheritance matters, which often deny equality between women and men despite the provisions of civil law. In Yemen, according to Islamic inheritance rules, women generally inherit half of what their male relatives inherit. Some personal codes prevent the transfer of property between adherents of different religious confessions. This creates a challenge in inter-faith marriages where a woman may be unable to transfer her property or land to her children or inherit from her deceased husband. In Lebanon for example, children born to Lebanese women and non-Lebanese fathers are subject to these discriminatory inheritance laws. In some countries, inheritance by the surviving spouse depends on the marital regime and whether the deceased left a will (testamentary succession) or not (intestate succession). These discriminatory legal clauses can have extensive impacts on women's vulnerability to poverty. Out of 258 million widows, worldwide, 38 million live

in extreme poverty (Loomba Foundation, 2015[19]), notably due to disinheritance practices.

Box 3.8. The advocacy campaign "I want my inheritance" in Sohag, Egypt

Although the Egyptian Civil Code affirms women's rights to own, inherit and use their property, most women, especially in rural areas, are deprived of their legitimate economic rights, which makes them more vulnerable. Women's inheritance is also a social issue: many prejudices lead families to accept and encourage this discriminatory practice.

As a result, the Badr Altawael Association for Local Population Development with the support of the Euro-Mediterranean Women's Foundation (FFEM) launched an advocacy campaign called "I want my inheritance" from January to September 2017. The campaign aimed to promote women's rights to inheritance through raising the community's awareness and mobilising local relevant actors in Sohag.

The participation of diverse actors such as civil society organisations (CSOs), the media, judges, local authorities, community and religious leaders (Muslim and Christian) and members of parliament (MPs) was crucial to:

- Creating an environment of dialogue among the public through lectures, round tables, training and theatre-forum activities;
- Committing religious leaders to inform family members that women have inheritance rights according to religious texts; and
- Constituting committees of lawyers and psychological counsellors to provide support in villages.

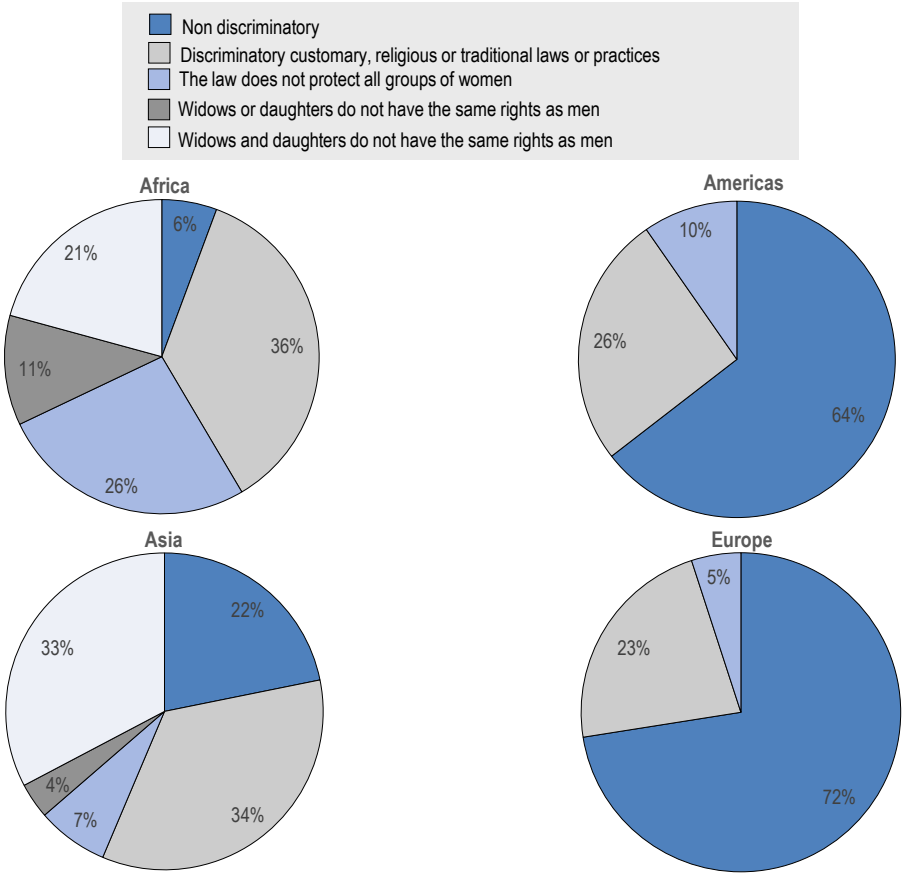
At the end of the advocacy campaign, 100 Christian and Muslim figures and community leaders had promoted women's rights to inheritance. In addition, 87 conflicts were settled amicably, 26 cases were reported to courts and 10 women obtained their inheritance (they became role models encouraging other women to claim their rights). Furthermore, 17 MPs representing Sohag Governorate advocated a reform of the law to increase sanctions against those who deprive women of their inheritance rights (Euro-Mediterranean Women's Foundation, 2017[20]).

Source: Euro-Mediterranean Women's Foundation (2017), *We Have the Floor: Mediterranean Civil Society Calls for Gender Equality to Become a Reality*, https://www.euromedwomen.foundation/pg/en/documents/view/7339/we-have-floor-mediterranean-civil-society-calls-for-gender-equality-to-become-reality (accessed on 27 January 2019).

Female surviving spouses face multiple discriminatory practices that deprive them of their inheritance of property and land. Women's rights to inherit their husband's property are denied in 102 countries under customary, religious or traditional laws and practices. Moreover, 103 countries do not criminalise property dispossession or grabbing of inheritance. Discriminatory practices such as property grabbing (e.g. Burkina Faso, eSwatini [formerly Swaziland] and Zambia), forced eviction (e.g. Guinea-Bissau) and levirate marriage[13] (e.g. Benin, Gambia, Mali) persist in some countries. Other administrative and financial obstacles make it difficult for women to register property and land in their own name, restrict women's rights in the household – often making them dependent on their husband's family – and put widows at risk of losing custody of their

children. Additionally, female surviving spouses and daughters often possess temporary rights to inherited land and property. Even when women may be granted the right to temporary stay in the property (usufruct), this practice prevents them from selling, purchasing or benefiting from renting out the land or property. In 37 countries with evidence of discriminatory traditional, customary or religious inheritance practices towards women, the law the does not take precedence over these practices.

Figure 3.6. Legal frameworks governing inheritance rights



Note: Share of countries per category of legislation on inheritance rights. See Annex B for more details of the coding.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Notes

[1] Chad (2015), Costa Rica (2017), Denmark (2017), Ecuador (2015), El Salvador (2017), Gambia (2016), Guatemala (2017), Honduras (2017), Malawi (2017), Netherlands (2015), Panama (2015), Rwanda (2016), Trinidad and Tobago (2017), Zimbabwe (2016), Germany (June 2017).

[2] Law Governing Persons and Family, Art. 206, 209.

[3] Act on Maternity and Parental Benefits, Arts. 15 and 16.

[4] Labour Code, Art. 229.

[5] Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Brazil, Cambodia, Cameroon, Chile, Comoros, Costa Rica Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Lebanon, Mali, Mauritania Mexico, Morocco, Nigeria, Peru, Portugal, Qatar, Republic of Congo, Rwanda, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, Thailand, Togo, Tunisia, Turkey, Uruguay.

[6] Gabon (2015) and Rwanda (2016).

[7] The Intestate Succession Bill and the Property Rights of Spouses Bill.

[8] The Succession Amendment Act.

[9] The Intestate Inheritance Bill.

[10] Penal Code art 133-140.

[11] The Law Governing Matrimonial Regimes, Donations and Successions (2016), Art. 75.

[12] Gabon and Rwanda.

[13] Where women are considered to be part of their deceased husband's property, and hence given into marriage to the brother of the deceased.

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Chapter 4. Restricted physical integrity

This chapter presents an overview of women's restricted physical integrity. It examines discriminatory social institutions – formal and informal laws, social norms and practices – that increase women's vulnerabilities to a range of forms of violence and limit women's control over their bodies, across 180 countries and covering areas such as violence against women, female genital mutilation, missing women and reproductive autonomy. The chapter also seeks to provide policy makers with the necessary tools and evidence to design effective gender-responsive policies in order to protect women's physical integrity.



The *restricted physical integrity* (RPI) sub-index captures social institutions that increase women's and girls' vulnerability to a range of forms of violence and limit women's control over their bodies. This includes formal and informal laws, norms and practices that fail to respect women's physical integrity, or that serve to normalise and justify practices that impinge upon their reproductive autonomy.

The restricted physical integrity sub-index is composed of four indicators:

- "violence against women" (VAW) captures the level of social acceptance and prevalence of domestic violence, as well as its legal acceptance, which is whether the legal framework protects women from violence including intimate-partner violence, rape and sexual harassment, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "female genital mutilation" captures the level of social acceptance and prevalence of female genital mutilation (FGM) as well as its legal acceptance, which means whether the legal framework criminalises FGM and includes penalties for practitioners, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "missing women" captures the statistical shortfall in the number of girls in the age range 0-4 years, relative to the expected number in the absence of sex-selective abortions, female infanticide or preferential treatment of sons over daughters, correcting for natural biological and physiological differences.
- "reproductive autonomy" captures the prevalence of women in reproductive age who have an unmet need for family planning and contraception, as well as legal discrimination against women with respect to their reproductive autonomy rights in case of non-desired pregnancy.

Key messages

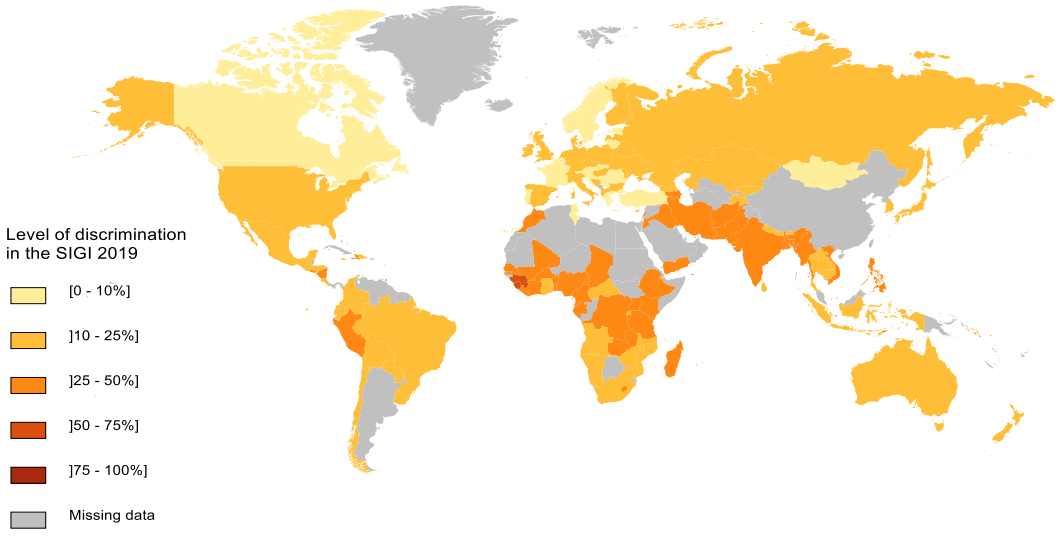
- Discriminatory social institutions restricting women's physical integrity includes both universal and region-specific issues:
  - The global level of discrimination is 22%;
  - Violence against women and restricted reproductive autonomy are universal issues with a respective level of global discrimination of 40% and 31%;
  - FGM and the phenomenon of missing women are mainly of concern in Africa and Asia, respectively.
- Legal loopholes still fail to protect women from violence and to guarantee them full control over their bodies:
  - No legal framework anywhere addresses violence against women in a fully comprehensive way and a third of the world's women have been victim of domestic violence;
  - Abortion on demand is legal in only 61 countries, while 108 countries impose some restrictions and 11 countries maintain complete bans on abortion.
- Despite legal frameworks' increasingly protecting women's rights, customary laws and social norms still justify harmful practices, such as FGM and sex-selective abortion:
  - In the 29 countries where data is available, 23% of women and girls believe FGM should continue and 39% of women and girls aged 15-49 have undergone some form of it;
  - The natural sex ratio for ages 0-4 years should not exceed 105 boys per 100 girls, yet it is above 110/100 in Armenia, Azerbaijan, China, India and Viet Nam.

How can governments effectively tackle discriminatory social institutions restricting women's physical integrity?

- Criminalise all forms of VAW, including intimate-partner violence, rape, marital rape and sexual harassment, wherever they occur, such as schools, public spaces and online;
- Develop a "whole-of-society" approach to shift social norms and eradicate customary laws justifying FGM;
- Shift social norms that can fuel a preference for sons over daughters; and
- Legalise abortion with less restrictive justifications and requirements.

Years of advocacy to protect women's physical integrity, more protective laws and better-designed programmes from governments, civil society, donors and international organisations are starting to produce positive results. The SIGI result for the *Restricted Physical Integrity* (RPI) sub-index indicates that the global level of discrimination is 22%, ranging from 4% in Canada to 57% in Guinea (Figure 4.1). This is the best score across the four sub-indices of the SIGI.

Figure 4.1. Level of discrimination in the physical integrity sub-index

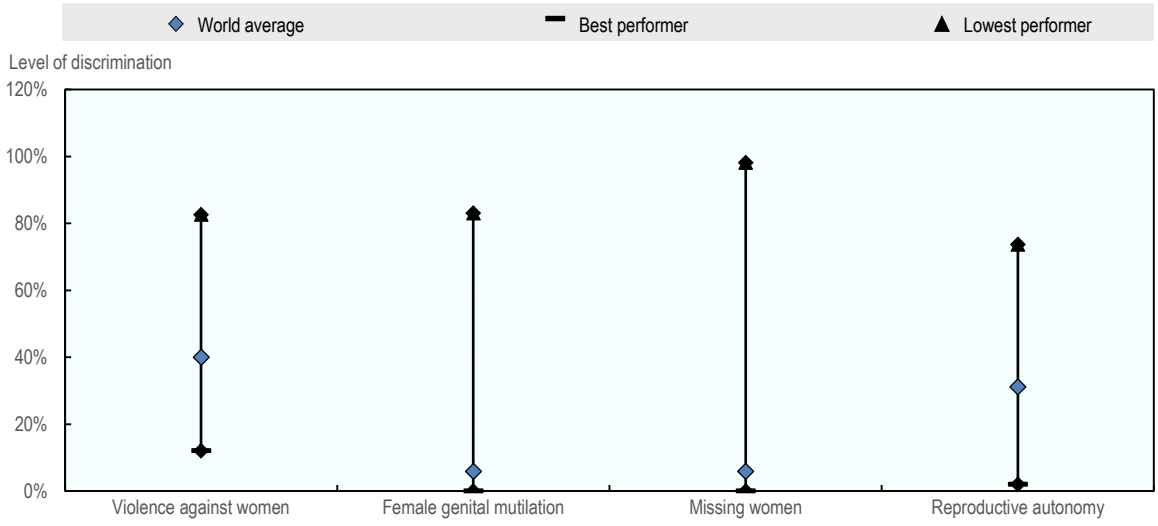


Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database,* https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

The relatively good global performance in this dimension hides a mixed picture. FGM and missing women are concentrated in specific areas of the world, automatically improving the RPI score of other countries and, thus, the overall global score. In these two indicators, the global level of discrimination is 6%. However, VAW and restricted reproductive autonomy remain issues with global levels of discrimination, respectively, of 40% and 31% (Figure 4.2). In addition, the global score in the RPI sub-index hides important regional disparities. Europe stands out as the best performer with a score of 13%, while other regions lag behind: the Americas are at 20%, followed by Asia (25%) and Africa (29%).

Canada is the best performer in the restricted physical integrity dimension. The country's policy response to VAW is one of the most comprehensive in the world and the prevalence rate of VAW (2%) is the lowest globally. Although no data is available on the prevalence of FGM, the practice is criminalised, and no evidence suggests it is widely employed. The sex ratio is balanced, and any woman who wishes to obtain an abortion can do so. However, 7% of women have an unmet need for family planning and 8% think a man can be justified in beating his wife under certain circumstances.

Figure 4.2. SIGI results in the four restricted physical integrity indicators



Note: Global average, best and lowest performers in the four restricted physical integrity indicators.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Violence against women

Key messages

- No country provides women with comprehensive legal protection from all forms of violence; progress in this regard has been slow. Since the last edition of the SIGI in 2014, 15 countries[1] have newly enacted legislation to criminalise intimate-partner violence, bringing to 73% the global proportion of legal frameworks protecting women from this form of violence. Similarly, perpetrators of sexual harassment can now face criminal charges in 61% of countries, thanks to legal reforms in five more countries.[2] Countries have, however, been slow to legislate to protect women from emerging forms of gender-based violence. To date, only ten countries or territories provide women with legal protection from cyber harassment or cyber stalking.[3]
- Domestic violence against women is less tolerated. In 2012, 50% of women worldwide declared that spousal violence is acceptable under certain circumstances. This figure dropped to 37% in 2014 and 27% in 2018. Yet, the proportion of condonement remains high and explains why reducing the dramatically high prevalence rates of VAW is an ongoing struggle: VAW is more pervasive in countries where it is more widely accepted.
- Despite legal reforms and decreased acceptance, domestic violence is pervasive. On average, 31% of women who have been in a relationship have suffered intimate-partner violence at least once in their lifetime. This proportion has remained unchanged since 2012. Prevalence rates of recent episodes of intimate-partner violence are decreasing slightly. In 2014, 19% of women had suffered assault from their partner in the past year, compared to 14% of women today. This trend holds true for every region.

- Canada is the best performer in the VAW indicator. The law protects women from violence, including intimate-partner violence, rape and sexual harassment, without legal exceptions. The country developed several strategies and action plans to address different manifestations of gender-based violence, dedicated mechanisms are in place to finance support services for survivors (such as legal aid or emergency housing) and the prevalence of lifetime intimate-partner violence is the lowest globally (affecting 2% of women). Nevertheless, 8% of women say they are prepared to accept intimate-partner beating.

Key policy recommendations

- Provide all women with legal protection from all forms of gender-based violence, notably new forms of violence such as online harassment and stalking, in all places, such as public spaces and schools.
- Ensure the effective enforcement of the law. Ensure that women can seek legal redress under the formal justice system and that this right cannot be taken away by traditional, religious or customary laws and practices. Ensure that protection and support services are available for victims of gender-based violence and facilitate women's access to the law enforcement and justice systems.
- Enhance efforts to collect data on the reported prevalence of all forms of VAW among all groups of women to understand better the determinants and patterns of violence and to design evidence-based responses. Administrative data is also crucial to monitoring the proportion of reported crimes actually reaching court and the effectiveness of policies meant to protect survivors of gender-based violence.
- Challenge social norms around gender-based violence through media campaigns and awareness-raising activities (Box 4.1).
- Policies and interventions must adopt a multi-sectoral approach to ending VAW. For example, supporting women's access to economic empowerment opportunities can enhance their status within the household or increase their ability to leave abusive relationships.

Box 4.1. International standards on violence against women

Violence against women (VAW) is widely recognised as a fundamental human rights violation. The rights to equality, security, liberty, integrity and dignity of all human beings are enshrined in several international instruments, including:

- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) guarantees to every individual "the right to life, liberty and security of person" (Art. 3);
- The Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993) calls on States to "pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating violence against women" (Art. 4);
- The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) reaffirms that "violence against women is an obstacle to the achievement of the objectives of equality, development and peace" (Art. 112);

- SDG Target 5.2 explicitly calls on States to "eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls";
- The majority of countries reiterated their commitment to end VAW through regional conventions: the Convention of Belém do Pará (1994), the Maputo Protocol (2003) or the Istanbul Convention (2011).

Results

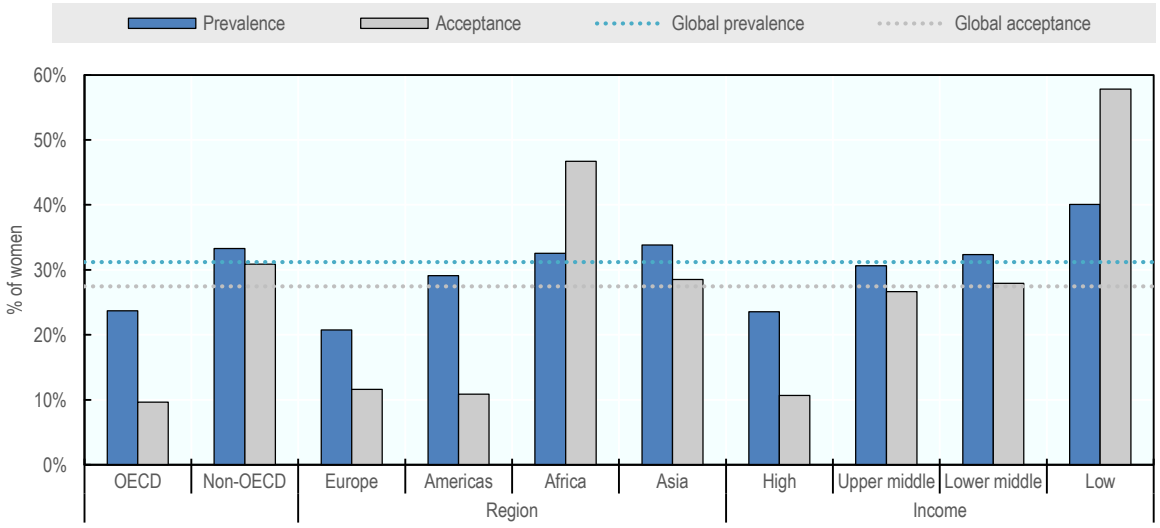
Countries have been slow in implementing comprehensive legal frameworks in line with international standards (Box 4.1) protecting women from all forms of VAW. No country has yet enacted laws to protect women from all forms of violence, without exceptions and in a comprehensive manner. In 35 countries, the law does not comprehensively address VAW: either it does not include specific provisions for investigation, prosecution and punishment of the perpetrator, or it does not provide protection and support services for survivors; or it does not cover physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence; and/or the definition of sexual harassment does not cover the workplace, educational and sporting establishments, public places and cyber harassment or cyber stalking. In addition, in 40 countries, penalties for violence are reduced under certain circumstances, including in cases of marital rape. In 103 countries, the law protects women from some, but not all, forms of violence including intimate-partner violence, rape or sexual harassment. In Equatorial Guinea and the Russian Federation, the law does not protect women from gender-based violence. It is worth noting that, in 11 countries, rape perpetrators can escape prosecution if they marry the victim after the crime.

Since the 2014 edition of the SIGI, little progress has been made in providing state protection from VAW. Forty-eight countries do not have legislation criminalising domestic violence. Over the last four years, 15 countries have enacted new laws addressing the issue.[4] Similarly, in 70 countries, perpetrators of sexual harassment do not face criminal charges and only five countries have taken action to address this issue since 2014.[5]

No country is immune from the pandemic of domestic violence. Globally, 31% of women who have ever had a partner have suffered violence from an intimate partner at least once in their lifetime. This dramatically high proportion has remained unchanged since 2012. Prevalence rates range from 2% of women in Canada to 85% in Pakistan. Intimate-partner violence appears to be more pervasive in low-income countries, where it affects 40% of women, compared to 32% of women in lower middle-income countries, 30% in upper-middle income countries and 23% in high-income countries (Figure 4.3). Asian women are the most likely to suffer from intimate-partner violence (33%), especially women living in Southern Asia (38%).

Discriminatory social norms are often at the origin of high rates of domestic violence. Across the world, 27% of women and girls consider that a husband can be justified in hitting or beating his wife under certain circumstances (if she burns the food, argues with him, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses to engage in sexual intercourse with him). There is a correlation between countries where domestic violence is condoned by a significant proportion of the population and high levels of prevalence of this crime: in Guinea for example, 92% of women justify spousal violence and 80% have suffered from it.

Figure 4.3. Prevalence and acceptance of domestic violence



Note: Prevalence of domestic violence, defined as the percentage of women who reported physical and/or sexual violence by a partner in their lifetime, and acceptance of domestic violence, defined as the percentage of women who declare that a husband can be justified in beating his wife under certain circumstances, i.e. if she burns the food, argues with him, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses to engage in sexual intercourse with him.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Domestic violence is less prevalent and less tolerated than it was in 2014. In 2014, 19% of women had suffered assault from their partner in the past year, compared to 14% by 2018. This trend is observed in every region of the world and relates to a reduced acceptance of domestic violence. In 2014, 37% of women believed a husband can be justified in beating his wife under certain circumstances, down to 27% four years later. This trend is also verified across all regions.

Current estimates of the prevalence rates of domestic violence might, however, be an understatement of the reality. The stigmatisation of survivors and social norms that consider domestic violence as a private matter prevent women from reporting crimes. Under-reporting is higher among groups of women who are especially vulnerable to VAW, such as indigenous women, migrant women or women with disabilities. In 42 of the 43 countries with recent data, more than 40% of survivors never sought help of any sort. This figure rises to 86% in India (DHS, n.d.[1]). In 35 countries, fewer than 20% of women who had sought help appealed to formal institutions such as the police, medical personnel or lawyers (DHS, n.d.[1]).

Box 4.2. Involving men as fathers and caregivers to challenge social norms around domestic violence in Rwanda

Engaging men as they become fathers and focusing on improving couple's relationships can be an effective strategy to reduce men's use of violence against women and improve relationships within the household. A growing body of research highlights how men's involved caregiving benefits mothers, prevents violence against women and children, and positively impacts family well-being. Based on these findings, Promundo, an international NGO working across 40 countries, together with local partners, developed Program P, a curriculum aimed at engaging men in active fatherhood from their partners' pregnancies through their children's early years. Program P was implemented in, among other countries, four districts in Rwanda by the Rwanda Men's Resource Center, via 15 sessions with expectant fathers and fathers of young children, along with their spouses or partners. Participants performed hands-on activities and role-playing exercises that created a safe environment for discussing and challenging traditional gender norms. Two years later, randomised controlled trial results found that men who participated in the programme were 40% less likely to use violence against their female partners, amongst other positive outcomes (Promundo, 2018[2]).

Source: Promundo (2018[2]), *Program P*, https://promundoglobal.org/programs/program-p/ (accessed on 20 January 2019).

Female genital mutilation

Key messages

- FGM is not universally dealt with as a harmful practice: only 42 countries worldwide abide by international commitments (Box 4.3) and have enacted a comprehensive law criminalising the practice. National legal frameworks vary in scope and enforcement mechanisms. While three countries[6] have newly criminalised FGM since 2014, in four countries[7] where there are traditional, customary or religious practices encouraging FGM, the law does not take precedence over these practices.
- FGM prevalence rates remain high and laws are often poorly implemented notably due to social acceptance of the practice. In the 29 countries where data is available, 23% of women and girls believe it should continue and 39% of women and girls aged 15-49 have undergone some form of FGM, compared to 46% in 2012.
- More information is needed on the global prevalence of FGM, which is often perceived as a practice restricted to some African countries. Evidence, however, suggests that FGM is practised across all continents. Countries need reliable and nationally representative data to target interventions to detect and combat FGM efficiently.

Key policy recommendations

- Align domestic legislation on FGM with international and regional commitments and standards, especially in countries where FGM is an issue and where migrant

populations practice FGM. Criminalise the practice and establish penalties for all perpetrators, including parents and medical practitioners. Add an extraterritorial jurisdiction clause extending penalties to citizens who commit the crime outside of the country (e.g. Kenya has a law penalising its citizens who practice FGM, even when they are beyond its borders[8]).

- Ensure the effective enforcement of the law, by prosecuting perpetrators and providing guidance on prevention, protection, support and follow-up assistance services for survivors.
- Mobilise public opinion against FGM and organise information, education and communication interventions on the short- and long- term negative consequences of FGM on women's and girls' physical and mental well-being.
- Provide key professionals such as health-care personnel, teachers, social workers or immigration officers with adequate training to ensure they can offer advice, support and care to women and girls who have suffered or are at risk of FGM (e.g. United Kingdom's Multi-agency statutory guidance on female genital mutilation).

Box 4.3. International standards concerning female genital mutilation

FGM is recognised internationally as a harmful practice and a violation of the human rights of women and girls. Since the Vienna World Conference on Human Rights in 1993, FGM has been classified as a form of violence against women (UNICEF, 2013[3]). Several international treaties condemn the practice, including:

- The CEDAW; in particular, CEDAW General Recommendation No. 14 (1990) calls on State parties to "take appropriate and effective measures with a view to eradicating the practice of female circumcision" (Para. a);
- The Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) requires State parties to "abolish traditional practices prejudicial to the health of children" (Art. 24);
- SDG Target 5.3 explicitly aims to "eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation";
- Commitments on ending FGM also exist in regional instruments such as the Maputo Protocol (2003) or the Istanbul Convention (2011).

Source: UNICEF (2013[3]), "Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting: A statistical overview and exploration of the dynamics of change", https://www.unicef.org/cbsc/files/UNICEF_FGM_report_July_2013_Hi_res.pdf (accessed on 27 January 2019).

Results

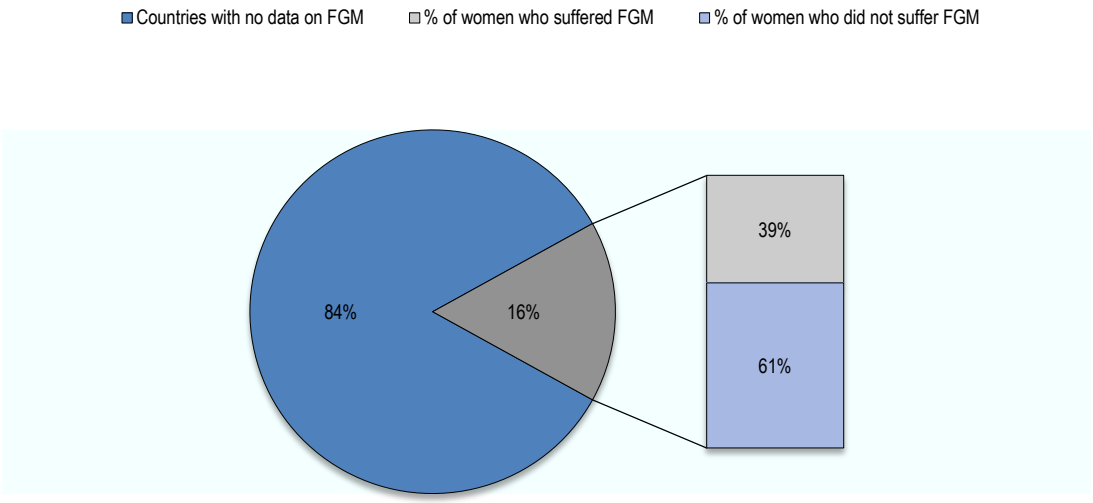
Only 42 countries worldwide have enacted a comprehensive criminal law addressing FGM as a harmful practice. Guinea was the first country to criminalise FGM in 1965. It was followed, mostly in the 1990s-2000s, by 21 countries in Africa, 15 in Europe, 3 in Asia and 2 in North America. Recent legal progress has been seen in Croatia (2013), Mozambique (2014), The Gambia and Nigeria (2015). FGM is criminalised in 16 other countries, but in 4 of them, where there is *de facto* evidence of FGM, the law does not take precedence over customary practices and in 12 countries the law is not backed by

sanctions against all perpetrators. International criminalisation of FGM is more important than ever, because it is becoming a cross-border phenomenon, with parents and practitioners going to countries where legislation against FGM is non-existent or poorly enforced to avoid prosecution (WHO, 2016[4]).

Global evidence and information on FGM remain insufficient. SDG Indicator 5.3.2 tracking progress on Target 5.3[9] is currently available for 29 countries, 27 of them in Africa. Yet, the evidence suggests that FGM is also practised in Europe, Asia and Latin America (EIGE, 2018[5]; UNFPA, 2018[6]).

In the 29 countries where data is available, 39% of women and girls aged 15-49 have undergone some form of FGM **(**Box 4.4**)**. In other words, more than 200 million girls and women alive today have been cut (UNICEF, 2016[7]). This custom is concentrated in Western and Eastern Africa, some areas of the Middle East and some Asian countries. Its prevalence varies greatly across countries where data is available: from fewer than 2% of women in Cameroon, Niger and Uganda to over 90% in Djibouti, Guinea, Sierra Leone and Somalia.

Figure 4.4. The prevalence of FGM across 29 countries



Note: Percentage of countries with data on FGM (left) and percentage of women aged 15-49 who suffered FGM in these countries (right).
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Men and women who support FGM and find it acceptable are the main obstacle to its elimination, but they can also trigger change. Rates of FGM remain high because of its social acceptance: 23% of women believe that FGM should continue. In Guinea, where FGM has been prohibited since 1965, 67% of women are in favour of its continuation. As a result, 94% of adolescent girls were cut compared with 100% of women aged 45-49 (DHS, n.d.[1]). The practice is widely perceived as a rite of passage for entering adulthood and a determining factor of girls' marriageability. Decisions are often based on pressure from extended families and communities, rarely involving the girl's consent (UNICEF, 2013[3]). Nonetheless, communities' attitudes towards the practice can be a powerful agent of change: in Kenya, where 92% of women believe that FGM should be abandoned, 11% of adolescent girls were cut against 41% of their elders (DHS, n.d.[1]).

Box 4.4. Create the conditions for an effective fight against FGM in Kurdistan, Iraq

Female genital mutilation is widely practiced in the Iraqi Kurdish region, but efforts from civil society are encouraging its elimination. In 2011, 43% of women in the region had been cut compared to 26% of their daughters (UNICEF, 2012[8]).

Co-ordinated by the non-governmental organisation *Wadi*, the campaign "Stop FGM in Kurdistan" created enabling conditions for effective elimination of the practice (Wadi, 2017[9]).

Data collection on the prevalence of the practice raised awareness of the issue in 2004. Through education, advocacy and lobbying initiatives, a network of local and international organisations, human rights activists, artists and journalists, supported by local media, then managed to turn FGM into a publicly debated issue. Mobile teams raised awareness among women about the medical and psychological consequences of the practice. A film and several television spots also spread information and public screenings provided opportunities to discuss the issue.

