



GENDER BEYOND AID

FINAL REPORT

CONSULTANCY PROJECT FOR
CENTER FOR GLOBAL
DEVELOPMENT

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Executive Summary

The purpose of this report is to analyse which policy areas within six of the existing components of the Commitment to Development index have a spill-over effect in women and girls in the world's poorer countries. A second aim is to present possible indicators to measure this spill-over effect, whilst also identifying data sources for these indicators.

The Commitment to Development Index is published by the Center for Global Development (CGD) annually, since 2003. The purpose of this index, according to the CGD website, is to rank “27 of the world’s richest countries on their dedication to policies that benefit people living in poorer nations”. The index measures seven policy components including Aid, Finance, Trade, Environment, Security, Migration and Technology. As part of a three-year review process, the CGD plans to expand the CDI to include rich countries' policies with a gender impact. The report aims to provide the evidence needed to justify the inclusion of such policies into the index.

SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

Aid: Evidence suggests that aid has a positive impact on women's well-being only if it is targeted specifically towards achieving gender objectives. An important finding is, that while aid for projects whose secondary objective is to improve women's well-being (for example,

through gender mainstreaming) is increasing, it does not have much impact on women's well-being. To assess aid for gender, it is therefore critical to consider what the project aims are. The OECD DAC Gender Equality Policy marker allows to filter aid on the basis of its objectives, the data required is thus readily available. To ascertain aid quality, it might be useful to consider if the principal aid for gender equality is being contributed to the countries where existing gender indices reveal that women are worse off.

Technology: Evidence to establish links between domestic technology policies and well-being of women in poor countries was hard to find. Ultimately, two sub-components were considered to measure rich countries' impact on technological advancement that affects the development of women and girls in poorer countries: Initiatives to improve STEM education for women, and incentivising knowledge transfer. Even while assuming that improving women's participation in STEM education and research is beneficial, evidence is circumstantial and cannot be generalised.

Environment: With evidence suggesting that developing countries are more at risk from climate change and that climate change exacerbates existing inequalities between men and women, this analysis considered the role of climate finance. It is proposed that donor countries' commitment to gender be measured

through their contributions to gender-responsive climate aid.

Trade: Evidence indicates strong links between trade policy and women's well-being. However, gender-disaggregated data on trade has been challenging to source. Within the trade component, there currently exists a component that evaluates lower income-weighted tariffs. There is a call for a unilateral reduction of tariffs on intermediate inputs in productive sectors with high female employment. However, research shows that the female-dominated sectors will differ depending on the country. Therefore, there is a point for advocacy, as further research is needed to identify the sectors of highest female employment for each individual developing country.

EU countries and a few other CDI countries have currently ratified bi-lateral or multilateral trade agreements with a gender consideration. The report suggests that those countries should be marked positively as they indirectly contribute towards gender equality in developing countries.

Security: The main outcome of the analysis was to re-establish the centrality of the UNSCR 1325. Therefore, the first step in evaluating rich countries' commitment to gender would be an analysis of their National Action Plans to implement UNSCR 1325. The resolution also suggests steps such as improving the number of female peacekeepers and increased gender training, however, besides an estimation of the number of female personnel contributed and

special initiatives by rich countries to improve female participation in peacekeeping, data for other indicators such as contribution towards providing gender training and financial incentives for female peacekeepers are not readily available. Links between arms trade and gender, an important part of the gender and security discourse, was also considered through the provisions of the Arms Trade Treaty. However, evidence on the effectiveness of this treaty is still inconclusive.

Migration: With increasing female migration in the world, rich countries' policies on migration stand to impact the well-being of a large number of women in poorer countries. To measure this component, three sub-components are proposed: International Migration Conventions, Labour Market Participation and Higher Education. Evidence suggests that ratification of three international conventions - 1949 Convention Concerning Migration for Employment (No. 97), 2000 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, 2011 Convention concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers - have a positive impact on women's well-being. Next, efforts that countries make to improve women's participation in labour markets, including extending skill-based visas to women, can be used to compare their commitment to gender and migration. Finally, attempts made by rich countries to increase the international female participation in tertiary education is considered, due to strong evidence establishing the benefits of higher

education for personal development and knowledge transfer. Data for all these sub-components is readily available. A fourth sub-component considering female refugees was dismissed due to the ethical implications of officially prioritising female refugees.

The research provides evidence for impact of rich countries' policies in six policy areas on gender. The evidence found supports the claim that

policies implemented domestically within the 27 rich countries have a profound impact on the development of women and girls in poorer countries. By sourcing available data from the public domain, potential indicators have been compiled for each of the six components. Where data appears unavailable, indicators are still outlined. However, these become a point of potential advocacy for CGD to negotiate with nations to provide further information.

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Disclaimer

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ACRONYMS

APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Forum
ATT	Arms Trade Treaty
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CCFTA	Canada-Chile Free Trade Agreement
CDI	Commitment to Development Index
CEDAW	The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CGD	Center for Global Development
CIF	Climate Investment Fund
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Flora and Fauna
CMS	Convention on Migratory Species
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
EAC	East African Community
EU-ACP	European Union-African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States
FI	Fairtrade International
FLEGT	Forest Law Enforcement, Governance and Trade
GBV	Gender-based violence
GCF	Green Climate Fund
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GSDRC	Governance and Social Development Resource Centre
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
NAP	National Action Plan
NBSAP	National Biodiversity Strategies and Action Plans
ODA	Overseas Development Assistance
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
R&D	Research and Design
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UN	United Nations
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNSCR	United Nations Security Council Resolutions
VPA	Voluntary Partnership Agreement
WB	World Bank
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization
WPS	Women, Peace and Security
WTO	World Trade Organization

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The Center for Global Development annually publishes the 'Commitment to Development Index', which assesses rich countries' commitment to development in seven policy areas: Aid, Finance, Technology, Environment, Trade, Security, and Migration. The CDI identifies how policies made by world's richest countries affect the development of lower-income countries, thus having a 'spill-over effect'. This report focuses on six components: Aid, Technology, Environment, Trade, Security and Migration (1).

Aid has a clear impact on development in poorer countries; while this explains why it is the most common policy used to facilitate development in poorer nations, the CDI pays increasing attention to the other six components and their contributions to development (1).

Technology is critical to economic and human development, through advances in medicines, and ICT. Access to this knowledge by poorer countries could greatly improve the development of their countries (1).

'Environment' primarily focuses on developing countries' environmental policies on global climate, sustainable fisheries, and biodiversity and ecosystems.

Rich countries' policies have a significant impact on the trading prospects of developing countries. Trade provides important opportunities for countries to attract investment, create jobs, and reduce poverty. 'Trade' is composed of four indicators, assessing countries' policies facilitating international trade in goods by lowering tariffs and reducing agricultural subsidies to rich countries' farmers (1).

War and political violence not only affect government infrastructure and resources but can heavily impact the lives of citizens. Given this, the CDI assesses the policy efforts of rich countries in in facilitating peacekeeping and world security (1).

As migration policies of rich countries can contribute to poverty reduction and affect citizens of poor countries, 'Migration', composed of six indicators, assesses countries' efforts in participating in international migration conventions and policies, and their receptiveness to asylum-seekers, refugees, students, and migrants (1).

1.2 Theoretical Background

This spill-over effect may have a profound impact on women. With increasing research showcasing the link between development on gender inequality, gender mainstreaming has become an important strategy within development discourse. GSDRC cited the gender as "socially constructed norms and ideologies

which determine the behaviour and actions of men and women” (2). With 60% of the chronically hungry population being women, there is increased international commitment to the cause of gender equality, as shown by the commitment to SDG 5 by the UN (3). In line with current thinking on the importance of gender, the Center wishes to 'incorporate an assessment of countries' policies with a gender impact into the CDI, using the existing seven components as a framework'.

In consideration of the CGD's three-year review process, the impact of policy on gender will provide a holistic perspective on the spill-over effects caused by the world's richest countries. Given the direct relationship between gender and development, there is a need to ensure that the CDI addresses gender relations. Given the scope and context of this research, focus is primarily on women and girls. Further research can address the intersectionality and widening spectrum of gender, however this will be addressed in the conclusion.

2. METHODOLOGY

As required by the client, this report utilises the secondary research technique to answer the research questions. Specifically, peer-reviewed, grey literature and published data sets were drawn upon.

On gaining ethical consent, keywords in each component were identified. For example:

- **Aid:** Aid, ODA, financing development, quantity of aid, quality of aid, aid effectiveness
- **Technology:** women patent holders, knowledge transfer, higher education, research and design
- **Environment:** ODA, climate finance, fair trade, climate change, illegal logging
- **Trade:** Trade, gender-sensitive trade agreements, UNCTAD gender and trade toolbox, trade liberalisation
- **Security:** women in peacekeeping, women, peace and security, gender and security sector reform, UNSCR 1325, UNSCR 2242

- **Migration:** international female migration, female-migration data/information

These keywords formed the basis of the search for evidence using internet databases including Google and Google Scholar. To refine searches, additional databases including the Web of Knowledge, The International Bibliography of Social Science, and Scopus were recommended and used.

Desk research was most efficient for this project considering its scope as relevant publications were mostly easily accessible within the time frame. Limitations of the methodology, including the difficulty of finding data directly relevant to the research topic, or the uncertainty of data relevancy, were mitigated by rigorous and critical review. Moreover, attention was concentrated into the validity, reliability and generalisability sections of academic publications. In addition, the literature reviewed were sourced from reputed organisations.

3.0 FINDINGS

AID

Following the methodology adopted to create the CDI (1), two sub-components were considered – (a) quantity of aid and (b) quality of aid.

Aid or Official Development Assistance (ODA) is one of the most direct ways rich countries can contribute to the well-being of women and girls in poorer countries; according to the OECD; 38% of bilateral aid from the 30 OECD member countries is focused on improving women's well-being (2).

Sub-Component 1:

Quantity of Aid

This may be defined as the percentage of total aid being committed to projects targeting women's well-being. Evidence strongly supports that increased resource allocation and targeted spending on women improves their well-being (3–5). Donor countries can demonstrate higher commitment to women's well-being by working towards such increased resource allocation and spending.

Using the DAC gender equality policy marker (2,6), the OECD identifies (a) aid that is targeted principally at women's empowerment and (b) aid where women's well-being is a secondary ('mainstreamed') objective (6) . However, since a large body of evidence suggests that aid is not effective at achieving gender well-being objectives when it is delivered through programmes and projects that feature gender

mainstreaming (7–10), it is suggested that countries' ODA targeted towards women, i.e. category (a) aid, be used to compare countries. Data on the quantity of aid given to promote gender equality and women's empowerment is collected by the OECD DAC (11). A second reason to consider only category (a) aid is that category (b) data considers the entire budget for a project/programme as gender aid even if only a part of the budget is allocated to achieving the mainstreaming goals (6). This can potentially be problematic in assessing countries' commitment.

