



GENDER EQUALITY INDICATORS: WHAT, WHY AND HOW?¹

Introduction

This practice note focuses on the use of gender equality indicators as a way of measuring change. It asks: what are indicators, and why should we develop indicators to measure gender equality?

It also

- addresses the often political issue of what we should be measuring,
- provides some broad principles that can be applied, and
- suggests some questions donors can ask when developing gender equality indicators.

The brief also offers examples of existing indicators - noting that they always need to be adapted to specific contexts.

What are 'gender equality indicators'?

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 'gender' indicator measures changes relating to gender equality over time. Such indicators can be *quantitative*, based on sex disaggregated statistical data - which can be measured separately for men and women. Literacy is an example. Gender equality indicators can also capture *qualitative* changes – for example, increases in women's levels of empowerment or in attitudinal changes to 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, such as levels of poverty or participation.

1. Prepared for the DAC Network on Gender Equality by Justina Demetriades in 2009, based on BRIDGE's Gender and Indicators *Cutting Edge Pack* (2007), http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports_gend_CEP.html#Indicators. The opinions expressed and arguments employed in this paper do not necessarily reflect the official views of the OECD or of its members.

Quantitative and qualitative approaches

Methodology	Working definition
Quantitative	Quantitative methods of data collection produce quantifiable results. They focus on what 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 common quantitative indicator is the number of girls in school compared to boys.
Qualitative	Qualitative methodologies capture people’s experiences, behaviours, 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. Participatory methodologies such as focus group discussions and social mapping tools are often 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 below).

Program H – a partnership of NGOs working with young men

Program H uses a Gender Equitable Attitudes in Men Scale to evaluate attitudinal changes resulting from project activities. Indicators were developed to measure changes in attitudes and social norms relating to masculinity. The questions or statements used to evaluate results 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 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 proven useful for assessing men’s current attitudes about the roles of men and women and to measure whether men have changed their attitudes over time (Barker et al 2004).

A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods allows data to be compared for cross-checking results. Qualitative interpretation of quantified data can provide for a more nuanced analysis which reduces the possibility of distorted findings and conclusions (see box below). Importantly, qualitative analyses enable us to question why certain patterns have emerged.

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, data 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 relevant data. Participatory methods are based on the principle that men and women should be the agents of their own development. As well as participating in the research, they contribute to decisions about what should be measured and what indicators should be used (see box below).

Why look at gender equality and indicators?

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

Gender equality indicators improve planning and programming. They can be used to evaluate the outcomes of gender-specific 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 improve the achievement of gender equality goals and do not create unintended adverse impacts on women or men. They can also be used to measure gender mainstreaming within organisations (see section 5.4).

Gender equality indicators can be used to hold institutions accountable for their commitments. Indicators and data can make visible the gaps between the commitments many governments and other institutions have made and their implementation and impact. One example would be the collection of data on the implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Indicators can be used to hold political leaders and implementation agencies accountable for their actions, or lack of action.

Gender equality indicators can help to stimulate change through the 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 amongst participants of common experiences related to socially sensitive topics such as gender-based violence.

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 equality programmes; while gender equality activists may be measuring gender (in)equality or (in)justice.

Principles to be aware of when deciding what to measure

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 of those intended to benefit from projects or programmes.

Lack of existing data on a proposed indicator can lead to it being dismissed as not useful. 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 factors that contribute to positive or negative change in a given situation, other than the interventions of donors

2. Rwandan women parliamentarians worked with national and international NGOs, UN agencies and the Ministry of Women’s Affairs 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).

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 more accurate and rounded picture.

Good practice when developing indicators

Although there is often a temptation to simply apply universal templates and frameworks, it is important to adapt gender equality indicators so they are relevant to the specific context. See below 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 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 policies and programming (see the example from Andhra Pradesh in box below).

‘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.

Source: (Adapted from Menon-Sen, 2006)

Key questions to ask when designing gender equality indicators

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

- **What is the change that is wanted?** 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 and women’s empowerment?** For example, does national law prohibit violence against women or gender-based violence? 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 which is relevant to the gender equality indicators selected?** Were they consulted in the formulation of the indicators? Do they have the capacity to collect data?
- **How can small changes 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 be collected, analysed and disseminated?** And how will the results be used for learning and feedback into programming, project design, and policy development?³

Examples of gender equality indicators

International indicators

There are a number of useful globally agreed indicators, such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) indicators. However, as noted above it is important to ensure that what is measured is relevant to specific regions, countries and local situations. It is also essential to ensure that indicators reflect gender dimensions within each of the MDGs, rather than *only* in relation to areas explicitly associated with gender inequality, such as MDG3 (see box below).

The MDGs

A framework for incorporating gender equality across the MDGs: there is broad acceptance that gender equality and women’s empowerment are central to the achievement of each of the MDGs, and that the achievement of Goal 3 (gender equality and women’s empowerment), in turn, depends upon the extent to which the other goals address gender-based constraints. In January 2008, the list of MDG targets and indicators was revised. The gender equality focus was strengthened with the addition of targets 1.B (full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people) and 5.B (universal access to reproductive health), and the requirement that all indicators be disaggregated by sex and urban/rural as far as possible.