The campaign also managed to draw political attention to the problem. It submitted a petition to the regional parliament containing over 14 000 signatures to ban FGM and recommendations for a draft law. As a result, the parliament passed a law criminalising the practice in 2011 (Act of Combating Domestic Violence in Kurdistan Region, Art. 2 & 6). In 2011, fewer than 12% of women who knew about the practice thought it should continue (UNICEF, 2012[8]).

Sources: UNICEF (2012[8]), *Iraq Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2011 Final Report*, https://mics-surveys-prod.s3.amazonaws.com/MICS4/Middle%20East%20and%20North%20Africa/Iraq/2011/Final/Iraq%202011%20MICS_English.pdf (accessed on 20 January 2019); Wadi (2017[9]), "The campaign against female genital mutilation", https://wadi-online.org/2017/03/06/the-campaign-against-female-genital-mutilation/ (accessed on 28 January 2019).

There is evidence that the practice of FGM is declining overall, but progress is uneven. In 2012, 46% of women and girls aged 15-49 had undergone FGM, compared with 39% in 2018. In Ethiopia in 2016, 79% of women aged 45-49 were cut, against 47% of adolescent girls (aged 15-19). Yet, in other countries, such as Gambia, where the practice affects adolescent girls and older women in the same proportion (76%), FGM prevalence is stagnating (DHS, n.d.[1]). The pace of decline, in fact, has been uneven and depends on the country. In Kenya for example, the FGM prevalence rate decreased by 11 percentage points in 11 years (from 32% of women aged 15-49 in 2003 to 21% of the same age group in 2014), while in Senegal the reduction was only 3 percentage points over the same period (from 28% in 2005 to 25% in 2014) (DHS, n.d.[1]).

No country in the world where FGM is historically practised has successfully eliminated it, but hope remains (Box 4.4)**.** In Kenya, adolescents are four times less likely to be cut than their elders. This relatively favourable environment is the outcome of several measures: the prohibition of FGM in 2001 and reaffirmed in 2011, several national action plans and policies taking into account the crucial role of community support for the elimination of FGM, training of police officers and community leaders on the implementation of the legislation, media campaigns and awareness-raising interventions (The Girl Generation, 2016[10]).

Missing women

Key messages

- The systematic under-valuing of women and girls has led to a deficit in the number of girls and women alive today in some Eastern Asian, Central Asian and Southern Asian countries. The natural sex ratio for ages 0-4 should not exceed 106 boys for 100 girls, yet it is above 110/100 in Armenia, Azerbaijan, China, India and Viet Nam.
- The problem occurs in fewer than 5% of countries but they contain 39% of the global population and 38% of the world's women.
- Government interventions and shifting social norms have led to a slight decline in the missing women phenomenon over the past decade. In four of the five countries where the problem is most acute, there has been a slight-to-moderate decrease in the sex ratio for ages 0-4 since the beginning of the century. The case of Korea highlights the feasibility of eliminating social norms biased toward sons (Box 4.6).

Key policy recommendations

- Adopt comprehensive strategies to help shift son-biased social norms. Enact non-discriminatory legislation to address the root causes of son preference: grant women and men the same legal status, rights and responsibilities in the family and society, particularly in areas such as marriage, inheritance, dowries, family headship or parental authority. Provide social protection to the most vulnerable, particularly the elderly. Take effective measures to ensure men and women have equal access to the economic and political spheres.
- Implement temporary policy measures until broad policy efforts to shift son preference take effect. Where the sex ratio is imbalanced at birth, introduce laws to restrict the use of technology for sex-selection purposes. Where the sex ratio is imbalanced among young age cohorts, introduce measures such as direct subsidies at the time of a girl's birth, scholarship programmes targeting girls, gender-based school quotas or financial incentives, or pension programmes for families that only have girls (e.g. in India, the government offers cash incentive schemes for families to send their daughters to school; these schemes have caused parents to view their daughters as less "burdensome").

Box 4.5. International standards concerning the rights of the girl child

States have an obligation to eliminate discriminatory practices leading to the phenomenon of "missing women". The concept was first introduced by Amartya Sen in the late 1980s. He hypothesised that over 100 million women were missing due to excess female mortality resulting from inequality and neglect (Sen, 1990). Yet, sex selection is prohibited under several international treaties:

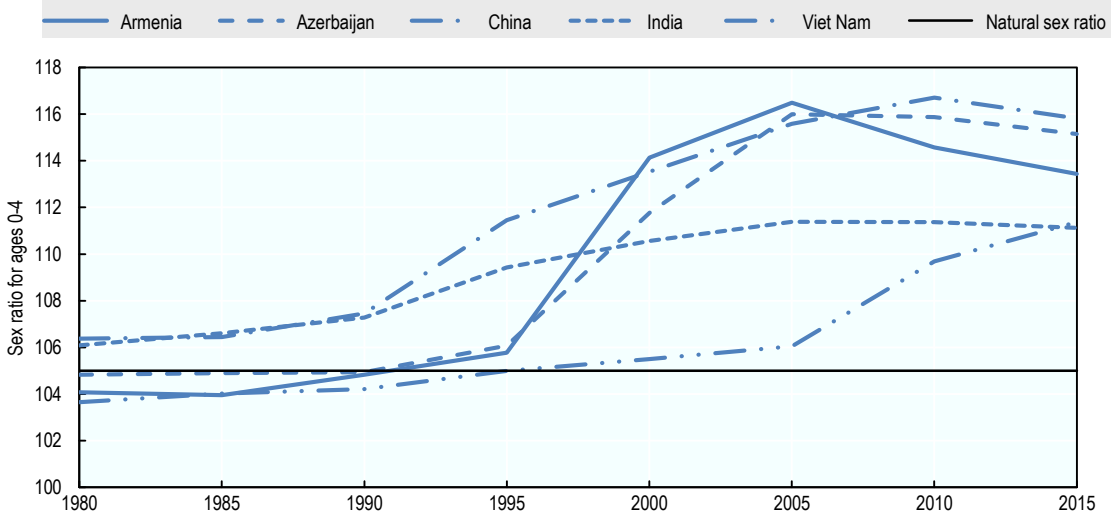
- The "right to life" is guaranteed to every individual under several international treaties including the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Art. 3, 1948) or the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Art. 6, 1966);

- The Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) also recognises that "every child has the inherent right to life" and calls on State parties to "ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child" (Art. 6);
- The CEDAW (1979) requires state parties to "modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of […] practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes" (Art. 5);
- The Programme of Action adopted during the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo Conference, 1994) enjoins "leaders at all levels of the society [to] speak out and act forcefully against patterns of gender discrimination within the family, based on preference for sons" (Action 4.17).

Results

The systematic under-valuing of women and girls has led to a deficit in the number of women alive today. Manifestations of missing women are concentrated in some Eastern Asian, Central Asian and Southern Asian countries. The natural sex ratio for ages 0-4 is around 106 males/100 females (WHO, 2011[11]). Yet, it is above 108 in Georgia, Hong Kong, China and Chinese Taipei and above 110 in Armenia, Azerbaijan, China, India and Viet Nam (Figure 4.5). In these countries, skewed sex ratios peaked between 2000 and 2010.

Figure 4.5. Sex ratios for ages 0-4 in selected countries



Note: Sex ratio for ages 0-4, defined as the average number of boys per 100 girls.
Source: UNDESA (2017[12]), "World Population Prospects: The 2017 Revision, DVD Edition", https://www.un.org/development/desa/publications/world-population-prospects-the-2017-revision.html (accessed on 27 January 2019).

The phenomenon of missing women is driven by traditional stereotypes regarding men's and women's roles in the society. Many societies consider boys as a lifelong economic resource, while girls are seen as a liability (OECD, 2012[13]). In some countries, sons are

expected to provide for their parents upon their retirement, whereas girls, once married, will contribute to their in-laws' families instead. Social institutions, such as dowry, also encourage sex selection. Sons may be associated with higher social prestige and perpetuation of the ancestral line and family name. Other factors explaining this phenomenon include increasing access to technologies that can be used for sex selection, combined with restrictive family planning policies such as China's one child policy (in effect until 2015) (OECD, 2012[13]).

Government interventions and shifting social norms have led to a slight decline in the missing women phenomenon in the past decade. In most countries with evidence of discrimination, there has been a slight to moderate decrease in the sex ratio for ages 0-4 over the last decade, indicating a decrease in the number of missing women (Figure 4.5). The exception has been Viet Nam, where the sex ratio for ages 0-4 has increased from 106 in 2005 to 111 in 2015. This trend in Viet Nam appears to be driven by a lower fertility rate, combined with a cultural preference for boys, together with increased and cheaper access to technologies to determine the sex of unborn foetuses and to sex-selective abortions (World Bank, 2011[14]). However, in other countries, legal and policy measures to address the status and value given to women and girls have had a positive effect (Box 4.5).

Box 4.6. Reversal of skewed sex ratios through legal reforms and mass media campaigns in Korea

In Korea, the sex ratio at birth was 107 in 2015, a number close to expectations. Yet, the ratio was as high as 114/100 over the period 1985-95 (UNDESA, 2017[12]). This imbalance was the manifestation of a deeply rooted preference for sons that has weakened as a result of a combination of factors.

In an effort to reduce the incidence of sex-selective abortions, Korea enacted a law in 1987 making it illegal for a doctor to reveal the sex of a foetus to expecting parents. Successive legal reforms, notably in 1991 and 2005, granted women the same legal rights as men regarding marriage, inheritance, family headship and parental authority. The government also organised media campaigns to discourage sex-selective abortions.

In parallel, socio-economic development, greater urbanisation, higher female access to education and participation in the formal labour force and a strengthened old-age pension system have triggered a weakening of social norms regarding son preference, and an increase in the status and value of women and their greater autonomy (Chung and Das Gupta, 2007[15]). As a result, while 48% of ever-married women declared that having a son was a necessity in 1985, this percentage decreased to 8% in 2012 (Korea Institute for Health and Social Affairs, 2012[16]).

Sources: UNDESA (2017[12]), "World Population Prospects: The 2017 Revision, DVD Edition", https://www.un.org/development/desa/publications/world-population-prospects-the-2017-revision.html (accessed on 27 January 2019); Chung, W. and M. Das Gupta (2007), "Why is son preference declining in South Korea? The role of development and public policy, and the implications for China and India", https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/7367 (accessed on 26 January 2019); Korea Institute for Health and Social Affairs (2012), "The 2012 National Survey on Fertility, Family Health & Welfare in Korea", https://www.kihasa.re.kr/english/publications/eng_research/view.do?ano=717&menuId=68&tid=34&bid=30 (accessed on 27 January 2019).

Reproductive autonomy

Key messages

- Women's reproductive autonomy rights in case of non-desired pregnancy are often threatened by discriminatory laws. Abortion on demand is legal in only 61 countries, while 108 countries impose some restrictions and 11 countries maintain complete bans on abortion.
- Poor health-service infrastructure, lack of information and persisting social institutions that limit women's control over their bodies have prevented progress in this area since 2012: around the world, 12% of women of reproductive age (15-49) report having an unmet need for family planning, and up to 24% of women in sub-Saharan Africa suffer from this insufficiency of service.
- China and France are the best performers in this indicator. In both countries, abortion on demand is legal and a low proportion of women (4%) have an unmet need for family planning.

Key policy recommendations

- Secure women's and girls' sexual and reproductive health and rights so that they are not forced to seek unsafe medical procedures such as illegal abortion. Ensure all women have affordable and secure access to high-quality and culturally accepted family planning and health information and services. Public/private partnerships can broaden access through, for example, subsidised family planning service delivery by private entities (as is the case in Papua New Guinea), publicly funded voucher programmes (as in Pakistan), or information campaigns (such as those in Tanzania) (Mangone and Gitonga, 2017[17]).
- Adopt a human rights-based approach to sexual and reproductive health and rights that safeguards the reproductive autonomy of women and acknowledges that women's decisions about their own bodies are personal and private. Enable women who wish to do so obtain legal abortions within defined gestational periods.
- Despite their private nature, women's sexual and reproductive health and rights are a divisive topic in many societies. Dialogue is key to ensure that laws will be understood, accepted and enforced (Box 4.8).

Box 4.7. International standards on women's reproductive autonomy

Women's sexual and reproductive health and rights are enshrined in several international treaties:

- The CEDAW (1979) calls on State parties to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, "the same rights to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights" (Art. 16);
- In 1994, 194 governments, gathered at the International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo Conference), recognised that "ensuring women's ability to control their own fertility [is a] cornerstone of population and development-related programmes" (UN, 1994[18]);
- The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) reaffirms that the rights of women "include their right to have control over and decide freely and responsibly on matters related to their sexuality, including sexual and reproductive health" (Art. 96);
- More recently, the necessity to ensure universal access to "sexual and reproductive health-care services" (SDG Target 3.7) and to "sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights" (SDG Target 5.6) has been integrated to the SDG framework.

Source: UN (1994), "Report of the International Conference on Population and Development", https://www.ipci2014.org/sites/ipci2014.org/files/icpd_eng.pdf (accessed on 27 January 2019).

Results

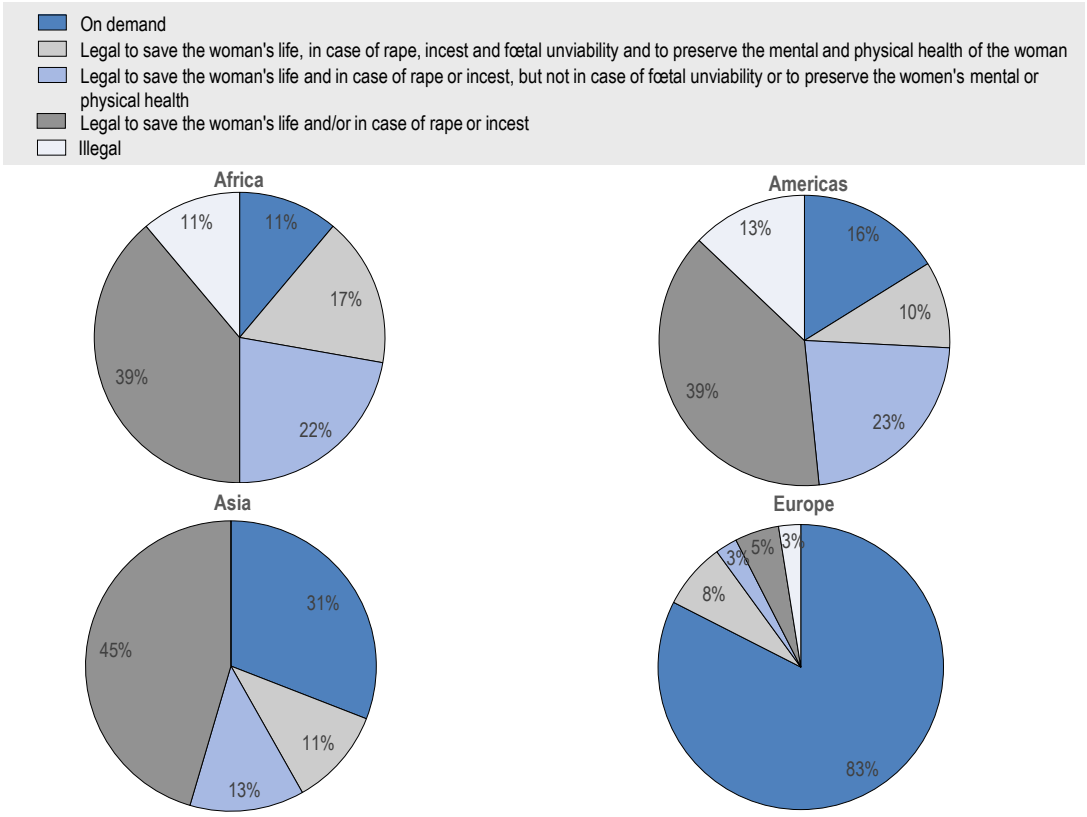
Women's reproductive autonomy rights in the case of non-desired pregnancy are often threatened by discriminatory legal frameworks. Despite international standards calling on states to guarantee women's rights to control their fertility (Box 4.7), statutory law allows medical abortion on demand (within a gestational limit) in only 61 countries. However, most countries (108) have put conditions on legal abortion. In those countries, the conditions include saving the woman's life (108 countries), in cases of rape, statutory rape or incest (48 countries), foetal impairment (44 countries) or preservation of the physical (61 countries) or mental (40 countries) health of the woman. In addition, 11 countries have complete bans on abortion.

Legal grounds for abortion vary greatly among regions and little change has been seen since 2014. Abortion on demand is legal in 83% of European countries, compared with 31% in Asia, 16% in the Americas and 11% of African countries (Figure 4.6). Only one country in Europe (Malta) and no country in Asia completely prohibits abortion, compared with 11% of countries in Africa[10] and 13% in the Americas.[11] Over the four years to 2018, two countries have legalised abortion on demand (Luxembourg and Mozambique) and three countries have extended the grounds on which abortion is permitted (Chad, Chile and Eritrea).

No country in the world guarantees universal access to contraception and no progress has been made in this regard. Some 12% of women of reproductive age (15-49) report having an unmet need for family planning. This proportion has not decreased since 2012. The

gap between women's reproductive intentions and their contraceptive behaviour ranges from 9% in Europe to 22% in Africa. In 52 countries, 32 of which are located in sub-Saharan Africa, more than 20% of women have an unmet need for family planning. However, in absolute numerical terms, the majority of women with an unmet need for family planning live in South Asia.

Figure 4.6. Abortion policies by region



Note: Share of countries per type of abortion policies.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Women's low reproductive autonomy is connected to poor health-service infrastructure, lack of information and discriminatory social institutions that limit women's control over their bodies. One in four women is reported to have an unmet need for family planning in low-income countries, double the world average. Poor women and women living in rural settings often face greater difficulties in accessing reproductive health services, as poverty and remote locations compound their already limited resources (UNFPA, 2012[19]). Additional barriers include lack of knowledge about contraceptive methods and sources of supply or incorrect perceptions about the health risks of modern methods. Demographic survey data of women's self-reported reasons for non-use of contraceptive methods highlight that social acceptability is a key driver. More than 4% of women with an unmet need do not use a contraceptive method because of their partner's opposition or religious prohibition (DHS, n.d.[1]).

Box 4.8. Enable citizens' direct participation in decision-making in Ireland

In May 2018, the Irish people decided in a referendum to repeal and replace the Eighth Amendment of the Irish Constitution Act of 1983, which regulated the termination of pregnancies by recognising an equal right to life of the woman and the unborn child. The issue was highly contentious at the outset but involved a highly transparent consultation process that fuelled a desire for reform. A Citizens' Assembly considered five major constitutional issues, including the Eighth Amendment. The Assembly heard from expert witnesses, women affected by the existing legislation and from advocacy and representative groups, as well as from ordinary Irish citizens and non-citizens. The result was that 87% of the Assembly members recommended in their report that the rules covering abortion should be relaxed by repealing and replacing the 8th Amendment, a position ultimately adopted by a joint committee of the Houses of the Oireachtas (the Irish Parliament). The joint committee brought forward the referendum and repeal was supported by a majority of 66.4% of the vote (Citizen's Assembly, 2017[20]). On December 2018, the Health (Regulation of Termination of Pregnancy) Bill was promulgated, making abortion legal during the first 12 weeks of pregnancy (Oireachtas, 2018[21]).

Sources: Citizen's Assembly (2017), "Opening Speech for Chair for Joint Oireachtas Committee on the Eighth Amendment", https://www.citizensassembly.ie/en/The-Eighth-Amendment-of-the-Constitution/Address-given-by-the-Chair-Justice-Laffoy-Meeting-of-the-Joint-Committee-on-Eighth-Amendment-of-the-Constitution.pdf (accessed on 26 January 2019); Oireachtas (2018), "Heatlh (Regulation of Termination of Pregnancy) Act", https://data.oireachtas.ie/ie/oireachtas/act/2018/31/eng/enacted/a3118.pdf (accessed on 27 January 2019).

Notes

[1] Comoros, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (now the Republic of North Macedonia), Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Solomon Islands (2014), Algeria, Antigua and Barbuda, Bahrain, Kenya, Netherlands, People's Republic of China (2015), Barbados (2016), Moldova, Mongolia and Tunisia (2017).

[2] Egypt (2014), Afghanistan, Cameroon, Guinea (2016) and Chad (2017).

[3] Austria, El Salvador, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (now the Republic of North Macedonia), Honduras, Malaysia, Sierra Leone, South Africa, Chinese Taipei, United States, Zimbabwe.

[4] Comoros, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (now the Republic of North Macedonia), Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Solomon Islands (2014), Algeria, Antigua and Barbuda, Bahrain, Kenya, Netherlands, People's Republic of China (2015), Barbados (2016), Moldova, Mongolia and Tunisia (2017).

[5] Egypt (2014), Afghanistan, Cameroon, Guinea (2016) and Chad (2017).

[6] Mozambique (2014), Gambia and Nigeria (2015).

[7] Cameroon, Nigeria, Uganda and Tanzania.

[8] Prohibition of Female Genital Mutilation Act, 2011.

[9] SDG indicator 5.3.2 ("Proportion of girls and women aged 15-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age") is one of the two indicators that measure progress against SDG target 5.3 ("Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation").

[10] Gabon, Guinea-Bissau, Madagascar, Mauritania, Republic of the Congo and Senegal.

[11] El Salvador, Haiti, Honduras and Nicaragua.

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Chapter 5. Restricted access to productive and financial resources

This chapter presents an overview of women's restricted access to productive and financial resources. It examines discriminatory social institutions – formal and informal laws, social norms and practices – that restrict women's access to and control over critical productive and economic resources and assets across 180 countries, covering areas such as secure access to land, secure access to non-land assets, secure access to formal financial services and workplace rights. The chapter also seeks to provide policy makers with the necessary tools and evidence to design effective gender-responsive policies in order to improve women's economic empowerment.



The *restricted access to productive and financial resources* (RAPFR) sub-index captures women's restricted access to and control over critical productive and economic resources and assets. This includes: discriminatory laws that deny women access to land, decent work and financial resources; discriminatory customary practices in ownership or decision-making over land, household property and other assets; discriminatory practices or attitudes towards women's formal work; and social norms dictating that women's property ownership or access to credit should be mediated by men. The sub-index is composed of four indicators:

- "secure access to land assets" captures the share of women land titleholders and the level of legal protection, i.e. whether women and men have equal and secure access to land, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "secure access to non-land assets" captures the share of women house owners and the level of their legal protection, i.e. whether women and men have equal and secure access to non-land assets, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "secure access to formal financial services" captures the share of women holding a bank account and the level of their legal protection, i.e. whether women and men have equal access to formal financial services, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "workplace rights" captures the share of women managers and the social acceptance of working mothers as well as its legal acceptance, i.e. whether women and men enjoy equal rights and opportunities in the workplace. This includes issues related to employment protection during pregnancy, maternity/parental leave, equal remuneration for work of equal value and equal access to professions, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.

Key messages

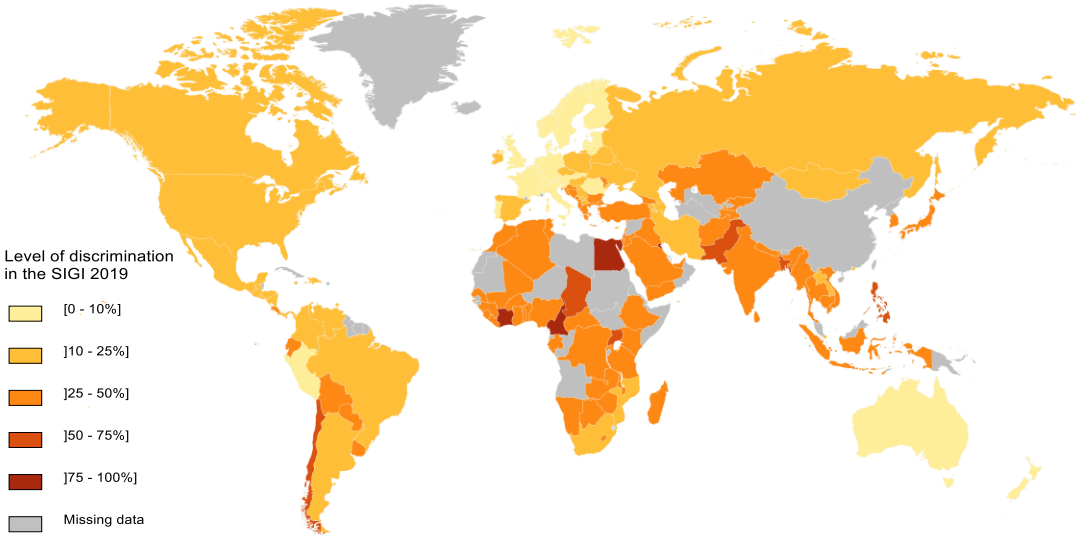
- The economic case for women's economic empowerment has not been always translated into better access for women to resources:
  - The global level of discrimination in access to productive and financial resources is 27%, ranging from 2% in Sweden to 80% in Kuwait.
- The various forms of discrimination discussed in this dimension overlap and intersect:
  - Ownership of land and non-land assets, as well as access to the formal economy are critical for women's financial inclusion;
  - Women's restricted financial inclusion and lack of autonomy reinforce the discrimination they face in accessing land, non-land assets and entrepreneurship.
- Legal discrimination still restricts women's workplace rights and their secure access to land:
  - Some 88 countries proscribe women from entering certain professions;
  - In 34 countries, only husbands are entitled to administer and dispose of marital property.
- Despite the increasing adoption of legal frameworks to provide women with equal access to land, non-land assets and financial services, customary laws still impede their access to basic economic resources:
  - In 123 countries, traditional, religious and customary laws and practices limit women's freedom to claim and protect their land assets.
- Discriminatory social norms are still reflected in women's lower economic power:
  - Women own less than 15% of the world's land, account for 21% of all house owners and hold 24% of all management positions.

How can governments effectively tackle discriminatory social institutions restricting women's access to productive and financial resources?

- Reconcile customary or traditional land-tenure and ownership systems with the civil law to ensure women's land rights;
- Encourage the relevant authorities to repeal and amend customary, traditional or religious property regulations and regimes that discriminate against women's property rights;
- Address customary and traditional practices that conflict with women's formal rights to open a bank account and access credit opportunities by interacting with the appropriate traditional bodies;
- Remove discriminatory legal provisions that limit women's employment opportunities; and
- Address discriminatory social norms that confine women to their reproductive role or subordinate economic role (i.e. unpaid family workers, low-responsibility jobs).

The SIGI result for the *Restricted Access to Productive and Financial Resources* (RAPFR) dimension confirms that discrimination restricting women's workplace rights, their access to land, non-land assets and financial resources persists: the global level of discrimination is 27% in this sub-index with huge disparities across countries, from 2% in Sweden to 80% in Kuwait (Figure 5.1). Indeed, the global score in the RAPFR sub-index hides regional disparities highly correlated with disparities in regional levels of women's contribution to the formal economy. Europe stands out as the best performer with a score of 13%, while other regions lag behind: the Americas at 22%, followed by Asia (34%) and Africa (39%). It is in regions where women's labour-force participation is low that the rates of discrimination under the RAPFR sub-index are the highest: the scores go up to 45% and 54% in Northern Africa and Middle Africa, respectively.

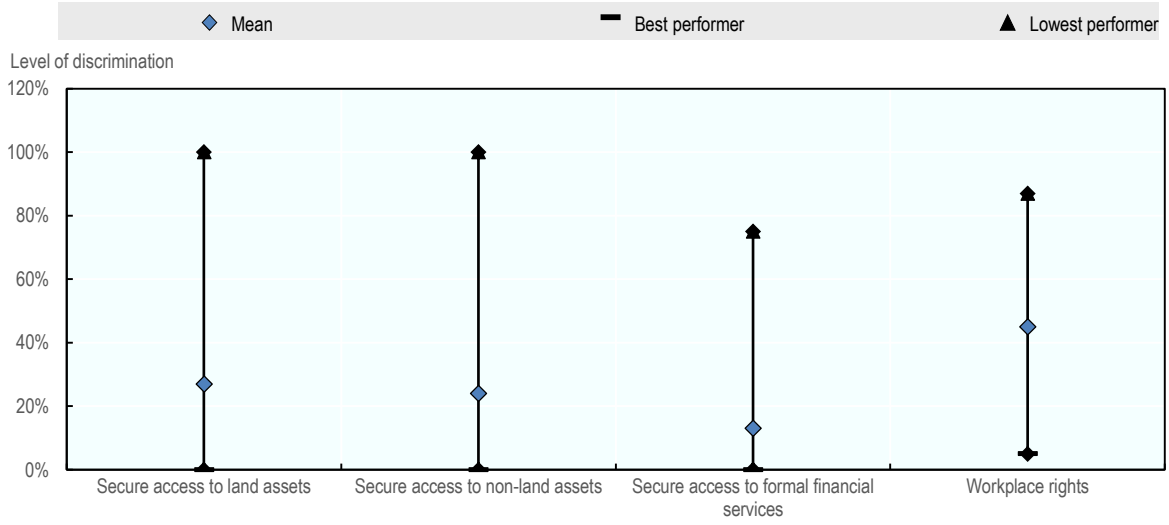
Figure 5.1. Level of discrimination in the restricted access to productive and financial resources sub-index



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Although progress has been made in expanding women's access to productive and financial resources, challenges remain, especially to improving women's workplace rights. Gender discrimination and inequalities at work persist in all regions: the global level of discrimination on this indicator is 44%, ranging from 5% in Latvia to 87% in Pakistan. This is the most striking indicator in this sub-index. For other indicators, the global level of discrimination is 27% and 24% in women's legal access to land and non-land assets, respectively, and 13% for women's access to formal financial services, thanks to strengthened legal frameworks (Figure 5.2). This result should be interpreted with care because merely having access to a bank account does not means women's financial needs are being fulfilled in practice.[1]

Figure 5.2. SIGI results in the four restricted access to productive and financial resources indicators



Note: Global average, best and lowest performers in the four restricted access to productive and financial resources indicators.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Sweden is the strongest performing country in this dimension, because of a comprehensive legislative framework promoting women's economic rights, which is reflected in greater women's economic empowerment. The constitution grants women and men equal rights to access land and non-land assets, while the Discrimination Act prohibits discrimination based on gender in access to credit and bank accounts. Equal pay for work of equal value is mandated. Under the Discrimination Act, employers must conduct remuneration surveys every three years and companies with more than 25 employees are obliged to draw up an action plan for equal pay for equal work on the basis of the surveys. In 1974, Sweden became the first country in the world to introduce gender-neutral parental benefits (Box 5.8). Moreover, a "Gender Equality Bonus" – introduced in 2008 – offers an economic incentive for families to divide parental leave more equally between the mother and the father. Non-discriminatory legal provisions, action plans and social norms favourable to women's economic empowerment have led to improved women's representation in the economic sphere: women hold 47.5% of jobs in Sweden, 40% of managerial positions and 32% of board positions in listed companies (higher than the 23% average in the European Union).

Secure access to land assets

Key messages

- Despite important advances in legislation to strengthen women's land rights, significant gaps between countries and regions remain. To date, 164 countries explicitly recognise women's rights to own, use, make decisions and use land as collateral on equal terms with men. However, only 52 countries guarantee these rights both in law and practice because of discriminatory customary laws. Whereas there are very low levels of discrimination in Europe (26 countries), Africa stands out as the poorest-performing region on this indicator, despite the

fact that access to agricultural land is even more important for women's empowerment opportunities in most African countries.

- A major element of the remaining challenge is weak law enforcement and implementation, often contributed to by women's limited legal awareness. Even with theoretical equal rights, women rarely exercise them. They tend to have limited knowledge of their statutory rights and customary laws often define land tenure as a male privilege. Under customary and traditional inheritance systems, for example, women are often required to give up their rights in favour of male relatives when they become divorced, widowed or orphaned.
- Deeply entrenched norms and customary land-tenure laws confine women to subordinate and dependent status. While women contribute significantly to agricultural production, their status gives them very low decision-making power, restricting their opportunities for economic empowerment. Women represent 43% of the agricultural labour force, but 65% of unpaid family workers in developing countries but only 15% of agricultural landholders (FAO, 2011[1]).
- Reducing extreme poverty, hunger and creating resilient societies requires securing women's access to and ownership of land. Among the SDGs 13[2] Goals and 59 targets are unlikely to be met without progress towards securing and protecting women's land rights. Providing women's equal access to productive resources could increase the production of female-operated farms by 20% to 30% in developing countries (FAO, 2011[1]). Moreover, women's land ownership is linked to income growth, greater bargaining power within their households, better child nutrition and higher educational attainment for girls (Markham, 2015[2]).
- The best score in this indicator is shared by 53 countries. In these countries, women enjoy the same rights and secure access to land assets as men in law and in practice. However, despite the fact that the proportion of female agricultural landholders (19%) exceeds the global average (15%), it is far from equality (50%).

Key policy recommendations

- Improve women's land rights through the harmonisation of customary laws with statutory laws, in line with international and regional commitments to human rights' (Box 5.1). In many countries, land tenure is closely linked to customary laws and practices that prevent women from enjoying secure access to land either by blocking their right to inherit land or to hold nominative title to it. As a result, discriminatory customary laws related to marriage and inheritance lead to the perpetuation of gender imbalances in land ownership across generations.
- Design awareness-raising campaigns about women's land rights and foster dialogue with community and religious leaders to ensure real harmonisation between customary and statutory laws. For instance, an audit conducted by the Kenya Land Alliance revealed that, despite the adoption of Kenya's progressive Constitution in 2010, women's land ownership continues to lag behind that of men. The audit examined about one-third of the 3.2 million title deeds issued between 2013 to 2017 and found that Kenyan women received some 10% of land titles issued by the government, representing only 1.60% of land by area (Kenya Land Alliance, 2018[3]).

