GENDER MAINSTREAMING RESEARCH PAPER - 1

SDG 5

GENDER EQUALITY:
GAPS, CHALLENGES AND THE WAY FORWARD

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By

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Ministry of Planning
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Acknowledgments

This report is dedicated to the women of Pakistan who continue to dream of a just world and to fight for their rights despite all odds.

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Introduction

This paper identifies gaps in, and provides solutions for, holistically measuring the progress on Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5. It discusses the current status of SDG 5 achievements and looks at why Pakistan lags behind on all indicators despite years of advocacy and efforts by state and civil society. In doing so, it highlights gaps in the ranking process of indicators and proposes measures for a more accurate picture which reflects Pakistan's changed ground realities. The paper also discusses the pros and cons of gender rankings and examines the UNDP's Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) and Gender Development Index (GDI), and the World Economic Forum's Gender Gap Analysis Report. It also discusses how such frameworks could promote a holistic understanding of women's empowerment.

This paper primarily relies upon secondary data and a review of relevant reports and literature to assess Pakistan's progress on the SDGs. This paper is divided into five sections including introduction. The second section provides an overview of different methodologies used for measuring gender equality since the1990s when the concept of ranking became popular. Ranging from UNDP's GEM and GDI to WEF's Gender Gap Analysis, this section provides a synopsis of different perspectives on the subject. It also discusses the challenges of reporting and inclusion while capturing progress.

The third section provides a synopsis of challenges for Goal 5- Gender Equality, in Pakistan. It provides a background to Pakistan's SDG 5 status, the govern-

ment's commitments, challenges, and prioritisation of the SDGs. The section also examines Pakistan's consistently low rankings across a host of gender equality indices. It reviews the targets and indicators under Goal 5, and the challenges of reporting confronting the governments across the board. The fourth section discusses the specific methodology employed by the UN to produce the Sustainable Development Report (SDR) and the limitations the UN encounters for tracking. Can this situation be changed? The fifth and final section addresses this question by proposing to capture the dynamic processes at play on the ground which have given women the voice and agency despite the systemic hurdles that they face continuously. It recommends actions which the government, civil society, and international stakeholders can initiate to address the immediate issues confronting tracking, and producing a more accurate picture on the ground.

To conclude, this paper problematises the need and process for ranking when insufficient data is available across the world; and how can the results, based on the only partially available data utilised by the UN's Statistics Division (UNSD) to assess a country's position, be fairer. This paper also points out that the data derived from large national surveys fails to capture provincial, district, and grassroots level changes. Thus, national surveys might need to consider inclusion of more questions alongside incorporating district level data into portraying a scenario which reflects changes taking place on ground.

Measuring Equality and Empowerment

An Overview of Frameworks

By the late 1970s when the UN was celebrating the Decade for Women, feminist researchers and practitioners highlighted asymmetries in the development process ushered in by the UN's Decade of Development of the 1960s. During the 1960s, only the formal sector accounted for the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of a country. Esther Boserup's ground-breaking study 'Women's Role in Economic Development (1970)' argues that women's work, both in the paid and unpaid workforce, contributed to national economies. Marilyn Waring (1988) argued that the UN System of National Accounts is responsible for overlooking women's productive contributions. As a feminist economist, she pointed out that modern economics systematically excludes women's housework, caring of the young, sick, and old, by not placing economic value on this work.[1] However, anything outside of women's participation in the formal sector of the economy was not included in the definition of 'productive' work. Thus, most of the contributions of half of the population to the GDP were discounted. A fairly large and exciting body of literature emerged which highlightes different perspectives on women's work and inclusion in development processes. Subsequently, the UN declared 1975-85 the decade of women, giving rise to more academic, policy, and advocacy work that impacted policy and related legislation. The UN World Conferences on Women (New Mexico 1975, Copenhagen 1980, Nairobi 1985, and Beijing 1995) during which the governments' policy makers, activists, and scholars highlighted issues confronting women across the board, and reinforced the need to account for and address women's inequality.

In order to fully understand what is needed to promote equality and empowerment, an indicator must show how women fare as compared to men and to general population. The identification of existing inequalities through sex-disaggregation helps ensure that the future policies and interventions are gender responsive.[2] Such measures have been adopted for a quarter of a century or more now. However, consensus on the best method for reflecting and promoting equality continues to evade the policy community.

To measure gender equality, the UNDP's Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) and the Gender-related Development Index (GDI) were introduced in 1995 as important frameworks, and GDI as additional dimension of the Human Development Index 1995. The GDI measures gender inequalities in achievement of three basic dimensions of human development: health (measured by female and male life expectancy at birth), education (measured by female and male expected years of schooling for children and mean years for adults aged 25 years and older) and command over economic resources (measured by female and male estimated GNI per capita).[3] There are several other indices that have tried to address the same broad concerns in different ways such as the Gender Equity Index (GEI) developed by Social Watch in 2004, and the Gender Gap Index (GGI) developed by the World Economic Forum in 2006. In 2007, the OECD Development Center introduced the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) which looks at social institutions comprising norms and values which contribute to inequality between men and women; it looks at the family, ownership rights, physical integrity and civil liberties.

The GDI elicited criticism for being tied to the Human Development Index, meaning gender inequality was seen in relation to HDI. The GEM incorporated issues of unequal access to power. It looks at three aspects: seats in national parliaments, women's role in economic decision making, and women's share in income. The GEI, which focuses on socio-economic aspects of gender inequality, has been criticised for not including fundamental health inequalities. The GGI focuses on four areas: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, political empowerment, and health and survival statistics. It is meant to make comparisons across countries possible. Like GEI, it has also been critiqued for being too broad relying upon inadequate national data sets. Unlike GEM, GDI, GEI and GGI, the SIGI is considered more relevant to the developing countries rather than the developed world.

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1. Marylin Waring, If Women Counted. A New Feminist Economics. Harper Collins. San Francisco 1988

2. Dazé A, Church C., Toolkit for a gender-responsive process to formulate and implement National Adaptation Plans (NAPs). Winnipeg: NAP Global Network & UNFCCC; 2019.) Quoted in: https://conflictandhealth.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s13031-021-00373-6

3. UNDP, Briefing note for countries on the 2020 Human Development Report (Pakistan) in The Next Frontier: Human Development and the Anthropocene. Page 5

A Note on GGI

According to the World Economic Forum,[4] "There are three basic concepts underlying the Global Gender Gap Index. First, the index focuses on measuring gaps rather than levels. Second, it captures gaps in outcome variables rather than gaps in input variables. Third, it ranks countries according to gender equality rather than women's empowerment, meaning it focuses on the gaps between male and female in four important dimensions: economic participation and opportunity (5 indicators), educational attainment (4 indicators), health and survival (2 indicators), and political empowerment (3 indicators). All together, 14 indicators accompany each dimension/sub-index (for details, see Annex 2). Different weights are assigned to each indicator and all data is converted to female-male-ratios. The highest score a country can have is 1 (equality) and lowest is 0 (inequality). The WEF relies upon UN agencies, the IMF, and the World Bank as its data sources in addition to a survey on wage equality which it conducts. While it claims that the report does not penalise countries for their level of development (read: low economic growth rates) as it measures access to resources rather than actual resources and opportunities available in a country. Although it claims to be ridding itself of bias by ranking countries on their gender gaps rather than level of development, yet the bias comes through. This is demonstrated by the choices which disadvantage the global south with no surprise that the countries of the global north have the best ranking. According to the Global Gender Gap Index Report (2020), "On an average, the eight regions assessed by the report have closed between 60.5% (the average score in Middle East and North Africa) and 76.7% (the average score in Western Europe). North America is a few percentage points below Western Europe (72.9%) and Latin America and the Caribbean (72.2%) have almost caught up with Eastern Europe and Central Asia (71.3%). They are followed by East Asia and the Pacific (68.5%), Sub-Saharan Africa (68.2%) and South Asia (66.1%)."

The GGI presumptions have been critiqued on three important grounds: First, recently India fell 28 places in one year from being 112 out of 153 countries in 2020 to be placed at 140 among 156 countries in 2021. It was at 92 in 2006 and despite high economic growth rates for two decades, it regressed to 140. This regression was explained away by economic participation (decreased by 3 %) and political empowerment (fewer women ministers) sub-indices. Furthermore, the report states that the share of women managers in top management also remained low. Many practitioners found this problematic as one year cannot bring about such drastic changes. Secondly, many of these calculations, and inclusion of indices automatically reward the level of development in a country, ignoring the presence or absence of peace and stability. Within the South Asia region, Bangladesh is the best performing ranked at 65 having closed 79% of the gender gap while Afghanistan is the worst performing ranked at 153 having closed 44.4% of its gender gap.[5] Given that Afghanistan has experienced continuous violent conflict for over forty years, can an assessment be fair if it cannot account for massive displacement, destroyed infrastructure and governance failures? Thirdly, the difference between absolute numbers and comparative ratios vis a vis equality can be misleading. For example, in Bangladesh, the income difference between men and women is $6,200 and $2,500 (2.5 times higher), in China $12,100 and $19,800 (1.6 times), and in France $38,700 and $54,500 (1.4 times) respectively. The absolute gender gap is $3,700, $7,700 and $15,800 respectively. If levels are irrelevant, countries with low gender gap in absolute numbers should receive a better rank. However, the Global Gender Gap report ranks France (39th) much ahead of China (76th) and Bangladesh (131st). This raises the question: who should be ranked higher than the other? Such complexities require for level-sensitive rankings that can also overcome concerns associated with both absolute and relative gender gaps.[6]

In conclusion, the GGI is problematic because it assesses all countries supposedly on a 'level playing field' without rewarding those who are disadvantaged for their efforts and rewarding those who have historically greater access to resources. According to Mishra and Joe (ibid), "Developmental norms have been invariably shaped by Western societies, and it is presumed that the global South readily subscribes to these norms. But these norms are also inextricably linked to the social fabric as well as resource constraints that cannot be transformed overnight. Gender gap assessments should value progress that is not only sensitive to the hiatus between genders but also to the levels of the phenomenon."[7]

4. https://reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2020/appendix-b-the-global-gender-gap-index-methodology-and-technical-notes/ Accessed October 21, 2021

5. The Hindu, "WEF's Gender Gap Index: India slips 28 places, ranks 140 among 156 countries" March 31, 2021. https://www.thehindu.com/news/national/wefs-gender-gap-index-india-slips-28-places-ranks-140-among-156-countries/article34206867.ece?__cf_chl_captcha_tk__=pmd_B2fcKAck4GefeQJHiyMIY_BdZMtBGz81iVGaUyKCz58-1635777865-0-gqNtZGzNA3ujcnBszRfR Accessed 26 Oct 2021

6. Udhay Mishra Shankar and William Joe, "Global Gender Gap Report 2021: Hegemony, Level Bling Assessments and Poor Rankings of the Global South" 21 Aug 2021. https://blogs.lse.ac.uk/southasia/2021/08/02/global-gender-gap-report-2021-hegemony-level-blind-assessments-and-poor-rankings-of-the-global-south/ Accessed 20 Oct 2021.

