

Tracking sustainable
peace through
inclusion, justice,
and security
for women

Inclusion

Justice

Security

Women Peace and Security Index

2019/20



PRIO Centre on
Gender, Peace
and Security



GIWPS

Georgetown Institute for
Women, Peace and Security

Key to WPS Index countries and ranks

Country	Index	Rank	Country	Index	Rank	Country	Index	Rank
Afghanistan	.373	166	Georgia	.777	46	North Macedonia	.806	37
Albania	.759	57	Germany	.856	17	Norway	.904	1
Algeria	.611	143	Ghana	.724	78	Pakistan	.460	164
Angola	.626	130	Greece	.770	51	Panama	.731	70
Argentina	.775	48	Guatemala	.680	106	Papua New Guinea	.658	117
Armenia	.720	82	Guinea	.625	133	Paraguay	.738	68
Australia	.844	22	Guyana	.741	66	Peru	.735	69
Austria	.884	6	Haiti	.613	140	Philippines	.709	90
Azerbaijan	.650	123	Honduras	.708	91	Poland	.838	25
Bahrain	.719	83	Hong Kong, SAR China	.731	70	Portugal	.856	17
Bangladesh	.612	142	Hungary	.772	49	Qatar	.730	72
Barbados	.715	87	Iceland	.888	5	Romania	.767	53
Belarus	.804	38	India	.625	133	Russian Federation	.770	51
Belgium	.827	27	Indonesia	.703	95	Rwanda	.743	65
Belize	.716	86	Iran	.657	118	São Tomé and Príncipe	.634	127
Benin	.659	116	Iraq	.490	162	Saudi Arabia	.655	120
Bhutan	.657	118	Ireland	.858	16	Senegal	.661	114
Bolivia	.765	54	Israel	.815	34	Serbia	.839	24
Bosnia and Herzegovina	.760	56	Italy	.826	28	Sierra Leone	.578	153
Botswana	.667	112	Jamaica	.787	42	Singapore	.843	23
Brazil	.700	98	Japan	.823	29	Slovakia	.813	35
Bulgaria	.801	39	Jordan	.629	129	Slovenia	.872	13
Burkina Faso	.622	136	Kazakhstan	.786	43	Solomon Islands	.695	101
Burundi	.616	139	Kenya	.700	98	Somalia	.564	154
Cabo Verde	.700	98	Kuwait	.701	96	South Africa	.741	66
Cambodia	.694	102	Kyrgyzstan	.721	80	South Korea	.816	33
Cameroon	.597	148	Lao PDR	.724	78	South Sudan	.479	163
Canada	.876	11	Latvia	.845	21	Spain	.860	15
Central African Republic	.513	160	Lebanon	.599	147	Sri Lanka	.679	107
Chad	.553	156	Lesotho	.641	125	Sudan	.547	157
Chile	.764	55	Liberia	.608	144	Suriname	.744	63
China	.725	76	Libya	.546	158	Sweden	.879	9
Colombia	.691	104	Lithuania	.835	26	Switzerland	.893	2
Comoros	.632	128	Luxembourg	.880	8	Syria	.416	165
Congo	.593	149	Madagascar	.622	136	Tajikistan	.701	96
Congo, Dem. Rep.	.512	161	Malawi	.626	130	Tanzania	.704	94
Costa Rica	.779	45	Malaysia	.729	73	Thailand	.707	92
Côte d'Ivoire	.617	138	Maldives	.671	111	Timor-Leste	.721	80
Croatia	.818	32	Mali	.539	159	Togo	.665	113
Cyprus	.819	31	Malta	.807	36	Trinidad and Tobago	.788	41
Czech Republic	.820	30	Mauritania	.583	151	Tunisia	.651	121
Denmark	.891	3	Mauritius	.752	60	Turkey	.661	114
Djibouti	.604	145	Mexico	.693	103	Turkmenistan	.752	60
Dominican Republic	.726	74	Moldova	.743	64	Uganda	.678	109
Ecuador	.772	49	Mongolia	.776	47	Ukraine	.689	105
Egypt	.583	151	Montenegro	.791	40	United Arab Emirates	.781	44
El Salvador	.725	76	Morocco	.625	133	United Kingdom	.883	7
Equatorial Guinea	.626	130	Mozambique	.675	110	United States of America	.851	19
Estonia	.873	12	Myanmar	.587	150	Uruguay	.757	58
Eswatini	.613	140	Namibia	.748	62	Uzbekistan	.710	89
Ethiopia	.651	121	Nepal	.717	84	Venezuela	.717	84
Fiji	.757	58	Netherlands	.879	9	Viet Nam	.707	92
Finland	.891	3	New Zealand	.869	14	Yemen	.351	167
France	.847	20	Nicaragua	.712	88	Zambia	.679	107
Gabon	.647	124	Niger	.554	155	Zimbabwe	.726	74
Gambia	.638	126	Nigeria	.604	145			

Tracking sustainable
peace through
inclusion, justice,
and security
for women

Inclusion

Justice

Security

Women
Peace and
Security
Index
2019/20



PRIO Centre on
Gender, Peace
and Security



GIWPS Georgetown Institute for
Women, Peace and Security

Georgetown University's Institute for Women, Peace and Security seeks to promote a more stable, peaceful, and just world by focusing on the important role women play in preventing conflict and building peace, growing economies, and addressing global threats like climate change and violent extremism. The institute pursues this mission through research that is accessible to practitioners and policy-makers, global convenings, strategic partnerships, and nurturing of the next generation of leaders. Melanne Verveer, the first U.S. ambassador for global women's issues, is the Institute's executive director. Hillary Rodham Clinton is the Institute's honorary founding chair.

The Peace Research Institute Oslo (PRIO) conducts research on the conditions for peaceful relations between states, groups, and people. Researchers at PRIO seek to understand the processes that bring societies together or split them apart. Founded in 1959, PRIO is an independent research institution known for its effective synergy of basic and policy-relevant research. In addition to such research, PRIO conducts graduate training and promotes peace through conflict resolution, dialogue and reconciliation, public information, and policy-making activities.

Copyright © 2019
Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security
1412 36th Street NW
Washington, DC 20007 USA
Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial 3.0

ISBN: 978-0-578-53109-0

Suggested citation: Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security and Peace Research Institute Oslo. 2019. *Women, Peace and Security Index 2019/20: Tracking sustainable peace through inclusion, justice, and security for women*. Washington, DC: GIWPS and PRIO.

Editing and production: Communications Development Inc., Washington, DC
Cover design: Debra Naylor, Naylor Design Inc.

Contents

Preface	vi
Report team and acknowledgments	vii
Overview	1
Chapter 1 Global, regional, and comparative findings	11
Global rankings and major patterns	13
Commonalities and differences across regions	13
Mixed performance across dimensions and indicators	13
The best and worst performing countries	19
Diversity at a subnational level: A new application of the WPS Index	20
What do the shifts in rankings reveal?	31
Chapter 2 Insights from recent trends in the WPS Index	31
Inclusion	33
<i>Impressive but not universal expansion in financial inclusion</i>	33
<i>Growing cellphone use around the world, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa</i>	34
<i>Little progress on women’s employment</i>	35
<i>Women’s parliamentary representation largely stalls below parity</i>	38
Justice	39
<i>Moderate decline in legal discrimination</i>	39
<i>Gaps remain between laws and practice in family law</i>	39
Security	39
<i>Fewer deaths overall from organized violence</i>	39
<i>The security dimension is important for a comprehensive picture of women’s well-being</i>	40

Chapter 3 How the WPS Index matters	47
To violence against women	49
<i>Links between intimate partner violence and other measures of women's security</i>	49
<i>Links between conflict-related sexual violence and the WPS Index</i>	49
<i>Links between political violence targeting women and the WPS Index</i>	50
To harmful notions of masculinity and gender equality	51
To key health outcomes for women and children	52
To prospects for youth	52
<i>Links between youth not in school or work and the WPS Index</i>	53
<i>Links between adolescent fertility and the WPS Index</i>	53
To the risk of war	53
As a spur to action	54
Statistical Table 1 Country performance and ranking on the Women's Peace and Security Index and indicators	58
Appendix 1 Index definitions and methodology	65
Appendix 2 Regional and country groups	69
Notes	70
References	73
Spotlights	
Spotlight 1.1 Behind the national headlines: Pilot analyses at the subnational level in China, India, and Nigeria	23
Spotlight 1.2 How selected countries newly added to the WPS Index perform	27
Spotlight 2.1 Countries with the biggest changes in rank since the first WPS Index	43
Boxes	
1 What is the WPS Index?	2
2 Diversity at a subnational level: A new application of the WPS Index	3
1.1 Switching from lifetime to current intimate partner violence	19
2.1 Refugee women and the WPS Index	37
2.2 Understanding gaps between law and practice: Insights from family law in Brazil, India, and Iran	40
3.1 A view of peace from the grassroots in Colombia, South Sudan, and Ukraine	48
Figures	
1 The dozen best and worst performers on the WPS Index	2
2 How the WPS Index intersects with broader aspects of the SDGs	4
3 In countries with high levels of organized violence, women are more likely to experience violence at home	4
4 The WPS Index has been widely cited in the media	6
1.1 The WPS Index captures three dimensions of women's well-being and empowerment in 11 indicators	11
1.2 A spectrum of WPS Index scores around the world	13
1.3 The dozen best and worst performers on the WPS Index	14
1.4 Some countries perform much better and some much worse than their regional and country group average on the WPS Index	14
1.5 Regional and country groups used in this report	15
1.6 Mixed performance across the WPS Index indicators	16
1.7 The worst rates of current intimate partner violence are similar across several developing regions	20
1.8 Countries that rank much better or much worse on the WPS Index than on per capita income	22
2.1 Top 10 gainers in women's financial inclusion since the 2017 WPS Index	34
2.2 Women's financial inclusion differs widely across and within regions	35
2.3 In most regions, cellphone use is high and rising, but gender gaps remain, especially in lagging regions	36
2.4 Large differences across regions and countries in women's paid employment	36
2.5 Most countries are stuck far below 30 percent on women's parliamentary representation	38
2.6 A diverse set of countries have the largest recent gains in women's parliamentary representation	38

2.7	Total battle deaths have declined globally since the 2012–14 peak	41
2.8	A mixed picture of trends in organized violence in the bottom dozen countries on the WPS Index	41
3.1	How the WPS Index intersects with broader aspects of the SDGs	47
3.2	Women living in countries where they feel unsafe in their community or where levels of organized violence are high are more likely to experience violence at home	49
3.3	Political violence targeting women and WPS Index scores are strongly correlated	51
3.4	High-ranking countries on the WPS Index tend to have a more equitable distribution of unpaid work between men and women	52
3.5	Countries that do better on the WPS Index have more youth in school or work	53
3.6	Countries that do better on the WPS Index have lower adolescent fertility rates	54
3.7	The WPS Index has been widely cited in the media	55
A1.1	Construction of the Women, Peace, and Security Index	67

Tables

1.1	Index indicators, definitions, and rationale	12
1.2	Best and worst country scores regionally and globally for WPS Index indicators	21
2.1	Improving trends on the WPS Index and indicators	32
2.2	The position of most of the bottom dozen ranking countries changes little when organized violence is excluded from the index	42
A1.1	Minimum and maximum values for component indicators of the WPS Index	66
A1.2	Illustration of WPS Index aggregation: Jordan example	68

Preface

This first update of the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index provides important insights into patterns and progress on women’s well-being and empowerment around the world. It reflects a shared vision that countries are more peaceful and prosperous when women are accorded full and equal rights and opportunities.

While just two years have passed since the inaugural WPS Index was published, major insights can be drawn from recent trends. The timing of this report offers opportunities for stakeholders to review and discuss challenges and to identify opportunities for transformative change in advance of the 20th anniversary of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.

The WPS Index incorporates three basic dimensions of women’s well-being—inclusion (economic, social, political); justice (formal laws and informal discrimination); and security (at the family, community, and societal levels)—which are captured and quantified through 11 indicators. The indicators are aggregated at the national level to create a global ranking of 167 countries. On a pilot basis in this report, we constructed subnational indexes for three of the world’s largest countries (China, India, and Nigeria), which reveal difference in performance within countries on many fronts.

We are pleased to have collaborated with National Geographic and their expert team of researchers and designers who have created a series of striking graphics capturing and portraying key insights from the WPS Index. Their results are

published in the November 2019 issue of the magazine.¹ Some of the graphics are included in this report.

Several innovations this year have enhanced the value of the index.

First, improvements in data availability made possible the addition of 14 countries, expanding coverage to 167 countries—encompassing more than 98 percent of the world’s population.

Second, greater data availability has enabled the use of data on the current (past 12 months) prevalence of intimate partner violence in place of data on women’s lifetime experience of intimate partner violence. This change permits tracking changes in prevalence over time.

Third, we have used data revisions and updates since the inaugural edition of the index from the International Labour Organization, the United Nations, the World Bank, and other authoritative sources to continue to ensure the reliability of the data on which the index is based.

While these are major improvements, the changes also mean that comparisons of scores and ranks between the 2017 and 2019 editions must be made carefully. This report examines changes in the underlying indicators and limits attention to changes in position on the index to the biggest country movers only.

We hope that this year’s report is an important contribution to national and international efforts to accelerate progress on both the international commitment to women, peace, and security and the Sustainable Development Goals. The WPS Index will be updated again in 2021, serving to track progress toward women’s inclusion, justice, and security.

Jeni Klugman

Managing Director, Georgetown Institute of Women, Peace and Security and lead author, *Women’s Peace and Security Index 2019/20*

Report team and acknowledgments

This report on the Women, Peace, and Security Index is the product of collaboration between the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security (GIWPS) and the Peace Research Institute of Oslo (PRIO).

The work on the index and on this report was conducted by a team led by Jeni Klugman, Managing Director, GIWPS. The report team comprised Amie Gaye, who was responsible for construction of the index; Marianne Dahl (PRIO), who undertook statistical analysis and writing; and Kelly Dale and Elena Ortiz from GIWPS who provided extensive research analysis and support throughout.

Several GIWPS fellows provided valuable background research: Raiyan Kabir, Matthew Moore, Turkan Mukhtarova, Madison Schramm, and Yvonne Quek. Special gratitude goes to GIWPS research assistants Chen Zheng and Haiwen (Bryan) Zou for data analysis and graphics, as well as Anna McDonald on communications. Thanks also to Karim Bahgat, Petter Kristiansen Arnesen, and Peder Landsverk (PRIO), who constructed measures of legal discrimination and organized violence and undertook statistical and graphical analysis. The work was enabled by the excellent administrative and communications support of Luis Mancilla and Sarah Rutherford, both at GIWPS.

For valuable analysis and inputs, we would like to thank colleagues Ruti Letvov at Promundo; Mavic Cabrera-Balleza, Agnieszka Fal-Dutra Santos, Mallika Iyer, Dinah Lakehal, Thais Rehder, and Susan Nyuon Sebit at the Global Network of Women Peacebuilders; Mahnaz Afkhami and Lina

Abou-Habib at the Women's Learning Partnership; Roudabeh Kishi at the Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Project; and Patty Chang.

We benefited enormously from collaboration with Irene Berman-Vaporis, Lawson Parker, and Rosemary Wardley at *National Geographic* magazine in the context of their November 2019 special issue.

Our appreciation goes to colleagues at partner organizations, in particular to Milorad Kovacevic (Human Development Report Office, United Nations Development Programme) for timely advice on statistical questions and to Juncal Plazaola Castano and Papa Seck at UN Women on intimate partner violence data. We appreciate advice and help from Rafael Diez de Medina, Roger Gomis, and Steven Kapsos at the International Labour Organization for advice on women's employment data. Karim Bahgat provided support on the conflict data.

A great team at Communications Development Incorporated—led by Meta de Coquereaumont and including Joe Caponio, Mike Crumplar, Debra Naylor, Bruce Ross-Larson, Christopher Trott, and Elaine Wilson—edited, designed, and laid out the report.

Finally, we would like to acknowledge the generous funding of the Government of Norway's Ministry of Foreign Affairs, without which this work would not have been possible, and the Bank of America Charitable Foundation for their ongoing support of the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security.

Overview

Women’s inclusion, justice, and security matter. They matter to women and to their families, communities, and economies and societies at large. The world is more secure, peaceful, and prosperous when women are accorded full and equal rights and opportunities.

The Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index systematically measures and ranks women’s well-being worldwide (box 1). This update reveals that only one country (Iceland) performs well in every aspect of women’s lives captured by the WPS Index. The need to advance gender equality is truly a universal agenda.

The good news is that trends in women’s empowerment are heading in the right direction globally. Some 59 countries recorded significant progress since the first edition, while only one country (Yemen) experienced major deterioration.

The WPS Index reveals the wide spectrum of performance around the world. The 167 countries ranked in 2019 have scores ranging from .904 (Norway) to .351 (Yemen), where 1 is the best possible score and 0 is the worst. Norway is followed by Switzerland, Finland, Denmark, and Iceland.

Uneven performance in 2019

Uneven performance across and within regions, and even within countries (box 2), illustrates the scope for better outcomes. Among regions, the Middle East and North Africa performs poorly overall, which is traceable largely to high levels of organized violence and discriminatory laws that

disempower women, often coupled with low rates of inclusion, especially in paid employment.

But there are striking differences within regions, ranging up to more than a hundred ranks. For example, in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, Estonia ranks 12th and Azerbaijan ranks 123rd. There are also major disparities across Latin America and the Caribbean, most notably between Trinidad and Tobago, at 41, and Haiti, at 140.

Overall, the challenges are largest in fragile and conflict-affected countries, especially in the security dimension. All the current bottom dozen ranked countries except Pakistan are classified as fragile and conflict affected, and six are in Sub-Saharan Africa (figure 1).

While the bottom dozen ranked countries perform poorly overall, there are signs of progress. Financial inclusion rose by at least 10 percentage points in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Iraq, and Mali. Libya and Iraq recorded major expansions in women’s cellphone use, while women in Pakistan reported feeling safer walking in their community at night.

Few countries perform uniformly well across all dimensions of women’s well-being. While good things often go together, only one country—Iceland—scores in the top third across the board, with achievements in each dimension reinforcing overall progress for women. Countries typically do worse on at least one of the fronts measured in the index. Even countries in the top dozen (including top-ranked Norway, but with the exception of Iceland) rank only in the middle range on women’s paid employment.

BOX 1 What is the WPS Index?

The WPS Index is a simple and transparent measure that captures women’s autonomy and empowerment at home, in the community, and in society.

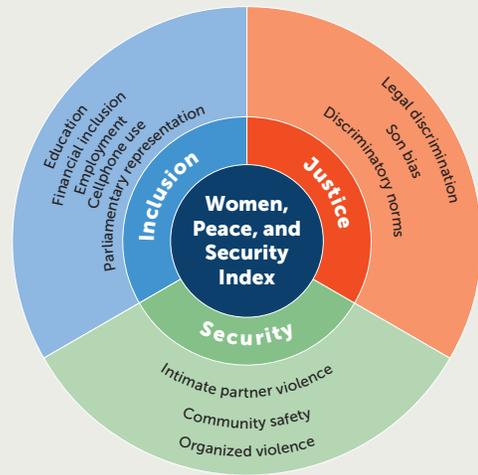
The index is structured around three basic dimensions of women’s well-being: inclusion (economic, social, political); justice (formal laws and informal discrimination); and security (at the individual, community, and societal levels; see box figure).

This second edition adds more than a dozen countries—including Libya and South Sudan—that meet the minimum requirements of recent and reliable data across the three dimensions.

Those additions bring the total ranking to 167 countries, encompassing more than 98 percent of the world’s population.

The WPS Index will be updated again in 2021, in order to continue to track progress toward the goals of women’s inclusion, justice, and security.

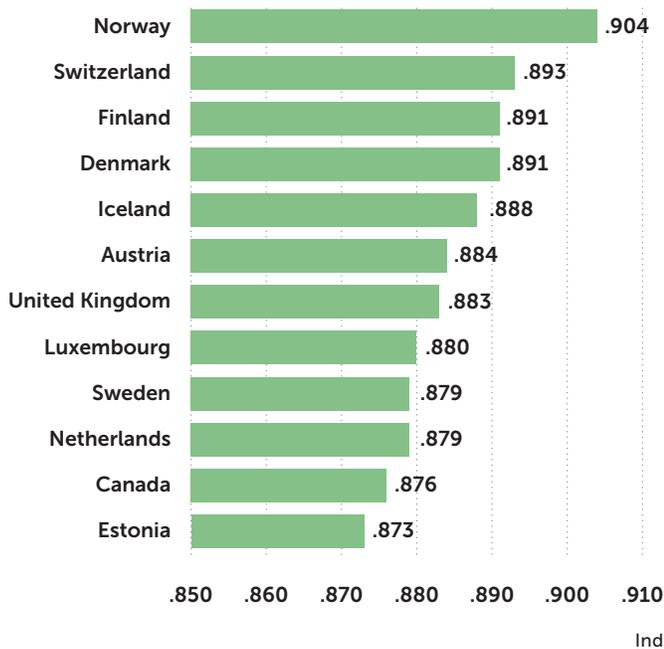
The WPS Index captures three dimensions of women’s well-being and empowerment in 11 indicators



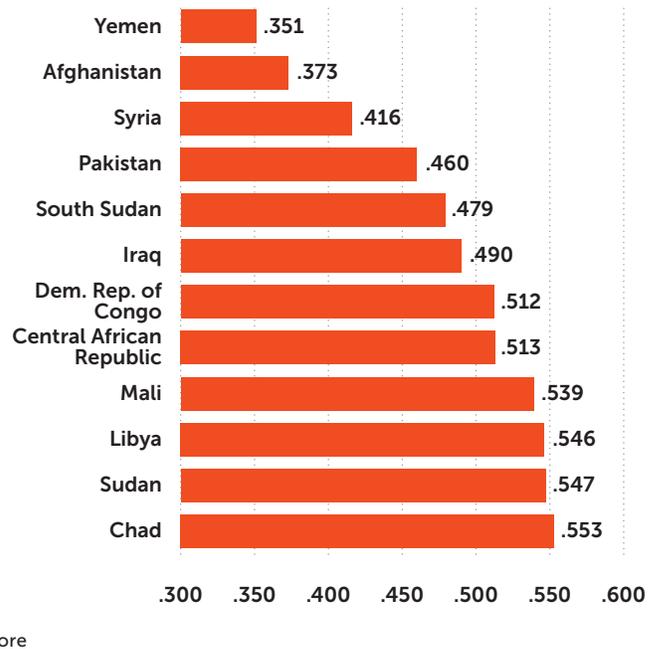
Note: See appendix 1 for definitions of indicators.
Source: Authors.

FIGURE 1 The dozen best and worst performers on the WPS Index

Best performers



Worst performers



Note: Possible index scores range from a low of 0 to a high of 1. See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges.
Source: Authors’ estimates.

BOX 2 Diversity at a subnational level: A new application of the WPS Index

In a novel application of the WPS Index, we calculated the index at the subnational level for three of the most populous and most diverse countries: China, India, and Nigeria. The subnational indices reveal enormous diversity behind the national scores. The disparities are largest in Nigeria, where the state-level scores—and women’s corresponding well-being—are equivalent to the differences between Mauritius (ranking 60th) and Afghanistan (166th). See spotlight 1.1 at the end of chapter 1 for details.

The data also reveal fronts where too many countries lag far behind the global averages, such as women’s parliamentary representation and employment. Globally, women hold nearly one fourth of parliamentary seats. Rwanda has the global high at 56 percent, while in Papua New Guinea women have no seats in the national legislature. In 18 countries in our ranking, the share of women in parliament is in the single digits. Globally, the gender gap in employment remains wide, at 30 percentage points, with regional gaps averaging 68 percentage points in South Asia and nearly 60 percentage points in the Middle East and North Africa. Regional averages for women’s employment range from about 67 percent in Sub-Saharan Africa to 19 percent in the Middle East and North Africa.

On the justice dimension, developed countries exhibit the lowest levels of legal discrimination, with 26 of 27 countries scoring better than the global average (Singapore being the exception). Countries in Latin America and the Caribbean also do well, with 18 of 25 countries performing at least as well as the global average.² The Middle East and North Africa is the worst regional performer on legal discrimination, with all 16 countries below the global mean and 9 countries among the world’s bottom dozen performers on that indicator. Saudi Arabia retains its dubious status as the country with the most extensive legal discrimination against women, followed closely by Yemen, Sudan, the United Arab Emirates, and Syria.

For current intimate partner violence, capturing insecurity in the home, the lowest rates are in Singapore and Switzerland, at below 1 percent, whereas prevalence is as high as 47 percent in South Sudan and 46 percent in Timor-Leste. Regionally, the share of women who have experienced violence at the hands of an intimate partner in the past year is lowest in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia (7.1 percent) and Latin America and the Caribbean (7.8 percent), and highest in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (both exceeding 20 percent).

Trends since the 2017 index

Good news from this year’s index is that the world seems to be moving in the right direction. There have been substantial

advances in women’s well-being, with broad progress on women’s inclusion, access to justice, and security. Only one country (Yemen) experienced significant deterioration. Almost 60 countries, representing all regions, recorded solid progress (at least 5 percent improvement on the index), including Malaysia, Rwanda, and Turkmenistan. Eight countries scored more than 10 percent higher.³

In four regions, new countries lead the rankings since 2017. Trinidad and Tobago overtook Jamaica in Latin America and the Caribbean, Mauritius passed Namibia in Sub-Saharan Africa, Estonia surpassed Slovenia in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, and Norway now outranks Iceland among developed countries.

The dozen countries that gained more than 10 places are a diverse set across several regions. Five of the biggest upward movers are in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia (in order: Moldova, Turkmenistan, Armenia, Latvia, and Estonia), two in East Asia and the Pacific (Malaysia and China), and two in Sub-Saharan Africa (Rwanda and Benin).

Financial inclusion, education, legal reforms, and parliamentary representation were the biggest drivers of upward mobility, highlighting that progress is being made on multiple—but not all—fronts. Improvement in women’s financial inclusion was the most common driver: 5 of the top 11 upward movers saw increases of at least 10 percentage points on financial inclusion, led by Turkmenistan, whose rate leapt from 1 to 36 percent. Legal reforms also drove many of the biggest movers, such as Moldova, where recent amendments to sexual assault legislation contributed to a rise of 22 places. Some 118 countries recorded lower levels of legal discrimination. And for the fourth consecutive year, the number of battle deaths from organized violence fell in 2018, with the de-escalation of conflicts in Iraq and Syria.

Yet progress is too slow and uneven. The overall picture underlines the scale of the unfinished agenda on women’s rights. Women’s employment is moving in the wrong direction globally and is falling in all regions except Sub-Saharan Africa. Women’s employment stagnated in the 10 countries ranked lowest on that indicator, 8 of which are in the Middle East and North Africa.

Since 2017, women’s parliamentary representation has stalled far below parity, largely in the 11–20 percent range, accentuating women’s limited role in decision-making across much of the world. On current trends it will take at least 52 years to reach parity with men in parliamentary representation.

Financial inclusion remains low in conflict-affected countries, at only about 1 in 10 women. Regional rates of women’s financial inclusion remain below half the global average in the Middle East and North Africa.

Although only Yemen experienced a significant absolute worsening in its WPS Index score (from .407 to .351), several countries’ performance on key indicators stagnated or declined, lowering their ranking. More than 50 countries fell 10 or more positions on the index, and 10 countries have been stuck in the bottom dozen positions since 2017.

Deterioration can frequently be traced to worsening security, most notably women’s perceived security in their communities, which declined in almost 50 countries. In 41 countries, rates of organized violence rose by at least 5 percent, revealing extensive security threats to women.

On the justice dimension, overall legal discrimination has declined moderately since 2017, but performance worsened in 34 countries and has stalled in 20. The upshot is that about 2.7 billion women around the world remain legally restricted from working in the same jobs as men, while 90 percent of countries have at least one law on the books that discriminates against women.⁴

A welcome change is the drop in deaths from organized violence, due largely to lower levels of state-based conflict. De-escalation is driving the overall declines rather than fewer conflicts. Indeed, the number of conflicts rose between 2017 and 2018, from 52 to 54, the highest number on record. As many as two-thirds of the fatalities took place in just two countries: Mexico and Syria.⁵

How the WPS Index matters

This report examines how the WPS Index matters to countries’ performance on several other global priorities laid out in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, beyond goal 5 which commits to women’s empowerment (figure 2).

While statistical correlation does not prove causation, the empirical analyses point to key connections that can inform policymaking and development priorities and that underline the importance of policy coherence.

FIGURE 2 How the WPS Index intersects with broader aspects of the SDGs



Source: Authors.

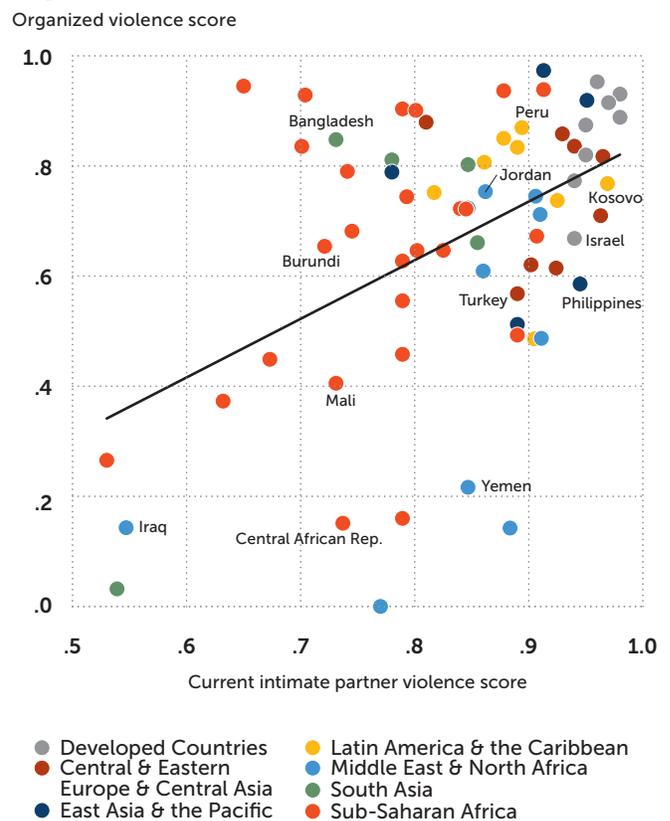
To violence against women

Afghanistan, Iraq, and South Sudan, among the six worst performing countries on the WPS Index, have rates of current intimate partner violence approaching 50 percent, well above the average rates in their region (figure 3). This finding illustrates how women’s security at home is correlated with security in the country at large.

Conflict-related sexual violence,⁶ another form of violence against women, has devastating effects on victims and their families and erodes the fabric of entire communities, undermining peace and security.⁷ Our analysis finds that among countries experiencing organized violence, conflict-related sexual violence is reported in almost 7 of 10 countries in the bottom third of the index. Countries with lower WPS scores are much more likely to see sexual violence during and in the aftermath of armed conflict, and vice versa. These findings underline the broader importance of women’s inclusion, justice, and security, alongside actions to address the impunity of perpetrators so that accountability and justice become the norm.

While intimate partner violence and conflict-related sexual violence are grave risks, women are also threatened by the

FIGURE 3 In countries with high levels of organized violence, women are more likely to experience violence at home



Note: Community safety and intimate partner violence are defined in table 1.1; the scores on both indicators are normalized (see appendix 1 for details). See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups. Source: Authors’ estimates.

scourge of political violence.⁸ Women were the target of more than 600 episodes of political violence in 2018 across Sub-Saharan Africa, South and Southeast Asia, the Middle East and North Africa, and parts of Eastern and Central Europe and Central Asia. Political violence takes multiple forms beyond sexual violence, including mob violence, abductions, and forced disappearances.⁹ Countries with higher WPS Index scores report lower rates of political violence targeting women.¹⁰

Preventing political violence and ensuring accountability for the perpetrators are moving to the top of the global agenda.¹¹ Our results reinforce the importance of taking such measures, alongside broad action to improve women's inclusion, justice, and security.

To harmful notions of masculinity and gender equality

The global gender equality campaign increasingly recognizes the importance of engaging men and boys in transforming harmful gender norms, enacting progressive laws and policies, and achieving universal human rights. Many findings in this report are aligned with research on gender equality and harmful notions of masculinity. These highlight that progress is happening, but it is slow and uneven, and that violence in the home is inextricably linked to violence outside the home.¹²

Some 600 million women of working age around the world say that they are unable to take on paid work because of unpaid care responsibilities.¹³ And in countries where women do twice as much unpaid care work as men, their earnings average less than two-thirds those of men.¹⁴ Our analysis reveals that countries that rank high on the WPS Index tend to have a more equitable distribution of unpaid work between men and women and that countries with the least equitable distribution tend to rank low.

These links between progress on equality and women's employment and unpaid care, enshrined in SDG target 5.4, emphasize the need for action on multiple levels—policy reform, norm change, economic and physical security, and individual and family actions—to meet the global commitments.

To key health outcomes for women and children

The WPS Index is associated with a range of key health outcomes, including fewer maternal and infant deaths. Despite a substantial lowering of maternal mortality in recent decades, more than 300,000 women still die annually from complications related to pregnancy and childbirth, the vast majority in developing countries.¹⁵ Likewise, even though infant mortality has been on the decline, around 4.2 million infants died before their first birthday in 2016.¹⁶ New analysis suggests that a 1 percentage point (.01) increase in the WPS Index is associated with a 2 percent reduction in maternal deaths and a 2.3 percent reduction in infant deaths. Performance on the WPS inclusion subindex is especially significant for maternal and infant mortality.

Again, these results underscore that a comprehensive approach to women's empowerment and well-being can produce significant gains, in this case in key health outcomes that remain a challenge across many developing countries.

To prospects for youth

With the world's youth population (ages 15–29)¹⁷ approaching 2 billion, the United Nations Security Council Resolution 2250 formalized the global commitment to strengthening the role of youth in peace and security. New analysis using two measures of youth status that are part of the SDGs—being in education, work, or training and avoiding teen pregnancy—illustrates how better outcomes for women are associated with better outcomes for youth.

Rising numbers of young men and women are not in education, work, or training, eroding their current and future prospects.¹⁸ In 2018, more than one in five youth globally were in this category—30 percent of young women and 13 percent of young men.¹⁹ Countries that do better on the WPS Index tend to be better at engaging youth in the labor market or in education or training, especially young women.

Adolescent fertility is an important indicator of the status and opportunities of young women. Having children early in life is associated with a much higher risk of dying in pregnancy or childbirth and also greatly reduces women's prospects for education, employment, and training.²⁰ The association between adolescent fertility and the WPS Index is strong: countries in the top 20 percent of the WPS Index rankings have low adolescent fertility rates.

To the risk of war

Violent conflict, as measured by the number of battle deaths, has declined globally since the Cold War.²¹ While greed, grievance, and weak states are often seen as the causes of violent conflict,²² growing evidence suggests that gender inequality may also be a key driver. Gender inequality may enable masculinized cultures to develop and thrive and may create conditions that facilitate the recruitment of young men by armed actors.²³

Our analysis suggests that higher levels of gender inequality in education, financial inclusion, and employment, as well as higher levels of intimate partner violence, are significantly correlated with higher levels of violent conflict. For example, a 1 percentage point increase in the share of women experiencing current intimate partner violence is associated with a 1.4 percent increase in organized violence. These findings have clear implications for policy. Unlike some other factors associated with war, we know that deliberate and sustained attention can reduce gender inequality.

As a spur to action

Tools like the WPS Index and rankings can spur advocacy and action toward the goal of gender equality by drawing attention to national achievements and deficits through the courts, the media, and policy decision-making. Because the

FIGURE 4 The WPS Index has been widely cited in the media

Source: Authors.

index is comprehensive and relies on internationally recognized and publicly available data, it provides a credible and compelling ranking of national performance. The WPS Index is intentionally designed to support scorecard diplomacy, providing highly comparative and easy-to-understand numbers, calling out low performers while acclaiming top performers.²⁴

The two years since the launch have demonstrated how the WPS Index can bring legitimacy to discussions of women's inclusion, justice, and security at national, regional, and international levels. A range of media outlets have drawn attention to country rankings on the WPS Index (figure 4), thereby raising the visibility of gender inequality and highlighting the urgency of action. National Geographic created a series of visuals pointing out key trends and insights, published in the November 2019 issue of the magazine.²⁵ Select graphics have been reprinted in this report with the permission of National Geographic.

Governments are also referencing the WPS Index in advancing the international agenda for Women, Peace and Security. For example, Poland's 2018–21 National Action Plan cites the country's WPS Index ranking as a positive result of national policy efforts.²⁶ Canada's Feminist International

Assistance Policy describes the WPS Index as a global measure for tracking progress in promoting gender equality and empowering women and girls.²⁷

International organizations, too, have welcomed the WPS Index as a tool for measuring women's empowerment within a security framework. The index was shared at a UN peacekeeping meeting in Addis Ababa and presented at both NATO and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe to inform and broaden the understanding of how women's inclusion and justice affect security.

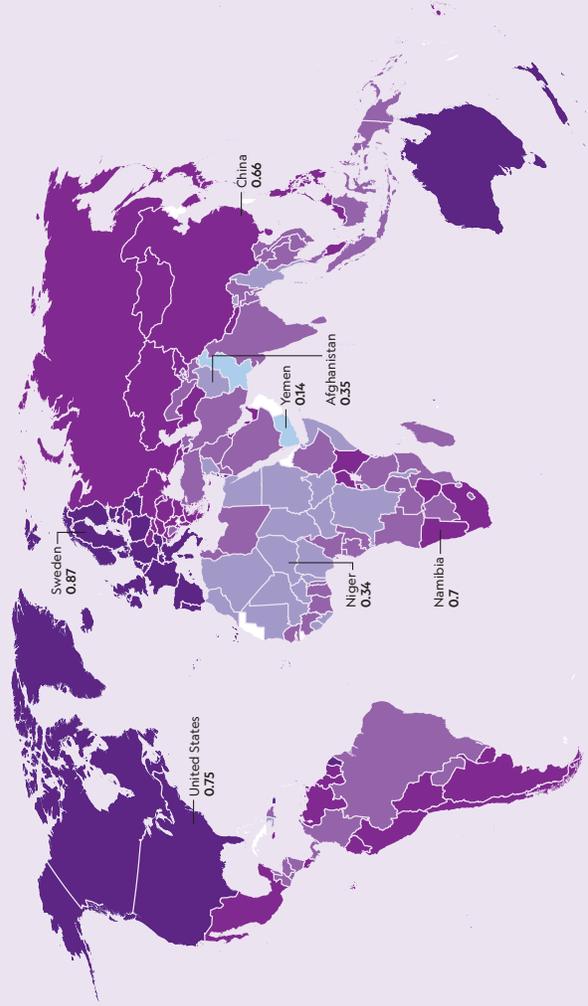
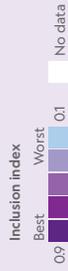
Finally, the WPS Index is advancing academic and policy discussions about women's well-being worldwide. The inaugural *Oxford Handbook of Women, Peace, and Security* includes a chapter on the WPS Index.²⁸ The index was used in the report of the High-Level Group on Justice for Women and cited in a recent Special Report of the Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Project on gender, inclusion, and conflict, among other publications.

In all these ways, the WPS Index reveals that promoting gender equality and increasing women's inclusion, justice, and security are central not only to women's well-being but also to the world's prospects for security and peace.

AIMING FOR INCLUSION

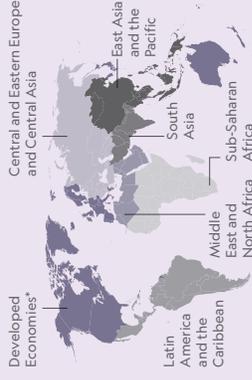
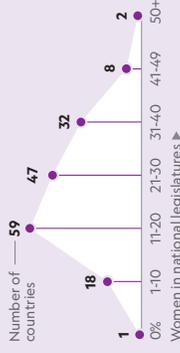
MAKING THEIR VOICES HEARD

Women's level of inclusion in economic, social, and political spheres is a critical measure of a country's basic human rights. Countries such as Rwanda, Moldova, Turkmenistan, Armenia, and Benin have recently made notable gains in women's education, financial access, or representation in the national legislature.



