

Gender Indicators: What, Why and How? ¹

1. Introduction

This brief focuses on the use of gender indicators as a way of measuring change. It asks: what are indicators, and why should we develop gender indicators? It also addresses the often political issue of what we should be measuring, providing some broad principles that can be considered in making these decisions, as well as some questions donors can ask themselves when they are developing gender indicators. The brief also offers examples of existing indicators – noting that they always need to be adapted to specific contexts.

2. What are ‘gender indicators’?

Box 1: What are indicators?

Indicators are criteria or measures against which changes can be assessed (*Imp-Act* 2005). They may be pointers, facts, numbers, opinions or perceptions – used to signify changes in specific conditions or progress towards particular objectives (CIDA, 1997).

A ‘gender-responsive’, ‘gender-sensitive’, or just ‘gender’ indicator measures gender-related changes over time. Gender indicators can refer to quantitative indicators based on sex disaggregated statistical data - which provides separate measures for men and women on literacy, for example. Gender indicators can also capture *qualitative* changes– for example, increases in women’s levels of empowerment or in attitude changes about gender equality. Measurements of gender equality might address changes in the relations between men and women, the outcomes of a particular policy, programme or activity for women and men, or changes in the status or situation of men and women, for example levels of poverty or participation.

2.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

Box 2

| Methodology | Working definition |
|---------------------|---|
| Quantitative | Quantitative methods of data collection produce quantifiable results, so they focus on issues which can be counted, such as percentages of women and men in parliament, male and female wage rates or school enrolment rates for girls and boys. Quantitative data can show changes in gender equality over time – for example, a well used quantitative indicator is the number of girls in school compared to boys. |
| Qualitative | Qualitative methodologies capture people’s experiences, opinions, attitudes and feelings – for example women’s experiences of the constraints or advantages of working in the informal sector, or men’s and women’s views on the causes and consequences of domestic violence. Often participatory methodologies such as focus group discussions and social mapping tools are used to collect data for qualitative indicators. Qualitative data can also be collected through surveys measuring perceptions and opinions. One example is ‘Program H’ which was developed in Latin America to promote more gender-equitable attitudes among young men (see Box 3). |

Box 3: Program H

Program H evaluates attitude changes resulting from project activities using a Gender-equitable Men Scale. Indicators were developed in the form of a scale of questions about attitudes. Attitude questions or statements include affirmations of traditional gender norms, such as: ‘Men are always ready to have sex’ and ‘There are times when a woman deserves to be beaten’, as well as assertions of more gender-equitable views, such as, ‘A man and a

¹ Prepared by Justina Demetriades and based on BRIDGE’s Gender and Indicators *Cutting Edge Pack*, 2007, http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports_gend_CEP.html#Indicators.

woman should decide together what type of contraceptive to use'. For each indicator, three potential answers are provided: I agree; I partially agree; I do not agree. This has proved useful to assess men's current attitudes about gender roles and to measure whether men have changed their attitudes over time (Barker et al 2004).

A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods enables data to be compared so as to cross-check or 'triangulate' the results. Qualitative interpretation of quantified data can provide for a more nuanced analysis which reduces the possibility of distorted findings and conclusions (see Box 4). Importantly, qualitative analyses enable us to question why certain patterns have emerged.

Box 4: SDC matrix for assessing qualitative impact data

The Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation (SDC) has developed a matrix to assist the qualitative interpretation of quantitative data. For example, a statistic on the proportion of women and men in parliament can be interrogated further by asking 'Is there a correlation between the proportion of women candidates who stood for parliament and number of women who actually got in? How does this compare with the situation of men?' (SDC 2006: 31).

Participatory methods are effective in gathering qualitative data. Participatory methods are based on the principles that men and women should be the agents of their own development, contributing to decisions about what should be measured and what indicators should be used, and participating in the research themselves.

3. Why look at gender and indicators?

Because what is measured is more likely to be prioritised and evidence gathered against indicators can help make the case that gender issues should be taken seriously. Indicators can be used for advocacy and can help make the case for action by highlighting key issues, backed up with statistics and other evidence.²

They enable better planning and actions. Gender indicators can be used to evaluate the outcomes of gender-focused and mainstream interventions and policies and help reveal barriers to achieving success. They can provide vital information for adjusting programmes and activities so that they better achieve gender equality goals and do not create adverse impacts on women and men. They can also be used to measure gender mainstreaming within organisations (see section 5.4).

