

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

Justice

Inclusion

Women Peace and Security Index 2017/18

Security



Country	Index	Rank	Country	Index	Rank	Country	Index	Rank
Afghanistan	.385	152	Ghana	.701	69	Niger	.538	144
Albania	.714	60	Greece	.76	40	Nigeria	.583	128
Algeria	.595	123	Guatemala	.65	102	Norway	.879	2
Angola	.575	133	Guinea	.573	135	Pakistan	.441	150
Argentina	.715	59	Haiti	.625	111	Panama	.694	72
Armenia	.654	100	Honduras	.675	83	Paraguay	.696	71
Australia	.827	17	Hungary	.739	46	Peru	.693	73
Austria	.841	15	Iceland	.886	1	Philippines	.702	68
Azerbaijan	.623	113	India	.58	131	Poland	.799	28
Bahrain	.709	63	Indonesia	.669	90	Portugal	.822	20
Bangladesh	.585	127	Iran	.619	116	Qatar	.707	64
Belarus	.767	37	Iraq	.5	147	Romania	.739	46
Belgium	.846	10	Ireland	.823	19	Russian Federation	.721	55
Belize	.682	79	Israel	.679	80	Rwanda	.662	94
Benin	.582	130	Italy	.79	32	Saudi Arabia	.655	99
Bhutan	.628	108	Jamaica	.755	41	Senegal	.616	117
Bolivia	.707	64	Japan	.798	29	Serbia	.804	24
Bosnia and Herzegovina	.734	50	Jordan	.627	110	Sierra Leone	.563	137
Botswana	.656	97	Kazakhstan	.741	45	Singapore	.846	10
Brazil	.677	82	Kenya	.631	107	Slovakia	.776	35
Bulgaria	.735	48	Korea, Republic of	.8	27	Slovenia	.861	4
Burkina Faso	.609	118	Kuwait	.675	83	Somalia	.555	140
Burundi	.603	122	Kyrgyzstan	.69	74	South Africa	.732	51
Cambodia	.66	95	Lao People's Democratic Republic	.723	54	Spain	.86	5
Cameroon	.548	142	Latvia	.787	34	Sri Lanka	.656	97
Canada	.854	7	Lebanon	.547	143	Sudan	.521	145
Central African Republic	.474	149	Lesotho	.623	113	Suriname	.718	57
Chad	.551	141	Liberia	.588	126	Swaziland	.575	133
Chile	.713	62	Lithuania	.79	32	Sweden	.854	7
China	.671	87	Luxembourg	.841	15	Switzerland	.871	3
Colombia	.659	96	Macedonia, FYR	.766	38	Syrian Arab Republic	.385	152
Comoros	.583	128	Madagascar	.576	132	Tajikistan	.687	75
Congo	.559	138	Malawi	.591	125	Tanzania	.672	85
Congo, Democratic Republic	.486	148	Malaysia	.665	91	Thailand	.67	89
Costa Rica	.73	52	Maldives	.605	120	Togo	.64	104
Côte d'Ivoire	.604	121	Mali	.505	146	Trinidad and Tobago	.743	44
Croatia	.804	24	Malta	.795	31	Tunisia	.663	93
Cyprus	.802	26	Mauritania	.566	136	Turkey	.634	105
Czech Republic	.797	30	Mauritius	.705	67	Turkmenistan	.679	80
Denmark	.845	12	Mexico	.686	76	Uganda	.654	100
Dominican Republic	.707	64	Moldova	.671	87	Ukraine	.646	103
Ecuador	.746	42	Mongolia	.761	39	United Arab Emirates	.746	42
Egypt	.559	138	Montenegro	.77	36	United Kingdom	.845	12
El Salvador	.685	77	Morocco	.623	113	United States of America	.81	22
Estonia	.809	23	Mozambique	.628	108	Uruguay	.714	60
Ethiopia	.633	106	Myanmar	.606	119	Uzbekistan	.72	56
Finland	.855	6	Namibia	.735	48	Venezuela	.684	78
France	.817	21	Nepal	.672	85	Viet Nam	.665	91
Gabon	.592	124	Netherlands	.854	7	Yemen	.407	151
Georgia	.727	53	New Zealand	.826	18	Zambia	.625	111
Germany	.845	12	Nicaragua	.717	58	Zimbabwe	.697	70

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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.