- Develop legal literacy programmes to help women, families and communities understand their statutory rights to land. While legal frameworks guarantee women's land rights on equal terms with men, they are largely thwarted by women's general lack of awareness of their rights. To combat such ignorance, the Land Centre for Human Rights in Egypt, for example, supports farmers and rural communities, including rural women, to improve knowledge and understanding of their legal rights.
- Provide women with affordable access to land rights enforcement mechanisms to guarantee their recourse to adequate justice structures (courts, customary and dispute-resolution bodies and relevant authorities) without discrimination.
- Promote women's participation and leadership in global, national and local institutions, in governance mechanisms in rural areas and in bodies concerned with the ownership and use of land, in order to increase women's autonomy, voice, agency and decision-making power.
- Collect sex-disaggregated data at the individual level to gain a better understanding of women's barriers to accessing and owning land. The collection of data needs to be coupled with qualitative research methods to take local conditions into account.
- Promote joint land titling in order to increase the registration of women's land rights. The government in Uganda made efforts including subsidised land titles that are conditional on co-registration and targeted information campaigns, to encourage joint registration of land held by married couples in rural areas. A World Bank evaluation of the schemes found that 40% of couples were willing to register their land jointly without incentives but up to 70% would do so with incentives (Cherchi, 2018[4]).
- Undertake small innovative practices in land registration systems that can have a big impact on women's land rights. In Tanzania, women's land certification increased from 0% to over 50% in the villages where USAID's Mobile Application to Secure Tenure (MAST) was set up (USAID, 2016[5]). In India, Landesa partnered with the government of West Bengal to modify the number of spaces for names on land registration documents from one to two and educate registers about the advantages of women's land rights. As a result, women's names were included in land titles in a greater number of cities (Markham, 2015[2]).

Box 5.1. International standards concerning women's land rights

Women's equal access, use and control over land is grounded in core international human rights instruments, including:

- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), which recognises the right to property (Art. 2);
- The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1976) that guarantees equality between women and men (Art. 3);

- The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1976) calls on State parties to "undertake to ensure the equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all economic, social and cultural rights" (Art.3);
- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) acknowledges that "State parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, that they participate in and benefit from rural development" (Art. 14.2);
- The Convention concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries (No. 169) of the International Labour Organization (ILO) (1989) states that "the rights of ownership and possession of the peoples concerned over the lands which they traditionally occupy shall be recognized" (Art. 14.1);
- The Beijing Platform for Action (1995) calls on Governments to "ensure women's equal access to economic resources, including land" and "to formulate and implement policies and programmes that provide access to and control of land" (para. 58(n));
- The Habitat Agenda (1996) commits Governments to providing "legal security of tenure and equal access to land to all people, including women and those living in poverty; and undertaking legislative and administrative reforms to give women full and equal access to economic resources, including the right to inheritance and to ownership of land" (para. 40 (b));
- The CEDAW Committee considers "women's rights to land, natural resources, as well as fisheries as fundamental human rights" (CEDAW Committee, 2016[6]);
- The Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) framework (2015) recognises women's secure access to land as a key pillar of women's economic empowerment. The international community has committed to secure, enforce and monitor progress on women's land rights in order to achieve the 2030 Agenda by including land-specific SDG indicators (1.4.2[3] and 5.a.1[4]).

Results

Governments have undertaken legislative reforms to protect women's land rights. To date, 164 countries specifically recognise women's rights to own, use, make decisions about and use land as collateral on equal terms with men. One measure adopted by governments to strengthen women's land rights is to incorporate legal provisions for joint registration into the legal and policy framework particularly for married, divorced and abandoned women and widows. Some 89 countries have made joint-titling compulsory for land to both married couples and de-facto unions.

Guaranteeing legal rights is not enough to increase women's access to land. In general, women are less aware of their legal rights than are men, especially women living in rural areas and belonging to minority groups. Therefore, 27 countries have promoted legal literacy programmes and projects to enable women to understand their land and property rights. In addition, 79 governments have implemented measures to enhance women's participation in co-operatives, producer organisations and rural committees in national

programmes to promote, protect and empower rural women, and to provide training for rural women and capacity-building activities for female-led co-operatives.

Legal equality for women's land rights in national legal codes has not proven sufficient to counter deeply entrenched inequalities due to inconsistencies with plural legal systems.[5] In 123 countries, women are denied the same rights to access land assets as men under traditional, religious and customary laws and practices, while 30 countries do not apply the same legal frameworks governing land to all groups of women. In some countries, customary law can be applied in parallel with statutory law to prevent women from inheriting and acquiring land. In Botswana, most agricultural land is owned as customary family property and is allocated on a "first-come, first-served" basis. This has gender implications and marginalises women because of gender norms that make it difficult for women to claim independent land rights. In other countries where women may have equal legal rights to register land in their names, in practice it tends to be registered in the father's or husband's name. In Egypt, social and traditional norms often mean that women appoint male guardians – a father or a brother – to manage their land rights.

Box 5.2. Mobilising African rural women to claim their land rights

Rural women play a key role in the achievement of the SDGs. Providing women with equal access to productive resources could increase production on female farms by 20% – 30% in developing countries (FAO, 2011[1]). However, legal barriers still hinder rural women's empowerment.

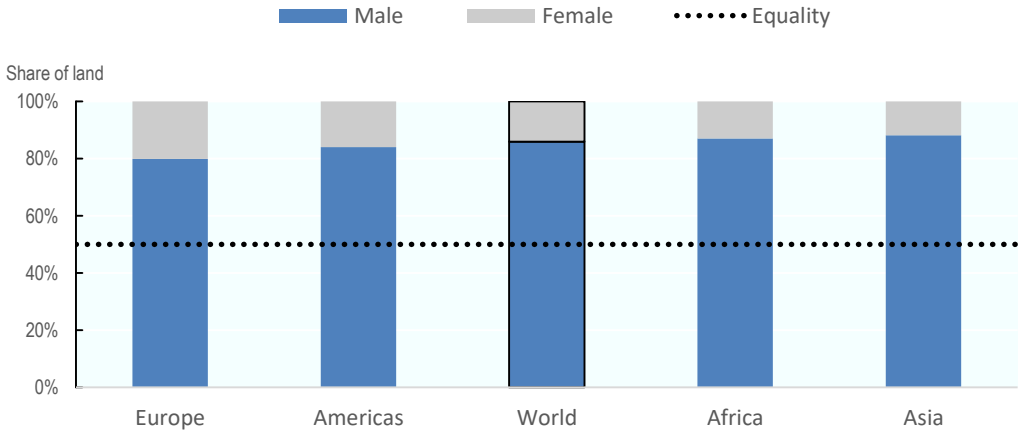
As a result, the Kilimanjaro initiative (KI) supported by the International Land Coalition (ILC), ActionAid, and Oxfam was launched in Nigeria in 2016. The objective of the initiative was to mobilise African rural women and draw attention to their plight by organising a climb to the summit of Mt Kilimanjaro and to call upon states to translate international commitments into concrete national actions in securing their land rights.

More than 100 000 women were mobilised and over 20 countries supported the initiative, from women mobilising and organising themselves into rural committees to national formations embracing NGOs and women-led farms and producer organisations. In addition, gender-sensitive national charters of demands were developed.

Source: FAO (2011[1]), *The State of Food and Agriculture: Closing the Gender Gap for Development*, http://www.fao.org/3/a-y4311e.pdf (accessed on 26 January 2019).

All efforts to promote women's land rights have not been translated into real changes on the ground. Women represent 43% of the agricultural labour force and 65% of the unpaid family workers in developing countries and are involved in a variety of agricultural operations raising crops, livestock and fish farming (FAO, 2011[1]). However, in African countries, while women may cultivate their own plots, they do not necessarily have ownership rights over them. Due to persistent discriminatory laws and practices, only 15% of agricultural landholders, globally, are women (Figure 5.3), ranging from 1% in Saudi Arabia to 50% in Cabo Verde. Women represent 20% of agricultural title holders in Europe, 16% in the Americas, 13% in Africa and 12% in Asia. This low ownership of land and assets maintains an "asset trap" because such assets are often required as collateral by financial institutions, preventing women from obtaining credit and loans.

Figure 5.3. Women's and men's share of land



Note: Women's and men's share in the agricultural landowners.
Source: FAO (2018), *Gender and Land Rights Database*, http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/en/ (accessed 12 November 2018).

Secure access to non-land assets

Key messages

- Laws continue to obstruct women's legal rights to own, use and manage property and non-land assets in fundamental ways. Only 42% of countries guarantee women' property rights on an equal footing with men. Progress is being made but the pace is slow: only four countries[6] made legal reforms to remove restrictions on women's right to own and control property between 2014 and 2017 and women account for 21% of all house owners.
- Increasing property rights for women is vital for their own social and economic empowerment, as well a first step towards tackling slums. As women start to make up a greater proportion of urban residents in developing countries, there is an urgent need to develop effective and trustworthy property-enforcement mechanisms in order to safeguard their property rights.
- The best score in this indicator is shared by 75 countries. The legal frameworks guarantee the same rights and secure access to non-land assets to both women and men in law and in practice.

Key policy recommendations

- Promote jointly titled property, which would specifically unlock women's access to formal financial services (Box 5.3). A change in the regulations covering asset registration could provide women with equal rights to property and enable them to use assets as collateral to secure loans.
- Analyse the consequences for women's property rights of national legislations governing marriage, divorce and inheritance, as well as the potential effects of proposed legal reforms.

Box 5.3. International standards with respect to women's property rights

Women's rights to property and non-land assets are guaranteed under numerous international and regional instruments, including:

- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) establishes the right of everyone to own property regardless of sex (Art. 17.1 and 2);
- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) explicitly calls State parties to take all appropriate measures to ensure the same rights for both spouses in respect of the ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property (Art. 16.1 (h));
- The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) calls on national and international non-governmental organisations and women's groups to protect women's right to full and equal access to economic resources, including the right to inheritance of land and other property (Para. 60);
- The Agenda 2063 (2015) states that "the African woman will be fully empowered in all spheres, with equal social, political and economic rights, including the rights to own and inherit property" (Aspiration 6).

- Conduct innovative and holistic awareness-raising campaigns at the community level to ensure that not only women, but the entire community understand the legal framework regarding women's property rights (Box 5.4).
- Guarantee transparency and simplify lengthy bureaucratic procedures when registering, transferring or purchasing property.

Results

Access to property and other non-land assets is important for women's economic empowerment and well-being. Women's rights to own, use and make decisions over property is a determining factor in achieving an adequate standard of living and crucial for their everyday survival, economic security and physical safety. Women and girls who are economically dependent on their male entourages who control property and assets are more susceptible to HIV infection and more vulnerable to poverty (ICRW, 2016[7]). Furthermore, the ownership and control over property and assets are related to greater bargaining power within the household and, in some cases, may offer protection against the risk of domestic violence (Panda, 2003[8]).

Laws continue to constrain women's legal rights to own, use and manage property and non-land assets in fundamental ways. Globally, only 42% of countries guarantee equality in asset rights both in law and in practice. Since the last edition of the SIGI in 2014, four countries have enacted reforms to eliminate restrictions on women's rights to own and control property. Meanwhile, 34 countries still entitle husbands solely to administer and dispose of marital property. In Côte d'Ivoire, for example, a wife does not have the same rights as her husband to administer marital property,[7] while a husband's consent is required for major transactions in the Philippines. Furthermore, 29% of countries restrict women's equal legal right to property and other non-land assets after divorce or separation.

Box 5.4. Enhancing women's property rights in Kosovo

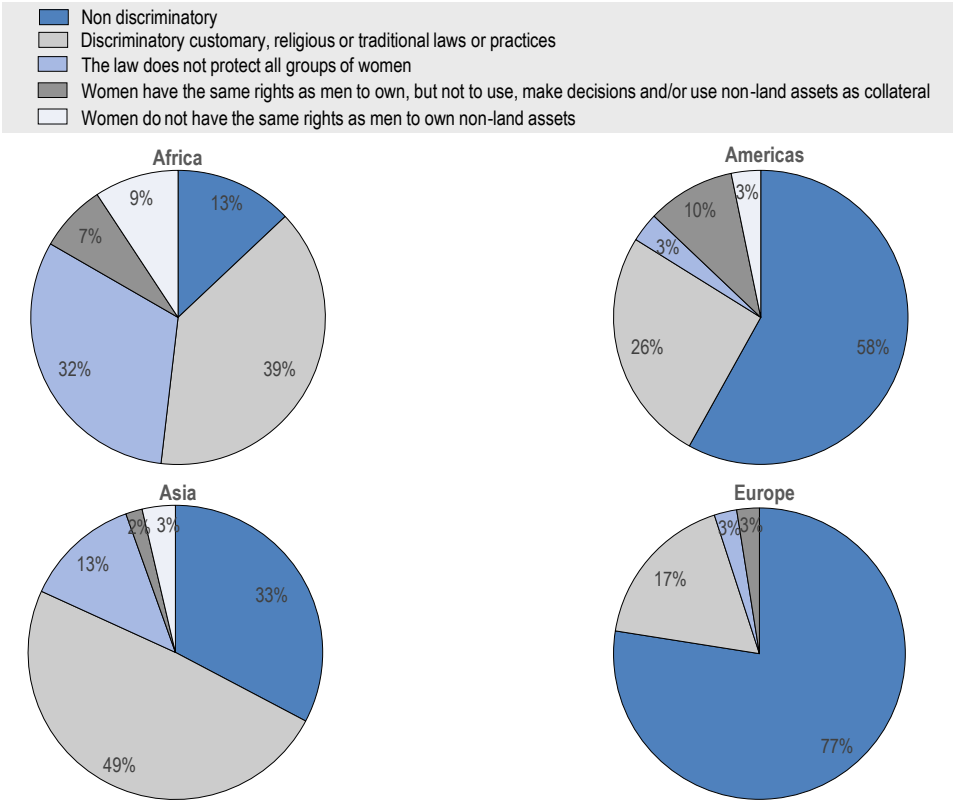
Although women and men enjoy equal rights to own and control property, women only own 17% of property in Kosovo, an increase of 10 percentage points from 2012, but still far below other Balkan states and other countries (USAID, 2015[9]). Much of this gap is rooted in the application of traditional customary norms. In order to mitigate and ultimately change such discriminatory practices, USAID launched a national media campaign in 2016 called *Per Te Miren Tone* (For Our Common Good) aimed at raising awareness on women's property rights.

The national campaign combined conventional media efforts (public service announcements for television and radio, newspapers) with social media actions (Facebook live events) in both Serbian and Albanian to promote the idea that women should be equal actors in society. The campaign was designed to reverse discriminatory attitudes and practices around property rights in the communities, support women who accept their inheritance and who purchase property in their own names and ensure that women can claim their legal rights to own property.

As a result, affirmative attitudes and perceptions among Kosovars towards equal property rights increased. Some 73% of Kosovars said they considered that women and men should have equal rights to own and use immovable property in 2017 compared to 64% in 2015 (USAID, 2017[10]). The results of the Midterm National Survey on Property Rights in Kosovo highlighted that women have become more willing to discuss the issue of inheritance renunciation with their families and relatives than they had been previously Furthermore, the media campaign around women's property rights has generated public debate in the communities and is making Kosovars aware of their legal right to own and control property. The percentage of people who have knowledge of their property rights doubled, from 27% in 2015 to 57% in 2017 (USAID, 2017[10]). In 2018, the government, with support from USAID, launched the National Strategy on Property Rights. The strategy calls for changes to 40 laws that hinder people from claiming their property rights.

Gender inequalities in access to property still prevail and some groups of women face particular constraints. Women are still significantly less likely to own a house in their own name than men: worldwide, women account for 21% of all house owners, ranging from 5% in Pakistan to 73% in Comoros. In Africa, only 20% of documented house owners are women, while in Latin America and the Caribbean, women account for 45% of all house owners. In addition, women suffering from multiple forms of discrimination[8] face particular barriers in accessing property and other non-land assets. For instance, the legal framework governing property and assets of 27 countries do not apply to all groups of women. In Latin America and the Caribbean, indigenous women are more likely to lack legal documentation, such as identification cards and birth certificates, which are required to purchase property and other non-land assets.

Figure 5.4. Legal framework on rights over non-land assets



Note: Share of countries per category of discrimination on rights over non-land assets.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Restricted property rights affect women living in urban areas. In urban areas, property rights are often linked to access to housing, representing a critical need particularly for low-income categories of women. More than 80% of urban women cannot fully exercise their legal rights to own and manage property and other non-land assets. Nearly 35% of women live in countries where they cannot claim property-ownership rights because laws either do not exist or they contain discriminatory clauses. Another 30% live in countries where social norms and practices hinder women's rights to acquire property, even when the law officially ensures equal property rights. In these circumstances, customary laws and regimes prevail over statutory laws, excluding women or limiting their access to property. The remaining 35% live in countries where women's equal rights to property are recognised, however urban women generally lack to the means to exercise them fully, including lack of both formal property registration systems and legal awareness of property rights.

Secure access to formal financial services

Key messages

- Political commitments have been translated into legal reforms providing women with equal rights to access formal financial services. Overall, 98% of countries guarantee women's equal access to credit and recognise that women have the

same rights as men to open a bank account; only three[9] countries deny women's legal rights to open a bank account.

- Access to formal and financial services, such as a bank account, does not fully address women's needs for financial inclusion. Improving women's economic empowerment requires guaranteeing women equal access to loans, building financial literacy and offering training opportunities that really understand and address the specificities of women's individual situations.
- In practice, women still face discrimination from customary laws preventing women from having financial responsibilities or requiring men's approval for certain institutional practices. For instance, several banks still require either the husband's or the father's signature to approve loan applications for women in Pakistan. Similarly, in Burkina Faso, while women are mainly involved in daily household expenditures, they are excluded from the decision-making process related to large household financial investments.
- Achieving financial inclusion for women is hampered by their restricted access to education, lack of asset ownership and collateral, as well as limits on their decision-making power within the family. Formal financial institutions often require land title, statutory proof of identity and collateral to receive a credit application. The difficulties implicit in the process often exclude illiterate and poorly educated people, categories in which women are disproportionally represented and, therefore, have a low likelihood to apply for and obtain loans. Where a male is the only recognised head of household, only a man can obtain credit based on the household as collateral.
- The best score in this indicator is shared by 38 countries. These countries guarantee the same rights to open a bank account in a formal financial institution and obtain credit to women and men in law and in practice. Furthermore, women have equal access to bank accounts in the practice.

Key policy recommendations

- Remove discriminatory legal provisions to help women gain access to financial services. In 2016, the government of the Democratic Republic of Congo amended the Family Code[10] to eliminate the need for a married woman to obtain her husband's permission to engage in any legal act, including opening a bank account and accessing credit.
- Adopt an integrated and multi-entry points approach. Far from being a sectoral issue, women's financial inclusion requires better access to assets ownership, education, birth registration and national identity documents, among other elements. For one in four women who do not have a bank account, the main reason is the lack of documentation to prove her identity.
- Distinguish women's status from their husband/fathers' authority. Involve the private sector to ensure no woman should need her guardian's agreement to open a bank account or apply for a credit, and increase the gender-responsiveness of their financial services (Box 5.5).

Box 5.5. International standards with reference to women's rights to formal financial services

Women's access to formal financial services is enshrined in a number of international treaties including:

- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) calls on State parties "to take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular: the right to bank loans, mortgages and other forms of financial credit" (Art. 13 (b));
- The Beijing Platform for Action (1995) states that governments should "promote and support women's self-employment and the development of small enterprises, and strengthen women's access to credit and capital on appropriate terms equal to those of men through the scaling-up of institutions dedicated to promoting women's entrepreneurship, including, as appropriate, non-traditional and mutual credit schemes, as well as innovative linkages with financial institutions (para.166 (a));
- In its general recommendation No. 25 (2004), the Committee of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women reminded that State parties should implement special temporary measures in the areas of credit and loans, as well as in legal awareness. Where necessary, such measures should be directed at women subjected to multiple discrimination, including rural women.

- Support financial and digital literacy programmes among women and girls in developing countries (Box 5.6). Promoting ICT training and financial literacy in school curriculums is central to women's financial empowerment. Through these programmes, women and girls improve their ability to make transactions, manage budgets and learn about the importance of saving money, even at a young age.
- Expand financial technologies (e.g. mobile banking) and increase mobile phone ownership among low-income and rural women, as well as female-headed households. For instance, there is a gap in mobile money accounts in Kenya, where women outstrip men by nearly 22%. Women also outpace men in the use of mobile banking facilities and services in Malawi and Zambia (AFI, 2017[11]).

Box 5.6. *Pro Mujer*: Invest in women, transform families and communities

Latin American and Caribbean countries have the highest level of income inequality in the world. Women who belong to minority, indigenous and marginalised groups face constraints in accessing financial services and business opportunities. In this context, *Pro Mujer* aims at empowering women in Latin American and the Caribbean through an innovative multi-sectoral approach: providing financial, health and skill-building services and activities to unlock women's full potential.

Since its creation in 1990 in Bolivia, *Pro Mujer* has disbursed more than USD 3 billion in small credits, delivered over 8 million health interventions and reached more than 2 million women across 5 countries: Argentina, Bolivia, Mexico, Nicaragua and Peru. In 2017, *Pro Mujer* expanded its efforts to continue empowering women through the establishment of partnerships and alliances across all sectors to ensure the provision of a wide range of services and products such as digital literacy, gender-based violence prevention and entrepreneurship training and micro-insurance (Pro Mujer, 2018[12]).

Source: Pro Mujer (2018), *Pro Mujer 2018 At a Glance*, https://promujer.org/content/uploads/2019/01/REPORTE-ANUAL-2018.pdf (accessed on 31 January 2019).

Results

Women's financial inclusion is crucial to achieving sustained and inclusive economic growth by 2030. Building inclusive economies involves women's active participation in all spheres, not only as beneficiaries, but as important actors for social and economic change. Women's access to formal financial services is a fundamental condition for improving their empowerment opportunities, offers freedom to take ownership of income-generating activities and enhances their decision-making power over their assets.

Laws and policies globally promote women's equal access to formal financial services. The legal frameworks of most economies (177) provide married women with the same rights as married men to open a bank account at a formal financial institution and almost all countries (178) guarantee women's equal access to credit. Governments are taking steps to improve women's financial inclusion: 60% of countries have promoted gender-sensitive measures to expand women's access to formal financial services.

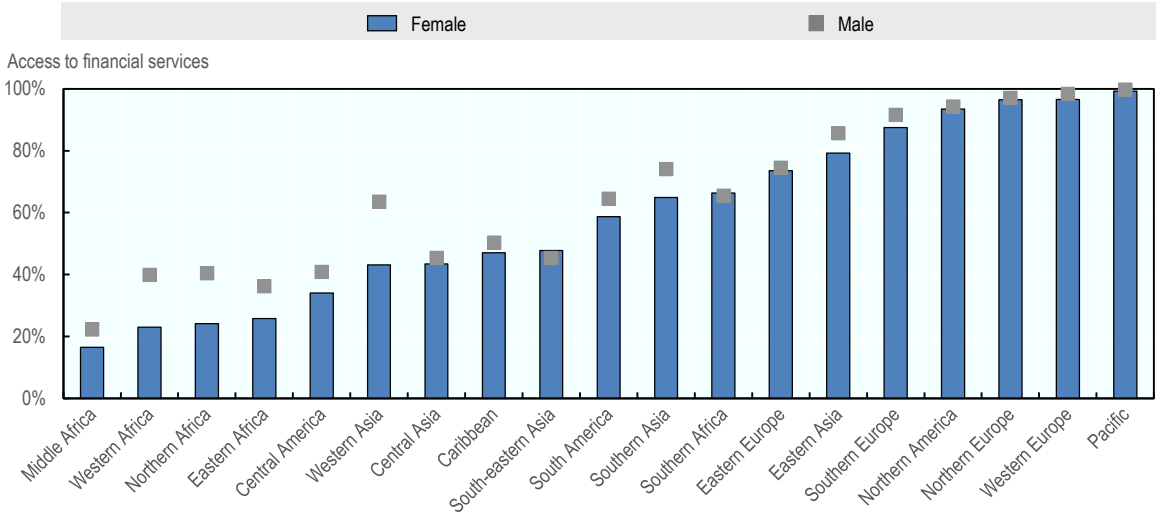
Nonetheless, women still face barriers to financial services in certain countries. For instance, three countries still require the approval of a male head of household or guardian to open a bank account. To date, the customary, religious or traditional practices or laws of 33 economies still discriminate against women's legal right to open a bank account at a formal institution and obtain credit.

Despite huge disparities across countries, on balance, women benefit from improved access to a bank account. Globally, 45% of all account holders are women, ranging from 13% in Yemen to 56% in the Philippines. In Europe, bank-account ownership is equal for women and men. However, women continue to lag behind in other regions: 40% and 45% of account holders are women in Africa and Asia, respectively (Figure 5.5). In some countries, there is a reversed gender gap in bank account ownership. For instance, in Argentina, Belize and Russia, women have more bank accounts than their male counterparts. While women's financial inclusion has increased in many countries, a global gender gap of nearly 7 percentage points persists since 2011 and globally, 56% of all unbanked adults are women (World Bank, 2017[13]).

Relative equality in access to bank account hides substantial gender gaps in financial inclusion. Women's share in access to a bank account has been used in the SIGI as a proxy to measure discriminatory practices in access to formal financial services. This choice relates to the high availability, reliability and comparability of the data across countries. However, there are shortcomings in using this proxy: financial inclusion goes beyond access to a bank account, especially in the poorest households where 46% of adults have bank accounts. Saving patterns, access to formal credit and size of the loans

vary highly across genders. In developing economies for example, men are 6 percentage points more likely than women to save at a financial institution (World Bank, 2017[13]).

Figure 5.5. The gender gap in accessing financial services



Note: This figure presents the gender gap in access to financial services, as measured by the percentage of individuals aged 15 and above reporting having an account by themselves or together with someone else at a bank or another type of financial institution by sex.
Source: World Bank (2018), *Global Findex Database*, https://globalfindex.worldbank.org/ (accessed 12 November 2018)

Access to credit is one of the largest challenges for women working in the informal sector and in rural areas because many banks tend to require significant collateral, such as real-estate guarantees. The fact that women are usually not officially landowners, even when they are the ones actually working the land, means that they are not able to access formal financial institutions. Rural women often lack official documentation (e.g. identification cards, birth certificates), which also directly hinders their ability to access formal financial services. There are also geographical and financial limitations to women's access to credit such as distance, lack of transport, banking fees and other associated costs.

While the number of female-run enterprises is steadily increasing, female entrepreneurs continue to face an uphill battle because of restricted access to formal financial services. In 2016, approximately 163 million women were starting or operating new businesses across 74 countries (GEM, 2017[14]). In developing countries, women-owned firms are growing: there are roughly 8 to 10 million formal small and medium enterprises (SMEs) with at least one woman owner (IFC, 2014[15]). However, women entrepreneurs are more likely than their male counterparts to be in the informal economy or in traditional female sectors (World Bank, 2014[16]), decreasing their likelihood of benefiting from formal financial services. Furthermore, lack of collateral used to access formal financial services is an important barrier to the growth of woman-owned businesses and women's entrepreneurship. Female entrepreneurs can only have access to small, short-term loans, compared to their male counterparts (GEM, 2017[14]).

Workplace rights

Key messages

- Despite legislative efforts, discriminatory laws continue to curb women's access to employment. Nearly half of all countries (88) proscribe women from entering certain professions and in 51 countries women cannot work the same night hours as men. In addition, in 24 countries women need to have the permission of their husbands or legal guardians to choose a profession or work.
- Most jurisdictions offer some form of paid maternity leave, but there is largely a failure to recognise the benefits of other forms of child-related leave. While paid maternity leave is guaranteed in all but two countries, only 91 offer paid paternity leave. Implementing paid paternity and parental-leave policies have benefits for all: these schemes can improve the well-being of parents and children, the increase the likelihood that women will return to work and advance on their career paths and they help tackle traditional parenting norms and gender inequality.
- Social norms defining gender roles are still biased towards a male-breadwinner scheme. Social norms still consider caring responsibilities to be a female prerogative, preventing men from enjoying their paternity leave (which is often only a few days, in any case). As a result, uptake remains low. Moreover, women are still not expected to work outside the home, especially when they have children. Even when there has been a shift in gender norms related to the increasing awareness of women's economic contribution to the family, women are relegated to low-skill and low-paid jobs. Women only hold one in four managerial positions globally and under one in seven in Eastern Asia, Northern Africa, Southern Asia and Western Asia.
- Latvia is the best performer globally: women and men have equal rights to work, to have fair, safe and healthy working conditions, and to receive fair work remuneration. The law prohibits an employer to ask about pregnancy or family status during a job interview. In addition, paid maternal leave is available for 16 weeks and the duration of paid paternity leave is 10 days. Paid parental leave be taken by the mother and the father for a period not exceeding 18 months. Women account for over 46% of all managerial positions in Latvia.

Key policy recommendations

- Remove discriminatory legal provisions affecting women's equal access to employment (Box 5.7). For instance, lists of banned professions for non-pregnant and non-nursing women should be eliminated. These discriminatory labour laws deprive women from freely choosing their profession or type of job and from exercising their legal right to work. It also reinforces the idea that women should be confined to their domestic and reproductive roles in society. In the Kyrgyz Republic, women are excluded from up to 400 jobs and tasks. Women are not allowed to engage in certain manufacturing jobs, performing heavy work in the construction sector or operating heavy machinery (EBRD, 2015[17]).
- Eliminate the vertical gender-segregation at work. Develop policies and programmes in partnership with the private sector to ensure equal access to companies' boards and managerial positions.

- Implement measures aimed at promoting work-life balance such as free or affordable early childcare services, particularly for low-income families, and flexible work arrangements (e.g. flexible hours or flexi-time schemes) for both fathers and mothers.
- Provide employees with paid maternity, paternity or parental leave benefits and progressively increase the length of these entitlements. Longer child-related schemes lessen the disparities in leave-taking between low- and high-income families and reduce the burden of women's unpaid care and domestic work.
- Accompany changes in labour laws with national awareness-raising campaigns to help women and the community generally better understand their workplace rights.
- Encourage men to take paternity and parental leave entitlements. Promote awareness-raising campaigns about healthy masculinities and the importance of equally shared parenting responsibilities. Partnerships between the private sector and CSOs can have a major role in changing attitudes on caregiving. For instance, Dove and MenCare have recently launched a global media campaign to tackle restrictive masculine stereotypes around parenting and child rearing.
- Address social norms restricting women's economic contribution. Promote awareness of the benefits for children and the family of a fulfilled mother, including both home makers and mothers who work outside the home. Challenge social norms that assume that men should be favoured when jobs are scarce or that men make better managers than women.

Box 5.7. International standards concerning women's workplace rights

Women's rights in the workplace have been guaranteed through numerous international agreements and conventions, including:

- The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979) calls on State parties to "take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:
  - The right to work as an inalienable right of all human beings;
  - The right to the same employment opportunities, including the application of the same criteria for selection in matters of employment;
  - The right to free choice of profession and employment, the right to promotion, job security and all benefits and conditions of service and the right to receive vocational training and retraining, including apprenticeships, advanced vocational training and recurrent training;
  - The right to equal remuneration, including benefits, and to equal treatment in respect of work of equal value, as well as equality of treatment in the evaluation of the quality of work";

- The Beijing Platform for Action (1995) further underlines the need to "eliminate discriminatory practices by employers and take appropriate measures in consideration of women's reproductive role and functions, such as the denial of employment and dismissal due to pregnancy or breast-feeding, or requiring proof of contraceptive use, and take effective measures to ensure that pregnant women, women on maternity leave or women re-entering the labour market after childbearing are not discriminated against (para. 165 (c);
- Core International Labour Organisation (ILO) Conventions establish key labour standards that promote effective equality between women and men in employment, including:
  - C100 – Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100);
  - C111 – Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111);
  - C156 – Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156);
  - C183 – Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183);
  - C189 – Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189);
- The Sustainable Development Goals Frameworks (2015) recognises the importance to "achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, and equal work for work of equal value by 2030" (target 8.5). Furthermore, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development set two indicators (8.5.1 and 8.5.2) to measure and monitor progress in this area.

Results

Governments have made progress towards improving women's economic and employment conditions under labour laws, but enforcement remains an important challenge. Some 92% of countries have ratified ILO Convention No. 100 on Equal Remuneration (1951) and 82% have introduced legislation on equal remuneration for work of equal value (Box 5.9). In addition, 90% of countries prohibit discrimination in employment based on sex. There are specific bodies tasked with receiving, investigating, adjudicating and enforcing complaints based on discrimination in employment in 107 countries. However, only 27 countries legally require companies to report on how they pay women and men and only 20 of these countries impose penalties for companies in case of gender discrimination in recruitment and promotions.

Discriminatory laws and practices continue to impede equal employment opportunities. While discrimination on the basis of sex in employment is prohibited in 90% of countries, the legal framework of 28% of these countries is comprehensive, specifically covering: non-discrimination on the basis of sex in in job advertisements, selection criteria, recruitment, hiring, promotions, training, assignments and termination of contracts. Legal restrictions range from laws prohibiting women from working the same night hours as men (51 countries) to barring them from pursuing the same professions as men (88 countries). Furthermore, in 24 countries women need to have the permission of their husband or legal guardian to choose a profession/occupation or work. In 113 countries,

customary, religious or traditional practices or laws discriminate against women's legal right to enter certain professions and 12 countries do not protect all groups of women.

Box 5.8. Moving towards gender-neutral parental-leave schemes in Sweden

In 1974, Sweden became the first country in the world to introduce gender-neutral parental benefits. Paid paternity leave is mandated for a period of 10 days after the childbirth or the day the parents receive the child in case of adoption. In addition, parents are eligible for 480 days of parental leave in total when the child is born or adopted, including 420 days paid at nearly 80% of earnings. Unemployed parents are also entitled to paid parental leave. 90 days of leave are reserved for each parent exclusively and cannot be transferred. Parental leave benefits can be taken until a child reaches eight years old. The leave entitlement applies to each child, allowing the accumulation of leave from several children. In addition, a "Gender Equality Bonus" (2008) offers an economic incentive for families to divide parental leave more equally between the mother and the father.

Box 5.9. The principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value

The principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value is set out in ILO Convention No. 100 (1951). It calls on State members to "ensure the application to all workers of the principle of equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value". To date, 173 countries have ratified this convention.