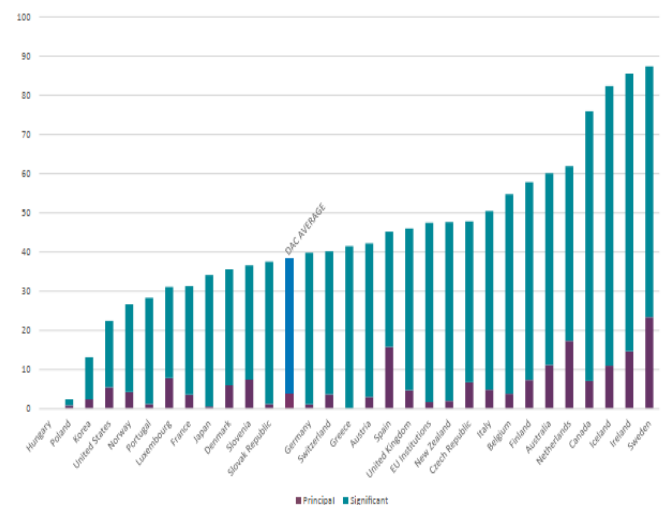


Figure 1: Average Share of aid focused on gender equality per year in 2016-2017. (2) pp 3

Sub-Component 2:

Quality of Aid

When considering whether the aid being given to attain gender parity is 'good', a possible indicator is to ascertain if the aid is reaching countries where it is needed the most. Donor countries may

be ranked on whether they provide aid with gender equality as a principal objective to countries that perform the worst on gender indices.

The OECD Donor Report (12) presents the top ten recipients of gender-focused aid for each OECD donor. While providing an interesting overview, the data are skewed as they consider both aid that is targeted principally at women's empowerment and (b) aid where women's well-being is a secondary ('mainstreamed') objective. Following the evidence presented above, category (a) aid is more relevant to this analysis. To understand the gender performance of the recipient countries, existing indices may be used.

OECD's Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) which measures levels of discrimination against women in social institutions in a country, is particularly relevant. OECD also publishes data on Gender, Institutions and Development (13). Alternatively, UNDP's Gender Inequality Index, which measures 'gender inequalities in three important aspects of human development—reproductive health; empowerment; and economic status'(14), may be used. Data on the Gender Inequality Index is available online (15). Please refer Appendix 4 for a preliminary table of donor countries, the top recipients of gender-equality focused aid, and how the recipient countries perform on the two indices.

TECHNOLOGY

There are two proposed sub-components to measure rich countries' impact the technological advancement that affects the development of women and girls in poorer countries: Initiatives to improve STEM education for women, and incentivising knowledge transfer.

The empowering effect of technology on improving women's lives cannot be disputed (1–6). However, most evidence indicates that domestic policy and community-based interventions play a greater role in ensuring women's access (1,6,7). Therefore, when identifying the role of rich countries in improving women's lives globally, it might be useful to consider first, the creation of technology rather than access to technology; following the idea that new technology will ultimately be adopted by people in the poorer countries (8). Evidence suggests that inclusion of women in research and design process brings new research agenda,

Sub-component 1:

Initiatives to improve STEM education for women:

Country	Initiative	Source Found (See Reference)
Australia	\$8 million Australian dollars invested in girls to study STEM	(13)
Ireland	STEM Educational implementation plan	(14)
USA	U.S. National Science Foundation's ADVANCE program has supported universities across the United States by providing a broad portfolio of activities	(15)

questions, and methodologies to the forefront, which can be transformative to women's wellbeing. Exemplifying this:

- Female researchers working on cardiovascular disease demonstrated that women's symptoms differed to men's; transforming the diagnosis and treatment of heart disease in women (9–11)
- Female scientists of whom tested automobile safety directly for women (using pregnant/female crash dummies) realised that prior knowledge and safety parameters needed to be adapted to ensure the optimum safety for women (12) *

This suggests that rich countries that work to improve the participation of women in research and development, potentially demonstrate a commitment to gender equality globally. For the purposes of this project, the following indicators can be considered:

	that support women scientists, including mentoring	
France	Ministry of national education, higher education and research enacted legislation to encourage diversification of girls' professional choices	(13)
Germany	High tech strategy and national pact for women in STEM careers	(13)

* It must be noted however; these are specific cases and the role of women researchers cannot be generalised without further study.

Sub-component 2:

Incentivising knowledge transfer

Globally, women remain significantly underrepresented within STEM research roles (16). As mentioned within the migration component, female academic migrants contribute to the development of women and girls in developing countries through knowledge transfer (17). Therefore, the same rationale can be applied to female STEM specific researchers from poor countries temporarily residing in rich countries.

Thus, a potential indicator for R&D could be:

Countries which have implemented policy, aimed at increasing international female participation in research and higher education

Institutions mandating quotas on demographics and nationality of workforce. *From this, the efforts to increase the number of women from poorer countries working within STEM departments can be identified.*

Indicator:

This is an indicator for advocacy. Data to rigorously support this component is difficult to source. Exemplifying this, The Centre for Global Higher Education has published semi-relevant data pertained to Japan (total foreign-born university faculty members by research area) (18), similarly, data available for Canada reveals gender disaggregated labour force characteristics by industry but not by the nationality of workers (19). The higher education statistics agency which reveals research faculty characteristics for research staff in university in the UK, fails to detail the information required for this indicator (20).

The number of STEM scholarships earmarked for female students from developing countries:

Whilst there are scholarships aimed at women (see migration section), the conditionalities¹ presented within the technology component cannot be fulfilled by the existing data available. For example, whilst the ‘Foreign Fulbright’ (21) scholarship is offered to international STEM applicants, there is no conditionality regarding

gender or country of origin. This case is similar for scholarships from other countries too (22,23).

Dismissed Sub-components

Following the idea that women researchers influence technological innovations that have wider direct benefits for women holistically (as established within the technology passage), the attempt was made to measure rich countries' commitment to the development of women and girls in poorer countries, by evaluating their commitment to increasing the number of women researchers in STEM fields. Two indicators were considered:

Number of patent holders who are women:

Assuming that a high number of women patent holders would contribute to innovations that benefit other women, the research sought to identify how many patents were filed by women in rich countries.

Two major challenges were encountered:

1. Conceptually, it is difficult to establish a correlation between women patent holders and technological innovation that benefits women. No evidence exists to prove this central assumption
2. Whist publications produced by WIPO (24,25) provide evidence establishing gender imbalance in patents, the rates of female participation across countries and technological fields, and the share of international patent applications with at

least one woman inventor by region, the data within the reports could not be disaggregated from WIPO database. This is because the reports used specific methodology to identify the gender of the patent holders. However, it might be possible for CGD to access the methodological tools ('gender-name dictionary') created by WIPO (24,25).

Bibliometric analyses to measure contributions of women researchers to scientific knowledge:

Much like the indicator above, this indicator assumes that women researchers influence the creation of scientific knowledge that benefit women globally. Following this assumption, countries whose female researchers publish more in academic journals contribute more to the sharing of knowledge, and, therefore to women's development. While, theoretically, an analysis of journal citations (especially in fields like reproductive health which are known to have an impact on women's well-being) could be carried out, the indicator was dismissed due to the extreme difficulty in establishing whether the cited authors were male or female. Some studies have attempted to do this by either creating their own database of male and female names (26,27) or using existing databases (28). It must be noted however, these methods are subject to cultural differences, and may not be accurate enough to establish the evidence needed.

ENVIRONMENT

The proposed sub-component under environment is climate finance.

“Climate change impacts everyone, but not equally” (1). Developing countries are more at risk from climate change because of limited ability to adapt to severe impacts, which directly impacts their livelihoods and ability to produce food (2). Climate change exacerbates existing inequalities between men and women (1). Moreover in 2011, UNDP stressed the importance of female participation in climate-related projects as they show more concern for the environment (1). Women are disproportionately affected due to climate change (3–5). This statement can be justified by the concept of ecofeminism. According to a noted ecofeminist Vandana Shiva, women are closer to the nature and environment because of established gender roles (6).

Sub-component 1:

Climate Finance

This is defined as “local, national or transnational financing—drawn from public, private and

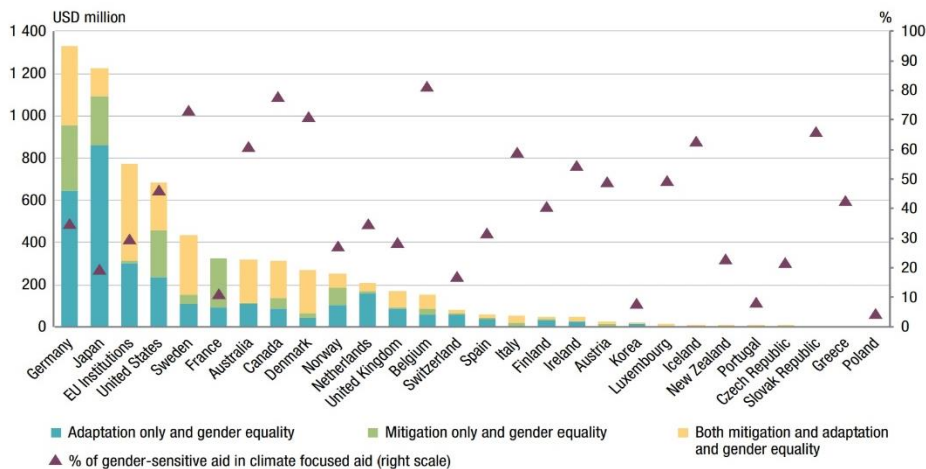
alternative sources of financing that seeks to support mitigation and adaptation actions that will address climate change” (7). Climate finance further comprises two sub-components – Bilateral and Multilateral Climate Funding.

Bilateral Climate Funding

It is the transfer of funds from one government to another, carried out through Overseas Development Assistance (ODA) of the OECD. OECD countries have climate aid specifically targeting gender equality (8). There is evidence that ODA has initiatives especially on green energy in various developing countries like Bangladesh, India, Mexico, China, etc. funded through bilateral aid that are benefitting women in these countries (8). Information related to these initiatives is mentioned in Appendix 5.

The following graph shows aid to climate change targeting gender equality by all CDI countries except Hungary. The right scale shows percentage of gender-sensitive aid in climate focused aid.

2012-2013 average commitments, 2013 prices



Source: (8)

Potential Indicator:

CDI countries that have climate aid for promoting gender equality should be given points in proportion to their gender-responsive climate aid.

Multilateral Climate Funding

This type of funding is undertaken by multilateral organizations and climate funds.

- **Global Environment Facility (GEF)** – Established in 1992, this climate fund supports developing countries and transitioning economies. Initiatives supported by GEF that benefit women in developing countries are given in Appendix 5.
- **Green Climate Fund (GCF)** - This fund was established under the framework of UNFCCC in 2010. The projects under GCF are ongoing and include gender

assessment and action plans. Initiatives under GCF benefitting women and environment are given in Appendix 5.

- **Climate Investment Funds (CIFs)** - CIFs are implemented by multilateral development banks. Initiatives supported by CIFs towards women and environment are given in Appendix 5.