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ISBN: 978-0-692-94090-7

Suggested citation: Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security and 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.

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



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Praise for the Women, Peace, and Security Index 2017/18

“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

“As the world works to realize the sustainable development goals (SDGs), we will need robust tools to measure progress. I welcome this new global Index—the first gender index to be developed for women’s role in peace and security—as a mechanism to assess countries’ progress against the SDGs, thus creating inclusive, just, and peaceful societies for all.”

—**Amina Mohammed**, Deputy Secretary General,
United Nations

“It has taken 17 years from the adoption of the first resolution on women, peace and security for this index to become a reality. Much has been said about justice, security, and inclusion being interlinked, but only now have the data been put together that show us how. We know that women are often the first to feel the impact of smoldering conflicts. Their rights and security are often threatened long before gunshots are heard. This index has the potential to sensitize us to dangerous situations and could ultimately contribute to conflict prevention efforts. We are excited about the index and hope that it will be used actively by the UN system, nation states, academia, and civil society alike.”

—**Børge Brende**, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Norway

“I welcome this groundbreaking global index, which for the first time links women’s justice and security with measures of broader inclusion. This is a critical step forward in efforts to better connect humanitarian, peace and security, and development work in order to fulfill women’s human rights and create more stable and just societies. The WPS Index is a welcome addition to the evidence base we need to both highlight progress and achievements and to hold decision-makers to account. It provides policy-makers with critical evidence to guide them in setting priorities to enhance gender justice and women’s security and inclusion.”

—**Winnie Byanyima**, Executive Director, Oxfam International

“The Peace Research Institute of Oslo and the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security deserve our thanks for devising a new global index that captures the complexity of issues at the heart of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The WPS Index provides invaluable insight into the well-being of women and girls. We know that wherever they are accorded full and equal rights and opportunity, the prospects for peace and prosperity improve. The condition of women and the denial of their rights is an indicator of future instability and conflict. The WPS Index has the potential to contribute to building our resilience globally.”

—**Kristalina Georgieva**, Chief Executive Officer, The World Bank

“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 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

“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 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

“Together we can create a world that is better, stronger, safer. But only if and only when we recognize the full and equal rights of women. This new Women, Peace, and Security Index offers compelling and insightful data that will support our fight for women’s rights globally.”

—**Lilianne Ploumen**, Minister for Foreign Trade and Development Cooperation, Netherlands

“‘Gender, peace and security’ is a challenging area to work in. We know and see only too well the problems of insecurity, injustice, and exclusion that women and girls particularly face, especially in fragile, conflict-affected societies. But our work is hampered by not having accurate and rigorous gender-sensitive data to analyze and point to as we reach out to policy-making communities. The WPS Index will be an asset in our research and advocacy, revealing gender gaps but, more importantly, opening windows of opportunity to transform peace and security outcomes for diverse women as well as men.”

—**Jacqui True**, Professor of Politics & International Relations and Australian Research Council Future Fellow at Monash University, Australia

“Agenda 2030 states that ‘there can be no sustainable development without peace and no peace without sustainable development.’ SDG16 is the main goal for ‘fostering peaceful, just and inclusive societies which are free from fear and violence,’ with strong links with other goals—including SDG5 on gender equality. I welcome this innovative gender index, the first to be developed in this new global framework. It provides an important tool to help us understand where things stand and where further progress is needed to advance women’s well-being, underlining the interconnectedness of the goals and targets, so that “all human beings can fulfill their potential in dignity and equality.”

—**Sarah Cliffe**, Director, New York University’s Center on International Cooperation

Preface

Global indices are a way to assess and compare national progress against international goals, such as the Sustainable Development Goals, by distilling complex information into a single number. Such composite indices can capture and synthesize an array of data in a way that can be readily understood and that is especially informative for multidimensional concepts.

The new global Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index introduced in this report bridges insights from gender and development indices with those from peace and security indices. The index incorporates three basic dimensions of well-being—inclusion (economic, social, political); justice (formal laws and informal discrimination); and security (at the family, community, and societal levels)—and captures and quantifies them through 11 indicators. It ranks 153 countries—covering more than 98 percent of the world’s population—along these three dimensions in a way that focuses attention on key achievements and major shortcomings. It reflects a shared vision that countries are more peaceful and prosperous when women are accorded full and equal rights and opportunity.