7. Ibid.

Several debates have emerged over the last twenty years that question the tools for measuring gender inequality, which remain almost static year after year, and seldom provide insights into ushering in meaningful change. Questions around the broader efficacy of development models have been debated for at least three or more decades. Many Latin American researchers and feminist scholars have contended that development models based on neoliberal economics introduced greater inequality across and within countries, while the socialist model before the Cold War ended in 1991 (with the collapse of communist rules in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union), and welfarist model (in Scandinavian countries) have effectively bridged gender inequality gaps across the board. The US and Western European countries have maintained that different types of freedoms and democratic norms are critical factors in assessing empowerment. Feminists from developing countries have expressed their concern about the west-centric and Eurocentric ways of 'othering' without any reference to western colonialism and imperialism that have deeply impacted developing countries. Furthermore, the emphasis on particular cultural forms of violence (e.g., honour killing and female genital mutilation, FGM) without similar attention to domestic violence and sexual violence experienced by women across the world implies a selective bias which promotes stereotypes of oppressed women (of colour) projected as perpetual victims. Looking at empowerment as a dynamic process, Naila Kabeer (1999) identifies three dimensions of empowerment: agency, resources and achievements that can enhance a woman's ability to exercise choice through the resources available to her and the agency to exercise that choice.[8] A deeper understanding of concepts such as agency continues to be discussed as agency may not necessarily lead to empowerment or the exercise of agency does not necessarily result in women's presence in the public sphere or labour market. The trajectories for women's empowerment are context specific and automatic linkages are misleading. For example, a Pakistani woman working for a wage outside her home may believe her social status and family standing have been negatively affected by her waged work and would prefer to work for lower remuneration as a home-based worker. Paradoxes, such as this, continue to distinguish one country and/or region from another, and therefore policy choices which governments can exercise are varied. A one-size policy fit is not possible.

While much of the criticism around quantifying equality and empowerment is valid, there is no denying that gender equality and women's empowerment are key to overall wellbeing. No single framework is perfect and as such authoritative; all frameworks demonstrate the consistent efforts to hold the state, its bureaucracy, and informal institutions (e.g., family) to account. SDG 5 on gender equality and empowering all girls and women has a set of 9 targets and 14 indicators which include economic, social (health and education) and political measures, integral to the different gender equality indices. Importantly, this goal incorporates the issue of violence against women. Furthermore, the 9 targets and 14 indicators are not the only sources of gender desegregated data in the SDGs. Some 83 indicators across the 17 goals capture gender differentials and can serve as important tools for reducing gender inequality by not only monitoring progress, but also by providing policy makers evidence for better planning and investing in reducing gender inequalities. In December 2021, these 83 crosscutting indicators have been reclassified into 51 gender specific indicators.[9] Be that as it may, collecting gender data on the multiple and intersecting ways in which women experience discrimination, poverty, and violence is crucial to design effective policies and programmes. Gender data helps in targeting and formulating the areas for intervention according to different needs of women and men.[10]

Challenges:
SDG Data Availability

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs, signed in 2000), were critiqued for monitoring progress inadequately and lack of attention to sustainability issues. Therefore, the SDGs were designed to encompass issues of sustainability as well as financing. However, the SDGs also confront the endemic challenges which the MDGs confronted, mainly data gaps for comparisons and measuring progress.

8. Kabeer N. "Resources, agency, achievements: reflections on the measurement of Women's empowerment." in Development and Change, 1999; 30(3): 435–64.

9. UN Women and UN DESA Statistics Division, Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals: The Gender Snapshot, page 6 and pp 28-31; online report available at: https://tinyurl.com/uemsp62a

10. https://unctad.org/news/while-we-cannot-sum-women-numbers-gender-data-are-important

Voluntary National Reviews (VNR) from different countries revealed that in 2017[11] more than half, in 2018[12] and 2019[13] half of the countries cited significant data gaps in their reports. This implies that in most countries, National Statistical Surveys (NSS) have not provided all the data needed for monitoring the SDGs. For instance, many countries in Asia have insufficient data reporting on the SDG indicators. This data gap exists for at least two-thirds of indicators, particularly those concerning environmental and social issues.[14] South Asia showed 40 percent data availability for SDG indicators though this can be improved through use of administrative data and digital data. Nearly half the SDGs indicators can be sourced from administrative data while NSS provide 32 percent data in the Asia Pacific region.[15] A study conducted by the 'Partners for Review' report quotes Angélica Palma of Colombia's National Statistical Office (DANE) who works with big data: '… not all SDGs indicators had defined data sources or methodologies for being calculated. We took this as an opportunity to explore new data sources to complement our traditional statistical processes and to respond to new demands.'[16]

Thus, Colombia conducted a pilot project to use data from private sector to monitor different SDGs such as SDG 11 (Sustainable Cities & Communities) and 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production).[17] In another pilot partnership with a mobile operator, Colombia explored the use of mobile phone data to measure information and communication technology (ICT) and indicators related to SDG 5 (Gender Equality) and SDG 9 (Industry & Infrastructure).[18] However, such data also come with concerns about the privacy of data and information. Furthermore, in countries such as Pakistan, this sort of reliance might be misplaced as many women mobile phone users' SIM cards are often registered by a male relative in his own name. This creates anomalies.

In 2018, the Netherlands looked into exploring the use of non-official data for SDGs reporting in collaboration with universities, research institutes, non-governmental organizations, and foundations. This led to improvement in data coverage on the SDGs.[19] According to the SDG Report 2018, the Netherlands used data collected by the civil society organisations Pharos and Rutgers (an INGO) on genital mutilation and sexual violence to measure progress on SDGs 5 and 16.[20] Uruguay also used gender statistics from a civil society organisation, Women and Health Uruguay (MYSU), to report on SDG 5 in its Voluntary National Report (VNR) 2017.[21] However, fears whether data samples are representative and whether they are comparable across countries remain serious concerns. Such concerns are expressed by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) as well as by those who believe that it is difficult to establish trends and ensure compliance with quality standards and continuity of data collected over different time periods.[22] To circumvent this concern, additional resources and time will need to be attributed to validate the non-officially collected data.[23]

Many feminists have pointed out the gender bias in data collection and data measurement processes. This has often led to changes in the definition of fundamental criteria used for understanding particular concepts. For example, the issue around formal and informal sector of economy, or what is termed productive labour and its contribution to the GDP, have now changed. The ILO Recommendation 204, doing away with formal/informal sector dichotomy, states, "Internationally, as a part of cost-cutting measures, firms are increasingly operating with a

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11. P4R, 2017. Comparative analysis of 43 VNRs submitted to the HLPF 2017. Available online at: http://www.partners-for-review.de/wp-content/uploads/2018/05/P4R-Comparative-analysis-of-2017-VNRs.pdf

12. P4R, 2018a. From Big Data to Smart Data to Advance SDG Statistics. In: P4R (Ed.). Tracking Progress Together: Emerging Practices in National SDG Review. Bonn: GIZ, pp. 38 -41. Available online at: http://www.partners-for-review.de/wp-content/uploads/2019/03/Tracking-Progress-Together-P4RMagazine-Nov-2018_17Mb.pdf

13. P4R, 2019 (Forthcoming). Voluntary National Reviews submitted to the 2019 High-Level Political Forum - a Comparative Analysis.

14. http://southernvoice.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/01/200122-Summary-ASIA-FINAL.pdf

15. https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/Part_III_Data_source_gaps_AsiaPacific_SDG_Progress_Report2019.pdf page 5

16. Tracking Progress Together: Addressing Data Challenges, p 41 Available online at: http://www.partners-for-review.de/wp-content/uploads/2019/03/Tracking-Progress-Together-P4RMagazine-Nov-2018_17Mb.pdf

17. P4R, 2019 (Forthcoming). Voluntary National Reviews submitted to the 2019 High-Level Political Forum - a Comparative Analysis.

18. CEPEI, 2018. Data Reconciliation: Process, Standards, and Lessons. Available online at: https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5b4f63e14eddec374f416232/t/5b718047575d1febd106f729/1534165063716/180731_ trends 17. P4R, 2018a. From Big Data to Smart Data to Advance SDG Statistics. In: P4R (Ed.). Tracking Progress Together: Emerging Practices in National SDG Review. Bonn: GIZ, pp. 38 -41. Available online at: http://www.partners-for-review.de/wp- content/uploads/2019/03/Tracking-Progress-Together-P4RMagazine-Nov-2018_17Mb.pdf-brief-colombia-data-reconciliation.pdf

19. PARIS21c, 2019c. Interview with Lieneke Hoeksma of Statistics Netherlands. Interview conducted by Karina M. Cázarez-Grageda and Rajiv Ranjan on 9 April 2019.

20. StatisticsNetherlands, 2018. The Sustainable Development Goals: the situation for the Netherlands. Available online at: https://www.cbs.nl/en-gb/publication/2018/10/the-sdgs-the-situation-for-the-netherlands.

21. Uruguay, 2017. Informe Nacional Voluntario. Available online at: https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/15781Uruguay2.pdf

22. PARIS21c, 2019c. Interview with Lieneke Hoeksma of Statistics Netherlands. Interview conducted by Karina M. Cázarez-Grageda and Rajiv Ranjan on 9 April 2019.

23. PARIS21b, 2019b. Interview with Henrik Bang, Director of Population and Education from Statistics Denmark.

decreasing core of waged employees with regular terms and conditions of employment. At the same time, there is a growing workforce of non-standard or atypical workers in different types of workplaces, scattered over different locations and countries. More flexible and informal employment relationships are a consequence of these measures to outsource and subcontract."[24]

Similarly, labour force surveys (LFS) have also been changed to reflect women's labour outside the 'market' and to account for the care economy. Decision-makers who rely upon these surveys often underestimate the value of women's economic contributions.[25] Labour force participation rates

(LFPR) were re-defined in the early 1990s. As a result, the LFPR for Uruguay increased from 78 percent to 87 percent where a majority of the additional workers were women.[26] Similarly, in Pakistan while normal female LFPR stands at 21.48 percent, the augmented female LFPR (that includes marginal economic activities) stood at 35.57 percent during 2018-2019.[27]

We conclude that SDGs data collection challenges are global and the need to address them is urgent. Simultaneously, we must ensure that progress is accurately reflected through reliable data, and country efforts are recognized rather than brushed under the carpet due to uneven data availability at the global level.

Gender Equality and the Pakistan Case

An Overview of the Pakistan Context

Soon after the implementation of the 18th Constitutional Amendment whereby the social sector ministries were devolved from the federal government to provincial governments, SDGs reporting became a further challenge. Therefore, the government set up SDGs units at the federal and provincial levels within the Planning Division and provincial Planning Departments so that coordination across the country and reporting both to the Parliamentary Committee on SDGs as well as to the UN, should not be a challenge.

Simultaneously with the 18th Constitutional Amendment, the 7th National Finance Commission (NFC) Award was announced by the government in December 2009 and implemented in fiscal year 2010-2011. It provided a revised and increased fiscal share to the provinces from the federal divisible pool (85% being tax revenue). Thus, the provinces could now finance the (devolved) social sectors directly according to their priorities. There was some expectation of further fiscal devolution from the

provincial governments to district governments (third tier of government), however, this has not taken place. Although the provinces received 2.05% more for expenditures, and the total amount the provinces received throughout the decade has steadily increased, the overall increase in social service delivery was only 0.94%.[28] Although the provinces have more or less kept the resource allocation for social sector at a similar level as the federal government did, it has been inadequate. In addition, a 2.4 % population growth rate means that the existing budgets are increasingly inadequate for a fast-growing population.