Potential Indicator:

CDI countries do not have multilateral aid earmarked for gender sensitive projects separately. The lists of donor countries for the three funds is available (21,22). In case of GCF, the amount pledged by different countries is available too (23). Therefore *CDI countries that contribute towards these climate funds should be marked positively as they indirectly fund towards projects promoting gender equality.*

Dismissed sub-components

Fairtrade

Fair trade is a way of buying and selling products that makes certain that farmers receive a fair price for their produce (24). According to Fairtrade International (FI), Fairtrade is a partnership between producers (farmers in developing countries) and consumers (developed countries) which provides farmers with a better deal and improved terms of trade (25). Fairtrade has expanded its focus on other commodities like wine and gold; besides cocoa, sugar, cotton (26). (For simplification, only ‘fair-trade’ under Fairtrade International has been considered). This sub-component was examined from an environment perspective.

In addition to ensuring better prices, ‘Fairtrade’ helps in environmental protection, thus benefitting farmers by promoting sustainable agricultural practices which helps to adapt to and mitigate its impact (27). 26% of Fairtrade farmers and workers are women (28). According to FI, numerous farmers especially in Latin-America and Africa are affected by climate change and its consequences (29). All CDI countries except Hungary and Greece have Fairtrade national organizations or Fairtrade marketing organizations which are affiliated with Fairtrade International (30).

Fairtrade adopted the first phase of Gender Strategy in 2016 which will end in 2020. Impact evaluation will be carried out as a part of this

strategy. Hence, an assessment on gender impacts would be available thereafter (31).

See Appendix 5 for initiatives through which Fairtrade promotes women’s empowerment in developing countries.

Currently, data on trade in ‘Fairtrade’ commodities for CDI countries is unavailable. Further research is needed to track trade in Fairtrade commodities and to publish disaggregated data by gender with respect to impact. However, the fact that Fairtrade have exceeded 1 billion euros in revenue in 2015 is indicative of the growing popularity of Fairtrade among farmers in developing countries, and additionally the growing popularity of Fairtrade products in developed countries. This also suggests a shift towards sustainable agriculture practices and increasing efforts towards gender equality (41,42).

Fairtrade organizations, of course, are not government institutions, bringing them out of the scope of the current CDI. However, given their important role in facilitating sustainable agriculture and gender equality, it is suggested that Fairtrade and other fair-trade organizations be included into the index in future. This is a sub-component for advocacy.

Potential Indicator:

CDI countries that have Fairtrade national organizations or marketing organizations should be marked positively as they indirectly contribute towards environment protection and

gender equality in developing countries.

Biodiversity

Under the CDI methodology, the conventions considered for this sub-component are CBD, Ramsar Convention, CITES and CMS. According to UN Environment, while many women are involved in activities of the primary sector, the concepts of gender and biodiversity have not been considered in depth (43). Studies show that women play vital roles in biodiversity conservation because of established gender roles (44). However, research is required to evaluate how these conventions as part of national policies of CDI countries affect women in developing countries.

For example, under the CBD, countries have to adopt the NBSAP which has mainstreamed gender. However, there is limited data regarding how the adoption of such policies are benefitting women in developing countries. The OECD countries score the least in gender mainstreaming and activities as compared to countries in Africa, Asia-Pacific (45). The German Development Agency supports countries like Myanmar and Laos for capacity building and institutional arrangements for gender-inclusive NBSAP (43). Additionally, 3 CDI countries (USA, Portugal, Hungary) don't support the convention (45).

Information on the dismissed sub-components: Tropical wood imports and sustainable fisheries can be found in Appendix 5.

TRADE

There are two proposed sub-components to measure the impact that rich countries have on the development of women and girls in poorer countries through trade: a unilateral reduction of tariffs on intermediate inputs in productive sectors with high female employment and the ratification of gender-sensitive trade agreements.

Many studies have shown the relationship between trade and development. UNCTAD (1) reported that international trade grew by USD 20 trillion from 1990 to 2014. Trading relationships continue to change, and shape development as rich countries' policies significantly impact developing countries. Newer studies have emphasised the relationship between trade policy and gender equality. This report's findings will critically analyse two potential instruments, as they may effectively consider gender in trade (2).

Sub-component 1:

Unilateral reduction of tariffs on intermediate inputs in productive sectors with high female employment.

With reference to CDI's existing 'lower income-weighted tariffs' instrument, the UN suggests that developed countries must reduce tariffs on inputs in sectors where women work (3, 4). The reduction of tariffs is a common form of trade liberalisation. In theory, trade liberalisation between countries give developing countries the ability to attract investments, increase employment and reduce poverty (3). These

policies, if targeted towards female-dominant sectors can also be argued to impact women and girls in developing countries. UN research advocates for these international trade agreements to include sections pertaining to gender-sensitive sectors such as textiles (4). In doing this, it allows for the sector to expand further and consequently encourage women's empowerment (4-5).

Given this research, CDI may incorporate this as an additional indicator within 'lower income-weighted tariffs.' World Bank Data shows that sectors such as Agriculture and Services have high percentages of female employment, however this differs greatly depending on the country (6). According to this dataset, in 2017, 92% of all female employment in Chad was in agriculture, compared to 5% in Chile (6). Therefore, it can be argued that lower tariffs on agricultural inputs from developing countries have a greater positive impact on the women working in that sector (4,7-8). The reduction of tariffs on agricultural sector is likely to have a greater overall impact on women in Chad compared to Chile. It also gives developing countries such as Chad the opportunity to compete in the global market. This is because the reduced tariffs lower the costs of production and can create more jobs for women in these sectors (5-6).

In theory, this would be an efficient way to determine the contributions to gender equality through trade, however, limited data exists on the

female-dominated sectors per country and therefore this indicator would be a point for advocacy. In order to accumulate this data, data on the different female-dominated sectors per developing country must be readily available. In addition, there is limited gender-disaggregated data on this. Similarly, it would not be feasible to reward points to countries for reducing tariffs on specific products, as the sector may not have high female employment across all developing countries. As research is not as readily available to identify the sectors of highest female employment for each individual developing country, it is also difficult for the 27 countries to reduce tariffs on specific sectors per country.

Sub-component 2:

Ratification of gender-sensitive trade agreements

This sub-component specifically focuses on gender-specific trade agreements

1. The Cotonou Agreement – EU-ACP

The Cotonou Partnership Agreement between the European Union and the countries of the African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States state in Article 1 that “systematic account shall be taken of the situation of women and gender issues in all areas – political, economic and social” (9-10). The agreement also calls for countries to adopt a gender-inclusive approach and concerns at every level within the agreement. Under the trade article, there is no direct call for countries to consider gender in their trade policies, however,

collectively calls for gender-sensitivity in all areas (9). By countries ratifying this agreement, they, at the very least, accept their responsibility in protecting women and girls, by considering their needs (11-12).

2. Bi-lateral agreements

Research shows Canada to be the most progressive with gender-sensitive trade agreements (13). For the first time in the agreement’s history, in February 2019, the Canada-Chile Free Trade Agreement (CCFTA) and the Canada-Israel Free Trade Agreement was amended to include a stand-alone chapter on trade and gender (13-14). This development in their trade policy showcases the commitment to gender equality from the Government of Canada (13). Regional, bilateral and international agreements such as WTO, the Economic Partnership agreements (such as EU-ACP) must aim to include gender-sensitive clauses (15). Details of other countries who have implemented gender-sensitive trade agreements can be found in Appendix 6.

It must be noted that free trade or trade liberalisation policies do not automatically improve gender equality. In theory, trade liberalisation encourages growth which in turn provides opportunities for job creation, higher incomes, improved education and better opportunities for women entrepreneurs (15). Although sectors such as agriculture or textiles have high levels of female employment in some developing countries, one cannot assume that the

benefits of trade liberalisation will positively impact all developing countries (11, 15). The openness of trade encourages global competition and whilst this helps some countries, other countries suffer as a result. For example, in the textiles industry, more demand for products in China will result in fewer productions and exports in others (15). This impacts both the industry in the country and the female workers in those sectors. Countries with less comparative advantage (e.g. African countries) experienced a decline in their textile exports as other global competitors such as China and India experienced an increase. Female employment in the garment industry was also affected in many countries, as there is less demand for their products and imports are cheaper. However, countries such as Sri Lanka and Bangladesh saw increases in female employment. The fall of female employment in these sectors in comparative disadvantaged creates the potential for an increase in poverty, as the income earning potential has dropped (6, 15).

As there are currently limited, gender-inclusive international trade policies, a point for advocacy would be to encourage for the 27 countries included in the CDI to embark on including a gender criteria in all international trade agreements. These are not limited to: Aid for Trade and investments. Gender-inclusive trade agreements would typically promote women entrepreneurs and capacity building and other forms of support (5,11,15).

Potential Indicator:

CDI countries that have ratified bi-lateral or multilateral trade agreements with a specific gender criteria should be marked positively.

3. UNCTAD Trade and Gender Toolbox

Given the negative spillovers of trade liberalisation and policies, UNCTAD call for a slow liberalisation for women-focused sectors or complete exclusion from liberalisation policies. As aforementioned, there must be adequate policy space in trade agreements granted to developing countries in order to support their sectors with high female employment (15). Funded by the Government of Sweden and in line with their feminist policy, UNCTAD have created the Trade and Gender Toolbox to provide a framework which evaluates the impact of trade reforms on women and gender inequalities prior to implementation of those reforms (16-18). This toolbox has currently only evaluated EU and the EAC, their upcoming index evaluating the policies can later be implemented into the CDI in order score the success of the trade policies.

As there are also many negative effects of trade liberalisation on women-focused sectors, it is necessary for the 27 countries to advocate for international trade agreements that include sections pertaining to gender-sensitive sectors and be accurately evaluated for the effectiveness of such agreements. In doing this, it allows for the sector to expand further and consequently encourage women's empowerment.

SECURITY

Two sub-components are proposed for this component – first, rich countries’ commitment to UNSCR 1325 (through implementing NAPs) and second, contributions to female peacekeeping.

The gender and security discourse is directed by the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325. Resolution 1325 has four foci – women in the peace process, gender and peacekeeping, security of women and gender mainstreaming in the UN (1). The resolution, however, does not make provisions for enforcement.

For this report, sub-components and indicators for security component have largely been informed and adapted from WIIS guidelines on implementing UNSCR 1325 (2). Please refer Appendix 7a for the complete scorecard and scoring system proposed by the report.

Sub-component 1

Adopting National Action Plans to implement UNSCR 1325

The first sub-component pertains to the adoption of effective National Action Plans (NAPs) in support of UNSCR 1325. So far, only 79 UN member states (rich and poor alike) have created NAPs (3). Some indicators that could measure effectiveness of rich countries’ NAPs (from the WIIS scorecard) are:

1. Has the country adopted a National Action Plan (NAP)?

2. Does the NAP mention the Department/Ministry of Defence as a principal actor?
3. Has a budget been allocated for NAP implementation?

Data on these indicators can be found in the individual NAPs of the rich countries. Please refer Appendix 7b for links to the NAPs.