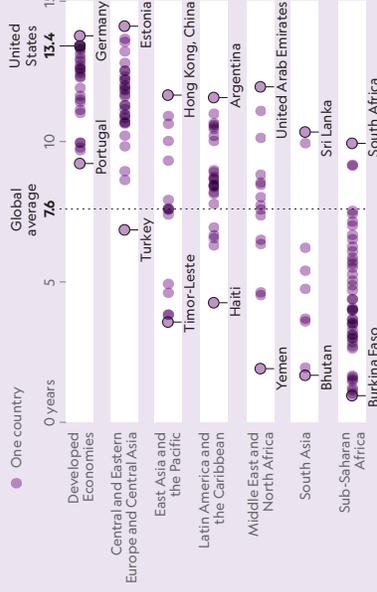
Representation in government

The average share of women in national legislatures is 21.5 percent worldwide. At the current pace, it will take 52 years to reach gender parity.



Education

Many countries have excellent rates of completion for girls at the primary school level but fall short in the quality of secondary school education and graduation rates.



Cell phone use

Phones can expand access to economic opportunities and promote independence.



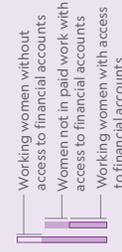
Financial access

Two out of every three women worldwide hold some form of financial account. Only one in 10 does in conflict-ridden countries.



Employment

The global gender gap in employment spans 30 percentage points, with exceptions: Ninety-three percent of Rwandan women work.



Women in war-torn Yemen have the world's lowest level of financial inclusion (1.7 percent) and employment (5.3 percent).

Some 35 percent of people in sub-Saharan Africa are not covered by 3G+ networks, which inhibits mobile banking and can perpetuate male control of female incomes.

*27 COUNTRIES, INCLUDING U.S., CANADA, WESTERN EUROPEAN NATIONS, AUSTRALIA, AND JAPAN (PER GEORGETOWN.DATASET, BASED ON UN CRITERIA)

PURSuing EQUALITY

BALANCING THE SCALES OF JUSTICE

Discriminatory gender-based laws and societal prejudice can make it hard for women to own property, open bank accounts, find employment, start businesses, and otherwise participate in society. Even in nations that have laws to protect women, what's on the books may differ widely from what's enforced.



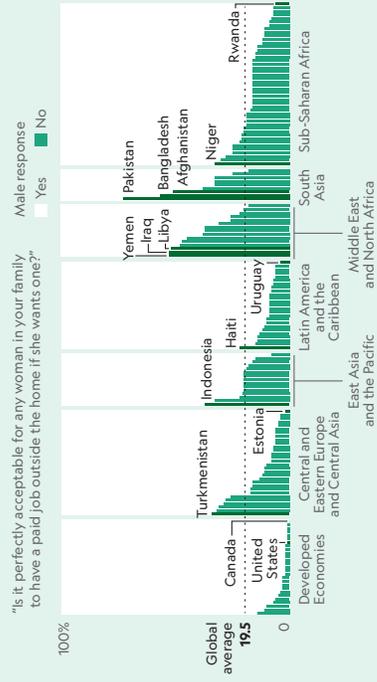
Legal discrimination

Ninety percent of the world's countries have one or more laws that discriminate against women. In the past two years, however, 118 countries took steps to reduce legal discrimination.

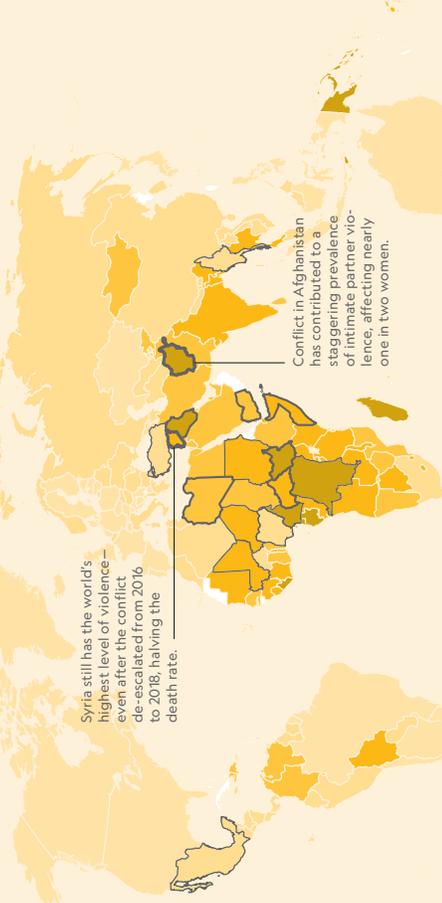
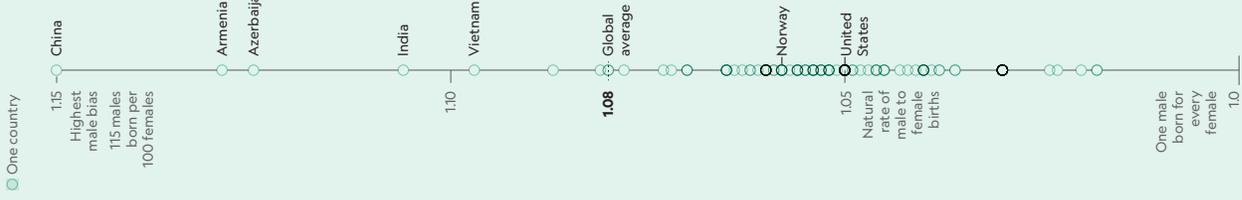


Discriminatory norms

Nearly 75 percent of men in Pakistan believe it's unacceptable for women to have a paid job. Disapproval exceeds 50 percent in Bangladesh, Yemen, Iraq, Libya, and Afghanistan.



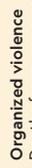
Son bias
Prenatal sex determination and selective abortion can result in more boys born than girls.



Syria still has the world's highest level of violence—even after the conflict de-escalated from 2016 to 2018, halving the death rate.

Conflict in Afghanistan has contributed to a staggering prevalence of intimate partner violence, affecting nearly one in two women.

Deaths per 100,000 people
1-5 6-50 51+



Organized violence
Deaths from war or other armed conflicts have declined worldwide for the fourth consecutive year since 2014.

Share of women experiencing intimate partner violence
0.9% 47% No data



Intimate partner violence
About 379 million women experienced intimate partner violence in 2018. Yearly rates are a third higher in conflict-affected countries.

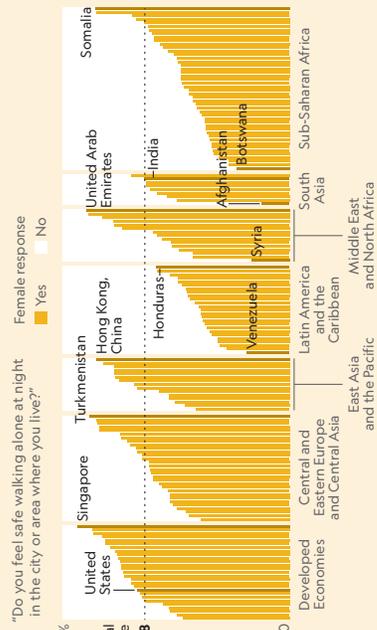
SECURING SAFETY

BREAKING FREE OF VIOLENCE

Large-scale conflicts can normalize violence against women within their homes and communities. Such general insecurity can promote a hypermasculine culture, which has widespread repercussions for women.



Perception of community safety
Fewer than 25 percent of women feel safe at night in Afghanistan, Syria, Venezuela, and Botswana. A lack of security makes women less willing to commute to opportunities outside home.



Source: Berman-Vaporis, Parker, and Wardley, November 2019. Used with permission by National Geographic. Copyright of NGP 2019.

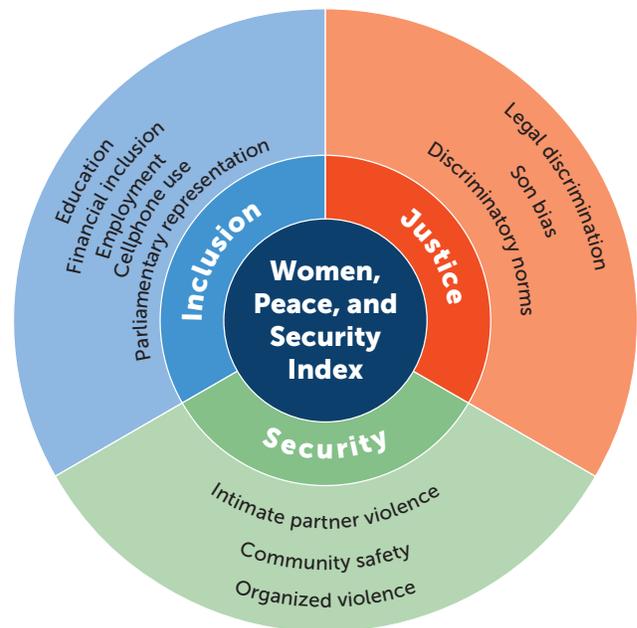
CHAPTER 1

Global, regional, and comparative findings

Women are at the heart of efforts to achieve sustainable peace through inclusion, justice, and security. United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security calls for women’s empowerment and inclusion in preventing and resolving conflict and building peace. Resolution 1325 complements the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development agreed to by all national governments in 2015, which recognizes the need to build inclusive, just, and peaceful societies for all. Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5 lays out gender equality and the empowerment of all women as critical goals, while SDG 16 commits the international community to promote peaceful and open societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all, and build effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions.

Global indices are a way to assess and compare national progress against such goals by distilling an array of complex information into a single number and ranking. The Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index is structured around three basic dimensions of well-being: inclusion (economic, social, political); justice (formal laws and informal discrimination); and security (at the individual, community, and societal levels). The index captures and quantifies these three dimensions through its 11 indicators (figure 1.1), which are aggregated in a way that focuses attention on key achievements and major shortcomings. (See appendix 1 for the methodology for calculating the index, table 1.1 and appendix 1 for definitions of the 11 indicators and their associated rationale, and statistical table 1 for the detailed country results.)

FIGURE 1.1 The WPS Index captures three dimensions of women’s well-being and empowerment in 11 indicators



Note: See appendix 1 for definitions of indicators.
Source: Authors.

TABLE 1.1 Index indicators, definitions, and rationale

Dimension and indicator	Definition	Rationale
Inclusion		
Education	Average number of years of education of women ages 25 and older	Education is critical to women's agency, opportunities, freedom from violence, and health. Average years of education is a more precise measure than, for example, secondary school completion.
Employment	Percentage of women ages 25 and older who are employed	This indicator captures women's economic opportunities, which are central to realizing women's capabilities. It is preferred to labor force participation because it excludes unemployment.
Cellphone use	Percentage of women ages 15 and older who report having a mobile phone that they use to make and receive personal calls	Having a cellphone is increasingly recognized as core to people's opportunities to participate in the economy, society, and politics.
Financial inclusion	Percentage of women ages 15 and older who report having an individual or joint account at a bank or other financial institution or who report using a mobile money service	Being financially included allows individuals to smooth consumption, manage risk, be more resilient, invest in education and health, and start and expand a business.
Parliamentary representation	Percentage of seats held by women in lower and upper houses of national parliament	Political participation is a critical aspect of people's capabilities and is most widely measured by representation in parliament.
Justice		
Legal discrimination	Aggregate score for laws and regulations that limit women's ability to participate in society or the economy or that differentiate between men and women	Discriminatory laws have adverse repercussions, making it harder for women to own property, open bank accounts, start a business, or take a job and enter careers restricted to men.
Son bias	Extent to which the ratio of the number of boys born to the number of girls born exceeds the natural demographic rate of 1.05	An excess number of births of boys over girls relative to demographic norms reflects serious discrimination against girls and women.
Discriminatory norms	Percentage of men ages 15 years and older who disagreed with the proposition: "It is perfectly acceptable for any woman in your family to have a paid job outside the home if she wants one"	An important manifestation of gender discrimination is lack of male support for women engaging in paid work.
Security		
Intimate partner violence	Percentage of women who experienced physical or sexual violence committed by their intimate partner in the previous 12 months	The Sustainable Development Goals commit to eliminate all forms of violence against women and girls.
Community safety	Percentage of women ages 15 and older who report that they "feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live"	Security and safety in the community affect women's mobility and opportunities outside the home.
Organized violence	The annual average number of battle deaths from state-based, nonstate, and one-sided conflicts per 100,000 people between 2016 and 2018	Captures the extent of insecurity in society due to various types of armed conflict.

Note: See statistical table 1 for data sources and appendix 1 for detailed definitions and the methodology for calculating the WPS Index.

Source: Authors.

Until the launch of the WPS Index in 2017, none of the growing number of global indices had combined the dimensions of women’s inclusion, justice, and security. Gender indices are typically limited to such indicators as enrollment in secondary school or participation in paid work. These aspects of inclusion are undoubtedly important, but in the absence of indicators of justice and security, they present an incomplete picture of gender equality and women’s empowerment. It is surely misleading to focus on girls’ schooling where girls are not safe in their home or community. Likewise, traditional measures of security include an array of conflict indicators but ignore systematic discrimination against women and girls. The WPS Index bridges insights from gender and development with those from peace and security in a measure that is simple and transparent and that reflects women’s autonomy and empowerment at home, in the community, and in society.

The addition of 14 countries to the WPS Index rankings in this edition, made possible by improved data availability, has broadened coverage to 167 countries with more than 98 percent of the world’s population.²⁹ Of the newly included countries, 6 are in Sub-Saharan Africa, 5 are in East Asia and the Pacific, 2 are in Latin America, 1 is in the Middle East and North Africa, and 7 are fragile and conflict-affected countries.³⁰ (Spotlight 1.2 at the end of the chapter highlights the performance of some of the newly ranked countries.)

Global rankings and major patterns

The WPS Index reveals a broad spectrum of performance around the world (figure 1.2; darker shades indicate better scores).

A global league ranking displays the overall standing, ranging from .904 at the top (Norway) to .351 at the bottom (Yemen; see statistical table 1). The dozen best and worst performers are shown in figure 1.3. All of the bottom dozen, except Pakistan, are classified as fragile or conflict-affected countries, and six are in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Commonalities and differences across regions

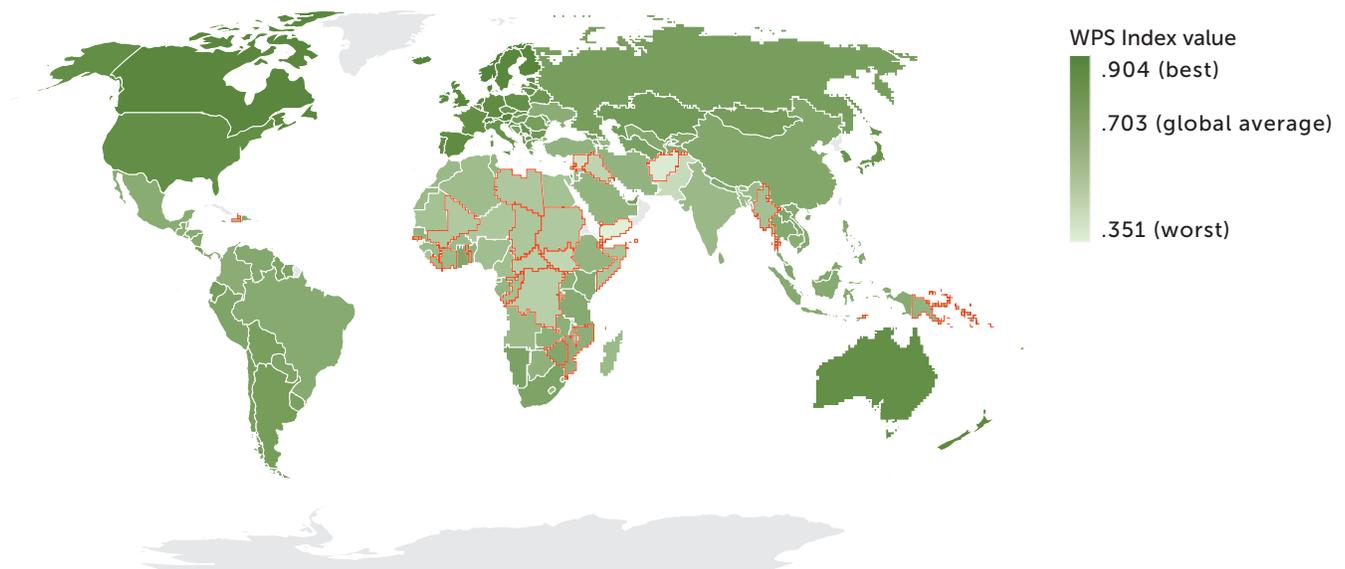
Major commonalities and differences across and within regions illustrate the scope for countries to improve in order to reach their neighbors’ standards (figure 1.4). The Middle East and North Africa region performs relatively poorly overall, which can be traced largely to high levels of organized violence and discriminatory laws that disempower women, often coupled with low rates of inclusion, especially in paid employment. (Figure 1.5 maps the eight regional and country groups analyzed in this report, and appendix 2 lists the countries in each group.)

Within-region differences are also striking, in some cases more than a hundred ranks apart. For example, in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, Estonia ranks 12th and Azerbaijan ranks 123rd. There are also major differences in achievement in Latin America and the Caribbean, most notably between Trinidad and Tobago, at 41, and Haiti, at 140.

Mixed performance across dimensions and indicators

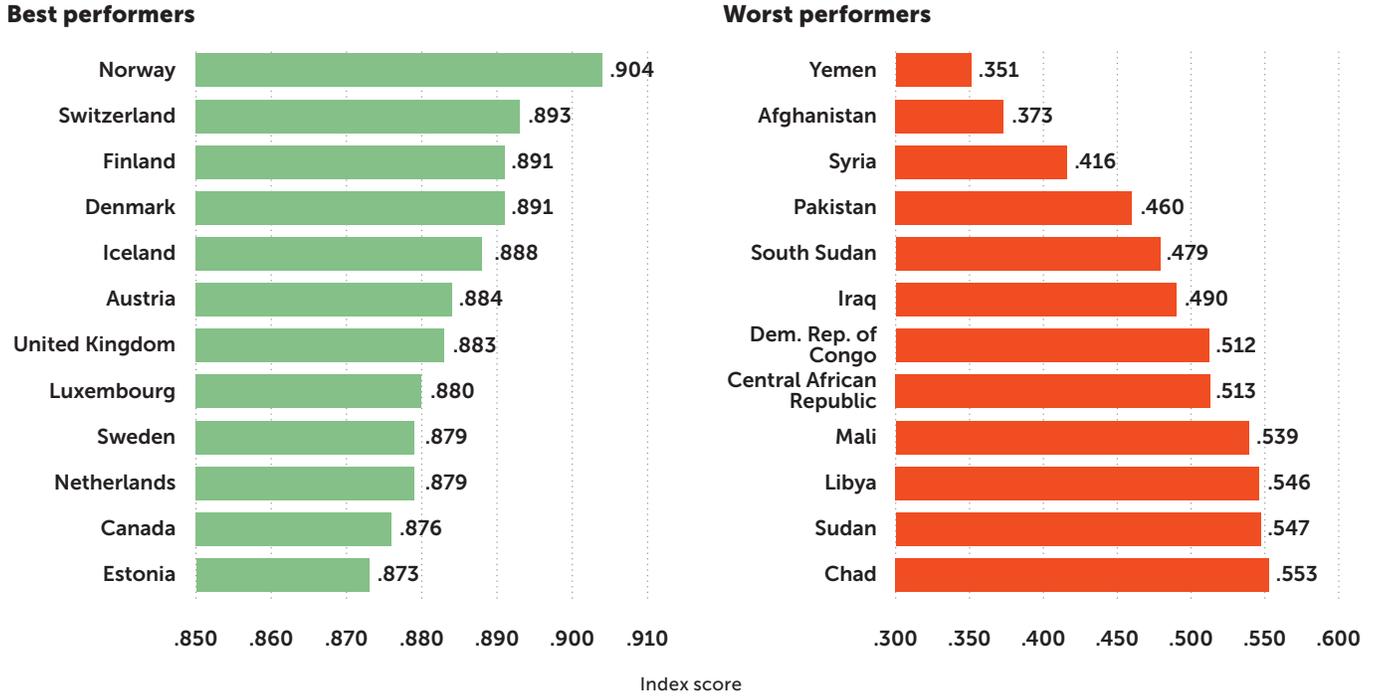
The WPS Index findings underline that good things often go together. However, only one country—Iceland—scores in the top third across the board, with achievements in each dimension reinforcing its overall progress. More typical among the

FIGURE 1.2 A spectrum of WPS Index scores around the world



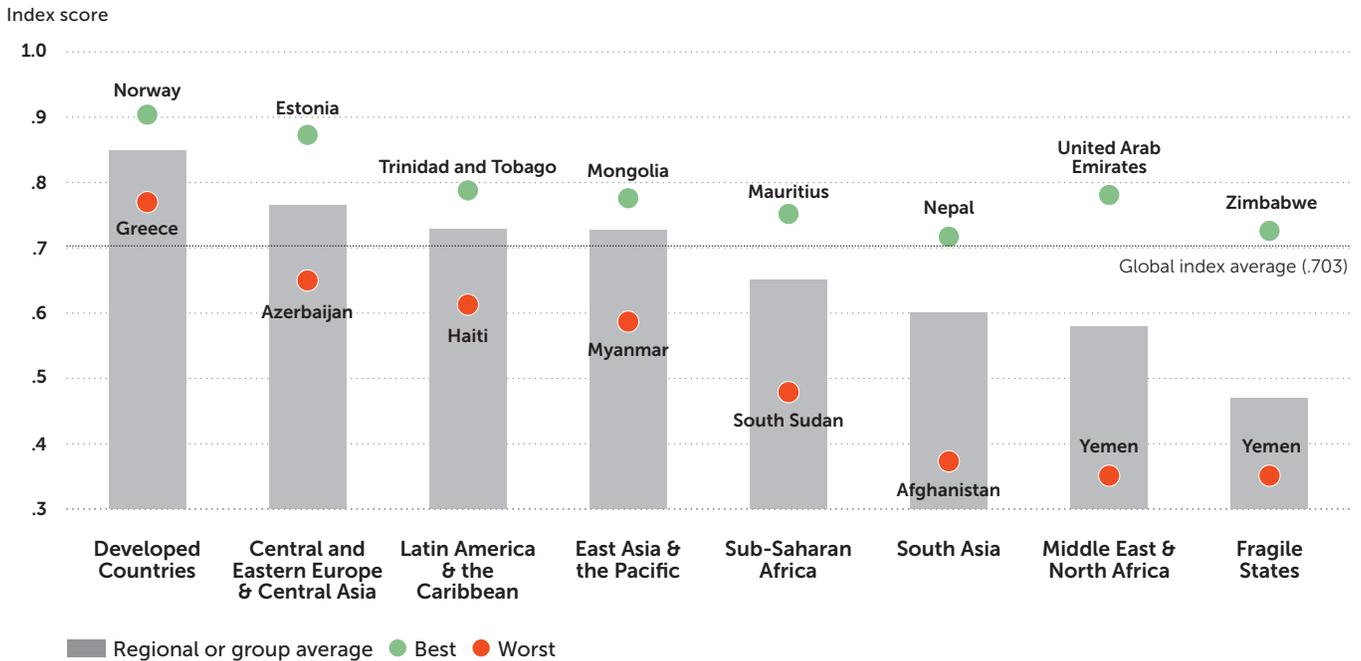
Note: Countries outlined in red are classified as fragile and conflict affected. See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges.
Source: Authors’ estimates.

FIGURE 1.3 The dozen best and worst performers on the WPS Index

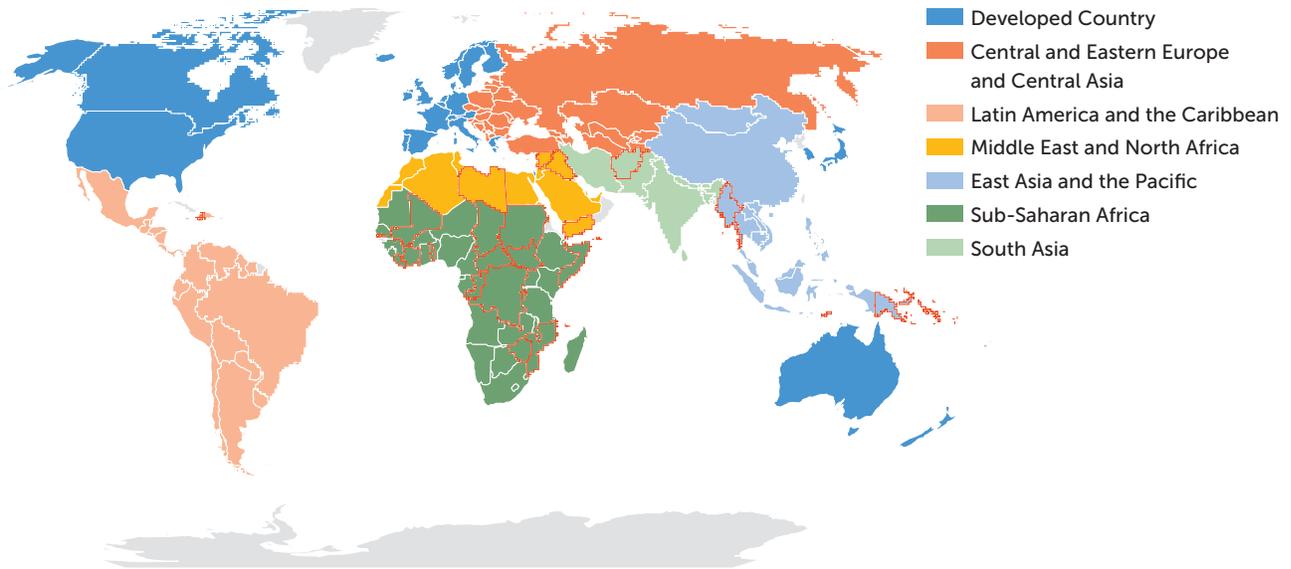


Note: Possible index scores range from a low of 0 to a high of 1. See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges.
 Source: Authors' estimates.

FIGURE 1.4 Some countries perform much better and some much worse than their regional and country group average on the WPS Index



Note: See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups. Fragile States are also included in their regional group.
 Source: Authors' estimates.

FIGURE 1.5 Regional and country groups used in this report

Note: Countries outlined in red are classified as fragile and conflict affected. See appendix 2 for full list of regional and country groups.
Source: Appendix 2.

top-ranking countries is that they do relatively poorly on at least one indicator. On women’s paid employment, even Norway, the top-ranked country overall, and the other countries in the top dozen (with the exception of Iceland) rank only in the middle range.

Performance is often uneven across the 11 indicators of inclusion, justice, and security. Figure 1.6 uses gradations of color (from dark green, best, to dark red, worst) to display the performance on each indicator of all 167 countries ranked in the index. The figure reveals unbalanced performance across indicators for most countries, underlining the universality of the agenda and the scope for improvement.

While countries in the Developed Country group, Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, and East Asia and the Pacific tend to perform fairly evenly across dimensions, other country groups show less balanced performance. Countries in Latin America, for example, generally do much better on justice than on inclusion. Countries in the Middle East and North Africa, South Asia, and the Fragile States group tend to perform very poorly on inclusion. On average, just over 1 in 10 women in the Fragile States group have financial accounts, for example—and the share is as low as 1.7 percent in Yemen. The Fragile States group also scores relatively poorly overall and especially on security.

The data also reveal fronts where too many countries lag way behind, such as women’s parliamentary representation and employment. Rwanda has the global high for parliamentary representation, at 56 percent (for both houses of parliament), while in Papua New Guinea women have no seats in the national legislature, and in Yemen women hold only 4 of

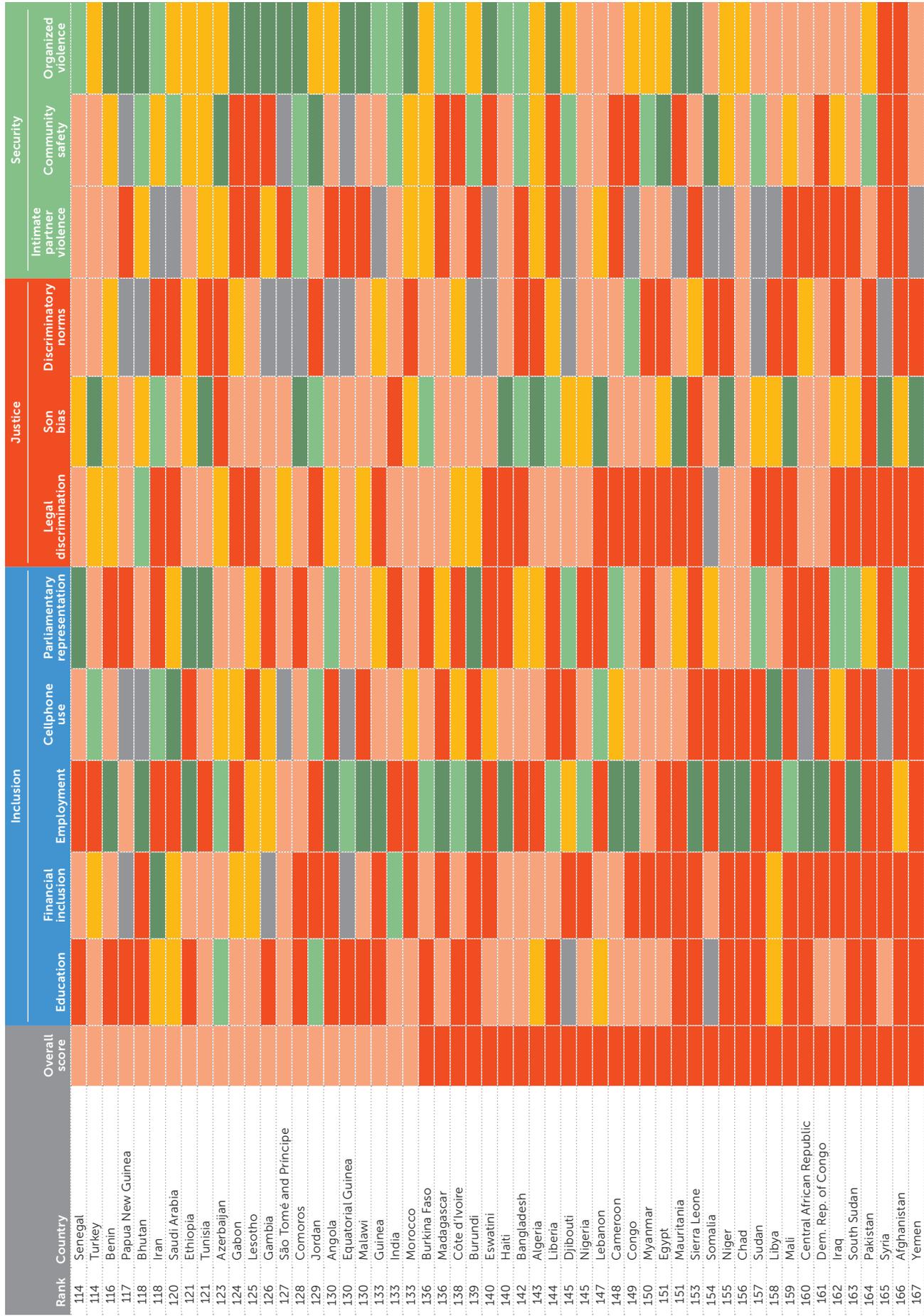
412 seats. And in 18 countries in our ranking, the share of women in parliament is in the single digits.

The regional range for women’s employment is also very large, from about 67 percent in Sub-Saharan Africa to only 19 percent in the Middle East and North Africa. Eight of the ten worst performing countries on female employment are in the Middle East and North Africa (starting with the lowest: Yemen, Syria, Algeria, Jordan, Iraq, Egypt, Tunisia, and Morocco). Globally, the gender gap in employment remains wide, at 30 percentage points (49 percent for women and 79 percent for men), with regional gender employment gaps as high as 68 percentage points in South Asia and nearly 60 percentage points in the Middle East and North Africa.

Our justice dimension captures formal laws in the legal discrimination indicator. However, because there are often gaps between laws on the books and their execution, we also include discriminatory norms and son bias (see appendix 1 for definitions of indicators)—again underlining the importance of multidimensional measures of women’s well-being.

Since 2017, the global average for our indicator of legal discrimination has improved slightly—with some 118 countries showing lower levels of legal discrimination. Developed countries exhibit the lowest levels of this indicator, with 26 of 27 countries scoring better than the global average (the exception is Singapore). Latin America and the Caribbean follows closely, with 18 of 25 countries performing at least as well as the global average. The Middle East and North Africa is the worst regional performer on legal discrimination, with all 16 countries below the global mean and 9 among the world’s bottom dozen performers on this indicator.

FIGURE 1.6 Mixed performance across the WPS Index indicators (continued)



Legend: ■ First (top) quintile ■ Second quintile ■ Third quintile ■ Fourth quintile ■ Fifth quintile
 Note: Gray bars indicate that no national data were available on that indicator, so imputed data were used. See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges.
 Source: Authors' estimates.

For our indicator of security in the home—intimate partner violence—new data availability enabled a switch from lifetime prevalence to current prevalence (last 12 months; see box 1.1). Globally, the lowest rates of current intimate partner violence are in Singapore and Switzerland, at less than 1 percent, and the highest rate is in South Sudan, where a disturbing 47 percent of women have experienced intimate partner violence within the past year.

Levels of intimate partner violence vary significantly across regions and country groups (figure 1.7). The share of women who have experienced violence at the hands of an intimate partner in the past year is highest in the Fragile States group, averaging more than 18 percent, and lowest in the Developed Countries group, at less than 5 percent. Across developing country regions, average rates of intimate partner violence are lowest in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia (7.1 percent) and Latin America and the Caribbean (7.8 percent), and highest in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (exceeding 20 percent). The variation within developing country regions is shown by the high and low outliers in

figure 1.7. In East Asia and Pacific, for example, the range is from 5 percent in Indonesia to 47 percent in Timor-Leste.

These patterns highlight the broad scope for concerted efforts to meet the development goals that all governments have signed up to.

The best and worst performing countries

Good performing countries are found all around the world, not only in better-off regions. For most indicators and in most regions, there are countries that are close to or above the global average. For example, the global average for women's schooling is approaching eight years, and in all regions at least some countries have surpassed that level. Despite Sub-Saharan Africa's low regional average of 4.4 years of schooling, South Africa, with an average of 10 years, and Botswana, with 9.2 years, stand out.

Likewise, it is striking that in all regions some countries exceed the global mean rate of women's cellphone use of about 81 percent, such as Mongolia, at nearly 98 percent. The same is true of women's employment rates around the

BOX 1.1 Switching from lifetime to current intimate partner violence

Any index requires choices about indicators, data sources, and data aggregation. Our aim remains to keep the index as simple and transparent as possible and to limit the number of indicators. (Appendix 1 outlines how the index was constructed.) To facilitate comparisons over time, we have retained the same set of dimensions, indicators, and sources as the inaugural 2017 edition, with the exception of intimate partner violence.

When we assessed data availability for the inaugural WPS Index, many more countries had data on lifetime intimate partner violence than on current prevalence (the share of women who have experienced intimate partner violence in the past 12 months).¹ To achieve broad country coverage of the index, we opted in the inaugural edition to use lifetime prevalence.

Today, however, data on current prevalence have caught up and are now available for almost 150 countries, up from about 95 countries in 2017.² The use of current prevalence is consistent with the Sustainable Development Goal indicator measuring the “proportion of ever-partnered women and girls ages 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months” (UN Women 2017). The rank correlation of current prevalence with lifetime prevalence is very high—about 0.825—which implies that this change does not significantly affect the comparability of the WPS Index rankings over time.

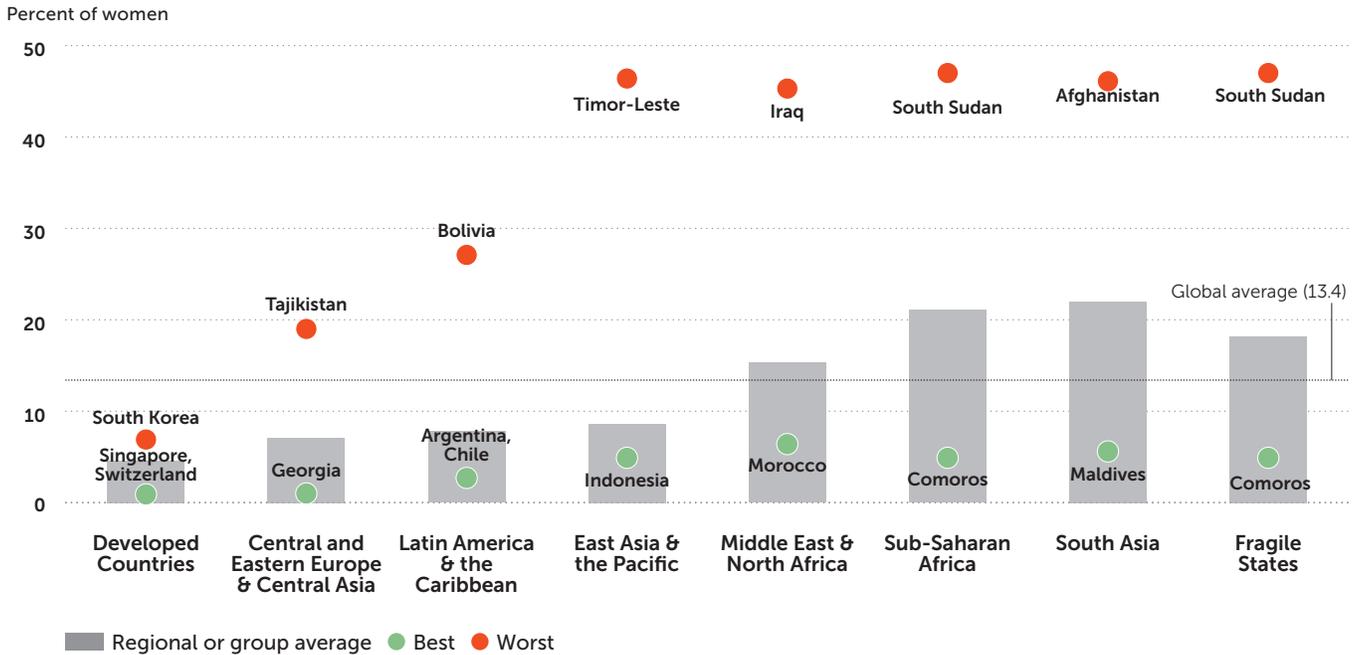
The shift to current prevalence is an important improvement in the security dimension of the index. Focusing on current intimate partner violence rates provides policymakers, women's advocates, and researchers with information on both the prevalence of intimate partner violence and changes over time, along with current risk factors (Jewkes et al. 2017). Lifetime intimate partner violence is a “stock variable” and is not very sensitive to changes over time because women who have experienced violence remain in the estimates until they die.

Lifetime rates are generally much higher than current rates. In countries where the difference between the two rates is small, women may face more barriers to leaving abusive partners, because of restrictive family and divorce laws and a weak social safety net. In such circumstances, it is likely that fewer women will leave abusive partners, and thus the current intimate partner violence rate will track the lifetime rate more closely. In Afghanistan, for example, the difference between lifetime and current intimate partner violence rates is small (4.7 percentage points), and the current rate is high, at 46 percent. Further research is investigating what determines the differences between current and lifetime intimate partner violence rates.

Notes

1. The first edition of the WPS Index identified and included lifetime intimate partner violence prevalence data for 124 countries.
2. Statistical table 1 shows the countries with data on current intimate partner violence reported in this edition.

FIGURE 1.7 The worst rates of current intimate partner violence are similar across several developing regions



Note: See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups. Fragile States are also included in their regional group.

Source: UN Global Database on Violence Against Women and additional studies (see notes to statistical table 1).

world—Nepal’s female employment rate of 83 percent, for example, soars far above the global average of 49 percent.

That there are countries in all regions that have met if not exceeded global norms in women’s inclusion and justice has important and reassuring implications for lagging countries.

While the bottom dozen countries perform poorly overall, it is encouraging that several have recently made progress in some areas. Financial inclusion, for example, rose by at least 10 percentage points in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Iraq, and Mali. Libya recorded major expansions in women’s cellphone use, as did Iraq, while women in Pakistan reported feeling safer walking in their community at night.

Table 1.2 shows scores for the best and worst performing countries for each indicator in the WPS Index, displaying patterns of achievement across regions and globally. (See statistical table 1 for details.)

Money matters to performance, but it is not the whole story. Some countries do much better—and others much worse—than their per capita income ranking (figure 1.8). Saudi Arabia, among the richest countries in the world in monetary terms, drops a massive 108 places in the WPS Index ranking relative to the kingdom’s rank on income. Other resource-rich countries that score poorly on women’s

inclusion, justice, and security relative to their per capita income ranking are Libya (96 places lower), Iraq (90 places), Kuwait (88 places), Equatorial Guinea (78 places), and Qatar, the richest country in the world, which drops 70 places. On the other hand, Rwanda does much better on the WPS Index than in income terms, as do a number of other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, including Zimbabwe and Mozambique, and several countries in Eastern and Central Europe and Central Asia.