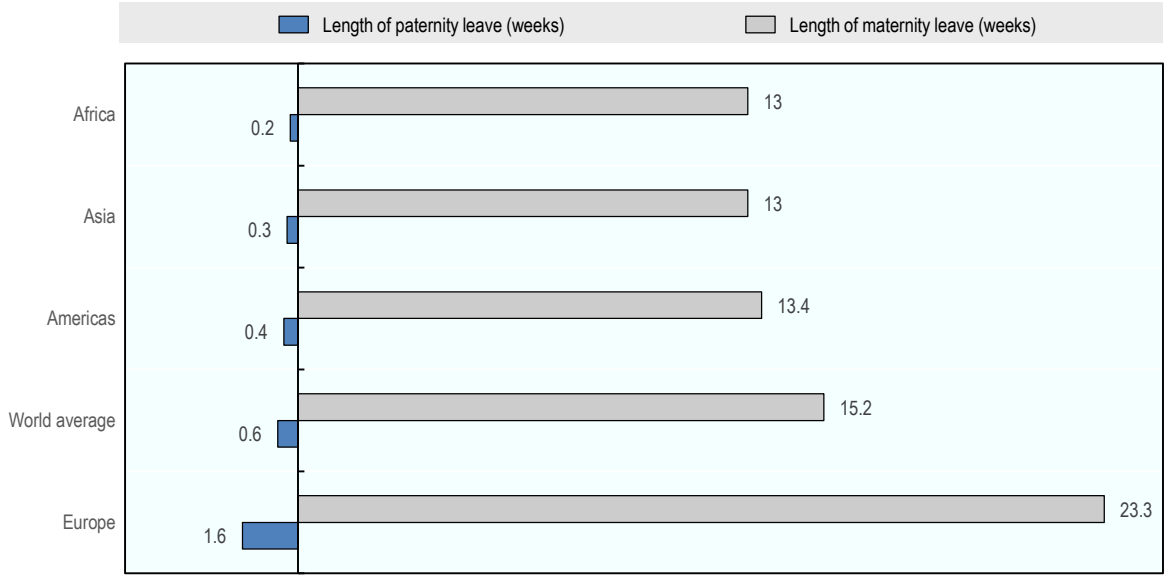
Considering the horizontal gender segregation of most labour markets and that minimum wages in female-predominant sectors are lower in many cases, countries are recommended to respect the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value rather than equal pay for equal work. While the former covers broader cases where women and men carry out different work in different sectors, the latter limits the application of the equal pay principle for work done by two individuals in the same area of activity and within the same working unit. Examples of jobs that are of equal value include: cleaners (mostly women) and drivers (mostly men); social affairs managers (mostly women) and engineers (mostly men).

Men still dominate managerial positions around the world. In 156 countries where data is available, 24% of all managers are women, ranging from 1% in Jordan to 59% in Jamaica. While gender equality in decision-making positions in business is gaining ground in the Americas and Europe, where women respectively hold 39% and 35% of all managerial positions, African and Asian countries still lag behind with 23% and 17%, respectively. Five of the top ten countries with the highest percentage of women in managerial positions are located in Latin America and the Caribbean.

Most governments have adopted measures to offer paid maternity-leave schemes, but women's employment protection is still weak (Figure 5.6). Almost all countries require employers to offer paid maternity leave. To date, 99% of countries guarantee paid maternity leave schemes, but only 53% of countries fully meet the requirements of ILO Convention No. 183 on Maternity Protection (2000) and provide for at least 14 weeks of

paid leave. Furthermore, 20% of countries have ratified ILO Convention No. 183 on Maternity Protection (2000) and 92% protect women's employment security when they are on maternity leave. However, only 26% of countries prohibit employers from asking about a woman's pregnancy or her intention to have children during recruitment or promotion processes.

Figure 5.6. Length of paid maternity leave and paid paternity leave by region



Note: Number of weeks of paid maternity/parental leave available to mothers and paid paternity leave reserved for fathers.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Family-friendly policies need to be adopted to promote gender equality in the workplace as well as in the family sphere. Paternity leave and paternal leave schemes are important measures to encourage fathers to share caring responsibilities, allow mothers to return to and advance in the labour force, as well as challenge prevailing gender stereotypes and parenting norms. Globally, paternity leave is available in 103 countries, among which, 91 have paid entitlements. Only 39 countries grant paid parental leave, mostly in high-income countries. However, men are unlikely to take all, if any, of their paternity or parental leave entitlements (OECD, 2017[18]).

Notes

[1] However, we have to acknowledge the shortcomings of this indicator due to data scarcity. Indeed, women share of bank account is used to proxy gender inequality in the practice, as this is the only variable available, comparable and reliable for cross-country comparisons. First, both women and men in developing countries have low access to formal financial services, explaining low levels of discrimination. Second, having a bank account does not necessary lead to better access to formal credit.

[2] 13 Goals: 1, 2, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16; 17.

[3] Indicator 1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognised documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure.

[4] Indicator 5.a.1 – (a) Percentage of people with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land (out of total agricultural population), by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure.

[5] Coexistence of statutory and customary laws.

[6] Ecuador, Honduras, Malawi, Rwanda.

[7] Marital property refers to property acquired by either spouse during marriage. This is also called matrimonial assets, matrimonial property or family assets. There are different legal regimes that governments may implement concerning marital property. Separate property regimes mean that property acquired by one spouse during marriage remains the sole property of that spouse. A community property regime means that all property acquired during marriage by either spouse belongs equally by both spouses.

[8] E.g. women living with HIV/AIDS, women with disabilities, rural women, older women, female-headed households, indigenous women and women belonging to minority groups.

[9] Chad, Guinea Bissau and Niger.

[10] Law 16-008, 2016.

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Chapter 6. Restricted civil liberties

This chapter presents an overview of women's restricted civil liberties. It examines discriminatory social institutions – formal and informal laws, social norms and practices – that obstruct women's access to, participation and voice in the public and social spheres across 180 countries, covering areas such as citizenship rights, political voice, freedom of movement and access to justice. The chapter also seeks to provide policy makers with the necessary tools and evidence to design effective gender-responsive policies in order to strengthen women's political participation and civil liberties.



The *restricted civil liberties* (RCL) sub-index captures discriminatory laws and practices restricting women's access to, participation and voice in the public and social spheres. It encompasses laws, practices and social norms that restrict the mobility or movement of women and girls and limit their access to the public space, including their ability to travel or apply for a passport.

The civil liberties sub-index is composed of four indicators:

- "citizenship rights" captures the level of legal discrimination against women regarding their citizenship rights and ability to exercise these rights in practice, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "political voice" captures the level of legal discrimination against women with respect to their political participation and rights to vote, as well as their representation in national parliaments, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "freedom of movement" captures the formal and informal restrictions that limit women's freedom of movement and access to public space, such as restricted ability to apply for a passport or travel outside the country, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.
- "access to justice" captures discrimination against women's rights to access justice and opportunity to benefit from justice systems, including religious and customary courts, taking into account non-statutory (societal) discrimination against women in traditional, religious and customary laws and practices.

Key messages

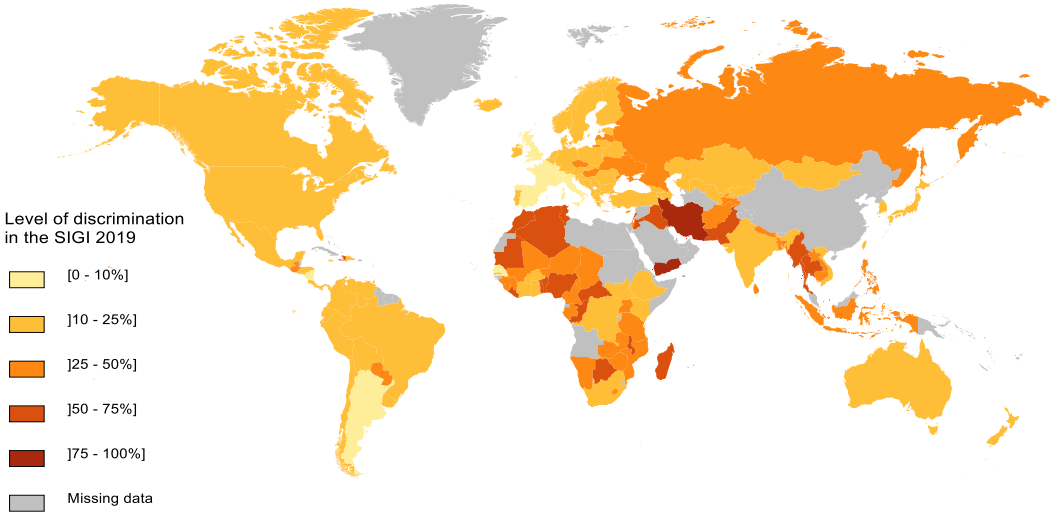
- Discriminatory social institutions governing women's role and access to the public sphere still restrict women's rights and empowerment opportunities:
  - The global level of discrimination in the civil liberties sphere is 29%.
- Legal discrimination still limits women's citizenship rights in some countries:
  - In 49 countries women do not have the same legal rights as men to confer their nationality on their children or non-citizen spouse.
- Threats to women's freedom of movement differ according to the region:
  - In Europe and North America, feelings of insecurity related to violence against women can seriously restrict women's movements;
  - In some countries, the law restricts women's rights to travel outside the country;
  - Customary laws may still impede women's rights to choose where to live, whether they can travel to visit their parents, or other travel considered normal for men.
- Political commitments have been translated into legal reforms protecting and promoting women's political voice:
  - In almost all countries, women have the right to vote, to stand for election and to hold political office;
  - Some 111 countries have specific measures, such as quotas, to promote gender parity in politics.
- Despite specific measures to support gender parity in the political sphere, discriminatory attitudes call into question their effectiveness:
  - Women hold fewer than one parliamentary seat in four;
  - Almost half the global population think men make better political leaders than women do.
- Women's access to justice is restricted by customary laws and statutory justice systems are not always able to understand and address women's specific needs:
  - The procedural rules in civil, criminal and family courts/tribunals recognise the particular interests of women and girls in only 61 countries.

How can governments effectively tackle discriminatory social institutions restricting women's civil liberties?

- Shift social norms related to women's political leadership and introduce measures to strengthen women's leadership abilities;
- Eliminate formal and informal laws that make a woman's legal status dependent on her relationship to a man;
- Guarantee women's security in public spaces; and
- Promote gender-responsiveness in all justice systems.

The influence of women's rights movements has contributed to securing women's civil liberties, but the struggle needs to continue. The SIGI result for the RCL sub-index indicates a global level of discrimination of 29%, ranging from 4% in Senegal to 76% in Yemen (Box 6.1). This score shows that legal reforms and changes in discriminatory social norms are required to guarantee that women have the same rights and opportunities as men to access, participate and be heard in the public and social spheres. Europe (16%) and the Americas (20%) are the regions that have achieved the most progress towards parity. More urgent action is needed in Asia (36%) and in Africa (38%).

Figure 6.1. Level of discrimination in the restricted civil liberties sub-index

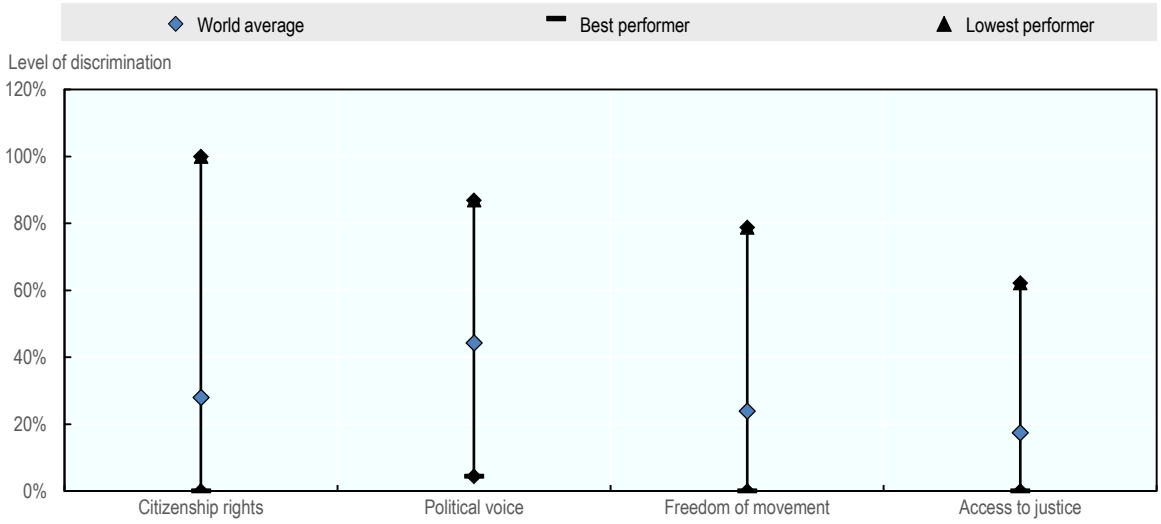


Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Countries must take action to strengthen women's political voice. The impact of discriminatory social institutions restricting women's civil liberties is particularly acute in the political sphere. The global levels of discrimination in the other three indicators (access to justice, freedom of movement and citizenship rights) are 17%, 24% and 28%, respectively, but the global level of discrimination in political voice is 44% (Figure 6.2). This is particularly problematic because women's exclusion from politics and from decision-making structures can become self-perpetuating and reinforce gender inequalities in other areas

Senegal is the best performer in the restricted civil liberties dimension. The laws regulating citizenship rights and access to justice are gender-neutral and no customary laws infringe upon these rights in practice. The quotas in place to promote women's political representation have been translated into practice and 42% of MPs are women. Women have the same freedom of movement as men but they represent 55% of people who do not feel safe alone at night in public places (compared to 66% at the world level).

Figure 6.2. SIGI results in the four restricted civil liberties indicators



Note: Global average, best and lowest performers in the four restricted civil liberties indicators.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Citizenship rights

Key messages

- Historically, many states maintained that a woman acquired her legal status through her relationship with a man. This position is still reflected in the laws of 49 countries, where women do not have the same rights as men to confer their nationality on their children or on a non-citizen spouse. Only three countries[1] have amended discriminatory provisions in this area since 2014.
- This legal discrimination compounds gender inequalities in other areas. For example, women who lost their nationality of birth upon marriage face more challenges in trying to leave abusive marriages or in claiming child custody. Gender discrimination in laws on citizenship is also a major cause of statelessness among adults and children alike.
- In 114 countries, women do not face discrimination in this indicator (SIGI=0%), highlighting the feasibility of enforcing legal reforms in this area.

Key policy recommendations

- Grant women the same rights as men to acquire, change and retain their nationalities, irrespective of their marital status or group of origin, and to transfer their nationality to their children or their non-citizen spouse (Box 6.2). Ensure these rights are enforced in administrative practices.
- Ensure that all reforms recognise retroactive citizenship to all individuals born prior to the reforms' implementation. For example, the 2005 reform to the Algerian Nationality Code introduced a provision granting Algerian nationality to any children born to an Algerian mother or father (Art. 6). This revised provision

applied with retroactive effect: individuals born to Algerian mothers and foreign fathers before the reform are also considered nationals.

- Facilitate marriage and birth registration procedures, especially in rural and remote areas, to ensure that individuals can provide proof of their nationality. Measures to facilitate birth registration procedures may consist in allowing registration on line (e.g. Chinese Taipei), by mail (e.g. Sri Lanka) or in hospitals (e.g. El Salvador), authorising traditional birth attendants to issue birth documents (e.g. The Gambia) or granting an additional delay for people living in remote areas (e.g. Gabon).

Box 6.1. International standards concerning nationality rights

The right to a nationality is paramount to the realisation of other fundamental rights such as education, social security, employment or political participation. Equality between men and women in this regard is mandatory under a number of international agreements:

- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) states that "everyone has the right to a nationality" and that "no one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality" (art. 15);
- The Convention on the Nationality of Married Women (1957) specifies that "neither the celebration nor the dissolution of a marriage (…) shall automatically affect the nationality of the wife" (art. 1);
- The CEDAW (1979) explicitly calls upon States to "grant women equal rights with men to acquire, change or retain their nationality", as well as to "grant women equal rights with men with respect to the nationality of their children" (art. 9);
- Resolution 32/7 adopted by the UN Human Rights Council (2016) urges states to "adopt and implement nationality legislation consistent with their obligations under international law, including with respect to the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women and girls in nationality-related matters" (para. 3).

Results

In line with international recommendations (Box 6.1), most countries grant women and men equal nationality rights. In 114 countries, women enjoy the same nationality rights as men, regardless of their civil status, origin or ethnic group, and customary, traditional or religious practices do not infringe upon these rights in practice. Three countries have removed discriminatory provisions from their legislation since 2014: Niger (since 2014), Brazil and Ecuador (since 2017) so that women can now transfer their nationality to their non-citizen spouse in the same way as men can. In addition, in Madagascar (since 2016) and Sierra Leone (since 2017), women can confer nationality on their children in the same way as men, even though they still face discrimination in other aspects of this indicator.

However, the laws of 49 countries still discriminate against women's rights to confer their nationality on their children or non-citizen spouse. Historically, many states adopted the position that a woman's legal status is acquired through her relationship to a man – her father or male guardian, then her husband (Equality Now, 2016[1]). This situation is

reflected in the laws of 20 countries where different rules apply, depending on a woman's marital status. Furthermore, in 29 countries, traditional views of the man as the head of household and the person who would make important decisions for the family still fuel discriminatory legal provisions that assign the father's nationality to his legally recognised children.

Legal provisions restricting women's rights to pass on their nationality still exist in almost all parts of the world including: sub-Saharan Africa (19 countries), Western Asia (12), Northern Africa (5), South-Eastern Asia (5), Southern Asia (4), Latin America and the Caribbean (3) and the Pacific (1). These restrictions can take many forms. For example, women may face additional requirements to be able to pass on their nationality to children born abroad (e.g. Barbados, Malaysia), or married women may not be allowed to transfer their nationality to their non-citizen spouse (e.g. Nigeria, United Arab Emirates). In addition, in 28 countries, women do not have equal rights as men to acquire, change or retain their nationality. For example, women may lose their nationality of origin upon marrying a foreigner (e.g. Iran, Singapore), or women who lost their nationality of origin through marriage cannot regain it on the termination of marriage (e.g. Egypt, Iraq).

Box 6.2. The key role of women's rights advocates for successful legal reform in Senegal

In 2013, the Senegalese parliament amended the nationality law to grant women the same rights as men to transfer their nationality to their children and non-citizen spouse. This amendment was made possible by the implication and commitment of a variety of actors from civil society and the government. Civil society organisations advocating women's rights played an instrumental role in drawing public and political attention to the issue. For example, the *Association des Juristes Sénégalaises* revised the nationality law and sent a reform proposal to the government as early as 2005. In 2010, Senegal introduced a law mandating gender balance in candidate lists for national elections. Following the 2012 election, female representation in the parliament increased from 23% to 43%, which entailed stronger parliamentary support for reforming the nationality law. In 2012, the government formed a task force to draft a bill. Women's rights and international organisations provided comments and recommendations on the bill, which was passed unanimously by the parliament in 2013 (UNHCR, 2014[2]).

Source: UNHCR (2014), *Preventing and Reducing Statelessness. Good Practices in Promoting and Adopting Gender Equality in Nationality Laws*, https://www.unhcr.org/en-us/protection/statelessness/531a001c9/preventing-reducing-statelessness-good-practices-promoting-adopting-gender.html (accessed on 27 January 2019).

Political voice

Key messages

- Countries are increasingly acting to strengthen women's political voice. Legal measures to promote gender-balanced representation in elected public offices exist at the national level in 104 countries and at the local level in 93 countries. Eight additional countries[2] have introduced this type of measure since 2014.
- Special measures to enhance women's political voice tend to have no major impact if they are not accompanied by other broader measures that reinforce

women's positions in social institutions. Women occupy an average of 26% of parliamentary seats in countries that established quotas or other special measures, compared with 22% in countries where no special measures exist.[3]

- Negative attitudes towards women as political and community leaders reduce their participation in politics. Almost half of the world's population (47%) believe that men make better political leaders than women do. In countries where this percentage is higher, fewer women have been elected to parliament. The low representation of women in public decision-making roles can become self-perpetuating by influencing the perceptions of women and their ability to participate in public life because of the shortage of female role models.
- Women still have fewer opportunities than men to defend their rights. Fewer than 24% of parliamentary seats at the global level were occupied by women in 2018, up from 22% in 2014. Rwanda, Cuba and Bolivia are the only countries in the world that attained or surpassed parity. Only 49 countries have at least reached the 30% mark for female representation in the parliament.
- Nicaragua is the best performer globally: 46% of the members of the Nicaraguan parliament are women, a 50% gender quota was introduced in 2012, mandating alternation of men and women in candidate lists for national and local elections, and some political parties also adopted voluntary quotas.

Key policy recommendations

- Introduce temporary special measures such as quotas, reserved seats and incentives for political parties to include women on candidate lists to fast-track women's representation in national parliaments and local decision-making entities. These measures must be supplemented with rules concerning candidates' rank order (women must be placed in winnable positions) and supported by dedicated funding and accompanied by enforcement and monitoring mechanisms. Sanctions for non-compliance, in particular rejection of candidate's lists, have proven more effective than financial incentives.
- Implement measures to overcome discriminatory perceptions of women's ability to be as competent as men as political leaders. Promote awareness and recognition of the role women play in all policy- and decision-making processes and spotlight female role models. Encourage girls' and women's participation in schools, universities, corporations and CSOs to foster their leadership skills and highlight their presence in decision-making spheres.
- Create an enabling political environment free from gender-based violence and discrimination. Introduce laws to address violence against women in political life (as has been done, for example, in Bolivia and Mexico).
- Provide leadership training for all women, especially the most marginalised and those facing intersectional discrimination (Box 6.4).

Box 6.3. International standards concerning equal access to publicly elected bodies and balanced representation of men and women in public life

Women's presence in politics and government decision-making structures is positive for democratic governance and for education, infrastructure and health standards. This is acknowledged by the international community:

- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) states that "everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country" and "to equal access to public service in his country" (art. 21);
- The Convention on the Political Rights of Women (1952) establishes that women shall be "entitled to vote in all elections", "eligible for election to all publicly elected bodies" and "entitled to hold public office and to exercise all public functions" on equal terms with men (art. 1, 2 & 3);
- The CEDAW (1979) calls on State parties to "take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country" (art. 7). In its General Recommendation No. 23 (1997), it further encourages "the use of temporary special measures in order to give full effect to articles 7 and 8";
- The Beijing Platform for Action (1995) lists women in power and decision-making among its twelve Strategic Objectives. Specifically, it enjoins states to "take measures […] that encourage political parties to integrate women in elective and non-elective public positions in the same proportion and at the same level as men" (Strategic Objective G.1.b);
- The United Nations General Assembly Resolution 66/130 on women and political participation (2012) calls upon States to "enhance the political participation of women" (para 3);
- SDG Target 5.5 explicitly calls on States to "ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life".

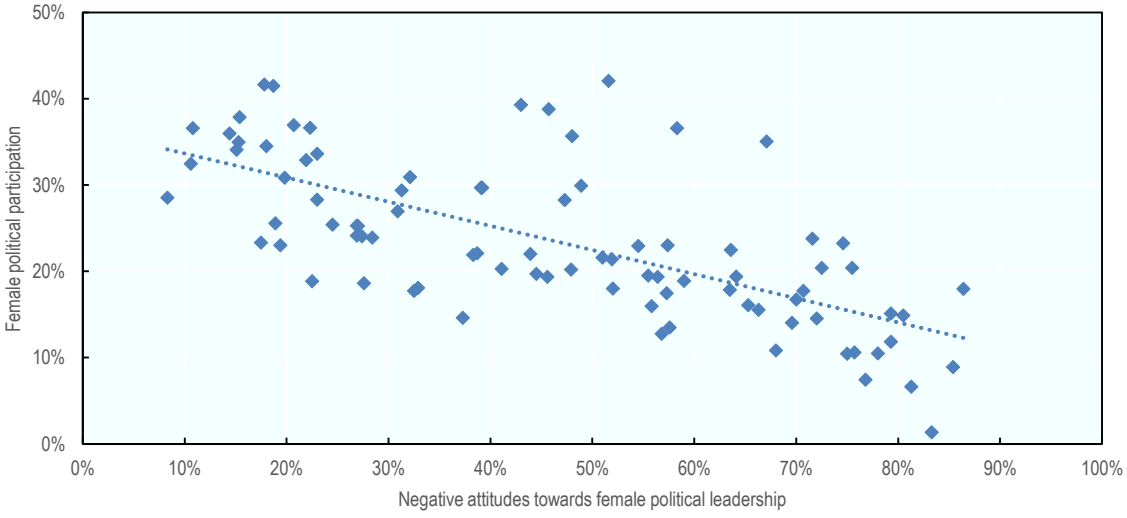
Results

Countries are increasingly taking action to strengthen women's political voice as required by international treaties (Box 6.3). Since 2014, all countries have provided equal voting rights to women and men in all types of elections. In 179 countries, women have the same rights as men to hold public and political office in the parliament, the public administration and the government. To help ensure that these rights translate into gender-balanced representation in elected public office, 111 countries also instituted measures to promote women's political participation. In 104 countries, the law establishes quotas, incentives for political parties to include women on candidate lists or other special measures to increase female representation at the national level. In 93 countries, such measures exist at the local level and 11 countries have newly introduced this type of measure to promote women's political participation since 2014.

Discriminatory social norms limit women's participation in political and public life. Almost half of the world's population (47%) believe that men make better political

leaders than women do. These negative attitudes towards women as political and community leaders are associated with their lower participation in politics (Figure 6.3). In Kuwait, for example, 76% of the population hold discriminatory views towards female political leadership and just over 3% of members of parliament are women. However, non-discriminatory social norms, alone, do not ensure gender balance in elected political office. In Uruguay, over 90% of the population do not think men are better political leaders but women only hold 20% of parliamentary seats. Other barriers include the disproportionate burden on women of domestic responsibilities, intersectional discrimination (see also Chapter 2), a lack of female role models, or violence against women in public and political life. In the United Kingdom, a survey of girls aged 7-21 revealed that 34% of them are discouraged from entering politics because of the way female politicians are depicted in the media and 32% because of reports of high levels of sexual harassment (Girlguiding, 2018[3]).

Figure 6.3. Opinions of female political leadership vs female political participation



Note: Estimated female political participation by level of negative attitudes towards female political leadership (measured as the percentage of the population declaring that men make better political leaders than women do), controlling for income level, presence of quotas and sub-regional characteristics.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Women's voices remain less heard than men's in most countries. At the global level, women occupy 24% of parliamentary seats, up from 22% in 2014. Rwanda, Bolivia and Cuba are the only countries in the world that have attained or surpassed parity. At the opposite end of the spectrum, in Papua New Guinea and Yemen, all parliamentarians are men. Only 49 countries have at least reached the 30% mark for female representation in the parliament identified in the Beijing Platform for Action. The region with the largest share of female members of parliaments is Europe (29%), followed by the Americas (28%), Africa (23%) and Asia (19%). At the sub-regional level, female representation in politics is the highest in the Caribbean (35%) and the lowest in Western Asia (14%).

Box 6.4. Increase women's political participation in Portugal through training and awareness raising activities

In 2009, women represented 27% of members of the Portuguese parliament and 7% of the country's mayors. To increase their representation, the government launched a nation-wide campaign to raise awareness of the equal capacities of women to be elected leaders. The campaign comprised a tool kit providing guidance on training to increase women's communication and leadership skills, awareness raising sessions across the country and a partnership with youth associations encouraging young women to take part in public and political life. It was followed by a separate media campaign to encourage women to be politically active and the government published educational guides providing teachers with pedagogical support to implement activities to tackle gender stereotypes in school (EIGE, 2016[4]).

Source: EIGE (2016), "Advancing gender equality in political decision-making: Good practices", http://dx.doi.org/10.2839/674468.

Freedom of movement

Key messages

- In one in four countries, women are still not legally permitted to travel by themselves. In 45 countries, women cannot legally apply for a passport or travel outside the country in the same way as men. Iraq and Senegal have been the only countries since 2014 to remove discriminatory requirements regarding passport and ID applications, respectively.
- Discriminatory practices often restrict women's ability to move safely and freely. In 145 countries, women have the same rights as men to access public space. Yet, gender-neutral policies are not sufficient to enforce women's rights in this area: in 88% of countries worldwide, women are more likely than men to feel unsafe walking alone in the area where they live and 23% of married women across 67 countries depend on their husband's permission to visit their own family.
- The gender gap in feeling secure is larger in high-income countries. Women represent 66% of the people who do not feel safe walking alone in their neighbourhoods in high-income countries, compared to 58% in low-income countries. This proportion reaches 91% in Finland.
- 11 countries have the best score in this indicator, 10 of which are in Africa. They all provide women with the same rights as men to travel and obtain travel-related documents. They perform relatively better than the rest of the world because women and men in these countries express the same level of concern about their safety in public places (no gender gap). However, 40% of people in these countries do not feel safe in their neighbourhood at night.

Key policy recommendations

- Recognise equal rights for women and men to obtain travel documents and to travel abroad, ensuring that women are able to exercise these rights in practice.

- Guarantee that women's voices are heard and their special needs taken into account in spatial planning processes (e.g. in Vienna, Austria, the city planning strategy has adopted a gender perspective since the 1990s).
- Encourage the positive evolution of social norms around women in public spaces through awareness-raising campaigns around gender-based violence, harassment and harmful stereotypes; and promote women's secure access to public places and services (Box 6.6).

Box 6.5. International standards concerning freedom of movement

Freedom of movement is a universal human right recognised in:

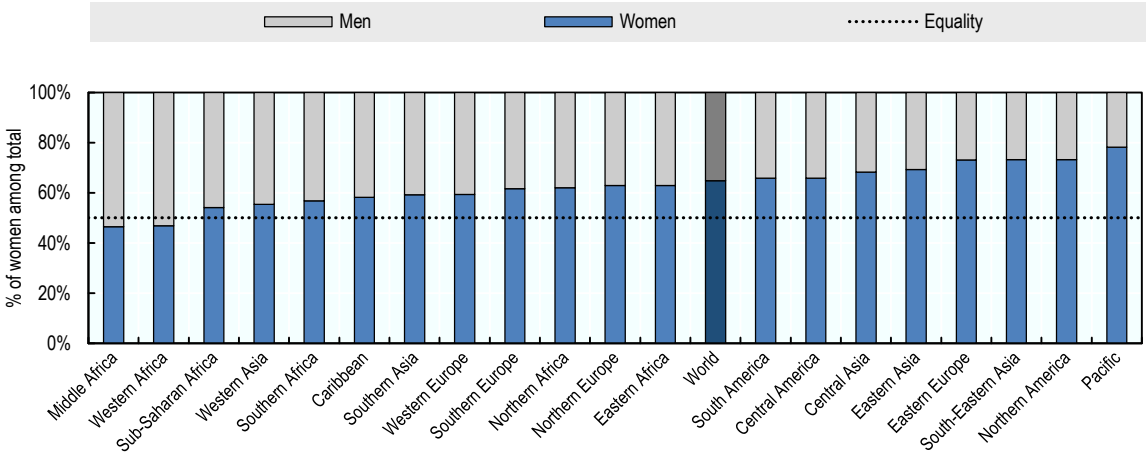
- The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), which states that "everyone has the right to freedom of movement" and "to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country" (art. 13);
- The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966) reaffirms that everyone shall "have the right to liberty of movement and freedom to choose his residence" and "be free to leave any country" (art. 12);
- The CEDAW (1979) calls on state parties to "accord to men and women the same rights with regards to the law relating to the movement of persons and the freedom to choose their residence and domicile" (art. 15);
- More recently, the necessity to "provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces" (SDG Target 11.7) and to "significantly reduce all forms of violence and related death rates everywhere" (SDG Target 16.1) has been integrated to the SDGs framework.

Results

In 52 countries, women face more restrictions than men or depend on their permission to travel. Historically, a woman's right to travel depended on her male relatives. For example, in many countries, married women were not issued passports but were added to their husband's instead. While most countries have reformed these laws in line with international recommendations (Box 6.5), they remain in place in others. In 45 countries, women are not legally entitled to obtain an identity card or a passport nor to travel outside the country in the same way as men. They are often required to provide additional documentation, such as a marriage certificate, or need the permission of their male guardian or husband. Iraq and Senegal have been the only countries since 2014 to remove discriminatory requirements regarding passport and ID applications, respectively. Even where legal barriers are lifted, informal laws might restrict women's freedom of movement. In seven countries, the legal framework is not explicitly discriminatory towards women, but some customary, religious or traditional practices or laws jeopardise women's rights in practice. For example, in Burkina Faso, 95% of the population believe that a married woman needs permission from her husband to travel (OECD Development Centre, 2018[5]). For 23% of married women across 67 countries, any decision to visit a woman's family or relatives is made by her husband (DHS, n.d.[6]). In 32 countries, women do not have the same rights as men to choose where to live.

In practice, insecurity feelings restrict women's freedom of movement in almost all countries in the world. In 88% of the countries with available data, women are more likely than men to feel unsafe in public places. On average, women represent 65% of the persons who declare not feeling safe walking alone at night in the city or area where they live (Figure 6.4). This proportion is higher in high- (66%) and upper middle-income countries (68%) than in lower-middle (61%) and low-income countries (58%). In Iceland and Finland, women represent nine in ten persons not feeling safe walking alone at night in their neighbourhood. SIGI country profiles cite the threat of gender-based violence in public spaces as restraining women's freedom of movement, in particular, sexual violence and sexual harassment.

Figure 6.4. Proportion of women among population not feeling safe walking alone at night



Note: Proportion of women among the total population declaring not feeling safe walking alone at night in the city or area where they live.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Gender-sensitive policy planning could help ensure that women can access public spaces in the same way as men. Due to their different roles within families and societies, men and women use public infrastructure in different ways. Inclusive governance entails responding to the needs of women and girls and ensuring that their voices are heard equally in decision-making processes. Yet, policies are often gender-blind and women continue to be underrepresented in local governments. In urban settings worldwide, women account for only 5% of mayors in capital cities, 6% of mayors in cities with over 1 million inhabitants and 20% of city councillors (UCLG, 2013[7]).