Sub-component 2

Contributions to Female Peacekeeping

The second sub-component proposed is the contributions of rich countries to female peacekeeping. UNSCR 1325 calls for more equality in the number of male and female peacekeepers (1). Data from SIPRI suggests that female peacekeepers are still underrepresented in the peacekeeping missions across the world (4,5). This is problematic because there are distinct advantages to having more female peacekeepers in missions. Evidence suggests that these advantages include greater probability of meeting mission’s mandate and reduced sexual misconduct (6). The following indicators may be considered:

1. Number (%) of Female Peacekeepers contributed by rich countries: The number of female peacekeepers is generally low, perhaps due to factors such as unwillingness to expose female peacekeepers in service to risk (6). UN Peacekeeping publishes data on countries’ contributions to peacekeeping

(7) (table on gender), with disaggregated data on female personnel contributed by countries (not just rich ones), divided by type of personnel. Further information on women in peacekeeping by country is available in the UN Peacekeeping report on Gender Statistics (8). Note: Peacekeeping contributions generally consider both personnel and financial contributions by countries. Here, only personnel contribution is considered. For more on the financial contributions, please look at the section on dismissed sub-components.

2. Special initiatives to boost female participation in peacekeeping: Countries that promote initiatives to boost female participation in peacekeeping may be considered as more committed to furthering the women, peace and security agenda. Examples of such initiatives are:
 - a. Female Military Officers' Course: This programme trains female peacekeepers to achieve improve gender participation. While is organised by UN Women, it is funded by Governments of Netherlands, Norway, Australia and Finland. (9)
 - b. ELISE initiative – This initiative was launched by the government of Canada in 2017 in an attempt to better meet the

goals set out by the UNSCR 2242. It aims to build participation of women in peacekeeping by engaging in rigorous research, monitoring and evaluation to eliminate barriers to gender equality in peacekeeping. Canada has announced bilateral partnerships with Ghana and Zambia (both countries with high gender equality) in this regard (10)

Dismissed sub-components

Provision of gender training

The UNSCR 1325 specifically calls for gender training in peacekeeping, exhorting member states to provide support and/or fund such trainings (1). As this is an explicit goal of the resolution, the WIIS report (2) suggests that the following indicators be evaluated:

- Do personnel receive special training on protection of vulnerable persons?
- Are principles of WPS involved in pre-deployment training?
- Does pre-deployment training include information on - protection and rights of women and girls; increasing participation of local women; cultural awareness training pertinent to the area of operation; international law related to protection of women and children during conflict?

However, finding data for this indicator is difficult, unless primary research is conducted.

Financial contributions made by rich countries to increase number of female peacekeepers (Dismissed Indicator)

As the participation of women in peacekeeping has been low, UN Security Council Resolution 2242 calls for a doubling of the number of women over five years, encouraging financial incentives to achieve this target (11). It has been suggested that rich countries can boost female participation in peacekeeping by sharing the costs needed to provide financial incentives (12). However, countries do not presently make special financial contributions for increasing female peacekeeping, therefore, this indicator has been dismissed. This is an indicator for advocacy.

Ratification of the Arms Trade Treaty (ATT)

One of the security regimes that the CDI Security component considers in measuring measure rich countries' commitment to development is the Arms Trade Treaty (13). The ATT is especially important in evaluating a commitment to women's well-being, because it is the first regime that explicitly states the impact of arms trade on gender-based violence (GBV) (14). The treaty makes it illegal to export arms if there is an increased risk of GBV due to such export and calls for a GBV risk assessment prior to granting export authorisation (14). A few questions that countries might consider as part of such risk assessment include - evidence of gender-based

discrimination and violence in the prospective importing country, importing country's legal mechanisms to prevent GBV, ratification of CEDAW by the importing country, education and training of importing country's military on preventing GBV, steps taken by the importing country to implement the UN Security Council resolutions on women, peace and security, etc (14,15).

While the treaty is explicit in exhorting women's well-being, evidence from practice is limited. There is not much data on whether ratifying the ATT has truly led to decreased GBV or affected arms trade to countries with high rates of GBV. Exemplifying this, Sweden, which is evolving a feminist foreign policy and incorporated gender-based risk assessment into its export policy, has continued to export to India, Indonesia, Namibia, Kazakhstan, Saudi Arabia and the UAE, which have a track-record of gender-based violence (16).

MIGRATION

There are three proposed sub-components to measure countries' impact on female migration and how it influences the development of women and girls in poorer countries: International Migration Conventions, Labour Market Participation and Higher Education.

As patriarchal norms continue to dissolve, the 'feminization of migration' is becoming increasingly prominent globally, with women and girls accounting for more than 50% of the migrant population in some countries (1).

Sub-component 1:

International Migration Conventions

This sub-component specifically focuses on the three migrant specific international laws

1. 1949 Convention Concerning Migration for Employment (No. 97) (2)

By agreeing to safeguard the working rights of women, countries recognise migrant women's plight within foreign labour market domains (1). Ensuring migrant women the right to earn is crucial for the development of poor nations. It is widely documented that whilst they might earn less, female migrants remit higher proportions of their earnings to their country of origin than their male counterparts (1,3,4). Exemplifying this, survey results revealed that at one time, women accounted for 57% of all recipients within the Dominican Republic (5). Moreover, similar results were revealed in some regions of South

America, with women accounting for over 60% of recipient beneficiaries in Brazil and Ecuador (6). Whilst permitting women the right to earn, the conventions additionally advocate fair, equal and safe working conditions for women regardless of ability, and nationality (thus addressing the intersections of discrimination that women face) (7,8).

2. 2000 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (9)

The UN report that women and children from low income countries are those who are most likely to be trafficked, resulting in sexual exploitation (10). Low levels of education increase the likelihood of becoming the victim of such dehumanising acts (11). In 2013, it was estimated that approximately 640,000 women and girls fell victim of groups working within the 'global trafficking industry' (12). By countries ratifying treaties to combat trafficking, they are accepting the responsibility to safeguard women and girls on a global scale, by punishing persecutors of the crime and, attempting to eliminate the incentivising factors for global trafficking networks (9).

3. 2011 Convention concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers (13)

It is worth noting that clauses within the 2011 convention concerning domestic workers do not explicitly mention women and girls, thus, are more general to all domestic workers. However,

the preamble section of the document reveals that women and girls are most likely to become domestic workers, therefore making them more susceptible to exploitation (13,14). This is supported by academic literature revealing that domestic workers are associated with having lower levels of education and are unwitting to their human rights, thus increasing their vulnerability to exploitation (15). Multiple

studies justify the relevance of domestic work and female migration; of the 1.2 million domestic workers in Italy, most were non-European nationals (16). Recent international reports have revealed the poor working conditions experienced by migrant women in rich countries, denoting that often they are threatened, and suffer violence (14).

Potential Indicators:

1. Conventions Ratified:

There are specific articles within each treaty directly relevant to women and girls; countries' commitment could be measured based the ratification of specific treaties. For example:

Treaty*	Articles Relevant to Women and Girls
1949 Convention Concerning Migration for Employment (No. 97)₍₂₎	6a.i, b,

**see Appendix 8.1 for all treaties*

2. Evidence/data which demonstrates that countries are taking each convention seriously

There is limited evidence which illustrates all 27 countries' dedication to monitoring and enforcing each of the treaties mentioned above. All relevant sources are depicted below. However, it is worth noting that the 'European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights' appears to be a prominent organisation that strives to monitor countries' dedication (17).

Treaty	Source	Indicators
Treaty 1	Together in the EU: Promoting the participation of migrants and their descendants (18)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Countries which have implemented migrant integration plans (EU countries only)
Treaty 2	National Anti-Slavery Policies Implemented (examples provided)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> UK: 'Anti-Slavery and Human Trafficking Policy (19)

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • New Zealand: ‘Fraud, exploitation, and trafficking’ (20)
Treaty 3	Migrants in an irregular situation employed in domestic work: Fundamental rights challenges for the European Union and its Member States (21)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>No specific indicators provided</i>

Sub-component 2:

Labour Market Participation

Foreign labour market opportunity is a fundamental reason for migration, and is documented to significantly influence the development of poor countries (22,23). To lawfully work abroad, migrants are required to gain permits or visas, commonly issued according to the skill level of the migrant. Compared to their male counterparts, women migrants are more likely to hold low skilled work permits (1,24).

Despite their low-paid occupations, evidence demonstrates that women are more likely to remit higher percentages of their earnings than male migrant workers. For example, a study revealed of all Bolivian migrants residing in Spain, 57% were female workers of whom were responsible for remitting 73% Bolivia’s remittance income. Similarities were discovered for female and male Ecuadorian migrants (6).

It is widely appreciated that remittances contribute towards development holistically, and specifically, to the development of women and girls; thus underpinning the significance of migrant labour market participation (8,22,25). Whilst, remittances specifically targeted at men in poor countries is strongly associated with the increase of personal assets, contrarily, remittances targeted at women directly, increases their autonomy and improves the social wellbeing of their wider communities (1).

For example, studies have revealed that remittances provide women with the economic capital to create their own businesses. As evidenced within the Philippines, women used remittances to become self-dependent entrepreneurs and escaped the perils of low paid, agricultural work (26). This kind of economic emancipation provides opportunity to catalyse other forms of development amongst groups. Firstly, increased capital is evidenced to provide women with more gravitas within social decision-making processes. In turn, this leads to an

improvement in family health and education levels (specifically girls’ education), and improvement of local infrastructure (6,27–29).

Potential Indicators

1.1 Successful Labour Market Integration

(Settling in 2018: Indicators of Immigrant Integration) (30)

Integration Domain	Countries Measured - ALL 27 with exceptions for
Immigrant Civic Engagement: Attitudes towards gender equality	Poland, Japan, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, Luxembourg, South Korea, U.S.A
Employment	N/A
Employment: unemployment	N/A
Employment: underemployment	Canada and Ireland
Social Integration: Perceived Discrimination	Luxembourg, New Zealand, Italy, Slovak Republic, Hungary, Japan, Poland and South Korea

1.2 The amount of migrant work visas distributed by woman’s skill

Given the information provided above, willingness to accept female migrants based on skill could be an additional indicator. Ideally, the amount of female work visas issued by each country should be used, however, data is unavailable (for example see 31–33).

Alternatively, the International Migration Database provides sex disaggregated data revealing the influx of foreign labour to any of the 27 countries by worker’s country of birth/nationality (34).

The report monitors indicators in areas pertained to migrant labour market integration, successful integration can be used as the indicator.

The table below provides information regarding the indicators most relevant to female labour market integration and countries measured. See Appendix 8.2 for more detail

Sub-component 3:

3.1 Higher Education

Both male and female students from poorer countries are attracted to higher income countries by the promise of ‘better’ education opportunities (35). Changing dynamics of gender norms have resulted in increased encouragement and opportunities for women (1,36), evinced through a rise in women’s participation in tertiary education abroad from 44% in 1999 to 48% in 2012 (36). Whilst progress is slow, increasing evidence demonstrates a positive effect of female education abroad on personal development, as well as the development of women and girls in home countries through knowledge transfer (1).

Access to international education institutions can provide women the opportunity to study subjects that they are traditionally underrepresented in (within their home countries) such as science and mathematics (37). Moreover, such opportunities can allow women the opportunity to study in tertiary education where, traditionally, male students have been favoured. Examples from a UNESCO report on male applicant bias in higher education systems within sub-Saharan Africa and Asia, evidence on restrictions women in Iran from pursuing degree courses like engineering because of its links to the oil industry, and restrictions by universities to prevent women from pursuing degree paths with ‘Western’ influence may be cited (38).