After the UNDP announced its 2030 Global Agenda for sustainable development ('leaving no one behind'), Pakistan adopted the SDGs as its official development agenda through a joint resolution of the parliament in 2016. The same year, the SDGs Units undertook a review of national and sub-national statistical capacities "with respect to the 244 SDGs indicators by considering all public data sources, including surveys, publications and administrative datasets. The analysis of statistical capacities at the national level revealed that 43/244 indicators are global in nature, meaning they are not applicable to

24. ILO, Transition from the Informal to Formal Economy Recommendation, 2015 (No 204)
    https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_dialogue/@actrav/documents/publication/wcms_545928.pdf Accessed 8 Nov 2021
25. Mayra Buvinic and Ruth Levine. (2016). "Closing the Gender Gap" The Royal Statistical Society.
    https://rss.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/epdf/10.1111/j.1740-9713.2016.00899.x
26. Fox, L. and Pimhidzai, O. (2013) Different dreams, same bed: Collecting, using, and interpreting employment statistics in Sub-Saharan Africa – the case of Uganda. Policy Research Working Paper, No. WPS 6436. World Bank, Washington, DC.
27. Labour Force Survey 2018-2019
28. SPDC, "Social Dimension of the Sustainable Development Goals: A localized Indicator Framework for Measuring Progress" pp 75-77, Karachi 2020

the national context while for almost half of the remaining 201 indicators, data is fully or partially available, and for the remaining half, major efforts are required to address data gaps and to ensure reporting at the national level."[29]

In 2018 the government developed the National SDG Framework which prioritises and localises the 17 SDGs. Not only the government ministries and line departments but also national and international NGOs were required to prioritise the SDGs in their programming and to report their achievements in the SDGs format. The agenda was incorporated in the government's 12th 5-year Plan, provincial growth strategies and the country's long-term development perspective. The prioritisation exercise produced three categories among the 17 SDGs: Category 1 goals require immediate attention to achieve rapid results and help expedite achieving goals in categories 2 and 3. The categorisation is as follows:

- **Category 1** – SDG 2 ('No Hunger'), SDG 3 ('Good Health and Well-Being'), SDG 4 ('Quality Education'), SDG 6 ('Clean Water and Sanitation'), SDG 7 ('Affordable and Clean Energy'), SDG 8 ('Decent Work and Economic Growth)' and SDG 16 ('Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions').

- **Category 2** – SDG 1 ('No Poverty'), SDG 5 ('Gender Equality'), SDG 9 ('Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure'), SDG 10 ('Reduced Inequalities'), SDG 11 ('Sustainable Cities and Communities') and SDG 17 ('Partnerships for the Goals').

- **Category 3** – SDG 12 ('Responsible Consumption and Production'), SDG 13 ('Climate Action'), SDG 14 ('Life below Sea') and SDG 15 ('Life on Land').

The three categories were devised after extensive consultations across Pakistan with stakeholders from local governments to civil society, parliamentarians, and government officials. (For details, see Pakistan's Voluntary National Review (VNR) entitled, "Pakistan's Implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development").[30] Furthermore, the government established technical committees and thematic clusters to expedite the implementation of the SDGs. According to the VNR, the focal persons at all levels of government would ensure that development priorities are in sync with the 2030 Agenda and provincial and federal policies, plans and strategies. Furthermore, national data collection tools were to be modified to improve data availability; an extensive SDGs data gap evaluation was undertaken to pinpoint areas for improvement as well as ensuring transparency in monitoring and evaluating initiatives.[31]

The SDG Units' research demonstrates that Pakistan's progress towards achieving SDG 5 is not accurately captured as the datasets used for monitoring and reporting progress fall short of the requirements of the SDGs Agenda 2030. This causes Pakistan's ranking on almost all gender indices to remain low year after year despite change on the ground. A synopsis provided by the SDGs Units in Pakistan underscores the following data issues:

- Changed structure, content, and length of existing household surveys make data incomparable across years.

- Data exists, but is not reported by a national statistical source; this may or may not raise doubt about credibility and quality of data being reported by external sources.

- Collecting data on some indicators is deemed unnecessary due to lack of capacity and understanding regarding importance of data.

- Data is partially available, or is not available for the entire age range required, or as per the indicator definition (e.g., data on physical violence (indicator 5.2.1) is available but sexual or psychological violence data is not available.

- Data is not reported regularly by the national statistical sources.

29. Punjab SDGs Data Gap Brief, ND, unpublished brief. Also see the SPDC report (ibid) for a background on these issues

30. "Implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. Pakistan's Voluntary National Review" WHO. 2019. Available at https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/233812019_06_15_VNR_2019_Pakistan_latest_version.pdf Accessed 10 Oct 2021.

31. Ibid page 9.

SDG 5: Measuring and Monitoring Progress in Pakistan

across all SDGs. If Pakistan could ensure data collection for 83 gender related indicators, not only would a clear picture of its performance emerge but the data could also identify priorities for implementing gender-based programming. However, Table 2

Table 1: Availability of Data for 14 Gender-related Indicators (SDG 5-Gender Equality)*

Indicator #	Punjab	Sindh	KP	Balochistan	PAK*	GB	National
Full/Partial Data Availability for 13 SDG-5 indicators	9	8	9	5	6	8	6

*Note: Of the 14 indicators for SDG 5, 3 indicators (5.6.2, 5a.2, 5c.1) are about global data, therefore, data availability is calculated on the basis of 11 indicators. Indicator 5.3.2 is not applicable to Pakistan. Therefore, 10 indicators are taken on board.

This section looks at the targets and indicators under Goal 5 and lack of data availability for some indicators, and partial availability of data for other indicators which may or may not be utilised for tracking by the UN or World Economic Forum. It asserts that this could be an important overlooked reason for why Pakistan's position has remained static for several years despite changes in laws, pro-women policies, and the push from civil society and women's rights activists for greater awareness of rights and laws to address violence against women (VAW).

As mentioned above, data gaps are a serious concern. However, as Table 1 indicates, data for approximately

indicates that Pakistan reports on 52 indicators out of 83 gender related indicators, and that there is significant provincial variation.

SDGs Data Gap Analysis

Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

Out of 83 gender-relevant indicators, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP) has data fully or partially available for 64 indicators. These indicators belong to almost all relevant SDGs. Whereas for SDG 5- Gender Equality, out of 14 indicators, 10 are relevant to Pakistan and KP has data for 9 indicators but has updated data

Table 2: Availability of Data for 83 Gender-related Indicators Across the 17 SDGs

Indicator #	Punjab	Sindh	KP	Balochistan	PAK*	GB	National
Full/Partial Data Availability for 83 Gender-related SDGs indicators	44	55	64	37	28	45	52

*This table takes on board 83 gender-related indicators that are crosscutting and is not restricted to the 51 gender specific indicators that focus on disaggregation by sex and/or refer to gender equality as an underlying objective. For a detailed breakdown, see Annex 4

6 out of 10 relevant indicators are fully or partially available at the federal level and 9 out of 10 relevant indicators are fully or partially available at provincial level, with the lowest level of data availability in Balochistan and the highest in Punjab and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. It should be noted that of the total 14 indicators, 10 are relevant for Pakistan.

Gender equality and women's empowerment is not restricted to SDG 5; it is also integrated across the 17 global goals. There are 83 gender related indicators

available for only five.[32]

The SDG 5 indicators barely exhibit improvements in gender equality in the province except in the areas of VAW. For instance, the proportion of women facing physical violence (indicator 5.2.1) has decreased from 56.6 percent in 2012-2013 to 43 percent in 2017-2018, the data for sexual and psychological violence is not available.[33] The proportion of seats held by women in the provincial assembly have remained more or less the same, moved from 17.7 percent to 18 percent in

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32. Unpublished report of KP SDG unit.

33. PDHS 2012-2013 and 2017-2018

*   Pakistan Administered Kashmir

2018.[34] The number of women in managerial positions indicates an imperceptible drop from 0.1 percent in 2014-2015 to 0.05 percent in 2017-2018, though it is unclear if this data is restricted to women working in private sector enterprises.[35]

Similarly, the percentage of women making informed decisions in connection with reproductive health has decreased from 53 percent in 2014-2015 to 53 percent in 2017-2018.[36] A 1 percent increase or decrease is not significant in a survey but what is important is that progress is static.

Some gender-relevant indicators of other SDG goals reflect positive trends. For instance, anaemia in pregnant women decreased from 30 percent to 14.3 percent between 2011 and 2018; the maternal mortality ratio declined from 167 to 132 per 100,000 live births between 2015 and 2019[37]; the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel improved from 56 percent in 2014-2015 to 67 percent in 2018-2019[38]; 45% family planning needs were met as compared to 36 percent in 2012-2013; female literacy rate improved from 35 percent in 2014-2015 to 40 percent in 2018-2019[39]; the average hourly earnings improved from Rs 90.21 in 2014-2015 to Rs 118.32 in 2017-2018[40]; and unemployment rate for females dropped from 15.7 percent in 2014-2015 to 8.95 percent in 2017-2018.[41]

Gilgit-Baltistan

Out of 83 gender-relevant indicators, Gilgit-Baltistan has data fully available for 45 indicators and fully or partially available for 8 indicators. These include data for 8 SDG 5 (Gender Equality) indicators.[42]

The gender-relevant indicators of other SDGs reflect a positive trend. For instance, the proportion of women

facing physical violence has decreased from 9.5 percent in 2012-2013 to 4.7 percent in 2017-2018.[43] Similarly, the average hourly earnings improved from Rs 96 in 2013-2014 to Rs 134 in 2017-2018[44]; and unemployment rate for females dropped from 8.23 percent in 2013-2014 to 3.59 percent 2017-2018.[45]

Punjab

Punjab has fully or partially available data for 60 gender-relevant indicators. Some of these indicators have been recently calculated but require official endorsement. Officially endorsed data is available for only 44 indicators. Of the 14 indicators for SDG 5, Punjab has data for 9 indicators. [46]

The SDG 5 indicators reveal a slightly positive trend towards gender equality in connection with Indicator 5.2.1 regarding VAW. The proportion of women facing physical violence decreased from 28.6 percent in 2012-2013 to 17.8 percent in 2017-2018[47]; however, the data for sexual and psychological violence is still unavailable.[48] A slightly higher number of women (0.5 percent) are in managerial positions in 2017-2018 compared to 0.2 percent in 2014-2015.[49]

The proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel improved from 64.7 percent in 2014-2015 to 73.8 percent in 2017-2018[50]; however, in 2017-2018 only 57.2 percent women's family planning needs were met compared to 68.9 percent in 2014[51]; adolescent birth rate worsened from 34 percent in 2014 to 40 percent in 2017-2018.[52]

Pakistan Administered Kashmir[53]

Out of 83 gender-relevant indicators, Pakistan Administered Kashmir has data fully or partially available for 28 indicators. These indicators belong to

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34. Election commission
35. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
36. PSLM 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
37. DHS 2015 and 2019
38. PSLM 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
39. PSLM 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
40. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
41. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
42. Unpublished report of Gilgit- Baltistan SDG unit
43. PDHS 2012-2013 and 2017-2018
44. LFS 2013-2014 and 2017-2018
45. LFS 2013-2014 and 2017-2018
46. Unpublished report of Punjab SDG unit
47. PDHS 2012-2013 and 2017-2018
48. PDHS 2012-2013 and 2017-2018
49. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
50. MICS 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
51. MICS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
52. MICS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
53. Pakistan Administered Kashmir is the standard terminology used by the United Nations and doesn't necessarily reflect the opinions of the author.

almost all relevant SDGs. For the SDG 5, Pakistan Administered Kashmir has data for only 6 indicators.[54]

The proportion of seats held by women in parliament increased from 8.5 percent in 2015 to 10.2 percent in 2020 (following a stocktaking exercise in 2020). Women in managerial positions increased from 3.4 percent in 2014-2015 to 8.4 percent in 2018-2019.[55] An increase of 2 percent is observed in the percentage of women who make their own informed decisions on family planning methods between 2014-2015 and 2017-2018 i.e., 38 percent and 40 percent respectively.[56]