A primary goal of the index is to accelerate progress on both the international Women, Peace and Security agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals, bringing partners together around an agenda for women’s inclusion, justice, and security. It offers opportunities for stakeholders to review and discuss challenges and to identify opportunities for transformative change. It highlights key priorities, points toward a roadmap of needed reforms, and can inform more effective partnerships and collaboration.

Alongside much-needed reforms, this report aims to inspire further thought and analysis, as well as better data, to illuminate the constraints and enablers of progress for women and girls to meet the international community’s goals and commitments. Highly comparative and easy to

understand numbers can call out low performers and help to reinforce good performance.

The WPS Index and the findings it reveals are likely to be especially useful to several key stakeholder groups:

- *Policymakers* can draw on the results to set priorities for action to improve women’s inclusion, justice, and/or security in countries that are performing poorly overall or where achievements are unbalanced across the three dimensions and the underlying indicators. The index results reveal the potential for improvements, as well as more generalized deficits that require attention.
- *Civil society* can use the results to spotlight achievements as well as injustice and to hold decision-makers accountable, especially given the links to the Sustainable Development Goals to which all national governments have committed.
- *Businesses and investors* can better analyze risks and assess the policy environment in countries based on rankings on inclusion, justice, and security.
- *Academics* from a range of disciplines—peace and security studies, development economics, gender specialties—can exploit a wealth of possibilities for research from the WPS Index, which provides a major database for analysis as well as online tools to investigate the data.
- *The international development community* can see a comprehensive picture of achievements and gaps along a range of fronts, including areas needing greater focus and investment.

The index will be updated every two years. It will track progress ahead of the UN High-level Political Forum in 2019, for follow-up and review of the Sustainable Development Goals, and the 20th anniversary of 2000 UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, providing a platform for scaling up efforts toward 2030.

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 and the Peace Research Institute Oslo (PRIO).

The work on the index and on this report was conducted by a team led by Jeni Klugman, Managing Director of the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security, and Fellow of the Women and Public Policy Program, Harvard Kennedy School. The report team comprised Amie Gaye, who was responsible for construction of the index; Patty Chang, Marianne Dahl (PRIO), and Roudabeh Kishi, who undertook data and statistical analysis; and Arjun Krishnan, who supplied invaluable research support and analysis throughout; and Yvonne Quek, who proofread the report.

Thanks to Torunn Tryggstad (PRIO) for comments on an early draft and to several GIWPS staff and fellows who helped to prepare country spotlights: Anna Applebaum, Holly Fuhrman, Briana Mawby, Rebecca Turkington, and Andrew Walker. We thank Henrik Urdal for his contributions throughout the process, Karim Bahgat for help on the conflict data, Inger Skjelsbæk for discussions on various

aspects of the index, and Ragnhild Nordaas (PRIO) for advice on sexual violence. And thanks to Luis Mancilla and Sarah Rutherford (GIWPS) for excellent administrative and contract support.

Special appreciation goes to Milorad Kovacevic (Human Development Report Office) for invaluable and timely advice on statistical questions; to Sarah Cliffe and David Stevens (Center for International Cooperation, New York University); Augusto Lopez-Claro (World Bank) and Sarah Davis and Jacqui True (Monash University) for useful feedback and advice on draft versions; and to Juncal Plazaola Castaño at UN Women for advice on intimate partner violence data.

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

Finally, we would like to extend our gratitude to the Government of Norway’s Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Bank of America Charitable Foundation for generously funding the study; without their support this work would not have been possible.



Executive Summary

Women are at the heart of efforts to achieve sustainable peace through inclusion, justice, and security. This notion is explicit in the 2000 agenda established by United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. The agenda urged all actors to increase women’s participation and incorporate gender perspectives in UN peace and security efforts and called for women’s empowerment and inclusion in preventing and resolving conflict and building peace (see box 1.1 in chapter 1). In 2016, the United Nations General Assembly and the United Nations Security Council adopted resolutions on “Sustaining Peace,” which mark a transformative shift from peacebuilding to sustaining peace as “a goal and a process to build a common vision of society.”