Box 6.6. Create a safer environment for women in public transport in Santiago, Chile

In Santiago, Chile, 73% of female users of public transport feel insecure, compared with 59% of male users (FIA Foundation; CAF, 2017[8]). Nine in ten women have experienced harassment and half of them declare that the feeling of insecurity has impacted their travel decisions. Several initiatives have been launched to make public transport safer for women. Two campaigns began in 2017: the first highlighted the violent nature of harassment, while the second sought to engage with men to bring about behavioural and social change. Other actions included surveys of street harassment, audits, an educational mobility programme for children including a gender perspective and the promotion of cycling among women to reduce or eliminate waiting times in potentially dangerous surroundings (FIA Foundation; CAF, 2017[8]).

Source: FIA Foundation; CAF (2017), "Ella se mueve segura- She moves safely: A study on women's personal security and public transport in three Latin American cities", https://www.fiafoundation.org/media/461162/ella-se-mueve-segura-she-moves-safely.pdf (accessed on 16 January 2019).

Access to justice

Key messages

- Sound laws and justice systems have the potential to accelerate progress towards gender equality. This is recognised in the laws of 79 countries, where women have and are able to exercise the same legal rights as men to sue, provide testimony and hold office in the judiciary.
- Plural legal systems exist in many countries and often entail discrimination against women. In 53 countries, women's rights to sue, provide testimony or hold public office in the judiciary are infringed upon in practice. In 48 countries, a woman's testimony does not carry the same evidentiary weight as a man's in all types of court cases. Since 2014, no country has made progress in achieving greater parity in legal entitlements, which is necessary for women seeking redress for rights' violations and, hence, tends to perpetuate gender-based discrimination.
- The justice chain often breaks down due to discriminatory social institutions and a lack of gender-sensitivity. In Eastern Europe, the Pacific and South America, women represent up to 60% of the people who do not trust the justice system and courts of their country.
- Some 25 countries achieved gender equality in this indicator (SIGI=0%): men and women have the same legal rights in the law and in practice.

Key policy recommendations

- Grant women the same judicial rights as men and ensure no discriminatory practices infringe upon these rights, particularly customary and religious laws.
- Disseminate information on existing laws and available remedies, guarantee accessible legal aid to every person (as with the Criminal Procedure Code of Georgia) and create multilingual information services (an example is the Indigenous Interpretation and Translation Centre in Guatemala).

- Increase female representation in judicial systems to reduce barriers to women's access to justice (such as stigma associated with reporting violence) to boost progressive judicial reforms and to accelerate progress towards gender equality.
- Build justice systems that are responsive to the rights and needs of women and girls and provide gender-sensitive training to judicial and law enforcement officers (Box 6.7).

Box 6.7. International standards on equal access to justice

Access to justice encompasses the entire process of obtaining redress against the violation of a right: the rights and ability to bring a legal case in front of a judicial authority, benefit from legal aid, access courts, obtain a fair trial with an effective remedy and provide testimony. The right to access to justice and equality between men and women in this regard is guaranteed in international instruments:

- The CEDAW (1979) calls on State parties to "accord to women, in civil matters, a legal capacity identical to that of men and the same opportunities to exercise that capacity" (art. 15). Its General Recommendation No. 33 (2015) recalls the "obligations of State parties to ensure that women have access to justice";
- SDG Target 16.3 aims to "promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all".

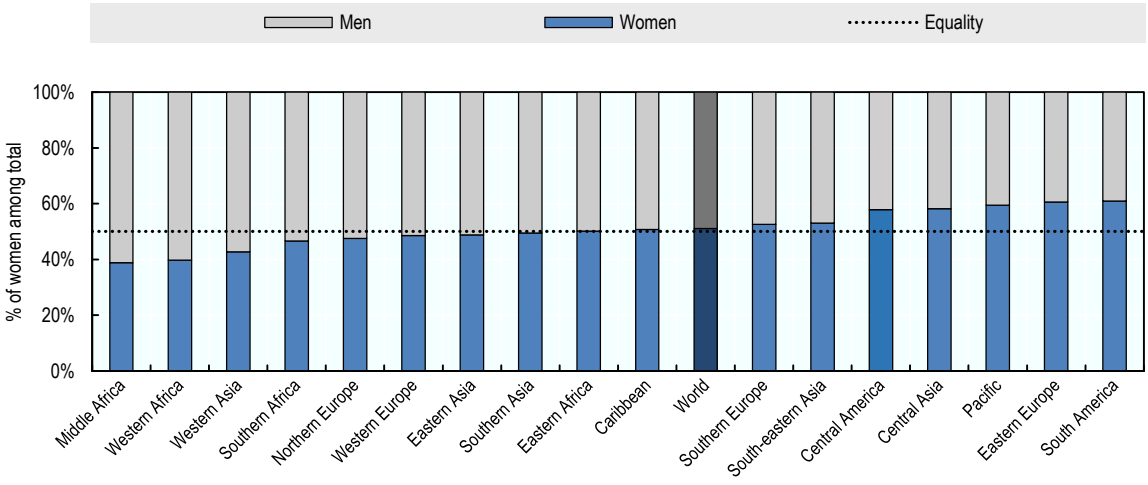
Results

In 48 countries, women do not have the same rights and opportunities as men in access to justice. Only 79 countries follow international standards in terms of equal access to justice (Box 6.7) and in 48, a woman's testimony does not carry the same evidentiary weight as a man's in some types of court cases. In Indonesia, married women do not have the same rights as men to sue. In the Islamic Republic of Iran and Saudi Arabia, women do not have the same rights as men to hold public office in the judiciary. In 53 countries, customary, religious or traditional practices or laws discriminate against women's legal rights to provide testimony (16 countries), sue (47 countries) or hold office in the judiciary (20 countries). No progress has been made in this area since 2014.

Non-discriminatory judicial frameworks are insufficient on their own to overcome discrimination in practice. Globally, women and men share the same level of trust in the justice system and courts of their country. However, women represent up to 60% of the persons who do not trust the justice system in Eastern Europe, the Pacific and Latin America and the Caribbean (Figure 6.5). This is the result of several factors. In many instances, the rule of law does not extend to the private sphere. For example, in 103 countries, women cannot seek legal redress for acts of intimate-partner violence, marital rape or sexual harassment (see Chapter 4 for more information). Other factors include legal pluralism, rules of evidence that accord an inferior status to women's testimonies, judicial stereotyping and discriminatory attitudes of service providers (UN Women, 2011[9]). The under-representation of women in the judiciary also slows down greater gender sensitivity in this area: only 27% of judges on constitutional courts worldwide are women (World Bank, 2018[10]).

Barriers to access to justice are harder to overcome for some groups of women. Legal pluralism exists in many parts of the world, where populations rely on customary or informal justice systems (non-state legal systems, customary and religious systems incorporated in the state system, or quasi-state mechanisms) (UN Women, 2011[9]). These systems have the advantage of being more accessible, both physically and financially, and provide a means of resolving disputes where state capacity is weak. However, they often suffer from systemic gender biases to the detriment of women: decision-making processes tend to be male-dominated and based on discriminatory social institutions. Other specific situations may create additional barriers to women's access to justice, when gender intersects with other characteristics such as using a regional or minority language, belonging to a minority group, being lesbian, gay, bisexual, transsexual or intersex (LGBTI), having a disability or living in a remote area.

Figure 6.5. Proportion of women among population not trusting the judicial system of their country



Note: Proportion of women among the total population declaring that they do not have confidence in the judicial system and courts of their country.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender Institutions and Development Database (GID-DB), https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Box 6.8. Train legal professionals to improve women's access to justice in Argentina

In 2009, the Argentine Supreme Court created a Women's Office (*Oficina de la Mujer*) to incorporate a gender-sensitive perspective into the justice system and eliminate entrenched gender discrimination. The Office carries out several activities including: identifying behaviours, decisions and procedures that reinforce gender stereotyping and discrimination; organising workshops and training sessions for justice professionals; drawing up proposals to promote a gender-equality perspective into the activities of the justice service and in the interpersonal relationships of those working there; communicating its activities; and monitoring compliance of jurisdictional activities with Argentina's international commitments to gender equality (See Corte Suprema de la Nación Argentina at https://www.csjn.gov.ar/om/index.jsp).

The Women's Office developed a "Protocol for workshops on justice with a gender equality perspective" to highlight the gender biases of the justice system that need to be addressed. Workshops under the auspices of the Protocol aim to encourage debate on gender issues such as human trafficking and sexual exploitation, domestic violence or patriarchy. The first Protocol was followed by several others and new ones are under development. The Protocol is recognised at the international level and has been copied in six other Latin American countries (Council of Europe, 2016[11]).

Source: Council of Europe (2016), "Towards guaranteeing equal access to justice for women", https://rm.coe.int/16806a0df8 (accessed on 26 January 2019).

Notes

[1] Niger (2014), Brazil and Ecuador (2017).

[2] Egypt, Republic of the Congo (2014), Chile, Croatia, Viet Nam (2015), Mali, Republic of Moldova and Sri Lanka (2016).

[3] Controlling for attitudes toward female political leaders, female labour force participation, net secondary school enrolment, proportion of women in the total population, GDP and regional dummies.

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Annex A. Countries/territories' SIGI 2019 scores

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

Table A.1. Countries/territories' SIGI 2019 scores

Country/territory	SIGI	Discrimination in the family		Restricted physical integrity		Restricted access to productive and financial resources		Restricted civil liberties	
VERY LOW LEVEL OF DISCRIMINATION IN THE SIGI									
Switzerland	8%	0%	Very low	13%	Low	12%	Low	7%	Very low
Denmark	10%	15%	Low	10%	Low	5%	Very low	11%	Low
Sweden	11%	15%	Low	8%	Very low	2%	Very low	16%	Low
France	11%	28%	Medium	6%	Very low	4%	Very low	5%	Very low
Portugal	11%	22%	Low	7%	Very low	3%	Very low	11%	Low
Belgium	11%	22%	Low	8%	Very low	3%	Very low	10%	Low
Austria	12%	22%	Medium	8%	Very low	4%	Low	12%	Low
Slovenia	13%	22%	Low	7%	Very low	9%	Very low	13%	Low
Germany	13%	18%	Low	15%	Low	5%	Low	14%	Low
Italy	14%	22%	Low	15%	Low	8%	Very low	9%	Very low
Estonia	14%	22%	Low	7%	Very low	5%	Very low	21%	Low
Spain	14%	28%	Medium	12%	Low	11%	Low	6%	Very low
Norway	15%	27%	Medium	7%	Very low	2%	Very low	19%	Low
Colombia	15%	10%	Very low	15%	Low	14%	Low	21%	Low
Finland	15%	22%	Low	16%	Low	4%	Very low	18%	Low
Lithuania	16%	27%	Medium	9%	Very low	5%	Very low	20%	Low
Australia	16%	22%	Low	13%	Low	5%	Very low	24%	Low
Netherlands	16%	24%	Low	13%	Low	5%	Very low	21%	Low
Slovak Republic	17%	26%	Medium	6%	Very low	8%	Very low	24%	Low
Romania	17%	28%	Medium	8%	Very low	7%	Very low	22%	Low
New Zealand	17%	22%	Low	17%	Low	4%	Very low	22%	Low
Ireland	17%	22%	Low	19%	Low	16%	Low	12%	Low
Poland	17%	22%	Low	20%	Low	15%	Low	13%	Low
United Kingdom	17%	28%	Medium	24%	Low	9%	Very low	7%	Very low
Latvia	18%	22%	Low	16%	Low	5%	Very low	28%	Medium
United States	18%	27%	Medium	11%	Low	11%	Low	23%	Low
FYROM[1]	18%	28%	Medium	15%	Low	13%	Low	15%	Low
Dominican Republic	18%	30%	Medium	18%	Low	12%	Low	11%	Low
Canada	18%	27%	Medium	4%	Very low	17%	Low	23%	Low
Nicaragua	19%	25%	Medium	26%	Medium	16%	Low	6%	Very low
Croatia	19%	22%	Low	7%	Very low	29%	Medium	18%	Low
Serbia	20%	33%	Medium	7%	Very low	20%	Low	18%	Low
Czech Republic	20%	27%	Medium	13%	Low	12%	Low	26%	Medium
LOW LEVEL OF DISCRIMINATION IN THE SIGI									
Mongolia	20%	28%	Medium	8%	Very low	20%	Low	23%	Low
Belarus	21%	32%	Medium	15%	Low	15%	Low	21%	Low
Ukraine	21%	23%	Low	14%	Low	18%	Low	29%	Medium
Brazil	21%	28%	Medium	15%	Low	17%	Low	24%	Low
Hong Kong, China	21%	22%	Low	22%	Low	13%	Low	27%	Medium
Russian Federation	21%	23%	Low	15%	Low	15%	Low	32%	Medium
Republic of Moldova	21%	23%	Low	13%	Low	37%	Medium	11%	Low
Plurinational State of Bolivia	21%	29%	Medium	16%	Low	27%	Medium	13%	Low
Malta	22%	25%	Low	28%	Medium	5%	Very low	26%	Medium
Bosnia and Herzegovina	22%	27%	Medium	11%	Low	31%	Medium	17%	Low
Uruguay	22%	28%	Medium	11%	Low	27%	Medium	23%	Low
Honduras	22%	25%	Low	25%	Low	24%	Low	15%	Low
South Africa	22%	33%	Medium	15%	Low	20%	Low	21%	Low

Country/territory	SIGI	Discrimination in the family		Restricted physical integrity		Restricted access to productive and financial resources		Restricted civil liberties	
Kazakhstan	22%	22%	Low	14%	Low	31%	Medium	22%	Low
Albania	23%	33%	Medium	16%	Low	26%	Medium	13%	Low
El Salvador	23%	26%	Medium	27%	Medium	20%	Low	18%	Low
Kyrgyzstan	23%	29%	Medium	17%	Low	29%	Medium	18%	Low
Korea	23%	22%	Low	18%	Low	33%	Medium	20%	Low
Bulgaria	23%	27%	Medium	16%	Low	30%	Medium	20%	Low
Trinidad and Tobago	24%	18%	Low	27%	Medium	20%	Low	29%	Medium
Japan	24%	20%	Low	21%	Low	30%	Medium	25%	Low
Mozambique	24%	32%	Medium	15%	Low	15%	Low	33%	Medium
Peru	24%	48%	Medium	27%	Medium	5%	Very low	13%	Low
Jamaica	25%	32%	Medium	24%	Low	19%	Low	23%	Low
Georgia	25%	34%	Medium	18%	Low	27%	Medium	19%	Low
Turkey	25%	33%	Medium	8%	Very low	37%	Medium	20%	Low
Viet Nam	25%	23%	Low	31%	Medium	32%	Medium	14%	Low
Hungary	26%	34%	Medium	17%	Low	23%	Low	28%	Medium
Lao PDR[2]	26%	31%	Medium	24%	Low	20%	Low	29%	Medium
Singapore	27%	27%	Medium	15%	Low	12%	Low	49%	Medium
Greece	27%	45%	Medium	9%	Very low	33%	Medium	17%	Low
Namibia	27%	33%	Medium	13%	Low	26%	Medium	35%	Medium
Rwanda	28%	38%	Medium	21%	Low	26%	Medium	24%	Low
Armenia	28%	33%	Medium	35%	Medium	23%	Low	19%	Low
Costa Rica	28%	46%	Medium	25%	Low	28%	Medium	10%	Low
Cyprus	28%	42%	Medium	12%	Low	19%	Low	37%	Medium
Guatemala	29%	26%	Medium	24%	Low	18%	Low	43%	Medium
Azerbaijan	29%	28%	Medium	43%	Medium	21%	Low	21%	Low
Ecuador	29%	35%	Medium	19%	Low	44%	Medium	15%	Low
Mexico	29%	60%	High	16%	Low	17%	Low	15%	Low
Cambodia	30%	34%	Medium	14%	Low	28%	Medium	41%	Medium
Ethiopia	30%	35%	Medium	31%	Medium	34%	Medium	18%	Low
MEDIUM LEVEL OF DISCRIMINATION IN THE SIGI									
Tajikistan	32%	48%	High	20%	Low	34%	Medium	25%	Low
Zimbabwe	32%	43%	Medium	20%	Low	34%	Medium	31%	Medium
Burkina Faso	32%	45%	Medium	35%	Medium	33%	Medium	14%	Low
Paraguay	33%	46%	Medium	22%	Low	32%	Medium	30%	Medium
India	34%	47%	Medium	29%	Medium	37%	Medium	21%	Low
Ghana	35%	59%	High	20%	Low	31%	Medium	23%	Low
Zambia	35%	41%	Medium	28%	Medium	28%	Medium	42%	Medium
Thailand	35%	33%	Medium	23%	Low	25%	Medium	57%	High
Kenya	35%	50%	High	29%	Medium	42%	Medium	17%	Low
Chile	36%	36%	Medium	19%	Low	65%	High	17%	Low
Nepal	36%	52%	High	14%	Low	35%	Medium	40%	Medium
Senegal	37%	65%	High	42%	Medium	28%	Medium	4%	Very low
Lesotho	38%	47%	Medium	27%	Medium	41%	Medium	38%	Medium
DRC[3]	40%	53%	High	35%	Medium	46%	Medium	21%	Low
Benin	40%	40%	Medium	28%	Medium	36%	Medium	53%	High
Haiti	40%	38%	Medium	37%	Medium	22%	Low	59%	High
HIGH LEVEL OF DISCRIMINATION IN THE SIGI									
Gabon	40%	50%	High	37%	Medium	45%	Medium	26%	Medium
Malawi	41%	38%	Medium	24%	Low	37%	Medium	62%	High
Indonesia	42%	63%	High	22%	Low	37%	Medium	40%	Medium
Myanmar	42%	48%	Medium	29%	Medium	35%	Medium	55%	High

Country/territory	SIGI	Discrimination in the family		Restricted physical integrity		Restricted access to productive and financial resources		Restricted civil liberties	
Côte d'Ivoire	43%	30%	Medium	36%	Medium	76%	Very high	20%	Low
Sri Lanka	43%	68%	High	24%	Low	46%	Medium	29%	Medium
Central African Republic	43%	56%	High	24%	Low	35%	Medium	54%	High
Uganda	45%	54%	High	34%	Medium	61%	High	27%	Medium
Chad	45%	56%	High	32%	Medium	62%	High	27%	Medium
Nigeria	46%	55%	High	32%	Medium	41%	Medium	54%	High
Mali	46%	64%	High	48%	Medium	40%	Medium	29%	Medium
United Republic of Tanzania	46%	81%	Very high	29%	Medium	30%	Medium	35%	Medium
Liberia	47%	60%	High	34%	Medium	41%	Medium	53%	High
Madagascar	48%	57%	High	32%	Medium	39%	Medium	59%	High
Sierra Leone	48%	54%	High	50%	High	45%	Medium	41%	Medium
Tunisia	48%	80%	Very high	9%	Very low	35%	Medium	53%	High
Togo	50%	63%	High	25%	Low	44%	Medium	62%	High
VERY HIGH LEVEL OF DISCRIMINATION IN THE SIGI									
Morocco	51%	73%	High	26%	Medium	38%	Medium	59%	High
Cameroon	52%	51%	High	26%	Medium	78%	Very high	45%	Medium
Philippines	53%	67%	High	26%	Medium	67%	High	45%	Medium
Afghanistan	53%	81%	Very high	40%	Medium	46%	Medium	38%	Medium
Iraq	54%	87%	Very high	31%	Medium	34%	Medium	52%	High
Bangladesh	55%	83%	Very high	29%	Medium	52%	High	47%	Medium
Lebanon	56%	83%	Very high	27%	Medium	45%	Medium	62%	High
Guinea	57%	88%	Very high	57%	High	28%	Medium	44%	Medium
Jordan	57%	87%	Very high	25%	Medium	43%	Medium	63%	High
Islamic Republic of Iran	58%	90%	Very high	29%	Medium	22%	Low	75%	Very high
Pakistan	59%	80%	Very high	37%	Medium	60%	High	53%	High
Yemen	64%	90%	Very high	38%	Medium	43%	Medium	76%	Very high
NOT RANKED IN THE SIGI									
Algeria	n.a.	80%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	41%	Medium	61%	High
Angola	n.a.	47%	Medium	19%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Antigua and Barbuda	n.a.	22%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Argentina	n.a.	23%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	23%	Low	7%	Very low
Bahamas	n.a.	22%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bahrain	n.a.	92%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Barbados	n.a.	22%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Belize	n.a.	24%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bhutan	n.a.	40%	Medium	23%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela	n.a.	43%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	13%	Low	15%	Low
Botswana	n.a.	40%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	40%	Medium	52%	High
Brunei Darussalam	n.a.	80%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Burundi	n.a.			32%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Cabo Verde	n.a.	37%	Medium	10%	Very low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Chinese Taipei	n.a.	37%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	16%	Low
Comoros	n.a.	81%	Very high	28%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Cuba	n.a.	29%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Djibouti	n.a.	73%	High	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Dominica	n.a.	42%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Egypt	n.a.	79%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	65%	High	n.a.	n.a.
Equatorial Guinea	n.a.	64%	High	37%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Eritrea	n.a.	42%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Fiji	n.a.	25%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Country/territory	SIGI	Discrimination in the family		Restricted physical integrity		Restricted access to productive and financial resources		Restricted civil liberties	
Gambia	n.a.	88%	Very high	45%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	48%	Medium
Grenada	n.a.	54%	High	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Guinea-Bissau	n.a.	60%	High	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Guyana	n.a.	22%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Iceland	n.a.	22%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	17%	Low
Israel	n.a.	47%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	28%	Medium	38%	Medium
Kosovo	n.a.	28%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	18%	Low	15%	Low
Kuwait	n.a.	76%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	80%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.
Libya	n.a.	41%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Luxembourg	n.a.	22%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	7%	Very low	8%	Very low
Malaysia	n.a.	81%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Maldives	n.a.	80%	Very high	29%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mauritania	n.a.	88%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	52%	High
Mauritius	n.a.	53%	High	n.a.	n.a.	19%	Low	41%	Medium
Montenegro	n.a.	28%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	29%	Medium	14%	Low
Niger	n.a.	84%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	26%	Medium
Oman	n.a.	87%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Panama	n.a.	15%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	16%	Low	18%	Low
Papua New Guinea	n.a.	54%	High	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
People's Republic of China	n.a.	18%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Qatar	n.a.	92%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Republic of the Congo	n.a.	43%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	58%	High
Samoa	n.a.	42%	Medium	37%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Sao Tome and Principe	n.a.	16%	Low	14%	Low	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Saudi Arabia	n.a.	89%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	41%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.
Seychelles	n.a.	41%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Solomon Islands	n.a.	51%	High	37%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Somalia	n.a.	76%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
South Sudan	n.a.	60%	High	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	23%	Low
Sudan	n.a.	90%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Eswatini[4]	n.a.	59%	High	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Syrian Arab Republic	n.a.	86%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Timor-Leste	n.a.	31%	Medium	34%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Turkmenistan	n.a.	30%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
United Arab Emirates	n.a.	87%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	28%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.
Uzbekistan	n.a.	42%	Medium	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	23%	Low
West Bank and Gaza Strip	n.a.	89%	Very high	n.a.	n.a.	65%	High	59%	High

Note: Changes in rankings between 2014 and 2019 should be interpreted with caution for several reasons. Firstly, a genuine comparison is not possible due to changes in variables and methodology between the 2014 and 2019 editions of the SIGI. Second, there is a difference between the number of countries/territories ranked in 2014 and 2019.
Note by Turkey: The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognises the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of the United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".
Note by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Union: The Republic of Cyprus is recognised by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender, Institutions and Development Database, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019

Notes

[1] Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, now the Republic of North Macedonia.

[2] Lao People's Democratic Republic

[3] Democratic Republic of the Congo

[4] Formerly known as Swaziland.

Annex B. Methodology

Box A B.1. Selection of variables

Variables included in the SIGI 2019 were selected according to the following criteria:

Conceptual relevance

The variable should be closely related to the conceptual framework of discriminatory social institutions and measure what it is intended to capture.

Data quality, reliability and coverage

The variable should be based on high quality, reliable data. When micro-data were available, the data have been harmonised and standardised across countries/territories. The data included should have extensive coverage across countries/territories.

Distinction

Each variable should measure a distinct discriminatory institution and should add new information not measured by other variables.

Statistical association

Variables included in the same dimension should be statistically associated, and thereby capture similar areas of social institutions without being redundant.

The SIGI includes 27 variables combined into 16 indicators and 4 dimensions (sub-indices). The 27 variables include:

1. 14 categorical variables describing the level of discrimination in legal frameworks (for all SIGI indicators but two: missing women and FGM) – these variables are based on 144 questions out of the 312 used to draft the SIGI country profiles;
2. 3 attitudinal variables describing the level of discrimination in social norms; and
3. 10 variables on prevalence rates describing the level of discrimination in practices.

The SIGI and its dimensions are constructed according to the steps below.

Step 1. Building the Gender, Institutions and Development Database

Truncating quantitative data at the equality benchmark and inverting the scale.

First quantitative data are collected and harmonised to be comparable across countries/territories. Data sources vary according to the country/territory and variable.

For example, prevalence of girl child marriage is collected through the UN World Marriage Database, while women's share of MPs is based on the Inter-parliamentary Union database.

The SIGI and its sub-indices range from 0 for no discrimination to 1 for absolute discrimination.

For some variables, equality is reached at 0.5 instead of 1. Equality in political representation for example is achieved when 50% of MPs are women. According to the variables, the scale from no discrimination to absolute discrimination may be inverted to fit with the 0-1 scale. Moreover, quantitative variables are truncated at the equality benchmark. Therefore, countries/territories having 50% or more of female members of parliament have a score of 0.

Box A B.2. Country profiles

The SIGI country profiles contain fully referenced qualitative information relative to social institutions, organised by "dimensions" presented as sub-indices in this report. They were drafted following a standardised structure to ensure comparability across countries/territories in line with the following guidelines:

Conceptual relevance

Qualitative information should be relevant to the conceptual framework of discriminatory social institutions.

Sources

All information should be referenced and sourced from constitutions, legal frameworks, and primary publications, reports or studies, using the most recent data.

Data should be sourced from and cross-checked with reliable studies, reports and publications, including country reports to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, reports by international organisations and country sources.

Validation

Country profiles were developed through a multiple-stage internal draft and review process. Qualitative information was validated by external gender experts with knowledge of the policy and legal landscape for gender equality and women's rights at a national level (see www.genderindex.org).

Assigning a score to qualitative variables

The qualitative information detailed in the SIGI country profiles are quantified using the following coding manual:

0: The legal framework provides women with the same rights as men, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. There are no customary, traditional or religious laws or practices that discriminate against women.

0.25: The legal framework provides women with the same rights as men, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. However, some customary, traditional or religious laws or practices do discriminate against women.

0.5: The legal framework provides women with the same rights as men. However, it does not apply to all groups of women.

0.75: The legal framework restricts some women's rights.

1: The legal framework fully discriminates against women's rights.

In cases where no, or where insufficient information exists, variables are not assigned a value. The legal indicators are assessed based on all applicable legal frameworks, including civil law, religious law, customary law and traditional law.

Step 2: Constructing indicators

Some indicators are based on one variable while others on several. In the latter case, the indicator is calculated only if all variables are assigned a value. For example:

Violence against women=ln(1/3 e^(Laws on violence against women)+1/3 e^(Attitude towards domestic violence)+1/3 e^(Prevalence of domestic violence))

Step 3: Aggregating indicators to build the sub-indices

The dimensions aim to provide a summary measure of each area of discrimination. The dimension is calculated only if all indicators are assigned a value. For example:

Discrimination in the family=ln(1/4 e^(Child marriage)+1/4 e^(Household responsibilities)+1/4 e^(Inheritance)+1/4 e^(Divorce))

Step 4: Computing the SIGI

The SIGI is a composite indicator built as an unweighted average of a non-linear of the dimensions. The SIGI is calculated only if all sub-indices are assigned a value.

SIGI=ln(1/4 e^(Discrimination in the family)+1/4 e^(Restricted physical integrity)+1/4 e^(Restricted access to productive and financial resources)+1/4 e^(Restricted civil liberties))

Box A B.3. Frequently asked questions

Why exponentiate each sub-index and indicator?

- As SIGI is a multidimensional index, the use of this formulation helps investigate the trade-offs between the sub-indices/indicators/variables.
- These trade-offs, however, are partial: an increase in inequality in one sub-index /indicator/variable can only be substituted partially by a decrease in inequality in another sub-index/indicator/variable.
- The magnitude of the increase of inequality is largest in the sub-index/indicator/variable where the country already performs poorly.
- While the SIGI 2014 used the "quadratic mean" formulation to compute the level of discrimination, the SIGI 2019 uses exponential and logarithmic functions. This allows more variability in the rates of substitution between low levels and high levels of discrimination.

Why are the sub-indices/indicators/variables equally weighted?

- Each sub-index/indicator/variable of discriminatory social institutions has equal value.
- No sub-index/indicator/variable is more important than another in terms of deprivation experienced by women.

How are the SIGI categories defined?

The SIGI classification clusters 120 countries/territories into five levels of institutional social and statutory discrimination: very low, low, medium, high and very high.

Definition of variables

Variable	Coding	Sources
	Child marriage	
Laws on child marriage*: Whether the same legal minimum age of marriage applies to both women and men	0: The law guarantees the same minimum age of marriage above 18 years to women and men, without legal exceptions in either consent or for some groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not encourage girl child marriage.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: The minimum age of marriage might be different for men and women, but it is above 18 years, without legal exceptions in either consent or for some groups of women. Some customary, religious and traditional laws or practices encourage girl child marriage.	
	0.5: The minimum age of marriage might be different for men and women, but it is above 18 years. However, legal exceptions exist concerning consent and/or some groups of women.	
	0.75: The law allows child marriage for both women and men or there is no legal age of marriage for women nor men.	
	1: The law allows child marriage for women but not for men.	
Prevalence of girl child marriage*: Percentage of girls aged 15-19 years who have been or are still married, divorced, widowed or in an informal union	0-100%	UN World Marriage Data (2017)
Prevalence of boy child marriage: Percentage of boys aged 15-19 years who have been or are still married, divorced, widowed or in an informal union	0-100%	UN World Marriage Data (2017)
	Household responsibilities	
Laws governing household responsibilities*: Whether women and men have the same legal rights, decision-making abilities and responsibilities within the household	0: Women enjoy the same legal rights and decision-making freedoms and responsibilities within the household as men, without legal exceptions for any groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not discriminate against women's legal rights.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: Women enjoy the same legal rights and decision-making freedoms and responsibilities within the household as men, without legal exceptions for any groups of women. However, customary, religious and traditional laws or practices discriminate against women's legal rights.	
	0.5: Either not all groups of women enjoy the same legal rights and decision-making freedoms and responsibilities within the household as men, or there is no law regulating household headship.	
	0.75: Women do not enjoy the same legal rights as men to be recognised	

Variable	Coding	Sources
	as the head of household or to have parental authority.	
	1: Women do not enjoy the same legal rights as men to be recognised as the head of household and to have parental authority.	
Attitude towards housewives: Percentage of population aged above 18 years thinking that "Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay"	0-100%	International Social Survey Programme World Values Survey
Attitude towards women's earning money: Percentage of population aged above 18 years who agrees or agrees strongly that "If a woman earns more money than her husband, it's almost certain to cause problems"	0-100%	International Social Survey Programme World Values Survey
Attitude towards working mothers: Percentage of population aged above 18 years who agrees or agrees strongly that "When a mother works for pay, the children suffer"	0-100%	International Social Survey Programme World Values Survey
Women and men's share of unpaid care work responsibility: Female-to-male ratio of time spent on unpaid, domestic, care and volunteer work in a 24-hour period		Various sources[1]
Women's contribution to unpaid care work: Women's average time spent (in hours) on unpaid domestic, care and voluntary work in a 24-hour period		Various sources[1]
Men's contribution to unpaid care work: Women's average time spent (in hours) on unpaid domestic, care and voluntary work in a 24-hour period		Various sources[1]
Inheritance		
Laws on inheritance*: Whether women and men have the same legal rights to inherit land and non-land assets	0: Widows and daughters enjoy the same rights as widowers and sons to inherit land and non-land assets. This applies to all groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not discriminate against women's inheritance rights.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: Widows and daughters enjoy the same rights as widowers and sons to inherit land and non-land assets. This applies to all groups of women. However, there are some customary, religious or traditional laws that discriminate against women's inheritance rights.	
	0.5: Widows and daughters enjoy the same rights as widowers and sons to inherit land and non-land assets. However, this does not apply to all groups of women.	
	0.75: Either widows or daughters do not enjoy the same rights as widowers and sons to inherit land and/or non-land assets	
	1: Neither widows nor daughters enjoy rights to inherit land and/or non-land assets	
Divorce		
Laws on divorce*: Whether women and men have the same legal rights to initiate divorce with	0: Women have both the same rights to initiate divorce and have the same requirements to finalise divorce or annulment as men, without negative repercussions on their parental authority. This applies to all groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not	SIGI Country Profiles

Variable	Coding	Sources
the same grounds and evidential requirements for divorce or annulment	discriminate against women regarding divorce or their parental authority after divorce.	
	0.25: Women have both the same rights to initiate divorce and the same requirements to finalise divorce or annulment as men, without negative repercussions on their parental authority. This applies to all groups of women. However, there are some customary, religious or traditional laws or practices that discriminate against women regarding divorce and/or their parental authority after divorce.	
	0.5: Women have both the same rights to initiate divorce and the same requirements to finalise divorce or annulment as men, without negative repercussions on their parental authority. However, this does not apply to all groups of women.	
	0.75: Women do not have the same rights over divorce as men: either their rights to initiate divorce and/or the requirements to finalise divorce or annulment are unequal, or their parental authority after divorce is restricted.	
	1: Women do not have the same rights over divorce as men: their rights to initiate divorce and/or the requirements to finalise divorce or annulment are unequal, and their parental authority after divorce is restricted.	
RESTRICTED PHYSICAL INTEGRITY		
Violence against women		
Laws on violence against women*: Whether the legal framework protects women from violence including intimate-partner violence, rape and sexual harassment, without legal exceptions and in a comprehensive approach	0: The legal framework protects women from violence including intimate-partner violence, rape and sexual harassment, without any legal exceptions and in a comprehensive approach.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: The legal framework protects women from violence including intimate-partner violence, rape and sexual harassment, without any legal exceptions. However, the approach is not comprehensive.	
	0.5: The legal framework protects women from violence including intimate-partner violence, rape and sexual harassment. However, some legal exceptions occur.	
	0.75: The legal framework protects women from some forms of violence including intimate-partner violence, rape or sexual harassment but not all.	
	1: The legal framework does not protect women from violence nor intimate-partner violence nor rape and sexual harassment.	
Attitude towards domestic violence*: Percentage of women aged 15–49 years who consider a husband to be justified in hitting or beating his wife for at least one of the specified reasons: if his wife burns the food, argues with him, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses sexual relations	0-100%	Pan American Health Organization (2014) UNICEF global databases (2017) World Health Organization World Values Survey (2005-2016)
Prevalence of domestic violence in lifetime*: Percentage of women who suffered intimate-partner physical and/or sexual violence during their lifetime	0-100%	Various sources[2]
Prevalence of domestic violence in the last 12 months: Percentage of women who suffered intimate-partner physical and/or sexual violence in the previous 12 months	0-100%	Various sources[2]
Female genital mutilation (FGM)		
Attitude towards FGM*: Percentage of women aged 15-49	0-100%	UNICEF Global Databases (2017)

Variable	Coding	Sources
years who have heard about FGM and think the practice should continue		
Prevalence of FGM*: Percentage of women aged 15-49 years who have undergone FGM	0-100%	UNICEF Global Databases (2017)
Missing women		
Missing women*: Sex ratio among 0-4-year-olds (number of males per 100 females)	Rescaled to 0-100%	CIA World Factbook (2018) UNDP World Population Prospects (2017)
Reproductive autonomy		
Laws on reproductive autonomy*: Whether the legal framework protects women's reproductive health and rights	0: The legal framework protects women's reproductive health and rights in the case of unwanted pregnancy, without conditions.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: The legal framework protects women's reproductive health and rights in case of unwanted pregnancy but imposes conditions.	
	0.5: The legal framework only protects women's reproductive health and rights in case of unwanted pregnancy with some conditions.	
	0.75: The legal framework only protects women's reproductive health and rights in case of unwanted pregnancy under strict conditions.	
	1: The legal framework does not protect women's reproductive health and rights in case of unwanted pregnancy.	
Access to family planning*: Prevalence of unmet need for family planning – percentage of currently married or in-union women of reproductive age (15-49) who want to cease or delay childbearing but are not using any method of contraception	0-100%	United Nations Population Fund (2017) United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2018)
RESTRICTED ACCESS TO PRODUCTIVE AND FINANCIAL RESOURCES		
Secure access to land assets		
Laws on access to land assets*: Whether women and men have the same legal rights and secure access to land assets	0: Women and men have the same legal rights and secure access to land assets, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not discriminate against women exercising their legal rights.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: Women and men have the same legal rights and secure access to land assets, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. However, some customary, religious or traditional practices or laws discriminate against women exercising their legal right.	
	0.5: Women and men have the same legal rights and secure access to land assets. However, this does not apply to all groups of women.	
	0.75: Women and men have the same legal rights to own land assets; but not to use, make decisions and/or use land assets as collateral.	
	1: Women do not have the same legal rights as men to own land assets.	
Access to land ownership: Percentage of men in the total number of agricultural holders	0-100%	Demographic and Health Surveys
Secure access to non-land assets		
Laws on access to non-land assets*: Whether women and men have the same legal rights and secure access to non-land assets	0: Women and men have the same legal rights and secure access to non-land assets, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not discriminate against women exercising their legal rights	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: Women and men have the same legal rights and secure access to non-land assets, without legal exceptions for some groups of women.	