Other gender-relevant indicators show significant improvements especially in the health sector. For example, anaemia in pregnant women decreased from 43 percent in 2011 to 24.8 percent in 2018[57]; maternal mortality ratio declined from 203 in 2008 to 104 in 2019[58]; proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel increased from 57 percent in 2014-2015 to 63 percent in 2018-2019[59]; proportion of the adolescent birth rate declined substantially from 333 in 2010 to 28 in 2017-2018[60]; literacy rates declined slightly from 66 percent in 2014-2015 to 65 percent in 2018-2019[61]; female employment in informal sector increased from 30.5 percent in 2014-2015 to 45.5 percent in 2017-2018[62]; and female unemployment rate declined from 30.5 percent in 2014-2015 to 22.6 percent in 2017-2018.[63]

Sindh

Sindh has fully or partially available data for 55 indicators out of a total of 83 gender relevant indicators. Furthermore, data for 8 indicators of SDG-5 including 80 percent data for the indicators is available for at least two-points in time for comparative years in Sindh.[64]

The data for SDG 5 indicators shows that the proportion of women facing physical violence has increased

from 15.5 percent in 2012-2013 to 24.8 percent in 2017-2018.[65] The share of underage (below 18 years) marriages in women have increased from 22.5 percent in 2014-2015 to 24.7 percent in 2018-2019.[66] The proportion of seats held by women in national and provincial parliaments have increased from 18 percent in 2018 to 19 percent in 2020 (following a stocktaking exercise in 2020).[67] The percentage of women at managerial positions increased from 1.7 percent in 2014-2015 to 3.6 percent in 2017-2018.[68] A higher proportion of women (40 percent) made their own informed decisions regarding contraceptives and reproductive health in 2018-2019 as compared to 36 percent in 2014-2015.[69]

Balochistan

Balochistan has fully or partially available data for 37 out of 83 gender relevant indicators including data for 5 indicators of SDG-5 Gender Equality.[70]

The SDG 5 indicators indicate a mixed gender equality trend in the province. For instance, the proportion of women facing physical violence increased by 3.5 percent from 31.3 percent in 2012-2013 to 34.6 percent in 2017-2018[71]; the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament and local government have decreased from 20 percent in 2015 to 16.5 percent in 2020 (following a stocktaking exercise in 2020).[72] A slight increase from 0.09 percent in 2014-2015 to 0.3 percent in 2017-2018 is observed for women working at managerial positions.[73] The percentage of women reported to make their own informed decisions for reproductive health decreased from 32% in 2014-2015 to 14 percent in 2018-2019.[74] Compared to the other provinces, this data shows very different trends. This could be due to the absence of regularly held surveys. The district level data may provide a more accurate picture of the status of women in the province.

To conclude, data from the provinces needs more

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54. Unpublished report of Pakistan Administered Kashmir SDG unit
55. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
56. Pakistan Administered Kashmir PSLM 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
57. NNS 2011 and 2018
58. MICS 2008 and PMMS 2019
59. Pakistan Administered Kashmir PSLM 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
60. AJKDHS 2010 and 2017-2018
61. Pakistan Administered Kashmir PSLM 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
62. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
63. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
64. Unpublished report of Sindh SDG unit
65. PDHS 2012-2013 and 2017-2018
66. MICS 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
67. Provincial Assembly Sindh
68. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
69. PSLM 2014-2015 and 2018-2019
70. Unpublished report of Balochistan SDG unit
71. PDHS 2012-2013 and 2017-2018
72. Election commission
73. LFS 2014-2015 and 2017-2018
74. PSLM 2014-2015 and 2018-2019

investment in terms of quality and quantity; Pakistan lacks data on some indicators, for some others, it is inaccurate, in some cases it is partially available. Therefore, supplementary administrative data availability and utilisation needs serious attention. The tracking process misses out on the changes taking place on the ground. Additionally, district level data is not available for some indicators, and broad generalisations on the basis of national surveys do not capture improvements on ground in several districts.

Methodologies and Standardization: Issues at the International Level - Observations

Assessing gender equality and empowerment in terms of quantifiable data have obvious advantages and limitations. Statistics provide comparable picture across time and across countries, and importantly they help to hold states to account. Simultaneously, statistics can be reductionist and provide an incomplete, simplistic and frozen picture about a complex and dynamic situation. Fairly sophisticated methods for standardisation across vastly different contexts, geographies and level of development have emerged over the past three decades or more. The key concepts and methodologies applied for calculating GEM and MDGs have evolved into more refined calculations reflected by GDI, GGI and SDGs.

To ensure maximum comparability and authenticity, the Sustainable Development Report (SDR) only uses "data from internationally comparable sources. The providers of this data may adjust national figures to ensure international comparability."[75] Thus data might differ from national data. The SDR lists five parameters for determining authentic data:

1.   Global relevance and applicability to a broad range of country settings.

2.   Statistical adequacy: the indicators selected represent valid and reliable measures.

3.   Timeliness: the indicators selected are up to date and published on a reasonably prompt schedule.

4.   Coverage: data must be available for at least 80 percent of UN member states with a population of more than a million people.

5.   Capacity to measure distance to targets (optimal performance can be determined).

The SDR also provides a list of data providers which includes the World Bank, OECD, WHO, FAO, ILO, UNICEF, and UNWomen. It also relies upon household surveys, data from civil society organisations (e.g., Oxfam, Tax Justice Network, World Justice Project, Reporters without Borders) and even peer reviewed journals. (Ibid)

The SDR had earlier created 3-tier classification criteria for indicators, which has been reduced to two tiers since December 2020. Tier 1 indicators (130 in number) are conceptually clear, have an internationally established methodology and data is regularly produced for at least 50% of the countries where the indicator is relevant. Tier II indicators (97 in number), like tier I indicators, are conceptually clear with an established methodology but data is not regularly produced by countries.[76]

According to this classification, out of the 14 indicators for Goal 5, only 4 indicators are Tier 1[77] and 10 are Tier 2 indicators. Tier 1 indicators are; Indicator 5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18; Indicator 5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age; Indicator 5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local government; and Indicator 5.5.2 Proportion of

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75.   https://dashboards.sdgindex.org/chapters/part-4-methods-summary-and-data-tables
76.   Tier Classification for Global SDG Indicators, 29 March 2021, page 2 (accessed 17 Sep 2021)
         https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/files/Tier%20Classification%20of%20SDG%20Indicators_29%20Mar%202021_web.pdf
77.   Indicator 5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18; Indicator 5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age; Indicator 5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local government; Indicator 5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions

women in managerial positions.

Indicator-wise scores of countries in the South and West Asia region, including Iran and Saudi Arabia, are at similar levels of gender equality perhaps because goal scores are not clearly earmarked (only a pie chart shows four general areas that demarcate cut-offs at 25%, 50%, 75% and 100%). Therefore, variations in the level of empowerment are ironed out because some countries like Saudi Arabia are resource rich and score well in indicators like health and education while other issues of freedoms and rights are overlooked. (See Annex 3 for details about SDG 5 in the selected countries).

Commenting on weighting and aggregations, SDR 2021 states that it gives, " ... fixed, equal weight to every SDG, reflecting the commitment of policymakers to treat all SDGs equally as part of an integrated and indivisible set of goals. To improve their SDG Index score, countries need to place attention on all goals, albeit with a particular focus on those which are furthest from achieving and where incremental progress might be expected to be fastest." (ibid). This creates challenges as each SDG carries equal weight, but states do not assign them equal weight. In fact, states have carried out prioritisation exercises as the complex challenges on the ground and limited resource availability forces them to prioritise. Given that Gender Equality is a long arduous process, it is placed in category II in Pakistan as must be the case in many other countries.

The 2021 SDR acknowledges that Goal 5- Gender Equality has two significant limitations and data gaps: "the gender pay-gap and other empowerment measures" and "violence against women."[78] The absence of data for these indicators misses out on critical aspects of women's lives that other goals do not consider as these are specific to Goal 5. There is also no automatic connection between women's paid work and empowerment; in fact, women's paid work and status are not always congruent and might not necessarily imply empowerment in women's own view. Furthermore, for indicator 5.5.2-Proportion of women in managerial positions, the UN takes on board women's presence only at top management level in firms, not at junior and middle levels as these are not considered leadership positions. This might be the case in middle- and high-income countries, but not necessarily so in low-income countries. Also, looking at private firms and enterprises alone means being restricted to the private sector, whereas in many low- and middle-income countries many more women are represented in lower echelons of public sector jobs. Public sector employment comes with a lot of honour,

status, and prestige compared to private sector work. Thus, the ILO will need to reconsider the type of information that feeds into indicator 5.5.2. According to the UN Statistics Division, "This indicator's main limitation is that it does not reflect differences in the levels of responsibility of women in these high- and middle-level positions or the characteristics of the enterprises and organisations in which they are employed. Its quality is also heavily dependent on the reliability of the employment statistics by occupation at the ISCO two-digit level."[79]

Women's unpaid work remains a challenge which is acknowledged but is inadequately addressed. Additionally, in the context of the GGI, different factors are given different weight not only in accordance with data availability but the assessors' bias as well. For example, it underscores women's presence as managers in the private sector but not in state institutions (line departments, especially health and education) where quotas have been instituted and implemented to a large degree. In the same vein, woman's access to have a bank account is considered to be a more important indicator of empowerment than that of a woman's mobility, which is not considered at all.

Given that the applicability of the ranking methodology relies heavily on standardisation and comparability, national level data available for some indicators is ignored as it is not universally available. However, if a country demonstrates progress in the achievement of an indicator, it should be acknowledged even if the ranking does not allow that data to be used. For example, Tier 2 Indicator 5.1 regarding legal frameworks to promote, monitor and enforce gender equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex [emphasis mine] identifies four areas of law: (i) overarching legal frameworks and public life; (ii) violence against women; (iii) employment and economic benefits; and (iv) marriage and family. Countries are asked to designate a focal point to undertake coordination at country level necessary for collection and validation of data. National statistical offices and national women's machinery as well as legal practitioners have to compile a 42-question questionnaire. After verification, the data with relevant laws, polices and other sources included, is sent to the designated focal points/country counterparts to review and validate. Final answers are arrived at after the process of validation with country counter-parts.[80] Compiling this data is time consuming and presumably 50% member states have not provided this information hence this is a Tier 2 indicator. Improvements taking place at the country level do not get counted. Importantly, gender identity is restricted

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78.   https://dashboards.sdgindex.org/chapters/part-4-methods-summary-and-data-tables
79.   https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/?Text=&Goal=5 accessed December 15, 2021
80.   https://dashboards.sdgindex.org/chapters/part-4-methods-summary-and-data-tables

to biologically determined sex whereas the UN system itself recognises fluid gender identities. Therefore, a massive re-conceptualisation is in order.

Another example is that of Indicator 5.2.1 and Indicator 5.2.2 that call for breakdowns by forms of violence (physical, sexual, and psychological), age group, frequency of violence (experienced in the last one year or over a lifetime) by an intimate partner or others along with place of occurrence; this requires detailed disaggregated data. No standard definitions and methods have been globally agreed upon on criteria to collect data, or the place where violence occurs. Therefore, the PDHS data showing that violence against women has decreased between 2014 and 2018 in Pakistan is not taken into consideration in the ranking process.

The difficulty of collecting comparable data on violence against women (VAW) also raises question about the level of simplicity and complexity which the surveys should have. Aside from privacy issues and practical implementation issues like training enumerators in how to approach the subject and ensure confidentiality, the indicators themselves need to be streamlined as two indicators (5.2.1 and 5.2.2) within Goal 5 which require similar information. Any change within the SDGs text needs endorsement/agreement of all members, which is an excruciatingly slow and difficult process. Furthermore, given the difficulty of

measuring the entire breadth and scale of violence in a comparative context, data collection could also be phased or cascaded instead of holding up the process before comparative authentic data can be used. Waiting even longer defeats the purpose of holding states to account.