Meanwhile, evidence suggests that that opportunities of international study provides women with nuanced skillsets, allowing them to enter labour markets of which historically, have been male dominated (36).

Academics further emphasise the holistic benefits of international education. For example, exposure to external cultural norms has been evidenced to challenge the repressive status quo of poor countries. As students return, authorities are compelled to adhere to individual demands to avoid losing valuable human capital to other countries, further contributing to the emancipation of women (39–43).

Potential Indicators:

1. **Female International Student Inflows**
2. **International scholarships aimed at women where male education has traditionally been favoured**

Indicator	Source
<p>1. Female International Student Inflows</p>	<p>OECD student migration statistics (44)</p>
<p>2. International scholarships aimed at women where male education has traditionally been favoured</p>	<p>‘Scholarships for Development’ provides a comprehensive list of scholarships aimed at women to catalyse development (45)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Durham University’s Hatfield College offers a ‘Lioness Scholarship’ aimed specifically for women from developing countries* (46)

* It must be noted that Durham is not representative of the UK holistically, therefore there is a need for national policy to implement quotas to ensure commitment is driven across all institutions.

Dismissed Sub-component: Refugees:

Coinciding with the CGD's migration sub-component 'Refugees and Asylum Seekers' (47) the following information relevant to the development of women and girls was sourced:

Within danger areas, women and girls comprise a high-risk population (48). For example, women in war torn areas and, areas of unrest and instability are at an increased risk of being the victims of sexual, and gender-based violence (49). According to the UN this is likely for 1 in 5 women within these populations (49).

Contributing to such risks, opportunities for women and girls throughout 'dangerous' periods remain scarce, notably, access to sexual healthcare. Moreover, girls within conflict zones are 2.5 times less likely than boys to receive an education (49).

Despite this, (as advised by experts at the Center for Global Development) this component was not included within the main findings. On the grounds of humanity, if at risk or in danger, individuals should not be denied access to refugee status on the grounds of gender.

CONCLUSION

There is an international agreement that the needs of women and girls must be considered in the development discourse. The SDG 5 reflects this international commitment. However, the SDG 5 indicators show that women and girls are still lagging, for example, approximately 650 million young women and girls were married in their childhood and women constitute less than a quarter of the members of national parliaments (3).

Rich countries have a role to play in remedying this situation. The purpose of this report was to find evidence to measure rich countries' commitment to women and girls in poorer countries through six policy areas: Aid, Technology, Environment, Trade, Security and Migration.

Aid can have a positive impact on women's wellbeing, however, as shown, only if aid targets gender objectives specifically. Although gender mainstreaming is the preferred method to deliver gender aid, it has little bearing on the wellbeing of women. This report calls for a critical assessment of aid objectives for projects. To evaluate the quality of aid, there must be an assessment if the principal aid for gender equality is being contributed to the countries with evidently worse gender parity.

Initiatives to improve STEM education for women and incentivising knowledge transfer are possible ways to measure rich countries' impact

on technological advancement that affects the development of women and girls in poorer countries. However, whilst women's participation in STEM education and research is beneficial, evidence is circumstantial and cannot be generalised.

Climate change can harm developing countries and worsen the existing inequalities between men and women. Therefore, it is recommended that donor countries' commitment to gender be measured through their contributions to gender-responsive climate aid.

Findings call for a unilateral reduction of tariffs on intermediate inputs in productive sectors with high female employment. However, female-dominated sectors differ depending on the country. Therefore, there is a point for advocacy, as further research is needed. Also, EU countries and a few other CDI countries have currently ratified bi-lateral or multilateral trade agreements with a gender consideration. Therefore it is recommended those countries should be marked positively as they indirectly contribute towards gender equality through trade.

The report underlines the importance of adhering to National Action Plans to implement UNSCR 1325 to analyse rich countries' commitment. The resolution also suggests steps such as improving the number of female peacekeepers and increased gender training; however, data was not readily available. Links between arms trade and gender, were also considered through the provisions of

the Arms Trade Treaty. However, evidence on the effectiveness of this treaty is still inconclusive.

International Migration Conventions, Labour Market Participation and Higher Education were proposed for migration. Evidence suggests that ratification of international conventions such as 1949 Convention Concerning Migration for Employment (No. 97) positively impacts women. Data for all the sub-components is readily available.

Evidence suggests that policies in a few components such as Aid, Security and Migration have a fairly direct impact on the wellbeing of women and girls. However, causal relationships are harder to establish with policies in areas such as Environment and Technology. Regarding trade

policies, although there is a clear link between trade and gender, further research is required to establish the parameters of these links. In all cases, the biggest challenge was to find gender-disaggregated data.

While defining gender, this project assumes that gender refers only to women and girls. This is suitable for the purposes of this research; however, it is important to consider that gender is a concept with many interpretations, which all have bearing on the results of this exercise and on development as a whole.

APPENDIX 1

Agreed research questions and TORs

The terms of reference of the consultancy project are:

1. What policy areas within six of the CDI's existing components have a spill-over effect on gender* in the world's poorer countries; what is the evidence to support this spill-over?
2. What indicators can be used to measure this impact?

*specifically, women and girls

APPENDIX 2

Terms of Reference initially given by the Center for Global Development

- How could we measure a country's policy commitment to gender (beyond aid) as part of the Commitment to Development Index?
- What evidence is available about aid and non-aid policies impact on gender?
- What specific quantitative indicators that matter to gender could we generate with existing data?

The first challenge of the initial terms of reference was to ascertain if aid had to be studied or not. There was also some confusion about the actual scope of the project – the team was especially unsure if the indicators had to be defined and populated. There was also some discussion on defining 'gender'; the team did not know whether gender meant only women and girls, or if concerns of the LGBTQ community must also be considered. Following a meeting with the client, the following clarifications were made:

1. The project aims to thoroughly examine the possible ways in which there could be a gender aspect to the policy areas in the CDI.
2. The project must consider the impact of aid, in addition to the other components.
3. The project focuses on the spill-over effects that a rich country's policies in the existing components can have on gender.
4. The first outcome expected by the client was to find the evidence of the spill-over impact of such policies.
5. The second outcome was to define possible indicators that could evaluate this impact and find data sources to populate the indicators.

Based on these inputs, the revised terms of reference (Appendix 1) were generated by the team.

APPENDIX 3

Summary of findings Table

Code:

Green – Data is available

Yellow – Data is available but requires manipulation

Red – Extremely limited data available

<u>AID</u>		
Sub-Component	Indicator	Source
1. Quantity of Aid	Amount of aid rich countries give, which has gender equality as the principal goal.	https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=DV_DCD_GENDER
		https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=DV_DCD_GENDER OECD. Aid in Support of Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment: Statistical Overview. 2018;1–34.
2. Quality of Aid	Amount of aid that is given to countries with the worst gender indicators	Gender, Institutions and Development Database (GID-DB) 2019 [Internet]. [cited 2019 Mar 19]. Available from: https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=GID_DB2019 Gender Inequality Index (GII) http://hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii ; http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/GII

<u>TECHNOLOGY</u>		
Sub-Component	Indicator	Source
1. Women In STEM	Initiatives to improve STEM education for women	
2. Incentives for Knowledge Transfer	1. Countries which have implemented policy, aimed at increasing international female participation in research and higher education	Data is difficult to source. Perhaps CGD could suggest countries mandate quotas to reveal the number of foreign women in workforce
	2. The number of STEM scholarships earmarked for female students from developing countries	Due to the conditionalities of this indicator, data remains difficult/unrealistic to source

ENVIRONMENT		
Sub-Component	Indicator	Source
1. Climate Finance	1. Bilateral Climate Funding	Data showing percentage of climate aid earmarked for gender equality in CDI countries (except Hungary) is available. https://www.oecd.org/dac/gender-development/Making-Climate-Finance-Work-for-Women.pdf
	2. Multi-lateral Climate Funding (Undertaken by GEF, GCF, CIFs)	Donor countries list is available for all 3 funds. Evidence of gender sensitive climate projects exists, however amount that CDI countries earmark for gender equality through multi-lateral climate funding is unknown. https://www.thegef.org/partners/countries-participants https://www.climateinvestmentfunds.org/finances https://www.greenclimate.fund/documents/20182/24868/Status_of_Pledges.pdf/eef538d3-2987-4659-8c7c-5566ed6afd19
2. Fair trade (through FairTrade International)	CDI countries that have FI organizations should be marked positively as these countries indirectly promote environment protection and gender equality.	CDI countries (except Greece, Hungary) have FI affiliate organizations. https://archive.is/20120804075801/http://www.fairtrade.net/labelling_initiatives1.0.html <u>CGD should consider practices of non- profits/ private organizations in future iterations.CGD could suggest countries to publish gender diagggregated data on fair trade and its gender impacts.</u>
3. Biodiversity	n/a	Extremely limited data availability of gender responsive projects undertaken by CDI countries who are signatories to various biodiversity conventions.
4. Tropical Wood Imports	n/a	Limited mainstreaming of gender in policy initiatives by EU to combat illegal timber trade; gender sensitive policy efforts by other CDI countries have been difficult to trace
5.Sustainable Fisheries	n/a	Policy efforts by CDI countries have been difficult to trace

TRADE		
Sub-Component	Indicator	Source
1. Unilateral reduction of tariffs on intermediate inputs in productive sectors with high female employment.	n/a	Relatively difficult to acquire information on all the female dominated sectors per country. http://www.un.org/womenwatch/feature/trade/Gender-Perspectives-in-Trade-Policy.html
2. Ratification of gender-sensitive trade agreements	Ratification of bilateral or multilateral trade agreements with a gender criteria	http://www.europarl.europa.eu/intcoop/acp/03_01/pdf/mn3012634_en.pdf https://unctad.org/sections/ditc_dir/docs/ditctncd20082_en.pdf
3. UNCTAD Trade and Gender Toolbox	n/a	Extremely limited data availability of the Trade and Gender Toolbox Index, as the initiative is new. https://unctad.org/en/PublicationsLibrary/ditc2017d1_en.pdf

SECURITY		
Sub-Component	Indicator	Source
1. Adoption and Implementation of Effective NAP	1. Has the country adopted a National Action Plan (NAP)?	All OECD countries except Greece, Hungary and the Slovak Republic have adopted National Action Plans. For all three indicators, scrutiny of individual NAPs is required. These NAPs are readily available online and a table with links to them is included in Appendix 7b of the report.
	2. Does the NAP mention the Department/Ministry of Defence as a principal actor?	
	3. Has a budget been allocated for NAP implementation?	
2. Contributions to Female Peacekeeping	1. Number of Female personnel contributed by rich countries	https://peacekeeping.un.org/en/data-troop-and-police-contributions
	2. Financial Contributions made to increase Female participation	While calls are made for special financial incentives, countries do not yet implement these.
	3. Special Initiatives to boost female participation in peacekeeping	Countries like Netherlands, Finland, Norway, Australia and Canada have instituted various initiatives to help increase the number of female peacekeepers. However, this list is not exhaustive. http://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2018/5/feature-fmoc-peacekeeper-training https://international.gc.ca/world-monde/issues_development-enjeux_developpement/gender_equality-egalite_des_genres/elsie_initiative-initiative_elsie.aspx?lang=eng
3. Provision of gender training	1. Do personnel receive special training on protection of vulnerable persons?	Data for this sub-component (All three indicators) for individual countries is difficult to find without primary research.
	2. Are principles of WPS involved in pre-deployment training?	
	3. Does pre-deployment training include information on - protection and rights of women and girls; increasing participation of local women; cultural awareness training pertinent to the area of operation; international law related to protection of women and children during conflict?	
4. Arms Trade and Gender	Ratification of the Arms Trade Treaty	While all OECD members (and more) have ratified the Arms Trade Treaty, there is not much data on whether ratifying the ATT has truly led to decreased GBV or affected arms trade to countries with high rates of GBV.