They can be used for holding institutions accountable for their commitments on gender equality. Gender indicators and relevant data can make visible the gaps between the commitments many governments and other institutions have made at all levels – for example by ratifying the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) – and their actual implementation and impact. They can be used to hold policy-makers accountable for their actions, or lack of action.

They can help to stimulate change through data collection processes. For example, discussions in focus groups or in individual interviews can help raise awareness of particular issues. They can stimulate discussion and inspire recognition among participants of common experiences related to sensitive topics such as GBV.

4. Deciding what to measure

The choice of what to measure will be different for different actors. Governments might be concerned with monitoring progress for women and men, development agencies might focus on evaluating the impact of their gender programmes, while gender equality activists may be measuring gender (in)equality or (in)justice.

² Rwandan women parliamentarians worked with national and international NGOs, UN agencies and the national gender machinery to use statistics on gender-based violence (GBV) to lobby for a GBV bill. This evidence confirmed the prevalence and importance of GBV to parliamentarians, resulting in the acceptance of the bill in which domestic rape and other kinds of 'private' family issues are classified as criminal offences (UNDP Rwanda, UNDP/BRIDGE e-discussion, March 2007).

4.1 Principles to be aware of when deciding what to measure

4.1.1. Some key challenges

While measuring change is often considered to be a technical exercise, it is also a political process. In some cases, the choice of *what* to measure can reflect the priorities of those who “hold the purse strings” rather than those of partner countries or those intended to benefit from projects.

Lack of existing data on a proposed indicator can lead to it being dismissed as not useful. But in fact, the lack of data may reveal a need for such an indicator and the need to stimulate data collection.

It is not always easy to know why particular changes have happened. There are often other factors that contribute to positive or negative change in a given situation, beyond the interventions of donors or other actors. This does not need to be seen as a problem of “attribution”. Rather it can be seen as an opportunity and reason to recognise that multiple factors, including local resistance, political will and pressure from the media can all contribute to shifts in gender equality, and need to be taken into account to gain a holistic picture.

4.1.2. Good practice when developing indicators

Although there is often a temptation to simply apply universal templates and frameworks, it is important to adapt gender indicators so they are relevant. See section 5.2 for an example of how international gender indicators have been adapted and improved for increased relevance to regional contexts.

To be meaningful and illuminating, indicators need to be derived in consultation with local people, and to reflect the gender context of a particular region, country or community. Indicators should take into account statutory and customary laws, as well as reflecting the ways in which gender inequalities are experienced and expressed. Only then can they convey what would constitute meaningful change for the people involved in or being affected by donor policy (see the example from Andhra Pradesh in Box 5).

Box 5: ‘Another world is possible’

A group of village women in Andhra Pradesh, India, defined their visions of social change and worked out ways to measure that change. The women drew pictures inside a large circle to depict gender inequality in the world today as they perceived it: the pictures included girls working in cotton fields outside a school full of boys, and a woman begging for work from the landlord. In another circle, they showed how the world would look if gender equality became a reality: these pictures depicted girls going to school, a woman working with bullocks, and a man doing housework while his wife attends a meeting.

They used these pictures to develop an action plan. To measure if they were on the right track, they decided to note whether more women were agreeing to sign a pledge to send their daughters to school, and whether training in hand-pump repair, for example, was organised for women’s groups. To tell if they were getting where they wanted to go, the women counted increases in the number of days of agricultural work for women, and increases in the number of girls enrolled in school.

The fact that the women developed their own indicators meant that they were relevant to their daily lives and useful for measuring success in the given context. The use of images helped reduce barriers to participation due to poor literacy levels.