The UN Statistics Division has suggested: "Given the wide variations in methodologies, measurement, and quality across studies from different countries, statistically adjusted estimates are currently needed to ensure comparability across countries and regions. However, generating estimates are an interim solution and it is important for individual countries to collect robust, internationally comparable, high-quality data which reflects relevant socioeconomic, political and cultural risks and protective factors associated with the prevalence of violence against women in order to inform appropriate policy responses and programmatic decision making."[81]

There has been active resistance from within government structures to allow surveys on domestic violence and marital rape, especially the latter. This is an area that both the UN and the women's rights machinery within countries including civil society groups will need to push for at all levels. Meanwhile, PDHS data should be recognised and taken on board for policy making.

Comments on the Overall SDG Ranking Methodology

First, an acknowledgment: the UNDP's HDI brings together ethics and economics; and the ranking serves as a conscience of the world. The influence of Mahbub ul Haq and Amartya Sen is palpable even today and is a critical component of how to understand development and justice in a holistic manner. However, the need for standardisation creates asymmetries, making the exercise of ranking inaccurate. The following observations are meant to add to the debate by proposing more nuance into already complex methodologies.

The SDGs are measured as a whole which may have advantages and disadvantages. It takes development as a holistic process but simultaneously also hides countries where much that is wrong gets covered by some factors which are going right. The latter are usually due to the availability of resources as the

countries with more resources have ensured education and health for their population; they have taken care of poverty to a large degree and income inequality as well (in terms of reduced ratios but not in terms of absolute numbers). The resource rich higher income countries do not perform well on some indicators contained in Goal 12- Responsible Consumption and Production, Goal 13- Climate Action, Goal 16-Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions, and Goal 17-Partnerships to Achieve the Goals. However, their overall score still places them at the top though they may be contributing to a less sustainable world by being the world's largest polluters (Goal 13,), exporters/importers of weapons (Goal 16), or maintaining/offering tax havens (Goal 17). In an interdependent world, Responsible Consumption and Production (Goal 12) ought to be given a different weight but currently this goal does not even offer

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81.   https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-05-02-01.pdf accessed December 15, 2021

reliable data for most countries.

Given the above, there are several questions that arise: Should scores be re-assessed through the creation of broad groups/categories of countries in terms of development and goals-specific groups of countries? Is it possible to acknowledge progress even if data is available from less than the required 50-80 percent countries? Can negative scores also be allocated through the introduction of penalties into the ranking process? E.g., if the export and import of weapons interferes with sustainability and promotes conflict, and if being a tax haven for corrupt leaders adds to the challenges of developing countries, should these be overlooked? These practices add to the resources of higher income countries, and erode resources from others. Sustainable development cannot be compartmentalised for different countries. The fundamental question is one of ethics: should a system of rewards and penalties be introduced into SDG ranking to reflect state accountability towards citizens globally?

Due to concerns for standardisation and universal applicability, the SDGs treat all countries with a 'one size fits all' criteria. The SDGs assess countries with large populations like India (1.38 billion), China (1.40 billion; ranked 57 in the SDR 2021) and Pakistan (220 million) in the same way as Finland (5.5 million population; ranked no 1), Sweden (10.3 million; ranked 2), Denmark (5.3 million; ranked 3), and Germany (83 million population; ranked 4); Belgium (11.5 million; ranked 5) Austria (8.9 million; ranked 6); Norway (3.3 million population; ranked 7); France (65.2 million; ranked 8); Slovenia (2.1 million; ranked 9); and Estonia (1.3 million; ranked 10). A majority (8 countries) of the top performing countries in terms of SDGs rankings have populations of around 11million or below, only Germany and France at 83 million and 65 million respectively seem populous in comparison. However, populous countries like China, India, and Pakistan are assessed with the same lens and are identified among the 'laggers.' This argument is not being presented to justify the lags India and Pakistan display as Bangladesh (164.6 million) has surmounted chal-lenges similar to those which India and Pakistan confront but to assert that a different criteria can be added for regional assessments. Furthermore, there is no sensitivity to incidence of conflict, especially violent conflict and resultant displacement. Afghanistan, Iraq and Syria get assessed with the same methodology and yardstick as the countries having enjoyed prolonged peace/absence of violence.

It is commendable that SDGs projections look at long-term trends, not short-term shortfalls. According to the SDR 2021, "Since projections are based on past growth rates over several years, a country may have observed a decline in performance over the past year (for instance due to the impact of COVID-19) but still be considered as being on track. This methodology emphasises long-term structural changes over time since the adoption of the SDGs in 2015, with less emphasis on annual changes that may be cyclical or temporary."[82] This is in contrast with the GGI which has rearranged countries' standing radically over a period of one year, 2020, when the Covid 19 pandemic engulfed the world. India fell 28 places in just one year on GGI, a fact which is hard to understand as such drastic changes are not possible over the course of one year even during Covid 19. If the explanation lies in the fact that many countries are very close together in terms of their tracking and average income, then it can be pointed out that such methodologies are unhelpful for countries to understand their own position within a set of objective criteria.

The concept of gender is fluid, not restricted to biologically determined, 'male' and 'female' markers; in fact, many countries recognize the fluidity in their legal systems. To begin with, the transgender category has legal gender recognition across a majority of UN member states with only 37 states criminalising it either through anti-gay laws or anti-trans laws.[83] In 2018, WHO has declassified trans as a 'mental and behavioural disorder' in the 11th revision of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems with a new code for 'gender incongruence' being added.[84] The member states were expected to update their laws in line with WHO guidelines by January 2022. The UNDP has also undertaken work on trans legal recognition.[85] However, the UN SDGs use the term gender in a restrictive manner, totally out of sync with widely accepted realities. Therefore, the SDG-5 Gender Equality ranking is not inclusive as it excludes trans alongside lesbians, gays and bisexuals, legally recognised across a significant number of countries. If the SDGs take an inclusive approach, its ranking will need to be altered across the board. While this may not be possible right away, this would certainly constitute a critical dimension in ranking.

Improved ranking is coveted as a marker of gover-nance standards and social justice. However, most global rankings place developed countries far ahead of the developing ones who are unable to catch up. Receiving negative reports year after year might lose

82. SDR 2021, subsection entitled, 'SDG Trends', https://dashboards.sdgindex.org/chapters/part-4-methods-summary-and-data-tables accessed 10 November 2021
83. https://ilga.org/downloads/ILGA_World_Trans_Legal_Mapping_Report_2019_EN.pdf   accessed Dec 18, 2021
84. Ibid page 9
85. United Nations Development Programme—Asia Pacific Transgender Network's Legal Gender Recognition: A Multi-country Legal and Policy Review in Asia.

the 'wake-up call' effect. In fact, gender equality is perceived to be an imposed western agenda and some elected leaders have stopped paying it the lip service they were doing previously. It is time for a re-think, not in terms of abandoning ways of holding states to account for the social contract with citizens,

especially women, but in terms of creating unfair, ahistorical and 'a-contextual' methods of ranking. To usher in more refined processes for ranking, we need fully integrated indicators and regularly updated data for tracking global sustainable development.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Inadequate data and information have plagued reporting on SDGs/MDGs for two decades. Relying initially on large national surveys which were not designed for tracking the SDGs, now there is a widespread realisation that states individually and collectively are responsible for life on earth, means that more nuanced datasets are required for state accountability. Given the width and depth of the SDGs, and the complex manner in which indicators are measured with fairly detailed data and scoring methods, generally country level machinery concen-trates on what it needs to deliver. This paper looks at the challenges both at the UN end and at the country level.

There are many models for measuring gender inequality; no model is perfect. A lot of impetus for placing gender equality squarely on the map comes from feminist researchers and activists. Thus, this goal comes with a distinctly different historical context. When assessing for gender equality, it is important to acknowledge and recognise consistent struggle of women's rights movements globally and locally to push for placing gender at the centre.

This paper makes a case for improved methods for ranking, especially because SDG-5 ranking is currently determined by 4 indicators out of a total of 14 indicators for gender equality. The WEF methodology for the Gender Gap Index is also not designed to capture the positive impacts which CSOs, women's movement and other democratic rights movements have achieved through a fraught process of friction and cooperation with the government. This is so because it relies upon sweeping national level datasets or small surveys it has designed itself that are neither representative nor accurate. To address the availability of standardised data, the UN has expanded the list of data providers to include CSOs, universities as well as other commercial survey providers. Some countries are already experimenting with privately sourced data even though the latter presents its own set of moral and ethical challenges related to privacy. However, the challenges are not

only about dearth of data but also about how to achieve faster progress in an unequal world where states are not on a level playing field. The Covid 19 Pandemic has exposed systemic gender inequalities even more. Ensuring the 2030 Agenda of leaving no one behind is therefore even more urgent.

To conclude, this paper builds its case upon the data gaps identified by the SDGs Units in Pakistan to provide solid evidence to the government for ensuring greater data availability for SDGs monitoring and ranking. The recommendations are divided into two parts: the first set pertains to the UN system of ranking and tracking progress, focusing on SDG 5. These recommendations also apply to other gender ranking methods such as WEF. The second set addresses the challenges in Pakistan for gathering data. Together, the recommendations are a guide for the policy community to advocate that the UN SDGs Secretariat's process of ranking recognises progress even if internationally comparable data is not available. They call for refining some of the indicators being used for ranking, amending surveys or initiating new surveys to provide information which responds to the SDG targets, and ensuing that positive change on the ground is captured by district, provincial and national level data.

Recommendations for Advocacy at the UN SDGs Secretariat

Data Inclusion and Standards: Valuing Improvements in Tier 2 Indicators

According to the UN, a "Tier II Indicator is conceptually clear and has internationally established methodol-ogy and standards, but data is not regularly produced by countries." This means it cannot be included in the calculations for ranking at present. Currently more than 50 percent of all indicators belong in Tier 2 indicator category; in the case of Goal 5, over 70

percent indicators belong to Tier 2. This means that data cannot be standardised or computed for all states. However, many states do provide datasets to the UN on several indicators but their data cannot be included for scoring purposes because it is not internationally comparable.

Could a system of symbolic rewards and penalties be introduced into SDG ranking to reflect state accountability towards citizens globally? For some of the key gender equality indicators where countries might be making improvements but are not acknowledged due to the tardiness of other member states; it would be strategic to recognize their achievements. Acknowledging small improvements, even piecemeal, can spur the process of overall state accountability. An exclusive focus on only the state's lags in its social contract with citizens cannot push the sustainable development agenda effectively.

Action: The government's SDG machinery can initiate a dialogue on this recommendation within Pakistan and advocate for it at the regional level as well as lobby with other friendly countries to push for this change collectively.

The absence of key indicators on laws, VAW and equal wage from SDGs ranking calculations miss out on important aspects of women's lives which other goals do not engage with either. Indicator 5.1, data on laws and policies is placed in Tier 2 but it forms the base for any actions that a country can initiate and implement. This indicator is not tracked due to the absence of regularly collected data. Importantly, the legal frameworks are examined only the context of biologically determined sex categories; legal recognition of trans identity has taken place across a majority of member states and must be included in all indicators related to gender equality.

However, partial data is available for the two indicators related to legal frameworks, and to sexual, physical and psychological violence (Tier 2 indicators); it should be taken on board. It should be noted that violence against women, especially psychological, is often less tangible and it frequently remains unreported, and at best under-reported. After the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) included the optional module on domestic violence in 2014, basic data has become available for countries where the DHS is conducted. The countries which show improvements on some of these indicators should be commended for their achievements instead of being ignored. In case the trend is worsening, it would serve as an important area for redressal. This would create a more nuanced way of acknowledging government and civil society efforts and help the need to push for focused interventions.