MIGRATION		
Sub-Component	Indicator	Source
1. International Migration Conventions	1. Ratification of Articles specific to women and girls	It is possible to identify whether or not countries have ratified these articles. Data is available on the treaty websites. http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:31224 2 https://www.osce.org/odihr/19223?download=true http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:12100:0::NO::P12100_ILO_CODE:C189
	2. Evidence that demonstrates that countries are taking each convention seriously	Treaty 1: 1949 Convention Concerning Migration for Employment. This can be evidenced through migration integration plans – but data only appears available for European Union Countries. (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights. Together in the EU: Promoting the participation of migrants and their descendants. Vienna; 2017.)
		Treaty 2: Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially women and Girls. Data appears readily available on countries which have policy/procedure implemented towards anti slavery and trafficking - for example see https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/anti-slavery-and-human-trafficking-policy AND https://www.immigration.govt.nz/about-us/policy-and-law/integrity-of-the-immigration-system
		Treaty 3: Sources recognise the severity of the issue however no information appears available on commitment to ensuring decent work.
2. Labour Market Participation	1. Female Labour Market Participation	Female labour market participation can be measured in various domains: employment status, civic attitudes towards gender equality and social integration. (OECD and European Union. Settling in 2018: Indicators of Migrant Integration. 2nd ed. OECD Publishing/European Union, editor. Paris/Brussels; 2018.)
	2. Willingness to accept female migrants based on skill (different work visas distributed)	No information on migrant work visas distributed (by tier) available. However, https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=MIG# provides sex disaggregated data on foreign labour by nationality for all countries.
3. Higher Education	1. Female International Student Flows	https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DatasetCode=RFOREIGN#
	2. International scholarships aimed at women where male education has traditionally been favoured.	Whilst there is limited data available, this is an indicator for advocacy, perhaps a need for national policy to implement scholarship quotas to ensure commitment is driven across all institutions.

APPENDIX 4

Gender inequality measures in the top recipients of gender-equality focused aid from OECD member countries.

Donor Country	Top Recipient of Gender Equality Focused Aid	Gender Inequality Index of Recipient Country	Social Institutions and Gender Index Value 2019
Australia	Papua New Guinea	0.741	Data Unavailable
Austria	Uganda	0.523	45.10%
Belgium	Democratic Republic of the Congo	0.652	39.50%
Canada	Ethiopia	0.502	29.60%
Czech Republic	Ethiopia	0.502	29.60%
Denmark	Kenya	0.549	35.50%
Finland	Myanmar	0.456	42.40%
France	Jordan	0.46	57.30%
Germany	Afghanistan	0.653	52.80%
Greece	Albania	0.238	22.60%
Hungary	Data Unavailable	N/A	N/A
Iceland	Malawi	0.619	41.40%
Ireland	Ethiopia	0.502	29.60%
Italy	Ethiopia	0.502	29.60%
Japan	Philippines	0.427	52.80%
Luxembourg	Niger	0.649	Data Unavailable
Netherlands	Ethiopia	0.502	29.60%
New Zealand	Vanuatu	Data Unavailable	Data Unavailable
Norway	Afghanistan	0.653	52.80%
Poland	Kenya	0.549	35.50%
Portugal	Timor-Leste	Data Unavailable	Data Unavailable
Slovak Republic	Turkey	0.317	25.10%
Slovenia	Kosovo	Data Unavailable	Data Unavailable
South Korea	Bangladesh	0.542	54.80%
Spain	Peru	0.368	24.50%
Sweden	Tanzania	0.537	46.10%
Switzerland	Afghanistan	0.653	52.80%
United Kingdom	Ethiopia	0.502	29.60%
United States	Afghanistan	0.653	52.80%

APPENDIX 5

Climate Finance

Initiatives through bilateral aid by OECD countries.

Country/ Area	Initiatives	Aim/ Outcome
Bangladesh	Grameen Shakti mitigation programme	Trains women as solar technicians
Africa	Solar Sister programme	Support women to sell solar lamps
Colombia	TransMilenio- a low-emission rapid bus transit system	Has created job opportunities for women and enhanced women's safety
Mexico	plumbing	Women have been trained in plumbing techniques to change old inefficient water devices
Various- Bangladesh, China, Ghana, Guatemala, India, Kenya, Nigeria, and Uganda	Clean energy cookstoves	Helps in emission reduction which reduces harmful impacts on health, promotes gender equality as women spend less time in collecting firewood (9)

Initiatives by climate funds are as follows:

Global Environment Facility (GEF) initiatives-

Country/Area	Initiative	Aim/Outcome
Sub-Saharan Africa	Fostering Sustainability and Resilience for Food Security	Malawi – project will promote women's participation in natural resource governance (10)
Various	Sustainable cities	South Africa - gender sensitive guidelines for improved sustainable social housing; supporting urban farmers including women involved in sustainable farming methods Vietnam- Promoting climate resilience in cities; developing gender guidelines to make women a part of urban infrastructure and services (10)
Various	Small Grants Programme China- beekeeping projects Armenia- preservation of wild berries	Strong engagement of women; creation of employment opportunities for women (11)

	Morocco- conservation of medicinal plants Peru- Recovering native species of cotton	
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Green Climate Fund initiatives-

Country	Initiative	Aim/ Outcome
East Africa	Shining a solar light on women's empowerment	To provide training to women in becoming solar technicians (12)
India	Line of Credit for Solar rooftop segment for Commercial, Industrial and Residential Housing Sectors	To improve access to rooftop solar energy finance for women and men (13)
Guatemala	Building livelihood resilience to climate change in the upper basins of Guatemala's highlands	To improve resilience of women towards climate change through agro-forestry practices and watershed management. (14)

- List of other gender sensitive climate-related projects by GCF (15)

Climate Investment Fund (CIF) initiatives-

Country/ Area	Initiative	Aim/ Outcome
Tajikistan	CLIMADAPT - gender responsive climate resilience investments	Employment generation for women (16)
Various- 1. India, Laos, Ghana, Turkey, etc. 2. Uganda, Laos, Nicaragua, Bhutan 3. Nepal	Renewable energy	1. Has led to employment generation for women (17) 2. Opportunities for women and gender equality (18) 3. Training women in construction and customer service providers (19)

- Other CIF gender responsive projects (20)

Fairtrade

Country/ Area	Initiative	Aim/ Outcome
India	Chetna Organic- 'Seed Guardians', India	To promote women managed and controlled seed enterprises; small women farmers conserve local

		variety of seeds which gives a higher yield; organic agriculture (32,33)
Peru	Sonomoro coffee cooperative	Women framers have been trained to mitigate the effects of climate change and better manage their land (34)
Various – Kenya, Ethiopia, Lesotho, India	Biogas stoves	Women spend less time on finding firewood; clean cooking prevents deforestation; by-product used as organic fertilizer (35–39)
South-East Asia	Sisterhood Success- All-female cooperative	Land ownership and rights for women; income generation; training given to women to improve cultivation methods and soil fertility (40)

More dismissed components

Tropical wood imports

Rich countries are responsible for illegal wood imports which negatively affect women’s wellbeing in developing countries. For example, it is documented that some women now travel further to collect food, making them susceptible to sexual abuse whilst others are totally displaced (46,47, 48).

To mitigate this, EU’s FLEGT Action Plan which aims to combat illegal logging and illegal wood imports has incorporated gender.

Additional efforts to prevent illegal wood imports and logging are exemplified though the EU’s Voluntary Partnership Agreements with Vietnam and Ghana. Additionally, the USA’s Lacey Act for illegal logging and timber imports does not mention of gender (49,50,51).

Therefore, CDI countries are urged to mainstream gender into such policies. Monitoring and evaluation of gender impacts in developing countries is also required.

Sustainable Fisheries

Women account for 50% of all fishers, yet their role remains invisible. Overfishing in developing countries due to high demand of fisheries in developed countries has harmful consequences for women (52). Efforts have been made to mainstream gender in fisheries policies (53) but policy initiatives by CDI countries remain difficult to trace.

APPENDIX 6

Initiatives through bilateral agreements by some CDI countries.

Country	Policy/Initiative	Aim/ Outcome
European Union	EU-ACP 'Cotonou Agreement'	Reciprocal trade agreements - Article 1 states "integrate a gender-sensitive approach and concerns at every level of development cooperation including macro-economic policies, strategies and operations" (15-16)
New Zealand, South Korea, Japan	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation Forum (APEC) - Framework for the Integration of Women	To utilize gender analysis to examine gender differences for purpose of recommendations of APEC. To promote the participation of women in the institutional framework of APEC (19-21).
Canada	Canada-Chile Free Trade Agreement Canada-Israel Free Trade Agreement	Incorporates a gender perspective into the promotion of inclusive economic growth and the key role that gender-responsive policies can play in achieving sustainable economic development (13-14)
New Zealand, Canada and Chile	Joint Declaration on Fostering Progressive and Inclusive Trade	Examine ways to address the range of barriers that limit opportunities for women, indigenous peoples and SMEs in international trade (22)

APPENDIX 7a

Excerpt from WIIS Report – ‘Gender mainstreaming: indicators for the implementation of unscr 1325 and its related resolutions’. Authors: Chantal de Jonge Oudraat, Sonja Stojanović-Gajić, Carolyn Washington and Brooke Stedman. (pp 12 – 21)

THE 1325 SCORECARD TEMPLATE

CATEGORY	EXPECTED OUTCOME	INDICATORS	YES	NO	SCORE
Total Score: 30					
I. National Importance/ Political Will	<p>There is strong political support at the highest levels to integrate gender perspectives in the nation's foreign and defense policies.</p> <p>The principles of UNSCR 1325 (2000) and its related resolutions (1820 (2008); 1888 (2009); 1889(2009); 1960 (2010); 2106 (2013) and 2022 (2013)) — also known as the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda — are fully integrated and mainstreamed in foreign and national security policies.</p> <p>Foreign and defense officials recognize the importance of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation of women at all levels of decision-making; • Protection of women and girls from sexual and gender-based violence; • Prevention of violence against women through the promotion of women's rights; • Mainstreaming of gender perspectives in foreign and defense policies. <p>The Department/Ministry of Defense (D/MoD) is a principle and integral player in the implementation of the UNSCR 1325/WPS National Action Plan (NAP).</p> <p>Specific resources and positions for the implementation of the NAP have been allocated for the D/MoD.</p>	<p>I.1 – Are the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 mentioned in the major foreign policy or national security documents?</p> <p>I.2 – Does the nation have a National Action Plan (NAP) in support of WPS/UNSCR 1325?</p> <p>I.3 – Does the NAP mention the Department/Ministry of Defense (D/MoD) as a principal actor?</p> <p>I.4 – Does the D/MoD have its own action/implementation plan in order to meet its NAP objectives?</p>			
		I.5 – Has a budget been allocated for NAP implementation?			
		I.6 – Has a budget been allocated for the D/MoD NAP implementation?			