The Sustaining Peace Agenda complements the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, 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. SDG 5 is a keystone goal; the other SDGs cannot be met without the empowerment of women. SDG 16 commits to the promotion of peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provision of access to justice for all, and building of effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions. The normative framework on Women, Peace and Security is critical to both agendas, recognizing that women’s rights are vital to achieving peace and justice so that all people can fulfill their potential in dignity and equality. Such efforts build on

the platform established at the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, which incorporated dialogue on women’s political and economic participation, freedom from violence, and role in armed conflict.

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. But while there are a growing number of global indices, none has brought together the three critical dimensions of women’s inclusion, justice, and security. Gender indices are typically limited to indicators of inclusion, such as whether women complete secondary school or are in paid work. These aspects of inclusion are undoubtedly important, but they are incomplete in the absence of aspects of justice and security. 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 and assessments but invariably ignore systematic bias and discrimination against women and girls.

The new Women, Peace, and Security Index

The global Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index introduced in this report bridges insights from gender and development indices with those from peace and security indices in a way that is simple and transparent and that reflects women’s autonomy and empowerment as agents at home, in the community, and in society. The index is structured around three basic dimensions of well-being: inclusion (economic, social,

political); justice (formal laws and informal discrimination); and security (at the family, community, and societal levels). It captures and quantifies these three dimensions through 11 indicators and presents a comprehensive measure of women's well-being (figure 1). The index ranks 153 countries—covering more than 98 percent of the world's population—along these three dimensions in a way that focuses attention on key achievements and major shortcomings.

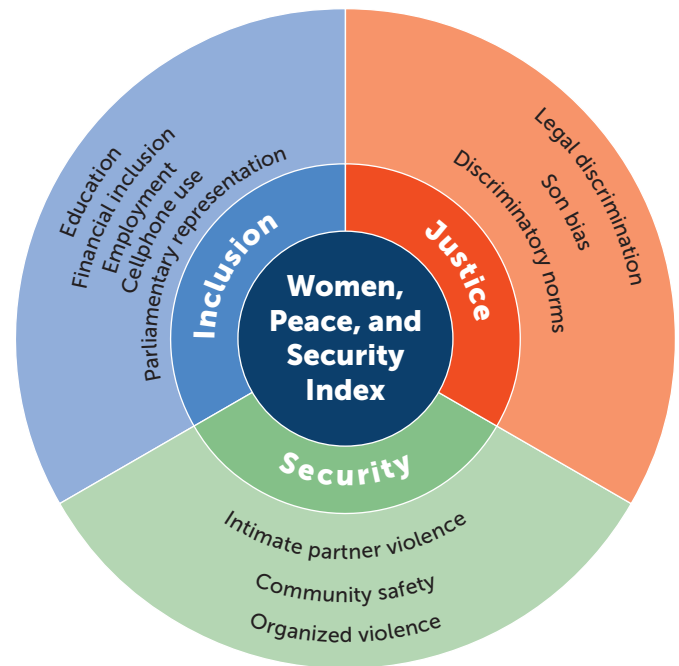
While the framework laid out in Security Council Resolution 1325 is structured around four pillars—Prevention, Protection, Participation, and Relief and Recovery—our index takes a broader, more encompassing approach. We argue that the condition of women and the denial of their rights are an early indicator of future instability and conflict. Key dimensions of the well-being of women and girls—whether they are fully included in economic, social, and political opportunities; whether they experience formal and informal discrimination; and whether they are free of violence—have intrinsic importance and are integral to peace and security. As the U.S. National Security Strategy underlined in 2010, “Experience shows that countries are more peaceful and prosperous when women are accorded full and equal rights and opportunity.” We capture the three dimensions under the headings of inclusion in economic, social, and political spheres; justice, including the associated legal protections and the absence of key markers of gender discrimination; and the freedom from violence represented in security at the household, community, and societal levels. And we call for more and better data to enable fuller assessments and monitor progress.

The WPS Index is the first gender index to be developed in the framework of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, adopted by all UN member states in September 2015. It is firmly grounded in the goals, targets, and indicators associated with this agenda. It can inform and strengthen the analytical capacity of a range of stakeholders, from the UN system and member states to civil society, to better understand and monitor the root causes of conflict.