Diversity at a subnational level: A new application of the WPS Index

The global rankings present national average levels of achievements and deficits and do not capture differences within countries, which may be especially marked in large and diverse countries. When data on indicators are available for states or provinces, the conceptual and empirical framework for the WPS Index can be applied at the subnational level. As a pilot initiative, we calculated subnational indexes in three large countries: China (WPS Index national ranking of 76), India (133), and Nigeria (145). As discussed in spotlight 1.1, the subnational indices reveal the enormous diversity behind the national scores in these three countries.

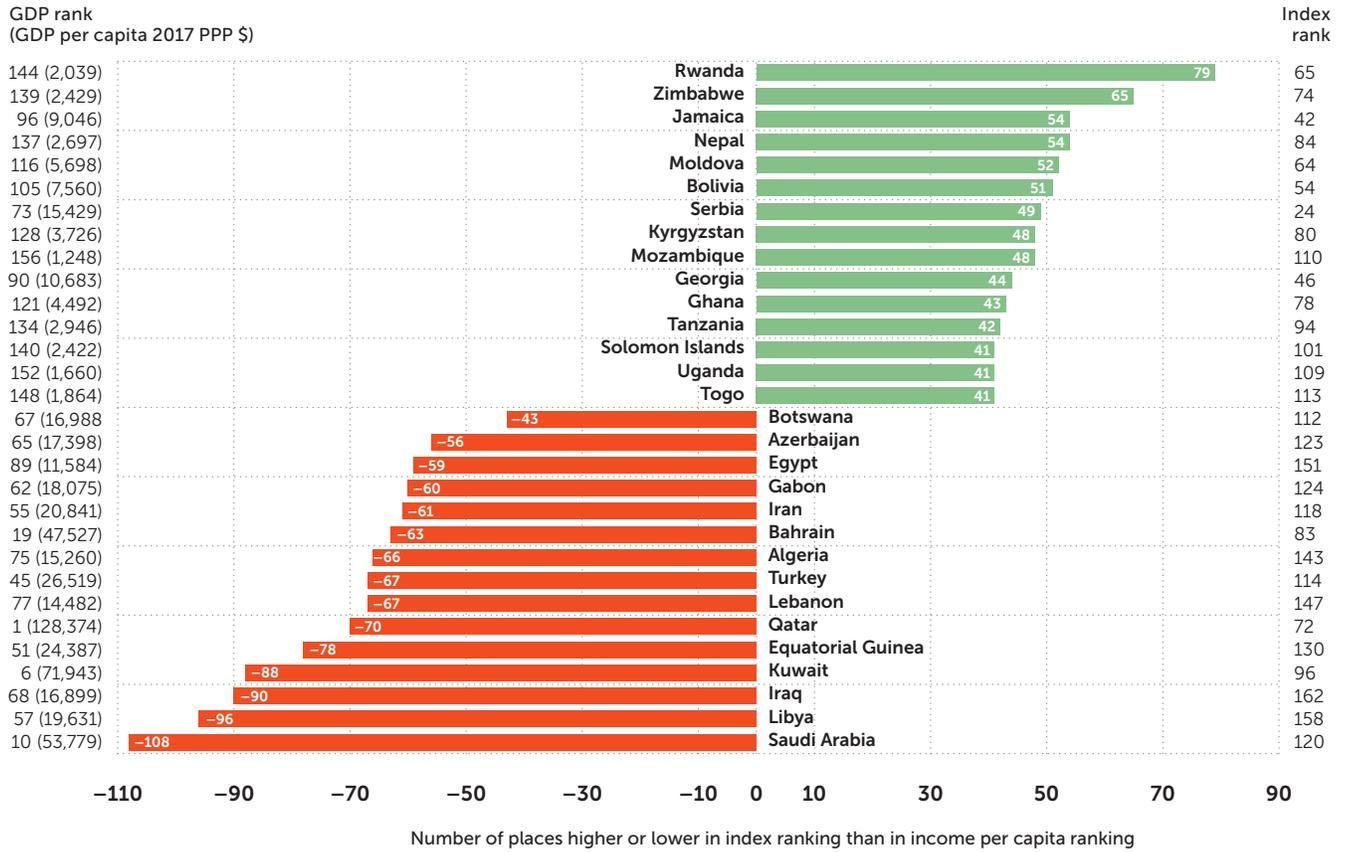
TABLE 1.2 Best and worst country scores regionally and globally for WPS Index indicators

Indicator and performance level	Global	Developed Countries	Central & Eastern Europe & Central Asia	East Asia & the Pacific	Latin America & the Caribbean	Middle East & North Africa	South Asia	Sub-Saharan Africa	Fragile States
Education (mean years of schooling)									
Average	7.6	12.5	10.9	7.6	7.7	5.6	4.5	4.4	4.3
Best country score	14.1	13.8	14.1	11.7	11.6	11.9	10.3	9.9	8.5
Worst country score	1.0	9.2	6.9	3.6	4.3	1.9	1.7	1.0	1.0
Financial Inclusion (%)									
Average	65.1	94.9	66.1	68.2	52.2	28.7	65.4	34.7	11.8
Best country score	100.0	100.0	98.4	95.0	77.8	1.7	91.6	87.1	68.2
Worst country score	1.7	84.5	27.7	21.5	24.4	76.4	7.0	4.7	1.7
Employment (%)									
Average	49.4	52.2	54.3	60.2	51.2	19.1	28.1	66.7	49.2
Best country score	92.9	68.6	65.9	82.3	71.6	64.2	83.4	92.9	91.3
Worst country score	5.3	37.0	28.3	33.8	38.2	5.3	15.0	19.8	5.3
Cellphone use (%)									
Average	80.9	93.3	89.5	87.6	78.7	79.6	71.4	66.3	58.2
Best country score	100.0	100.0	97.3	97.6	94.0	100.0	93.6	87.9	100.0
Worst country score	27.0	86.6	73.2	68.0	65.3	48.0	34.0	27.0	27.0
Parliamentary representation (%)									
Average	21.5	27.1	18.8	23.2	27.7	17.2	13.9	23.1	17.2
Best country score	55.7	47.3	38.3	33.8	51.8	35.9	33.5	55.7	39.6
Worst country score	0.0	11.9	11.6	0.0	2.7	1.0	4.7	5.8	0.0
Legal discrimination (aggregate score 0-84)									
Average	21.9	11.5	18.9	21.4	13.9	38.7	27.1	25.2	29.2
Best country score	5	6	5	13	8	26	16	14	20
Worst country score	54	26	29	38	32	54	46	49	50
Son bias (male to female ratio at birth)									
Average	1.08	1.05	1.06	1.11	1.05	1.05	1.13	1.02	1.04
Best country score	1.02	1.05	1.05	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.04	1.02	1.02
Worst country score	1.15	1.07	1.13	1.15	1.07	1.07	1.11	1.06	1.08
Discriminatory norms (%)									
Average	19.5	2.4	12.3	20.6	8.6	37.1	32.9	15.6	15.8
Best country score	0	0	2	8	4	18	18	6	7
Worst country score	73	14	34	37	22	53	73	33	53
Intimate partner violence (% last 12 months)									
Average	13.4	4.6	7.1	8.6	7.8	15.3	22.0	21.1	18.3
Best country score	0.9	0.9	1.0	4.9	2.7	6.4	5.6	4.9	4.9
Worst country score	47.0	6.9	19.0	46.4	27.1	45.3	46.1	47.0	47.0
Community safety (%)									
Average	63.8	68.9	57.4	77.3	34.1	62.9	63.1	48.0	43.1
Best country score	93.6	93.6	88.4	85.3	58.8	89.8	69.9	85.9	85.9
Worst country score	12.2	47.1	39.4	41.2	18.8	16.9	12.2	23.4	12.2
Organized violence (battle deaths per 100,000 people)									
Average	1.2	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.5	13.6	1.3	1.4	15.9
Best country score	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Worst country score	180.3	0.4	0.7	1.6	2.0	180.3	63.6	20.4	180.3

Note: See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups.

Source: Authors' estimates.

FIGURE 1.8 Countries that rank much better or much worse on the WPS Index than on per capita income



Note: Green indicates a country's gain in the WPS Index ranking relative to rank in GDP per capita; red indicates a loss.
 Source: Authors' estimates. See statistical table 1 for details on the WPS Index and World Bank (2019c) for per capita income in purchasing power parity terms.

SPOTLIGHT 1.1 Behind the national headlines: Pilot analyses at the subnational level in China, India, and Nigeria

The national WPS Index scores can mask wide diversity in achievement within a country, as shown by the pilot subnational analyses conducted for China, India, and Nigeria.¹ While data constraints prevented covering all 11 indicators, the subnational indices for all three countries include measures of education, financial inclusion, employment, cellphone use, and parliamentary representation, which are consistent for each country, though the exact measures included depend on the data source.²

Of the three countries, Nigeria has the greatest disparities in subnational index scores, from .752 to .369. This is roughly equivalent to the difference in WPS Index scores between Mauritius and Afghanistan, but within a single country. China has the smallest range of within-country disparities, from .664 to .610.

Subnational index scores reveal marked geographic patterns, particularly in Nigeria and India, and subnational scores are also correlated with per capita income.³ However, there are outliers in each country, with some wealthy states and provinces performing poorly on the subnational index relative to their GDP per capita and some poorer states doing relatively well. For example, among Nigeria's 36 states, Ekiti is fourth from the bottom in income but at the top of the subnational index. And Delhi and Sikkim, 1st and 2nd in GDP per capita, are just 12th and 13th on the subnational index. Despite economic gains in Delhi, intimate partner violence is reportedly increasing, and women's decision-making power is being eroded (Bansal 2017).

Across all three countries, major disparities are evident in education. In China and India, there is a seven-year gap in education between women in the most and in the least well-educated state, while in Nigeria, the difference between the highest and lowest achieving state for the share of women with at least a secondary education is a massive 71 percentage points.

Financial inclusion also varies widely, by an average of 53 percentage points across the three countries. In China, where the law does not ban discrimination in access to credit based on gender or marital status (World Bank 2019a), the share of women ages 16 and older who have used any kind of banking service ranges from 54 percent in Heilongjiang to 90 percent in Ningxia. Employment reflects lesser disparity across states in China and India but exposes wide gaps in Nigeria, where women's employment ranges from 80 percent in Oyo to below 29 percent in Borno.

Subnational measures of intimate partner violence and organized violence, available only for India and Nigeria, show major internal differences. The prevalence of intimate

partner violence ranges from 53 percent for lifetime intimate partner violence in Manipur, India, and more than 40 percent for current prevalence in Benue, Nigeria, to lows of about 1 percent in Kano, Nigeria, and 3 percent in Sikkim, India. Organized violence ranges from 337 battle deaths per 100,000 people in Borno, Nigeria, and 176 in Jammu and Kashmir, India, to zero in Kebbi, Nigeria, and Uttarakhand, India.

India reserves selected local government offices for female candidates. Nonetheless, female representation in state parliaments has a wide range, from zero in 12 states to 50 percent in Chandigarh (McKinsey Global Institute 2015). China has introduced programs to encourage more female political participation—including training in leadership and politics (China Power Team 2019)—yet the share of seats held by women remains low, from 19 percent in Qinghai to 33 percent in Guangxi.

While China, India, and Nigeria have national laws and policies on gender equality, local customary laws, social norms, and weak enforcement may all impede women's ability to exercise their rights. In Nigeria, only some states have passed laws criminalizing child marriage, female genital mutilation, and gender-based violence, as required by the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women. Only four states (Anambra, Ebonyi, Lagos, and Oyo) have adopted the Nigerian Violence against Persons Prohibition Act of 2015. Northern states tend to be governed by a combination of Sharia law, customary law, and Nigerian national laws (USAID Nigeria 2014). This legal structure is especially relevant for marriage and family relations—for example, marital rape is legal under the Sharia penal code.

More detailed explanations of the subnational index results are outlined below. The rankings and data sources are shown in the online appendix (GIWPS 2019).

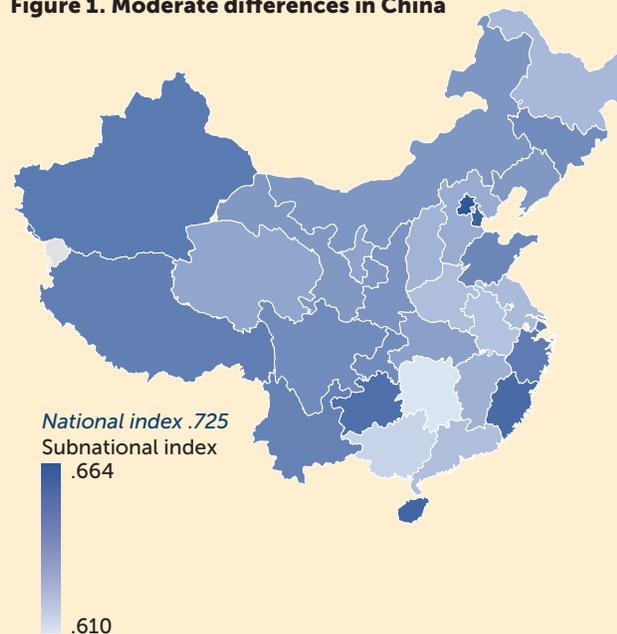
China

In 1995, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action generated political will and global visibility for women's and girl's rights and equality around the world (UN Women 2019). Moreover it is impossible to talk about China without highlighting its recent economic success, dramatic declines in poverty nationally (from more than 28 percent in 2010 to 7 percent in 2015),⁴ and shrinking interprovincial disparities in poverty rates (World Bank 2017a). However, as China has become wealthier, commitment to the Beijing declaration and performance on gender equality have been uneven (Feng 2017). The country's global WPS Index ranking is 76.

(continued)

SPOTLIGHT 1.1 Behind the national headlines: Pilot analyses at the subnational level in China, India, and Nigeria *(continued)*

Figure 1. Moderate differences in China



Source: Authors' estimates.

Given China's size, substantial differences on women's inclusion, justice, and security might be expected across its 31 provincial-level administrative units (provinces, municipalities, and autonomous regions).⁵ Yet the differences are less marked than in India and Nigeria. While some indicators show a wide range—for example, employment ranges from 58 percent in Tibet to 36 percent in Shanxi—the pattern varies across provinces, so that the aggregate subnational index scores reveal a much smaller range.

The mixed performance of Tibet, Heilongjiang, and Guangxi provinces shows the value of multidimensional measures (figure 1). Focusing on a single variable can create a misleading picture. Heilongjiang has the lowest levels of women's financial inclusion but the highest rate of women's cellphone use. Guangxi has the worst son bias (1.23) yet the highest share of women in the National People's Congress (one-third). And Tibet has the lowest average level of female education (five years) but the highest rate of female employment (58 percent).

Multiple studies have shown that income inequality in China can be traced largely to an urban–rural divide, especially in access to public services (World Bank 2017a). Yet, performance on the subnational index varies for two major urban municipalities—Shanghai (ranking of 7) and Beijing (ranking of 1)—and for two of the provinces with the largest cities—Tianjin in Hebei Province (provincial ranking

of 22) and Guangzhou in Guangdong Province (provincial ranking of 27).

About 10 percent of China's population is classified as belonging to an ethnic minority group, with minorities concentrated in five province-level autonomous regions: Tibet (Tibetans), Xinjiang (Uyghurs), Inner Mongolia (Mongols), Guangxi (Zhuang people), and Ningxia (Hui people). On average, these regions do not appear to perform worse on the subnational index than Han Chinese provinces (World Bank 2017a).⁶

Beijing municipality, the capital and second largest city after Shanghai, tops the subnational ranking and has the highest average income. At 12 years, women's education is comparable to the developed country average. Beijing also has high rates of financial inclusion—84 percent of women have used banking services. However, the capital ranks lower on parliamentary representation (24th) and female employment (16th). There is some variation in employment laws across provinces; for example, Gansu, Yunnan, and Tibet provinces all allow 30 days off work for new fathers, compared with just 7 days in Tianjin and Shandong provinces (Dong 2017).

Hunan, a mountainous and mainly rural province in the south-central region, has the lowest subnational index value (.610). While not the worst performer on any one indicator, the state performs relatively poorly across the board.

India

With more than 1.3 billion people, India's 36 states and territories are diverse in size, income, human development, and, as shown below, women's inclusion, justice, and security. Of these subnational entities, 27 had sufficient data for estimating WPS subnational index scores.

The top-performing states are clustered in the southern tip, while the worst performing states lie in a belt across the north and center, from Rajasthan to Assam (figure 2). The subnational index rankings broadly echo state-level rankings in other studies. A study conducted by the *Hindustan Times* found similar geographic patterns in their "Women Empowerment Index,"⁷ and McKinsey Global Institute's Index has three of the top five states for women (Mizoram, Kerala, and Goa) in common with the top five on the WPS Index.⁸

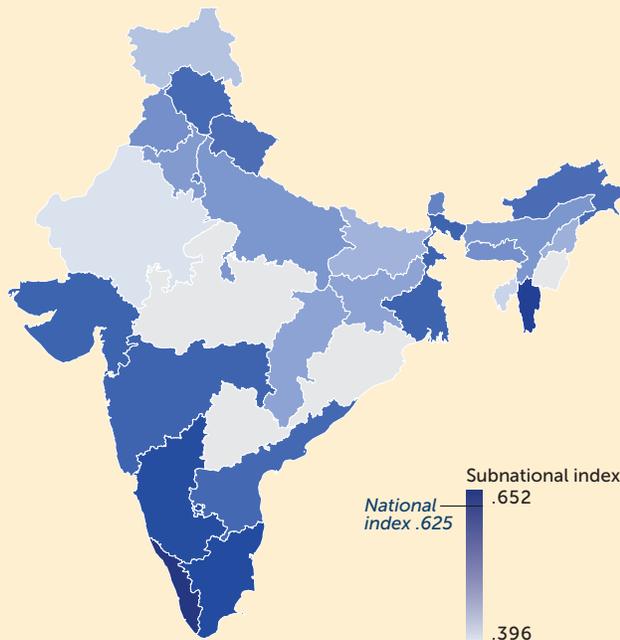
Kerala, the top-ranked state on the subnational index, ranks second for women's education and first for cellphone use and has relatively few deaths from organized violence. Kerala has long been regarded as a success story of human development, yet the subnational index shows that this has not translated into women's employment (Government

(continued)

SPOTLIGHT 1.1 Behind the national headlines: Pilot analyses at the subnational level in China, India, and Nigeria *(continued)*

of Kerala State Planning Board 2016). “Educated unemployment” has been attributed to enduring cultural norms favoring men and the unequal burden of women’s domestic roles (State Planning Board, Thiruvananthapuram 2017). Furthermore, Kerala’s high ranking on the security sub-index reflects low organized violence and intimate partner violence but does not capture generally high crime rates. In 2016, Kerala had the second highest rate of crime under the Indian Penal Code, behind Delhi, and the highest number of cases of special and local-law crimes (National Crime Records Bureau, Indian Ministry of Home Affairs 2016).

Figure 2. Top performers cluster in the south in India



Note: States without sufficient data are shown in gray.

Source: Authors’ estimates.

In Manipur, schooling, employment rates, and participation in household decision-making are high relative to the rest of the country. Yet major gaps persist on other indicators, and the state performs especially poorly on security. Manipur has the highest rates of intimate partner violence and son bias, and the second highest number of recorded battle deaths (organized violence). The state has become known for protracted ethnic conflict, which has been associated with physical, emotional, and sexual violence against women, who have been used as a weapon of war amid heightened patriarchal norms and discrimination (Singha

2017). The net result is that Manipur is bottom ranked on the subnational index in India. This finding underlines the importance of considering security, since measures of inclusion and justice alone may portray a misleading picture of the reality of women’s lives.

Some of the highest ranking states perform poorly on some fronts. For example, Karnataka ranks 4th overall but 20th on the inclusion subindex. Chandigarh ranks 1st on the inclusion subindex but 18th on justice and 16th on security.

Another interesting state is Meghalaya. It is home to the Khasi, a matrilineal society for whom clan membership and inheritance follow the female lineage (Gneezy, Leonard, and List 2009), yet it ranks 15th on the subnational index. This mediocre performance on the index may reflect the facts that the Khasi make up only about half the population of Meghalaya and that the index does not include subnational laws, such as the Meghalaya legislation on succession, in which inheritance follows the female lineage (Nongbri 1988).

Nigeria

Nigeria is the most populous country and the largest economy in Sub-Saharan Africa, with high rates of both poverty and income inequality (Leithead 2017). States vary enormously in religion, culture and language, human development, and income. Nigeria is home to nearly 350 ethnic groups speaking more than 250 languages. All 37 Nigerian states had sufficient data to enable estimating subnational WPS Index scores.

The best index scores are concentrated in the south, and the worst in the north (figure 3). This reflects broader economic and social trends. People in the south appear to have benefited from a demographic dividend (a growing share of working age population), urbanization, rising human capital, and greater job opportunities (Bertoni et al. 2016). In the northeast, a lack of infrastructure, low levels of education, poor health outcomes, and persistently high levels of poverty have been associated with conflict and instability.

Ekiti, a southwestern state rich in natural resources, is the top performer on the subnational index, leading in women’s cellphone use and parliamentary representation. Lagos State follows close behind, with the highest rates of education and financial inclusion but relatively weak performance on the security index, ranking 19 of 37 states. This poor showing for security can be traced to high rates of organized violence and intimate partner violence; almost 13 percent of women in Lagos have experienced violence from a partner in the past year. The city of Lagos—Nigeria’s largest metropolitan area and a major economic hub—has

(continued)

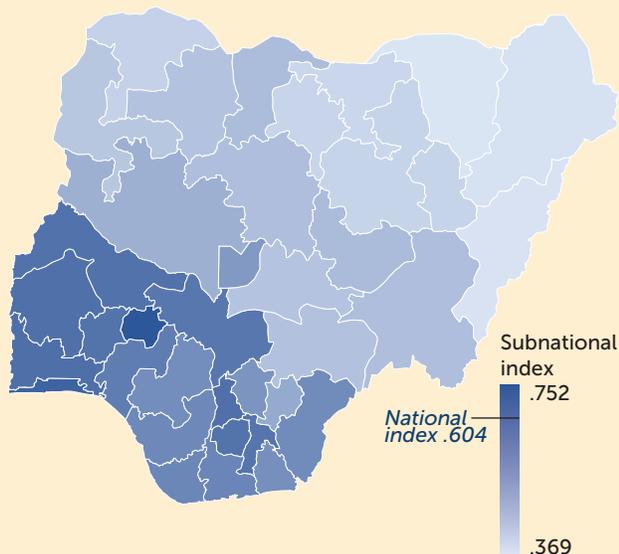
SPOTLIGHT 1.1 Behind the national headlines: Pilot analyses at the subnational level in China, India, and Nigeria (continued)

high levels of women’s employment but no women in parliament. Lagos does perform well on several other health and gender equality indicators, including having the lowest rate of adolescent pregnancy nationally—1 percent compared with 32 percent in Bauchi (National Population Commission of Nigeria 2018).

Yobe has the worst state score, followed by Adamawa and Borno. They have the highest rates of organized violence, largely associated with Boko Haram, although their rates of intimate partner violence are relatively low. Yobe is second to the bottom on inclusion, with the second to lowest rates of women’s employment and financial inclusion and poor outcomes in education.

Overall weak achievements in the states that lag on the WPS subnational index appear to be both a cause and an outcome of insecurity. Conflict has displaced millions of people or made them food insecure. School enrollment has been declining as Boko Haram targeted schools and teachers and added further brutality to its terrorism by kidnapping schoolgirls and forcing women and children to join in attacks, including as suicide bombers (U.S. Department of State 2017).

Figure 3. Huge disparities across Nigeria



Source: Authors’ estimates.

Boko Haram is not the only group perpetuating violence in Nigeria. There are attacks against oil pipelines in the Niger Delta and clashes between communities and pastoralists, as well as other ethno-religious conflicts. Clashes between herders and farmers in eastern Nigeria—which have become

increasingly premeditated and destructive—resulted in six times more deaths than Boko Haram in 2018 (International Crisis Group 2018).

Nigeria has the largest disparities of any of the three countries examined. Almost 75 percent of women in Rivers have a secondary education, compared with fewer than 4 percent in Sokoto. Almost all the women in Kwara participate in decision-making, whereas just over 1 percent in Sokoto do so. Rates of intimate partner violence vary widely as well. Notably, this is the only indicator that is generally worse in the south than in the north. The subnational results for Nigeria emphasize the importance of looking behind national averages, especially in countries with sizable regional and other inequalities.

Notes

1. Because subnational indices do not include all indicators and national scores are not an aggregate of subnational scores, national WPS scores can differ from the range of subnational scores, as with China.
2. Instead of mean years of schooling, the Nigeria subnational index measures the share of women over age 25 with at least a secondary education (National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria, 2016). Measures of inclusion in China (financial inclusion, employment, and use of a cellphone) cover women over the age of 16. China and India include sex ratio at birth. Only India includes the justice measure about perceptions of women’s right to work (Desai and Vanneman 2018). India and Nigeria include the share of women who participate in decision-making (from Demographic and Health Surveys) as part of the justice dimension. None of the subnational indices include subnational measures of formal legal discrimination. Although China’s subnational indices do not include measures on discriminatory norms, intimate partner violence, or organized violence (India’s and Nigeria’s do), data on community safety are available. India measures lifetime violence rather than past year violence.
3. At $p < .05$ for China, $p < .01$ for India, and $p < .001$ for Nigeria.
4. Poverty headcount ratio (percent of population) at \$3.20 a day in 2011 purchasing power parity (World Bank 2019f).
5. Municipalities, autonomous regions, and provinces constitute China’s provincial administrative divisions. In addition to provinces, these include the municipalities of Beijing, Chongqing, Shanghai, and Tianjin and the autonomous regions of Guangxi, Inner Mongolia, Ningxia, Tibet, and Xinjiang.
6. McKinsey’s subnational ranking for China found that wealthier provinces have higher scores on educational attainment, maternal care, and professional and technical jobs, although labor force participation did not follow this pattern (McKinsey Global Institute 2015).
7. Indicators include participation of women in household decisions; ownership of land, cellphones, and bank account; and instances of spousal violence (Bansal 2017).
8. Indicators include labor force participation, share in professional and technical jobs and in leadership positions, education, child marriage, violence by a spouse, and sex ratio at birth, as well as several measures of household conditions (for example, using LPG or kerosene for cooking and availability of drinking water and toilet facilities). The McKinsey Global Institute (2015) study does not include measures on justice, decision-making, or organized violence.

SPOTLIGHT 1.2 How selected countries newly added to the WPS Index perform

This spotlight examines 3 of the 14 countries added to the WPS Index rankings as recent and reliable data became available.

Libya joins the ranking in the bottom dozen, in 158th place. The country performs especially poorly on security. Levels of organized violence are high, and more than two in five women feel unsafe walking alone at night, behind only Syria in the region. More than 1 in 10 women have experienced intimate partner violence in the past year, and laws do not specifically prohibit domestic violence. Performance is also weak on the inclusion and justice dimensions (figure 1). Fewer than a quarter of women are employed, and Libya ranks in the bottom five countries globally on discriminatory norms (whether men agree that it is acceptable for women to work outside the home; Gallup and ILO 2017). Women reportedly face discrimination in marriage, divorce, inheritance, and nationality. They are restricted in their mobility and are highly vulnerable to sexual harassment and assault (UNHRC 2019).

Our measure of legal discrimination reveals 39 discriminatory laws in Libya. Women cannot be the head of a household in the same way that men can, they cannot inherit property equally, and their testimony in court does not carry the same evidentiary weight. However, there has been some progress. Libya recently introduced a law mandating equal pay for equal work (Human Rights Watch 2013; Kesselring 2017). Women hold 16 percent of parliamentary seats, above the 10 percent quota (UNDP 2015). Women played a major role in the 2011 uprising against the Gaddafi government and have been instrumental in rebuilding civil society (Human Rights Watch 2013; Women's International League for Peace and Freedom 2012). Libya is one of a handful of countries (the others are United Arab Emirates, Finland, Bahrain, and Iraq) where nearly all women report having a mobile cellphone.

Papua New Guinea is new to the WPS Index this year and ranks 117th. The country is ethnically diverse, with high poverty rates (Himeleir 2018).¹ Levels of violence against women are among the worst in the world. Almost one in three women have experienced intimate partner violence in the past year, more than two in three have experienced physical or sexual violence in their lifetime, and a recent study reported that 41 percent of men have admitted to rape (Darko, Smith, and Walker 2015).² Few victims seek help, and those who do typically turn to informal modes of redress. In 2013, the government criminalized spousal

abuse. It opened shelters and developed a specialized police division for cases of family and sexual violence. However, corruption and mismanagement have impeded implementation (Human Rights Watch 2015a).

Papua New Guinea is the only country without any female representation in parliament. The country also has 28 discriminatory laws. For example, in cases of divorce, women are often required to pay back their bride price. While about half of women in the country are employed, women average less than four years of schooling, which is half the regional average (World Bank 2019f). Discrimination and low education are also associated with high rates of maternal death amid concerns about the quality and high costs of healthcare (Human Rights Watch 2019a; WHO 2019).

Timor-Leste joins the WPS Index this year at position 80, reflecting uneven performance. As in Libya, women in Timor-Leste were active in the struggle for independence and peace building, and the new constitution guarantees gender equality. A legal quota requires that women make up at least a third of parliamentary candidates (UN Women n.d.), and the share of women in parliament—at 34 percent—is the highest in the region. However, women's political leadership at the local level is limited; almost all (98 percent) village and hamlet chiefs are men (ADB 2014). Only 1 in 3 women are in paid work—among the lowest rates globally—compared with 9 in 10 married men (General Directorate of Statistics, Timor-Leste 2018). As in Papua New Guinea, women in Timor-Leste have limited education—less than four years. Indeed, in 2016, 22 percent of women ages 15–49 had no schooling at all (GDS and ICF 2018).

The record of security for women in Timor-Leste is mixed. Over 77 percent of women feel safe walking alone at night, among the highest rates in the world. Yet the country has the second worst prevalence of current intimate partner violence, at 46 percent, behind only South Sudan. Recognizing this challenge, the government passed a law in 2010 criminalizing domestic violence and rolled out a national action plan for prevention and for services to survivors.

(continued)

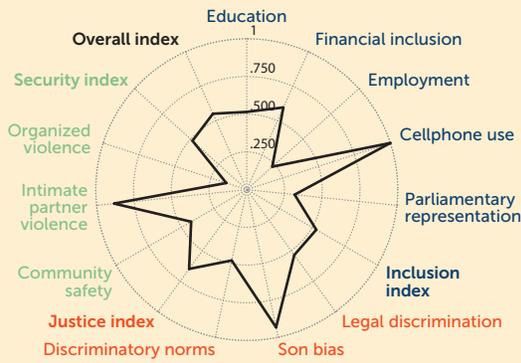
Notes

1. The headcount poverty rate is estimated at 38 percent using the international poverty line of \$1.90 a day (2011 US dollars in purchasing power parity per person per day).
2. Another study by Amnesty International (2006) found that 60 percent of men surveyed in some parts of the country admitted to taking part in gang rape.

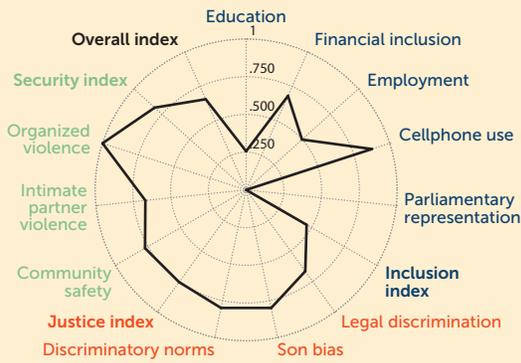
SPOTLIGHT 1.2 How selected countries newly added to the WPS Index perform (continued)

Figure 1. How three of the new countries perform on the WPS Index

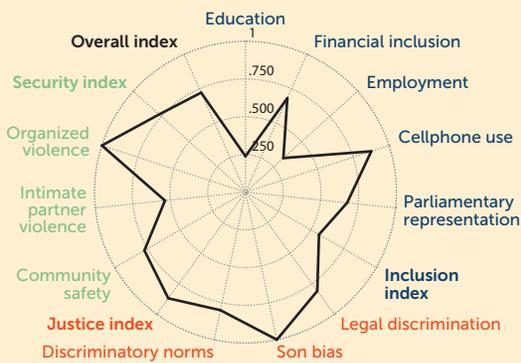
Libya



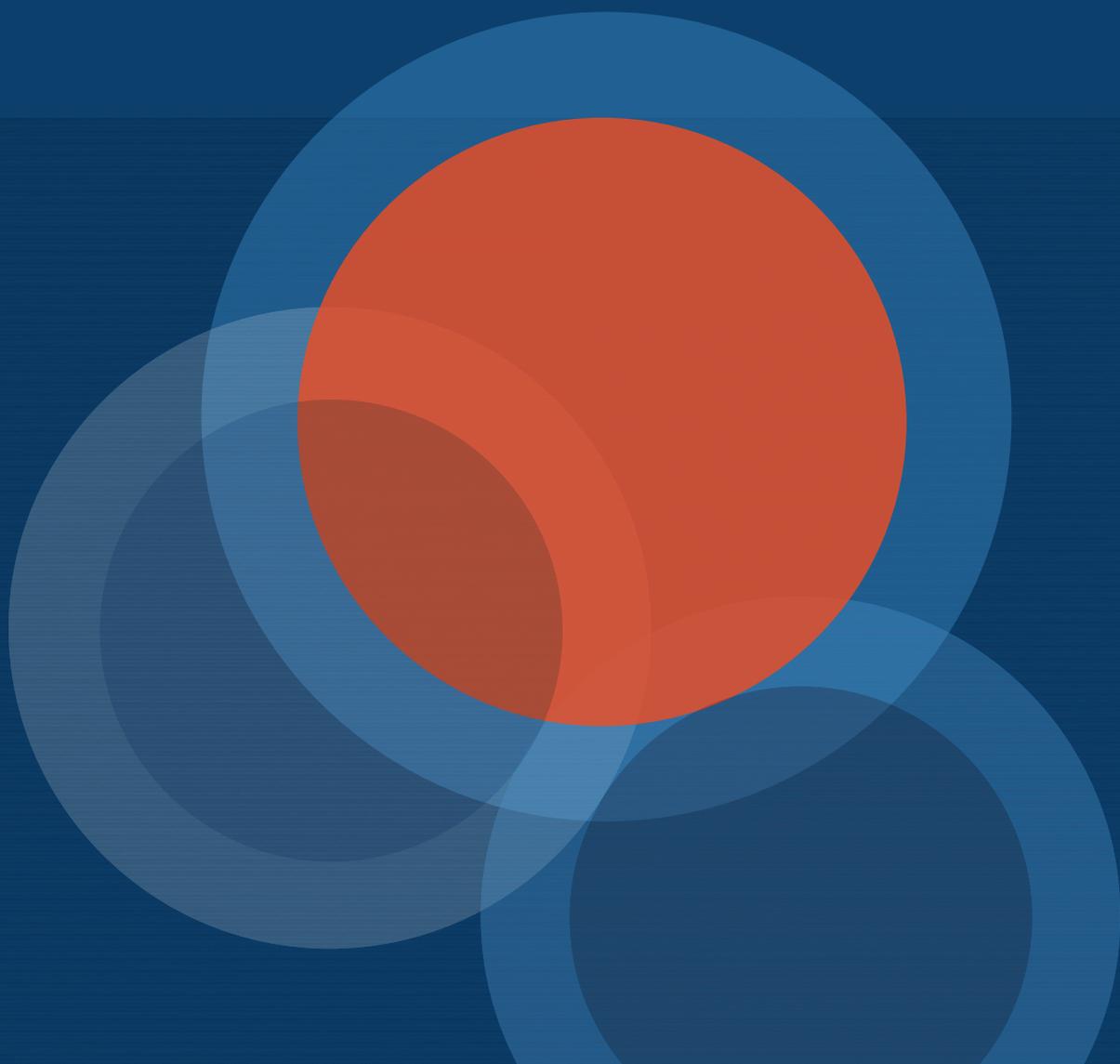
Papua New Guinea



Timor-Leste



Note: Values for each indicator are normalized, so that higher values are better for all indicators. See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges.
 Source: Authors' estimates.



CHAPTER 2

Insights from recent trends in the WPS Index

This chapter explores key insights emerging from recent trends on the three dimensions of the WPS Index. The chapter wraps up with a spotlight reflecting on countries whose performance has changed the most since the inaugural 2017 index.

One welcome headline is that the world seems to be moving in the right direction. In nearly all countries in all regions, women fared at least as well on inclusion, justice, and security in 2019 as in 2017. Indeed, only one country (Yemen) scored more than 5 percent worse now than in 2017, while 59 countries improved by more than 5 percent and 8 countries by more than 10 percent.

What do the shifts in rankings reveal?

The absolute differences in achievement among the top-ranked countries are generally not significant. Norway overtook Iceland to assume the top spot. A key reason for Iceland's drop in the rankings is the deterioration in women's political representation, which had been approaching parity. Political representation fell 10 percentage points to 38 percent, giving women in Iceland their lowest political representation in a decade.

The dozen countries that gained more than 10 places in the index rankings are a diverse set, spread across several regions. Five of the top ten upward movers are in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia (in order of biggest shift: Moldova, Turkmenistan, Armenia, Latvia, and Estonia), two in East Asia and the Pacific (Malaysia and China), and two

in Sub-Saharan Africa (Rwanda and Benin). Major gains in rankings can usually be traced to improvements on all or most indicators, with some especially notable achievements in financial inclusion and legal reforms:

- Half of the top dozen upward movers saw increases in financial inclusion of at least 10 percentage points (in order of biggest shift: Turkmenistan, Armenia, Moldova, Bolivia, Benin, and Rwanda), which can generally be traced to government policy actions, as well as initiatives by nongovernmental organizations and the private sector.
- Moldova's upward move of 23 positions in the ranking was boosted by legal reforms that included amendments to the country's sexual harassment legislation broadening the definition of violence and establishing a central Gender Equality Coordination group.³¹

As noted, WPS Index scores improved by at least 5 percent in 59 countries, while only 1 country (Yemen) experienced a decline of similar magnitude (table 2.1).³² The "traffic lights" in table 2.1 signal the advances (green lights) and retreats (red lights) in performance on individual indicators. Financial inclusion, education, legal reforms, and parliamentary representation were the biggest drivers of upward mobility, highlighting that progress is being made on multiple—but not all—fronts.

Ten countries have remained stuck in the bottom dozen positions globally since the first edition, while three countries (Cameroon, Lebanon, and Niger) moved up from there.³³

TABLE 2.1 Improving trends on the WPS Index and indicators (continued)

2019 WPS Index rank	Country	Inclusion				Justice		Security	
		Education	Financial inclusion	Cellphone use	Parliamentary representation	Legal discrimination	Son bias	Community safety	Organized violence
130	Angola	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
130	Malawi	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
133	Guinea	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
133	India	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
136	Madagascar	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
140	Eswatini	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
147	Lebanon	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
148	Cameroon	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
149	Congo	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
159	Mali	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
160	Central African Rep.	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
161	Dem. Rep. of Congo	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
165	Syria	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
167	Yemen	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Note: Green (●) indicates an improvement of at least 5 percent on the indicator relative to 2017, red (●) a 5 percent or greater deterioration, and yellow (●) a change of less than 5 percent in either direction. Three indicators are not shown: current intimate partner violence, because it was not recorded in 2017; employment, because the International Labour Organization revised the data series; and discriminatory norms, because there are no new data.
Source: Authors' estimates. See statistical table 1 in this edition and in GIWPS and PRIO (2017) for data sources.

Although only Yemen experienced a significant absolute worsening in its WPS Index score (from .407 to .351), several countries' performance stagnated or declined on key indicators, which lowered their ranking. Our estimates show that 51 countries fell 10 or more positions.

Deterioration can frequently be traced to weakening security, most notably community safety. Explanations varied across countries, ranging from recent political unrest in Nicaragua to limited access to justice in Lao PDR. In almost 50 countries, reported community safety deteriorated, while in 41 countries, rates of organized violence worsened by at least 5 percent, revealing extensive security threats to women's well-being. Spotlight 2.1 at the end of the chapter explores factors behind the biggest movers—the countries with the largest improvements or deteriorations in rank.

To better understand recent trends, we look at what has happened to key indicators for each of the three dimensions.