II. Institutional Policy and Practice		Total Score: 121
<p>II.A. Strategy, Plans and Policy</p> <p>Gender perspectives have been integrated in the major directives and guidance documents related to doctrine, planning, policy, and operations. A gender perspective is introduced in all phases of military operations and missions, and adapted to specific operational contexts.</p> <p>Moreover relevant documents highlight the importance of recognizing that women, girls and boys are more vulnerable to sexual and gender-based violence and sexual exploitation and abuse during conflict. Attention is given to provide protection and uphold the freedom of movement of women and girls.</p> <p>Gender Advisors (GENAD) have been identified, assigned and trained to ensure that a gender perspective is an integrated part of exercises, operations and other military activities. GENADs are deployed as part of the Commander staff at both a strategic and operational level.</p> <p>Gender Focal Points (GFP) have been identified and assigned to work at the operational and tactical levels to ensure that a gender perspective is fully integrated into the daily activities of the operation.</p>	<p>II.A.1 – Are the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 referred to in key documents related to military strategy, plans, and policy?</p>	
	<p>II.A.2 – Are the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 integrated into exercises, operations, and other military activities?</p>	
	<p>II.A.3 – Is the responsibility for the protection of vulnerable persons (women, girls, and boys) from sexual violence included in military strategic documents, field manuals and other similar publications?</p>	
	<p>II.A.4 – Has a full time gender advisor (GENAD) been appointed in accordance with NATO Bi-SC Directive 40-1?</p>	
	<p>II.A.5 – Is the GENAD assigned as a member of the commander's staff?</p>	
	<p>II.A.6 – Has the GENAD received training?</p>	
	<p>II.A.7 – Are there Gender Focal Points (GFP) assigned throughout the organization?</p>	
	<p>II.A.8 – Have the GFPs received training?</p>	

<p>II.B. Training, education and exercises</p>	<p>WPS principles and gender perspectives are fully integrated into the curricula of training and educational activities. Education and trainings include: gender and cultural/social awareness; overview of UNSCR 1325; how UNSCR 1325 relates to operational effectiveness; and sexual violence, including sexual exploitation and abuse. (NATO Bi-SC Directive 40-1, paragraph d, page 9).</p> <p>Prior to new operations and missions, appropriate training in the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 and how to apply a gender perspective have been conducted as prerequisites to successful mission accomplishment. Pre-deployment training includes, at a minimum, each of the elements mentioned in NATO Bi-SCD 40-1.</p>	<p>II.B.1 – Are the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 integrated into the education and training for military personnel at the junior-level (NATO military ranks OF 1-2; OR 2-4)?</p> <p>II.B.2 – Are the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 integrated into the education and training for military personnel at the mid-level (NATO military ranks OF 3, OR 5-7)?</p> <p>II.B.3 – Are the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 integrated into the education and training for military personnel at the senior-level (NATO military ranks OF 4+, OR 8+)?</p> <p>II.B.4 – Are the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 integrated into any other training of staff?</p> <p>II.B.5 – Do military personnel receive special training on the protection of vulnerable persons from sexual violence in conflict?</p> <p>II.B.6 – Are the principles of WPS/UNSCR 1325 included in pre-deployment training?</p> <p>II.B.7 – As a minimum, does pre-deployment training include the following areas in accordance with NATO Bi-SCD 40-1:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the importance of protection, rights and needs of women, men, girls, and boys? - information on how to engage with and increase the participation of local women and how to exchange information with women? - cultural awareness training based on an analysis of gender relation in the area of operations (AO)? - how integrating a gender perspective can serve as a force enabler and increase operational effectiveness of the mission? - an understanding of measures with respect to international law regarding the rights and protection of women and girls, especially civilians during armed conflict? - specific gender training focused on the AO? 			
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<p>II.C. Gender in the Ranks</p>	<p>Women's equal participation and integration is actively sought and promoted in the national armed forces. Women serve at all ranks and in all disciplines. Women are also deployed in all ranks and disciplines. Countries with a low percentage of women serving have established targets.</p>	<p>II.C.1 – How many women (%) serve on active duty in the military?</p> <p>II.C.2 – How many women (%) are deployed in military operations abroad?</p> <p>II.C.3 – Are all positions in the armed forces open to women?</p> <p>II.C.4 – Do women serve as flag officers (NATO OF 6 or above)?</p> <p>II.C.5 – Are there target numbers (%) to increase the number of women in the military?</p>			
<p>II.D. Work Environment</p>	<p>The work environment is conducive to the recruitment of women. Special policies such as maternity and paternity leave and other related family policies have been put into place to improve the quality of life for military personnel and enhance recruitment.</p> <p>In addition, there are programs that create a positive climate and environment of trust and respect for all. There is a policy of zero tolerance with regard to sexual harassment, and exploitation and abuse (SEA) either within the services, within missions or against civilians in host nations. Both internal and external sexual exploitation and abuse is addressed.</p>	<p>II.D.1 – Are there human resource policies such as maternity/paternity leave, childcare or family leave policies?</p> <p>II.D.2 – Is there a sexual harassment and sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) program for protection of military personnel “within” the nation?</p> <p>II.D.3 – Is there a sexual harassment and sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) prevention program to address SEA of military personnel of another nation or civilians of the host nation (e.g. one military person from a nation sexually assaulting a military person from another nation, or a civilian from the host nation)?</p> <p>II.D.4 – Is there gender-specific individual equipment?</p>			

Monitoring, Reporting and Evaluation		Total Score: 20	
<p>Effective monitoring and reporting mechanisms are in place for the nation's implementation efforts of UNSCR 1325 so as to allow the nation to track how well it is doing, identify problem areas and make changes. The process is transparent and actively involves civil society.</p>	<p>III.1 – Are there national monitoring and reporting requirements?</p>		
	<p>III.2 – Are there specific reporting requirements for D/MoD?</p>		
	<p>III.3 – Are sex-disaggregated data and lessons learned collected within the D/MoD context?</p>		
	<p>III.4 – Is there involvement of civil society in the NAP review?</p>		

SCORE TOTAL _____ (Total Possible Points: 171)

THE 1325 SCORECARD

SCORING PROTOCOL

The Scorecard has two scoring systems; a letter system and a numerical system. The letter system ranges from A to F and assesses the extent to which a nation has:

- (1) Integrated a gender perspective in its military operations;
- (2) Promoted the role of women in the military and more generally gender equality; and
- (3) Adopted and implemented a zero tolerance policy for sexual exploitation and abuse.

The letter system also assesses the performance of a nation within each category and sub-category. The numerical system is used to rank individual indicators. The numerical scoring system goes from 0 to 5, with 0 being the lowest value meaning that no action on that indicator has been taken, and 5 the highest value with full action being taken.

A: Excellent (A=171-151)

B: Good/Satisfactory (B=150 -130)

C: Average/Insufficient (C=129 -109)

D: Strongly insufficient (D=108-88)

F: Failure (< 87)

Indicator	YES/ NO	Value	Score Explanation
I. NATIONAL IMPORTANCE/POLITICAL WILL			
I.1 – Are the principles of WPS/ UNSCR 1325 mentioned in the major foreign policy or national security documents?	YES	5	Explicit reference is made in the major (top) foreign and security policy documents to UNSCR 1325 (2000) and its related resolutions [1820 (2008); 1888 (2009); 1889(2009); 1960 (2010); 2106 (2013) and 2022 (2013)] and/or the Women, Peace and Security Agenda (WPS). This is translated into specific actions with an aim to promote the WPS agenda.
		4	Reference is made to gender equality and women's rights or women's empowerment as one of the major aims of foreign policy and national security policy.
		2	Reference is made only to protection and prevention of conflict related (gender-based) sexual violence.
	NO	0	No reference is made to any of the above mentioned principles of WPS.
I.2 – Does the nation have a National Action Plan (NAP) in support of WPS/UNSCR 1325?	YES	5	A nation has adopted a 1325 National Action Plan (NAP).
	NO	0	A nation has no action plan.
I.3 – Does the NAP mention the Department/ Ministry of Defense (D/ MoD) as a principal actor?	YES	5	The Department or Ministry of Defense (D/MoD) is mentioned as a principal actor in implementation of the WPS agenda and specific tasks were given to the D/MoD.
	YES	3	The Department or Ministry of Defense (D/MoD) is mentioned as a principal actor in implementation of the WPS agenda but no specific tasks or action points were given to the D/MoD.
	NO	0	The D/MoD is not mentioned.

I.4 – Does the D/MoD have its own action/implementation plan in order to meet its NAP objectives?	YES	5	The D/MoD has its own action/implementation plan for NAP implementation or has received specific tasks in the NAP.
		4	The D/MoD has implementation guidelines, that is, suggested rather than required actions.
	NO	0	In all other cases.
I.5 – Has a budget been allocated for NAP implementation?	YES	5	Specific resources and/or positions have been allocated for NAP implementation within the government.
	NO	0	In all other cases.
I.6 – Has a budget been allocated for the D/MoD NAP implementation?	YES	5	Specific resources and/or positions have been allocated or created for NAP implementation by the D/MoD (resources may be allocated by other departments or ministries, but NAP implementation is completed by D/MoD).
	NO	0	In all other cases.
Total Score	Max. 6x5 =30		A 30 - 27 B 26 - 23 C 22 - 19 D 18 - 15 F < 14
II. INSTITUTIONAL POLICY AND PRACTICE			
II.A – Strategy, Plans and Policy			
II.A.1 – Are the principles of WPS/ UNSCR 1325 referred to in key documents related to military strategy, plans, and policy?	YES	5	WPS principles, and gender analyses and gender perspectives are integrated into strategy, plans and policy in doctrinal documents at the strategic, operational and tactical levels. Also mentioned in field manuals and handbooks.
		4	The above is mentioned in field manuals and handbooks.
		3	The above is mentioned as an important guideline for operations on the website.
		2	The need for a gender perspective is mentioned in a particular operation.
		0	No mention is made of WPS principles, the need for a gender analysis or a gender perspective.
II.A.2 – Are the principles of WPS/ UNSCR 1325 integrated into exercises, operations, and other military activities?	YES	5	A gender perspective is consistently integrated into military exercises, operations, or other military activities as evidenced by documents to include exercise directives, operations orders, etc.
	YES	3	A gender perspective is integrated into military exercises, operations, or other military activities on an ad hoc basis, as evidenced by documents to include exercise directives, operations orders, etc.
	NO	0	
II.A.3 – Is the responsibility for the protection of vulnerable persons (women, girls and boys) from sexual violence included in military strategic documents, field manuals, and other similar publications?	YES	5	Sexual violence is mentioned in strategy, plans and policy documents at the strategic, operational and tactical levels. Also mentioned in field manuals and handbooks. Sexual violence perpetrated on military/ civilian personnel within the force/operation and GBV perpetrated on military, combatants, and civilians of the host nation.
		4	Sexual violence is mentioned in field manuals and handbooks.