In this inaugural report, we rank the 153 countries for which sufficient data are available based on their WPS Index score, which theoretically ranges from zero (the worst possible performance) to one (the best possible score). The index's three dimensions—inclusion, justice, and security—are measured using publicly available data. Inclusion is measured by women's achievements in education, employment, and parliamentary representation, as well as access to cellphones and financial services. Justice is captured in both formal and informal aspects through indicators that measure the extent of discrimination in the legal system, alongside any bias in favor of sons and exposure to discriminatory norms. Security is measured at three levels—family, community, and society.

The results are presented on a geographic basis for seven regions and a Developed Country group, as well as a Fragile States group, which cuts across several regions but with a majority of the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa.¹

FIGURE 1 The Women, Peace, and Security Index consists of 3 dimensions and 11 indicators



Note: See notes to statistical table 1 for definitions of indicators.
Source: Authors.

What are the headlines?

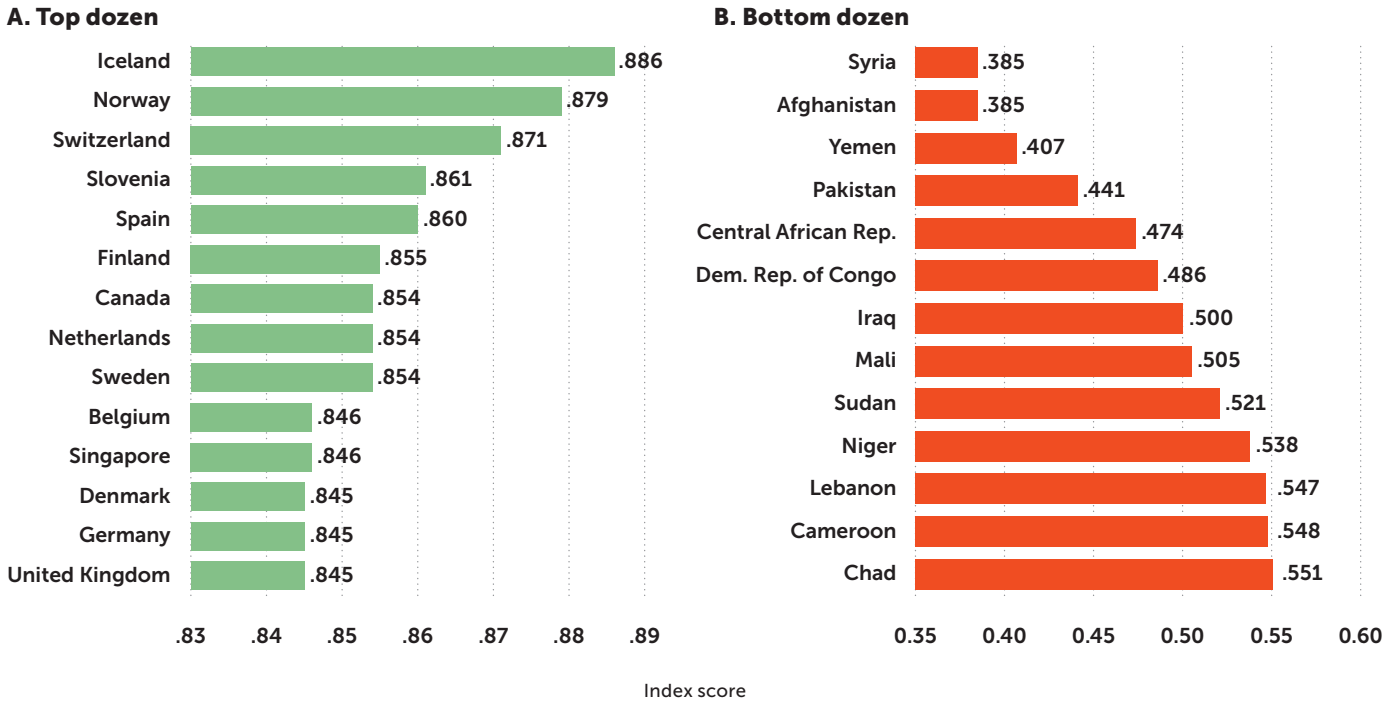
Overall, the index values range from a high of .886 for Iceland, which leads the world in this first edition of the WPS Index, down to .385 for Afghanistan and Syria, the bottom ranked countries in a tie for last place. The top and bottom dozen rankings on the WPS Index are shown in figure 2. Analysis of the index results reveals several key insights.