Actions: Countries that share Indicator II data but

international standards are not met because data from other countries is not available, the SDGs Secretariat can add a note to indicate that the progress is being achieved or otherwise.

The inclusion of other legal gender identities, especially trans identity which is recognized by a majority of member states, must be introduced conceptually into the SDGs. Importantly, WHO has declassified trans as a mental and behavioral disease; these guidelines are underwritten by the UN. Advocacy on greater inclusion and non-discrimination must be undertaken.

Furthermore, the indicator can be broken into phased sets that can begin with the basic statistics and move to more complex coverage in a predetermined time period. E.g., domestic violence includes physical, sexual and psychological violence. Given that psychological violence is difficult to measure and account for, it can be proposed to take relevant data from DHS to construct Indicator 5.2.1 in a phased manner. This will prevent the long wait for the entire indicator to be imputed.

Reliance upon Tier 1 Indicators

The Tier 1 indicators used to track Goal 5 provide a biased, inaccurate picture of gender equality as it places resource rich countries like Saudi Arabia (where women until recently lacked rights and freedoms) ahead of others because it does well on the education, health and financial inclusion indices. However, the countries where women enjoy freedoms that are not curtailed by laws are ranked low because they are resource poor. Solely relying upon Tier 1 indicators to rank gender empowerment provides an unfair picture.

Action: There is an urgent need to push for more indicators to become Tier 1 indicators to avoid anomalies such as those pointed out above.

Two indicators that pertain to ensuring women's full participation in leadership and decision-making focus on political and economic criteria. However, these indicators are inadequate at best. The first (5.5.1) is about women's political participation but is reduced to a count of women parliamentarians, and the second (5.5.2) is about women's presence in senior management positions in firms. Decision making cannot be restricted to winning a seat or coming in through quotas; women who decide to contest election or who vote make important decisions about their choice. In fact, there are studies about women's voting patterns which demonstrate difference between men and women in terms of results. The role of women in political parties and their voice in the political arena cannot be measured by their presence in assemblies alone. These aspects also need to be taken on board

as well, instead of only looking at their presence in assemblies. Similarly, restricting women's presence to the private sector enterprises does not provide a picture of their presence in the public sector where they believe they enjoy greater status and authority. A woman station house officer in the police can exercise much more symbolic and real power than many positions in the private sector. Similarly, a woman teacher or school principal may not be paid as much as a private sector employee but are recognized to be in leadership important positions. Thus, the leadership needs to be viewed in a multidimensional context instead of looking for women at the top positions only.

Action: Include more criteria for measuring women's leadership and decision making. Process and end result are both important. Datasets need to include process (e.g., how many women contested for seats; how many women voted; how many women are in the public sector at all levels).

Women's labour force participation (LFP) continues to haunt South Asia where women's LFP continues to stay low. What might be the reasons for the region as a whole and Pakistan and India in particular for this outcome? There is a significant body of research which indicates that cultural and informal institutions also shape women's decision-making. The preference to stay home and attend to the care economy means we need a deeper understanding of reproductive and care work. If reproductive and care work are recognized in national surveys and valued as highly as productive work, would women's position and status change? Is it possible to reflect this in the tracking and ranking system? Feminist economists and activists worldwide are seeking to modify the division between women's productive and reproductive work and also providing the evidence for alternative ways of assessing work.

Action: Relevant Institutions: Women's machinery, with technical support from PIDE University, FBS, research institutions and SDG Units, as well as support from donors.

Grouping Countries beyond their Geography

As discussed earlier in the paper, countries are only grouped in accordance with their geographic region. The population context as well as the issue of political stability are ignored. As the paper demonstrates, most high-ranking countries are also those with a small population and long-term political stability and peace. An important criterion for ranking a country should be its population as well as the issue of peace and stability. For example, Afghanistan has been embroiled in a conflict for over four decades, and Iraq and Syria's performance pre-conflict and today

present very different pictures. Sensitivity to some countries, being conflict arenas due to international and regional politics, would help bring in focus a larger context of peace.

Being a low-, middle- and high-income country also makes a difference in ranking as countries with greater resources are able to provide their citizens with much more than those in the low-income bracket. A larger context of an increase in global inequality alongside greater inequalities within states need to be acknowledged and addressed. While there is a move to use more micro data, and administrative data to point out which areas lag behind others within a country, it will be equally useful to understand comparative regional development and the world-economy in a global context. An understanding of the global division of labour among states and ensuing inequality will build a case for redistribution of resources, how the resources are valued and how they are used.

Action: Social movements and CSOs are best placed to push this agenda through their advocacy. Governments in the global South can endorse and support these movements.

Pakistan Specific Recommendations

Recognizing Gender Equality as a Key Goal

Pakistan has placed Goal 5 into Category II as a result of a prioritisation exercise. However, parliamentarians should strategise to bring gender equality into Category 1 priorities. There are improvements that Pakistan has achieved, especially in the area of laws and reduction in VAW cases as per PDHS data which needs to be acknowledged.

Action: The SDGs machinery and Parliamentarians need to place gender equality as a priority because it concerns more than 50 percent of the population.

Develop a Pakistan Specific Gender Equality and Empowerment Index

The process for re-classifying SDGs targets and indicators has already begun internationally. The UN SDGs Secretariat encourages countries to develop their own additional indicators to capture their own development trajectories. In view of the global methodological and data challenges the SDGs confront, Pakistan must take lead by setting up a model for countries of the South which demonstrates that the pathways to development and progress are multi-linear.

A holistic, context specific index inclusive of social, political, economic and environmental dimensions

would garner greater ownership within the country. This will require an analysis of and investments in strategic gains. E.g., gender parity in higher education/universities, gains in health sector, and the presence of almost 40 percent women in the civil services of Pakistan are important milestones for incisive policy interventions. Thus, identifying successes for countrywide replication, addressing inequalities requiring immediate redressal, and developing new survey instruments to capture women's contribution to economic and social wellbeing are important steps for developing a practical model for pursuing gender equality for countries which 'lag behind.' Thus, Pakistan must develop its own set of indicators for measuring and monitoring progress on gender equality and empowerment.

Action: NCSW as the lead institution coordinates with the women's machinery, federal and provincial bureaus of statistics and SDGs Units to set up a Pakistan specific Gender Equality Index. Relevant ministries and UN agencies such as UN Women, UNDP, UNFPA, WHO, ILO can provide the necessary support.

On Data Availability and Standardization in Pakistan

Analysis of Pakistan's data ecosystem was primarily based on publicly available national surveys, while a large part of administrative datasets remains unexplored. Reviewing these existing administrative databases would play an instrumental role in filling the existing data gaps in connection with SDG indicators. As an immediate step, the government line departments need to devise a system for including the rich administrative micro data available at the district and sub district level. This data can be used for tracking and monitoring results as well as recording positive change at the grassroots level.

For some of the SDG indicators, the data available or reported does not comply with the standards and computational methodologies set in the metadata. Data providers (WBG, UN bodies) also need to make proactive efforts to help the government departments in data generation and reporting. For example, data for 70 (44%) out of 247 indicators is available at the provincial level in the Punjab but needs to be strengthened during the collection process in order to ensure data availability at the required level of disaggregation. It is also crucial to align existing data collection instruments with the definitions, scope and methodology explained in detail in the SDGs metadata documents.

Action: Relevant government agencies/departments can compile district and provincial level data in accordance with the SDG targets and indicators.

More coordination between the stakeholders including the SDG Units, the Bureau of Statistics and government departments for capacity building to address technical issues of data standards and collection. A continuous capacity building exercise for compiling district and provincial level data in accordance with SDG targets and indicators will need to be devised with funding from the government or international institutions involved in the provision of data.

Inclusion of Transgender Identity in Gender Equality

A majority of UN member states including Pakistan have granted legal gender recognition to transgender persons. Pakistan should take the lead in advocating that SDGs include transgender as a category and initiate data collection and compilation, so no-one is truly left behind. This step will go beyond legal systems and become embedded in the fundamentals of health, education, employment quotas, political representation (Sindh province has created quotas for transgender persons in the Local Government system) and the right to live with dignity sans discrimination.

Action: The government of Pakistan, especially, the relevant ministries and the Parliamentary Committees on SDGs, Human Rights, Health, and Education as well as other relevant ministries and departments can ensure that transgender persons as the third gender are fully integrated in the data systems as well as take the lead to advocate for inclusion across the SDGs regionally and internationally.

On Violence Against Women

Pakistan has partial data through the PDHS which provides a snapshot about VAW issues. Not only this data should be recognized and taken on board for policy making but there should be a concerted move within the government's women's machinery to begin collecting more systematic data. The National Commission on the Status of Women (NCSW), in consultation with the provincial commissions and women's development departments as well as key ministries such as those of health and population welfare can initiate consultations for developing more adequate survey instruments while the FBS can roll out the surveys. In the past, there has been resistance from within government structures to allow surveys on domestic violence. Therefore, it would be important to have the parliamentarians on board to push the surveys. In addition, the VAW data collected by the provincial commissions can also be utilised and administrative data from police and courts should be regularly updated and shared. Both UN Women and the women's rights NGOs within the country will need

to push for regular collection of data at all levels.

Action: SDGs Units and all stakeholders are mobilised to ensure that existing data is utilised for SDG indicators on violence against women and additional data collected. The SDGs Units and/or NCSW can take the lead on initiating the exercise of data collection.

Assessing the Impact of NGOs vis a vis Goal 5

Since 2016, the government prioritised the SDGs agenda for NGOs and INGOs in Pakistan requiring them to provide their work plans and projects in light of the SDGs. Although gender equality and reproductive rights were missing from the areas of work, yet NGOs which had already worked on large scale projects reported their achievements. A national level review of NGOs work at national, provincial, district and sub-district levels will be a useful exercise to be carried out on an urgent basis. Large sums have been invested in women's voice and equality by DFID (FCDO) and USAID; a review of the reports generated out of the projects funded by them may explain the changes on the ground. Documenting the role of women's rights and feminist activists in bringing about change through CSOs as well as government machinery would be an important new start to providing a comprehensive picture of the changes in women's lives at the grassroots levels. These changes will need to be captured by new surveys or changes in old surveys. An endemic problem of quantitative surveys is their inability to document changes that are neither tangible nor quantifiable but constitute a difference in the way women perceive and voice their issues. Large scale programmes focusing on women

as well as changes in laws have made millions of Pakistani women aware of their rights. These changes are manifested in the number of women who contest elections, in the number of girls in universities and higher education, and those entering the civil services. These aspects need to be examined by experts so that quantitative data can reflect these changes brought about by rights activists, NGOs, media, and government.

Action: Review reports with the Economic Affairs Division about impact to assess grassroots change; FBS and Women's machinery can devise new ways of accounting for the work and positive change brought about by NGOs.

Resources for Gender Data

Finally, there are many online resources available for gender data financing that provide a situation analysis of the gender data ecosystem, the core elements of that system, its stakeholders, and the links of gender data to policy. These resources also highlight existing funding for gender data, the gender data systems that specific funding currently supports, and the gap between current financing and the level of financing which is needed to fully fund gender data systems from now until 2030. For example, the report, State of Gender Financing provides a clearer picture of the discussion above.[86]

Action: The SDGs Units can take the lead and devise a systematic plan for accessing financing for Goal 5 indicators in consultation with UN Women, UNDP, and the World Bank Group.