Inclusion

Impressive but not universal expansion in financial inclusion

Women's financial inclusion is on the rise, up some 7 percentage points globally since 2014. Still, overall, only about two in three women are financially included—meaning that they have any type of financial account, including a mobile account.

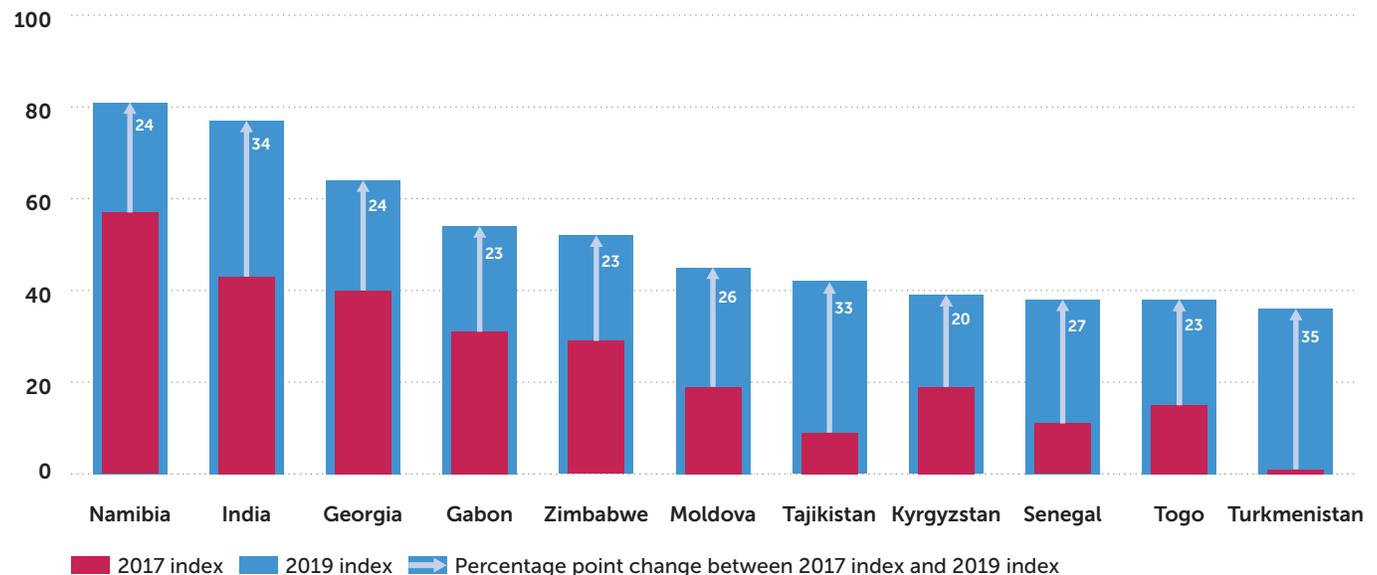
An impressive 85 countries recorded a boost of at least 5 percent in financial inclusion since the 2017 WPS Index.

Among the 10 countries with the largest gains on this indicator, the most notable were Turkmenistan (up 35 percentage points), India (34 percentage points), Tajikistan (33 percentage points), and Senegal (27 percentage points; figure 2.1). In India, for example, the Dhan Yojana scheme launched in 2014 mandates that state-owned banks open at least one account for every unbanked household,³⁴ leading many previously financially excluded women to open their own accounts.³⁵ India's gender gap in accessing financial services shrank from 20 to 6 percentage points between 2014 and 2017. The expansion in women's financial inclusion was also aided by the introduction of innovative biometric identification systems that enable millions of people without formal identification documents to open accounts.³⁶

Cellphone ownership can boost women's access to digital financial services. In Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, the share of adults using digital payments rose from 46 to 60 percent since the first edition of the index.³⁷ A recent study by the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security finds that greater cellphone use by women is associated with a significantly smaller gender gap in financial inclusion.³⁸ In Cameroon, Mozambique, and Mali, for example, the gender gap in mobile money access is smaller than the gap in bank account ownership.³⁹ At the same time, the fact that fewer than 1 in 10 women own a mobile money account points to the scope for increasing access to digital financial services and addressing gender gaps in financial accounts.⁴⁰

FIGURE 2.1 Top 10 gainers in women's financial inclusion since the 2017 WPS Index

Percent of women with financial account



Note: Data are for 2014 (2017 index) and 2017 (2019 index). For Turkmenistan, the 2017 index data are for 2011 rather than 2014.
 Source: Authors' estimates. See statistical table 1 in this edition and in GIWPS and PRIO (2017) for data sources.

Against this good news, however, there are some areas of major concern:

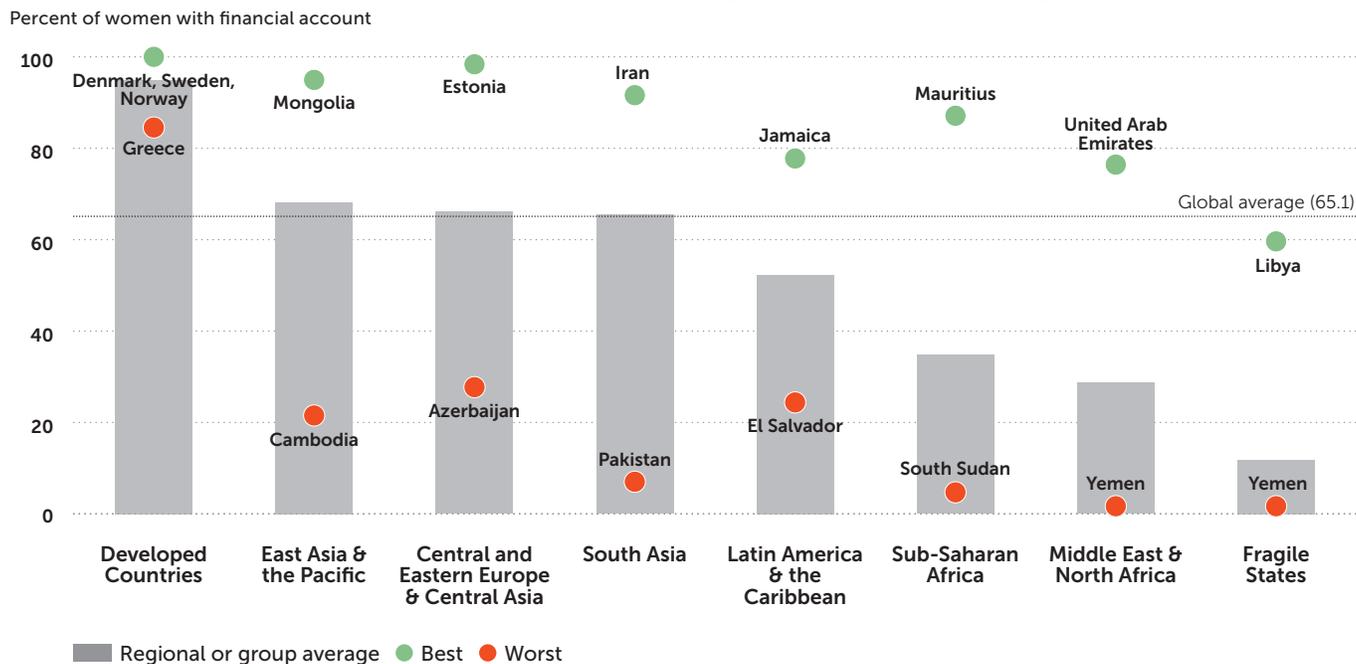
- In conflict-affected countries, women's financial inclusion remains low, averaging only about 1 in 10 women. Conflict and insecurity are major barriers to financial services. Financial inclusion is in the single digits in seven countries, six of which are fragile and conflict affected.⁴¹ In Yemen, under 2 percent of women have access to a bank account or reported using mobile money in the past year, the lowest rate for women's financial inclusion. Additional barriers impede women's access. Discriminatory laws, including restrictions on obtaining identification documents, can make it difficult for women to open bank accounts. Chad and Niger are two of the remaining three countries worldwide where married women require permission from their husband to open a bank account.⁴²
- The regional rate of women's financial inclusion is below half the global average in the Middle East and North Africa and only slightly above half the global average in Sub-Saharan Africa. At the same time, there is a wide range of achievement behind the regional averages. In the Middle East and North Africa, rates of financial inclusion range from 76 percent in the United Arab Emirates to Yemen's abysmal rate of below 2 percent. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the highs are 87 percent in Mauritius and 81 percent in Namibia, but financial inclusion remains in single digits in conflict-affected South Sudan (ranking lowest), Burundi, Djibouti, and Central African Republic.
- In several countries and regions that perform poorly on the WPS Index, laws restricting women's movement limit

their access to financial services. In 17 countries—many in the Middle East and North Africa—married women face restrictions on traveling outside their home.⁴³

- On financial inclusion, East Asia and the Pacific, Eastern and Central Europe and Central Asia, and South Asia, as well as the Developed Country group, perform well on average (figure 2.2). But some countries lag far behind their region. Cambodia ranks last in East Asia and the Pacific, with only 22 percent of women financially included, although the gender gap is small.⁴⁴ By contrast, Pakistani women are far behind men in account ownership despite a 2015 national drive to promote financial inclusion.⁴⁵ While overall account ownership in Pakistan has almost doubled since 2014, only 7 percent of women have an account, compared with 35 percent of men.

Growing cellphone use around the world, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa

Globally, more than four in five women use cellphones. Since the 2017 WPS Index, 94 countries have registered gains, and in 48 of the countries the gains exceed 5 percent. This expansion in connectivity is welcome, given accumulating evidence of the extensive benefits associated with cellphone use,⁴⁶ including unlocking economic opportunities and providing access to digital financial services. Cellphones can improve women's sense of security, promote their independence, and increase their agency.⁴⁷ Cellphone use also increases women's connection to the internet; for example, about 89 percent of Bangladeshi women who access the internet do so using a cellphone.⁴⁸

FIGURE 2.2 Women’s financial inclusion differs widely across and within regions

Note: See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups.
Source: Authors’ estimates.

Of the 10 countries reporting the largest recent gains in women’s cellphone use, 7 are in Sub-Saharan Africa (in order of largest gain: Comoros, Mozambique, Burkina Faso, Gambia, Guinea, Ethiopia, and Mali), and all but Gambia were advancing from a low base—under 60 percent in 2017. Cellphone inclusion also rose by double digits in Bangladesh and Lao PDR, although in Bangladesh, where close to 90 percent of men have a cellphone, the cellphone gender gap is 16 percentage points.⁴⁹ Mexico was also among the top 10 improvers, with nearly three in four women now having access to cellphones.

Regionally, women’s cellphone use ranges from around 9 in 10 women in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia to about 2 in 3 in Sub-Saharan Africa (figure 2.3). Across Sub-Saharan Africa, access varies from almost universal female cellphone ownership in Gabon, Kenya, and Mauritius (close to 9 in 10 women) to around 1 in 3 women in South Sudan and Burundi, both fragile and conflict-affected countries.

While South Asia had the largest recent gains in women’s access to cellphones, its gender gap remains the widest of any region, at about 16 percentage points (see figure 2.3).⁵⁰ A commonly cited barrier to ownership is handset cost, but women are more likely to report additional barriers, such as a lack of digital literacy and security and harassment concerns in conflict-affected settings,⁵¹ as well as adverse social norms.⁵²

Little progress on women’s employment

Globally, the gender gap in paid employment remains stubbornly wide—some 30 percentage points—with fewer than

half of working age women reported as being in paid employment compared with 79 percent for men. The gender gap ranges as high as 60 percentage points in the Middle East and North Africa and South Asia. Recent trends show little change at the regional level, at less than 2 percentage points either way.

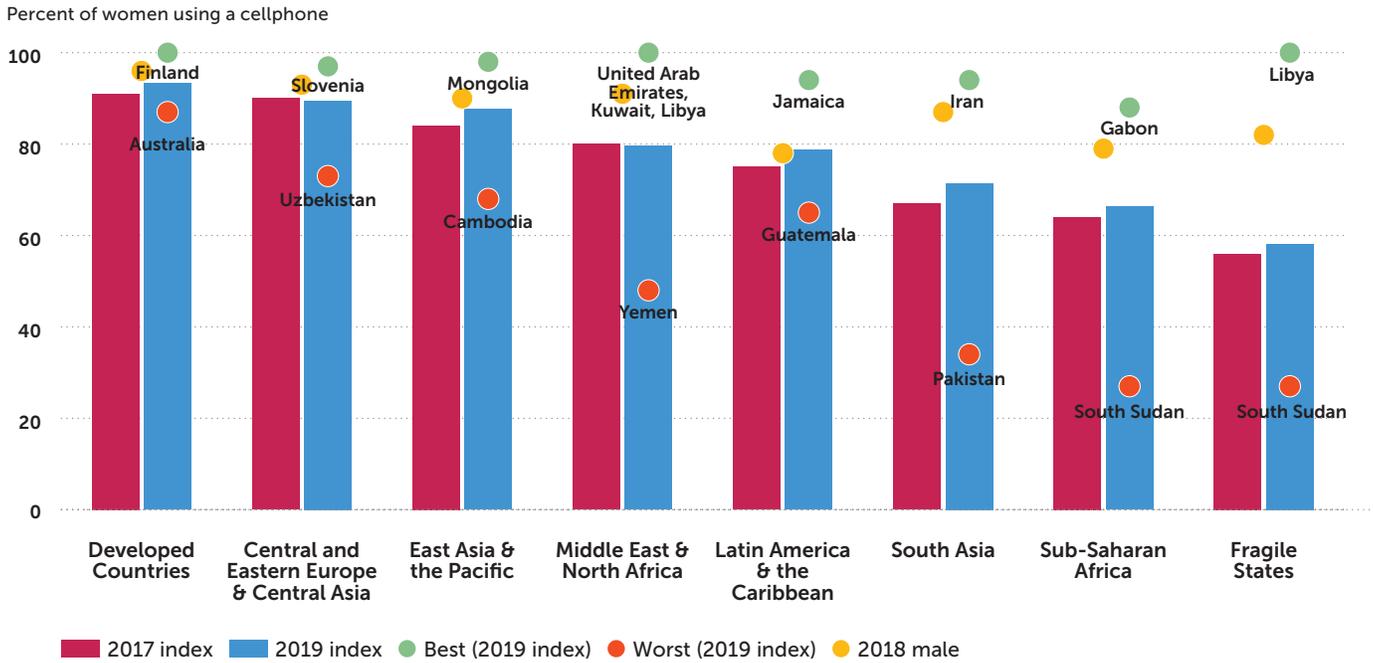
The regional average in women’s employment ranges from about 67 percent in Sub-Saharan Africa and 60 percent in East Asia and the Pacific to 29 percent in South Asia and 19 percent in the Middle East and North Africa (figure 2.4).

While the overall picture has not improved much, several countries show promising gains—most notably Bangladesh, which recorded the largest increase in women’s employment worldwide since the 2017 index (4 percentage points), followed by Bosnia and Herzegovina (3 percentage points, rising to 30 percent).

In Bangladesh, women’s employment rose by almost a third over the last two decades, to 38 percent in the 2019 index.⁵³ Manufacturing became more important, while employment in agriculture shrank.⁵⁴ However, the Rana Plaza garment factory collapse in 2013, which killed more than a thousand workers, and declining garment exports have reportedly shifted women into lower productivity activities; more than 85 percent of working women are in the informal sector.⁵⁵

For the 10 countries ranked lowest on women’s employment, the picture is one of continuing sluggishness on women’s economic opportunities. Eight of the ten worst performing countries are in the Middle East and North Africa. Low and stagnant rates of female employment have been linked

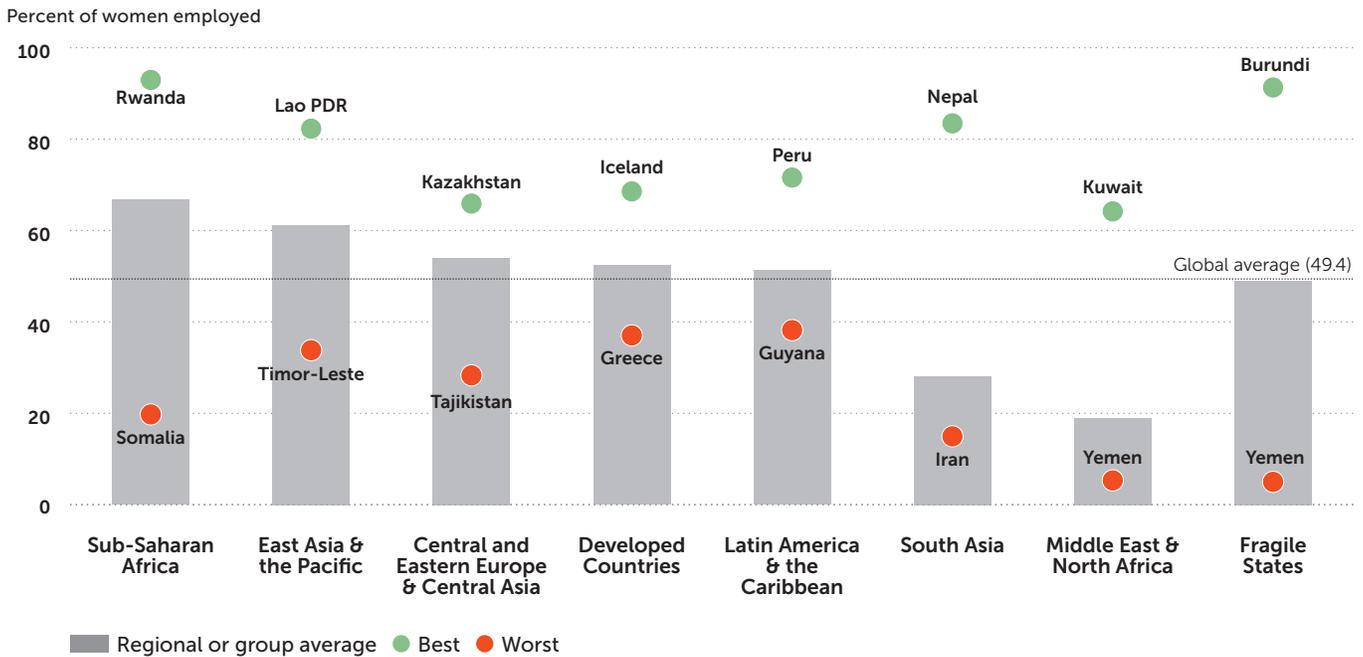
FIGURE 2.3 In most regions, cellphone use is high and rising, but gender gaps remain, especially in lagging regions



Note: Data are for 2016 (2017 index) and 2018 (2019 index). See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups.

Source: Authors' estimates and Gallup World Poll (2018).

FIGURE 2.4 Large differences across regions and countries in women's paid employment



Note: Data are for 2018. See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups.

Source: Authors' estimates.

to a lack of financial services for women and to discriminatory gender norms and laws.⁵⁶ About half the men in Iraq and Egypt believe that it is unacceptable for women to work.

This pattern of low and stagnant female employment in the Middle East and North Africa is a paradox, given rising levels of educational attainment among women and girls in the region. A recent study suggests that diminished public sector employment opportunities have hurt women more than men.⁵⁷ Women's restricted economic opportunities stand in contrast to their aspirations: about 60 percent of women in Egypt and Jordan agreed with the statement in the World

Values Survey that "Having a job is the best way for a woman to be an independent person."⁵⁸

The record of the two lowest ranked countries in the world on women's employment, Yemen (5 percent) and Syria (12 percent), has deteriorated further over the past decade as conflict and humanitarian emergencies have escalated.

Fragile and conflict-affected countries tend to perform poorly across WPS Index indicators, and all of the bottom dozen are fragile countries. Of these, 2 are also among the top 10 refugee-hosting countries, while 6 are among the top 10 source countries for refugees.⁵⁹ Box 2.1 reviews the

BOX 2.1 Refugee women and the WPS Index

The global commitment to decent work and inclusive growth defined in Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 8 has proved elusive for refugees in both stable and fragile settings. In 2018, there were about 26 million refugees in the world, up by about half a million from 2017.¹ *Unlocking Refugee Women's Potential: Closing Economic Gaps to Benefit All*, a recent publication of the Georgetown Institute for Women Peace and Security and the International Rescue Committee, quantified the repercussions of this exclusion (Kabir and Klugman 2019b). Gender gaps in refugee pay and labor market participation were investigated in high refugee-hosting countries (Turkey, Uganda, Lebanon, Germany, and Jordan), as well as the United States. Together these countries are home to almost 8 million refugees, or 40 percent of the world's refugees.

Among refugee women, employment rates are highest in the United States (40 percent) and Uganda (37 percent) and lowest in Germany, Jordan, and Lebanon (6 percent in each country, compared with a range of 55–67 percent for host-country men reported by the International Labour Organization). There are also enormous variations in earnings across countries and large gender gaps in earnings within countries. The gender pay gap is highest in Turkey, at roughly 94 cents per dollar between refugee women and host country men (where refugee women earn roughly 80 cents an hour, compared with about 13 dollars for host country men). The gap is lower in the United States, where the pay gap is roughly 29 cents (Kabir and Klugman 2019b).

SDG 5 on gender equality calls for eliminating all forms of violence against women and girls. Evidence suggests that women in refugee settings are often at higher risk of intimate partner violence. For example, refugee women living on the Thailand–Myanmar border with exposure to conflict are nearly six times more likely to report past-year intimate partner violence than women who have not experienced conflict (Falb et al. 2013). According to data for seven Central and Eastern European and Central Asian countries

(Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Moldova, Montenegro, North Macedonia, Serbia, and Ukraine), 26 percent of refugee or displaced women experienced intimate partner violence during their lifetime, compared with an average of 23 percent of other women in those countries (OSCE 2019).

These findings, together with other revelations from the WPS Index on the status of women in fragile and conflict-affected contexts, highlight the risks to refugee women of being excluded from progress toward the SDGs.

Yet refugee women and men are not being recognized and counted as a population at risk and are often invisible in global SDG reporting. The International Rescue Committee found that just 15 of the 46 countries that submitted Voluntary National Reviews in 2018 measuring SDG progress mentioned refugee groups. And among reviews that did mention this group, data were inconsistently reported. For four major refugee-hosting countries (Ethiopia, Jordan, Kenya, and Lebanon), SDG outcomes were rarely reported for refugees, nor was this group identified as a population specifically at risk of being left behind. Refugee groups are also routinely excluded from national data collection, such as household surveys (IRC 2019).

Shortcomings in data disaggregation by gender and for displaced people limit our ability to assess real progress for refugees and crisis-affected populations in achieving women's inclusion, justice, and security, as well as the broader SDGs. Recent moves by the World Bank to include refugees in household surveys and the new joint UN Refugee Agency–World Bank data center are welcome first steps in filling some of these gaps. Improved data would allow the WPS Index to track the impacts of conflict on displaced women and better inform the design of policy and programmatic responses to meet their needs.

Note

1. See Kabir and Klugman (2019b) for primary sources for each country. Total refugee estimates are from UNHCR (2019).

implications of this reality for refugees, with a focus on women’s employment and the risk of intimate partner violence.

Women’s parliamentary representation largely stalls below parity

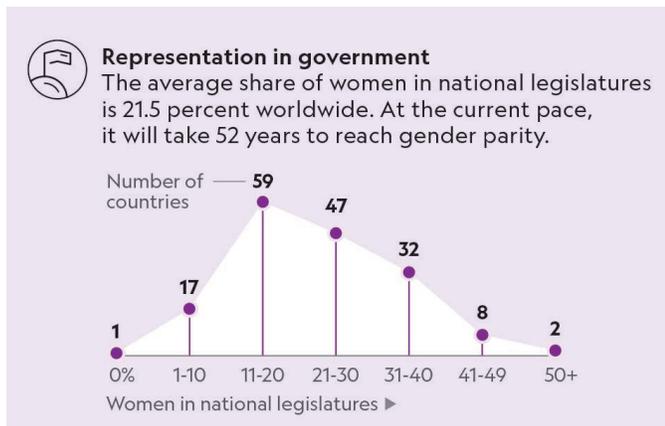
Since the 2017 WPS Index, the global average for women’s representation in national legislatures has risen, but only by a percentage point, to 21.5 percent.⁶⁰ The net global change reflects both widespread gains and some losses across countries—women experienced gains of at least 10 percent in 43 national parliaments, while losses in representation exceeded 5 percent in 22 countries.

Women’s share of parliamentary seats recently rose by about 3 percentage points in Latin America and the Caribbean and about 2 percentage points in the Developed Countries group. South Asia, Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, and East Asia and the Pacific also saw moderate gains on the order of about 1 percentage point. However, even in regions with overall gains, not all countries saw improvements of that magnitude, and some even lost ground. Since 2017, Angola, Germany, Iceland, and Slovenia have all experienced losses in women’s parliamentary representation exceeding 5 percent.

There was no overall gain in Sub-Saharan Africa or in the Fragile States group, and women’s parliamentary representation declined in the Middle East and North Africa, from already low levels. It is thus notable that within the Fragile States group, with women’s representation stuck around 16 percent, representation increased in Djibouti and Chad. Contrarily, there were declines in Sudan and Papua New Guinea. Indeed, Papua New Guinea slid from 3 percent representation of women to zero.

Women’s parliamentary representation is typically in the 11–20 percent range (figure 2.5). In only two countries

FIGURE 2.5 Most countries are stuck far below 30 percent on women’s parliamentary representation



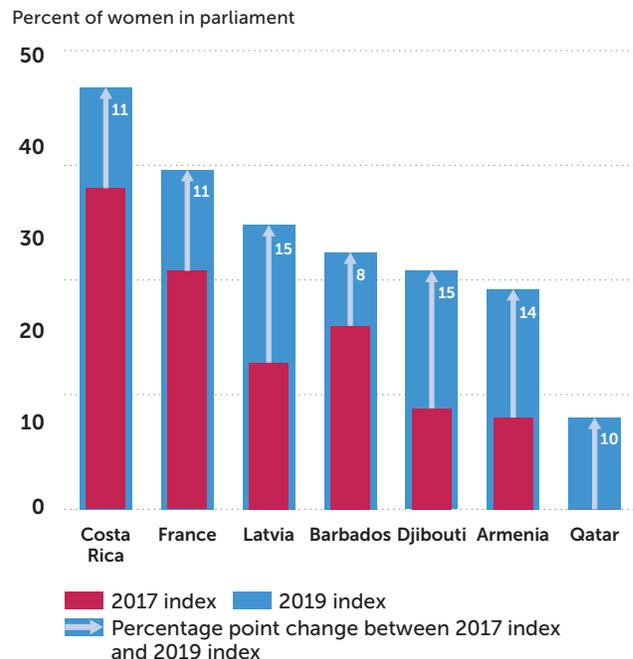
Source: Berman-Vaporis, Parker, and Wardley, November 2019. Used with permission by National Geographic. Copyright of NGP 2019.

ranked in the WPS Index—Bolivia and Rwanda⁶¹—have women achieved parity with men, highlighting that women’s role in policymaking remains limited across too much of the world.

It is nonetheless striking that a diverse set of countries achieved large gains in women’s parliamentary representation. Armenia more than doubled, from 10 to 24 percent; France rose from 26 to 37 percent; and Chile climbed from 16 to 23 percent (figure 2.6). The gains were not always the result of electoral processes. In 2017, women’s representation in Qatar rose from zero to about 10 percent when the emir appointed four women to the Consultative Assembly.

Some electoral gains illustrate recent impacts of gender quotas. ⁶² Djibouti, a Fragile State, saw a 15 percentage point increase in women’s representation after a 25 percent quota for female representation was introduced in advance of the February 2018 election. Similarly, in Nepal, women’s share of seats rose from 30 percent to 34 percent when a new electoral code mandating women’s inclusion on candidate lists was implemented before the 2017 election.⁶³ There are also cases where the implementation of existing quotas has improved. In Mexico’s July 2018 elections, women successfully pressured political parties to meet quotas that had been set at 40 percent, resulting in near-parity (48 percent) for women in both houses of parliament.⁶⁴ In some countries—including the United States—record numbers of women ran for the national legislature, and an unprecedented number won.⁶⁵

FIGURE 2.6 A diverse set of countries have the largest recent gains in women’s parliamentary representation



Note: See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges. Source: Authors’ estimates.

However, it's not all good news. Women have lost significant political ground (at least 5 percent) in 22 countries, with the largest drops in (starting with the largest) Iceland, Angola, Slovenia, Germany, Honduras, Timor-Leste, and Algeria.

What accounts for these setbacks? Country factors are at play, but a few common themes emerge. In some countries, women's loss of parliamentary seats has been associated with advances by right-wing parties, which tend to have lower rates of female leadership and representation.⁶⁶ For example, as the right-wing Slovenian Democratic Party gained a plurality of seats in the 2018 elections, the share of women fell from 28 percent to 20 percent.⁶⁷ In Iceland, where women's representation dropped from 48 to 38 percent, former speaker of the parliament Unnur Brá Konráðsdóttir attributed the loss to women's low placement on tickets.⁶⁸ Iceland now has its lowest representation of women in a decade.

Looking at women's representation over the longer term does show an upward trend. Women's representation has increased globally by almost a third since 2007, when women made up only 17 percent of national legislatures.

Yet the pace of change has been far too slow. United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 commits to women's political inclusion and to SDG target 5.5 to ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic, and public life. On current trends, gaining only about 0.6 percentage points annually since 2017, it will take at least 52 years for the world to reach the goal of gender parity in national representation.

Justice

Moderate decline in legal discrimination

Since 2017, the global average for legal discrimination improved slightly. Legal discrimination declined in 118 countries but rose in 34 and stalled in 20. The upshot is that about 2.7 billion women around the world are legally restricted from working in the same jobs as men, while 90 percent of countries have at least one law on the books that discriminates against women. Moreover, 113 countries do not mandate equal pay, and 94 do not require nondiscrimination in hiring.⁶⁹

Among the 34 countries where legal equality deteriorated, the most marked regression was in Pakistan (ranked 164 on the index), a country where, for example, domestic violence legislation does not protect unmarried partners or mandate equal pay for equal work.⁷⁰ Other countries reporting reversals (in order of greatest change) include Bangladesh, Comoros, Yemen, and Mali. In Bangladesh, for example, child marriage had been illegal until a 2017 law declared it permissible if it was in the "best interest" of the child.⁷¹ At the same time, Saudi Arabia retains its dubious status as the country with the most extensive legal discrimination against women, followed closely by Yemen, Sudan, the United Arab Emirates, and Syria.

The lowest measured levels of legal discrimination are in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and Slovenia. Developed countries have on average the most gender-equal laws, with 26 of 27 countries scoring better than the global average (the exception is Singapore), and 6 ranking in the top 10 globally. Latin America and the Caribbean falls close behind, with 18 of 25 countries performing at least as well as the global average.

The Middle East and North Africa has by far the worst record of any region on legal discrimination—with all 16 countries ranking below the global mean.⁷² In the Gulf Cooperation Council countries, for example, divorce is a unilaterally male affair, and women are entitled to only half the inheritance allotted to men, while the court testimony of two women is equated to that of one man.⁷³ Instances of regression include Bahrain's recent directive that women must obey their husband and may leave the house only with their husband's permission.⁷⁴

While Sub-Saharan Africa is the second worst regional performer on formal legal discrimination, 6 of the 11 countries with the greatest improvements since 2017 are in Sub-Saharan Africa (in order of most improvement): Kenya, Liberia, Eswatini, Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, and Zambia.

Gaps remain between laws and practice in family law

Family law is a critical nexus of justice, inclusion, and security for women. The legal discrimination score in the WPS Index directly considers several aspects of family law: whether married women are required to obey their husbands, whether they are permitted to manage assets, and whether they can initiate a divorce, as well as the existence of laws against domestic violence and laws mandating that employers offer paternity leave. In family law as in other legal spheres, however, laws and rights on paper may not be realized in practice. Drawing on the experience of the Women's Learning Partnership, box 2.2 examines gaps between laws and practice in Brazil, India, and Iran and illustrates processes of reform and the differences that reforms have made on the ground.

Security

Fewer deaths overall from organized violence

In 2018, for the fourth consecutive year, the number of battle deaths declined, although the total numbers still greatly exceeded 2010 levels (figure 2.7).

This is a welcome reversal from the tripling of battle deaths during 2012–14 at the end of a historically peaceful decade. The 2012–14 upsurge was driven by increases in state-based conflict, in particular the establishment of the self-proclaimed Islamic State and its expansion beyond Iraq.⁷⁵ Nonstate conflict also increased, with as many as two-thirds of the fatalities in just two countries: Mexico and Syria.⁷⁶

The recent decline in the number of battle deaths is due largely to subsiding state-based conflict. Several conflicts,

BOX 2.2 Understanding gaps between law and practice: Insights from family law in Brazil, India, and Iran

The examples of Brazil, India, and Iran demonstrate the importance of having family laws on the books but also reveal shortfalls in practice. Brazil exemplifies uneven justice in a relatively young democracy, India highlights the challenges of adverse norms, and Iran reflects the casualties of women's rights under a theocratic regime.

Brazil's transition from a military dictatorship to democracy in the 1980s facilitated public discussion of gender inequality. Feminist campaigns led to a constitutional amendment guaranteeing equal protection for all family members and committing the government to reducing domestic violence. The landmark Maria da Penha Law on Domestic and Family Violence of 2006 affirmed that domestic abuse is a violation of human rights and increased penalties for perpetrators. In 2015, Brazil ratified a law criminalizing femicide.

These reforms are reflected in Brazil's relatively good legal discrimination score, which is almost one-third above the global average. However, the gap between Brazil's rank on legal discrimination (58) and its overall rank on the WPS Index (98) suggests that while legal protection is an important part of the gender equality architecture, a broader set of factors shape women's well-being. Nearly three-quarters of Brazilian women report feeling unsafe when walking alone at night. Estimates indicate that only a quarter of domestic violence survivors reach out to authorities—given understaffed and undertrained police who reportedly often dismiss such cases or require women to recount their stories in

open reception areas with no privacy (Human Rights Watch 2017).

By way of contrast, legal discrimination is more pervasive in **India**, even if the national constitution guarantees equality before the law and nondiscrimination on the basis of sex. The Protection of Women from Domestic Violence Act of 2006 increased sanctions against perpetrators, affirmed the protection of women within the family, and recognized gender-based violence as a public health issue. Still, about one in five women experienced intimate partner violence in the past year, and one in three report feeling unsafe when walking alone at night.

The 1979 Islamic Revolution crippled women's rights in **Iran** by suspending the Family Protection Law, removing women's rights to divorce, marriage, and child custody. Despite partial restorations of women's rights—for example, during the Iran–Iraq war of the 1980s Ayatollah Khomeini granted widows some inheritance and child custody rights—Iran still ranks among the bottom dozen countries on legal discrimination. Patriarchal attitudes compound legal injustice, and adverse gender norms still shape behavior. Nearly two in five Iranian men believe that it is unacceptable for women to work outside the home, and 15 percent of women have experienced intimate partner violence in the past year.

Source: Mahnaz Afkhami, Women's Learning Partnership, drawing on Afkhami, Ertürk, and Mayer (2019).

including those in Iraq and Syria, have de-escalated considerably. In Syria, the total number of battle deaths more than halved, from 49,110 in 2016 to 19,740 in 2018.

De-escalation is driving the overall declines in measured organized violence rather than fewer conflicts. Indeed, the number of conflicts increased slightly, from 52 in 2017 to 54 in 2018, the highest number on record. Moreover, the decline in death rates was not universal. In Yemen, fatalities almost doubled as the conflict intensified and external actors entered the arena.⁷⁷

Nonstate conflict remains at a historically high level, accounting for almost 18,300 deaths in 2018, a level almost as high as in 2017. A preponderance of the fatalities from nonstate conflict occurred in Mexico and Syria.

One-sided violence is on the decline, in the number of both conflicts and fatalities. The Islamic State remains the group most heavily involved in one-sided violence, although fatalities have declined, reaching the lowest number in seven years in 2018.⁷⁸

While the overall status of women remains low in the countries in the bottom dozen rankings on the WPS Index,

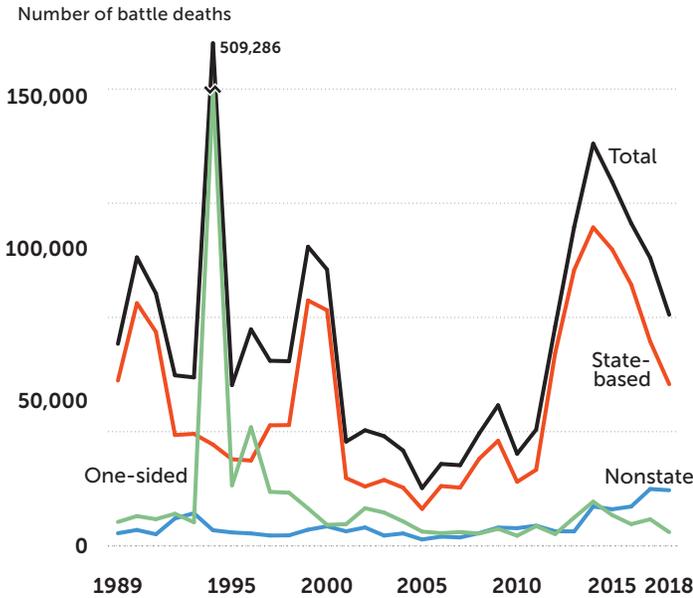
there is some good news in that the number of battle deaths has been falling in most of the countries (figure 2.8). In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the number of killings fell by half between 2017 and 2018, reflecting a substantial de-escalation of the conflict following a peace forum that included religious leaders, traditional chiefs, and politicians.

Still, there are important exceptions—Afghanistan, Mali, and Yemen—where the security situation has worsened in recent years. Organized violence has afflicted all countries in the bottom dozen on the WPS Index. Indeed, only 2 of the bottom 20 countries—Sierra Leone and Mauritania—did not experience organized violence during 2018. The bottom three countries alone—Yemen, Afghanistan, and Syria—accounted for two-thirds of all killings through organized violence.

The security dimension is important for a comprehensive picture of women's well-being

The relationship between organized violence and a low rating on the WPS Index does not mean that the organized violence indicator dominates the index results. When the index is

FIGURE 2.7 Total battle deaths have declined globally since the 2012–14 peak



Note: Half a million people are estimated to have been killed in the Rwandan genocide in 1994.
 Source: Authors' estimates. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

re-estimated excluding organized violence, two-thirds of the countries change fewer than 10 places.

The 51 countries that change more than 10 places either have little or no organized violence and do relatively poorly

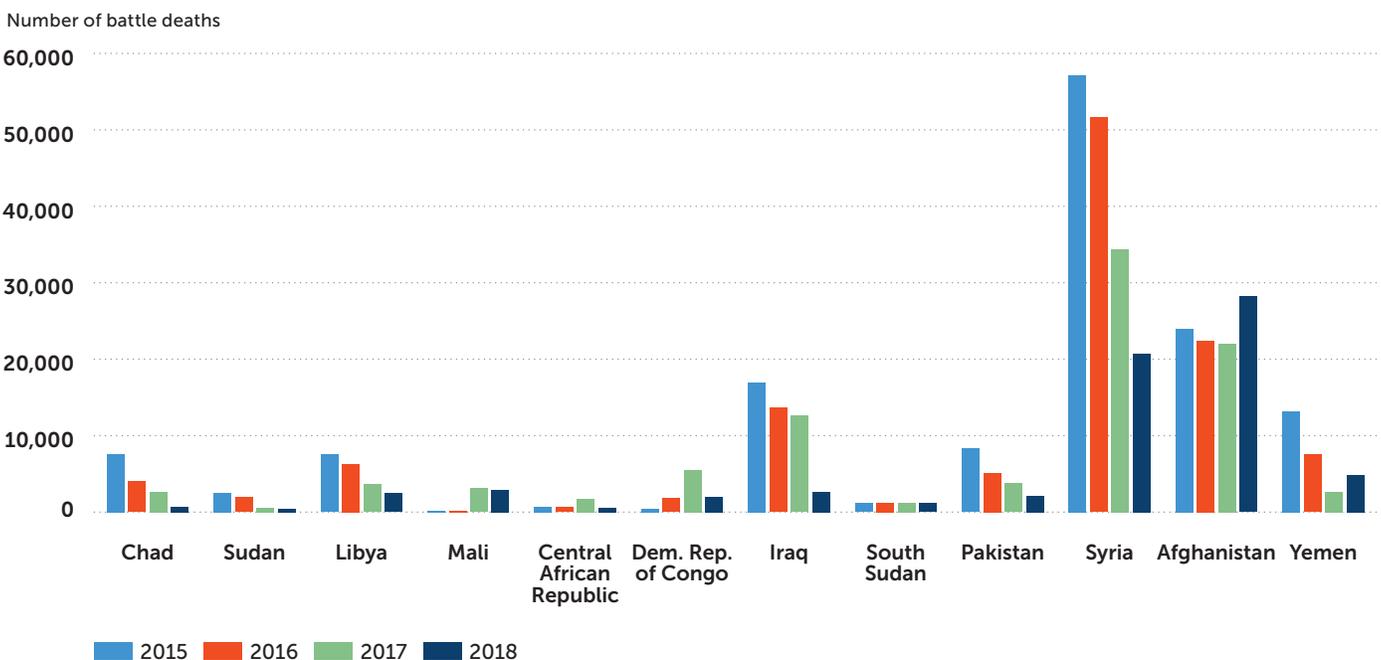
on other indicators, or have high levels of organized violence and do relatively well on other indicators. Gabon, ranking 124 on the index, is an example of the first group, with no organized violence; it slips to 151 when the index includes only the other indicators. Mexico is in the second group: it does much better when organized violence is removed from the calculations, improving in rank from 103 to 66. Mexico's rank based on the full WPS Index appropriately reflects the devastating effects of pervasive violence on its people.