Variable	Coding	Sources
	However, some customary, religious or traditional practices or laws discriminate against women exercising their legal right.	
	0.5: Women and men have the same legal rights and secure access to non-land assets. However, this does not apply to all groups of women.	
	0.75: Women and men have the same legal rights to own non-land assets; but not to use, make decisions and/or use non-land assets as collateral.	
	1: Women do not have the same legal rights as men to own non-land assets.	
Access to house ownership: Percentage of men in the total number of people who own a house alone	0-100%	Demographic and Health Surveys
Secure access to formal financial services		
Laws on access to formal financial services*: Whether women and men have the same legal rights to open a bank account and obtain credit in a formal financial institution	0: Women and men have the same rights to open a bank account and obtain credit at a formal financial institution, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not discriminate against women exercising their legal rights.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: Women and men have the same rights to open a bank account and obtain credit at a formal financial institution to women and men, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. However, some customary, religious or traditional practices or laws discriminate against women exercising their legal rights.	
	0.5: Women and men have the same rights to open a bank account and obtain credit at a formal financial institution. However, this does not apply to all groups of women.	
	0.75: Women and men have the same rights to open a bank account at a formal financial institution. However, women do not have the same rights as men to obtain credit.	
	1: Women do not have the same rights as men to open a bank account at a formal financial institution.	
Access to bank account services*: Percentage of men in the total number of people aged 15 and above who have an account at a financial institution (by themselves or together with someone else)	Rescaled to 0-100%	Global Findex database
Access to financial loans: Percentage of women in the total number of people aged 15 and above who borrowed any money from a financial institution in the past 12 months	0-100%	Global Findex database
Access to credit card services: Percentage of women in the total number of people aged 15 and above who own a credit card	0-100%	Global Findex database
Workplace rights		
Laws on workplace rights*: Whether women and men have the same legal rights and opportunities in the workplace	0: The legal framework guarantees equality between women and men in the workplace. Parental leave is available to mothers and fathers and the law protects women's rights during pregnancy and maternity/parental leave. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not discriminate against women in their legal right to enter certain professions, choose a profession and register a business.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: The legal framework guarantees equality between women and men in the workplace. Parental leave is available to mothers and fathers and the law protects women's rights during pregnancy and maternity/parental leave. However, there is evidence of customary, religious or traditional	

Variable	Coding	Sources
	practices or laws that discriminate against women who exercise their legal right to enter certain professions, choose a profession or register a business.	
	0.5: The legal framework guarantees equality between women and men in the workplace. Parental leave is available to mothers and fathers and the law protects women's rights during pregnancy and maternity/parental leave. However, this does not apply to all groups of women.	
	0.75: The legal framework guarantees equality between women and men in the workplace. However, parental leave is not available to mothers and fathers and/or the law does not protect women's rights during pregnancy and maternity/parental leave.	
	1: The legal framework does not guarantee equality between women and men in the workplace.	
Attitudes towards working women*: Percentage of population who disagrees with "It is perfectly acceptable for any woman in your family to have a paid job outside the home if she wants one"	0-100%	International Labour Organization and Gallup Inc. (2017) Latinobarometer World Value Survey
Representation in managerial positions*: Percentage of men in the total number of persons employed in management	0-100%	International Labour Organization
RESTRICTED CIVIL LIBERTIES		
Citizenship rights		
Laws on citizenship rights*: Whether women and men have the same citizenship rights and ability to exercise their rights	0: Women and men have the same rights to acquire, change and retain their nationality and to confer their nationality to their spouse and children, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not restrict these rights.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: Women and men have the same rights to acquire, change and retain their nationality and to confer their nationality to their spouse and children, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. However, some discriminatory customary, traditional or religious practices or laws restrict these rights.	
	0.5: Women have the same rights as men to acquire, change and retain their nationality and to confer their nationality to their spouse and children. However, this does not apply to all groups of women.	
	0.75: Women and men have the same rights to acquire, change and retain their nationality. However, women face legal restrictions on their rights to confer their nationality to their husband and/or children.	
	1: Women and men do not have the same rights to acquire, change or retain their nationality.	
Freedom of movement		
Laws on freedom of movement*: Whether women and men have the same rights to apply for national identity cards (if applicable) and passports and travel outside the country	0: Women and men have the same rights to apply for national identity cards (if applicable) and passports and to travel outside the country, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not discriminate against these rights.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: Women and men have the same rights to apply for national identity cards (if applicable) and passports and to travel outside the country, without legal exceptions for some groups of women. However, some customary, traditional or religious practices or laws discriminate against women exercising these rights.	
	0.5: Women and men have the same rights to apply for national identity cards (if applicable) and passports and to travel outside the country. However, this does not apply to all groups of women.	
	0.75: Women do not have the same rights as men to apply for national	

Variable	Coding	Sources
	identity cards (if applicable) or passports or to travel outside the country.	
	1: Women do not have the same rights as men to apply for national identity cards (if applicable) or passports and to travel outside the country.	
Security feeling*: Percentage of women in the total number of persons declaring not feeling safe walking alone at night in the city or area where they live	Rescaled to 0-100%	Gallup World Poll (2017)
Political voice		
Laws on political voice*: Whether the legal framework promotes women's equal political representation	0: Women and men have the same rights to vote and to hold public and political office in the legislature and executive. There are special measures to promote women's political participation at the national or sub-national levels. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not restrict these rights.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: Women and men have the same rights to vote and to hold public and political office in the legislature and executive. There are special measures to promote women's political participation at the national or sub-national levels. However, some discriminatory customary, traditional or religious practices or laws restrict these rights.	
	0.5: Women and men have the same rights to vote and to hold public and political office in the legislature and executive. There are no legal quotas nor special measures or incentives for political parties to promote women's political participation.	
	0.75: Women and men have the same rights to vote. However, women face discrimination against their rights to hold public and political office in the legislature or executive.	
	1: Women and men do not have the same rights to vote.	
Political representation*: Percentage of men in the total number of representatives of the lower or single House of the Parliament	Rescaled to 0-100%	Assembly of Kosovo (2017) Government of Chinese Taipei (2016) Inter-Parliamentary Union (2018) Legislative Council of the Hong Kong SAR of the People's Republic of China (2018) Palestinian Legislative Council (2006)
Attitude towards women's political leadership: Percentage of the population who agrees with "On the whole, men make better political leaders than women do"	0-100%	World Values Survey
Access to justice		
Laws on access to justice*: Whether women and men have the same rights to provide testimony in court, hold public or political office in the judiciary and sue	0: A woman's testimony holds the same evidentiary weight as a man's in all types of court cases and women have the same rights as men to sue and to hold public or political office in the judiciary. Customary, religious and traditional laws or practices do not discriminate against women's legal right to sue, to provide testimony in court or to be a judge, advocate or other court officer.	SIGI Country Profiles
	0.25: A woman's testimony holds the same evidentiary weight as a man's in all types of court cases and women have the same rights as men to sue and to hold public or political office in the judiciary. Women's testimony carries the same evidentiary weight in customary/religious courts/tribunals. However, some customary, traditional or religious practices or laws discriminate against women in their legal right to sue, to provide testimony	

Variable	Coding	Sources
	in court or to be a judge, advocate or other court officer.	
	0.5: A woman's testimony holds the same evidentiary weight as a man's in all types of court cases and women have the same rights as men to sue. However, women do not have the same right as men to hold public or political office in the judiciary.	
	0.75: Women and men have the same rights to sue. However, a woman's testimony does not hold the same evidentiary weight as a man's in all types of court cases.	
	1: Women and men do not have the same rights to sue.	
Confidence in the judicial system and courts*: Percentage of women in the total number of persons declaring not having confidence in the judicial system and courts of their country	Rescaled to 0-100%	Gallup World Poll (2017)

(*) Variables used to calculate the SIGI score

Notes

[1] ActionAID (2013)

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (2013)

Cabo Verde National Institute of Statistics (2012)

ECLAC (2010)

ECLAC (2016)

General Statistics Office of Viet Nam (2014-15)

Instituto Nacional de Estadistica y Censos – Costa Rica

National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (2013-14)

National Statistics, Republic of China (Chinese Taipei) (2000)

OECD SIGI Burkina Faso country study (2018)

OXFAM (2017)

République de Guinée (2002-03)

Statistics Sierra Leone (2003-04)

Timor-Leste Ministry of Finance (2007)

Troisième enquête Camerounaise auprès des ménages

UNSD time use data portal (2016)

Zimbabwe 2014 LFS

[2] ActionAID (2013)
Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (2013)
Cabo Verde National Institute of Statistics (2012)
ECLAC (2010)
ECLAC (2016)
General Statistics Office of Viet Nam (2014-15)

Instituto Nacional de Estadistica y Censos – Costa Rica
National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (2013-14)
National Statistics, Republic of China (Chinese Taipei) (2000)
OECD SIGI Burkina Faso country study (2018)
OXFAM (2017)
République de Guinée (2002-03)
Statistics Sierra Leone (2003-04)
Timor-Leste Ministry of Finance (2007)
Troisième enquête Camerounaise auprès des ménages
UNSD time use data portal (2016)
Zimbabwe 2014 LFS

Questions used to calculate the SIGI scores

The SIGI country profiles are derived from a questionnaire on gender-related legal frameworks – both formal and traditional/cultural – in the countries and territories covered. The questionnaires are mainly divided into two groups – the legal framework (formal laws) and the de facto (customary, religious or traditional practices or laws). While most of the questions have "Yes" or "No" answers, there are two that have numeric values (i.e. the question on the legal age of marriage for women and men). The list of the questions is as follows.

DISCRIMINATION IN THE FAMILY
Child marriage
Legal framework
What is the legal age of marriage for women?
What is the legal age of marriage for men?
Is the legal age of marriage the same for women and men?
Are there legal exceptions to the legal age of marriage that allow women and men under the legal age of marriage to marry with the consent of:
a. Parent
b. Guardian
c. Judge
d. The court
e. Other authority. Please indicate which authority is concerned.
De facto
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that allow or encourage early marriage of girls?
Household responsibility
Legal framework
Does the law provide women with the same rights as men to be recognised as the head of household?
Does the law provide women with the same rights as men to be the legal guardians of their children during marriage?
Does the law provide women with the same rights as men to be legal guardians of their children in informal unions?
De facto
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights to be recognised as the head of household?
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal right to be the legal guardians of her children?
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal right to choose where to live?

Divorce
Legal framework
Does the law provide women with the same rights as men to initiate divorce?
Do women have the same requirements as men to finalise a divorce or annulment?
Does the law provide women with the same rights as men to be the legal guardians of their children after divorce?
De facto
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights to initiate divorce?
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights to be the legal guardians of their children after divorce?
Inheritance
Legal framework
Does the law provide daughters with the same rights as sons to inherit land?
Does the law provide daughters with the same rights as sons to inherit non-land assets?
Does the law provide female surviving spouses with the same rights as male surviving spouses to inherit land?
Does the law provide female surviving spouses with the same rights as male surviving spouses to inherit non-land assets?
De facto
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against daughters' legal rights to inherit?
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against female surviving spouses' legal rights to inherit?
Legal framework (Exceptions)
Does the legal age of marriage apply to all groups of women?
Regarding women's legal rights to be recognised as the head of household, does the law apply to all groups of women?
Regarding divorce, does the law apply to all groups of women?
Regarding inheritance rights of daughters, does the law apply to all groups of women?
Regarding inheritance rights of female surviving spouses, does the law apply to all groups of women?
RESTRICTED PHYSICAL INTEGRITY
Violence against women
National legal framework on VAW
Does the law provide for a comprehensive approach to address violence against women with specific provisions for:
a. Investigation, prosecution and punishment of the perpetrator
b. protection and support services for victims/survivors
Has legislation provided for the removal of provisions which reduce penalties in case of so-called honour crimes?
Laws addressing domestic violence
Legal framework
Is domestic violence a criminal offence?
Does domestic violence legislation cover the following abuse:
c. physical?
d. sexual?
e. psychological?
f. economic?
De facto
Are there any exceptions included in the traditional, religious and customary laws or practices that reduce penalties for domestic violence?
Laws addressing rape
Legal framework
Is rape a criminal offence?
Does the legal definition of rape include marital rape?
Does the law repeal discriminatory practices such as reduced sentences or escaping punishment if the perpetrator marries the victim?
Laws addressing sexual harassment
Legal framework
Does the legal framework provide legal protection from sexual harassment?
Does the law on sexual harassment include criminal penalties?
Does the definition of sexual harassment cover:

a. the workplace?
b. educational establishments?
c. sporting establishments?
d. public places?
e. cyber harassment or cyber stalking?
Reproductive autonomy
Legal framework
Is abortion legal?
Are there any conditions on legal abortion?
a. No restrictions on reasons for abortion
b. To preserve the mental health of the woman?
c. Due to rape, statutory rape, or incest?
d. To preserve the physical health of the woman?
e. Due to foetal inviability?
f. To save the woman's life?
RESTRICTED ACCESS TO PRODUCTIVE AND FINANCIAL RESOURCES
Secure access to land assets
Legal Framework
Regarding land, does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to:
a. own
b. use
c. make decisions
d. use as collateral
Regarding land, does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to:
a. own
b. use
c. make decisions
d. use as collateral
Regarding land, does the law apply to all groups of women?
De facto
Are there customary, religious, or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights regarding land to own, use, make decisions and use as collateral?
Secure access to non-land assets
Regarding property and other non-land assets, does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to:
a. own
b. use
c. make decisions
d. use as collateral
Regarding property and other non-land assets, does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to:
a. own
b. use
c. make decisions
d. use as collateral
Regarding property and other non-land assets, does the law apply to all groups of women?
De facto
Are there customary, religious, or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights regarding non-land assets to own, use, make decisions and use as collateral?
Secure access to formal financial services
Legal framework
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to open a bank account at a formal financial institution?
Does the law require married women to obtain the signature and authority of their husband/guardian to open a bank account at a formal financial institution?
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to obtain credit?

Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to obtain credit?
Regarding access to formal financial services, does the law apply to all groups of women?
De facto
Are there customary, religious, or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal right to open a bank account?
Are there customary, religious, or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights to obtain credit?
Workplace rights
Legal framework
Does the law mandate non-discrimination on the basis of sex in employment?
Does the law mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value?
Does the law prohibit women from entering certain professions?
Does the law allow women to work the same night hours as men?
Does the law mandate paid maternity leave?
Does the law mandate paid paternity leave?
Does the law mandate parental leave?
Does the law require women to have permission from their husband or legal guardian to:
a. Choose a profession/occupation or work
b. Register a business
Regarding women's legal right to choose a profession/occupation or work and/or register a business, does the law apply to all groups of women?
De facto
Are there customary, religious, or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal right to enter certain professions?
Are there customary, religious, or traditional practices or laws that require women to have the permission from their husband or legal guardian to:
a. Choose a profession/occupation or work
b. Register a business
RESTRICTED CIVIL LIBERTIES
Citizenship rights
Legal framework
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to acquire nationality?
Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to acquire nationality?
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to change their nationality?
Does the law provide unmarried women with same rights as unmarried men to change their nationality?
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to retain their nationality?
Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to retain their nationality?
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to confer nationality to their spouse?
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to confer nationality to their children?
Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to confer nationality to their children?
Regarding women's nationality rights, does the law apply to all groups of women?
De facto
Are there discriminatory customary, traditional, or religious practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights to acquire, change, or retain their nationality?
Are there discriminatory customary, traditional, or religious practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights confer nationality on their spouse and/or children?
Freedom of movement
Legal framework
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to apply for identity cards?
Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to apply for identity cards?
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to apply for passports?
Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to apply for passports?
Regarding identity cards and/or passports, does the law apply to all groups of women?
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to travel outside the country?
Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to travel outside the country?
De facto

Are there customary, religious, or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's rights to apply for identity cards or passports?
Political voice
Legal framework
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to vote?
Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to vote?
Does the law provide women with the same rights as men to hold public and political office in
a. Legislature?
b. Executive?
Enforce, monitor and promote
Do legal quotas exist to promote women's political participation at the national level?
Do legal quotas exist to promote women's political participation at the local level? For the respective country, please define local level.
Does the law provide for special measures other than quotas to promote women's political participation at the national level?
Does the law provide for special measures other than quotas to promote women's political participation at the local level? For the respective country, please define local level.
Are there incentives for political parties to include women on candidate lists for national elections?
Are there incentives for political parties to include women on candidate lists for local elections?
De facto
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal right to vote?
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal rights to hold public office?
Access to justice
Legal framework
Does the law provide women with the same rights as men to hold public and political office in the judiciary?
Does the law provide married women with the same rights as married men to sue?
Does the law provide unmarried women with the same rights as unmarried men to sue?
Does a married woman's testimony carry the same evidentiary weight in court as a married man's in all types of court cases such as:
a. Civil
b. Criminal
c. Family court
d. Tribunal
Does an unmarried woman's testimony carry the same evidentiary weight in court as an unmarried man's in all types of court cases such as:
a. Civil
b. Criminal
c. Family court
d. Tribunal
De facto
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal right to sue?
Does a woman's testimony carry the same evidentiary weight in customary/religious courts/tribunals as a man's?
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women in terms of providing testimony in court?
Are there customary, religious or traditional practices or laws that discriminate against women's legal right to be judges, advocates or other court officers?

Annex C. Glossary

Child marriage: is defined as marriage before the age of 18 (UNICEF, n.d.).

Customary, religious or traditional practices or laws: are defined by the customs, religions and traditional practices observed among a specific community.

Gender-responsiveness: means create an environment that reflects an understanding of the realities of women's lives and addresses them.

Female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C): all procedures involving partial or total removal of the external female genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for non-medical reasons (World Health Organization, 2008).

Discrimination against women: Any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women (CEDAW).

Domestic violence: Violence that occurs within the private sphere, generally between individuals who are related through blood, intimacy or law (CEDAW).

Equal access: Equal opportunities to have access to resources, assets, services, training and education opportunities, markets, sources of income and decent employment opportunities (FAO).

Equal opportunity: Equality in employment regardless of race, skin colour, sex, religion and so forth; non-discriminatory practices in hiring employees (UN).

Forced marriage: Forced marriage describes a marriage that takes place without the free or valid consent of one or both of the partners and involves either physical or emotional duress (UN).

Gender-based violence: Any harmful act directed against individuals or groups of individuals on the basis of their gender or sex (UN).

Gender gap: Disparity between women and men, and girls and boys, in their access to resources, education, health services or power (WFP).

Gender norms: Ideas about how men and women should be and act. Most such "rules" are learned and internalised early in life, which creates an inter-generational cycle of gender socialisation and stereotyping (UNICEF, UNFPA, UNDP, UN Women).

Missing women: this concept was first introduced by Amartya Sen in 1990. He hypothesised that over 100 million women were missing due to the excess mortality of women from inequality and neglect. The "missing women" phenomenon is captured by the shortfall in the number of girls aged 0-4, relative to their expected survival rate in the absence of sex-selective abortions, female infanticide and with similar levels of health and nutrition to boys, correcting for natural biological and physiological differences.

Reproductive health: state of complete physical, mental and social well-being (and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity) in all matters relating to the reproductive system and its functions and processes (UN).

Sexual harassment: Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature (UNESCO).

Unmet need for family planning: the gap between women's reproductive intentions and their contraceptive behaviour, defined as the proportion of currently married or in-union women of reproductive age (15-49) who want to cease or delay childbearing but are not using any method of contraception (UNDP, 2018).

Violence against women: 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 (Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, 1995). The SIGI captures the proportion of women who have ever had a partner and who have experienced intimate physical and/or sexual violence at least once in their lifetime.

Annex D. SIGI regional overviews

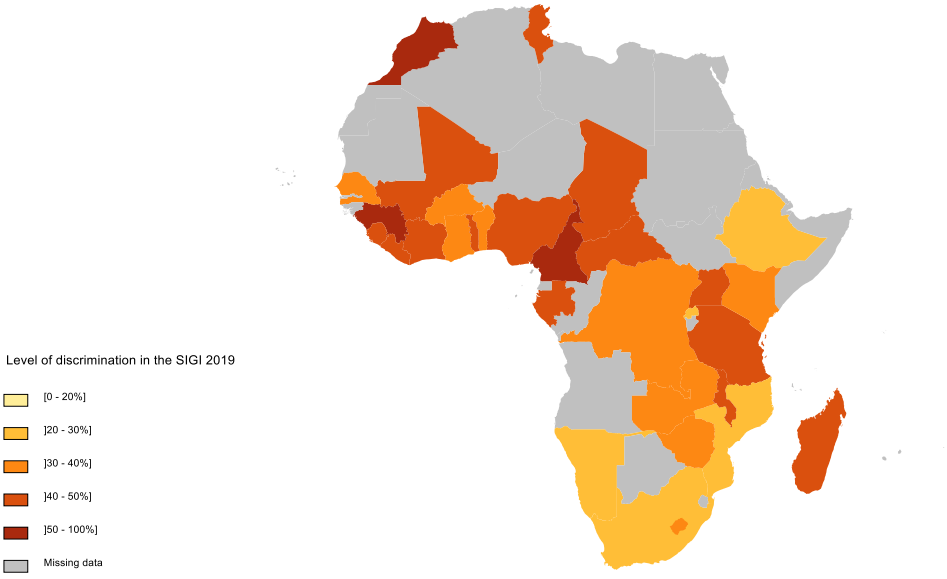
The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

This chapter presents trends in the SIGI results in four regions: Africa, The Americas, Asia and Europe. Each section presents an overview of recent progress and persisting discrimination in social institutions against women and girls for each region and sub-region.

Africa lags behind the other three regions in the achievement of women's rights and gender equality but is the one making the most progress since the last edition of the SIGI in 2014. Important legal reforms, enhanced by efforts in implementation, have seen positive changes in social attitudes and decreased prevalence of harmful practices towards women. Europe, on the other hand, while the best performer of the 2019 SIGI is showing slow progress in improving women's access to resources and opportunities. While certain legal loopholes still exist, resulting in weak protection of women in areas, such as gender-based violence and workplace rights, some harmful attitudes and practices are prevalent worldwide.

Africa

Figure A D.1. Level of discrimination in African countries in the SIGI 2019



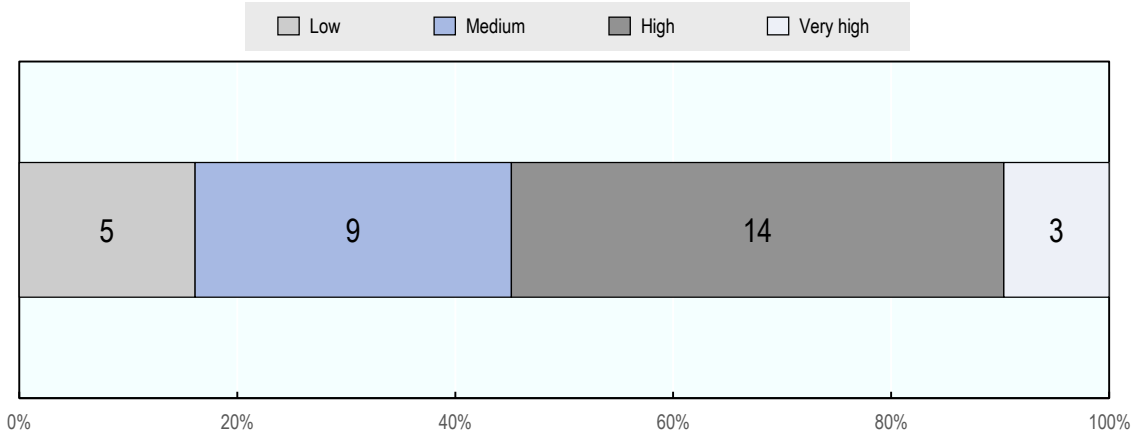
Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Countries without a SIGI value have data on certain sub-indices but due to missing data aggregate ranking is not provided.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

With a SIGI score of 40%, Africa is the poorest performer globally in the 2019 edition of the SIGI. Out of the 31 African countries ranked in the SIGI, 17 show high to very high levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions and no country in the region is classified as having very low discrimination (Figure A D.2). However, the African continent presents wide sub-regional disparities (Figure A D.3): Northern Africa[1] has the highest level of discrimination among the five African sub-regions (SIGI = 49%), followed by Middle Africa[2] and Western Africa[3] (SIGI = 44%), Eastern Africa[4] (SIGI = 36%) while Southern Africa[5] has the lowest level of discrimination (SIGI = 29%).

Discrimination in the family is the first area of concern in Africa among the four dimensions of the SIGI (Figure A D.4). For example, legal loopholes and weak implementation of laws result in high prevalence of girl child marriage: despite 44 countries' having set the legal age of marriage for girls at 18, 23% of girls aged 15-19 years are or have been married or are in informal unions in the region.

The second dimension that needs special attention is women's access to productive and financial resources, notably access to land: 17 countries do not grant women the same rights to inherit land assets as men; 7 countries deny married women the same rights as men to own land; women represent only 13% of all agricultural landholders in Africa.

Figure A D.2. Number and share of African countries by level of discrimination in the SIGI 2019



Note: This figure presents the share and number of African countries in the SIGI classification. 31 out of 54 countries in Africa are ranked in the SIGI.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Main progress

Discrimination in the family

- Since 2010, 5 countries[6] have introduced new legal provisions mandating daughters' and sons' equal rights to inherit land and non-land assets, raising the total number of countries providing equal inheritance rights to 41 out of 54 countries.

Restricted physical integrity

- Since 2010, ten countries[7] have newly enacted laws against domestic violence. Legal reforms and national plans have been accompanied by a decrease in the prevalence and social acceptance of domestic violence: the share of women who had experienced intimate-partner violence was 42% in 2012 compared to 33% in 2018, and the percentage of women considering that domestic violence was justifiable decreased from 56% in 2012 to 46% in 2018.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

- Since 2010, 7 countries[8] have enacted laws guaranteeing equal remuneration for work of equal value, joining the 43 countries that already have such legal provisions.

Restricted civil liberties

- Since 2011, 13 countries[9] have mandated legal quotas to encourage women's political participation at the local or national level. These measures, when accompanied by enforcement mechanisms, have resulted in an increase in the percentage of female members of parliament from 18% in 2012 to 23% in 2018.

Main legal loopholes

Discrimination in the family

- In 49 countries, the law allows girl child marriage: 23% of girls aged 15-19 years are or have been married or are in informal unions.
- In 26 countries, women are not legally recognised as heads of household.

Restricted physical integrity

- In 21 countries, there is no criminal law prohibiting female genital mutilation (FGM) as a harmful practice, while in Africa 42% of women have been cut and 24% think this practice should continue.
- In 42 countries, the law allows for abortions only in limited circumstances, while during 2010-14, three in four abortions in Africa were performed under unsafe circumstances (Guttmacher Institute, 2018[1]).

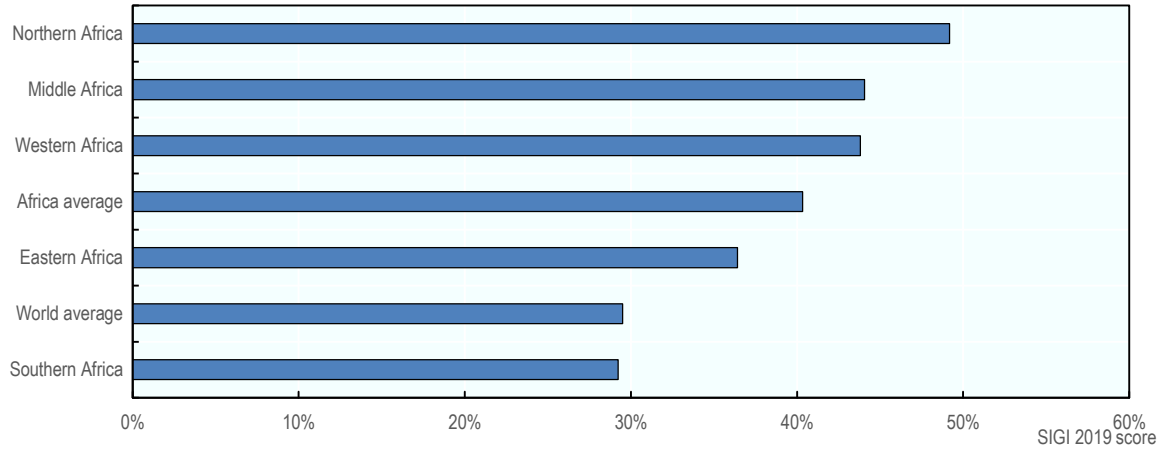
Restricted access to productive and financial resources

- In 36 countries, there are no public measures in place to protect women's land rights and women only represent 13% of agricultural landholders in Africa.
- While 53 countries offer paid maternity leave, only 25 have legal regulations on paid paternity leave.

Restricted civil liberties

- 23 countries deny women equal rights as men to confer nationality on their spouse.
- In 15 countries, the law does not provide married women with the same rights as married men to apply for passports.

Figure A D.3. Africa's sub-regional scores in the SIGI 2019



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Based on the ranking of 31 African countries: 2 in Northern Africa, 5 in Middle Africa, 11 in Western Africa, 10 in Eastern Africa and 3 in Southern Africa.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database,* https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Eastern Africa

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Data on certain subindices is available for Burundi, Comoros, Djibouti, Eritrea, Mauritius, Seychelles, Somalia and South Sudan.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2015, 15 of the 18 countries from the sub-region included in SIGI have provided women and men with the same rights to legal guardianship of their children during marriage and after divorce.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2010, seven countries[10] have newly enacted laws protecting women against violence. The prevalence of domestic violence has significantly decreased from 53% in 2012 to 36% in 2018; and the percentage of women considering that it is justifiable has decreased from 59% in 2012 to 52% in 2018.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2012, all countries recognise that women have the same rights as men to open a bank account and obtain credit at a formal financial institution.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2011, three countries[11] have new constitutions that mandate legal quotas for women to promote their political participation at the national level, bringing the total number in the region with similar provisions to ten.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Girl child marriage is persistent: 24% of girls aged 15-19 years are or have been married or are in informal unions in 2018, compared to 26% in 2012.

Restricted physical integrity

Women's physical integrity is highly restricted: in nine countries, women can only obtain an abortion if the pregnancy is life-threatening or results from rape or incest; 22% of women have an unmet need for family planning; 38% of women have undergone female genital mutilation and 13% are not ready to abandon the practice.