(Adapted from Menon-Sen 2006)

4.1.3. Key questions to ask yourself when designing gender indicators

Some questions that you should be asking in the design and review stages of developing gender indicators include:

- **What change do you want to see?** What would success look like? How will people’s gender or sexuality affect the way they understand and experience these changes?
- **Who should be involved in defining the vision of change, determining the indicators and gathering data?**

- **Are there existing national indicators that could be used or adapted?**
- **What legal frameworks exist that may enable or inhibit gender equality?** For example, does national law prohibit violence against women, or GBV more broadly? These frameworks can provide the basis for indicators.
- **Has CEDAW and its Optional Protocol been ratified?** If so, this can offer a framework for developing indicators.
- **What information already exists, or is being collected, to assist in tracking changes?** What relevant research and reports on the indicator already exist? If there is no data, what does that tell you and where might you look?
- **Do partner governments have the political will to undertake data collection around the gender indicators selected?** And were they consulted in the formulation of the indicators? Do they have the capacity to collect data?
- **How can you ensure small changes will be measured?** There is increasing pressure on donors to “manage for results” – to demonstrate significant changes in a fixed period. It is, however, important to consider which indicators could capture the often small, nuanced shifts in gender equality, that tend to happen over time.
- **How will the data collected be analysed and disseminated?** And how will the results be used for learning and feedback into programme/project learning and design?³

5. Examples of gender indicators

5.1. International indicators

There are a number of useful International indicators, such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

However, as noted above it is important to adapt these to specific regions, countries and local situations where possible. It is also essential to ensure they reflect gender concerns in a cross-cutting way rather than *only* in relation to areas explicitly associated with gender inequality, such as MDG3 as the example below demonstrates.

5.1.1. The MDGs

A framework for incorporating gender equality across the MDGs: Many practitioners and policymakers agree that gender equality and women’s empowerment are central to the achievement of each of the MDGs, and the achievement of Goal 3 in turn depends upon the extent to which the other goals address gender-based constraints. The Millennium Project Task Force on Gender and Education has developed a framework outlining some of the reasons why gender equality is important to each of the 8 MDGs (see Box 6). These can help to make the case for developing gender indicators for each MDG and provide a good starting point.

| Box 6: MDGs and the importance of gender equality | |
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| Goal 1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Equal access for women to basic transport and energy infrastructure can lead to greater economic activity • Investment in women’s health and nutritional status reduces chronic hunger and malnourishment, which increases productivity and wellbeing. |
| Goal 2. Achieve universal primary education | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educated girls and women have greater control over their fertility and participate more in public life. • A mother’s education is a strong, consistent determinant of her children’s school enrolment and attainment and their health and nutrition outcomes. |
| Goal 3. Promote gender equality & empower women | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This central goal dedicated to gender equality and women’s empowerment depends on the achievement of all other goals for its success. |
| Goal 4. Reduce child mortality | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A mother’s education, income, and empowerment have a significant impact on lowering child mortality. |
| Goal 5. Improve maternal health | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A mother’s education, income, and empowerment have a significant impact on lowering maternal mortality. |

³ See *Imp Act*, 2003 for information on the ‘Feedback Loop’, http://www2.ids.ac.uk/impact/files/practice_notes/PN1_FBL.pdf

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|--|--|
| Goal 6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria, and other diseases | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater economic independence for women, increased ability to negotiate safe sex, and more awareness of challenges around traditional norms in sexual relations are essential for preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS and other epidemics. |
| Goal 7. Ensure environmental Sustainability | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender-equitable property and resource ownership policies enable women (often as primary users of these resources) to manage them in a more sustainable manner. |
| Goal 8. Develop a global partnership for development | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greater gender equality in the political sphere may lead to higher investments in development cooperation. |

(Adapted from Grown *et al* 2005: 31)

5.1.2. The Gender-related Development Index and Gender Empowerment Measure

Box 7: What do the GDI and the GEM aim to measure?

The **Gender-related Development Index (GDI)** adjusts the Human Development Index (HDI) for gender inequalities in the three dimensions covered by the Human Development Index (HDI), i.e. life expectancy, education, and income. It is important to note that the GDI is not specifically a measure of gender inequality. The **Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)** seeks to measure relative female representation in economic and political power. It considers gender gaps in political representation, in professional and management positions in the economy, as well as gender gaps in incomes (Klasen, 2006).

In 2009 concrete proposals for the two gender-related indicators are being formulated. These include the calculation of a male and female HDI, as well as a gender gap index (GGI) to replace the GDI, that can be interpreted more directly as a measure of gender inequality (Klasen and Schüler 2009).

The GDI and GEM need to be used with caution: they are useful in their capacity to identify gender *gaps* in developing countries, rather than an overall picture of growth or education. However, they are limited in many ways. One concern is that the indicators are too broad to reflect the multiple dimensions of gender equality. A way to offset this might be to use the GEM and GDI in combination with measures of additional dimensions of equality, such as personal security and dignity, women's leisure time and gender balances in decision-making (see 5.1.3).