While many of the countries at the bottom of the WPS Index ranking are afflicted by extensive organized violence, they perform poorly on the index even when organized violence is excluded (table 2.2). Indeed, no country in the bottom seven changes more than one spot, while in the bottom dozen, the biggest change is an improvement of 13 spots, for Libya.

This analysis emphasizes an important point: just as good things often go together so do bad things. In particular, organized violence has widespread repercussions for multiple aspects of women's well-being. As empirical work reviewed in chapter 3 indicates, weak achievements in women's inclusion, justice, and other aspects of security can increase the likelihood of conflict.

Correlations across indicators in the security dimension are also revealing. While community safety is not correlated with organized violence, intimate partner violence is strongly correlated with it. There is also a strong correlation between lack of community safety and intimate partner violence, as discussed in chapter 3.

FIGURE 2.8 A mixed picture of trends in organized violence in the bottom dozen countries on the WPS Index



Source: UCDP n.d.

TABLE 2.2 The position of most of the bottom dozen ranking countries changes little when organized violence is excluded from the index

Country	WPS Index rank	Change in rank when organized violence is excluded
Chad	156	0
Sudan	157	9
Libya	158	13
Mali	159	7
Central African Rep.	160	8
Dem. Rep. of Congo	161	0
Iraq	162	0
South Sudan	163	0
Pakistan	164	0
Syria	165	0
Afghanistan	166	-1
Yemen	167	1

Note: See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges.
Source: Authors' estimates.

The way organized violence undermines Mexico's achievements in women's inclusion and justice underlines why the security dimension is vital for a comprehensive picture of women's well-being. To further illustrate this point, we recalculated the index for the inclusion and justice dimensions only, which is similar to the approach taken

in most other global gender indices, which omit the security dimension.

Compare the cases of Venezuela and Singapore. If limited to the inclusion and justice dimensions, these two countries have similar rankings (47 and 43). However, the countries are very different on the security front. While Venezuela is embroiled in political crisis, Singapore has been free of organized violence. Fewer than one in five women in Venezuela report that they feel safe in their neighborhood, whereas nearly all women in Singapore do (94 percent). Rates of intimate partner violence also differ starkly. While 12 percent of women in Venezuela report that they have been victims of intimate partner violence in the last 12 months, less than 1 percent of women in Singapore report being victims, the lowest rate in the world.

Thus, the security dimension enables a much more complete assessment of women's well-being: on the full WPS Index, Singapore ranks 23 and Venezuela 84.

* * *

This chapter explored recent trends in the three dimensions of the WPS Index, showing overall advances on women's inclusion, security, and peace. It concludes with a spotlight reflecting on the countries whose performance has changed the most since the 2017 index—the countries with the largest improvements, and deteriorations, in rank. The third and final chapter illuminates the connections among the components of the index and the importance of policy coherence to the global priorities reflected in the SDGs. The chapter reveals several important ways in which women's full and equal rights are central to women's well-being and to peace and security worldwide.

SPOTLIGHT 2.1 Countries with the biggest changes in rank since the first WPS Index

This spotlight identifies factors behind the biggest movers—the countries with the largest improvements or deteriorations in rank since the inaugural 2017 WPS Index. Fourteen countries rose or fell in the ranking because of large shifts in component indicators—five because of improvements in women’s financial inclusion that exceeded 10 percentage points. Several of the biggest upward movers were driven by improvements on just one or two indicators, highlighting that progress overall is uneven. It should also be noted that 10 countries show large shifts in rank without any significant change in underlying indicators, reflecting the relative nature of the rankings.

Largest rises

Israel rose 46 places since the first edition of the index in 2017, to 34, driven mainly by improvements in the security dimension. Organized violence dropped from almost 7 per 100,000 recorded battle deaths to nearly zero, as violent clashes between the state and Fatah, which had spiked during the 2014 Gaza crisis, diminished. Women’s perception of improved community safety—rising from 57 to 73 percent—could reflect increased levels of security (UNOCHA 2018a) as well as government responses to large demonstrations led by women demanding action against sexual harassment (Ingber 2018). However, Israel still performs worse than the Developed Country group average on this front, underlining the need for further progress.

Since 2017, **Rwanda** gained 29 places, to 65—the third highest in Sub-Saharan Africa. The rise was driven by improvement in women’s financial inclusion, from 35 to 45 percent, associated with state-led initiatives such as financial literacy training (OECD 2019h), as well as the promotion activities of savings and credit cooperatives. With over 70 percent of Rwandan women working in agriculture, forestry, and fishing (Behnke 2019), cooperatives can open financial access to rural women who have traditionally been isolated from the mainstream economy. However, barriers to inclusion persist, including norms that favor male control of assets and income (OECD 2019h).

Moldova climbed 23 places on the index, to 64. That rise can also be traced to improvements in women’s financial inclusion, which more than doubled, from 19 to 45 percent, and to significant reductions in legal discrimination. The gains in financial inclusion may reflect new entrepreneurship programs in which women-owned businesses in several industries have reportedly outperformed those run by men (World Bank 2017c). Law 71 in 2016 established a Gender Equality Coordination Group, expanded the responsibilities of local authorities to protect against gender-based violence, and introduced paid paternity leave (UN Women

2016b), while legal amendments redefined violence to include stalking (OECD 2019g). In 2018, Moldova committed to a National Human Rights Action Plan, pledging to follow international standards in promoting gender equality and combatting domestic violence (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women 2018a). Yet the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development reports that gender stereotypes still confine many women to work in household occupations (OECD 2019g).

Since the first edition of the index, **Turkmenistan** has risen 20 places in the global ranking, now at 60, driven mainly by financial inclusion, which soared from a very low base (less than 1 percent) to almost 36 percent. The overall gains are consistent with recent policy commitments and legal reforms, including constitutional amendments in 2016 that protect against gender-based employment discrimination and ensure equal access to employment benefits (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women 2018b). The government has committed to international standards in its National Human Rights Action Plan and the National Action Plan on Gender Equality (OECD 2019i). In 2017, national policies integrated the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), along with metrics on women’s financial inclusion and employment (OHCHR 2018a). However, gaps remain, including the absence of legal protection against domestic violence and sexual harassment. Moreover, Turkmenistan’s overall performance on the WPS Index remains below the regional average due to patriarchal norms and policies, including travel restrictions and limitations on women’s night and overtime work (Committee on the Elimination and Discrimination against Women 2018b).

Armenia climbed 18 places, to 82, also driven mainly by women’s financial inclusion, which improved from 15 to 41 percent, and parliamentary representation, which more than doubled from 10 to 24 percent. Financial literacy programs for women were introduced in rural areas, and gender quotas of 25 percent were implemented in 2016, rising to 30 percent for future election cycles. However, while the constitution guarantees equal rights for men and women, including in access to credit and property, there is no legislation prohibiting gender-based discrimination by creditors. Financial power is often entrusted to the “head of the household,” which is almost always a man due to deeply rooted norms, and women are frequently identified as “wives” of workers and farmers rather than as property owners in their own right (Alliance for Financial Inclusion 2017).

Malaysia gained 18 places on the WPS Index, to 73, driven primarily by improvements in security, specifically community safety, which rose from 31 to 46 percent. Recent

(continued)

SPOTLIGHT 2.1 Countries with the biggest changes in rank since the first WPS Index *(continued)*

reforms to Malaysia's 1994 Domestic Violence Act expanded the definition of assault, created access to emergency protective orders, and increased protection for survivors of abuse. The government also promised to address the threat of stalking (Women's Aid Organization 2017). Still, fewer than half of women feel safe walking alone at night, and other challenges include the absence of laws protecting against sexual assault in public spaces (OECD 2019f) and reported "moral policing" of women's dress code outside the home (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women 2018c).

Benin climbed 14 places, to 116, as women's financial inclusion improved from 14 to 29 percent. Benin's 2009 National Policy on the Promotion of Gender pledged to strengthen women's access to credit through training and other programs (OECD 2019b), while CARE and other nongovernmental organizations have been working to strengthen women's financial inclusion (CARE 2018). The Miguéze! initiative of the National Association of Women Farmers of Benin for empowering women farmers has reportedly trained more than 5,000 women since 2016 on how to increase their financial autonomy (UN Women 2018).

Latvia rose 13 places and now stands just outside the top 20. This boost was steered mainly by legal reforms and recent amendments to the criminal code that broadened definitions of domestic violence and included psychological abuse. Latvia also launched the 2018–20 Plan for Safeguarding Women's and Men's Equal Opportunities and Rights (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women 2019). Yet gaps remain. For example, while Latvian law criminalizes marital rape, at least as of 2016 no cases had been prosecuted (OECD 2019e).

China gained 11 places, to 76, due mainly to changes in the security and inclusion dimensions. Specifically, community safety rose from 73 to 82 percent, and some legal reforms advanced women's rights. In 2016, China ratified its first national law on domestic violence, which called for the construction of 12,000 complaint stations where women can report assaults (OECD 2019c). Grassroots activities have also had an impact. Since 2017, China's #MeToo movement has increased awareness of violence against women and pressured authorities to address it (Amnesty International 2017). However, there is no law against sexual harassment in public spaces, and China's culture of victim blaming severely restricts women's access to justice (OECD 2019c). (See spotlight 1.1 after chapter 1 for an analysis of China's performance at the subnational level.)

Estonia climbed 11 places, to 12 on the index. The most notable improvements have been in community safety, up from 56 to 67 percent, and significant reductions in legal

discrimination. This progress may be traced to recent government actions to increase the security of women, such as the 2017 ratification of the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (OECD 2019d), the 2015–20 Strategy for Preventing Violence (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women 2018d), and legislation expanding women's access to restraining orders (Narits, Kaugia, and Pettai 2016).

Largest drops

Myanmar plunged 31 places since the first edition of the WPS Index. Its rank of 150 reflects, among other things, the worst rate of organized violence in the region. Military violence against Rohingya Muslims in Rakhine State has caused enormous suffering and led to massive displacement (Myanmar Humanitarian Country Team 2018). There have been systemic, ongoing oppression and gross human rights violations against Rohingya, including harassment, extortion, and sexual violence (UNHRC 2018). Performance on the inclusion and justice fronts is mixed. The militarization that has characterized Myanmar since the 1960s has perpetuated a patriarchal political system and discriminatory gender norms (Ho 2017). While Aung San Suu Kyi is the state counsellor, only one in eight members of parliament are women (Minoletti 2016). Myanmar has 35 discriminatory laws against women. The 2008 constitution guarantees equal rights and protection before the law, but it also focuses on women's role as caretaker and child-bearer (Asian Development Bank et al. 2016), while fewer than half (48.5 percent) of women are employed.

Nicaragua slid 30 places on the index, to 88. This deterioration was driven by women's worsening community safety, which declined from 49 to 39 percent, and may be associated with rising political unrest (Labrador 2018). In April 2018, the government cracked down on antigovernment protests of a presidential decision to cut social security benefits, killing hundreds of protestors and injuring thousands more (Human Rights Watch 2018).

Mexico fell 27 places, to 103. Mexico reports a decline in women's financial inclusion, from 39 to 33 percent. At the same time, recent survey data find that many rural recipients of government cash transfers are not aware that they have access to a full-service bank account (Ibarrarán et al. 2017). Gender stereotypes further restrict women's economic opportunities, as revealed in the large gender gap in employment: 84 percent of men work compared with 46 percent of women. Most (59 percent) Mexican women in paid work are in the informal sector (ILO 2018).

(continued)

SPOTLIGHT 2.1 Countries with the biggest changes in rank since the first WPS Index *(continued)*

Lao PDR slipped 24 places, to 78. The share of women who feel safe walking in their neighborhood at night fell from 70 to 51 percent. Lao PDR reports the third lowest rate of intimate partner violence in the region (6 percent), yet nearly three in five women agree that violence is justified if women do not adhere to cultural norms, and only one in five women who experience abuse report it to local authorities (National Commission for the Advancement of Women 2015). Although 82 percent of Laotian women are employed, nearly all (96 percent) work in the informal sector, often for low pay and in insecure conditions (National Commission for the Advancement of Women 2015). One positive note is rising rates of financial inclusion. Almost 32 percent of women have access to a bank account or mobile money platform, up from 26 percent in the first edition of the index.

Ten countries experienced large movements in their global ranking without any significant change in underlying indicators, reflecting that the rankings are by definition relative. Among the top upward movers, **Argentina**, now at

48, did not achieve major gains on any of the underlying indicators.

Several countries whose global ranking slipped considerably—**Haiti**, **Tunisia**, **Philippines**, and **Tajikistan**—had no absolute declines in achievements but were overtaken by “neighboring” countries in the rankings whose performance on one or more indicators improved.

Uzbekistan and **Saudi Arabia** dropped a considerable distance in the global rankings due to a worsening on the security front—community safety in Uzbekistan and organized violence in Saudi Arabia—and being overtaken on other indicators. And some countries near the bottom of the rankings have fallen further because the 14 new countries entered the ranking above them. For example, **Afghanistan** ranks at 166, which is 14 places lower than last year. **Syria** (at 165) and **Yemen** (167) were similarly displaced. The rank losses should nonetheless increase pressure on countries to renew efforts to meet the SDGs and the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

CHAPTER 3

How the WPS Index matters

This chapter illustrates how the WPS Index matters by examining some key links between the index and its components and by viewing countries' performance against several key global priorities laid out in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (figure 3.1).

The analysis underlines the importance of interconnections and policy coherence. Their relevance is highlighted in SDG 17 on revitalizing global partnerships for sustainable development and the December 2018 G20 declaration on Building Consensus for Fair and Sustainable Development, which focuses on investments to close the gender gap and strengthen institutions for gender equality.

While statistical correlation does not prove causation, the analytical results reported here suggest important relationships that should inform policymaking and development priorities. For example, as revealed below, higher levels of gender inequality in education, financial inclusion, and employment, as well as higher levels of intimate partner violence and adolescent fertility, are significantly correlated with greater risks of violent conflict.

Box 3.1 sets the scene by outlining what peace looks like from the grassroots in three diverse countries—Colombia, South Sudan, and Ukraine—illuminating how the WPS Index matters to local women leaders and to those on the front lines championing women's rights and gender equality.

FIGURE 3.1 How the WPS Index intersects with broader aspects of the SDGs



Source: Authors.

BOX 3.1 A view of peace from the grassroots in Colombia, South Sudan, and Ukraine

The Global Network of Women Peacebuilders (GNWP) conducted qualitative analyses to contextualize the WPS Index, to illustrate what peace looks like for the people affected, and to provide a voice to women peacebuilders. GNWP has a long track record of working to advance the Women, Peace and Security agenda—internationally, regionally, nationally, and locally—and has programs under way in 26 countries.

GNWP's work with local women's rights organizations in Colombia, South Sudan, and Ukraine, as well as in-depth interviews with local women leaders and related qualitative research, shows that women's inclusion in peace and security processes remains limited. Where it occurs, it is hard won and requires sustained advocacy from women activists and civil society.

In **Colombia**, women's groups participated in negotiations that led to the 2016 peace agreement between the government and the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia—People's Army (FARC), ending half a century of civil conflict. While the peace deal included strong gender and women's rights provisions, obstacles to women's sustained participation in implementation include economic constraints and heavy demands on women's time as caretakers and breadwinners of their household.

Women in **South Sudan** were also crucial to the negotiation and adoption of a 2018 peace agreement between the warring parties and are at the forefront of its implementation. However, women's participation required struggle. As Hon. Elizabeth Ogwaro, a member of South Sudan's parliament and a leader of the National Dialogue Steering Committee, emphasized: "Women fought their way into the process. There were no institutions where women were adequately represented, or effective platforms for their inclusion."

In **Ukraine**, women were at the forefront of the Revolution of Dignity of 2014—the public protests against corruption and human rights violations by the government—which began in Kyiv in 2013 and led to the ousting of President Yanukovich. However, men continue to dominate the official peace talks with Russia, although some women members of parliament have participated. As Maria Dymtrieva, a women's rights activist at the Democracy Development Center, pointed out, women often fail to seek redress when their rights are violated because they do not believe that the system will take their side.

What has peace looked like for women? GNWP found a strong focus on each of the dimensions captured by the WPS Index, with some variation across contexts.

GNWP fieldwork suggests that legal discrimination and discriminatory norms are closely linked. In all three countries, even when progressive nondiscriminatory laws exist, enforcement is hampered by discriminatory norms. For example, in Colombia, implementation of the peace agreement, particularly its progressive gender focus, has been slow. Only about half the gender provisions have been put in

place. In Ukraine, the advent and proliferation of "anti-gender" movements, supported by the influential Council of Churches, have constrained government actions to address gender-based violence and inequality. The anti-gender movements have even campaigned to remove the term *gender* from national legislation, rejecting its definition as the socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that society considers appropriate for men and women, which has been widely endorsed by the global community.

In Colombia, women in rural areas continue to face high levels of insecurity, with drug trafficking and illegal mining leading to targeted killings and extortion. As explained by Francly Jaramillo, a women's rights activist based in Cauca Department, one of the areas worst affected by FARC violence, "in some ways, people preferred it when the FARC was here."

One group that faces high levels of insecurity in all three countries is women human rights defenders. In Colombia, for example, attacks on women human rights activists have worsened, and these attacks are an obstacle to full implementation of the peace agreement. According to Michel Forst, the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights Defenders, "human rights defenders in Colombia are operating in a coercive and unsafe environment" (OHCHR 2018b). Women human rights activists also face increasing threats in Ukraine, where activist Katerina Gandzyuk was murdered in July 2018.

The different forms of violence that women face are interlinked. Organized violence and armed conflict can exacerbate violence in the home. In Colombia, where violence against women has been normalized, women's testimony against their attacker is not considered legitimate. As Francly Jaramillo explains, "a man is more likely to go on trial for stealing a chicken than raping a girl."

In South Sudan, sexual violence is one of the major forms of violence perpetrated against women. Rape has been used as a weapon of war and an instrument of terror. According to Hon. Betty Ogwaro, a member of the South Sudan parliament, "no woman feels safe in South Sudan." The conflict has created a grave situation of vulnerability and insecurity for women and girls. Severe poverty has further reinforced such patriarchal customs as dowry payments (bride price) and forced and child marriages.

There is anecdotal evidence that intimate partner violence has increased in Ukraine following the return of veterans suffering from post-traumatic stress disorder and not receiving psychosocial support. Conditions have been exacerbated by the continuing strength of harmful notions of masculinity. Maria Dymtrieva, a woman's rights advocate, declares bluntly: "The key reason for intimate partner violence in Ukraine is the idea that women deserve it."

Source: Drawn from Cabrera-Balleza et al. 2019.

To violence against women

Links between intimate partner violence and other measures of women’s security

The international community has formally recognized the imperative to prevent and respond to intimate partner violence as part of the global development agenda and under international law.

A growing empirical literature is investigating the factors underlying intimate partner violence, focusing on the individual and household levels. Fewer studies have looked at factors at the community and national levels.⁷⁹

To address this gap, analysis by Jeni Klugman and Li Li reveals how macro-level factors—including economic indicators such as female labor force participation, legal and institutional strength, norms and attitudes, and the level of national development—interact with national domestic violence legislation to affect the prevalence of intimate partner violence.⁸⁰ An important finding is that women’s overall well-being—as captured in the WPS Index—matters over and above a country’s laws and its level of economic development.

These findings are consistent with the literature showing that measures of women’s well-being captured by the WPS

Index are more significant than national income in affecting violence against women.⁸¹ Afghanistan, Iraq, South Sudan, and Timor-Leste all have high current rates of intimate partner violence that are well above 40 percent and that exceed the average rates for their region. With the exception of Timor-Leste, these countries are also among the worst performing (bottom six) on the WPS Index. The results suggest that measures focused on women’s well-being and status within society can reduce women’s risk of intimate partner violence.

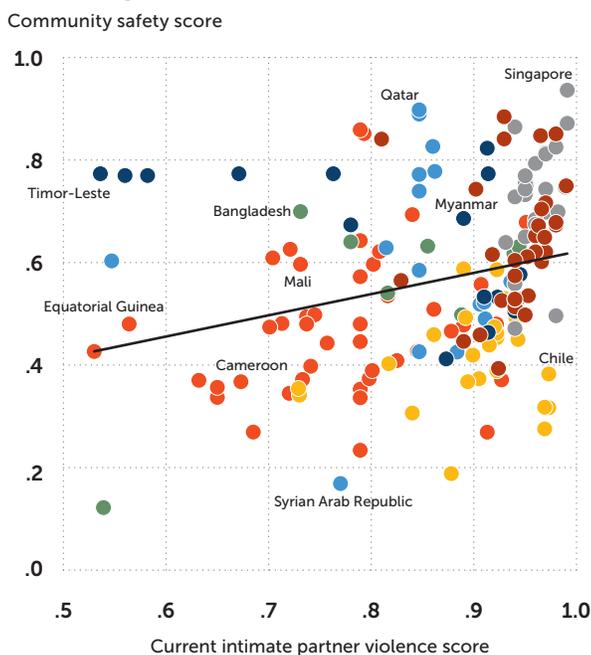
There are also strong correlations between intimate partner violence and both community safety (figure 3.2a) and organized violence (figure 3.2b). This relationship corroborates Gudrun Østby’s finding that organized violence tends to aggravate domestic sexual violence.⁸²

Links between conflict-related sexual violence and the WPS Index

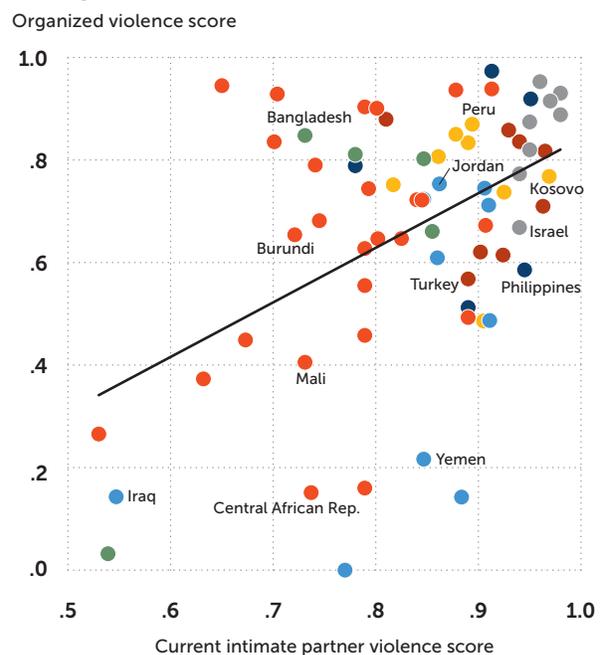
Conflict-related sexual violence⁸³ has devastating effects on victims and their families, eroding the fabric of entire communities and undermining peace and security. Beyond the horrific repercussions for the victims, conflict-related sexual violence can jeopardize prospects for peace and recovery.⁸⁴

FIGURE 3.2 Women living in countries where they feel unsafe in their community or where levels of organized violence are high are more likely to experience violence at home

a. Women who feel unsafe in their community are also more likely to be unsafe at home



b. Intimate partner violence and organized violence are closely correlated



- Developed Countries
- Central & Eastern Europe & Central Asia
- East Asia & the Pacific
- Latin America & the Caribbean
- Middle East & North Africa
- South Asia
- Sub-Saharan Africa

Note: The scores for community safety, intimate partner violence, and organized violence are normalized (see appendix 1 for details and definitions). See statistical table 1 for data sources, detailed scores, and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups.

Source: Authors’ estimates.

Over the decade since the establishment of the Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Sexual Violence in Conflict, there has been increased recognition of this scourge, its impact on international peace and security, the actions required to prevent such crimes, and the multi-dimensional services needed by survivors. UN Security Council Resolution 2467 of April 2019 seeks to redress impunity for perpetrators and allows sanctions against parties that fail to hold perpetrators to account. The resolution calls for safeguarding victims and survivors through legal channels and livelihood support, although it falls short of providing support for sexual and reproductive health.⁸⁵

Despite this international recognition, sexual violence continues to plague conflicts from the Democratic Republic of the Congo to Myanmar. Such attacks have proliferated among extremist groups, including Boko Haram in Nigeria and the self-proclaimed Islamic State in Iraq and Syria. Sexual violence has also tarnished the operations of peacekeepers charged with protecting civilians.

It has long been recognized that the violence and breakdown in law and order associated with conflict, compounded by militarized masculinity and the entrenched acceptance and normalization of violence, can intensify sexual violence against women.⁸⁶ Men and boys, too, are victims of conflict-related sexual violence and face such stigmas as perceived emasculation.⁸⁷

While sexual violence in conflict is being addressed by strengthening security and justice institutions, the UN Secretary-General has emphasized that gender inequality is the root cause and driver of sexual violence, in both war and peace. However since research to date has not yet demonstrated this link, investigating the relation between national performance on the WPS Index and recorded rates of sexual violence can cast important light. Our expectation was that countries that perform poorly on the WPS Index are more likely to have higher rates of sexual violence.

Intimidation and stigmatization of survivors, as well as restrictions on access for United Nations staff, make it difficult to ascertain the exact prevalence of conflict-related sexual violence. Here we draw on the Sexual Violence in Armed Conflict (SVAC) dataset covering sexual violence by all actors involved in conflicts over 1989–2015, including the interim between conflict-years and post-conflict years.⁸⁸ The SVAC dataset tracks reports of specific actors involved in the conflict who commit acts of sexual violence, coding prevalence as none, isolated, numerous, or massive.⁸⁹

We analyze the connection between countries' prevalence of conflict-related sexual violence and the WPS Index by aggregating the SVAC dataset for 2012–15 for countries that experienced country years of active conflict, interim conflict, or post-conflict during the period.⁹⁰

Among countries with recorded conflict, conflict-related sexual violence is reported in almost 7 of 10 (69 percent) countries in the bottom third of the WPS Index but also in about 1 in 4 (26 percent) countries in the top third. Simple

logit analysis of whether any sexual violence was reported shows a significant association, indicating that countries with lower WPS Index scores are much more likely to spawn sexual violence during and in the aftermath of armed conflict, and vice versa. The effect is clearer for higher than for lower rates of prevalence of sexual violence during and following conflict.⁹¹

Our results reveal the broad-based importance of improving women's inclusion, justice, and security alongside stepped-up measures to address the impunity of perpetrators of sexual violence so that accountability and justice become the norm.

Links between political violence targeting women and the WPS Index

While intimate partner violence and conflict-related sexual violence are grave threats, women also face other types of violence, including political violence.

Women's heightened exposure to political violence is increasingly being recognized.⁹² Over 600 episodes of political violence targeting women were documented in 2018 across the Middle East and North Africa, South and Southeast Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, and parts of Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Cases range from attacks against female political candidates in Zimbabwe to hate crimes against Dalit women at the hands of violent mobs in India, abductions of women and girls by Islamist militias in Syria, and rapes of civilian women by the Myanmar military.

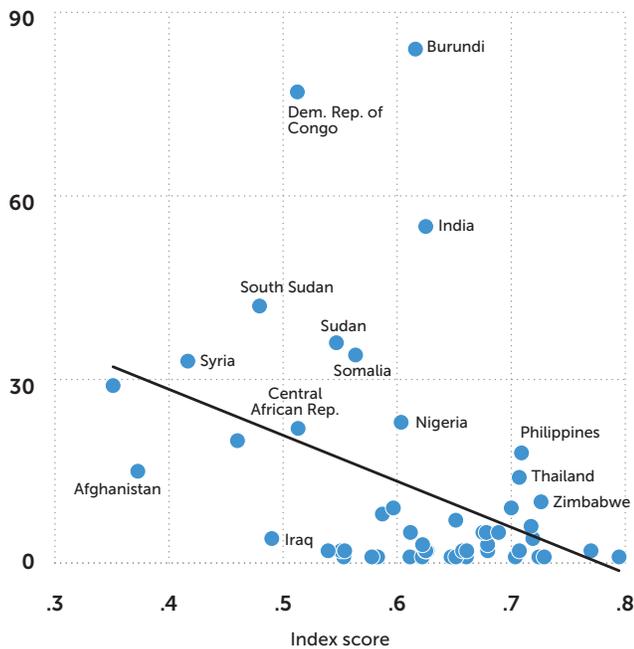
As these examples show, political violence takes many forms beyond sexual violence, including mob violence, abductions, and forced disappearances.⁹³ It can occur during war-time but is not limited to such contexts. "Political" is understood broadly to include everything within the public, political sphere. Women in all walks of life can be targets, not just the human rights defenders and activists commonly thought of as political actors—though those women are prime targets. Women engaging in a demonstration, or voting, or singled out for their own or their family's political affiliations can also be targets. And political violence can be perpetrated not only by state forces but also by rebel groups and militias, mobs, and anonymous groups doing the bidding of others.

New data from the Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project (ACLED)—in partnership with the Robert Strauss Center for International Security and Law at The University of Texas at Austin—capture this wider subset of violence in the public, political sphere.⁹⁴ Updated weekly to allow for current assessment of threats, the ACLED event-based dataset provides information on the date and location of a violent event, type of violence, perpetrator, identity of the victim (ethnicity, political affiliation), and any associated fatalities.

We analyze the connection between the national prevalence of political violence targeting women (reported by ACLED) and the 2019 WPS Index scores (figure 3.3). Countries with higher WPS Index scores report lower rates of political violence targeting women. Interestingly, this relationship

FIGURE 3.3 Political violence targeting women and WPS Index scores are strongly correlated

Number of events of political violence targeting women, 2018



Note: Country sample includes 91 countries included in both the WPS Index and the ACLED dataset. ACLED data include only physical violence, not online violence or other threats of violence. Correlation coefficient = -0.40 ; $p < .0001$. Source: Authors' estimates based on WPS Index and ACLED data (ACLED 2019b).

is stronger than that between income per capita and levels of political violence targeting women.⁹⁵

Behind these aggregates for political violence are some regional patterns in how women are targeted and by what types of perpetrators.⁹⁶ For example, in Africa, sexual violence is the main type of political violence targeting women, whereas in the Middle East and North Africa nonsexual attacks are the primary type, and in South Asia mob violence accounts for a third of political violence targeting women. The groups that perpetrate this violence also vary. In Sub-Saharan Africa political militias are responsible for most political violence targeting women, while in the Middle East and North Africa state forces are responsible for the bulk of such political violence, and in South Asia mobs are the primary assaulters.

Demands to prevent political violence and ensure accountability for the perpetrators are moving to the top of the global agenda.⁹⁷ Our results underline that these efforts should accompany more comprehensive attempts to advance women's inclusion, justice, and security.

To harmful notions of masculinity and gender equality

The global gender equality agenda increasingly recognizes the importance of engaging men and boys to transform

harmful gender norms, enact progressive laws and policies, and achieve universal human rights and well-being. Gender equality is manifested across multiple life domains, making it difficult to measure and to adequately compare across countries. The WPS Index recognizes this multidimensional nature of gender equality and the complex interplay between formal, legal discrimination and uncodified but equally powerful inequitable norms—often linked to harmful notions of masculinity and power—that shape people's lives.

The WPS Index is a powerful tool for tracking progress toward gender equality. Many of the findings in this report are aligned with research on harmful notions of masculinity and gender equality: progress is happening, but it is slow and uneven; violence in the home is inextricably linked to violence outside the home; and gender equality matters to a wide range of development goals and outcomes and can be deliberately strengthened.⁹⁸

Chapter 1 highlighted the good news that the world is moving in the direction of equality, with more than a third of countries included in the index making significant progress, and only one country, Yemen, scoring significantly worse than in 2017. Yet progress is too slow, and women's stagnating employment rates are an important barrier. Women's weak participation in paid employment is driven in large part by gender inequality in responsibility for unpaid care, another area where progress has been far too slow.

As described in the most recent *State of the World's Fathers* report, 606 million women of working age around the world reported in 2018 that they were unable to take on paid work because of unpaid care responsibilities.⁹⁹ And in countries where women do twice as much unpaid care work as men, their earnings average less than two-thirds those of men.¹⁰⁰

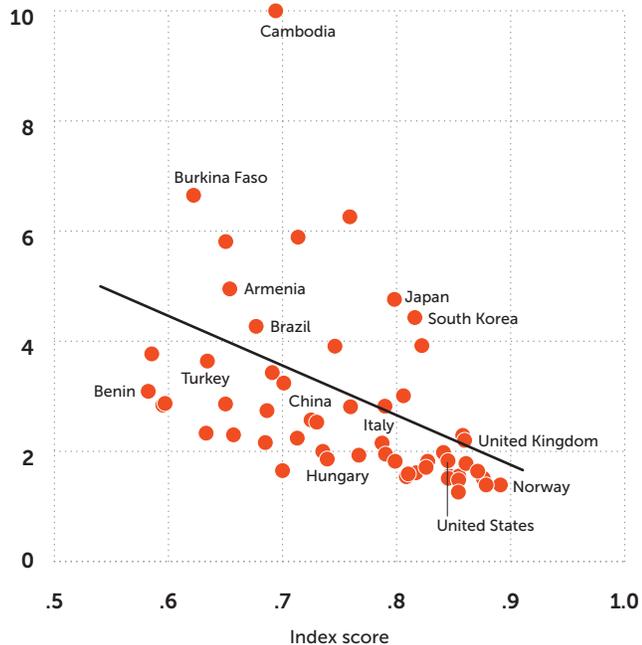
Systematic data on unpaid care is available for too few countries to be explicitly included in the WPS Index, but the links are clear. Our own analysis across 55 countries included in both the WPS Index and the 2019 Social Institutions and Gender Index on the female to male ratio of unpaid domestic, care, and volunteer work finds that three-quarters of the top (more equitable) 15 countries and more than half of the bottom 15 countries overlap between the two indices. There is a clear association between the extent of women's unpaid work and poor performance on the WPS Index (figure 3.4).¹⁰¹ Countries that have a more equitable distribution of unpaid work between men and women tend to rank high on the WPS Index, while countries with the least equitable distributions tend to rank low.

These links between progress on equality, women's employment, and unpaid care, enshrined in SDG target 5.4, reinforce the need for greater exertion on multiple levels—policy reform, norm change, economic and physical security, and individual and family actions—to meet global commitments.

These macro, country-level results on the links between different forms of violence—including an association between rates of intimate partner violence and organized violence and

FIGURE 3.4 High-ranking countries on the WPS Index tend to have a more equitable distribution of unpaid work between men and women

Female to male ratio of unpaid work time



Note: The figure shows the female to male ratio of average time spent on unpaid domestic, care, and volunteer work in a 24-hour period. Correlation coefficient = -0.55 .

Source: Author estimates based on OECD (2019j) and statistical table 1.

between the WPS Index overall and conflict-related sexual violence—echo findings from population-based surveys and other research. For example, the International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGES) in Brazil, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Mozambique, and Gaza and the West Bank shows that men with greater exposure to conflict-related or urban violence suffered more mental health and substance abuse disorders and are more likely to have perpetrated violence against their partners.¹⁰² Moreover, IMAGES and other studies around the world find a strong association between exposure to violence in the home in childhood and the perpetration (for men) and experience (for women) of intimate partner violence.¹⁰³

The WPS Index analysis reaffirms that gender inequality and the harmful masculine norms that contribute to it are at the root of various forms of violence.¹⁰⁴ Taken together, these connections bolster the SDG target 16.1 call to eradicate the root causes of violence in all of its manifestations. Doing this requires gender transformative approaches to violence prevention measures that can change social norms related to gender and address cycles of violence and trauma.

Finally, while not specifically investigated in this report, other research shows that gender equality also has important benefits for men—when women do better, so do men. And most important, we know that addressing gender inequality

is feasible with deliberate and sustained commitment and attention. Tools like the WPS Index and rankings can spur advocacy and action toward this goal.

To key health outcomes for women and children

New analyses reveal that the WPS Index is associated with a range of key health and development outcomes related to equality for women and youth, including fewer maternal and infant deaths, lower levels of youth (specifically women) not in employment or training, and lower adolescent fertility. We examined whether national performance on the WPS Index is associated with two key health outcomes—maternal and infant mortality. There have been major reductions in maternal mortality in recent decades, but more than 300,000 women still die every year from complications related to pregnancy and childbirth, the vast majority in developing countries.¹⁰⁵ Likewise, infant mortality has been on the decline, but in 2016 around 4.2 million infants died before their first birthday.¹⁰⁶

Research suggests that maternal and infant mortality are affected by many common factors, including national income and poverty levels, government health spending, and access to clean water and improved sanitation facilities.¹⁰⁷ The WPS Index enables us to assess the extent to which women's status (for example, whether women attain political power and whether discrimination against women is legal) and well-being (such as whether women are safe from partner and societal violence) also matters to maternal mortality and infant mortality rates.¹⁰⁸

Multivariate analysis (controlling for national income) for 131 countries with data on maternal and infant mortality found that the WPS Index and the inclusion and security subindices are significantly and negatively associated with maternal and infant mortality rates. Specifically, a 1 percentage point (.01) increase in the WPS Index is associated with a 2 percent reduction in the number of maternal deaths and a 2.3 percent reduction in the number of infant deaths. The WPS inclusion subindex is especially significant for maternal and infant mortality. Our finding that the influence (effect size) of income per capita declines when the WPS Index is included in the analysis highlights the importance of the index, alongside income, in explaining variations in maternal and infant mortality outcomes.

Again, these results emphasize how a comprehensive approach to women's empowerment and well-being is likely to produce significant gains, in this case in key health outcomes that remain a challenge across many developing countries.

To prospects for youth

The situation of youth is central to the prospects of both development and international peace and security. The youth population of the world (those ages 15–29)¹⁰⁹ is approaching 2 billion. Some 9 of 10 youth live in developing countries, and nearly 140 million live in fragile or conflict-affected countries.

In 2015, United Nations Security Council Resolution 2250 formalized the global community's commitment to strengthening the role of youth in peace and security. The resolution has clear parallels with Resolution 1325, promulgated 15 years earlier. Underpinning both resolutions is the commitment to promote the inclusion of historically excluded groups—youth and women—in security and peacebuilding initiatives.

A comparison of the WPS Index and indicators of youth well-being finds that the association is particularly strong for two key indicators of youth well-being that are part of the SDGs: rates of youth not in education, employment, or training, and adolescent fertility. Better outcomes for women on the WPS Index are associated with better outcomes for youth on the two indicators, and vice versa. The patterns of association are striking and reveal promising synergies. Countries that do well on the dimensions of women, peace, and security assessed by the WPS Index tend to do well on these two measures of youth status. This suggests scope for greater collaboration to connect these important agendas.