First, the index demonstrates that good things often go together. Around 30 countries score in the top third for all three dimensions, with achievements in each dimension reinforcing progress more broadly. Among country groups, positive mutual reinforcement is seen most notably for the Developed Country group, Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, and East Asia and the Pacific (figure 3).

Second, however, such favorable synergies are not a given, as patterns of unbalanced achievement across dimensions are also common. For example, Latin America does well on justice but performs unimpressively on inclusion—a dimension on which several other regions also perform poorly, most notably the Middle East and North Africa, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa (see figure 3).

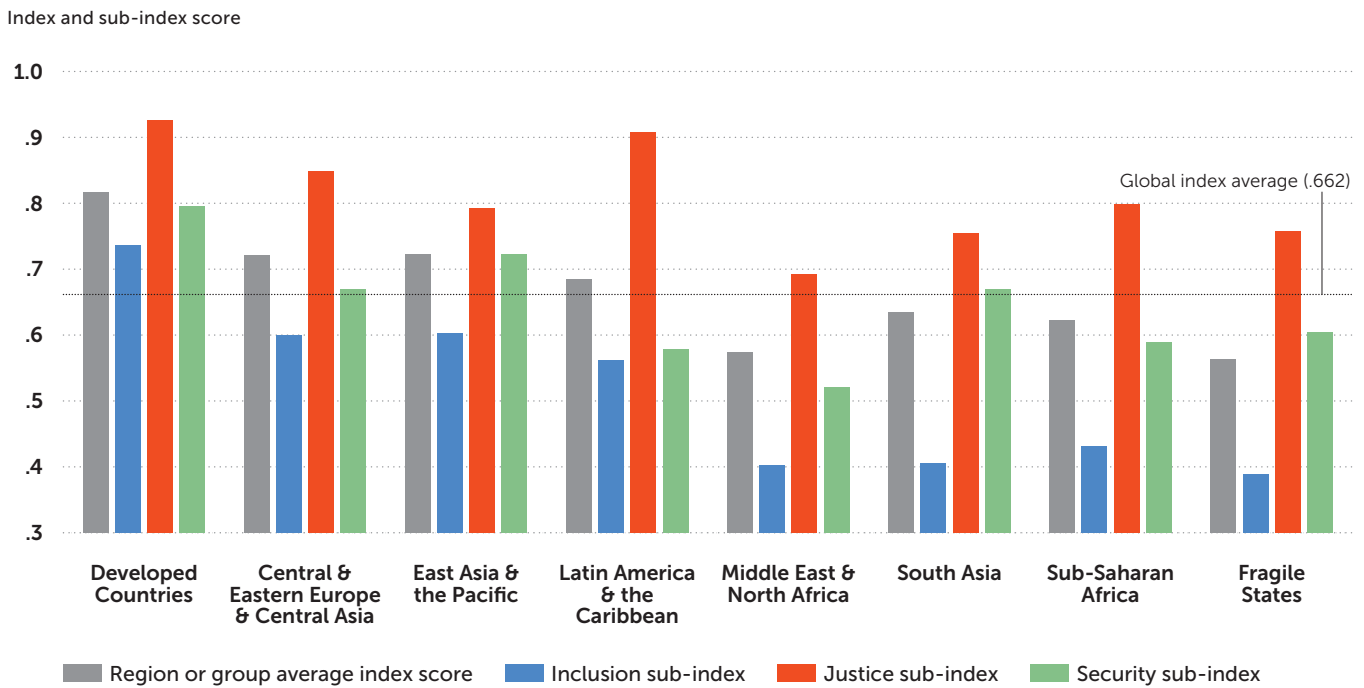
Third, while there are clear regional patterns in performance, there are also major differences within regions, illustrating that improvements are feasible in order to reach the standards of neighbors (figure 4). Thus, although the Middle East and North Africa is the bottom-ranked region on the WPS Index, which can be traced largely to high levels

FIGURE 2 The best and worst performers on the index



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

FIGURE 3 Good performance across dimensions of the index for some country groups and unbalanced for others



Note: Possible Women, Peace, and Security Index scores range from a low of 0 to a high of 1. See statistical table 1 for 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. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

of organized violence and discriminatory laws alongside generally poor scores on inclusion, its within-region differences are also striking. For example, the United Arab Emirates ranks in the top third of countries on the WPS Index globally, despite especially poor performance on legal discrimination. The lowest scoring regions all have some countries whose score exceeds the global average of .662, including Nepal in South Asia, and Namibia, South Africa, Mauritius, Ghana, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe in Sub-Saharan Africa. The same is true for specific indicators. For example, the global average for girls' education is about seven years, and all regions except South Asia have countries that have surpassed that level.