The Millennium Project Task Force on Gender and Education has also developed a framework outlining some of the reasons why gender equality is important to each of the 8 MDGs (see box below).

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

MDGs and the importance of gender equality ⁴	
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 increased economic activity by women. • 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.
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 how to challenge 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. • Women's existing knowledge of natural resources is essential for sustainable climate responses.
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 co-operation.

The Gender-related Development Index (GDI) and Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)

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 HDI: 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 and in professional and management positions, as well as gender gaps in incomes.

Source: (Klasen, 2006).

4. Adapted from Grown et al 2005: 31.

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 providing an overall picture of growth or education. 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.

Complementary indices

Other international composite indices to measure gender equality have been developed, partly to complement and expand on the Gender-related Development Index and the Gender Empowerment Measure. 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 the number of decision-making ministerial posts held by women.

The World Economic Forum's Gender Gap Index (GGI) also uses a broad range of dimensions and indicators (see box below). 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.

Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum

GGI indicators include the following dimensions:

- **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.

Source: (Lopez-Claros and Zahidi, 2005).

The Gender Equity Index and the Gender Gap Index can be constrained by the data available. National statistical data is limited in many countries, making it difficult to measure all the indicators associated with these indices. While the Gender Gap Index 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 Gender Equity Index 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 these indices 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.

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).⁵

The Africa Gender and Development Index (AGDI) is one example of how international indicators, in this case the GDI/GEM, have been adapted to the regional context. The AGDI has been designed for use by African governments as a tool for monitoring progress towards gender equality. It also helps to monitor progress in implementing the conventions which have been ratified by African countries, including the Dakar Platform for Action (UNECA 2004). It is made up of two complementary components:

- The Gender Status Index (GSI) - a quantitative tool of 42 sex-disaggregated indicators (see box below), and
- The African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) - 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 (see box below).

5. 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*).

The Gender Status Index (GSI) of the AGDI

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 the 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.

Source: (Based on ECA 2004:13)

The African Women's Progress Scoreboard (AWPS) of the AGDI

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 blocks:

1. Women's rights component:

- CEDAW, particularly its optional protocol; article 2 on discrimination against women in *inter alia* national constitutions and legislation; and, article 16 on marriage and family relations.
- The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, and its Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa.

2. Social component:

- Level of demonstrated commitment to the Beijing Platform for Action (1995).
- 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.
- Engendering national poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSPs) and other development plans.
- Access to agricultural extension services, technology and land.

4. Political component:

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

Source: (Based on ECA 2004: 30)

Country level gender equality indicators

At the country level, gender equality indicators are key to measuring the implementation of national, regional and global commitments to 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 commitments, 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 on women and men of a lack of government provision of basic services.

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. The box below includes a few examples from CMDG 3 - Promote gender equality and women's empowerment.

The Cambodian Millennium Development Goals (CMDGs)

CMDG 3: Promote gender equality and women's empowerment

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

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% 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.

Source: (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 implementation of the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness and of the Accra Agenda for Action can be used to advance gender equality, women's empowerment and contribute to poverty reduction. Developing agreed gender equality indicators is, therefore, an important part of the planning and implementation of aid policy, and should be given the same priority as other markers of change, such as economic growth. Where possible, such 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 to develop relevant, context-specific indicators, with broad ownership for both the monitoring processes and for subsequent policy decisions.

How donors can support partners to develop gender equality indicators

- Identify the objectives and goals – an agreed “vision of change.” This should be the basis for choosing appropriate gender equality 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 equality indicators.
- Use gender equality indicators to assess the outcomes and impacts of gender mainstreaming and women's empowerment.
- Support and strengthen local statistics offices to produce gender responsive data.
- Make regular gender equality evaluations or internal audits “commonplace” within agencies.

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-responsiveness of policies and programmes, as well as internal organisational structures, 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 equality and women's empowerment (see box below).

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% 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 responsiveness targets are included in senior managers' performance targets.
- Results-based management system: gender indicators are used for reporting in more than 50% 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.

Source: [Adapted from UNDP (n.d.)]

Databases of gender equality 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](#).

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.

Social Watch's Gender Equity Index (GEI)

http://www.socialwatch.org/en/avancesyRetroscesos/IEG_2008/index.htm Ranks countries for gender equity outcomes and allows comparisons of women's situations in these countries over time.

The World Bank's Genderstats Database of Gender Statistics

<http://genderstats.worldbank.org>. A compilation of data on key gender topics from national statistics agencies, United Nations databases, and World Bank-conducted or funded surveys.

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.

United Nations Statistics Division, Millennium Development Goals Indicators website

<http://mdgs.un.org/unsd/mdg/Data.aspx> Searchable database for statistics on the MDGs by country, including MDG 3 on gender equality and the empowerment of women.

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.observatoriogenerosalud.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.

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