5.1.3. Composite Indices

International composite indices to measure gender equality have been developed, partly to complement and expand on the GDI and GEM. For example, Social Watch's Gender Equity Index (GEI) combines indicators from both the GDI and GEM, with a separate gender equality rating estimated for three dimensions (Social Watch 2005):

- **Education:** measured by the literacy gap between men and women and by male and female enrolment rates in primary, secondary and tertiary education.
- **Participation in the economy:** measured by the percentage of women and men in paid jobs, excluding agriculture, and by the income ratio of men to women.
- **Empowerment:** measured by the percentage of women in professional, technical, managerial and administrative jobs, and by the number of seats women have in parliament and in decision-making ministerial posts.

The World Economic Forum's Gender Gap Index (GGI) also uses a broad range of dimensions and indicators (see Box 8). Part of the GGI's innovation is in its measurement techniques, which combine quantitative data sets with qualitative measures from the Executive Opinion Survey of the World Economic Forum, a survey of 9,000 business leaders in 104 countries.

Box 8: Gender Gap Index (GGI)

GGI indicators include the following:

- **Economic participation:** male and female unemployment levels, levels of economic activity, and remuneration for equal work.
- **Economic opportunity:** duration of maternity leave, number of women in managerial positions, availability of government-provided childcare, wage inequalities between men and women.
- **Political empowerment:** number of female ministers, share of seats in parliament, women holding senior legislative and managerial positions, number of years a female has been head of state.
- **Educational attainment:** literacy rates, enrolment rates for primary, secondary and tertiary education,

average years of schooling.

- **Health and wellbeing:** effectiveness of governments' efforts to reduce poverty and inequality, adolescent fertility rate, percentage of births attended by skilled health staff, and maternal and infant mortality rates.

(Lopez-Claros and Zahidi 2005)

The GEI and GGI can be constrained by the amount of data available: national statistical data is limited in many countries, making it difficult to measure all the indicators associated with the GEI and GGI. While the GGI is a nuanced and comprehensive tool, the data requirements are so complex that it can currently only be used to measure levels of gender equality in 58 countries. The GEI measures a much smaller range of indicators than the GGI but it can be applied to 130 countries (Social Watch 2005b).

Another major shortcoming of both the GGI and the GEI is that neither includes indicators for informal work, unpaid and reproductive work, or time-use. These are critical to understanding women's participation in the economy because much of women's work falls outside the formal sector.

5.2. Regional indicators

International indicators do not always translate usefully to the local or regional level. Gender inequalities play out in different ways depending on the social, cultural or political context. For example, the 2004 ECLAC report on the Caribbean's progress towards the MDGs highlighted the limited utility of the MDG indicators (ECLAC 2004).⁴ The African Gender and Development Index is one example of how international indicators, in this case the GDI/GEM, have been adapted to the regional context.

The Africa Gender and Development Index (AGDI): The AGDI has been designed to provide African policymakers with an appropriate tool for monitoring progress towards gender equality and to help monitor progress in implementing the conventions which have been ratified by African countries, including the Dakar Platform for Action (UNECA 2004). It differs from UNDP's international GDI and GEM (see section 5.1), with a move away from Gross Domestic Product (GDP) measures. The AGDI incorporates a quantitative tool of 42 sex-disaggregated indicators (the Gender Status Index) along with a qualitative assessment of the level of implementation of key women's rights and national, regional and international gender equality documents such as human rights conventions and agreements (the African Women's Progress Scoreboard).

Box 9: The Gender Status Index (GSI)

The GSI is based on three components: social power, economic power and political power. Each of the three main components has the same weight in the calculation of the GSI. Within each block, each component also carries the same weight.

1. The social power component (capabilities) consists of two sub-components:

- Education: measured by levels of school enrolment and dropout, and literacy levels of girls and women.
- Health: measured by levels of child health, new HIV infection and time spent out of work through illness.

2. The economic power component (opportunities) consists of three sub-components:

- Income: measured by women's income from agriculture, from work in the formal and informal sectors and from cash transfers.
- Time use or employment: measured by time spent in economic activities, and in employment.
- Access to resources: measured by access to means of production and to management positions.

3. The political power component (agency) consists of two sub-components:

- Representation in key decision-making positions in the public sector.
- Representation in key decision-making positions in civil society.