Links between youth not in school or work and the WPS Index

Rising numbers of young men and women, especially in developing countries, are not in education, work, or training. These youth are of special concern because time out of the labor market and training diminishes their future prospects as well as their current well-being.¹¹⁰

Possibly contrary to expectations, many more young women than young men are not in school or the labor force. Globally, 30 percent of young women and 13 percent of young men were in this category in 2018, or more than one in five young people—some 175 million of them women.¹¹¹

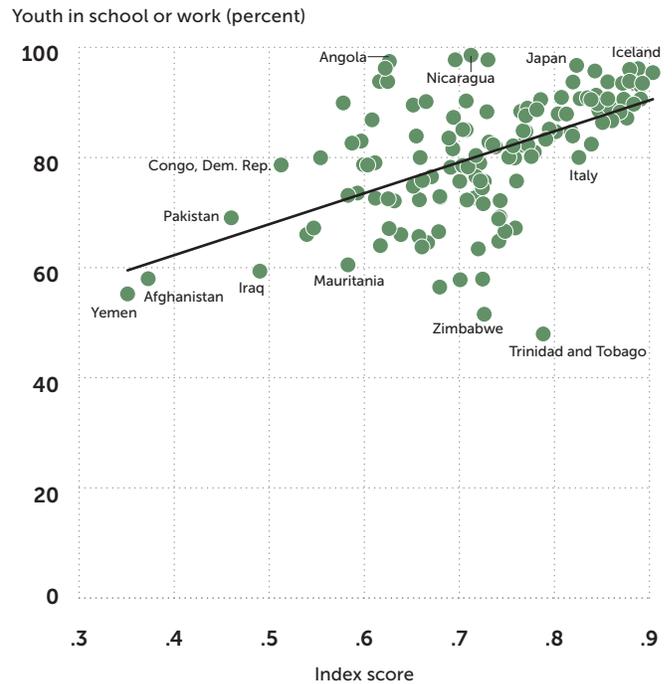
Across 128 countries, the association is strong between the WPS Index and overall rates for youth of being in school or in the labor force (figure 3.5). Norway and Iceland, for example, do well on both fronts, whereas Afghanistan and Yemen perform badly on both. While there are some countries that do very poorly on youth out of education and work but not as poorly on the WPS Index, including Lao PDR and Trinidad and Tobago, overall, the pattern is clear: countries in which youth are engaged in the labor market or in education or training tend to perform better on the indicators of inclusion, justice, and security measured by the WPS Index.

Unsurprisingly, the correlation is even stronger (around .66) when just young women are considered. Countries that perform better on the inclusion of young women in employment, education, and training also tend to perform better overall on the WPS Index measures of women's inclusion and well-being.

Links between adolescent fertility and the WPS Index

Adolescent fertility is an important indicator of the status and opportunities of young women. The risk of dying in pregnancy or childbirth for adolescent women is double that for women who begin childbearing in their 20s. Having children

FIGURE 3.5 Countries that do better on the WPS Index have more youth in school or work



Note: Vertical axis shows the inverse of the ILO measure of youth (those ages 15–24) not in education, employment, or training. Correlation coefficient = .54. Source: Authors' estimates based on statistical table 1 and International Labour Organization data on youth not in education, employment, or training (ILOSTAT 2018).

early in life also greatly diminishes the likelihood that a girl will advance in education and limits her prospects for employment and training.¹¹²

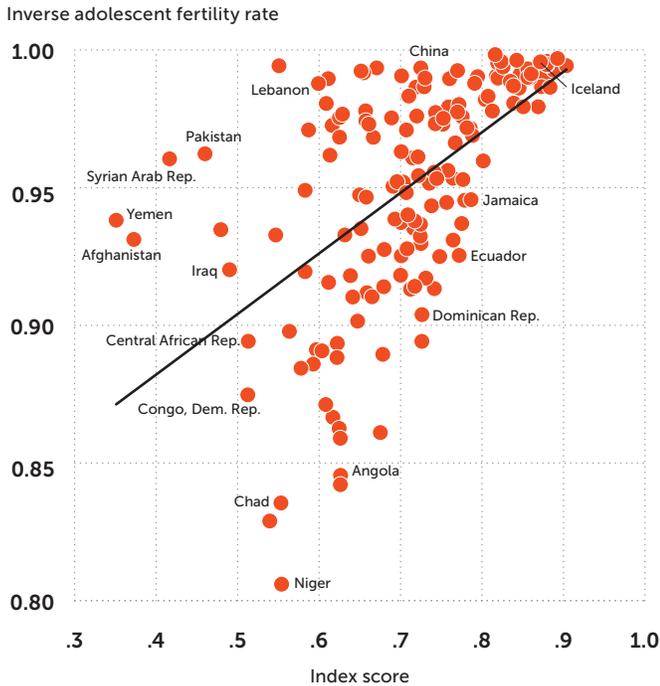
The correlation between adolescent fertility and the WPS Index is strong (figure 3.6). Countries in the top 25 percent of rankings on the WPS Index have low adolescent fertility rates (there are no countries in the bottom right quadrant of figure 3.6, where WPS Index rankings and adolescent fertility rates would both be high). Norway and Iceland do well on both fronts, whereas countries including Mali and Niger do poorly on both.

To the risk of war

Violent conflict, as measured by the number of battle deaths, has declined globally since the end of the Cold War.¹¹³ However, as noted in chapter 1, Syria, Afghanistan, and Yemen are important exceptions, with violent conflict worsening or persisting at high levels in recent years.

While scholars have cited greed, grievance, and weak states as among the causes of violent conflict,¹¹⁴ growing evidence suggests that gender inequality may also be a key driver, in two ways. Gender inequality may enable harmful masculinized cultures to develop and thrive and may create conditions, such as son bias, that facilitate the recruitment of young men by armed actors.¹¹⁵ Valerie Hudson has shown

FIGURE 3.6 Countries that do better on the WPS Index have lower adolescent fertility rates



Note: The adolescent fertility rate counts births per 1,000 women ages 15–19. We invert the rate so that a higher rate shows a better level of achievement, to enable comparison with the WPS Index scores. Correlation coefficient = .58. Source: Authors' estimates based on data from statistical table 1 on the WPS Index and World Bank (2019e) for data on adolescent fertility rates.

that the physical security of women is strongly associated with the relative peacefulness of states.¹¹⁶ A series of studies by Mary Caprioli examine how gender inequality is associated with violent conflict.¹¹⁷

The WPS Index cannot be used to predict conflict because organized violence is part of the measure. However, we can unbundle the indicators in the inclusion, justice, and security dimensions of the index and construct gender gap measures as proxies for socially constructed gender roles and associated power differentials. Analysis by Jeni Klugman and Mariana Volliaz explores how gender gaps in the indicators included in the WPS Index are associated with violent conflict, as captured by data on organized violence.¹¹⁸ The results, which cover 186 countries over 2000–14, are striking.

The analysis reveals significant associations between indicators of gender equality and organized violence. For the inclusion dimension, a 1 percentage point narrowing of gender gaps in education, financial inclusion, and employment was associated with significant effects on organized violence. Specifically, narrowing the education gap was associated with a 0.58 percent reduction in deaths from organized violence, narrowing the financial inclusion gap with a 0.37 percent reduction, and narrowing the employment gap with a 0.69 percent reduction. For the security dimension, a 1 percentage point increase in the share of women experiencing

intimate partner violence in the preceding 12 months was associated with a 1.4 percent increase in organized violence.

A policy focus on gender inequality is critical for reasons both intrinsic (women's human rights) and instrumental (the effect on other important goals, such as a reduction in organized violence). It also has the benefit of being actionable. Unlike other factors associated or potentially associated with war—such as mountainous terrain or a history of conflict—we know that reducing gender inequality is feasible with deliberate and sustained attention.

As a spur to action

Finally, we touch on the broader question of how the WPS Index is being used to enhance awareness about women's status—its importance and the links among women's inclusion, justice, and security—and to motivate action. Because the index is comprehensive and relies on internationally recognized and publicly available data, it provides a credible and compelling ranking of performance across the 167 countries now covered.

In the two years since the WPS Index was launched, it has already proved useful in multiple contexts in bringing legitimacy to discussions of women's inclusion, justice, and security at the subnational, national, and global levels. In 2018, lawyers in the United States from the Montgomery County, Maryland, Department of Health and Human Services submitted the WPS Index to support their case under a provision known as judicial notice, which allows introducing into evidence a fact whose validity is so well known or authoritatively attested to that it cannot reasonably be doubted. Thus the index was introduced as evidence precisely because it was deemed not subject to reasonable dispute.¹¹⁹

The WPS Index has also been used by journalists to link breaches of women's rights to broader patterns of women's disempowerment or to provide empirical context to individual stories of women's unfair treatment and abuse. For example, in March 2019, a Pakistani man named Mian Faisal allegedly beat his wife, Asma Aziz, and shaved her head after she refused to dance for him and his friends. The incident sparked a larger national debate about consent and spousal abuse. In covering the case, a National Public Radio report used the WPS Index to broaden the story about Asma's abuse to the need to address high rates of intimate partner violence in Pakistan.¹²⁰

A range of media outlets have drawn attention to national rankings on the WPS Index (figure 3.7), highlighting remaining gender inequalities and the urgency of action. *National Geographic*, *Forbes*, *The Washington Post*, *USA Today*, *Devex*, and numerous other regional and local outlets have published lists of best and worst countries for women based on the WPS Index rankings.¹²¹

The WPS Index has also served as an activists' tool to advance women's rights and equality worldwide. The index displays countries' achievements and exposes their deficits on women's empowerment. It is intentionally designed to support scorecard diplomacy, providing highly comparative and

FIGURE 3.7 The WPS Index has been widely cited in the media

Source: Authors.

easy-to-understand numbers for calling out low performers while hailing top performers.¹²² The recently published “Women, Peace and Security Index: A Tool for Advancing Gender Equality,” available online, details how activists can use the multidimensional WPS Index.¹²³

Scorecard diplomacy can reframe how we perceive countries, whether as leaders or as poor performers. For example, many Americans may have been surprised that the United States did not rank in the top 20 countries in the first edition of the WPS Index. This was attributable largely to its 66th ranking on the security dimension, reflecting high rates of intimate partner violence (more than 10 percentage points above the mean for developed countries). Former US ambassador to the United Nations, Samantha Power, asked on social media, “Why is the United States not in the top 20?”, and proceeded to list the numerous ways that the United States is not advancing women’s inclusion and security. This type of tactic is a powerful way to call government attention to domestic violence, among other deficits in gender equality.

Governments are referencing the WPS Index in their actions to accelerate the UN Women, Peace and Security agenda. Poland’s 2018–21 National Action Plan for Women, Peace and Security cites the country’s WPS Index ranking as a positive result of national policy actions.¹²⁴ Canada’s Feminist International Assistance Policy credits the WPS Index as a means of building a more peaceful, inclusive, and prosperous world by serving as a global measure for tracking progress in promoting gender equality and empowering women and girls.¹²⁵ Norway’s Action Plan for Women, Peace, and Security references the WPS Index as a tool to identify vulnerable situations in countries where women’s rights are inadequately

supported, enabling Norway to help prevent conflict. The United Kingdom’s House of Lords has twice hosted briefings on the WPS Index to inform members and the country about the status of women’s well-being and the importance of advancing the Women, Peace and Security agenda.

A range of international organizations have welcomed the WPS Index as a tool to measure women’s empowerment within a security framework. The WPS Index was launched at the United Nations, and several UN Permanent Representatives—including from Bolivia, Jamaica, and Slovenia—have referenced the WPS Index during Security Council debates. The index was shared at a UN peacekeeping meeting in Addis Ababa and presented at NATO in Brussels and at the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe in Vienna to inform and broaden the understanding of women’s inclusion, justice, and security.

The WPS Index is also contributing to academic and policy discussions about women’s well-being worldwide. The inaugural *Oxford Handbook of Women, Peace and Security* includes a chapter on the WPS Index.¹²⁶ The index was also cited in the report of the High Level Group on Justice for Women and in a recent Special Report of the Armed Conflict Location and Event Data Project on gender, inclusion, and conflict, among other publications.

In all these ways, the WPS Index reveals that promoting gender equality and increasing women’s inclusion, justice, and security are central not only to women’s well-being but also to the security and peacefulness of countries. The index reflects a shared vision that countries are more peaceful and prosperous when women are accorded full and equal rights and opportunities.



Statistical table and appendixes

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Country performance and ranking on the Women's Peace and Security Index and indicators

Country and group	WPS Index rank 2019	WPS Index value 2019	GDP per capita (PPP), rank minus WPS rank 2019	Inclusion			Justice			Security			
				Education (women's mean years of schooling, ages 25+) 2012-17 ^b	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, ages 25+) 2011-17 ^b	Employment (women ages 25+, %) 2018	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %) 2018	Parliamentary representation ^a (seats held by women, %) 2019	Legal discrimination (aggregate score) 2018	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth) 2015/20 ^c	Discriminatory work norms (males 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %) 2016	Intimate partner violence (experienced by women in the past year, %) 2000-17 ^b	Community safety (perception among women ages 15+, %) 2010-16 ^b
<i>First quintile</i>													
1 Norway	0.904	7	12.6	100	59.7	99.8	40.8	12	1.06	2 ^e	6.0	86.4	0
2 Switzerland	0.893	5	13.4	98.9	58.9	93.7	29.3	14	1.05	2	0.9 ^g	87.2	0
3 Finland	0.891	18	12.6	99.6	51.6	100.0	41.5	14	1.05	1	5.0	76.2	0
3 Denmark	0.891	10	12.7	100.0	54.4	98.7	37.4	12	1.06	2	4.0	79.3	0
5 Iceland	0.888	6	12.3 ^u	94.9 ^e	68.6	93.9 ^f	38.1	11	1.05	2 ^e	1.8	69.9	0.00
6 Austria	0.884	7	12.3	98.4	52.8	96.6	36.9	11	1.06	7	3.0	81.4	0.00
7 United Kingdom	0.883	16	13.1	96.1	55.6	96.4	28.9	6	1.05	2	5.0	76.9	0.00
8 Luxembourg	0.880	-6	13.4	98.2	54.8	98.1	25.0	11	1.05	2	3.0	81.2	0.00
9 Sweden	0.879	7	12.5	100.0	58.9	97.9	47.3	7	1.06	1	5.0	65.0	0.02
9 Netherlands	0.879	2	11.9	99.8	54.0	92.3	32.9	6	1.05	2	5.0	75.4	0.00
11 Canada	0.876	9	13.3 ^u	99.9	57.4	86.7	31.7	14	1.06	0	1.1	74.7	0.00
12 Estonia	0.873	23	14.1	98.4	55.9	96.3	28.7	9	1.06	2	2.0	67.3	0.00
13 Slovenia	0.872	19	12.2	96.9	52.2	97.3	20.0	6	1.05	4	2.0	85.1	0.00
14 New Zealand	0.869	11	13.3	99.3	62.9	89.5	40.0	8	1.06	3	5.7 ^h	52.9	0.00
15 Spain	0.860	15	9.7	91.6	45.1	98.3	39.3	7	1.06	1	2.0	82.5	0.01
16 Ireland	0.858	-12	11.5	95.3	54.2	98.8	24.3	8	1.06	3	3.0	74.3	0.00
17 Germany	0.856	-2	13.8	99.2	54.5	92.3	31.6	16	1.06	3	3.0	69.8	0.00
17 Portugal	0.856	18	9.2	90.6	53.0	96.7	35.7	7	1.06	4	5.0	74.3	0.00
19 United States	0.851	-10	13.4	92.7	55.2	91.3	23.8	11	1.05	1	4.0 ⁱ	67.5	0.00
20 France	0.847	4	11.1	91.3	48.7	92.4	36.9	8	1.05	2	5.0	73.2	0.05
21 Latvia	0.845	20	13.7	92.5	53.8	96.4	31.0	7	1.06	7	5.0	49.8	0.00
22 Australia	0.844	-5	12.4	99.2	56.0	86.6	33.2	7	1.06	1	2.2	49.6	0.00
23 Singapore	0.843	-20	9.8	96.3	62.1	95.7	23.0	26	1.07	2	0.9	93.6	0.00
24 Serbia	0.839	49	10.7	70.1	44.0	88.1	37.7	8	1.05	4	3.4	70.4	0.00
25 Poland	0.838	15	12.3	88.0	49.8	95.0	26.4	14	1.06	8	2.0	67.8	0.00
26 Lithuania	0.835	8	13.2	81.0	56.5	90.1	21.3	8	1.05	6	4.0	62.1	0.00
27 Belgium	0.827	-9	11.6	98.8	48.4	99.2	39.5	13	1.05	3	6.0	53.1	0.11
28 Italy	0.826	-1	10.0	91.6	38.0	96.1	35.3	9	1.06	1	6.0	55.8	0.00
29 Japan	0.823	-7	12.9 ^u	98.1	50.9	91.5	13.8	19	1.06	5	4.0 ^j	68.5	0.00
30 Czech Republic	0.820	1	12.5	78.6	54.0	92.2	20.6	13	1.06	8	4.0	65.2	0.00
31 Cyprus	0.819	2	12.0	90.0	56.1	95.3	17.9	12	1.07	5	3.0	62.0	0.00
32 Croatia	0.818	15	11.2 ^u	82.7	44.0	88.2	20.5	9	1.06	6	3.0	71.7	0.00

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Country performance and ranking on the Women's Peace and Security Index and indicators (continued)

Country and group	WPS Index rank 2019	WPS Index value 2019	GDP per capita (PPPS), rank minus WPS rank 2019	Inclusion			Justice			Security			
				Education (women's mean years of schooling, ages 25+, %) 2012–17 ^b	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, %) 2011–17 ^b	Employment (women ages 25+, %) 2018	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %) 2018	Parliamentary representation ^a (seats held by women, %) 2019	Legal discrimination (aggregate score) 2018	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth) 2015/20 ^c	Discriminatory work norms (males 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %) 2016	Intimate partner violence (experienced by women in the past year, %) 2000–17 ^b	Community safety (perception among women ages 15+, %) 2010–16 ^b
33 South Korea	0.816	-5	11.4	94.7	53.8	94.2	17.1	9	1.07	6	6.9 ^z	63.9	0.00
34 Israel	0.815	-5	13.0	93.7	59.7	99.6	29.2	18	1.05	14	6.0 ^{ac}	72.8	0.40
Second quintile													
35 Slovakia	0.813	2	13.6	83.1	52.6	91.2	20.0	7	1.05	26	6.0	60.4	0.00
36 Malta	0.807	-10	11.0	97.0	40.8	96.3	11.9	8	1.06	11	4.0	65.9	0.00
37 North Macedonia	0.806	37	8.9 ^d	72.9	37.7	85.8	38.3	12	1.05	13	3.1	64.9	0.00
38 Belarus	0.804	21	12.2 ^d	81.3	57.6	90.2	33.1	24	1.06	11	7.1 ^e	52.6	0.00
39 Bulgaria	0.801	15	11.9	73.6	50.2	90.7	25.8	10	1.06	8	6.0	51.3	0.00
40 Montenegro	0.791	18	10.7 ^d	67.6	40.2	96.5	23.5	15	1.06	6	4.8	61.1	0.00
41 Trinidad and Tobago	0.788	-3	11.0 ^d	73.6	52.2	92.1 ^f	32.9	21	1.04	9	5.7	45.0	0.00
42 Jamaica	0.787	54	10.0 ^d	77.8	61.0	94.0 ^f	19.0	23	1.05	9	7.0	53.0	0.00
43 Kazakhstan	0.786	3	11.8 ^d	60.3	65.9	93.4	22.1	18	1.06	16	4.7	53.5	0.00
44 United Arab Emirates	0.781	-39	11.9 ^d	76.4	52.2	100.0	22.5	48	1.05	18	15.3 ^e	89.8	0.00
45 Costa Rica	0.779	21	8.7	60.9	44.8	86.5	45.6	19	1.05	8	7.8	39.1	0.00
46 Georgia	0.777	44	12.8	63.6	55.5	90.9	14.8	22	1.08	17	1.0	75.0	0.00
47 Mongolia	0.776	37	10.6 ^d	95.0	58.1	97.6	17.1	17	1.03	8	12.7 ^q	41.2	0.00
48 Argentina	0.775	8	11.6	50.8	49.2	85.6	39.4	13	1.04	10	2.7 ^l	31.7	0.00
49 Ecuador	0.772	39	8.9	42.6	60.8	72.7	38.0	12	1.05	7	10.8	49.3	0.00
49 Hungary	0.772	-8	11.7	72.2	49.2	86.6	12.6	10	1.06	12	6.0	52.8	0.00
51 Greece	0.770	-8	10.0	84.5	37.0	89.6	18.7	8	1.07	10	6.0	47.1	0.00
51 Russian Federation	0.770	-4	12.0 ^d	76.1	55.6	89.5	16.5	24	1.05	7	6.0 ^k	57.4 ^e	0.04
53 Romania	0.767	-9	10.6	53.6	47.0	88.4	18.7	10	1.06	6	6.0	52.9	0.00
54 Bolivia	0.765	51	8.2	53.9	62.9	85.9	51.8	15	1.05	12	27.1	35.4	0.00
55 Chile	0.764	-6	10.2	71.3	52.0	89.8	22.7	22	1.04	6	2.7 ^l	38.3	0.00
56 Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.760	25	8.6	54.7	29.6	90.2	19.3	5	1.06	5	3.4 ^{aa}	60.2	0.00
57 Albania	0.759	26	9.8	38.1	46.4	86.1	29.3	10	1.08	6	8.2	61.6	0.00
58 Fiji	0.757	35	10.9 ^d	68.2 ^e	40.6	87.6	19.6	19	1.06	21 ^e	23.7	77.3 ^e	0.00
58 Uruguay	0.757	-7	9.0	60.6	54.7	89.0	23.1	18	1.05	4	3.1	31.8	0.00
60 Turkmenistan	0.752	3	10.9 ^e	35.5	56.9	82.4	25.0	19 ^e	1.05	34	7.1 ^e	88.4	0.02
60 Mauritius	0.752	-8	9.1 ^d	87.1	43.7	86.8	11.6	15	1.04	7	18.4 ^m	53.5	0.00
62 Namibia	0.748	29	7.2 ^d	80.7	54.1	86.2	39.7	18	1.03	16 ^e	20.2	37.3	0.00
63 Suriname	0.744	13	8.7	52.2 ^e	40.3	87.5 ^f	29.4	24	1.07	9 ^e	7.8 ^e	58.6	0.00

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Country performance and ranking on the Women's Peace and Security Index and indicators (continued)

Country and group	WPS Index rank 2019	WPS Index value 2019	GDP per capita (PPPS), rank minus WPS rank 2019	Inclusion			Justice			Security			
				Education (women's mean years of schooling, ages 25+) 2012-17 ^b	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, %) 2011-17 ^b	Employment (women ages 25+, %) 2018	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %) 2018	Parliamentary representation ^a (seats held by women, %) 2019	Legal discrimination (aggregate score) 2018	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth) 2015/20 ^c	Discriminatory work norms (males 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %) 2016	Intimate partner violence (experienced by women in the past year, %) 2000-17 ^b	Community safety (perception among women ages 15+, %) 2010-16 ^b
64 Moldova	0.743	52	11.6 ^d	44.6	41.0	81.4	22.8	13	1.06	10	9.4	45.9	0.00
65 Rwanda	0.743	79	3.5	45.0	92.9	48.8	55.7	23	1.02	6	20.7	85.1	0.17
66 Guyana	0.741	36	8.5 ^d	52.2 ^e	38.2	78.7 ^e	31.9	14	1.05	9 ^e	7.8 ^e	38.9	0.00
Third quintile													
66 South Africa	0.741	12	9.9	70.0	42.5	82.1	41.8	14	1.03	19	8.7	26.9	0.00
68 Paraguay	0.738	14	8.4	46.0	59.6	81.7	16.8	11	1.05	14	8.0	47.4	0.00
69 Peru	0.735	11	8.7	34.4	71.6	76.2	30.0	11	1.05	7	10.6	36.7	0.02
70 Hong Kong, SAR China	0.731	..	11.7	94.7	54.2	95.4 ^f	23.2 ^e	21 ^e	1.15	21 ^e	8.6 ^e	85.3	0.09 ^e
70 Panama	0.731	-20	10.4 ^d	42.3	55.7	74.4	18.3	15	1.05	10	10.1 ^l	41.9	0.00
72 Qatar	0.730	-70	11.1	61.6	62.1	93.4 ^f	9.8	45	1.05	37 ^e	15.3 ^e	89.0	0.00
73 Malaysia	0.729	-33	10.0	82.5	54.8	86.2	15.6	38	1.06	20	8.6 ^e	46.4	0.00
74 Dominican Rep.	0.726	-2	8.1	54.1	53.6	75.9	24.3	9	1.05	9	16.0	30.6	0.00
74 Zimbabwe	0.726	65	7.5	51.7	80.4	79.2	34.6	20	1.02	7	19.9	38.9	0.01
76 El Salvador	0.725	29	6.7	24.4	49.9	74.4	31.0	13	1.05	8	5.9	49.2	0.00
76 China	0.725	-7	7.6 ^d	76.4	61.8	93.3	24.9	20	1.15	19	8.7 ^p	82.3	0.00
78 Lao PDR	0.724	31	4.6	31.9	82.3	74.5	27.5	21	1.05	21 ^e	6.0	50.5	0.00
78 Ghana	0.724	43	6.3 ^d	53.7	70.5	79.7	13.1	27	1.05	7	19.2	62.1	0.00
80 Timor-Leste	0.721	27	3.6 ^d	68.2 ^e	33.8	87.6 ^e	33.8	16	1.05	21 ^e	46.4	77.3 ^e	0.00
80 Kyrgyzstan	0.721	48	10.9	38.9	49.6	90.8	19.2	20	1.06	28	17.1	56.5	0.00
82 Armenia	0.720	11	12.5 ^d	40.9	44.7	91.5	24.2	20	1.13	17	3.5	84.7	0.06
83 Bahrain	0.719	-63	8.5	75.4	47.4	95.4 ^f	18.8	42	1.04	22	15.3 ^e	58.5	0.00
84 Venezuela	0.717	..	10.7	70.0	50.0	77.3	22.2	14	1.05	6	12.2 ^p	18.8	0.03
84 Nepal	0.717	54	3.6 ^d	41.6	83.4	81.6	33.5	32	1.07	18	11.2	49.8	0.00
86 Belize	0.716	15	10.5 ^d	52.3	53.1	78.7 ^e	11.1	22	1.03	9 ^e	7.8 ^e	45.4	0.00
87 Barbados	0.715	-25	10.6	52.2 ^e	60.0	78.7 ^e	27.5	26	1.04	9 ^e	27.0 ^o	34.1 ^e	0.00
88 Nicaragua	0.712	29	6.9	24.8	54.9	73.3	44.6	9	1.05	15	7.5	39.3	0.18
89 Uzbekistan	0.710	23	11.3 ^d	36.0	56.0	73.2	16.4	29	1.08	32	7.1 ^e	84.1	0.00
90 Philippines	0.709	12	9.3	38.9	51.2	80.3	29.1	13	1.06	16	5.5	57.7	0.87
91 Honduras	0.708	30	6.6	41.0	50.9	76.0	21.1	14	1.05	11	11.0	58.8	0.04
92 Viet Nam	0.707	21	7.9	30.4	76.0	68.6	26.7	16	1.10	18	9.0	53.3	0.00
92 Thailand	0.707	-27	7.4	79.8	64.0	84.2	5.4	20	1.06	22	22.0 ⁿ	67.3	0.09
94 Tanzania	0.704	42	4.9 ^d	42.2	83.1	53.3	36.9	22	1.03	15	29.6	60.9	0.00
95 Indonesia	0.703	-7	7.6	51.4	55.3	69.1	18.2	30	1.05	37	4.9	75.3	0.00

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Country performance and ranking on the Women's Peace and Security Index and indicators (continued)

Country and group	GDP per capita (PPPS, rank minus WPS Index value)		Inclusion			Justice			Security				
	2019	2019	Education (women's mean years of schooling, ages 25+)	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, %)	Employment (women ages 25+, %)	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %)	Parliamentary representation ^a (seats held by women, %)	Legal discrimination (aggregate score)	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth)	Discriminatory work norms (males 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %)	Intimate partner violence (experienced by women in the past year, %)	Community safety (perception among women ages 15+, %)	Organized violence (battle deaths per 100,000 people)
96 Kuwait	0.701	-88	8.0	73.5	64.2	100.0	4.6	44	1.05	47	15.3 ^e	77.2	0.00
96 Tajikistan	0.701	37	10.8 ^d	42.1	28.3	74.1	20.0	19	1.07	29	19.0	84.1	0.01
98 Brazil	0.700	-25	7.8	67.5	49.4	79.4	15.0	15	1.05	6	3.1	27.5	0.12
98 Cabo Verde	0.700	14	5.9	34.7 ^e	66.1	66.3 ^e	23.6	14	1.03	16 ^e	7.8	48.0 ^e	0.00
98 Kenya	0.700	34	5.7	77.7	72.9	87.1	23.3	16	1.03	19	25.5	49.8	0.35
101 Solomon Islands	0.695	41	7.6 ^e	68.2 ^e	65.6	87.6 ^e	2.0	31	1.07	21 ^e	41.8	77.3 ^e	0.00
<i>Fourth quintile</i>													
102 Cambodia	0.694	24	3.8 ^d	21.5	77.2	68.0	19.3	16	1.05	15	7.7	53.3	0.00
103 Mexico	0.693	-40	8.4	33.3	46.4	74.5	48.4	8	1.05	14	9.5	37.3	1.95
104 Colombia	0.691	-24	8.5	42.5	56.3	82.8	19.0	18	1.05	6	18.3	40.3	0.15
105 Ukraine	0.689	-6	11.3 ^d	61.3	45.0	90.0	11.6	19	1.06	11	7.6	39.4	0.67
106 Guatemala	0.680	-1	6.3	42.1	43.1	65.3	19.0	22	1.05	13	8.5	43.9	0.00
107 Sri Lanka	0.679	-20	10.3 ^d	73.4	37.2	70.0	5.3	27	1.04	33 ^e	18.4 ⁿ	54.1	0.00
107 Zambia	0.679	17	6.5 ^d	40.3	77.5	67.9	18.0	15	1.03	16	26.7	37.2	0.00
109 Uganda	0.678	41	4.1	52.7	75.8	69.1	34.9	24	1.03	21	29.9	47.4	0.04
110 Mozambique	0.675	48	2.6	32.9	83.7	68.1	39.6	20	1.03	16 ^e	15.5	42.7	0.22
111 Maldives	0.671	-39	6.2 ^d	65.4 ^e	40.7	71.4 ^e	4.7	18	1.07	33 ^e	5.6	63.1 ^e	0.00
112 Botswana	0.667	-43	9.2 ^d	46.8	62.0	86.1	9.5	32	1.03	9	21.1	23.4	0.00
113 Togo	0.665	41	3.3 ^d	37.6	81.4	66.3	16.5	24	1.02	9	12.7	41.3	0.00
114 Turkey	0.661	-67	6.9	54.3	30.3	93.5	17.4	17	1.05	16	11.0	44.6	1.01
114 Senegal	0.661	17	1.7	38.4	38.3	71.5	41.8	29	1.04	22	12.2	46.6	0.00
116 Benin	0.659	27	3.0 ^d	28.6	79.6	70.2	7.2	21	1.04	14	13.9	50.9	0.00
117 Papua New Guinea	0.658	7	3.8 ^d	68.2 ^e	49.8	87.6 ^e	0.0	28	1.08	20	32.9 ⁿ	77.3	0.00
118 Iran	0.657	-61	9.9	91.6	15.0	93.6	5.9	46	1.05	38	15.3 ^e	58.3	0.07
118 Bhutan	0.657	-23	1.7	27.7	66.2	71.4 ^e	15.3	16	1.04	33 ^e	6.1	61.7	0.00
120 Saudi Arabia	0.655	-108	8.8 ^d	58.2	22.6	99.0	19.9	54	1.03	26	15.3 ^e	73.9	0.21
121 Tunisia	0.651	-32	6.35	28.4	19.9	79.8	35.9	29	1.05	26	9.0 ^r	52.3	0.25
121 Ethiopia	0.651	27	1.6 ^d	29.1	75.9	55.8	37.3	27	1.04	14	19.8	59.6	0.50
123 Azerbaijan	0.650	-56	10.2	27.7 ^f	64.6	86.8	16.8	21	1.13	31	9.8	74.3	0.64
124 Gabon	0.647	-60	7.4 ^d	53.7	40.2	87.9	17.8	35	1.03	11	31.5	26.9	0.00
125 Lesotho	0.641	12	7.0 ^d	46.5	53.3	55.2 ^f	23.0	30	1.03	19	28.0 ^s	34.5	0.00
126 Gambia	0.638	27	2.9 ^d	34.7 ^e	53.8	81.8	10.3	24	1.03	16 ^e	7.3	37.1	0.00
127 São Tomé and Príncipe	0.634	6	5.6	34.7 ^e	43.5	66.3 ^e	14.5	22	1.03	16 ^e	26.3	48.0	0.00

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Country performance and ranking on the Women's Peace and Security Index and indicators (continued)

WPS Index rank	WPS Index value	GDP per capita (PPPS), rank minus WPS rank	Inclusion			Justice			Security				
			Education (women's mean years of schooling, ages 25+)	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, 2012-17 ^b)	Employment (women ages 15+, 2018)	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, 2018)	Parliamentary representation ^a (seats held by women, %)	Legal discrimination (aggregate score)	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth)	Discriminatory work norms (males 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %)	Intimate partner violence (experienced by women in the past year, %)	Community safety (perception among women ages 15+, %)	Organized violence (battle deaths per 100,000 people)
2019	2019	2019	2012-17 ^b	2011-17 ^b	2018	2018	2015/20 ^c	2016	2000-17 ^b	2010-16 ^b	2006/18 ^c		
Country and group													
128	0.632	10	3.7 ^d	17.9	46.3	71.9	6.1	29	1.05	16 ^e	4.9	67.9	0.00
129	0.629	-32	10.1	26.6	13.7	89.8	15.4	46	1.05	38	13.8	77.8	0.15
130	0.626	-16	3.1	22.3	82.1	44.7 ^f	30.0	18	1.03	16 ^e	25.9	39.8	0.09
130	0.626	-78	4.0 ^d	34.7 ^e	62.2	66.3 ^e	18.0	27	1.03	16 ^e	43.6	48.0	0.00
130	0.626	27	4.0 ^d	29.8	74.4	48.8	16.7	22	1.03	25	24.3	44.3	0.00
133	0.625	-30	4.5 ^d	16.8	21.7	84.6	18.4	26	1.06	31	6.4 ^t	56.3	0.00
133	0.625	-25	4.8 ^d	76.6	26.5	74.9	12.2	23	1.11	25	22.0	64.0	0.06
133	0.625	9	1.5 ^d	19.7 ^f	69.4	72.4	22.8	30	1.02	11	21.1 ^e	44.6	0.01
Fifth quintile													
136	0.622	15	1.0	34.5	60.9	76.5	13.4	25	1.05	20	9.3	55.7	0.38
136	0.622	18	6.7 ^d	16.3	87.9	44.7	19.6	27	1.03	16	35.0 ^u	35.7	0.00
138	0.617	-10	3.7	35.6	56.4	85.6	11.2	20	1.03	15	22.0	31.4	0.07
139	0.616	23	1.5	6.7	91.3	33.5	36.4	21	1.03	16 ^e	27.9	62.6	0.46
140	0.613	12	4.3 ^d	30.0	66.0	73.6	2.7	32	1.05	22	13.9	45.9	0.07
140	0.613	-41	6.1 ^d	27.4	39.1	82.5	12.1	36	1.03	16 ^e	21.1 ^e	33.6	0.00
142	0.612	-13	5.4	35.8	37.8	73.1	20.6	34	1.05	57	26.9	69.9	0.03
143	0.611	-66	7.6 ^d	29.3	13.6	78.4	21.5	29	1.05	45	9.4 ^v	51.9	0.16
144	0.608	13	3.5 ^d	28.2	65.9	57.1	11.7	23	1.05	12	35.0	33.7	0.00
145	0.604	..	4.4 ^e	8.8	53.4	41.2 ^f	26.2	28	1.04	16 ^e	21.1 ^e	69.3	0.22
145	0.604	-29	5.0 ^d	27.3	63.0	79.6	5.8	25	1.06	17	11.0	47.8	1.85
147	0.599	-67	8.5 ^d	32.9	23.4	90.9	4.7	33	1.05	20	8.9 ^{ab}	49.0	1.94
148	0.597	-16	4.7 ^d	30.0	78.5	82.5	29.3	33	1.03	19	32.7	36.7	2.57
149	0.593	-28	5.5 ^d	21.0	71.2	74.4	13.6	40	1.03	8	21.1 ^e	34.3	0.60
150	0.587	-34	4.9 ^d	26.0	48.5	75.2	11.6	35	1.03	33	11.0	68.6	1.60
151	0.583	-59	6.5	27.0	19.5	73.1	14.9	37	1.06	48	14.0	82.6	0.71
151	0.583	-24	3.5 ^d	15.5	30.9	74.0	20.3	45	1.05	21	21.1 ^e	35.3	0.00
153	0.578	4	2.7 ^d	15.4	68.5	46.5	12.3	32	1.02	12	28.7	48.1	0.00
154	0.564	..	4.4 ^e	33.7	19.8	63.5 ^f	24.3	25 ^e	1.03	28	21.1 ^e	85.9	19.10
155	0.554	7	1.1	10.9	72.1	44.6	17.0	26	1.05	33	21.1 ^e	57.2	1.13
156	0.553	..	1.2 ^d	14.9	68.9	49.3	14.9	25	1.03	20	17.5	40.9	0.49
157	0.547	-34	3.1 ^d	10.0	23.8	68.1 ^f	27.5	49	1.04	16 ^e	21.1 ^e	64.3	2.41
158	0.546	-96	7.7 ^d	59.6	22.7	100.0	16.0	39	1.06	52	15.3 ^e	42.5	21.81
159	0.539	-12	1.0	25.7	61.9	64.5	8.8	33	1.05	30	26.9	59.7	3.51

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Country performance and ranking on the Women's Peace and Security Index and indicators (continued)

Country and group	WPS Index rank 2019	WPS Index value 2019	GDP per capita (PPPS), rank minus WPS rank	Inclusion			Justice			Security			
				Education (women's mean years of schooling, ages 25+) 2012-17 ^b	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, %) 2011-17 ^b	Employment (women ages 25+, %) 2018	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %) 2018	Parliamentary representation ^a (seats held by women, %) 2019	Legal discrimination (aggregate score) 2018	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth) 2015/20 ^c	Discriminatory work norms (males 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %) 2016	Intimate partner violence (experienced by women in the past year, %) 2000-17 ^b	Community safety (perception among women ages 15+, %) 2010-16 ^b
160 Central African Rep.	0.513	5	3.0 ^d	9.7	68.4	66.3 ^e	8.6	28	1.03	11	26.3	49.4	20.40
161 Dem. Rep. of Congo	0.512	2	5.3	24.2	70.8	43.2 ^f	9.3	27	1.03	25	36.8	37.0	4.40
162 Iraq	0.490	-90	7.4	19.5	14.0	84.6	25.2	41	1.07	53	45.3 ^w	60.3	21.70
163 South Sudan	0.479	..	4.0 ^d	4.7	66.6	27.0 ^f	26.6	34	1.04	25	47.0 ^x	42.6	9.12
164 Pakistan	0.460	-42	3.7	7.0	24.2	34.0	20.0	38	1.09	73	14.5	63.2	0.43
165 Syria	0.416	..	4.6 ^d	19.6	11.7	79.6 ^e	13.2	48	1.05	37 ^e	23.0 ^y	16.9	180.27
166 Afghanistan	0.373	-15	1.9 ^d	7.2	51.6	46.2	27.3	40	1.06	51	46.1	12.2	63.63
167 Yemen	0.351	-23	1.9 ^d	1.7	5.3	48.0	1.0	50	1.05	53	15.3 ^e	42.6	12.76
<i>Other countries and economies not in the index</i>													
Bahamas	11.5 ^d	..	65.2	..	21.8	17	1.06	0
Brunei	9.0 ^d	..	59.5	..	9.1	40	1.06	0
Cuba	10.9	..	41.0	..	53.2	..	1.06	46.2	0
Eritrea	74.3	..	22.0	26	1.05	0	0
Guinea-Bissau	73.0	..	13.7	34	1.03	0	0
Kosovo	43.7	..	89.6	..	10	..	9	3.7	67.2	..
Liechtenstein	12
North Korea	72.3	..	16.3	..	1.05
Oman	10.4	63.5	32.1	..	8.8	48	1.05	0
Seychelles	21.2	23
Taiwan Province of China	93.7	52.2	94.5	..	12	1.08	2	..	77.7	0
Vanuatu	62.7	..	0.0	29	1.07	..	44.0	..	0
<i>Country groups and regions</i>													
Developed Countries	0.849	..	12.5	94.9	52.2	93.3	27.1	11.5	1.05	2.4	4.6	68.9	0.01
Central & Eastern Europe & Central Asia	0.766	..	10.9	66.1	54.3	89.5	18.8	18.9	1.06	12.3	7.1	57.4	0.25
East Asia & the Pacific	0.727	..	7.6	68.2	60.2	87.6	23.2	21.4	1.11	20.6	8.6	77.3	0.09
Latin America & the Caribbean	0.728	..	7.7	52.2	51.2	78.7	27.7	13.9	1.05	8.6	7.8	34.1	0.45
Middle East & North Africa	0.580	..	5.6	28.7	19.1	79.6	17.2	38.7	1.05	37.1	15.3	62.9	13.56
South Asia	0.601	..	4.5	65.4	28.1	71.4	13.9	27.1	1.13	32.9	22.0	63.1	1.30
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.651	..	4.4	34.7	66.7	66.3	23.1	25.2	1.02	15.6	21.1	48.0	1.40
Fragile States	0.470	..	4.3	11.8	49.2	58.2	17.2	29.2	1.04	15.8	18.3	43.1	15.88
Global	0.703	..	7.6	65.1	49.4	80.9	21.5	21.9	1.08	19.5	13.4	63.8	1.23

Notes to table

- .. Not available or not applicable.
- a. For countries with bicameral legislative systems, the share of seats is calculated based on both houses. Bolivia and Rwanda's values are capped at 50 percent.
- b. Data are the most recent available in the period specified.
- c. Data are annual average for the period specified. For son bias, 2020 is projected based on the medium fertility variant in UNDESA (2018).
- d. Estimate by UNDP 2018.
- e. Regional average.
- f. Earlier than the period specified.
- g. UNIL 2004.
- h. Physical or sexual violence experienced by women ages 18–64. Fanslow and Robinson 2004.
- i. Physical violence only. Breiding, Chen, and Black 2014.
- j. WHO 2005.
- k. Rosstat 2011.
- l. Reference population differs by country: ages 16+ for Brazil, 15–65 for Chile, and 18–69 for Costa Rica. Bott et al. 2019.
- m. Sultan 2017.
- n. UNFPA 2017.
- o. Allen and Maughan 2016.
- p. Bott et al. 2019.
- q. National Statistics Office of Mongolia and UNFPA 2018.
- r. ONFP and AECID 2010.
- s. Musariri Chipatiso et al. 2014.
- t. Physical violence only. Higher Planning Commission of Morocco 2009.
- u. Physical violence experienced by women ages 15–69. Gastineau and Gathier 2012.
- v. Physical and emotional violence committed by intimate partner on women ages 19–64. Ministry for Family and Women's Affairs, Algeria n.d.
- w. For women in Erbil only. Al-Atrushi et al. 2013.
- x. For Juba only. WhatWorks 2017.
- y. Aleppo only. Maziak and Asfar 2003.