		3	Sexual violence is mentioned as an important guideline for operations on the website.
		2	Sexual violence is mentioned in a particular operation.
	NO	0	No mention is made of sexual violence.
II.A.4 – Has a full time gender advisor (GENAD) been appointed in accordance with NATO Bi-SC Directive 40-1?	YES	5	A full-time Gender advisor (GENAD) has been appointed at the strategic and operational levels.
		4	A full-time GENAD has been appointed at other levels (e.g as part of Human Resources staff).
		3	A part-time GENAD has been appointed at the strategic and operational levels.
		2	A GENAD has been appointed for a specific mission.
	NO	0	No GENAD has been appointed.
II.A.5 – Is the GENAD assigned as a member of the commander's staff?	YES	5	The GENAD has been assigned as a member of the commander's staff.
	YES	4	The GENAD has been assigned elsewhere in the organization.
	NO	0	
II.A.6 – Has the GENAD received training?	YES	5	The GENAD has received GENAD NATO certified training as part of an established practice.
		4	GENAD received other gender training as part of an established practice
		3	The GENAD received gender training on an ad hoc basis rather than an established practice
	NO	0	GENAD has not received gender training.
II.A.7 – Are there Gender Focal Points (GFP) assigned throughout the organization?	YES	5	GFPs have been appointed.
	NO	0	No GFPs have been appointed.
II.A.8 – Have the GFPs received training?	YES	5	GFPs have received GFP NATO certified training as part of an established practice.
		4	GFPs have received other gender training as part of an established practice.
		3	The GFPs received gender training on an ad hoc basis rather than an established practice
	NO	0	GFPs have not received training.
Max Total Score	8x5 =40		A 40 - 36 B 35 - 31 C 30 - 26 D 25 - 21 F < 20
II.B Training, Education and Exercises			
II.B.1 Are the principles of WPS/ UNSCR 1325 integrated into the education and training for military personnel at the junior-level (NATO military ranks OF 1-2; OR 2-4)?	YES	5	WPS principles and gender perspectives are integrated into the education and training for military personnel at the junior-level as part of an established, consistent practice (OF 1-2; OR 2-4).
	YES	3	WPS principles and gender perspectives are integrated into the education and training for military personnel at the junior-level on an ad hoc basis (OF 1-2; OR 2-4).
	NO	0	Not included.

II.B.2 – Are the principles of WPS/ UNSCR 1325 integrated into the education and training for military personnel at the mid-level (NATO military ranks OF 3, OR 5-7)?	YES	5	WPS principles and gender analyses/perspectives are integrated into the education and basic training for military personnel at the mid-level as part of an established, consistent practice (OF 3 and OR 5-7).
	YES	3	WPS principles and gender analyses/perspectives are integrated into the education and basic training for military personnel at the mid-level on an ad hoc basis (OF 3 and OR 5-7).
	NO	0	Not included
II.B.3 – Are the principles of WPS / UNSCR 1325 integrated into the education and training for military personnel at the senior-level (NATO military ranks OF 4+, OR 8+)?	YES	5	WPS principles are integrated into the education and basic training for military personnel at the senior level as part of an established, consistent practice (OF 4- and OR 9).
	YES	3	WPS principles are integrated into the education and basic training for military personnel at the senior level on an ad hoc basis (OF 4- and OR 9).
	No	0	Not included.
II.B.4 – Are the principles of WPS/ UNSCR 1325 integrated into any other training of staff?	YES	5	Other staff training provides a gender perspective.
	NO	0	Not included.
II.B.5 – Do military personnel receive special training on the protection of vulnerable persons from sexual violence in conflict?	YES	5	Military personnel receives training on sexual violence and sexual exploitation and abuse (both internally and externally focused)
		4	Military personnel receives training on sexual violence (within the force; internally focused) OR training on sexual exploitation and abuse (conflict related sexual violence; externally focused)
	NO	0	Not included.
II.B.6 – Are the principles of WPS /UNSCR 1325 included in pre-deployment training?	YES	5	Military personnel receives training on the WPS principles and gender perspectives at pre-deployment training. WPS principles are consistently integrated into pre-deployment training.
		4	Military personnel receives training on the WPS principles and gender perspectives at pre-deployment training on an ad hoc basis.
		3	Only receives training on sexual and sexual exploitation and abuse (e.g. conflict related sexual violence).
	NO	0	Not included.

II.B.7 – As a minimum, does pre-deployment training include the following areas in accordance with NATO Bi-SCD 40-1: – the importance of protection, rights and needs of women, men, girls and boys; – information on how to engage with and increase the participation of local women and how to exchange information with women; – cultural awareness training based on an analysis of gender relation in the area of operations (AO); – how integrating a gender perspective can serve as a force enabler and increase operational effectiveness of the mission; – an understanding of measures with respect to international law regarding the rights and protection of women and girls, especially civilians during armed conflict; – specific gender training focused on the AO.	YES	6	One point per issue.
Max. Total Score	6x5+ 1x6 =36		A 36 - 32 B 31 - 27 C 26 - 22 D 21 - 17 F < 16
II.C – Gender in the Ranks			
II.C.1 – How many women (%) serve in the military? ³³ This percent is measured against the total number of military personnel.	YES	5	19.28% and higher
		4	14.60% - 19.27%
		3	9.93% – 14.59%
		2	5.25% – 9.92%
		1	0.57% – 5.24%
	NO	0	No women serve in the military
II.C.2 – How many women (%) are deployed in military operations abroad? ³⁴ This percent is measured against the total number of personnel deployed.	YES	5	11.13% - 13.88%
		4	8.38% – 11.12%
		3	5.63% – 8.37%
		2	2.88% – 5.62%
		1	0.13% – 2.87%
	NO	0	Women are not deployed in military operations.
II.C.3 – Are all positions in the armed forces open to women?	YES	5	All positions are open to women.
	NO	0	Some positions are closed to women.
II.C.4 – Do women serve as flag officers (NATO OF 6 or above)? – This should be interpreted as the percent of women in the military who serve as flag officers.	YES	5	There are women flag officers OF 6 or above.
	NO	0	There are no women flag officers OF 6 or above.

³³ Note on scoring: Percentages were compared by their standard scores, based on the standard deviation from the mean. In order to assign a score of 1-5 based on our scoring system, we added "3" to each standard score, essentially sliding the x-axis underneath the distribution. This transformation of adding "3" did not affect the distribution of data.

³⁴ Ibid.

APPENDIX 7b

OECD Member Country	Year of Adoption of NAP	Link to full-text on country's NAP
Australia	2012	https://www.pmc.gov.au/resource-centre/office-women/australia-national-action-plan-women-peace-and-security-2012-2018
Austria	2007	https://www.bmeia.gv.at/en/european-foreign-policy/security-policy/women-peace-and-security-sc-res-1325/
Belgium	2009	https://diplomatie.belgium.be/sites/default/files/downloads/women_peace_security.pdf
Canada	2010	https://international.gc.ca/world-monde/issues_development-enjeux_developpement/gender_equality-egalite_des_genres/cnap-pnac-17-22.aspx?lang=eng
Czech Republic	2017	https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/CzechNAP.cs_en.pdf
Denmark	2005	https://gnwp.org/wp-content/uploads/Denmark-National-Action-Plan-2014-2019.pdf
Finland	2008	http://julkaisut.valtioneuvosto.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/160747/03_18_Women_Peace_Security.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y
France	2010	https://www.diplomatie.gouv.fr/IMG/pdf/women_peace_security_final_cle439e93.pdf
Germany	2013	https://www.auswaertiges-amt.de/blob/286988/2462039cca1326a195da2e962048596/170111-aktionsplan-1325-data.pdf
Greece	Not adopted	N/A
Hungary	Not adopted	N/A
Iceland	2008	https://www.government.is/library/01-Ministries/Ministry-for-Foreign-Affairs/PDF-skjol/UT-WomenPeaceSecurity-2013.pdf
Ireland	2011	https://www.dfa.ie/media/dfa/alldfawebsitemedia/ourrolesandpolicies/ourwork/empoweringwomen-peaceandsecurity/Irelands-second-National-Action-Plan-

		on-Women-Peace-and-Security.pdf
Italy	2010	https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CEDAW/Shared%20Documents/ITA/INT_CEDAW_ARL_I_TA_27451_E.pdf
Japan	2015	https://www.mofa.go.jp/files/000101798.pdf
Luxembourg	2018	https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/French%20-%20Luxembourg%20NAP%20on%20WPS%20(2018-2023)-ilovepdf-compressed.pdf (in French)
Netherlands	2008	http://peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/Dutch_NAP_2016-2019.pdf
New Zealand	2015	http://www.nzdf.mil.nz/downloads/pdf/public-docs/wpsnapmarch2015.pdf
Norway	2006	https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/norway-nationalactionplan_march2006.pdf
Poland	2018	https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/Polish%20NAP%20WPS%202018-2021.pdf
Portugal	2009	http://peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/portugal_nap_2014.pdf
Slovak Republic	Not adopted	N/A
Slovenia	2010	https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/slovenia_nap2011.pdf
South Korea	2014	https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/republicofkorea_nap_2014.pdf
Spain	2007	http://www.exteriores.gob.es/Portal/es/SalaDePrensa/Multimedia/Publicaciones/Documents/2017_II%20PLAN%20NACIONAL%20ENG%20web.pdf
Sweden	2006	https://www.government.se/contentassets/8ae23198463f49269e25a14d4d14b9bc/women-peace-and-security-eng.pdf
Switzerland	2007	https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/Swiss%204th%20NAP.pdf
United Kingdom	2006	https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/syst

		em/uploads/attachment_data/file/677586/FCO1215-NAP-Women-Peace-Security-ONLINE_V2.pdf
United States	2011	https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/women-national-action-plan.pdf

Appendix 8

8.1: Conventions Ratified (further information)

Treaty	Articles Relevant to Women and Girls
1949 Convention Concerning Migration for Employment (No. 97) (3)	6a.i, b,
2000 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (10)	2a, 9b, 9.4, 9.5
2011 Convention concerning Decent Work for Domestic Workers (14)	As mentioned above

8.2: Successful labour market integration indicators:

The table below provides information regarding the indicators most relevant to female labour market integration, and where the information is located within the report.

Integration Domain	Page Reference	Figure	Title	Countries Measured
Immigrant Civic Engagement: Attitudes towards gender equality	133	5.9	“Attitudes towards gender equality in job access”	Data available for all countries except for Poland, Japan, Canada, New Zealand, Australia, Luxembourg, South Korea, U.S.A
Employment	155	6.5	“Employment rates, by gender” (Employment is defined by a person who works at least one hour per week)	Data available for all countries
Employment: unemployment	159	6.9	Unemployed women who are available to work/seeking employment	Data available for all countries
Employment: underemployment	167	6.17	Individuals who are overqualified for the work they pursue	Data available for all except: Canada and Ireland
Social Integration: Perceived Discrimination	169	6.19	Self-reported discrimination, by gender	Data available for all countries except Luxembourg, New Zealand, Italy, Slovak Republic, Hungary, Japan, Poland and South Korea

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