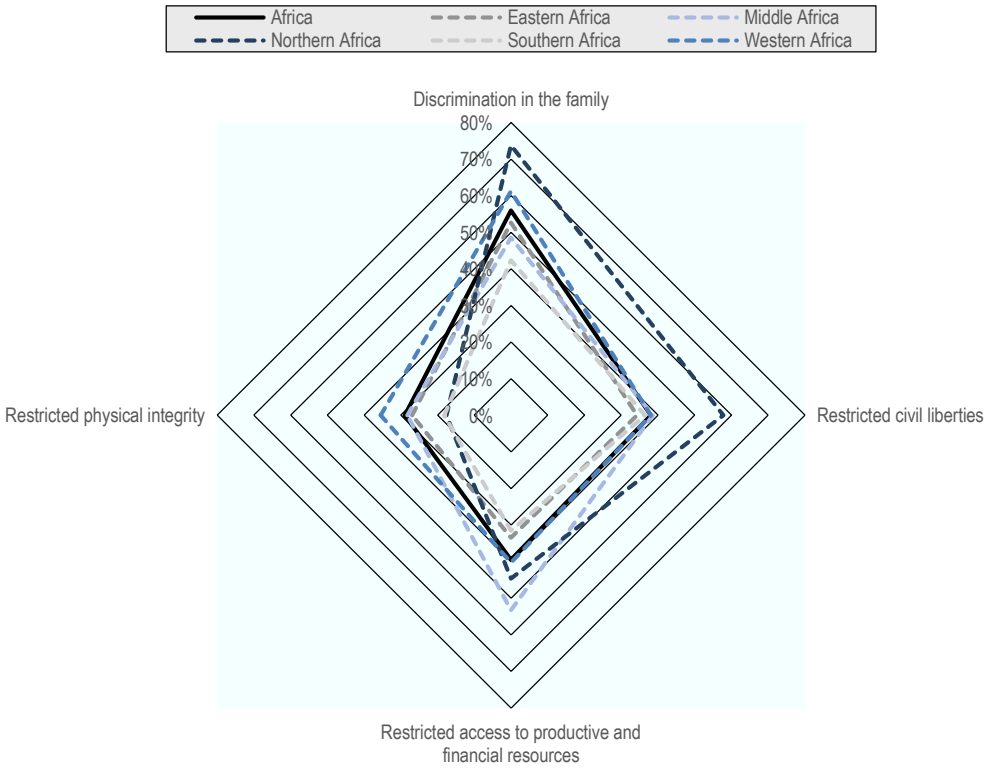
Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's access to land is still limited: only 20% of agricultural landholders are women.

Restricted civil liberties

Discriminatory social norms restrict women's freedom of movement: they represent 63% of the people who declare not feeling safe walking alone at night.

Figure A D.4. Africa's sub-regional scores in the four SIGI 2019 sub-indices



Note: Regional and sub-regional averages of SIGI sub-indices. Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Middle Africa

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Democratic Republic of Congo and Gabon. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Angola, Equatorial Guinea, Republic of Congo and Sao Tome and Principe.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Girl child marriage is prohibited in 8 countries; the percentage of girls aged 15-19 years who are or have been married or are in informal unions decreased from 56% to 26% between 2009 and 2018.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2012, three countries[12] have enacted laws criminalising sexual harassment, raising the total number of countries having such legal provisions to six of the nine in the sub-region.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2012, all countries in the sub-region have enacted laws guaranteeing women's employment security during maternity leave.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2011, women have been entitled the same rights as men to confer nationality on their spouses in six countries.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

The burden of unpaid care and domestic work is still borne by women: they spend on average three and a half hours per day on such activities, which is three times longer than men do.

Restricted physical integrity

The prevalence and social acceptance of domestic violence is pervasive: in 56% of the countries in Middle Africa, domestic violence is not a criminal offence and 45% of women have been victims of it; 58% of women consider that domestic violence is justifiable in certain circumstances.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

The "glass ceiling" is still holding women back from progressing in the workplace: women hold only 20% of management positions.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's representation in public life is still limited: three countries do not have legal quotas or incentives to promote women's political participation and women represent only 18% of members of parliament.

Northern Africa

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Morroco and Tunisia. Data on certain subindices is available for Algeria, Egypt, Libya and Sudan.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2004, 4 countries[13] have raised the minimum legal age of marriage to 18 for both women and men.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2015, two countries[14] have introduced laws addressing violence against women; the prevalence of domestic violence, measured as the percentage of women in a relationship who reported having suffered from it, has decreased from 36% to 28% and the percentage of women who accept this practice has dropped from 51% to 34% between 2014 and 2018.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

In all countries, women have the same rights as men to open a bank account and obtain credit at a formal financial institution; two thirds of the countries implement gender-sensitive measures to expand women's access to formal financial services.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2011, four countries[15] have introduced new laws on legal quotas to promote women's political participation at the local level.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Traditional gender roles are deeply entrenched: five of the six countries discriminate against widows and daughters' land inheritance rights; 67% of the population claim that children will suffer when their mother has paid work outside home, while 86% of unpaid care and domestic activities are performed by women.

Restricted physical integrity

FGM remains a common and widely accepted practice: two-thirds of the countries do not have a criminal law addressing FGM, while almost 9 in 10 women have been cut and half say they do not want to abandon the practice (in the two countries where data are available).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's access to land is limited: four countries do not have a public measure to protect women's land rights and women represent only 5% of agricultural landholders.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's freedom of movement is restricted by discriminatory social norms: 62% of the persons who declare that they feel unsafe walking alone at night are women.

Southern Africa

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Lesotho, Namibia and South Africa. Data on certain subindices is available for Botswana and Swaziland.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2015, four countries have introduced legal sanctions for those who facilitate the marriage of a child.

Restricted physical integrity

In all five countries, rape is a criminal offence and in four of them this includes marital rape.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

All countries have laws recognising women's equal rights to open a bank account and obtain credit; in practice, women represent 51% of bank account holders.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2016, four countries have established a specialised body tasked with monitoring gender equality; Southern Africa is also one of the regions with the highest percentage of female members of parliaments globally (33%).

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Traditional gender roles are deeply entrenched in social norms. Half of the population says that children will suffer when their mother takes paid work outside home and 70% of unpaid care and domestic activities are performed by women.

Restricted physical integrity

The prevalence and social acceptance of domestic violence is pervasive: in 40% of Southern African countries, domestic violence is not a criminal offence; while 22% of women have experienced this form of violence and 58% consider that it can be tolerated.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women continue to be perceived as the main care providers: the law does not mandate paid paternity leave in 80% of the countries.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's access to justice is still constrained: three of five countries in the sub-region have customary or religious practices that discriminate against women in terms of their providing testimony; and in 2 countries a woman's testimony in religious tribunals does not carry the same evidentiary weight as a man's.

Western Africa

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Cabo Verde, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania and Niger.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2011, two countries[16] have enacted legal provisions mandating women's equal right to initiate divorce, raising to 12 the total number of countries in the sub-region to have such legislation.

Restricted physical integrity

In nine countries, domestic violence is a criminal offence, while its acceptance the female population has decreased from 52% in 2012 to 42% in 2018.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2010, five countries[17] have new passed legislation guaranteeing equal remuneration for work of equal value, raising the sub-regional total to 15.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2010, four countries[18] have enacted laws providing women with same rights as men to confer their nationality on their spouse, raising to ten the total number of countries having such provision.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Girl child marriage prevalence is the highest globally: 87% of Western African countries have legal exceptions that allow child marriage, while 29% of girls aged 15-19 years are or have been married or are in informal unions compared to 16% globally.

Restricted physical integrity

Women's physical integrity is highly restricted: in three countries, abortion is completely illegal and in five others, women can only obtain an abortion if their life is in danger or if the pregnancy results from rape or incest; 27% of women have an unmet need for family planning; 29% of women have undergone female genital mutilation and 23% are not ready to abandon the practice.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's access to productive and financial resources is highly restricted: they represent only 14% of agricultural landholders and 37% of bank account owners.

Restricted civil liberties

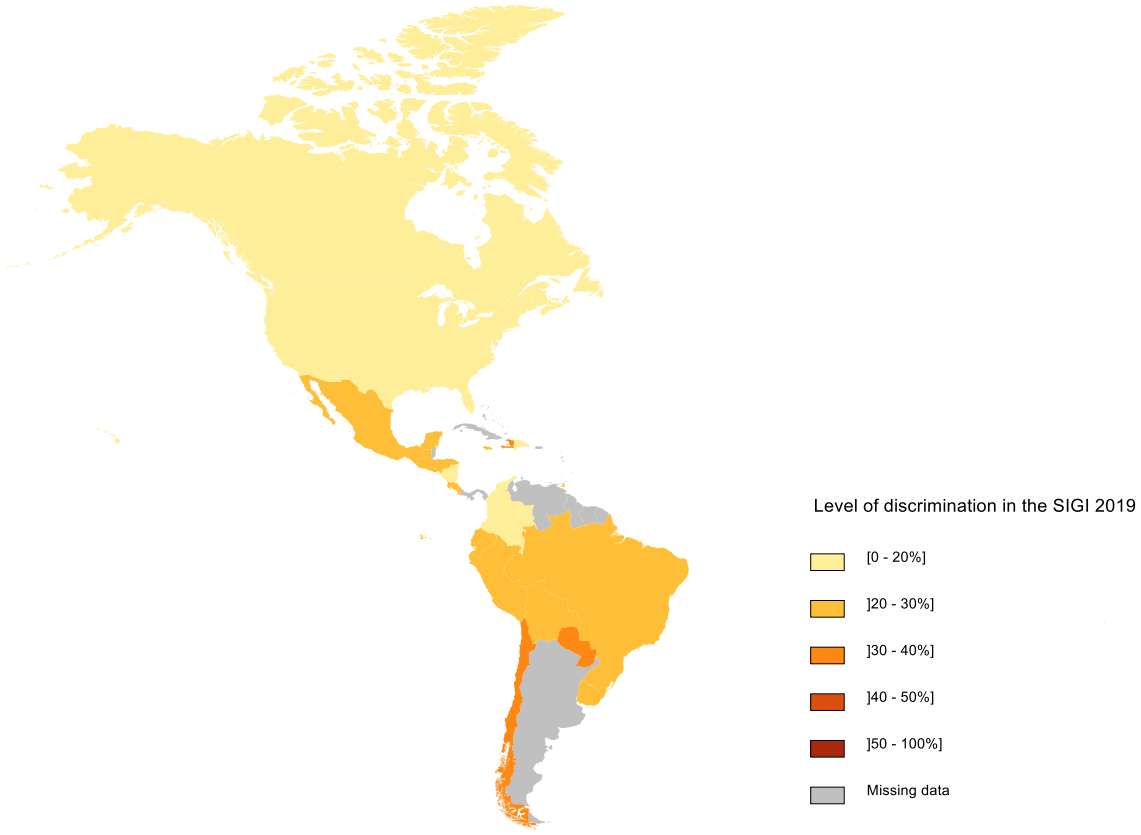
Women's political participation is restricted: 76% of the population agrees that men make better political leaders than women do and women represent only 15% of parliamentarians.

Box A D.1. The economic cost of gender inequality in Africa

Gender parity offers an immense opportunity for economic gain in Africa. The current level of discrimination social institutions in Africa induces a loss of USD 169 billion, or 7.5% of the regional GDP. Northern Africa faces the highest GDP loss due to non-fulfilment of gender equality (USD 54 billion), followed by Western Africa (USD 42 billion), Southern Africa (USD 29 billion), Eastern Africa (USD 26 billion) and Middle Africa (USD 18 billion). Gender parity also represents an opportunity to boost sustainable and inclusive development. A gradual reduction of the level of discrimination by 2030 could increase the annual GDP growth rate of Africa by 0.4 percentage points over the 11 years to 2030.

The Americas

Figure A D.5. Level of discrimination in American countries in the SIGI 2019



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Countries without a SIGI value have data on certain sub-indices but due to missing data aggregate ranking is not provided.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

The Americas region is the second-best performer in the 2019 edition of the SIGI. The level of discrimination in laws, social norms and practices is 25% compared to 17% in Europe, meaning the continent has achieved three quarters of the path towards gender equality. Of the 20 countries in the region ranked in the SIGI, 17 show very low to low levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions and no country is classified as having high or very high discrimination (Figure A D.6). Despite wide disparities, all four sub-regions have lower SIGI averages than the world average (Figure A D.7): Northern America[19] has the lowest level of discrimination (SIGI = 18%), followed by Central America[20] and South America[21] (SIGI = 25%) and the Caribbean[22] (SIGI = 27%).

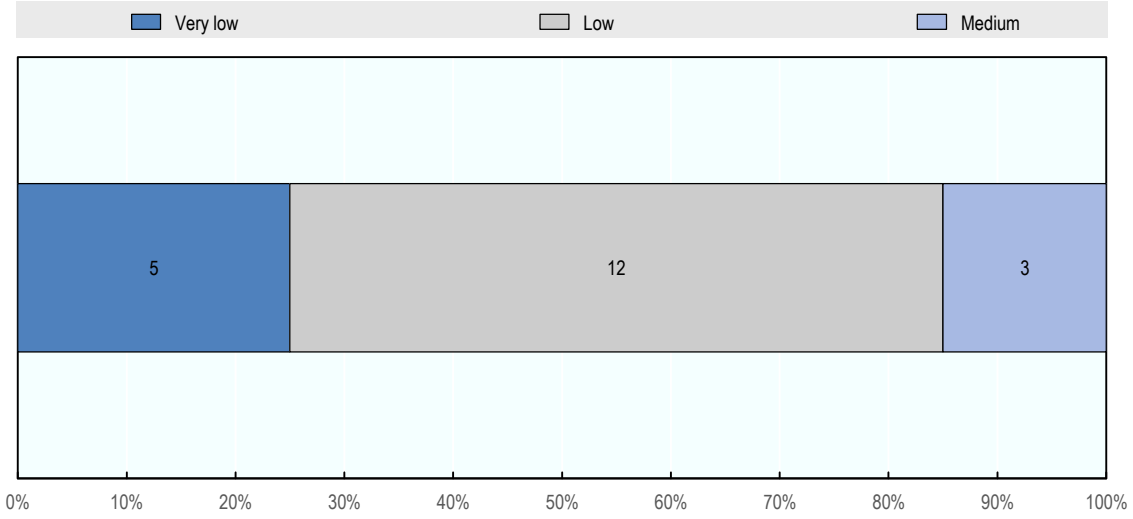
Discrimination in the family is the major area of concern in Americas (Figure A D.8), particularly girl child marriage and household responsibility. Child marriage continues to affect more than one in ten girls in the region. One of the reasons for its persistence practice is poor legal protection: the law allows girl to be married under 18 years in 27 countries out of 31. Women's voice and status within the household are still inferior to those of men. For instance, Colombia is the only country in the region with a law recognising that women and men enjoy the same right to be head of household. Unequal

status within the family is also reflected in the unequal distribution of caring and reproductive responsibilities among household members. Women spend four and a half hours per day on unpaid care and domestic work, three times longer than men do, and 61% of the population believes that being a home maker is just as fulfilling as paid work outside the home.

The second dimension that needs attention is women's access to productive and financial resources, notably rights in the workplace (Figure A D.8). In many cases, the law does not fully recognise women's right to work: the United States is one of the only two countries[23] in the SIGI that do not mandate paid maternity leave or paid parental leave for mothers; there is no paid leave available to fathers in 14 countries; 15 countries do not mandate non-discrimination on the grounds of sex during recruitment and promotion processes. Discriminatory social norms also maintain invisible barriers for women to progress in the workplace: 40% of the population believes that children would suffer if their mother had paid work outside home.

Finally, it is worth noting that reproductive autonomy rights are still restricted for women in the Americas. In 4 countries, abortion is totally prohibited; in 22 countries women can obtain an abortion only under limited conditions. The absence of this right has is strongly linked to the high prevalence of unsafe abortions in the region: 31 in 1 000 women aged 15–44 years have experienced unsafe abortions in Latin America and the Caribbean[24], twice more than the world average (WHO, 2012[2]).

Figure A D.6. Number and share of American countries by level of discrimination in the SIGI 2019



Note: This figure presents the share and number of countries in the Americas in the SIGI classification. There are 20 out of 31 countries in the Americas ranked in the SIGI.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Main progress in the Americas

Discrimination in the family

Since 2004, women have had the same rights as men to initiate a divorce in all countries.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2010, five countries[25] have legislated against domestic violence, raising the total to 29 out of 31. The prevalence and social acceptance of intimate-partner violence against women have slightly decreased between 2014 and 2018 (from 35% to 29% and from 14% to 11%, respectively).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2001, 24 countries have mandated equal remuneration for work of equal value; women hold 39% of the management positions, making the Americas the pioneer in the leadership of women in the workplace. In the Bahamas, Colombia and Jamaica, women represent more than 50% of managers, which is the case in only one other country in the world (The Philippines).

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2015, 2 countries[26] have introduced legal quotas to promote women's political participation, raising the total number of countries in the region with such provision to 15; the region has the lowest share of the population who think that men make better political leaders than women (24% compared to 47% globally); the percentage of women members of parliament has increased from 22% in 2014 to 28% in 2018.

Main legal loopholes in the Americas

Discrimination in the family

The law allows girl child marriage in 27 countries; while the prevalence of girl child marriage has slightly increased from 10% in 2014 to 12% in 2018.

In four countries, women do not have the same rights as men to be the legal guardian of their children after divorce.

Restricted physical integrity

The definition of sexual harassment does not include public places in 15 countries or include cyber harassment in 20 countries.

Abortion is only allowed under limited circumstances in 22 countries; 31 in 1 000 women aged 15–44 years have experienced unsafe abortions in the region[27], twice more than the world average (WHO, 2012[2]).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

The law does not mandate paid paternity leave in 14 countries and there is no paid parental leave in 28 countries.

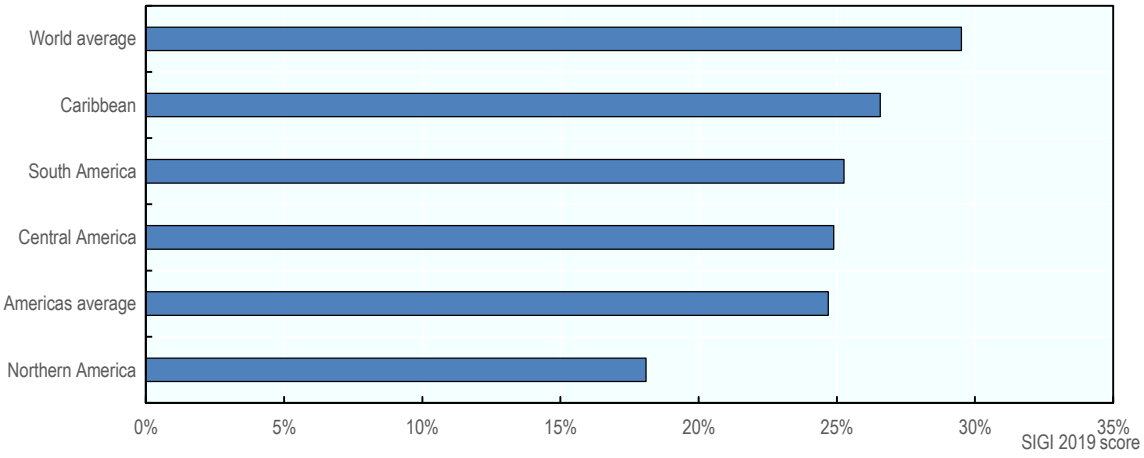
Nine countries have not implemented gender-sensitive measures to expand women's access to formal financial services; women represent only 44% of credit-card holders in the Americas, compared to 48% in Europe, which is the global best performer in this respect.

Restricted civil liberties

Women represent 56% of people who claim not to have confidence in the judicial system and courts of their country.

In seven countries, married women are required to provide information about their husbands and their marriage when applying for passports, while the same requirement is not required of men.

Figure A D.7. Americas' sub-regional scores in the SIGI 2019



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Based on the rankings of 20 American countries: 4 in the Caribbean, 8 in South America, 6 in Central America and 2 in Northern America.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

The Caribbean

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Grenada and the Bahamas.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2017, in eight countries the legal age of marriage has been set at over 18 for both women and men; the prevalence of girl child marriage has dropped from 20% in 2014 to 15% in 2018.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2012, the legal definition of rape has been extended to marital rape in three countries[28], raising the total number of countries in the sub-region with such a legal provision to six out of ten.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

In five countries, governments promote gender-sensitive measures to expand women's access to formal financial services; women represent 48% of credit-card owners; and hold 34% of the management positions, well above the 24 % world average.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2007, seven countries have had a special body tasked with monitoring gender equality.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Traditional gender roles are deeply entrenched: 59% of the population agrees that a woman's earning more money than her husband is almost certainly a problem; women spend four and a half hours per day on unpaid care and domestic work, three times longer than men do.

Restricted physical integrity

Violence against women remains a pervasive issue: seven countries do not have policies or national action plans addressing domestic violence; the prevalence of recent episodes of intimate-partner violence against women has remained stable (affecting 14% of women in the previous year) and the social acceptance of domestic violence has increased from 15% to 20% between 2014 and 2018.

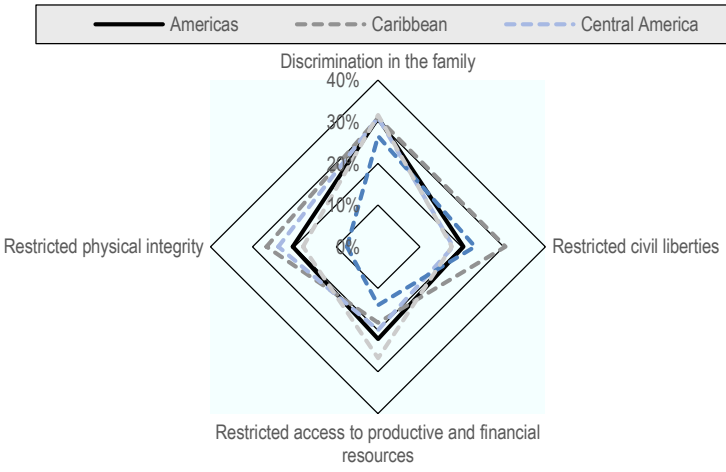
Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Both laws and social norms restrict women's workplace rights: five countries do not mandate non-discrimination on the basis on sex during recruitment and promotion processes; 14% of the population believes that it is not acceptable for a woman to accept paid employment outside the home.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's representation in public life is still limited: eight countries lack legal quotas or other legal measures to promote women's political participation at the national level; 35% of the population thinks that men make better leaders that women do.

Figure A D.8. The Americas' sub-regional scores in the four SIGI 2019 sub-indices



Note: This figure presents the regional and sub-regional averages of SIGI sub-indices. Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Central America

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Belize and Panama.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

In all countries, women have same rights as men to be the legal guardians of their children during marriage and in informal unions.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2012, three countries[29] have enacted laws addressing violence against women, joining the other four already with such legislation; the social acceptance and prevalence of intimate-partner violence against women have decreased between 2014 and 2018 (from 15% to 6% and from 43% to 16% respectively).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2011, five countries have mandated non-discrimination on the basis of sex for to job-selection criteria.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2013, three countries have implemented national policies and programmes to facilitate women's access to justice, including two that have put a special focus on indigenous women.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Girl child marriage is persistent: five countries have laws allowing girls to be married before their 18th birthdays; the prevalence of girl child marriage has slightly increased from 18% in 2014 to 20% in 2018.

Restricted physical integrity

Women's reproductive autonomy is restricted: abortion is totally prohibited in 3 countries; 29 in 1 000 women aged 15–44 years have experienced unsafe abortions in Central America, twice more than the world average (WHO, 2012[2]).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's access to land is still denied: six countries do not have a law or policy to promote women's legal literacy in land property rights; women represent only 15% of agricultural landholders and 27% of the house owners.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's political voice and access to justice is still constrained: Discriminatory customary or religious practices persist in four countries that affect women's legal right to hold public office and in two countries that limit women's legal right to sue.

Northern America

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for both Canada and the United States.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

It is in Northern America that men spend the largest amount of time on unpaid care and domestic work (2.7 hours per day compared to 1.6 hours of world average). The ratio of women's to men's time spent on these activities is 1.5, half the world average and the least disproportionate globally.

Restricted physical integrity

Both Canada and the United States recognise rape as a crime and the United States has included provision in budgets for training law enforcement and prosecutors who might be required to deal with sexual assault cases.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

In both countries, the law provides women with the same rights as men to open a bank account and obtain credit; the sub-region has one of the highest shares of women as bank-account owners (50%) and credit-card holders (49%), globally.

Restricted civil liberties

In both Canada and the United States, there is a specialised body tasked with monitoring gender equality, including resolving complaints of gender discrimination, and with conducting public awareness of gender equality.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Girl child marriage remains legal: there is no legal age of marriage at the national level in the United States and the legal age of marriage is 18 or above in Canada, although a child may marry at 16 with parental or judicial consent.

Restricted physical integrity

A woman's control over her body is restricted: the law does not include marital rape in the United States.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

The law creates gaps between women and men in terms of their rights and opportunities in the workplace: in the United States, the law does not mandate paid maternity leave, paternity or parental leave, while the gender wage gap is at 36% (ILO, 2015[3]).

Restricted civil liberties

Insecurity still threatens women's freedom of movement: women represent three quarters of those who say they feel insecure while walking alone at night.

South America

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Peru, Plurinational State of Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Argentina, the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela and Guyana.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2014, 3 countries[30] have raised the minimum legal age of marriage to over 18 for both women and men, bringing the total number to 9 out of the 11 jurisdictions in the sub-region.

Restricted physical integrity

All the countries in the sub-region have laws addressing sexual harassment, including 3[31] that have introduced new laws on this form of violence since 2005.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2007, two countries[32] have introduced laws mandating equal remuneration for work of equal value, joining the other seven in the sub-region that already have such provisions.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2010, two countries[33] introduced legal quotas to promote women's political participation at the national level, raising the total number of countries with such provision to eight.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Traditional gender roles are deeply entrenched: 55% of the population agrees that the children of mothers in paid work outside the home suffer; women spend four and a half hours per day on unpaid care work, three times longer than men do.

Restricted physical integrity

Women are not sufficiently protected from sexual harassment: there is no criminal penalty against this form of violence in five countries.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

The law still acts as an invisible barrier for women to work: they do not have legal rights to perform the same jobs as men in six countries; the law does not mandate non-discrimination on the basis of sex during the promotion process in four countries.

Restricted civil liberties

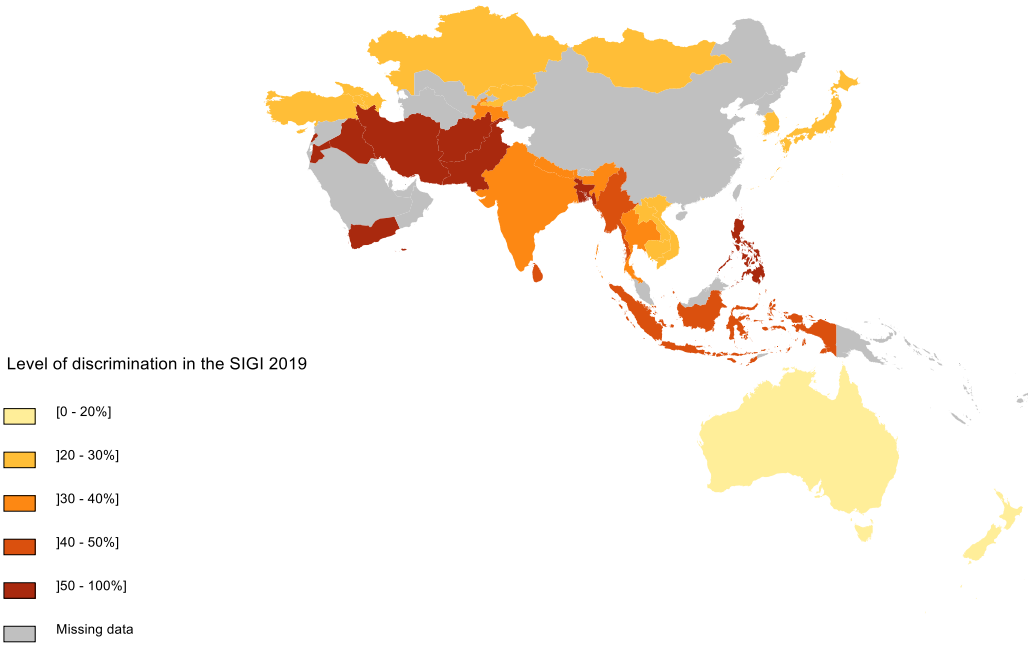
Women still face restrictions on their access to justice: the procedural rules in courts and tribunals do not consider the particular interests of women in eight countries; women represent 61% of the population who say they lack confidence in the judicial system and courts.

Box A D.2. The economic cost of gender inequality in the Americas

Gender parity represents an immense economic opportunity for the Americas. The current level of discrimination in social institutions in the region induces a loss of USD 1 979 billion, or 7.5% of the regional GDP. Northern America suffers from the highest GDP loss from gender inequality (USD 1 578 billion), followed by South America (USD 279 billion), Central America (USD 106 billion) and the Caribbean (USD 16 billion). Gender parity thus represents an opportunity to boost sustainable and inclusive development of the continent. A gradual reduction of the level of discrimination by 2030 could increase the annual GDP growth rate of Americas by 0.4 percentage points over the 11 years to 2030.

Asia

Figure A D.9. Level of discrimination in Asian countries in the SIGI 2019



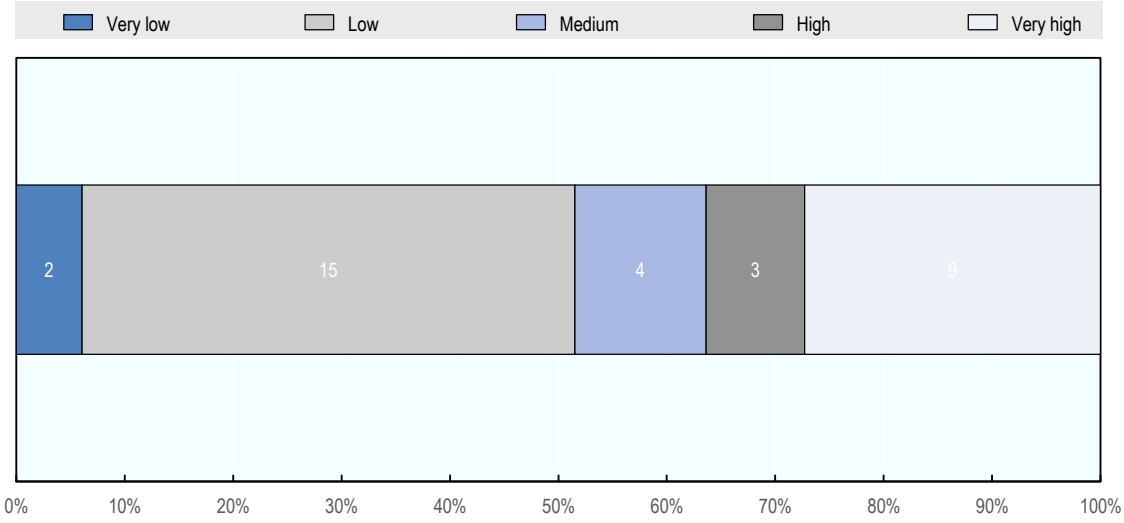
Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Countries without a SIGI value have data on certain sub-indices but due to missing data aggregate ranking is not provided.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Asia is the second-poorest performer in the 2019 edition of the SIGI. The level of discrimination in laws, social norms and practices is 36% compared to 40% in Africa, meaning the continent has only achieved two-thirds of the path towards gender equality. The countries in the region show heterogeneity in the level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions: 33 out of 55 countries are ranked across all five categories of the SIGI classification (Figure A D.10). 17 countries show a very low to low level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions, 4 countries exhibit a medium level and 12 countries are classified as having a high or very high level of discrimination. There is also a diversity in the level of discrimination among the six sub-regions of Asia: Southern Asia[34] has the highest level of discrimination (SIGI = 48%), followed by Western Asia (SIGI = 41%)[35]; South-eastern Asia[36] (SIGI = 35%); Central Asia[37] (SIGI = 26%); Eastern Asia[38] (SIGI = 22%) and the Pacific [39](SIGI = 16%) (Figure A D.11). Discrimination in the family is the primary area of concern in Asia (Figure A D.12). The hurdles to eliminating child marriage remain daunting - legislation in 49 countries allows the marriage of a girl aged under 18 years, and the prevalence of child marriage for girls in Asia is 15%. Given the high population, particularly in Eastern Asia and Southern Asia, child marriage affects 25 million girls aged 15-19 years. There is also a poor level of legal protection for women's voice and authority within the household: the law requires married women to obey their husbands in 17 countries; women do not have the same rights to inherit land and non-land assets in 19 countries. Finally, gender-based discrimination is also entrenched in social norms and traditional gender roles: women spend four times longer on unpaid care and domestic work than their male partners; 55%

of people in the region agree that paid work for a mother outside the home is bad for her children; 22% claim that it is not acceptable for a female family member to have a formal job outside the home.

Restricted civil liberties is the second major area that hinders the achievement of gender equality in Asia (Figure A D.12). Women's citizenship rights are still restricted by the law: women are not entitled the same rights as men to transfer their nationality to their non-citizen spouses in 22 countries and to their children in 15 countries. There is an absence of legal quotas at national or local level in 36 countries to encourage women's participation in decision-making; the female share in parliament has even decreased from 22% to 19% during 2014-2018. Discriminatory practices also prevent women from moving freely and safely: two-thirds of the people who feel unsafe walking alone in the area where they live are women.

Figure A D.10. Number and share of Asian countries by level of discrimination in the SIGI 2019



Note: This figure presents the share and number of Asian countries in the SIGI classification. 33 out of 55 countries in Asia are ranked in the SIGI.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Main progress

Discrimination in the family

- Since 2013, 36 countries have set the legal age of marriage above 18 for both women and men; the prevalence of girl child marriage has slightly decreased from 17% in 2012 to 15% in 2018.

Restricted physical integrity

- Since 2012, 12 countries[40] have introduced legislation to combat domestic violence, raising the total to 38; the prevalence of intimate-partner violence against women over the previous 12 months decreased from 21% to 17% from 2014 to 2018.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

- Since 2013, the law has mandated equal remuneration for work of equal value in 37 countries.

Restricted civil liberties

- Since 2014, every country in the region has granted equal voting rights to women and men in all types of elections.