(Based on FAO 2005:3-4)

⁴ In the Caribbean, while girls have higher participation rates in primary and secondary education than boys, this educational attainment does not translate into women's better positioning in labour markets or increased involvement in decision-making in the region. So the ratio of boys to girls in education may not be an appropriate indicator of gender equality (ibid).

Box 10: The African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS)

In each country, the research team assesses the level of implementation of all key women's rights and gender equality regional and international documents classified within four blocs:

1. Women's rights component:

- CEDAW, particularly its optional protocol, article 2 on the principle of equality of men and women in national constitutions and other legislations and article 16 on marriage and family relations.
- The African Charter on Human and People's Rights and the Protocol on Women's Rights..

2. Social component:

- Level of demonstrated commitment to the Beijing Platform for Action.
- Levels of violence against women, including domestic violence, rape, sexual harassment and trafficking in women.
- Health, including sexually transmitted infections, HIV/AIDS, maternal mortality and contraception.
- Education: policy on girls' school dropouts and education on human/women's rights.

3. Economic component:

- ILO Conventions and policies on equitable working conditions, including Convention 100 on equal remuneration, Convention 111 on discrimination and Convention 183 on maternity protection at the workplace.
- Engendering national poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSP) and other development plans.
- Access to agricultural extension services, technology and land.

4. Political component:

- Implementation of Security UN Resolution 1325 on the impacts of conflict on women and their role in peace-building.
- Development of effective national women's machinery.
- Gender equitable decision-making, including support for electoral quotas and gender mainstreaming in all government ministries and departments.

(Based on FAO 2005: 6)

See section 7, below, for various regional databases of gender indicators and statistics.

5.3. Country level gender indicators

At the country level, gender indicators are key to upholding commitments on gender equality and sustainable development, including CEDAW and the MDGs. Indicators on gender equality at the national level could reflect structural in/equalities (such as policy commitment, legal frameworks and national legislation). They could measure manifestations of gender inequalities (such as lower retention rates of girls in education compared to boys or the prevalence of violence against women), or they could refer to the impact of a lack of government provision of basic services on women and men. Cambodia has developed additional targets and indices to measure progress towards the MDGs, complementing international measures. The Cambodian Millennium Development Goals (CMDGs) include 9 goals, 25 overall targets, and 106 specific targets. Box 11 includes a few examples from CMDG 3: Promote gender equality and women's empowerment.

Box 11: The Cambodian Millennium Development Goals

CMDG 3: Promote gender equality and women's empowerment

Overall target: Reduce significantly gender disparities in upper secondary education and tertiary education

- Improve the ratio of girls to boys in upper secondary education from 48 percent in 2001 to 100 percent in 2015.
- Improve the ratio of girls to boys in tertiary education from 38 percent in 2001 to 85 percent in 2015.
- Improve the ratio of literate females to males 15-24 years old from 87 percent in 1998 to 100 percent in 2010.
- Improve the ratio of literate females to males 25-44 years old from 78 percent in 1998 to 100 percent in 2010.

Overall target: Reduce significantly all forms of violence against women and children

- Increase the proportion of cases of domestic violence counselled by qualified personal to 100 percent by 2015.
- Increase the percentage of the population who are aware that violence against women is wrongful behaviour and a criminal act to 100 by 2015.
- Develop and implement laws against all forms of violence against women and children according to international requirements and standards by 2005.
- Collect annual statistics to monitor violence against women by 2005.
- Develop and Implement a Prevention Plan by 2005.

(Extracted and adapted from Ministry of Planning, Cambodia website, 2009)

Indicators are essential for ensuring development effectiveness at the country level: it is widely agreed that the new aid architecture and Paris Principles need to take gender equality and women's empowerment into account if they are to contribute to effective poverty reduction. Gender indicators therefore need to be developed as part of the planning and implementation of aid policy, and need to be given the same priority as other markers of change, such as economic growth. Where possible, these indicators should go beyond MDG3 measures of gender equality and be able to reflect small changes in gender relations, including at the household level. Donors need to consider how they will work with partner governments and local gender-focused organisations in developing indicators to ensure gender indicators are taken seriously, while ensuring ownership over both the indicators and subsequent policy decisions.