- z. Lee, Stefani, and Park 2014.
- aa. OSCE 2019.
- ab. Mansour et al. 2017.
- ac. Eisikovits, Winstok, and Fishman 2004.

Main data sources

- WPS Index value:** Calculated by the authors based on the methodology outlined in appendix 1.
- WPS Index rank:** Calculated by the authors based on values on the Women, Peace, and Security Index.
- Education:** UNESCO Institute for Statistics (<https://uis.unesco.org/>). Accessed in February 2019.
- Financial inclusion:** World Bank Global Findex Database (<http://www.worldbank.org/en/programs/globalfindex>). Accessed in May 2019.
- Employment:** ILOSTAT database (<http://www.ilo.org/ilostat>). Accessed in March 2019.
- Cellphone use:** Gallup World Poll 2018 (http://www.gallup.com/topic/world_region_worldwide.aspx). Accessed in April 2019.
- Parliamentary representation:** Inter-Parliamentary Union (<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>). Accessed in May 2019.
- Legal discrimination:** World Bank, Women Business, and the Law (<http://wbl.worldbank.org>). Accessed in March 2019.
- Son bias:** United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs, *2017 Revisions of World Development Prospects* (<http://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/>). Accessed in February 2019.
- Discriminatory norms:** Gallup and International Labour Organization, *Towards a Better Future for Women and Work: Voices of Women and Men*. Accessed in March 2017.
- Intimate partner violence:** UN Women Global Database on Violence against Women (<http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en>). Based on Demographic and Health Survey data. Accessed in June 2019.
- Community safety:** Gallup World Poll 2019 (http://www.gallup.com/topic/world_region_worldwide.aspx). Accessed in April 2019.
- Organized violence:** Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP) Geo-referenced Event Dataset (<http://ucdp.uu.se/>). Accessed in June 2019.

APPENDIX 1

Index definitions and methodology

This appendix provides definitions of the 11 indicators in the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index and the methodology for constructing the index.

Definitions of indicators

Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index. A composite index measuring country performance on 11 indicators of women's well-being and empowerment for the three dimensions of inclusion, justice, and security.

Education. Average number of years of education of women ages 25 and older, converted from educational attainment levels using official durations of each level.

Financial inclusion. The percentage of women ages 15 and older who reported having an account alone or jointly at a bank or another type of financial institution or personally using a mobile money service.

Employment. The percentage of a country's female population ages 25 and older that is employed.

Cellphone use. The percentage of women ages 15 and older responding "Yes" to the Gallup World Poll question "Do you have a mobile phone that you use to make and receive personal calls?"

Parliamentary representation. The percentage of seats held by women in lower and upper houses of national parliaments combined.

Legal discrimination. Aggregate score of laws and regulations that limit women's ability to participate in society or the economy

or that differentiate between men and women, as measured by Women, Business, and the Law (World Bank 2019a). This score aggregates 78 laws and regulations that differentiate between men and women in accessing institutions, using property, going to court, providing incentives to work, building credit, and getting a job. Greater weight is given to six laws: requirement that married women obey their husband, mandate for paternity leave, equal remuneration for work of equal value, nondiscrimination based on gender in hiring, and prohibitions of dismissal of pregnant workers and of child or early marriage. The lower the score the better; the worst potential score is 84.

Son bias. Sex ratio at birth (ratio of male births to female births). An excess number of births of boys over girls relative to demographic norms (ratio of 1.05 boys to 1.00 girls) reflects discrimination against girls and women in favor of boys and men.

Discriminatory norms. Percentage of men ages 15 and older who responded "No" to the Gallup World Poll question: "Is it perfectly acceptable for any woman in your family to have a paid job outside the home if she wants one?"

Intimate partner violence (current). Percentage of women who experienced physical or sexual violence committed by their intimate partner in the preceding 12 months.

Community safety. Percentage of women ages 15 and older who responded "Yes" to the Gallup World Poll question "Do you feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live?"

Organized violence. Total number of battle deaths from state, non-state, or one-sided conflicts per 100,000 people. **State-based**

conflict is armed conflict between two states or between a state and a rebel group. **Nonstate conflict** is fighting between rebel groups or militias or between groups with different ethnic, clan, or religious identification. **One-sided violence** is the use of armed force by the government or a formally organized group against civilians.

Methodology

The Women's Peace and Security (WPS) Index is a summary number capturing achievements in women's well-being in three dimensions: inclusion, justice and security. It is a geometric mean of the arithmetic mean of the subindices for each of the three dimensions. This appendix describes how we calculated the subindices and the overall WPS Index and presents a worked-through example for Jordan.

Two steps are basic in estimating any index: normalization and aggregation. The policy and academic literature on composite indices provide a robust foundation for our approach to both steps.¹²⁷

Normalization

Normalization makes data comparable across indicators, so that the information can be aggregated in a meaningful way. For example, all indicators need to be estimated such that higher or lower values consistently mean that the achievement is better or worse. A typical approach is to rescale the set of values from 0 to 100, with 0 denoting worst performance and 100 denoting the best. This is done, for example, for the Sustainable Development Goals Index (SDGI) developed by Schmidt-Traub et al. (2017),¹²⁸ the Africa Gender Equality Index (AGEI) developed by the African Development Bank in 2015, and the Human Development Index (HDI) published by the United Nations Development Programme.

The values for many of the indicators for the WPS Index fall naturally between 0 and 100—for example, those presented as percentages (financial inclusion, employment, cellphone use, discriminatory norms, intimate partner violence, and community safety). Indicators with a broader or narrower range of observations create challenges. We use aspirational maximum values of 15 years for education and 50 percent for parliamentary representation. The range for legal discrimination and organized violence are the observed values. The goal posts are laid out in table A1.1 below.

Rescaling is sensitive to the choice of limits and extreme values (outliers) at both tails of the distribution. Where the observed data range for a particular indicator is wide, the indicator acquires a larger implicit weight. Setting upper and lower bounds can reduce spurious variability, although this needs to be done with care. We sought to avoid allowing outliers to have undue influence on the values of the subindices and the aggregate index.

Unless otherwise indicated in the example, indicators are first normalized as follows:

$$\text{Normalized indicator score} = \frac{\text{Actual value} - \text{minimum value}}{\text{Maximum value} - \text{minimum value}}$$

TABLE A1.1 Minimum and maximum values for component indicators of the WPS Index

Dimension and indicator	Minimum value	Maximum value
Inclusion		
Education (mean years)	0	15
Financial inclusion (%)	0	100
Employment (%)	0	100
Cellphone use (%)	0	100
Parliamentary representation (%)	0	50
Justice		
Legal discrimination (number of laws)	84 ^a	0
Son bias (male/female ratio at birth)	1.2 ^a	0.9 ^b
Discriminatory norms (% of men)	100 ^a	0
Security		
Intimate partner violence (%)	100 ^a	0
Perception of community safety (%)	0	100
Organized violence (per 100,000 people)	200 ^a	0

a. Worst case.

b. Biased against male births.

Source: Authors.

Aggregation

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were adopted as an “integrated and indivisible” set of goals, and we sought to respect that principle by giving equal weight to each of the three dimensions in the WPS Index.

Aggregation proceeded in two steps. First, the normalized variables (indicator scores) were aggregated for each dimension before being aggregated across all three dimensions for the WPS Index score (figure A1.1). The arithmetic mean is used to aggregate indicator subindices within each dimension:

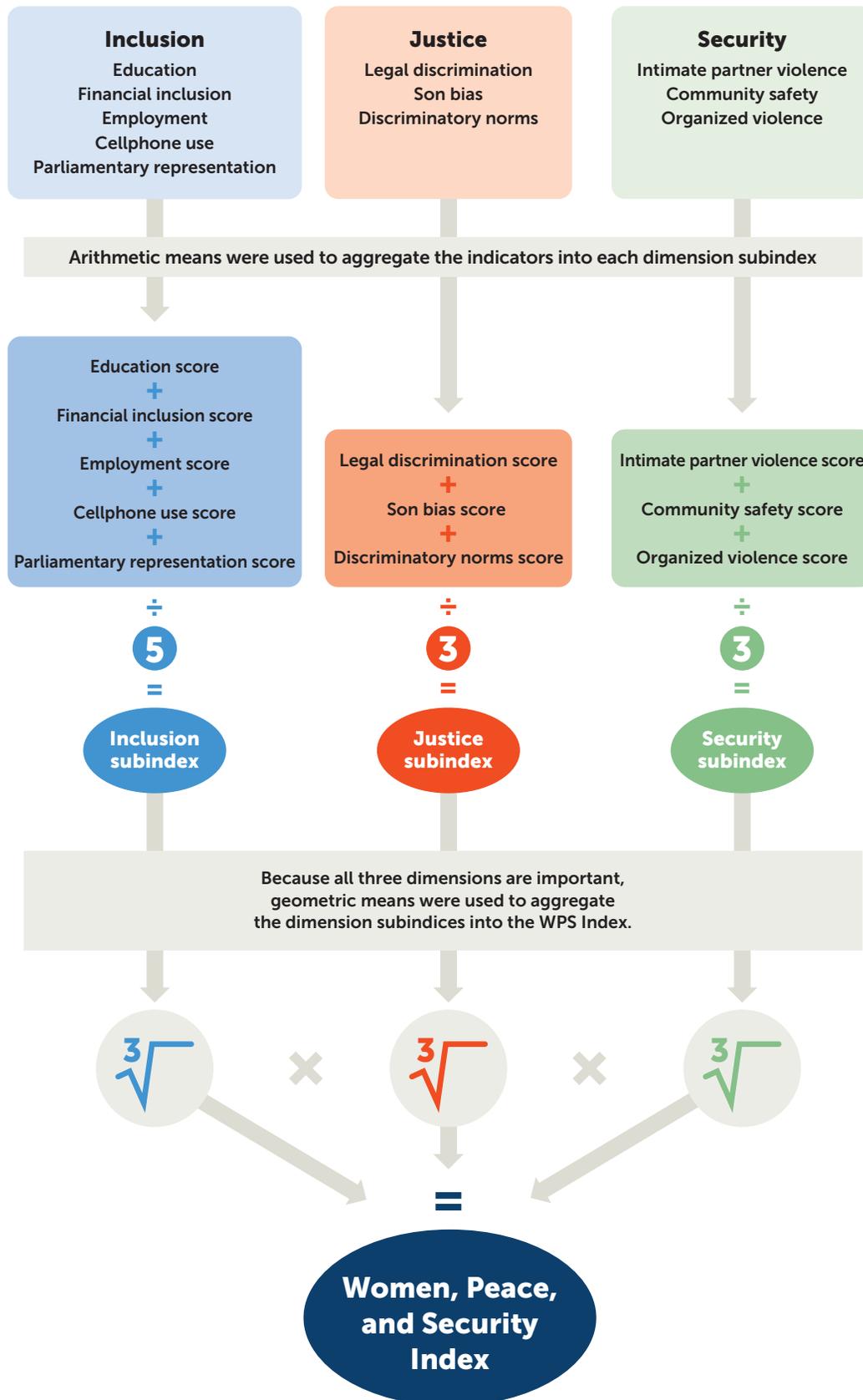
- *Inclusion subindex* = (Education score + Financial inclusion score + Employment score + Cellphone use score + Parliamentary representation score)/5.
- *Justice subindex* = (Legal discrimination score + Son bias score + Discriminatory norms score)/3.
- *Security subindex* = (Intimate partner violence score + Community safety score + Organized violence score)/3.

The relative weight of each indicator in a dimension is inversely proportional to the number of indicators in that dimension.

To ensure that all three dimensions are influential and meet the goal that countries must perform well on each dimension in order to perform well on the index, we used a geometric mean to aggregate the three dimension scores into the overall WPS Index:

- *WPS Index* = (Inclusion score^{1/3} × Justice score^{1/3} × Security score^{1/3}).

The geometric mean is often used to aggregate heterogeneous variables with limited substitutability, because this

FIGURE A1.1 Construction of the Women, Peace, and Security Index

Source: Authors.

method penalizes unequal achievements across dimensions.¹²⁹ By way of contrast, an arithmetic mean would allow for perfect substitutability across dimensions—for example, a very good score on inclusion could fully compensate for a poor score on security—which is not consistent with the spirit and objectives of the WPS Index and the SDGs.

A worked-through example: Jordan

We use scores for Jordan (index rank of 129) from statistical table 1 to illustrate the application of this method (table A1.2).

The arithmetic mean of the indicator scores is used to aggregate the scores within each dimension, and then a geometric mean is used to aggregate the three dimension sub-indices into the WPS Index.

Inclusion subindex

- Education = $(10.13 - 0)/(15 - 0) = .675$
- Financial inclusion = $(26.6 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .266$
- Employment = $(14.2 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .137$
- Cellphone use = $(89.8 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .898$
- Parliamentary representation = $(15.4 - 0)/(50 - 0) = .308$

Inclusion subindex =

$$(.675 + .266 + .137 + .898 + .308)/5 = .457$$

Justice subindex

- Legal discrimination index = $1 - (46/84) = .452$
- Son bias¹³⁰ = $(1.2 - 1.054)/(1.2 - 1.05) = .973$
- Discriminatory norms = $1 - (38/100) = .620$

Justice subindex =

$$(.452 + .973 + .620)/3 = .682$$

TABLE A1.2 Illustration of WPS Index aggregation: Jordan example

Dimension and indicator	Value
Inclusion	
Education (mean years)	10.1
Financial inclusion (%)	26.6
Employment (%)	13.7
Cellphone use (%)	89.8
Parliamentary representation (%)	15.4
Justice	
Legal discrimination (0–84)	46
Son bias (1.2–0.9)	1.054
Discriminatory norms (% of men)	38
Security	
Intimate partner violence (%)	13.8
Perception of community safety (%)	77.8
Organized violence (per 100,000 people)	0.15

Source: Authors' estimates based on data in statistical table 1.

Security subindex

- Intimate partner violence = $1 - (13.8 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .862$
- Community safety = $(77.8 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .778$
- Organized violence index = $[1 - (.1463/200)]^{1/3} = .753$

Security subindex =

$$(.862 + .778 + .753)/3 = .798$$

Jordan's WPS Index =

$$(.457 \times .682 \times .798)^{1/3} = .629$$

APPENDIX 2

Regional and country groups

Developed Countries

Australia
Austria
Belgium
Canada
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Iceland
Ireland
Israel
Italy
Japan
Liechtenstein
Luxembourg
Malta
Netherlands
New Zealand
Norway
Portugal
South Korea
Singapore
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
United Kingdom
United States

Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia

Albania
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Cyprus
Czech Republic
Estonia
Georgia
Hungary
Kazakhstan
Kosovo
Kyrgyzstan
Latvia
Lithuania
Moldova
Montenegro
North Macedonia
Poland
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia
Slovakia

Slovenia
Tajikistan
Turkey
Turkmenistan
Ukraine
Uzbekistan

East Asia and the Pacific

Brunei
Cambodia
China
Fiji
Hong Kong, SAR China
Indonesia
Lao PDR
Malaysia
Mongolia
Myanmar
North Korea
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Solomon Islands
Taiwan Province of China
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Vanuatu
Viet Nam

Latin America and the Caribbean

Argentina
Bahamas
Barbados
Belize
Bolivia
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Guatemala
Guyana
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Suriname
Trinidad and Tobago
Uruguay
Venezuela

Middle East and North

Africa
Algeria
Bahrain
Egypt
Iraq
Jordan
Kuwait
Lebanon
Libya
Morocco
Oman
Qatar
Saudi Arabia
Syria
Tunisia
United Arab Emirates
Yemen

South Asia

Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
India
Iran
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka

Sub-Saharan Africa

Angola
Benin
Botswana
Burkina Faso
Burundi
Cabo Verde
Cameroon
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Congo, Democratic Republic
Côte d'Ivoire
Djibouti
Equatorial Guinea
Eritrea
Eswatini
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho
Liberia

Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
São Tomé and Príncipe
Senegal
Seychelles
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
South Sudan
Sudan
Tanzania
Togo
Uganda
Zambia
Zimbabwe

Fragile States

Afghanistan
Burundi
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo
Congo, Democratic Republic
Côte d'Ivoire
Djibouti
Eritrea
Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Haiti
Kosovo
Iraq
Lebanon
Liberia
Libya
Mali
Mozambique
Myanmar
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Somalia
South Sudan
Sudan
Syria
Timor-Leste
Togo
Yemen
Zimbabwe

Notes

1. Berman-Vaporis, Parker, and Wardley, November 2019.
2. We report results for all countries available, though not all have sufficient data to be included in the Index estimates.
3. In order of largest change: Israel, Benin, Rwanda, Kenya, Maldives, Turkmenistan, Moldova, and Armenia.
4. World Bank 2019a.
5. Pettersson, Högladh, and Öberg 2019.
6. Rape, sexual slavery, forced prostitution, and other forms of sexual violence perpetrated against women, men, girls or boys that are directly or indirectly linked to a conflict (UN 2019).
7. Holen and Vermeij 2017.
8. Kishi et al. 2019.
9. ACLED 2019a. Online violence and other *threats* of violence are not included in the ACLED data.
10. Correlation coefficient = -0.43 ; $p < .0001$.
11. UN Meetings Coverage and Press Releases 2018; Guterres 2019.
12. See, for example, van der Gaag et al. (2019).
13. Addati et al. 2018.
14. Ferrant, Pesando, and Nowacka 2014.
15. WHO 2016.
16. WHO 2018.
17. This is the definition of youth set out in UN Security Council Resolution 2250 on youth, peace, and security.
18. ILO 2019.
19. ILO 2019. The UN Population Division (2019) generates estimates at five-year intervals, so we use the 2020 estimates for population, which is closest to the year for the youth out of education, employment, or training data. For the number of young women who are not in education, employment, or training, we use UN Population Division data estimates that there will be approximately 585 million women ages 15–24 in 2020.
20. Wodon et al. 2018.
21. An important exception is the period 2012–14, when battle deaths surged as both state-based and nonstate conflict increased (Melander et al. 2016).
22. Gurr 1970; Collier and Hoeffler 2004; Fearon and Laitin 2003.
23. Forsberg and Olsson 2016.
24. Kelley 2017.
25. Berman-Vaporis, Parker, and Wardley, November 2019.
26. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Poland 2018.
27. Government of Canada 2019.
28. Davies and True 2019.
29. Barbados, Cabo Verde, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Fiji, Gambia, Guyana, Hong Kong China, Libya, Papua New Guinea, São Tomé and Príncipe, Solomon Islands, South Sudan, and Timor-Leste
30. Countries in the Fragile States group are also included in their regional group.
31. UN Women 2016b.
32. It needs to be emphasized that the 2017 and 2019 scores are not strictly comparable because of the shift in the indicator of intimate partner violence from lifetime to current prevalence, which generally boosted country scores.
33. With a tie at the bottom position in 2017, there were 13 countries in the bottom dozen positions.
34. Raman 2018.
35. Times News Network 2018.
36. World Bank 2017b.
37. World Bank 2019b.
38. Kabir and Klugman 2019a.
39. El-Zoghbi 2018.
40. World Bank 2017b.
41. Afghanistan, Burundi, CAR, Djibouti, Pakistan (not a fragile state), South Sudan, and Yemen.
42. World Bank 2018a.
43. Klugman and Quek 2018.
44. World Bank 2017b.
45. World Bank 2018b.
46. GSMA Development Fund 2010.
47. GSMA Development Fund 2010.
48. Rowntree 2019.
49. Gallup World Poll 2018.
50. Kabir and Klugman 2019a.
51. Klugman and Quek 2018.
52. Santosham and Lindsey 2015; Rowntree 2018; Muhura 2018; Barboni et al. 2018.
53. ILOSTAT 2018.
54. Raihan and Bidisha 2018.
55. Human Rights Watch 2015b.
56. Gardiner 2018.
57. Assaad et al. 2018.
58. Inglehart et al. 2014.
59. UNHCR 2019.
60. Based on International Parliamentary Union data, March 2017 and January 2019 (IPU 2019). If the parliamentary system is bicameral, the average is weighted by number of

- seats in each house. Not every country held elections over the two year period.
61. Cuba has also attained gender parity in parliament but is not included in the Index ranking because of insufficient data on other indicators.
 62. International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance 2018.
 63. Baruah and Reyes 2017
 64. Hinojosa and Piscopa 2018.
 65. Shalby 2018.
 66. Golder et al. 2017; Lühiste and Kenny 2016.
 67. *The Guardian* 2018.
 68. Iceland Monitor 2017.
 69. World Bank 2019a.
 70. World Bank 2019a.
 71. Guha 2017.
 72. World Bank 2019a.
 73. Dalacoura 2019.
 74. World Bank 2019a.
 75. Melander, Pettersson, and Themnér 2016.
 76. Pettersson, Höglbladh, and Öberg. 2019.
 77. Pettersson, Höglbladh, and Öberg 2019.
 78. Pettersson, Höglbladh, and Öberg 2019.
 79. Devries et al. 2013; Hanmer and Klugman 2016; Heise and Kotsadam 2015; Swaine et al. 2018.
 80. Klugman and Li 2019.
 81. Heise and Kotsadam 2015.
 82. Østby 2016.
 83. The term *conflict-related sexual violence* refers to rape, sexual slavery, forced prostitution, and other forms of sexual violence perpetrated against women, men, girls, or boys that are directly or indirectly linked to a conflict (UN 2019).
 84. Holen and Vermeij 2017.
 85. PRIO 2019.
 86. WHO 1997.
 87. UN 2019.
 88. Intrastate, internationalized internal, and interstate conflicts are included. In addition to active conflict-years, the SVAC dataset includes up to five years between active conflict-years—called interim years, when lethal violence drops below 25 battle deaths but increases again within five years—and the first five post-conflict years after the last active year of conflict. See Cohen, Kay, and Nordås (2014).
 89. Prevalence is measured on a numeric scale from 0 to 3 to capture the reported severity, where 0 = none, 1 = isolated events of sexual violence, 2 = numerous events, and 3 = massive events.
 90. The unit of observation is *conflict-actor-year* in the SVAC dataset and *country-year* in the WPS Index. While the time periods for the SVAC dataset and the WPS Index do not overlap, many WPS Index data points are available for the 2012–15 period and—apart from legal discrimination, cell-phone use, and financial inclusion—do not tend to change quickly.
 91. Using *no* sexual violence as the reference category, we see that *massive events of sexual violence* is significant at the 5 percent level, *numerous* at the 5.7 percent level, while *isolated events* does not have a significant effect.
 92. Kishi, Pavlik, and Matfess 2019.
 93. The ACLED (2019a) data capture only physical violence; online violence and other threats of violence are not included.
 94. The ACLED dataset currently covers countries across Africa, South and Southeast Asia, the Middle East, and Southeastern and Eastern Europe and the Balkans (ACLED 2019b). Further expansions are underway.
 95. The relationship between the WPS Index scores and rates of political violence targeting women (correlation coefficient = $-.40$; $p < .0001$) is stronger than that between income per capita and levels of political violence targeting women (correlation coefficient = $-.22$; $p = .0458$).
 96. Kishi, Pavlik, and Matfess 2019.
 97. UN Meetings Coverage and Press Releases 2018; Guterres 2019.
 98. See, for example, van der Gaag et al. (2019), Heise et al. (2019), Doyle et al. (2018), Heilman and Barker (2018).
 99. van der Gaag et al. 2019.
 100. Addati 2018; Ferrant, Pesando, and Nowacka 2014.
 101. Correlation coefficient = $.55$.
 102. More information is provided in country-specific reports available at: <https://promundoglobal.org/programs/international-men-and-gender-equality-survey-images/>.
 103. See, for example, Fleming et al. (2015).
 104. Heilman and Barker 2018.
 105. WHO 2016.
 106. WHO 2018.
 107. Betrán et al. 2005; Blencowe et al. 2011; Cheng et al. 2012; Grépin and Klugman 2013; Novignon, Olakojo, and Nonvignon 2012.
 108. Klugman et al. 2019.
 109. This is the definition of youth set out in UN Security Council Resolution 2250 on youth, peace and security.
 110. ILO 2019.
 111. ILO 2019. The UN Population Division (2019) generates estimates at five-year intervals, so we use the 2020 estimates for population, which is closest to the year for the youth out of education, employment, or training data. For the number of young women who are not in education, employment, or training, we use UN Population Division data estimates that there will be approximately 585 million women ages 15–24 in 2020.
 112. Wodon et al. 2018.
 113. An important exception is the period 2012–14, when battle deaths surged as both state-based and nonstate conflict increased (Melander et al. 2016).
 114. Gurr 1970; Collier and Hoeffler 2004; Fearon and Laitin 2003.
 115. Forsberg and Olsson 2016.
 116. Hudson et al. 2009.

117. Caprioli 2000; Caprioli 2003; Caprioli 2005.
118. Klugman and Volliaz 2019.
119. Forsyth and Moore 2019.
120. Wamsley 2019.
121. McCarthy 2017.
122. Kelley 2017.
123. GIWPS 2019.
124. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Poland 2018.
125. Government of Canada 2019.
126. Davies and True 2019.
127. Klugman, Rodríguez, and Choi 2011; OECD 2008; UNDP 2014.
128. Schmidt-Traub et al. 2017.
129. Klugman, Rodríguez, and Choi 2011. A prominent example is the Human Development Index (HDI), which changed its method of aggregation across three dimensions from arithmetic to geometric mean in 2010.
130. If the sex ratio for son bias is higher than 1.05, then the sex ratio score is calculated as $(1.2 - \text{sex ratio}) / (1.2 - 1.05)$. If the sex ratio is lower than or equal to 1.05, then the sex ratio score is calculated as $(\text{sex ratio} - 0.9) / (1.05 - 0.9)$. In the case of Jordan, the value is higher than 1.05, so the first formula is used.

References

- ACLED (Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project). 2019a. "Frequently Asked Questions: What Can and Cannot Be Done with ACLED's New Gendered Associate Actors". https://www.acleddata.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/05/FAQ-Political-Violence-Targeting-Women_5.2019.pdf.
- . 2019b. Data Export Tool. <https://www.acleddata.com/data/>. [Accessed May 2019.]
- ADB (Asian Development Bank). 2014. *Timor-Leste Country Gender Assessment*. Mandaluyong City, Philippines: ADB. <https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/84126/timor-leste-country-gender-assessment.pdf>.
- ADB (Asian Development Bank) UNDP (United Nations Development Programme), UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund), and UN Women (United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women). 2016. *Gender Equality and Women's Rights in Myanmar: A Situation Analysis*. Mandaluyong City, Philippines: ADB, UNDP, UNFPA, and UN Women.
- Addati, L., U. Cattaneo, V. Esquivel, and I. Valarino. (2018). *Care Work and Care Jobs for the Future of Decent Work*. Geneva: International Labour Organization.
- Afkhami, Mahnaz, Yakin Ertürk, and Ann Elizabeth Mayer, eds. 2019. *Feminist Advocacy, Family Law and Violence Against Women: International Perspectives*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Al-Atrushi, Hazha H., Namir G. Al-Tawil, Nazar P. Shabila, and Tariq S. Al-Hadithi. 2013. "Intimate Partner Violence against Women in the Erbil City of the Kurdistan Region, Iraq." *BMC Public Health* 13 (37). <https://bmcwomenshealth.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1472-6874-13-37#Abs1>.
- Allen, Caroline F., and Juliette Maughan. 2016. *Country Gender Assessment: Barbados*. Barbados Bureau of Gender Affairs. CADRES survey. Bridgetown, Barbados: Caribbean Development. 10.13140/RG.2.1.4613.3361. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/303811402_Barbados_Gender_Assessment.
- Alliance for Financial Inclusion. 2017. *Integrating Gender and Women's Financial Inclusion into National Strategies*. Report Guideline Note 27. Kuala Lumpur: Alliance for Financial Inclusion.
- Amnesty International. 2006. "Papua New Guinea: Women Human Rights Defenders In Action." ASA 34/004/2006. 4 September. London: Amnesty International. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/documents/asa34/004/2006/en/>.
- . 2017. "Will China Have Its #MeToo Moment?" Amnesty International. 24 November. London: Amnesty International. <https://www.amnesty.org/en/latest/campaigns/2017/11/will-china-have-metoo-moment/>.
- Assaad, Ragui, Rana Hendy, Moundir Lassassi, and Shaima Lassin. 2018. "Explaining the MENA Paradox: Rising Educational Attainment, Yet Stagnant Female Labor Force Participation." Discussion Paper 11385. IZA (Institute of Labor Economics), Bonn. <http://ftp.iza.org/dp11385.pdf>.
- Bansal, Samarth. 2017. "Indian States and Women: Where Are They Empowered, Where Are They Not." *Hindustan Times*. 6 April. <https://www.hindustantimes.com/interactives/women-empowerment-index/>.
- Barboni, G., E. Field, R. Pande, N. Rigol, S. Schaner, and C. T. Moore. 2018. "A Tough Call: Understanding Barriers to and Impacts of Women's Mobile Phone Adoption in India." Harvard Kennedy School Evidence for Policy Design, Cambridge, MA.
- Baruah, N., and J. Reyes. 2017. "Nepal Elections: More Women Have a Seat at the Table, But Will They Have a Voice?" The Asia Foundation, San Francisco, CA. 13 December. <https://asiafoundation.org/2017/12/13/nepal-elections-women-seat-table-will-voice/>.
- Behnke, Cammie. 2019. "Women in Rwanda Redefine Gender Roles through Agribusiness." Pulitzer Center. 7 April. <https://pulitzercenter.org/reporting/women-rwanda-redefine-gender-roles-through-agribusiness>.
- Berman-Vaporis, Irene, Lawson Parker, and Rosemary Wardley. November. 2019. "Peril. Progress. Prosperity. Women's Well-Being Around the World." *National Geographic Magazine*.
- Bertoni, Eleonora, Fabio Clementi, Vasco Molini, Francesco Schettino, and Hitomi Teraoka. 2016. *Poverty Work Program: Poverty Reduction in Nigeria in the Last Decade*. Washington, DC: World Bank. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/103491483646246005/Poverty-work-program-poverty-reduction-in-Nigeria-in-the-last-decade>.
- Betrán, Ana P., Daniel Wojdyla, Samuel F. Posner, and A. Metin Gülmezoglu. 2005. "National Estimates for Maternal Mortality: An Analysis Based on the WHO Systematic Review of Maternal Mortality and Morbidity." *BMC Public Health* 5 (131).
- Blencowe, Hannah, Simon Cousens, Luke C. Mullany, Anne C.C. Lee, Kate Kerber, Steve Wall, Gary L. Darmstadt, and Joy E. Lawn. 2011. "Clean Birth and Postnatal Care Practices to Reduce Neonatal Deaths from Sepsis and Tetanus: A Systematic Review and Delphi Estimation of Mortality Effect." *BMC Public Health* 11 (Suppl 3): S11.
- Bott, S., A. Guedes, A.P. Ruiz-Celis, J.A. Mendoza. 2019. "Intimate Partner Violence in the Americas: A Systematic Review and

- Reanalysis of National Prevalence Estimates." *Rev Panam Salud Publica* 43. <https://doi.org/10.26633/RPSP.2019.26>.
- Bouvier, Virginia M. 2016. *Gender and the Role of Women in Colombia's Peace Process*. New York: UN Women.
- Breiding, M.J., J. Chen, and M.C. Black. 2014. *Intimate Partner Violence in the United States—2010*. Atlanta, GA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. https://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/cdc_nisvs_ipv_report_2013_v17_single_a.pdf.
- CARE. 2018. *Women on the Move Annual Report 2018*. Report. Geneva: CARE.
- Cabrera-Balleza, Mavic, Agnieszka Fal-Dutra Santos, Mallika Iyer, Dinah Lakehal, Thais Rehder, and Susan Nyuon Sebit. 2019. *Women, Peace, and Security Index: Insights from the Field*. Global Network of Women Peacemakers.
- Caprioli, Mary. 2000. "Gendered Conflict." *Journal of Peace Research* 37 (1): 51–68.
- . 2003. "Gender Equality and Civil Wars." Working Paper 8, Conflict Prevention and Reconstruction Unit, World Bank, Washington, DC.
- . 2005. "Primed for Violence: The Role of Gender Inequality in Predicting Internal Conflict." *International Studies Quarterly* 49 (2): 161–178.
- Cheng, June J., Corinne J. Schuster-Wallace, Susan Watt, Bruce K. Newbold, and Andrew Mente. 2012. "An Ecological Quantification of the Relationships between Water, Sanitation and Infant, Child, and Maternal Mortality." *Environmental Health* 11 (4).
- China Power Team. 2019. "Do Women in China Face Greater Inequality than Women Elsewhere?" Center for Strategic and International Studies, Washington, DC. <https://chinapower.csis.org/china-gender-inequality/>. [Accessed May 2019.]
- Cohen, Dara Kay, and Ragnhild Nordås. 2014. "Sexual Violence in Armed Conflict: Introducing the SVAC Dataset, 1989–2009." *Journal of Peace Research* 51 (3): 418–428.
- Collier, Paul, and Anke Hoefler. 2004. "Greed and Grievance in Civil War." *Oxford Economic Papers* 56 (4): 563–595.
- Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women. 2018a. "Concluding Observations on the Combined Tenth and Eleventh Periodic Reports of the Republic of Moldova." CERD/C/MDA/CO/10–11/Add.1. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Geneva.
- . 2018b. "Concluding Observations of the Fifth Periodic Report of Turkmenistan." CEDAW/C/TKM/CO/5. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Geneva.
- . 2018c. "Concluding Observations on the Combined Third to Fifth Periodic Reports of Malaysia." CEDAW/C/MYS/CO/3–5. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Geneva.
- . 2018d. "Concluding Observations on the Combined Fifth and Sixth Periodic Reports of Estonia Addendum: Information Provided by Estonia in Follow-up to the Concluding Observations." CEDAW/C/EST/CO/5–6/Add.1. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Geneva.
- . 2019. "Combined Fourth to Seventh Periodic Reports Submitted by Latvia under Article 18 of the Convention, Due in 2017." CEDAW/C/LVA/4–7. Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Geneva.
- Dalacoura, Katerina. 2019. *Women and Gender in the Middle East and North Africa: Mapping the Field and Addressing Policy Dilemmas at the Post-2011 Juncture*. Report 3. Barcelona: Middle East and North Africa Regional Architecture Project.
- Darko, E., W. Smith, and D. Walker. 2015. *Gender Violence in Papua New Guinea*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Davies, Sara E., and Jacqui True, eds. 2019. *The Oxford Handbook of Women, Peace, and Security*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Desai, Sonalde, and R. Vanneman. 2018. "India Human Development Survey-II (IHDS-II), 2011–12." Ann Arbor, MI: Inter-university Consortium for Political and Social Research [distributor], 2018–08–08. <https://doi.org/10.3886/ICPSR36151.v6>. [Accessed May 2019.]
- Devries, K.M., J. Y. T. Mak, C. García-Moreno, M. Petzold, J. C. Child, G. Falder, S. Lim, L. J. Bacchus, R. E. Engell, L. Rosenfeld, C. Pallitto, T. Vos, N. Abrahams, and C. H. Watts. 2013. "The Global Prevalence of Intimate Partner Violence against Women." *Science* 340: 1527.
- Dong, Liu. 2017. "Parental Leave Extended in 30 Provinces." *China Daily*. 7 October. http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/china/2017-07/10/content_30059190.htm.
- Doyle, K., R.G. Levto, G. Barker, G.G. Bastian, J.B. Bingenheimer, S. Kazimbaya, et al. 2018. "Gender-Transformative Bandebereho Couples' Intervention to Promote Male Engagement in Reproductive and Maternal Health and Violence Prevention in Rwanda: Findings from a Randomized Controlled Trial." *PLoS ONE* 13 (4): e0192756. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0192756>.
- Eisikovits, Z., Z. Winstok, and G. Fishman. 2004. "The First Israeli National Survey on Domestic Violence." *Violence Against Women* 10(7).
- El-Zoghbi, Mayada. 2018. "Measuring Women's Financial Inclusion: The 2017 Findex Story." CGAP Blog, April 30, 2018. <https://www.cgap.org/blog/measuring-womens-financial-inclusion-2017-findex-story>.
- Falb, K.L., M.C. McCormic, D. Hemenway, K. Anfinson, and J.G. Silverman. 2013. "Violence against Refugee Women along the Thai-Burma Border." *International Journal of Gynecology & Obstetrics* 120 (3): 279–83. doi:10.1016/j.ijgo.2012.10.015.
- FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations). 2017. *Gender, Agriculture, and Rural Development in Armenia*. Budapest: FAO.
- FIDH (International Federation for Human Rights). 2018. "Ukraine: Suspect Arrested in the Killing of Katerina Gandzyuk: Fighting Impunity Must Be a Priority." Press Release. 16 November. <https://www.fidh.org/en/issues/human-rights-defenders/ukraine-suspect-arrested-in-the-killing-of-katerina-gandzyuk-fighting>.
- Fanslow, Janet, and Elizabeth Robinson. 2004. "Violence against Women in New Zealand: Prevalence and Health

- Consequences." *The New Zealand Medical Journal* 117 (1206). <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.536.2039&rep=rep1&type=pdf>.
- Fearon, James D., and David D. Laitin. 2003. "Ethnicity, Insurgency, and Civil War." *American Political Science Review* 97 (1): 75–90.
- Feng, Emily. 2017. "China's Mixed Messages to Working Women." *Financial Times*. 30 November. <https://www.ft.com/content/ff77d0b0-d043-11e7-9dbb-291a884dd8c6>.
- Ferrant, G., Pesando, L. M., and Nowacka, K. 2014. "Unpaid Care Work: The Missing Link in the Analysis of Gender Gaps in Labour Outcomes." OECD Development Centre, Paris. https://www.oecd.org/dev/development-gender/Unpaid_care_work.pdf.
- Fleming, P.J., J. McCleary-Sills, M. Morton, R. Levto, B. Heilman, and G. Barker. 2015. "Risk Factors for Men's Lifetime Perpetration of Physical Violence against Intimate Partners: Results from the International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGES) in Eight Countries." *PLoS ONE* 10(3): e0118639. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0118639.
- Forsberg, Erika, and Louise Olsson. 2016. "Gender Inequality and Internal Armed Conflict." In *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Politics*, ed. by W. Thompson. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Forsyth, Meredith, and Matt Moore. 2019. "Georgetown Research Helps Win Court Case." Washington, DC: Georgetown Institute of Women, Peace, and Security. 8 April. <https://giwps.georgetown.edu/giwps-research-helps-win-court-case/>.
- Gallup. 2018. Gallup World Poll 2018. Washington, DC: Gallup. <https://www.gallup.com/services/170945/worldpoll.aspx>. [Accessed May 2019.]
- Gallup and ILO (International Labour Organization). 2017. *Towards a Better Future for Women and Work: Voices of Women and Men*. Washington DC: Gallup and Geneva: ILO.
- Gardiner, Drew. 2018. "Attitudes and Norms on Female Employment in MENA." International Labour Organization, Geneva. <https://www.s4ye.org/sites/default/files/2018-03/Attitudes%20and%20Norms%20on%20Women%27s%20Employment%20%28S4YE%20IP%20Virtual%20Workshop%29.pdf>.
- Gastineau, Bénédicte, and Lucy Gathier. 2012. "Domestic Violence in Antananarivo (Madagascar): A Public Health Issue." *Pan-African Medical Journal* 11 (23). <http://www.panafrican-med-journal.com/content/article/11/23/pdf/23.pdf>.
- GDS (General Directorate of Statistics, Ministry of Health, Timor-Leste) and ICF. 2018. *Timor-Leste Demographic and Health Survey 2016*. Dili, Timor-Leste: GDS and Rockville, MD, US: ICF.
- General Directorate of Statistics, Ministry of Planning and Finance and Ministry of Health, Timor-Leste. 2018. "Timor-Leste Demographic and Health Survey." Dili. <https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR329/FR329.pdf>.
- GIWPS (Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security). 2019. Women, Peace and Security Index database. Washington, DC. <https://giwps.georgetown.edu/the-index/>.
- GIWPS and PRIO (Peace Research Institute Oslo). 2017. *Women, Peace, and Security Index 2017/18: Tracking Sustainable Peace through Inclusion, Justice, and Security for Women*. Washington, DC: GIWPS and PRIO.
- Gneezy, U., K.L. Leonard, and J.A. List. (2009). "Gender Differences in Competition: Evidence from a Matrilineal and a Patriarchal Society." *Econometrica* 77 (5): 1637–1664.
- Golder, Sona N., Laura B. Stephenson, Karine Van der Straeten, André Blais, Damien Bol, Philipp Harfst, and Jean-François Laslier. 2017. "Votes for Women: Electoral Systems and Support for Female Candidates." *Politics & Gender* 13 (1): 107–131.
- Government of Canada. 2019. "Feminist International Assistance Policy Indicators." 28 February. https://www.international.gc.ca/world-monde/issues_development-enjeux_developpement/priorities-priorites/fiap_indicators-indicateurs_paif.aspx?lang=eng.
- Government of Kerala State Planning Board. 2016. "Social Service: Gender and Development." *Economic Review 2016*. Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram, India. http://spb.kerala.gov.in/EconomicReview2016/web/chapter04_13.php.
- Grépin, Karen A., and Jeni Klugman. 2013. "Maternal Health: A Missed Opportunity for Development." *The Lancet* 381 (9879).
- GSMA Development Fund. 2010. "Women & Mobile: A Global Opportunity—A Study on the Mobile Phone Gender Gap in Low- and Middle-income Countries." GSMA and Cherie Blair Foundation. https://www.gsma.com/mobilefordevelopment/wp-content/uploads/2013/01/GSMA_Women_and_Mobile-A_Global_Opportunity.pdf. [Accessed May 2019.]
- Guha, Soumya. 2017. "The Dangers of the New Child Marriage Law in Bangladesh." *Al Jazeera*. Al Jazeera Media Network. March 4. <https://www.aljazeera.com/indepth/opinion/2017/03/risks-child-marriage-law-bangladesh-170304092243563.html>.
- Gurr, Ted. 1970. *Why Men Rebel*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Guterres, Antonio. Twitter / (@antonioguterres). 2019. "I'm shocked by the prevalence of political violence targeting women...." June 11, 2019, 5:34 pm. <https://twitter.com/antonioguterres/status/1138605533307572225>.
- Hanmer, Lucia, and Jeni Klugman. 2016. "Exploring Women's Agency and Empowerment in Developing Countries: Where Do We Stand?" *Feminist Economics* 22 (1): 237–263.
- Heilman, B., and G. Barker. 2018. *Masculine Norms and Violence: Making the Connections*. Washington, DC: Promundo-US.
- Heise, Lori L., and Andreas Kotsadam. 2015. "Cross-national and Multilevel Correlates of Partner Violence: An Analysis of Data from Population-based Surveys." *Lancet Global Health* 3 (6): 332–40.
- Heise, L., M.E. Greene, N. Opper, M. Stavropoulou, C. Harper, M. Nascimento, D. Zewdie, and Gender Equality, Norms, and Health Steering Committee. 2019. "Gender Inequality and Restrictive Gender Norms: Framing the Challenges to Health." *Lancet* 393: 2440–54.
- Higher Planning Commission of Morocco. 2009. *National Survey on the Prevalence of Violence against Women in Morocco, 2009*.