Main legal loopholes

Discrimination in the family

- Only 6 countries recognise a woman's right to be the head of the household; while married women are required by law to obey their husbands in 17 countries and are punishable with legal sanctions if they fail to do so in 10 of them.
- Women are not provided with the same rights as men to inherit land or non-land assets in 19 countries.

Restricted physical integrity

- In six countries, the law has not repealed practices such as reduced sentences or escaping punishment, if the perpetrator of the rape marries the victim.
- In 40 countries, the law does not address sexual harassment at the workplace or in educational establishments.

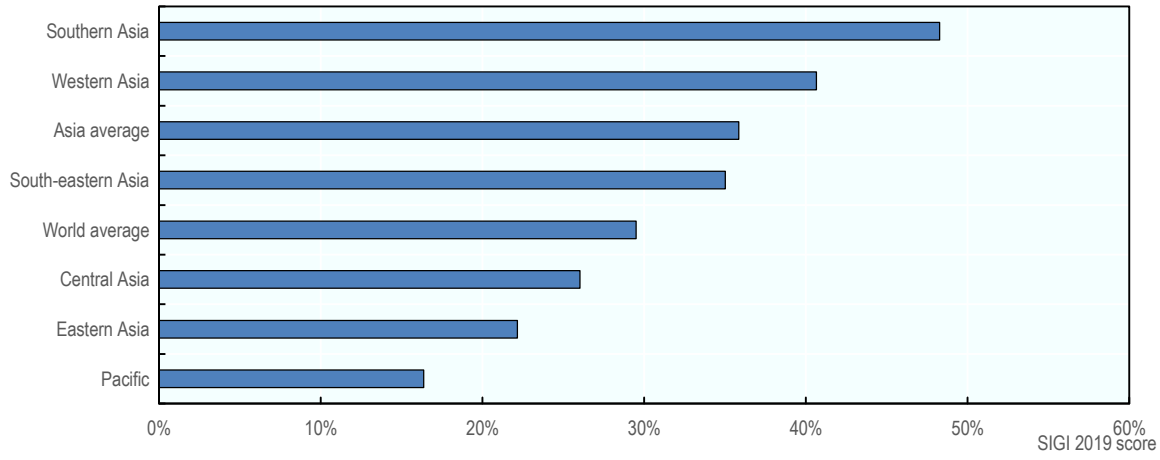
Restricted access to productive and financial resources

- In 39 countries, there is no legal protection for women's land rights. Women represent only 12% of the agricultural landowners, making Asia the region with the highest deprivation in this respect.
- The law does not require non-discrimination on the basis of sex during the promotion process in 20 countries and women hold only 17% of the management positions in the region.

Restricted civil liberties

- In 22 countries, women do not have the same rights as men to confer their nationality on a non-citizen spouse; in 16 countries, women cannot legally apply for a passport in the same way as men.
- There is no legal quota designed to promote women's political participation in 36 countries; the share of women in parliament has decreased from 22% in 2014 to 19% in 2018; 53% of the population believes that men make better political leaders than women do.

Figure A D.11. Asia's sub-regional scores in the SIGI 2019



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Based on the rankings for 33 Asian countries: 7 in Southern Asia, 9 in Western Asia, 8 in South-eastern Asia, and 2 in the Pacific.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Central Asia

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2012, four countries have raised the legal age of marriage above 18 for both sexes; the prevalence of girl child marriage decreased from 11% to 8% during 2009-2018 in the sub-region.

Restricted physical integrity

Abortion on request is legal in all five countries, making Central Asia the only sub-region in Asia where all women have this entitlement.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2015, all countries have legally established the principle of equal remuneration for work of equal value.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2006, all countries have established a specialised body tasked with monitoring gender equality.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Women's roles within the household are affected by discriminatory social norms: 46% of the population think that it is problematic if a woman earns more money than her husband does; 87% believe that being a home maker is as fulfilling as working for pay. As a result, women spend twice as much time as men do in unpaid care and domestic work.

Restricted physical integrity

Violence against women is deeply rooted: domestic violence is not a criminal offence in two countries; there is no legal protection against sexual harassment in four countries; 35% of the women believe that domestic violence is justifiable and 10% had been victim of it in the 12 months previous to being questioned.

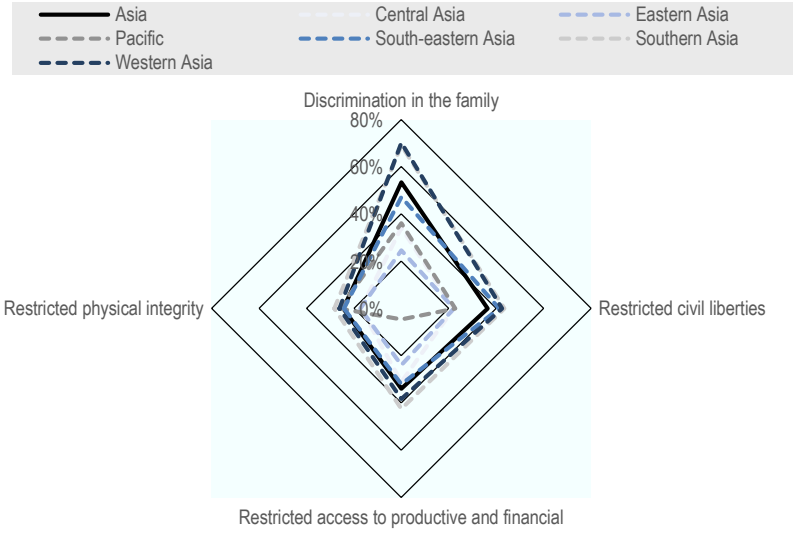
Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's access to land and non-land property is restricted: no country has a law or policy to promote women's legal literacy concerning their rights over land and property; only 12% of the landowners and 19% of the house owners are female.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's access to justice is not guaranteed: no country has legislation to protect women from violence in political and public life; six in ten people who say they have no confidence in the judicial system and courts are women.

Figure A D.12. Asia's sub-regional scores in the four SIGI 2019 sub-indices



Note: This figure presents the regional and sub-regional averages of SIGI sub-indices. Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Eastern Asia

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Hong Kong China, Japan, Korea and Mongolia. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Chinese Taipei and People's Republic of China.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Three countries in the sub-region have legal sanctions for those who facilitate a child marriage and its prevalence is the lowest in the region (3%, compared to the Asian average of 15%).

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2015, two countries[41] have enacted laws addressing domestic violence; the prevalence of intimate-partner violence against women has dropped from 34% to 16% from 2014 to 2018; the social acceptance of such violence also declined from 46% to 31% over the same period.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2015, paid paternity leave has become mandatory in four of the six countries and territories.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2011, 4 countries[42] in the sub-region have set legal quotas to promote women's political participation at national and local level.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Women still have limited rights in marriage and partnerships: the law does not regulate informal or de-facto unions in three countries and territories; official registration of such partnerships is not provided in all six countries and territories.

Restricted physical integrity

The missing women phenomenon continues to be a concern: Eastern Asia has the most uneven sex ratio globally, with 108 boys per 100 girls at birth on average in the region (compared to the natural sex-ratio of 105/100).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women face invisible barriers to progress at the workplace: the law does not mandate non-discrimination on the basis of sex for promotion in two countries; women hold only 13% of managerial positions.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's freedom of movement is restricted by feelings of insecurity: they represent 69% of those who say that they do not feel safe when walking alone at night.

The Pacific

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Australia and New Zealand. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Fiji, Papua New Guinea, Samoa and Solomon Islands.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

In 2009, Fiji raised the minimum legal age of marriage without parental consent to 18 for both women and men, joining the other two countries with such provision in the Pacific sub-region; the female-to-male ratio of time spent on unpaid care and domestic work is 1.8, the lowest in Asia.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2013, three countries[43] have enacted a laws addressing domestic violence against women; its prevalence in the last 12 months prior to their being questioned is 4%, according to a survey of women in the sub-region, the lowest in the region (Asian average = 17%).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2013, there is a legal requirement for equal remuneration for work of equal value in five countries; the percentage of population who believes that it is not acceptable for a woman to have paid work outside the home is 1%, 19 times lower than the Asian average and 15 times lower than the world average; women also represent 50% of bank-account owners and credit-card holders.

Restricted civil liberties

Five countries have established a specialised body tasked with gender monitoring and four of these conduct education and public awareness initiatives on the issue.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Women's rights in marriages and partnerships are not guaranteed: in half of the countries, the law does not regulate informal or de-facto unions.

Restricted physical integrity

Women's reproductive autonomy is restricted: in two countries, women can only obtain abortion if the pregnancy threatens their life or results from rape or incest; 15% of women in the sub-region have unmet needs for family planning, compared to the world average of 12%, which is the highest in the region.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's land rights remain limited: four countries do not provide legal protection for women's land rights and only 7% of the agricultural landowners are women.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's freedom of movement is restricted by feelings of insecurity: they are 78% of the population who say they do not feel safe walking alone at night.

South-Eastern Asia

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia and Timor-Leste.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2015, two countries[44] have implemented programmes to support the enforcement of laws on the minimum age of marriage, joining another three in the sub-region that have already adopted similar measures.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2012, seven of the 11 countries of the sub-region have passed a law addressing sexual harassment at the workplace.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Seven countries have promoted gender-sensitive measures to expand women's access to formal financial services; women represent 51% of bank-account holders and 50% of those who have obtained credit.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2016, five countries have had a law governing the production and/or dissemination of gender statistics.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Women's status within the family is still subordinate to their husband's authority: the law requires a married woman to obey her husband in three countries and women face legal sanctions if they fail to do so in 2 of these jurisdictions.

Restricted physical integrity

Domestic violence remains pervasive: four countries do not have a policy or action plan addressing this crime; while one in four women have been affected by domestic violence and three in ten think that this practice is justifiable.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's access to land assets is not guaranteed by law: seven countries do not legally protect women's land rights; the share of women in agricultural landowning has remained unchanged (13%) since 2014.

Restricted civil liberties

Feelings of insecurity restrict women's freedom of movement: 73% of the population who say they do not feel safe walking alone at night is female.

Southern Asia

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Data for certain sub-indices is available for Bhutan and Maldives.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

In 2010, India introduced a new law providing women with the same rights as men to be the legal guardians of their children during marriage, raising to four the number of countries in the sub-region with such legislation.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2016, legislation has addressed sexual harassment at the workplace in six of the nine countries in the sub-region.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women have the same rights as men to open a bank account and to obtain credit in all countries; since 2012, seven countries have promoted gender-sensitive measures to expand women's access to formal financial service.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2017, women are entitled the same rights as men to confer their nationality on their children in eight countries.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Girl child-marriage prevalence is the highest in Asia: eight countries allow it, while 23% of girls aged 15-19 (19 million girls) are or have been married or are in informal unions.

Restricted physical integrity

The preference for sons persists: there are 107 boys per 100 girls at birth on average (compared to the natural sex-ratio of 105/100).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women still face barriers to progress at the workplace: five countries do not mandate paternity leave and no of them mandates paid parental leave; 31% of the population think that it is not acceptable for a woman to work for pay outside the home; women occupy only 12% of the management positions.

Restricted civil liberties

The under-representation of women in political life persists: five countries have no legal quotas to promote women's political participation at the national or local level; women hold only 17% of the seats in parliament and 57% of the population thinks that men make better political leaders than women do.

Western Asia

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus,[45] Georgia, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Turkey and Yemen. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Bahrain, Israel, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, United Arab Emirates, and West Bank and Gaza Strip.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2013, 10 out of 18 countries have established 18 as the minimum legal age of marriage for both women and men; since 2014, forced marriage is prohibited in 11 countries.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2013, three countries[46] have enacted legislation addressing domestic violence, raising the number of countries with such provision to nine; the prevalence of declared intimate-partner violence against women in the previous 12 months slightly decreased from 13% in 2014 to 10% in 2018; the social acceptance of the crime has also dropped from 52% in 2012 to 29% in 2018.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2002, the law does not require women to have permission from their husbands to choose a profession in eight countries and to register a business in 13.

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2005, two countries[47] have adopted laws providing women with the same rights as men to vote, making these rights available to women in all countries in Western Asia.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Women's status within the family is subordinate to their husbands' authority: the law requires a married woman to obey her husband in 11 countries.

Restricted physical integrity

Female genital mutilation (FGM) is not restricted to African countries: 17 Western Asian countries do not have a criminal law addressing FGM; while in the countries where data is available 13% of the women have been cut and 11% think that this practice should continue.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's access to formal financial services is limited: 10 countries do not have a gender-sensitive measure to ensure the implementation of these rights, while the percentages of women in bank account owners (37%) and credit card holders (30%) are the lowest globally.

Restricted civil liberties

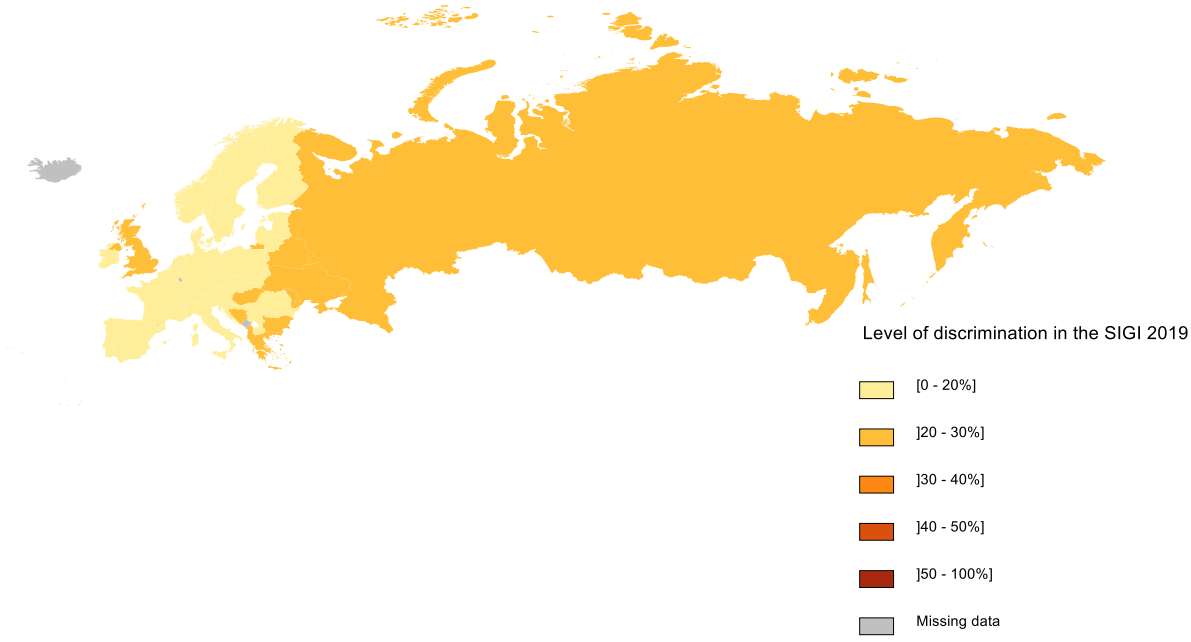
Women's testimonies do not carry the same evidentiary weight in family courts as men's in 11 countries.

Box A D.3. The economic cost of gender inequality in Asia

Achievement of gender equality offers an important opportunity for economic growth in Asia. With its current level of discrimination, Asia faces an economic loss of USD 2 283 billion, or 7.5% of the regional GDP. Eastern Asia bears the highest level of GDP loss due to non-fulfilment of gender equality (USD 1 428 billion), followed by Southern Asia (USD 280 billion), Western Asia (USD 229 billion), South-eastern Asia (USD 208 billion), the Pacific (USD 118 billion) and Central Asia (USD 20 billion). Progress towards gender parity leads to sustainable growth of the region. A gradual reduction of the level of discrimination can result in an increase of the annual Asian GDP growth rate by 0.4 percentage points towards by 2030.

Europe

Figure A D.13. Level of discrimination in European countries in the SIGI 2019



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Countries without a SIGI value have data on certain sub-indices but due to missing data aggregate ranking is not provided.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

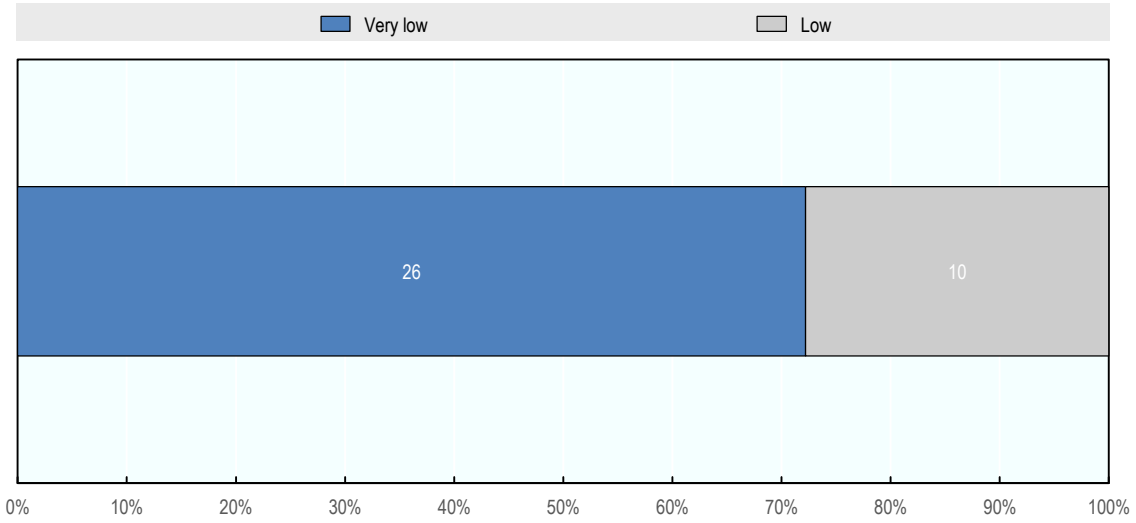
Europe is the best performer in the 2019 edition of the SIGI. The level of discrimination in laws, social norms and practices is 17%, compared to the world average of 30%. All 36 European countries ranked in the SIGI show a very low to low level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions (Figure A D.14). While Eastern Europe[48] has a low level of discrimination (SIGI = 20%), the other three sub-regions are all classified as having a very low level of discrimination (SIGI = 18%, 15% and 12% for Southern Europe,[49] Northern Europe[50] and Western Europe[51] respectively) (Figure A D.15).

Discrimination in the family is the principal obstacle to achieving gender equality in Europe (Figure A D.16). While the region is the global pioneer in reducing girl child marriage through legal prohibition and special programmes, girls can be married before their 18th birthdays in 35 countries. This legal loophole affects mainly women in minority groups: evidence shows that girl child marriages are more prevalent among immigrants, remote rural communities and minority ethnic groups. Social norms tend to define female/male roles in the family unequally: women spend an average of 4.3 hours on unpaid domestic and care work, twice as much as men; 61% of the population believes that being a home maker is just as fulfilling as working for pay.

Restricted civil liberties also constrain women's empowerment in the Europe (Figure A D.16). The region's progress in promoting women's representation in the political sphere has resulted in the highest percentage of women in parliament in the world (29% compared to 24% globally). However, Europe is still far from reaching

gender equality in political participation: 24 countries do not apply legal quotas to support women's participation in decision-making and a third of the population believes that men make better political leaders than women. Additionally, women's access to the justice system is not fully guaranteed. In 32 countries, there are is legislation or other measures to protect women from violence in political and public life; the law does not require the production and/or dissemination of gender statistics in 24 countries.

Figure A D.14. Number and share of European countries by level of discrimination in the SIGI 2019



Note: This figure presents the share and number of European countries in the SIGI classification. 36 out of 40 countries in Europe are ranked in the SIGI.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender Institutions and Development Database (GID-DB), https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019

Main progress

Discrimination in the family

- The region has the lowest prevalence of girl child marriage (3%, compared to 16% globally). Girl child marriage mainly affects immigrants, remote rural communities and ethnic groups (OECD Country Profiles, 2019).

Restricted physical integrity

- Since 2010, 3 countries[52] have removed restrictions on abortion, making the legal right to obtain on-demand abortion available to women in 33 countries in the region.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

- Since 2010, 2 countries[53] have introduced paid paternity leave, joining the other 28 European countries that have already established such provision.

Restricted civil liberties

- Since 2011, 2 countries[54] have established legal gender quotas to promote women's political participation, raising the total number of countries having such legislation to 16; the share of women in parliamentary seats has increased from

22% in 2014 to 29% in 2018, which is the highest ratio among the four regions of the SIGI 2019.

Main legal loopholes

Discrimination in the family

- The law does not regulate informal or de-facto unions in 9 countries and does not provide official registration for such partnership in 21 others.
- Women spend an average of 4.3 hours on unpaid domestic and care work, twice as long as their male partners; 61% of the population believes that being a home maker is just as fulfilling as working for pay.

Restricted physical integrity

- The law does not address sexual harassment in educational establishments in 17 countries and in public spaces in 31 countries.
- There is no policy or action plan to address domestic violence in 13 countries; while 21% of European women report their having been subjected to it; 12% believe such violence is justifiable.

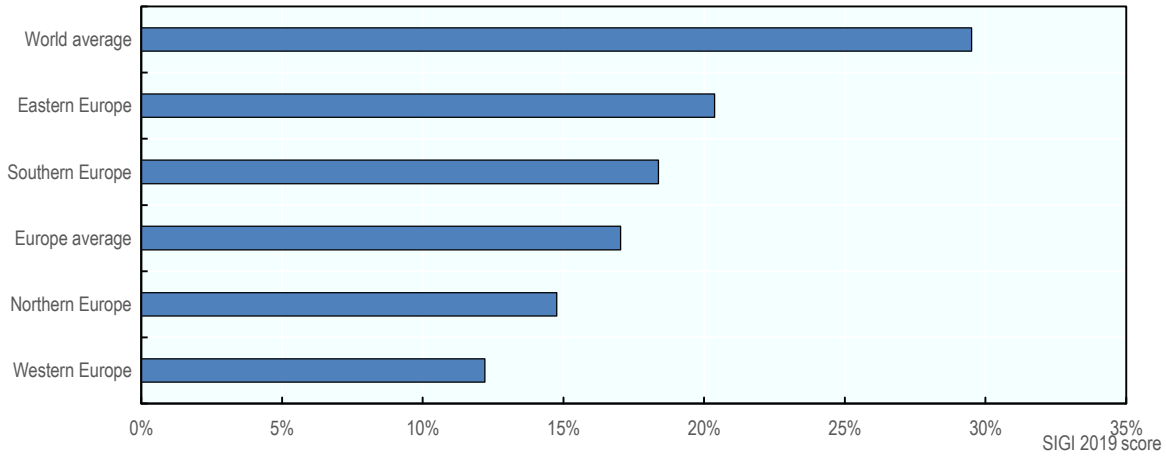
Restricted access to productive and financial resources

- The government does not promote gender-sensitive measures to expand women's access to formal financial services in 26 countries; women represent 46% of the borrowers from financial institutions.
- The law does not mandate non-discrimination on the basis of sex in job advertisements in 9 countries; women are prohibited from entering certain professions in 10 countries.

Restricted civil liberties

- In 32 countries, there is no legislation or special measures to protect women from violence in political and public life.
- There is no law requiring the production and/or dissemination of gender statistics in 24 countries.

Figure A D.15. Europe's sub-regional scores in the SIGI 2019



Note: Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for absolute discrimination. Based on rankings for 36 European countries: 10 in Eastern Europe, 11 in Southern Europe, 9 in Northern Europe and 6 in Western Europe.
Source: OECD (2019), *Gender Institutions and Development Database*, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Eastern Europe

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for all the countries in the sub-region, Belarus, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovak Republic and Ukraine.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

In seven7 out of 10 countries, child marriage is voided or prohibited.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2010, the definition of rape has included marital rape in 5 five countries. Domestic violence has been prohibited by law in seven countries since 2016; since 2016, the law addresses domestic violence in 7 countries; the reported prevalence of domestic violence during the last previous 12 months has slightly decreased slightly from 7% in 2014 to 5% in 2018.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

In 2010, Poland introduced paid paternity leave in the law, joining the another 4 countries in the sub-region with having such similar legal provision; the percentage of women in management position in Eastern Europe, at (40%) is highest higher than it is in both in Europe (35%) and globally (24%).

Restricted civil liberties

Since 2011, two countries have established legal gender quotas to promote women's political participation.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Traditional gender roles are entrenched: no country has a law recognising the equal rights of men and women to be considered as the head of household; 74% of the population believes that being a housewife home maker is just as fulfilling as working for a pay.

Restricted physical integrity

Sexual harassment remains a concern: in 5 five countries of the sub-region, the law does not cover sexual harassment in educational establishments and no country has legislation on outlawing sexual harassment at public places.

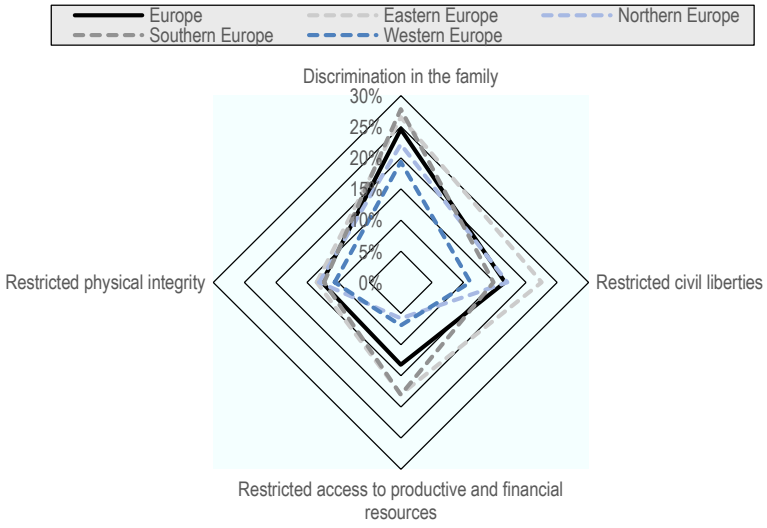
Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's rights to work is restricted: in 6 six countries, women do not enjoy the same rights to enter all professions as men do.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's under-representation in decision-making bodies persists: women they represent only 20% of the parliamentarians; 51% of the population thinks than men make better political leaders than women do.

Figure A D.16. Europe's sub-regional scores in the four SIGI 2019 sub-indices



Note: This figure presents the regional and sub-regional averages of SIGI sub-indices. Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0% for no discrimination to 100% for very high discrimination.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender Institutions and Development Database (GID-DB), https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Northern Europe

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Sweden and United Kingdom. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Iceland.

Key progress

Discrimination in the family

Since 2014, forced marriage has been prohibited in seven out of ten countries; Northern Europe is also one of the 2 sub-regions with lowest prevalence of girl child marriages (2%) together with Western Europe (1%).

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2011, two countries[55] have enacted a laws on domestic violence, raising the number with such legislation to eight.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women have the same right as men to open a bank account and obtain credit; they represent 50% of the bank-account owners and credit-cards owner.

Restricted civil liberties

All countries have established a specialised body to monitor gender equality.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Women's rights in marriages and partnerships are not ensured: the law does not provide official registration of informal or de facto unions in six countries.

Restricted physical integrity

The law does not fully protect women against sexual harassment: there is no legal prohibition of sexual harassment in public places in eight countries and none against cyber harassment in any of the ten countries in the sub-region.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Invisible barriers keep women from progressing at the workplace: the law does not mandate non-discrimination on the basis of sex in job advertisements in four countries and does not prohibit employers' asking about a woman's pregnancy or her intention to have children during the recruitment or promotion process in three countries.

Restricted civil liberties

Feelings of insecurity restrict women's freedom of movement: 63% of those who say they do not feel safe walking alone at night are women.

Southern Europe

Data for all SIGI sub-indices is available for Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (now the Republic of North Macedonia),Greece, Italy, Malta, Portugal, Serbia, Slovenia and Spain. Data on certain sub-indices is available for Kosovo and Montenegro.

Key progress

Discrimination in the Family

Since 2016, the law has prohibited forced marriage in 9 out of 13 countries.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2010, two countries[56] have removed restrictions on abortion, joining other ten countries where women have the right to on-demand abortions.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

The law mandates non-discrimination on the basis of sex in job-selection criteria, hiring and promotion in all countries.

Restricted civil liberties

Eleven countries have legal quotas to promote women's political participation at the local level.

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Discriminatory norms define women's inferior role within the household: women's time spent on unpaid care and domestic work is 3 times longer than it is for men; 48% of the population believes that being a home maker is just as fulfilling as paid work.

Restricted physical integrity

Son bias remains a problem: 4 countries have sex ratio above 107 males/females (the natural sex ratio is 105/100).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Women's access to financial resources is restricted: ten countries have no gender-sensitive measures to expand women's access to formal financial services, while women represent only 41% of the persons who have borrowed from a financial institution.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's access to justice is not guaranteed: 10 countries do not provide for the establishment of courts/tribunals to facilitate women's access to justice; women represent 53% of the population who say they have no confidence in the judicial system and courts.

Western Europe

Data for all SIGI sub-indices available for Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Netherlands and Switzerland. Data on certain sub-indices available for Luxembourg.

Key progress

Discrimination in the Family

The prevalence of girl child marriage is the world's lowest: 1% of girls aged 15-19 years are or have been married or are in informal unions, compared to 16% globally.

Restricted physical integrity

Since 2013, six of the 7 countries in the sub-region have provided a hotline for victims of domestic violence. Western Europe also has the lowest percentage women reporting domestic violence during the previous 12 months at 4%, compared with the global figure of 15%).

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

Since 2017, five countries have legally mandated paternity leave.

Restricted civil liberties

The share of women in parliament members is the highest in the region at 34%, (29% at the European level).

Key challenges

Discrimination in the family

Women's rights within the household suffer from social attitudes: one in three people say that when a mother works for pay, the children suffer; one in two agrees that being a home maker is just as fulfilling as a job outside the home.

Restricted physical integrity

Women are still not fully protected from sexual harassment: the law does not address sexual harassment in educational establishments in five countries and fails to consider cyber harassment in six countries.

Restricted access to productive and financial resources

The "glass ceiling" keeps women from advancing at work: women hold only 31% of management positions in the sub-region.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's access to justice is not universally guaranteed: there is no legislation or measure in place to protect women from violence and political life in four countries.

Box A D.4. The economic cost of gender inequality in Europe

Fulfilment of gender parity presents a considerable economic opportunity for Europe. The current level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions, costs Europe USD 1 516 billion, or 7.5% of the region's GDP. Western Europe suffers the highest shortfall (USD 655 billion), followed by Northern Europe (USD 345 billion), Southern Europe (USD 291 billion) and Eastern Europe (USD 225 billion). Tackling gender inequality helps European countries turn challenges into opportunities. A gradual reduction of the level of discrimination by 2030 could increase the annual GDP growth rate of Europe by 0.4 percentage points over the course of the 11 years to 2030.

Notes

[1] Morroco and Tunisia

[2] Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Democratic Republic of Congo and Gabon

[3] Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea, Liberia, Mali, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo.

[4] Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Uganda, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

[5] Lesotho, Namibia and South Africa

[6] Gabon, Kenya, Malawi, Mali and Rwanda

[7] Algeria, Angola, Benin, Comoros, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Tunisia, Uganda and Zambia

[8] Côte d'Ivoire, Equatorial Guinea, Gambia, Guinea, Liberia, Libya and Niger

[9] Algeria, Egypt, Lesotho, Mali, Mauritania, Morocco, Republic of the Congo, Somalia, South Sudan, Tunisia, Togo and Zimbabwe

[10] Burundi, Comoros, Kenya, Malawi, Somalia, Uganda and Zambia

[11] Somalia, South Sudan and Zimbabwe

[12] Cameroon, Chad and Sao Tome and Principe

[13] Algeria, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia

[14] Algeria and Tunisia

[15] Algeria, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia

[16] Mali and Togo

[17] Côte d'Ivoire, Gambia, Guinea, Liberia and Niger

[18] Guinea-Bissau, Mali, Niger and Senegal

[19] Canada and the United States.

[20] Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua.

[21] Brazil, Colombia, Chile, Ecuador, Peru, Plurinational State of Bolivia, Paraguay and Uruguay

[22] Dominican Republic, Haiti, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago

[23] The second country is Papua New Guinea

[24] No estimate are shown for Northern America where the incidence of unsafe abortion is negligible

[25] Antigua and Barbuda, Barbados, Grenada, Guyana and Plurinational State of Bolivia

[26] Chile, Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela (2015)

[27] No estimate is shown for Northern America where the incidence of unsafe abortion is negligible

[28] Barbados, Dominica and Grenada

[29] El Salvador, Nicaragua and Panama

[30] Ecuador, Paraguay and Plurinational State of Bolivia

[31] Chile, Colombia and Paraguay

[32] Colombia and Peru

[33] Colombia and Plurinational State of Bolivia

[34] Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan

[35] Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Turkey and Yemen

Note by Turkey: The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognises the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of the United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".

Note by all the European Union Member States of the OECD and the European Union: The Republic of Cyprus is recognised by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

[36] Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam

[37] Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan

[38] Hong Kong China, Japan, Korea and Mongolia

[39] Australia and New Zealand

[40] Bahrain, Bhutan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lebanon, Maldives, Mongolia, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, People's Republic of China, Samoa, Saudi Arabia and Solomon Islands

[41] Mongolia and People's Republic of China

[42] Mongolia, Korea, People's Republic of China and Chinese Taipei

[43] Papua New Guinea, Samoa and Solomon Islands

[44] Cambodia and Lao People's Democratic Republic

[45] *Note by Turkey*: The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognises the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of the United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".

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[46] Bahrain, Lebanon and Saudi Arabia

[47] Kuwait and Saudi Arabia

[48] Belarus, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Republic of Moldova, Romania, Russian Federation, Slovak Republic and Ukraine

[49] Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (now the Republic of North Macedonia), Greece, Italy, Malta, Portugal, Serbia, Slovenia and Spain

[50] Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Sweden and United Kingdom

[51] Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Netherlands and Switzerland

[52] Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (now the Republic of North Macedonia), Luxembourg and Spain

[53] Austria and Poland

[54] Poland (2011) and Republic of Moldova (2016)

[55] Latvia and Lithuania

[56] Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (now the Republic of North Macedonia), and Spain

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