5.4 Measuring internal organisational changes

Increasing attention is being given to measuring the extent of gender equality *within* development organisations at all levels, including the gender-sensitivity of policies and programmes, as well as internal organisational structure, procedures, culture and human resources. Internal gender audits or gender self-assessments are used by many bilateral development agencies, international NGOs and their partners, and some NGOs in the South. UNDP has developed a Gender Mainstreaming Scorecard, a tool which combines the measurement of both institutional and programmatic performance on gender (see Box 12).

Box 12: UNDP Gender Mainstreaming Scorecard

These parameters, indicators and corresponding targets, can be used for Headquarters, Regional Centres and Country Offices to report on annually. Each indicator receives a score between one and five.

Corporate commitments

Gender action plan (GAP): progress on implementation of country office GAP is regularly monitored by head of office.

Implementation mechanisms

- Strategy documents:* implementation of GAP is in senior managers' performance targets.
- Resources:* 100 per cent of resources needed for implementation of GAP are available.

Internal capacities

- Gender experts (staff):* experienced gender team is operating in the bureau, centre or office.
- Training for professional staff in gender analysis:* all staff are trained.

Gender mainstreaming in the project cycle

- Toolkits (guidelines, checklists, formats):* gender toolkit is mandatory, monitored and regularly updated.
- Mainstreaming in project documents:* project appraisal committee monitors project documents to ensure integration of gender elements.
- Monitoring and evaluation:* monitoring and evaluation reports are not accepted by the country office, bureau or unit concerned if they are not gender responsive.

Accountability mechanisms

- Results competency assessment system:* gender targets are included in senior managers' performance targets.
- Results-based management system:* gender indicators are used for reporting in more than 50 per cent of programmes.

Organisational culture

- Staff gender training:* all staff have completed the online gender sensitisation module.
- Prevention of sexual harassment:* all staff are aware of complaints procedures, and systems for confidentiality

and protection are in place.

(Adapted from UNDP (n.d.) *Gender mainstreaming scorecard*)

6. Recommendations

- Identify the objectives and goals – your “vision of change.” This should be the basis for choosing appropriate gender indicators against which to track progress.
- Consider a combination of qualitative and quantitative data to generate richer data.
- Use participatory approaches wherever possible, including in defining gender indicators.
- Use gender indicators to assess the outcomes and impacts of gender mainstreaming.
- Support and strengthen local statistics offices to produce gender responsive data.
- Make regular gender evaluations or internal audits mandatory.

7. Databases of gender indicators and statistics

International databases

UN Secretary-General's database on Violence Against Women <http://webapps01.un.org/vawdatabase/home.action>. A coordinated database on the extent, nature and consequences of all forms of violence against women, and on the effectiveness of policies and programmes.

The OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI)

http://www.oecd.org/document/39/0,3343,en_2649_33935_42274663_1_1_1_1,00.html

A new composite measure of gender equality, based on the [OECD's Gender, Institutions and Development Database](#).

Gender Info 2007

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

Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) *Women in Parliament*, IPU

<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>. Up-to-date statistics submitted by national Parliaments on the participation rates of women in Parliaments.

The World Bank's Genderstats Database of Gender Statistics <http://genderstats.worldbank.org>.

United Nations Statistics and Indicators on Women and Men

<http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/indwm/>. Provides statistics and indicators on women and men in six specific fields of concern: population, women and men in families, health, education, work, and political decision-making.

Regional databases

ECLAC Gender Statistics in Latin America and the Caribbean (English and Spanish)

<http://www.cepal.org/estadisticas/bases/default.asp?idioma=IN>. Sex-disaggregated data on the situation of men and women in Latin American and the Caribbean at the national and regional levels.

ECLAC Use of Gender Indicators in Public Policy Formulation (Spanish)

<http://www.eclac.cl/mujer/proyectos/indicadores/Default.htm>

Observatory of Gender Equity in Health (Spanish) <http://www.observatorionegenerosalud.cl/>

Aiming to support civil society in Chile, it includes social and demographic indicators on health and other areas.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia

<http://www.escwa.un.org/divisions/teams.asp?teams=Social%20Statistics&division=SD>

United Nations Economic Commission for Europe's (UNECE) Gender Statistics Website

<http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/DATABASE/STAT/Gender.stat.asp>. Bringing together gender statistics and policies, it focuses

on the production, dissemination and use of gender-related data, outlines some of the main gender issues relevant to the UNECE region.

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