- Casablanca, Morocco: Higher Planning Commission of Morocco. <https://www.hcp.ma/file/121437/>.
- Himeleir, Kristen. 2018. "Papua New Guinea Poverty and Equity Brief." World Bank, Washington, DC. https://databank.worldbank.org/data/download/poverty/33EF03BB-9722-4AE2-ABC7-AA2972D68AFE/Archives-2019/Global_POVEQ_PNG.pdf.
- Hinojosa, Magda, and Jennifer M. Piscopo. 2018. "Women Won Big in Mexico's Elections—Taking Nearly Half the Legislature's Seats. Here's Why." *The Washington Post*. 11 July. https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/monkey-cage/wp/2018/07/11/women-won-big-in-mexicos-elections-taking-nearly-half-the-legislatures-seats-heres-why/?utm_term=.e965ca1c520b.
- Ho, Natalie. 2017. "Women's Rights in Myanmar: A Work in Progress." Editorial presented at the Warwick ASEAN Conference, 1 February.
- Holen, Sine Vorland, and Lotte Vermeij. 2017. "Combating Conflict-Related Sexual Violence." *NATO Review*. 26 October. <https://www.nato.int/docu/review/2017/Also-in-2017/combating-conflict-related-sexual-violence/EN/index.htm>.
- Hudson, Valerie M., Mary Caprioli, Bonnie Ballif-Spanvill, Rose McDermott, and Chad F. Emmett. 2009. "The Heart of the Matter: The Security of Women and the Security of States." *International Security* 33 (3): 7–45.
- Human Rights Watch. 2013. *A Revolution for All: Women's Rights in the New Libya*. New York: Human Rights Watch.
- . 2015a. *Bashed Up: Family Violence in Papua New Guinea*. New York: Human Rights Watch.
- . 2015b. "Marry before Your House Is Swept Away: Child Marriage in Bangladesh." https://www.hrw.org/sites/default/files/report_pdf/bangladesh0615_web.pdf. [Accessed May 2019.]
- . 2017. "Brazil: Domestic Violence Victims Denied Justice." 4 July. Human Rights Watch, New York. <https://www.hrw.org/news/2017/06/21/brazil-domestic-violence-victims-denied-justice>.
- . 2018. *World Report 2018: Nigeria*. New York: Human Rights Watch.
- . 2019a. "Papua New Guinea: Events of 2018." Human Rights Watch, New York. <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2019/country-chapters/papua-new-guinea#49dda6>. [Accessed May 2019.]
- . 2019b. "Nicaragua: Events of 2018." <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2019/country-chapters/nicaragua>. [Accessed May 2019.]
- Ibararán, P., N. Medellín, F. Regalia, and M. Stampini, eds. 2017. *How Conditional Cash Transfers Work: Good Practices after 20 Years of Implementation*. Washington DC: Inter-American Development Bank.
- Iceland Monitor. 2017. "Fewer Women in Iceland's New Parliament." Iceland Monitor, Politics and Society. mbl 30.10.2017 17:02 Uppfært 20:15. https://www.mbl.is/ferdalag/frettir/2017/10/30/fewer_women_in_iceland_s_new_parliament/.
- ILO (International Labour Organization). 2017. *Decent Work Country Programme for Lao PDR 2017–2021*. Geneva: ILO.
- . 2018. *Women and Men in the Informal Economy: A Statistical Picture*. Geneva: ILO.
- . 2019. *World Employment Social Outlook, 2019*. Geneva: ILO. <https://www.ilo.org/global/research/global-reports/weso/2019/lang--en/index.htm>.
- ILOSTAT. 2018. "ILO Employment-to-population Ratio." ILO Modelled Estimates. Geneva: ILO.
- IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union). 2019. "Statistical Archive: Women in National Parliaments." archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/world-arc.htm. Accessed May 8, 2019.
- Ingber, Sasha. 2018. "Demonstrators across Israel Protest Violence against Women." *NPR*. 4 December. <https://www.npr.org/2018/12/04/673401951/demonstrators-across-israel-protest-violence-against-women>.
- Inglehart, R., C. Haerpfer, A. Moreno, C. Welzel, K. Kizilova, J. Diez-Medrano, M. Lagos, P. Norris, E. Ponarin, and B. Puranen, eds. 2014. *World Values Survey: Round Six, Country-Pooled Datafile*. Madrid: JD Systems Institute. <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSDocumentationWV6.jsp>.
- International Crisis Group. 2018. "Stopping Nigeria's Spiralling Farmer-Herder Violence." International Crisis Group, Brussels. <https://www.crisisgroup.org/africa/west-africa/nigeria/262-stopping-nigerias-spiralling-farmer-herder-violence>. [Accessed May 2019.]
- International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance. 2018. "Gender Quotas Database." *International IDEA*. May 8. <https://www.idea.int/data-tools/data/gender-quotas/country-view/93/35>.
- IRC (International Rescue Committee). 2019. "Sustainable Development Goals, in Crisis." IRC, New York. <https://www.rescue.org/sites/default/files/document/3156/revisedsdgbriefer2019.pdf>.
- Jewkes, Rachel, Emma Fulu, Ruchira Tabassam Naved, Esnat Chirwa, Kristin Dunkle, Regine Haardörfer, and Claudia García-Moreno. 2017. "Women's and Men's Reports of Past-year Prevalence of Intimate Partner Violence and Rape and Women's Risk Factors for Intimate Partner Violence: A Multicountry Cross-sectional Study in Asia and the Pacific." *PLoS Medicine* 14 (9): e1002381.
- Kabir, Raiyan, and Jeni Klugman. 2019a. *Closing the Gaps for Women's Financial Inclusion: How Can Reducing the Mobile Phone Gap Close the Gender Gaps in Financial Inclusion?* Washington, DC: Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security.
- . 2019b. *Rescue Works: Unlocking Refugee Women's Potential: Closing Economic Gaps to Benefit All*. Georgetown Institute for Women Peace and Security, Washington DC, and the International Rescue Committee, New York. <https://giwps.georgetown.edu/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Unlocking-Refugee-Womens-Potential.pdf>.
- Kelley, J.G. 2017. *Scorecard Diplomacy: Grading States to Influence Their Reputation and Behavior*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kesselring, Scott. 2017. "Women's Empowerment in Libya." The Borgen Project. 21 November. <https://borgenproject.org/womens-empowerment-in-libya/>.
- Ketelaars, Elise. 2018. "When 'European Values' Do Not Count: Anti-gender Ideology and the Failure to Comprehensively

- Address GBV in Ukraine." London School of Economics. 26 September. <https://blogs.lse.ac.uk/gender/2018/09/26/when-european-values-do-not-count-anti-gender-ideology-and-the-failure-to-comprehensively-address-gbv-in-ukraine/>.
- Kishi, Roudabeh, Melissa Pavlik, and Hilary Matfess. 2019. "Terribly and Terrifyingly Normal": Political Violence Targeting Women." *ACLEDD Special Report*. <https://www.acleddata.com/2019/05/29/terribly-and-terrifyingly-normal-political-violence-targeting-women/>.
- Klugman, Jeni. 2019. *Justice for Women: High-level Group Report*. UN Women, International Development Law Organization, World Bank and Task Force on Justice.
- Klugman, Jeni, and Li Li. 2019. "Combatting Intimate Partner Violence: Do Laws Have a Role?" Unpublished manuscript.
- Klugman, Jeni, and Yvonne Quek. 2018. *Women's Financial Inclusion and Economic Opportunities in Fragile and Conflict Affected States*. Washington, DC: Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security.
- Klugman, Jeni, and Mariana Volliaz. 2019. "Gender Inequality and Violent Conflict: A New Look." Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security, Washington, DC. Unpublished manuscript.
- Klugman, Jeni, Francisco Rodríguez, and Hyung-Jin Choi. 2011. "The HDI 2010: New Controversies, Old Critiques." *The Journal of Economic Inequality* 9 (2): 249–88.
- Klugman, J., L. Li, K.M. Barker, J. Parsons, and K. Dale. Forthcoming. "How Are the Domains of Women's Inclusion, Justice, and Security Associated with Maternal and Infant Mortality across Countries? Insights from the Women, Peace, and Security Index." *Gender Equality, Empowerment and Health*, special issue of *Social Science & Medicine: Population Health*.
- Labrador, Rocio Cara. 2018. "Nicaragua in Crisis: What to Know." Council on Foreign Relations. 16 November. <https://www.cfr.org/article/nicaragua-crisis-what-know>.
- Lee, M., K. Stefani, and E. Park. 2014. "Gender-specific Differences in Risk for Intimate Partner Violence in South Korea." *BMC Public Health* 14 (415).
- Leithhead, Alastair. 2017. "The City That Won't Stop Growing." *BBC News*. 21 August. <https://www.bbc.co.uk/news/resources/1d7-sh/lagos>.
- Lühiste, Maarja, and Meryl Kenny. 2016. "Pathways to Power: Women's Representation in the 2014 European Parliament Elections." *European Journal of Political Research* 55 (3): 626–641.
- Mansour, Ziad, Mary Deeb, Gilbert Chagoury, and RoseMarie Chagoury, Lina Brandt, Racha Said, and Lina Torossian. 2017. *Understanding Masculinities: Results from the International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGES) in Lebanon*. Washington, DC: Promundo. https://promundoglobal.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/12/IMAGES_Leb_Report_Final_Web_Dec13.pdf.
- Maziak, Wasim, and Taghrid Asfar. 2003. "Physical Abuse in Low-income Women in Aleppo, Syria." *Health Care for Women International* 24 (4). <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/07399330390191689?journalCode=uhcw206>.
- McCarthy, Niall. 2017. "The Best and Worst Countries for Women." Infographic. *Forbes*. 8 November. <https://www.forbes.com/sites/niallmcCarthy/2017/11/08/the-best-and-worst-countries-for-women-worldwide-infographic/#3d55203d273b>.
- McKinsey Global Institute. 2015. "The Power of Parity: Advancing Women's Equality in India." New York: McKinsey Global Institute.
- Melander, Erik, Therése Pettersson, and Lotta Themnér. 2016. "Organized Violence, 1989–2015." *Journal of Peace Research* 53 (5): 727–742.
- Ministry for Family and Women's Affairs, Algeria. 2006. *Stratégie Nationale de Lutte contre la Violence l'égard des Femmes et son Plan d'action et le Plan Opérationnel de la Stratégie (2007–2011)*. <http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/fr/countries/africa/algeria/2007/strategie-nationale-de-lutte-contre-la-violence-l-egard-des-femmes-et-son-plan-d-action>.
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Poland. 2018. "Polish National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security 2018–2021." Warsaw. <https://www.peacewomen.org/sites/default/files/Polish%20NAP%20WPS%202018–2021.pdf>.
- Minoletti, Paul. 2016. *Gender (In)equality in the Governance of Myanmar: Past, Present, and Potential Strategies for Change*. Policy Dialogue Brief Series 11. Yangon: Asia Foundation.
- Morpeth, Rachel, and Jorge De Angulo. 2018. "Transforming Finance for Low-income People in Bolivia." *Accion*. 7 June. <https://www.accion.org/transforming-finance-low-income-people-bolivia>.
- Muhura, Adrine. 2018. "Mobile Money: Bringing Financial Inclusion to Life for Women in Ghana." GSMA. <https://www.gsma.com/mobilefordevelopment/programme/connected-women/mobile-money-bringing-financial-inclusion-life-women-ghana/>. [Accessed May 2019.]
- Musariri Chipatiso, Linda, Mercilene Machisa, Violet Nyambo, and Kevin Chiramba. 2014. *The Gender-based Violence Survey, Lesotho: Indicator Study, 2013*. Johannesburg, South Africa: Gender Links. http://genderlinks.org.za/wp-content/uploads/imported/articles/attachments/20068_final_gbv_ind_lesotho.pdf.
- Myanmar Humanitarian Country Team. 2018. *Myanmar: 2019 Humanitarian Needs Overview*. United Nations and Partners. https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/2019%20Myanmar%20HNO_FINAL.PDF.
- Narits, Raul, Silvia Kaugia, and Iris Pettai. 2016. "The Significance of Recognising Domestic Violence in Light of Estonian Legal Experts' Opinion and the Prospects for Systematising the Relevant Legislation." *Juridica International* 24: 128–38.
- National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria. 2016. "Computation of Human Development Indices for the UNDP Nigeria Human Development Report." Abuja: National Bureau of Statistics. <http://www.nigerianstat.gov.ng/download/830>.
- National Commission for the Advancement of Women. 2015. *Summary Report: A Study on Violence Against Women in Lao PDR: Lao National Survey on Women's Health and Life Experiences 2014*. Vientiane: National Commission for the Advancement of Women.

- National Crime Records Bureau, Indian Ministry of Home Affairs. 2016. "Crime in India 2016." New Delhi: Government of India.
- National Population Commission of Nigeria. 2018. *Demographic and Health Survey 2018: Key Indicators Report*. Abuja. <https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/PR118/PR118.pdf>.
- National Statistics Office of Mongolia and UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund). 2018. *Breaking the Silence for Equality: 2017 National Study on Gender-based Violence in Mongolia*. Ulaanbaatar: National Statistics Office of Mongolia. <https://mongolia.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/2017%20National%20Study%20on%20Gender-based%20Violence%20in%20Mongolia.pdf>.
- Nongbri, T. 1988. "Gender and the Khasi Family Structure: Some Implications of the Meghalaya Succession to Self-Acquired Property Act, 1984." *Sociological Bulletin* 37 (1–2): 71–82.
- Novignon, Jacob, Solomon A. Olakojo, and Justice Nonvignon. 2012. "The Effects of Public and Private Health Care Expenditure on Health Status in Sub-Saharan Africa: New Evidence from Panel Data Analysis." *Health Economics Review* 2 (22).
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2008. *Handbook on Constructing Composite Indicators: Methodology and User Guide*. Paris: OECD Publishing.
- . 2019a. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "Armenia." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019b. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "Benin." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019c. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "China." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019d. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "Estonia." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019e. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "Latvia." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019f. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "Malaysia." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019g. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "Moldova." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019h. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "Rwanda." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019i. Social Institutions & Gender Index. "Turkmenistan." Paris: OECD Development Centre.
- . 2019j. OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index. Paris: OECD.
- OHCHR (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights). 2016. "South Sudan: UN Report Contains 'Searing' Account of Killings, Rapes and Destruction." 11 March. Geneva: OHCHR. <https://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=17207&LangID=E>.
- . 2018a. "Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights Considers the Report of Turkmenistan." 2 October. Geneva: OHCHR. <https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=23672&LangID=E>.
- . 2018b. "Colombia Must Act to Stop Killings and Attacks against Human Rights Defenders—UN Expert." Bogota. 3 December. <https://www.ohchr.org/en/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=23968&LangID=E>.
- ONFP (Office National de la Famille et de la Population) and AECID (Spanish Agency for International Development Cooperation). 2010. *National Survey on Violence Against Women in Tunisia*. Tunis: ONFP and AECID. <http://www.medicities.org/documents/10192/54940/Enqu%C3%AAte+Nationale+Violence+envers+les+femmes-+Tunisie+2010.pdf>.
- OSCE (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe). 2019. *OSCE-Led Survey on Violence against Women: Well-Being and Safety of Women*. Vienna: OSCE. <https://www.osce.org/secretariat/413237>.
- Østby, Gudrun. 2016. "Violence Begets Violence: Armed Conflict and Domestic Sexual Violence in Sub-Saharan Africa." Workshop on Sexual Violence and Armed Conflict: New Research Frontiers, held at the Harvard Kennedy School, Harvard University, Vol. 2.
- PRIO (Peace Research Institute Oslo). 2019. "Pitfalls, Policy, and Promise of the UN's Approach to Conflict-Related Sexual Violence and the New Resolution 2467." PRIO Blogs. 23 May. <https://blogs.prio.org/2019/05/pitfalls-policy-and-promise-of-the-uns-approach-to-conflict-related-sexual-violence-and-the-new-resolution-2467/>.
- Pettersson, Thérèse, Stina Höglbladh, and Magnus Öberg. 2019. "Organized Violence, 1989–2018 and Peace Agreements." *Journal of Peace Research*. 56 (4): 589–603. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022343319856046>.
- Raihan, Selim, and Sayema Haque Bidisha. 2018. "A Research Paper on Economic Dialogue on Inclusive Growth in Bangladesh." Asia Foundation. https://asiafoundation.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/12/EDIG-Female-employment-stagnation-in-Bangladesh_report.pdf.
- Raman, Anand. 2018. "India Moves towards Universal Financial Inclusion." CGAP Blog. 30 August. <https://www.cgap.org/blog/india-moves-toward-universal-financial-inclusion>.
- Rosstat (Russian Federal State Statistics Service). 2011. "Reproductive Health Survey in Russia." http://www.gks.ru/free_doc/new_site/population/zdrav/zdravo-2011.pdf.
- Rowntree, Oliver. 2019. *Connected Women: The Mobile Gender Gap Report 2019*. London, UK: GSMA.
- Santosham, Shireen, and Dominicia Lindsey. 2015. *Bridging the Gender Gap: Mobile Access and Usage in Low- and Middle-income Countries*. London, UK: GSMA.
- Schmidt-Traub, G., C. Kroll, K. Teksoz, D. Durand-Delacré, and J. D. Sachs. 2017. "National Baselines for the Sustainable Development Goals Assessed in the SDG Index and Dashboards" *Nature Geoscience* 10.
- Shalby, Colleen. 2018. "A Record Number of Women Are Running for Office. This Election Cycle, They Didn't Wait for an Invite." *Los Angeles Times*. 10 October. <https://www.latimes.com/politics/la-na-pol-women-office-20181010-story.html>.
- Singha, Swapan. 2017. "Resisting Violence against Women and Working for Gender Justice in Manipur." *Actionaid*. 11 September. <https://www.actionaidindia.org/resisting-violence-against-women-and-working-for-gender-justice-in-manipur/>.

- State Planning Board, Thiruvananthapuram. 2017. "Economic Review 2017: State Planning Board, Thiruvananthapuram, Kerala, India." Government of Kerala. http://spb.kerala.gov.in/ER2017/web_e/ch431.php?id=41&ch=431.
- Su, Alice. 2019. "The Rising Voices of Women in Pakistan." *National Geographic Magazine*. 6 February. <https://www.nationalgeographic.com/culture/2019/02/the-rising-voices-of-women-in-pakistan/>.
- Sultan, Riad. 2017. *A Quantitative Assessment of Intimate Partner Violence and Associated Economic Costs in Mauritius*. Moka, Mauritius: Department of Economics, University of Mauritius. [http://gender.govmu.org/English/Documents/2018/domestic%20violence_final_draft_RS_July_2017%20\(7\).pdf](http://gender.govmu.org/English/Documents/2018/domestic%20violence_final_draft_RS_July_2017%20(7).pdf).
- Swaine, Aisling, Michelle Spearing, Maureen Murphy, and Manuel Contreras. 2018. *Intersections of Violence against Women and Girls with State-building and Peace-building: Lessons from Nepal, Sierra Leone, and South Sudan*. What Works to Prevent Violence Series. Washington, DC: The Global Women's Institute, The George Washington University.
- The Guardian*. 2018. "Slovenian Nationalist Party Set for Power after Winning Election." *The Guardian*. 4 June. <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/jun/03/anti-immigration-party-leads-exit-poll-in-slovenian-election>.
- Times News Network. 2018. "Women Hold over 50% of Jan Dhan Accounts." *The Times of India*. 15 February. <https://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/india/women-hold-over-50-of-jan-dhan-accounts/articleshow/62924005.cms>.
- UCDP (Uppsala Conflict Data Program), n.d. UCDP Georeferenced Event Dataset. <http://ucdp.uu.se/#/>.
- UN (United Nations). 2019. *Conflict Related Sexual Violence: Annual Report 2018*. New York: UN. <https://www.un.org/sexualviolenceinconflict/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/report/s-2019-280/Annual-report-2018.pdf>.
- . n.d.a. "Sustainable Development Goal 5." United Nations. <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg5>.
- UNDESA (United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs). 2018. *2017 Revisions of World Development Prospects*. <http://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/>.
- UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2014. *Human Development Report 2014 Technical Notes*. New York: UNDP.
- . 2015. *Women, Peace and Security in Libya*. New York: UNDP.
- . 2018. *Human Development Report: 2018 Statistical Update*. Human Development Report Office. <http://hdr.undp.org/en/2018-update>.
- UNESCO Institute for Statistics. 2019. UNESCO Institute for Statistics Database. <https://uis.unesco.org/>.
- UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund). 2017. *Asia and the Pacific Region Women Who Experience Intimate Partner Violence, 2000–2017*. Bangkok: UNFPA Asia and the Pacific Regional Office. <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/VAW%20Map%20September%202014%202017.pdf>.
- UNHCR. (United Nations Refugee Agency). 2019. *Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2018*. Geneva: UNHCR. <https://www.unhcr.org/5d08d7ee7.pdf>. Accessed June 20, 2019.
- UNHRC (United Nations Human Rights Council). 2018. *Report of the Independent International Fact-Finding Mission on Myanmar*. A/HRC/39/64. Geneva: UNHRC.
- . 2019. "Situation of human rights in Libya, including the implementation of technical assistance and capacity-building and efforts to prevent and ensure accountability for violations and abuses of human rights." Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Geneva. <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/G1902555.pdf>.
- UNIL (University of Lausanne). 2004. *International Survey on the Problem of Violence, 2004*. Lausanne, Switzerland: UNIL. https://www.unil.ch/files/live/sites/esc/files/shared/Crimiscope/Crimiscope025_2005_D_.pdf.
- UN Meetings Coverage and Press Releases. 2018. "World Facing 'Moment of Opportunity' to End Violence against Women, Third Committee Hears amid Calls for Gender Equality in Politics | Meetings Coverage and Press Releases." *United Nations Meetings Coverage and Press Releases*. United Nations. October 5. <https://www.un.org/press/en/2018/gashc4229.doc.htm>.
- UNOCHA (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs). 2018a. "Over 700 Road Obstacles Control Palestinian Movement within the West Bank." 8 October. Geneva: UNOCHA. <https://www.ochaopt.org/content/over-700-road-obstacles-control-palestinian-movement-within-west-bank>.
- . 2018b. "2018 Humanitarian Needs Overview: South Sudan." New York: UNOCHA.
- UNSC (United Nations Security Council). 2019. "Conflict-related Sexual Violence: Report of the Secretary General." S/2019/280. New York: UNSC.
- UN Population Division. 2019. "Population by Broad Age Groups (Female)." New York: UN Population Division. <https://population.un.org/wpp>.
- UN Women (United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women). 2016a. UN Women Global Database on Violence Against Women. New York: UN Women. <http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en>.
- . 2016b. "Moldova Takes Historic Step to Promote Gender Equality in Politics." 20 June. UN Women, New York. <http://eca.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2016/06/moldova-takes-historic-step-to-promote-gender-equality-in-politics>.
- . 2017. "Spotlight on Sustainable Development Goal 5: Achieve Gender Equality and Empower All Women and Girls." UN Women, New York. July 5. <http://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/multimedia/2017/7/infographic-spotlight-on-sdg-5>.
- . 2018. "We Are Liberated Benin: Women-led Agricultural Savings and Loans Groups Boost Empowerment in Benin." 1 October. UN Women, New York. <http://africa.unwomen.org/en/news-and-events/stories/2018/10/we-are-liberated-benin>.
- . 2019. "The Beijing Platform for Action: Inspiration Then and Now." *The Beijing Platform for Action Turns 20*. New York: UN Women. <http://beijing20.unwomen.org/en/about>.

- U.S. Department of State. 2017. *Nigeria 2017 Human Rights Report*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of State. <https://www.state.gov/documents/organization/277277.pdf>.
- USAID Nigeria. 2014. *Gender Analysis for Strategic Planning*. Report. Washington, DC: U.S. Agency for International Development.
- van der Gaag, N., B. Heilman, T. Gupta, C. Nembhard, C., and G. Barker. (2019). *State of the World's Fathers: Unlocking the Power of Men's Care*. Washington, DC: Promundo-US.
- WHO (World Health Organization). 1997. *Violence Against Women in Situations of Armed Conflict and Displacement*. <https://www.who.int/gender/violence/v7.pdf>.
- . 2005. Multi-country Study on Women's Health and Domestic Violence Against Women: Report on Initial Results, Prevalence Health Outcomes and Women's Responses. Geneva: WHO. https://www.who.int/gender/violence/who_multicountry_study/Chapter3-Chapter4.pdf.
- . 2016. *Maternal Mortality Fact Sheet*. <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs348/en>.
- . 2018. "Global Health Observatory (GHO) Data: Infant Mortality Situations and Trends, 2018." http://www.who.int/gho/child_health/mortality/neonatal_infant_text/en.
- . 2019. "Minister pledges to reduce high maternal and newborn mortality." Press release. <https://www.who.int/papua-newguinea/news/detail/28-02-2019-minister-pledges-to-reduce-high-maternal-and-newborn-mortality>.
- Wamsley, Laurel. 2019. "In Pakistan, Woman Says Husband Beat Her And Shaved Her Head For Refusing To Dance." *NPR*. 4 April. <https://www.npr.org/2019/04/04/709907783/in-pakistan-woman-says-husband-beat-her-and-shaved-her-head-for-refusing-to-danc>.
- WhatWorks. 2017. *No Safe Place: A Lifetime of Violence for Conflict-Affected Women and Girls in South Sudan*. http://www2.gwu.edu/~mcs/gwi/No_Safe_Place_Full_Report.pdf.
- Wodon, Quentin, Chata Male, Claudio Montenegro, Hoa Nguyen, and Adenike Onagoruwa. 2018. *Educating Girls and Ending Child Marriage: A Priority for Africa*. The Cost of Not Educating Girls Notes Series. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- Women's Aid Organization. 2017. *Annual Report 2017*. Kuala Lumpur: Women's Aid Organization.
- Women of Latin America. 2019. "Unenforced and Unrealized." 13 February. <https://colombiapace.org/2019/02/13/unenforced-and-unrealized-cedaw/>.
- Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. 2012. *Women, Peace and Security in the MENA: Emerging Themes and Shared Action Points*. Geneva: Women's International League for Peace and Freedom.
- World Bank. 2016. *Poverty Reduction in Nigeria in the Last Decade*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- . 2017a. *China: Systematic Country Diagnostic*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- . 2017b. *Global Findex Report 2017*. Washington, DC: World Bank. https://globalfindex.worldbank.org/sites/globalfindex/files/2018-04/2017%20Findex%20full%20report_0.pdf.
- . 2017c. "Supporting Women Entrepreneurship in Moldova." News Feature, 30 November World Bank, Washington, DC. <https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2017/11/23/supporting-women-entrepreneurship-in-moldova>.
- . 2018a. *Women's Financial Inclusion and the Law*. Washington, DC: World Bank. <http://pubdocs.worldbank.org/en/610311522241094348/Financial-Inclusion.pdf>.
- . 2018b. *State of Financial Inclusion of Women in Pakistan*. Washington, DC: World Bank. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/31323/134710-WP-PUBLIC-15-2-2019-13-41-38-StateofFinancialInclusionofWomeninPakistanFINALFeb.pdf>.
- . 2019a. *Women, Business, and the Law 2019: A Decade of Reform*. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- . 2019b. *Europe and Central Asia Economic Update, Spring 2019: Financial Inclusion*. Washington, DC: World Bank. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/31501>.
- . 2019c. International Comparison Program Database. GDP per capita PPP (constant 2011 international \$). Washington, DC: World Bank. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.PCAP.PP.KD>
- . 2019d. "Harmonized List of Fragile Situations." World Bank, Washington, DC. <http://pubdocs.worldbank.org/en/892921532529834051/FCSList-FY19-Final.pdf>.
- . 2019e. World Bank Open Data. Adolescent Fertility Rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15–19). Washington, DC: World Bank. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.ADO.TFRT>.
- . 2019f. World Development Indicators database. Washington, DC: World Bank.
- . n.d. "Poverty and Inequality." World Bank, Washington, DC. <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/world-development-indicators/themes/poverty-and-inequality.html>.

Countries and ranks

Rank	Country	Index	Rank	Country	Index	Rank	Country	Index
1	Norway	.904	57	Albania	.759	113	Togo	.665
2	Switzerland	.893	58	Fiji	.757	114	Senegal	.661
3	Denmark	.891	58	Uruguay	.757	114	Turkey	.661
3	Finland	.891	60	Mauritius	.752	116	Benin	.659
5	Iceland	.888	60	Turkmenistan	.752	117	Papua New Guinea	.658
6	Austria	.884	62	Namibia	.748	118	Bhutan	.657
7	United Kingdom	.883	63	Suriname	.744	118	Iran	.657
8	Luxembourg	.880	64	Moldova	.743	120	Saudi Arabia	.655
9	Netherlands	.879	65	Rwanda	.743	121	Ethiopia	.651
9	Sweden	.879	66	Guyana	.741	121	Tunisia	.651
11	Canada	.876	66	South Africa	.741	123	Azerbaijan	.650
12	Estonia	.873	68	Paraguay	.738	124	Gabon	.647
13	Slovenia	.872	69	Peru	.735	125	Lesotho	.641
14	New Zealand	.869	70	Hong Kong, SAR China	.731	126	Gambia	.638
15	Spain	.860	70	Panama	.731	127	São Tomé and Príncipe	.634
16	Ireland	.858	72	Qatar	.730	128	Comoros	.632
17	Germany	.856	73	Malaysia	.729	129	Jordan	.629
17	Portugal	.856	74	Dominican Republic	.726	130	Angola	.626
19	United States of America	.851	74	Zimbabwe	.726	130	Equatorial Guinea	.626
20	France	.847	76	China	.725	130	Malawi	.626
21	Latvia	.845	76	El Salvador	.725	133	Guinea	.625
22	Australia	.844	78	Ghana	.724	133	India	.625
23	Singapore	.843	78	Lao PDR	.724	133	Morocco	.625
24	Serbia	.839	80	Kyrgyzstan	.721	136	Burkina Faso	.622
25	Poland	.838	80	Timor-Leste	.721	136	Madagascar	.622
26	Lithuania	.835	82	Armenia	.720	138	Côte d'Ivoire	.617
27	Belgium	.827	83	Bahrain	.719	139	Burundi	.616
28	Italy	.826	84	Nepal	.717	140	Eswatini	.613
29	Japan	.823	84	Venezuela	.717	140	Haiti	.613
30	Czech Republic	.820	86	Belize	.716	142	Bangladesh	.612
31	Cyprus	.819	87	Barbados	.715	143	Algeria	.611
32	Croatia	.818	88	Nicaragua	.712	144	Liberia	.608
33	South Korea	.816	89	Uzbekistan	.710	145	Djibouti	.604
34	Israel	.815	90	Philippines	.709	145	Nigeria	.604
35	Slovakia	.813	91	Honduras	.708	147	Lebanon	.599
36	Malta	.807	92	Thailand	.707	148	Cameroon	.597
37	North Macedonia	.806	92	Viet Nam	.707	149	Congo	.593
38	Belarus	.804	94	Tanzania	.704	150	Myanmar	.587
39	Bulgaria	.801	95	Indonesia	.703	151	Egypt	.583
40	Montenegro	.791	96	Kuwait	.701	151	Mauritania	.583
41	Trinidad and Tobago	.788	96	Tajikistan	.701	153	Sierra Leone	.578
42	Jamaica	.787	98	Brazil	.700	154	Somalia	.564
43	Kazakhstan	.786	98	Cabo Verde	.700	155	Niger	.554
44	United Arab Emirates	.781	98	Kenya	.700	156	Chad	.553
45	Costa Rica	.779	101	Solomon Islands	.695	157	Sudan	.547
46	Georgia	.777	102	Cambodia	.694	158	Libya	.546
47	Mongolia	.776	103	Mexico	.693	159	Mali	.539
48	Argentina	.775	104	Colombia	.691	160	Central African Republic	.513
49	Ecuador	.772	105	Ukraine	.689	161	Congo, Dem. Rep.	.512
49	Hungary	.772	106	Guatemala	.680	162	Iraq	.490
51	Greece	.770	107	Sri Lanka	.679	163	South Sudan	.479
51	Russian Federation	.770	107	Zambia	.679	164	Pakistan	.460
53	Romania	.767	109	Uganda	.678	165	Syria	.416
54	Bolivia	.765	110	Mozambique	.675	166	Afghanistan	.373
55	Chile	.764	111	Maldives	.671	167	Yemen	.351
56	Bosnia and Herzegovina	.760	112	Botswana	.667			

The global Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index measures three major dimensions of women's well-being— inclusion (economic, social, political); justice (formal laws and informal discrimination); and security (at the family, community, and societal levels). The index ranks 167 countries—covering more than 98 percent of the world's population—along these dimensions in ways that focus attention on key achievements and critical shortcomings. Reflecting the shared vision that countries are more peaceful and prosperous when women are accorded equal rights and opportunity, the index aims to accelerate progress on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

"I firmly believe that data not only measure progress but inspire it. That's why I welcome this new global index on women, peace, and security as an important tool to shine a light on key achievements, as well as the work that remains to confront the violence, injustice, and exclusion that still hold back too many women and girls around the world. I hope organizations and governments alike will use these facts and findings to inform public debate and discussion and hold decision-makers to account."

—**Hillary Rodham Clinton**, Former U.S. Secretary of State

"In recent years, the world has built a resounding global gender equality compact with promise for radical change in the lives of women and girls. Like any promise, it needs to be kept—and that means that we need to track progress. I welcome this new global index that will show the advances made by and for women and girls across the world and that will pinpoint the remaining challenges. It is a constructive reality check on the achievement of a world that is free of gender discrimination and inequality, a world that leaves no one behind."

—**Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka**, UN Under-Secretary-General and Executive Director of UN Women

"We cannot afford to deny women their rights. As I have seen in my work around the world, women's empowerment and participation are key to global security, climate justice, and inclusive prosperity. I very much welcome the good news from this year's Women, Peace, and Security Index that the world seems to be moving in the right direction on women's inclusion, access to justice, and security. We need to accelerate the progress because, at the same time, the index underlines the continuing major gaps and the scale of the unfinished agenda."

—**Mary Robinson**, Former President of Ireland

"Women and girls are on the frontline of conflict and violence around the world. It is vital to hold all sections of the community accountable for their actions in protecting women and girls and mitigating the effects of violence. The world needs this index, and we need to use it to fight the abuse of power."

—**Rt. Hon. David Miliband**, President and CEO, International Rescue Committee

"Even as we recognize how far we have come, we must also consider how far we still have to go. We know that women are at the heart of efforts to achieve sustainable peace worldwide, but we also know that too little is being done to understand key gaps and deficits and how this undermines the security not only of the women themselves, but also of their families, communities, and nations at large. Those who would dismiss the contributions of one gender would sacrifice half the talent, half the resources, half the potential of the people. This index is a critical step toward filling this gap, and I commend it to security sector leaders and policy makers alike."

—**Admiral Michael Mullen (Ret)**, 17th Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff

"NATO is among the international organizations that have welcomed the WPS Index as a tool to measure women's empowerment within a security framework. The index helps to inform and broaden the understanding of how women's inclusion and justice affect security. This year's report both highlights welcome trends—including the continuing de-escalation of violence globally since the 2014 peak—and underlines the correlation between peace and women's well-being."

—**Clare Hutchinson**, NATO Secretary General's Special Representative for Women, Peace and Security

"On Women, Peace and Security, as in everything else in our lives, in order to map our future and where we want to go, we have first to know where we are. That is why it is so important to be able to rely on solid, well-researched, and reliable information—such as that provided in the comprehensive Women, Peace, and Security Index—to help us inform our thinking, enhance our analysis, and steer our planning of initiatives, policies, strategies, and programs. In the European Union, we welcome and count on such excellent initiatives to serve our work as an important compass with the most updated data on the situation for women and girls around the globe, to enable us to target our priorities correctly and make a real difference at the earliest possible time."

—**Ambassador Mara Marinaki**, European Union's Principal Advisor on Gender



PRIO Centre on
Gender, Peace
and Security



GIWPS Georgetown Institute for
Women, Peace and Security