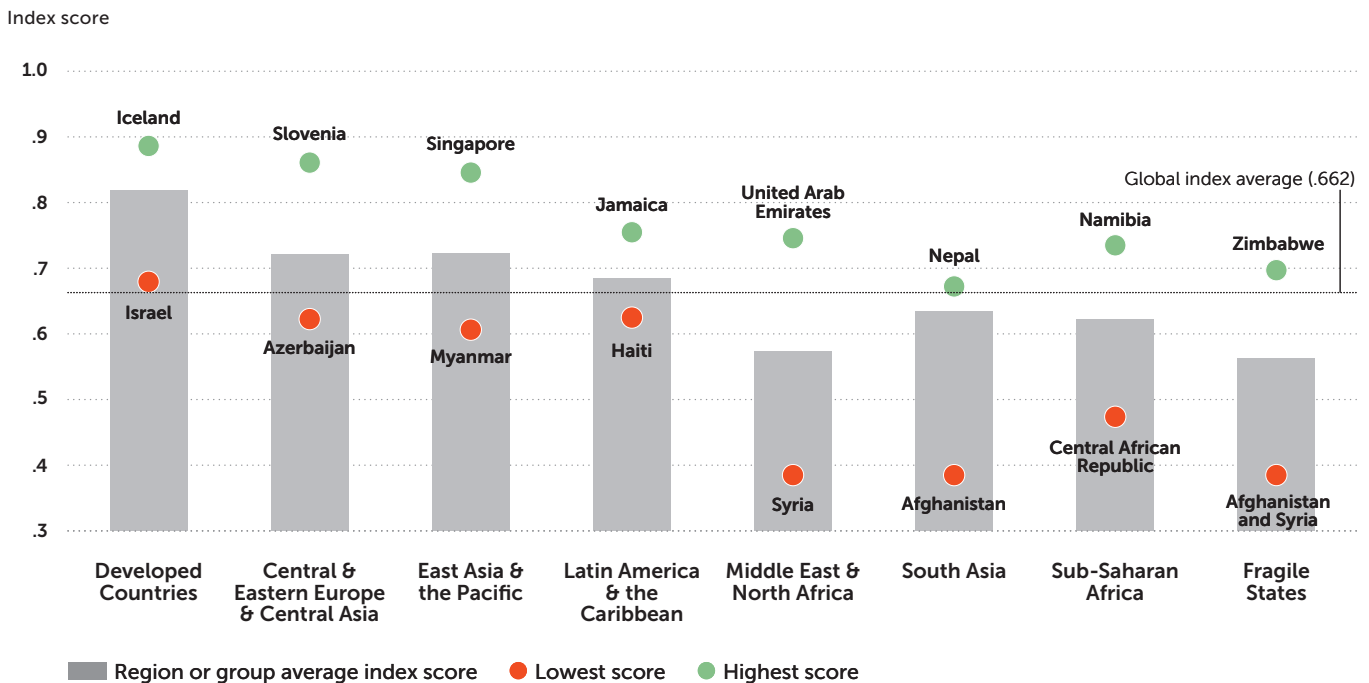
Likewise, it is striking that there is at least one country in every region that has surpassed the global mean rate of female cellphone use of about 78 percent. Access to cellphones is a critical tool for women in developing countries, especially given cellphones' increasing association with digital inclusion. Accumulating evidence demonstrates cellphones' importance for women's agency and self-confidence, safety, and access to markets and income earning opportunities. Almost 60 percent of female respondents to a recent survey across 11 developing countries reported that they felt more autonomous and independent while using a cellphone, almost 70 percent felt safer with a cellphone, while almost two-thirds of working women felt that cellphones improved

their access to business and employment opportunities.² Rigorous micro-level studies confirm these findings.³