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86. https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/State-of-Gender-Data-Financing-2021_FINAL.pdf

Annex 1

Table 1 Data Availability for 14 Gender-related Indicators (SDG 5-Gender Equality)*

Indicator #	Punjab	Sindh	KP	Balochistan	AJ&K	GB	Provincial	District	Federal
5.1.1 Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination based on sex	Yes	Yes	Yes	N/A	In the process of computation	N/A	Yes	No	Yes
5.2.1 Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual, or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age	Overall Physical or sexual or emotional (Age 15-49) = 21.5% (PDHS 2017-	Overall Physical or sexual or emotional (Age 15-49) = 14.8% (PDHS 2017-	Overall Physical or sexual or emotional (Age 15-49) = 43.0 % (PDHS 2017-	Overall Physical or sexual or emotional (Age 15-49) = 43.1% (PDH 2017-	Overall Physical or sexual or emotional (Age 15-49) = 21.1% (PDH 2017-	Overall Physical or sexual or emotional (Age 15-49) =29.1% (PDHS 2017-	Yes	No	Yes
5.2.2 Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence	The information on this indicator is being captured by Economic & Social Wellbeing of Women Survey conducted by PCSW 2017. Results will be available later	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Not available for National Level Reporting
5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age18	Age 15 = 3.3% and Age 18 =14.6% (MICS 2017-18)	Age 15 = 7.5% and Age 18 =24.7% (MICS 2018-2019)	Age 15 = 7.7% and Age 18 =29.6% (MICS 2016-2017)	N/A	(1)- 20-24 years who were first married Women (a) before age 15 =1.7% (2)- Percentage of Women age 20-24 years who were first married Women (b) before age 18 = 10.5% (MICS 2020)	Proportion of women (aged 20-24) married before Age 15: 7%, Age18: 27% (MICS 2016-2017)	Yes	Yes	Not available for National Level Reporting

Indicator #	Punjab	Sindh	KP	Balochistan	AJ&K	GB	Provincial	District	Federal
5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Government of Pakistan Administered Kashmir has excluded this indicator from	N/A	N/A	N/A	Not selected for national reporting
5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age, and location	Age category= Less than 18 Year=3.65 18–60=5.88 Above 60 years=3.96 Total=5.61	N/A	Overall: 1.56 Male: 0.89 Female: 1.57 (LFS 2014-2015)	N/A	N/A	Children involved in HH chores during the last week: 87.8% (Male:84.1, Female:91.6, Age 5-11: 83.3, Age 12-14: 93.3, Age 15-17: 94.6, Urban:87, Rural:87.9) (MICS2016-2017)	N/A	N/A	Not selected for national reporting
5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments	25.68% (Punjab Assembly)	19% (Sindh Assembly)	17.7% (Election commission)	16.92% (Provincial Assembly 2020)	10.20% - Pakistan Administered Kashmir Legislative Assembly (Law	18% (GB Assembly 2020)	Yes	No	Yes
5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions	6.16% (LFS 2018-2019)	1.95% (LFS 2018-2019)	4.11% (LFS 2018-2019)	1.16% (LFS 2018-2019)	8.4% (LFS 2018-2019)	2.5% LFS 2017-2018	Yes	No	Yes
5.6.1 Proportion of women aged 15-49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use, and reproductive health care	Overall = 65% Urban = 68%, Rural= 63% PSLM 2018-19	Overall = 40% Urban = 42% Rural =37% (PSLM 2018-2019)	Overall =52% Urban= 63% Rural = 49% (PSLM 2018-2019)	Overall =14% Urban=15% Rural=13% (PSL 2018-2019)	Overall = 40% Urban =39% Rural = 40% (PSLM 2018-2019)	Overall = 51% Urban = 55%, Rural = 50% (PSM 2018-2019)	Yes	Yes	Yes

Indicator #	Punjab	Sindh	KP	Balochistan	AJ&K	GB	Provincial	District	Federal
5.6.2 Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information, and education	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Not available for National Level Reporting
5.a.1 (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure	Rural= 37.8 Urban= 9.9 Total= 27.3	a) Percentage of households that own agriculture land= 2.5% (MICS 2018-2019) b) Not Available for	Agriculture land 28.28% Rural – 29.72% Urban – 13.33% (PSLM 2014-15)	N/A	N/A	Ever married women (15-49) who have ownership of 1) land: 3.6%, 2) House: 1.5% Percentage of ever married men (15-49) by ownership of: 1) Land: 84.6%, 2) House: 91.9%	Yes	Yes	Not available for National Level Reporting
5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Not available for National Level Reporting
5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex	Male=64% Female= 25% (PSLM 2019-2020)	Male=67% Female=29% (PSLM 2019-2020)	Male=64% Female=23% (PSLM 2019-2020)	Male=63% Female=15% (PSLM 2019-2020)	Male = 67% Female = 40% (PSLM 2019-2020)	Male = 56% Female = 24% (PSLM 2019-2020)	Yes	Yes	Yes
5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Not available for National Level Reporting
Total Availability	9	8	9	5	6	8	9	6	6

*Note: Of the 14 indicators for SDG 5, 3 indicators (5.6.2, 5a.2, 5c.1) are about global data, therefore, data availability is calculated on the basis of 11 indicators. Indicator 5.3.2 is not applicable to Pakistan. Therefore, 10 indicators are taken on board.

Annex 2

Economic Participation and Opportunity

This subindex contains three concepts: the participation gap, the remuneration gap and the advancement gap. The participation gap is captured using the difference between women and men in labour force participation rates. The remuneration gap is captured through a hard data indicator (ratio of estimated female-to-male earned income)2 and a qualitative indicator gathered through the World Economic Forum's annual Executive Opinion Survey (wage equality for similar work).3 Finally, the gap between the advancement of women and men is captured through two hard data statistics (the ratio of women to men among legislators, senior officials and managers, and the ratio of women to men among technical and professional workers).

Educational Attainment

This subindex captures the gap between women's and men's current access to education through ratios of women to men in primary-, secondary- and tertiary-level education. A longer-term view of the country's ability to educate women and men in equal numbers is captured through the ratio of the female literacy rate to the male literacy rate.

Health and Survival

This subindex provides an overview of the differences between women's and men's health through the use of two indicators. The first is the sex ratio at birth, which aims specifically to capture the phenomenon of "missing women", prevalent in many countries with a strong son preference.4 Second, we use the gap between women's and men's healthy life expectancy. This measure provides an estimate of the number of years that women and men can expect to live in good health by taking into account the years lost to violence, disease, malnutrition and other relevant factors.

Political Empowerment

This subindex measures the gap between men and women at the highest level of political decision-making through the ratio of women to men in ministerial positions and the ratio of women to men in parliamentary positions. In addition, we've included the ratio of women to men in terms of years in executive office (prime minister or president) for the last 50 years. A clear drawback in this category is the absence of any indicators capturing differences between the participation of women and men at local levels of government. Should such data become available at a globally comparative level in future years, it will be considered for inclusion in the index.

Annex 3

SDG5 – Gender Equality - Pakistan - Overall SDG Score: 129

Demand for family planning satisfied by modern methods (% of females aged 15 to 49) 48.6 2018 • (Stagnant)
Ratio of female-to-male mean years of education received (%) 60.3 2019 • (stagnant)
Ratio of female-to-male labour force participation rate (%) 26.5 2019 • (Downward)
Seats held by women in national parliament (%) 20.2 2020 • (downward)

SDG5 – Gender Equality - India - Overall SDG Score: 120

Demand for family planning satisfied by modern methods (% of females aged 15 to 49) 72.8 2016 • (Improvement)
Ratio of female-to-male mean years of education received (%) 62.1 2019 • (Stagnant)
Ratio of female-to-male labour force participation rate (%) 27.4 2019 • (Downward)
Seats held by women in national parliament (%) 14.4 2020 (Stagnant)

SDG5 – Gender Equality - Bangladesh - Overall SDG Score: 109/165

Demand for family planning satisfied by modern methods (% of females aged 15 to 49) 77.4 2019 • (Upward)
Ratio of female-to-male mean years of education received (%) 82.6 2019 • (Upward)
Ratio of female-to-male labour force participation rate (%) 44.6 2019 • (Upward)
Seats held by women in national parliament (%) 20.9 2020 • (Stagnant)

SDG5 – Gender Equality – Saudi Arabia – Overall SDG Score: 98/165

Demand for family planning satisfied by modern methods (% of females aged 15 to 49) * 43.6 2020 • (stagnant)
Ratio of female-to-male mean years of education received (%) 93.3 2019 • (Upward)
Ratio of female-to-male labour force participation rate (%) 28.2 2019 • (Stagnant)
Seats held by women in national parliament (%) 19.9 2020 • (Stagnant)

SDG5 – Gender Equality – Iran - - Overall SDG Score: 74/165

Demand for family planning satisfied by modern methods (% of females aged 15 to 49) 68.6 2011 • (Upward)
Ratio of female-to-male mean years of education received (%) 99.0 2019 • (Excellent/on target)
Ratio of female-to-male labour force participation rate (%) 24.3 2019 • (Stagnant)
Seats held by women in national parliament (%) 5.6 2020 • (Stagnant)

Annex 4

S. No.	Indicators	Data	Year	Source
**All Gender Relevant SDG indicators at the National Level**			
1	1.1.1 Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)	4.4%	2018	World Bank
2	1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age	Overall = 21.9%	2018-19	National Poverty Report, Ministry of Planning, Development and Special Initiatives
3	1.2.2 Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions	Overall = 38.8% Urban = 9.4%, Rural = 54.6%	2014-15	MPI Report, Ministry of Planning, Development and Special Initiatives
4	1.3.1 Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/ systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable	Percentage of ever-married women (15-49) receiving benefits from Benazir Income Suppport Programme = 7.8%	2017-18	PDHS
5	1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, (a) with legally recognized documentation, and (b) who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and type of tenure	NA		
6	1.5.1 Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population	Deaths = 0.06 Injured = 0.07 Direclty affected persons = 5.4	2018	NDMA Annual Report
7	1.b.1 Pro-poor public social spending	NA		
8	2.1.2 Prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity in the population, based on the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES)	Overall (moderate or severe) = 16.44% Severe= 1.80%	2019-20	PSLM
9	2.2.1 Prevalence of stunting (height for age <-2 standard deviation from the median of the World Health Organization (WHO) Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age	37.6%	2017-18	PDHS
10	2.2.2 Prevalence of malnutrition (weight for height >+2 or <-2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age, by type (wasting and overweight)	Wasting= 7.1%	2017-18	PDHS
11	2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status	PKR.1.2 million/small Farm	2021	Agriculture Census

All Gender Relevant SDG indicators at the National Level				
S. No.	**Indicators**	**Data**	**Year**	**Source**
12	3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio	186	2019	PDHS/Pakistan MMR Survey
13	3.1.2 Proportion of births attended by	Overall=68% Urban=82%, Rural=62%	2019-20	PSLM
14	3.2.1 Under-5 mortality rate	Overall=62	2018-19	PSLM
15	3.3.1 Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations	0.12	2019	UNAIDS Data 2020
16	3.4.1 Mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease	24.70%	2014-15	Global Health Estimates/WHO 2014-15
17	3.4.2 Suicide mortality rate	NA		
18	3.5.2 Harmful use of alcohol, defined according to the national context as alcohol per capita consumption (aged 15 years and older) within a calendar year in litres of pure alcohol	NA		
19	3.3.1 Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations	0.12	2019	UNAIDS Data 2020
20	3.7.1 Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods	Overall =49% Urban= 50.2%, Rural= 47.5%	2017-18	PDHS
21	3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate (aged 10-14 years; aged 15-19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group	Aged (15-19)= 46 Urban= 42, Rural=47	2017-18	PDHS
22	3.8.1 Coverage of essential health services	40	2015	WHO
23	3.8.2 Proportion of population with large household expenditures on health as a share of total household expenditure or income	Number of people covered by health insurance or a public health system per 1,000 population= 56	2018-19	PSLM
24	3.9.1 Mortality rate attributed to household and ambient air pollution	NA		
25	3.9.2 Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene (exposure to unsafe Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for All (WASH) services)	NA		
26	3.a.1 Age-standardized prevalence of current tobacco use among persons aged 15 years and older	Any type of Tobacco (Aged 15-49): Overall = 13.7% Male= 22.6%, Female= 4.7% Cigarette Age 15-49: Male = 22% Urban= 19%, Rural= 24% Female= 3.4%, Urban= 3%, Rural= 3.6%	2017-18	PDHS

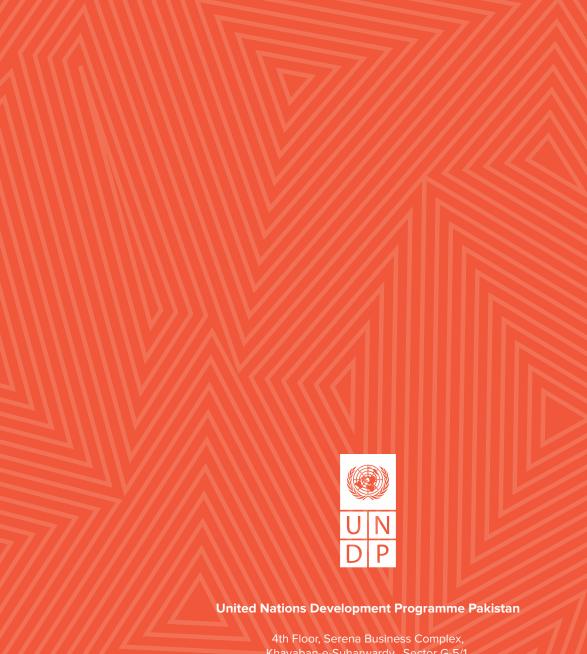| All Gender Relevant SDG indicators at the National Level				
S. No.	Indicators	Data	Year	Source
27	3.b.1 Proportion of the target population covered by all vaccines included in their national programme	Overall = 65.36% Male=68% Female=63% Urban=78.8% Rural = 63% Overall coverage of DPT containing vaccine(3rd dose)= 75.4% Male=77% Female=73.6% Overall coverage of measles containing vaccine(2nd dose) = 66.6% Male=69.6%, Female=63.7% Overall coverage of pneumococcal conjugate vaccine(last dose in schedule) = 74.7% Male=76.6% Female=72.6%	2017-18	PDHS
28	4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people: (a) in grades 2/ 3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex	NA		
29	4.2.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex	NA		
30	4.2.2 Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex	Overal=19% Male=19% Female=19%	2019-20	PSLM
31	4.3.1 Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex	Overall= 29.48% Urban= 32.72% Rural= 27.36%	2018-19	LFS
32	4.4.1 Proportion of youth and adults with information and communications technology (ICT) skills, by type of skill	Presentation = 21% Downloading=33% Entertaintment = 59% Social Media = 45% Email = 48% Programming = 20% Spreadsheet = 27%	2019-20	PSLM
33	4.5.1 Parity indices (female/ male, rural/ urban, bottom/ top wealth quintile and others such as disability status, indigenous peoples and conflict affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated	Gender Parity Index(GPI) in Net Enrollment Rate(NER) at Primary (age 6-10): Overall = 0.93 Rural = 0.88 Urban = 0.97 GPI in Net Enrollment Rate(NER) at Middle Level(age 11-13): Overall = 0.90 Rural =0.81 Urban= 1.02 GPI in Net Enrollment Rate(NER) at Matric Level(age 14-15): Overall = 0.90 Rural = 0.69 Urban = 1.18	2018-19	PSLM
34	4.6.1 Proportion of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex	Literarcy Rate= 60% Male=70%, Female=50%	2019-20	PSLM

All Gender Relevant SDG indicators at the National Level				
S. No.	Indicators	Data	Year	Source
35	4.7.1 Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development are mainstreamed in (a) national education policies; (b) curricula; (c) teacher education; and (d) student assessment	NA		
36	4.a.1 Proportion of schools offering basic services, by type of service	Electricity: Primary=61% Middle=79%	2017-18	Pakistan Education Statistics
37	5.1.1 Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex	NA		
38	5.2.1 Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age	Overall Physical or sexual or emotional(Age 15-49) =24.8% Urban=19.9% Rural=27.8% Physical Violence(15-49)=13.6% Urban=10.3% Rural=15.6%	2017-18	PDHS
39	5.2.2 Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence	NA		
40	5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18	NA		
41	5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15-49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/ cutting, by age	NA		
42	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location	NA		
43	5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments	19.73%	2018	Gender Compendium PBS
44	5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions	4.53%	2018-19	LFS
45	5.6.1 Proportion of women aged 15-49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care	Overall = 53% Urban = 56% Rural= 52%	2018-19	PSLM
46	5.6.2 Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education	NA		

	All Gender Relevant SDG indicators at the National Level			
S. No.	**Indicators**	**Data**	**Year**	**Source**
47	5.a.1 (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure	NA		
48	5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/ or control	NA		
49	5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex	Overall (10 +)=46% Male=65% Female=25% Urban=55% Male=71% Female=38% Rural=39% Male=61%Female=17%	2019-20	PSLM
50	5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment	NA		
51	6.2.1 Proportion of population using (a) safely managed sanitation services and (b) a hand-washing facility with soap and water	94%	2019-20	PSLM
52	7.1.2 Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology	Overall=96% (includes 5% off-grid)	2019-20	PSLM
53	8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex	Informal Employment in Non-Agriculture= 72.4% Urban= 68.1% Rural = 76.7%	2018-19	LFS
54	8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of employees, by sex, age, occupation and persons with disabilities	Overall=109 Urban=116 Rural =97	2018-19	LFS
55	8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	Overall= 6.9% Male=5.9% Female=10.0% Urban=7.9% Male=6.5% Female=17.1% Rural=6.4% Male=5.5% Female=8.5% Age(10-14) overall=11.3% Male=15.2% Female=4.5% Age(15-19) overall=13.3% Male=14.7% Female=9.2% Age(20-24) overall=11.8% Male=8.5% Female=21.3% Age(25-29) overall=8.6% Male=5.3% Female=18.3% Age(30-34) overall=4.3% Male=2.7% Female=9.4% Age(55-59) overall=5.3% Male=4.9% Female=7.5% Age(60 and above) overall=3.87% Male=3.18% Female=0.69%	2018-19	LFS
56	8.6.1 Proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training	Overall= 30 % Urban=27% Rural=31%	2018-19	LFS

All Gender Relevant SDG indicators at the National Level				
S. No.	**Indicators**	**Data**	**Year**	**Source**
57	8.7.1 Proportion and number of children aged 5-17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age	Overall (Age 10-14)= 6.47 % Male=7.43% Female=5.38%	2018-19	LFS
58	8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status	Frequency rate of non-fatal injuries=0.03 Urban=0.03 Rural=0.04	2018-19	LFS
59	8.8.2 Level of national compliance with labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status	NA		
60	8.9.2			Indictaor removed by UNDATA
61	8.10.1 (a) Number of commercial bank branches per 100,000 adults and (b) number of automated teller machines (ATMs) per 100,000 adults	Commercial Bank Branches per 100,000 adults = 12.5 Number of ATMs = 16,041	Dec-20	State Bank of Pakistan
62	9.5.2 Researchers (in full-time equivalent) per million inhabitants	Commercial Bank Branches per 100,000 adults = 12.5 Number of ATMs = 16,041 ATMs per 100,000 population = 7.57	Dec-20	State Bank of Pakistan
63	10.2.1 Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	NA		
64	10.3.1 Proportion of population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law	NA		
65	11.2.1 Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	44%	2019-20	PSLM
66	11.5.1 Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population	Death = 0.02 Injured = 0.05 Directly affected Persons = 0.30	2018	NDMA Annual Report
67	11.7.1 Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	NA		
68	11.7.2 Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months	NA		
69	13.1.1 Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population	Deaths = 0.06 Injured = 0.07 Direclty affected persons = 5.4	2018	NDMA Annual Report

All Gender Relevant SDG indicators at the National Level				
S. No.	**Indicators**	**Data**	**Year**	**Source**
70	13.b.1 Number of least developed countries and small island developing States with nationally determined contributions, long-term strategies, national adaptation plans and adaptation communications, as reported to the secretariat of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change	Score of adoption and implementation of national DRR strategies in line with the Sendai Framework (Index) = 0.8	2020	NDMA
71	16.1.1 Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age	3.88	2018	World Bank
72	16.1.2 Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause	N A		
73	16.1.3 Proportion of population subjected to (a) physical violence, (b) psychological violence and (c) sexual violence in the previous 12 months	Women aged 15-49 experienced physical violence=14.6% Urban=11% Rural=16.8% Women aged 15-49 experienced sexual violence=3.6%, Urban=2.9% Rural=4% Women aged 15-49 who have ever experienced Emotional(psychological) violence by husband= 25.8% Urban=22.8% Rural=27.7%	2017-18	PDHS
74	16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation	N A		
75	16.2.3 Proportion of young women and men aged 18-29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18	NA		
76	16.3.1 Proportion of victims of violence in the previous 12 months who reported their victimization to competent authorities or other officially recognized conflict resolution mechanisms	N A		
77	16.5.1 Proportion of persons who had at least one contact with a public official and who paid a bribe to a public official, or were asked for a bribe by those public officials, during the previous 12	NA		
78	16.7.1 Proportions of positions in national and local institutions, including (a) the legislatures; (b) the public service; and (c) the judiciary, compared to national distributions, by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups	Chairs of permanent committees Lower Chamber defence (Number male 46 years and above)=1 Chairs of permanent committees lower chamber finance (Number male 46 years and above)=1 Chairs of permanent committees lower chamber foreign affairs (Number male 46 years and above)=1 Chairs of permanent committees lower chamber human rights (Number male 45 years and under)=1 Chairs of permanent committees	2020	UNESCAP

All Gender Relevant SDG indicators at the National Level				
S. No.	Indicators	Data	Year	Source
		Upper Chamber defence (Number male 46 years and above)=1 Chairs of permanent committees upper chamber finance (Number male 46 years and above)=1 Chairs of permanent committees upper chamber foreign affairs (Number male 46 years and above)=1 Chairs of permanent committees upper chamber human rights (Number male 45 years and under)=1 Female members of parliaments ratio over female in national population lower chamber (Ratio)=0.41 Speakers in parliament upper chamber (Number male 45 years and under) Speakers in parliament lower chamber (Number male 46 years and above)=1 Female members of parliaments ratio over female in national population upper chamber (Ratio)=0.39		
79	16.7.2 Proportion of population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive, by sex, age, disability and population group	NA		
80	16.9.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority, by age	Overall = 42.2% Urban=60% Rural=34% Sex-wise difference in birth registration= Zero Lowest wealth quintile=9.3% Highest wealth quintile=76% Age < 2= 38.9%	2017-18	PDHS
81	16.b.1 Proportion of population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed in the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law	NA		
82	17.8.1 Proportion of individuals using the Internet	Overall (10+) = 14% Male= 22% Female=7%	2019-20	PSLM
83	17.18.1 Statistical capacity indicator for Sustainable Development Goal monitoring	Overall (10+) = 14% Male = 16% Female = 12%	2018-19	PSLM

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