Fourth, attainments in too many countries are well below global averages. In the inclusion dimension, for example, parliamentary representation of women ranges from a global high of 56 percent in Rwanda to zero in Qatar to single digits in nearly two dozen countries. On women's employment, behind a global average of about 50 percent, Syria is the lowest at 12 percent, and in five of eight country groups the regional average is less than half the global average of 50 percent. In the justice dimension, legal discrimination is extensive in the worst-scoring countries in all regions. Among the countries that maintain widespread legal discrimination, the most notable are Saudi Arabia, Syria, Jordan, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen in the Middle East and North Africa; Iran and Afghanistan in South Asia; and Sudan, Swaziland, and Mauritania in Sub-Saharan Africa. The share of men who do not think it is acceptable for women to work outside the home (discriminatory norms) is likewise high in several country groups, averaging one-fourth of men in the fragile states group and one-third in South Asia and ranging as high as 37 percent in the Middle East and North Africa.

Fifth, in too many countries, even those that have made partial progress, women face serious justice and security constraints. In Afghanistan and Saudi Arabia, for example, a raft of legal constraints and prejudices against women in paid

FIGURE 4 Some countries perform much better—and some much worse—than their regional average on the index



Note: Possible Women, Peace, and Security Index scores range from a low of 0 to a high of 1. See statistical table 1 for 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. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

work conspire against overall progress in women’s well-being. The countries in which more than half of men do not accept women working include Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Iraq, and Yemen, and rates range as high as 73 percent in Pakistan; in contrast, disapproval rates are in single digits in such countries as Botswana, Colombia, Ghana, Latvia, and Venezuela, as well as in most countries in the Developed Country group.

Finally, money matters, but many countries do far better on the WPS Index—or far worse—than their per capita income rank. Fifty-seven countries rank at least 10 places better on the WPS Index than on their global income ranking—most notably Zimbabwe,⁴ Lao People’s Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), and Nicaragua—while more than 50 countries do much worse: Saudi Arabia, for example, drops a stunning 89 places on the WPS Index relative to its per capita income.

A global snapshot for policy and advocacy

The global rankings on women’s inclusion, justice, and security offer multiple insights. They:

- Highlight priority areas in which policy reforms and investments are needed to accelerate progress, especially in countries that are performing poorly or where achievements are unbalanced across dimensions.
- Show that few countries perform uniformly well across key indicators of inclusion, justice, and security.
- Inform and contribute to an evidence-based narrative that inspires political action and social movements and helps ensure accountability.

- Build an integrated picture, highlighting data and evidence gaps, and promote consensus around actions to address those gaps.

The index offers broad groups of stakeholders and the international community a comprehensive picture of achievements and gaps across a critical range of fronts, including areas where greater attention and investments are needed. While the index reveals a snapshot showing that no country attains perfect scores on women’s inclusion, justice, and security, the country spotlights provide a fuller sense of progress and constraints over time.

We plan to update the index every two years. It can track progress on women’s inclusion, justice, and security ahead of the High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development in 2019 and the 20th anniversary of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security in 2020, providing a platform for scaling up efforts toward meeting the goals of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recently agreed by 193 governments.

We hope that these results and analyses provide opportunities for stakeholders to come together to discuss challenges and identify major opportunities for transformative change. Our work aims to accelerate progress on the Women, Peace and Security agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals and targets, bringing together partners around an agenda for women’s inclusion, justice, and security.

CHAPTER 1

Why a New Index Is Needed

In April 2016, the United Nations General Assembly and the United Nations Security Council adopted resolutions on “Sustaining Peace” that aimed to strengthen the UN system’s ability to prevent conflicts.⁵ The Sustaining Peace Agenda complements the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which recognizes the need to build inclusive, just, and peaceful societies for all. The normative framework on Women, Peace and Security established by UN Security Council Resolution 1325 in 2000 is critical to both. It recognizes that women’s rights are vital to achieving peace and justice, so that all human beings can fulfill their potential in dignity and equality. It calls for women’s empowerment and inclusion in preventing and resolving conflict and building peace (box 1.1).⁶

Global indices are a way to assess national progress against these goals. Such indices are increasingly popular because they can distill an array of complex information into a single number. Recent research has shown how “scorecard diplomacy” can be a powerful agent for change.⁷ Highly comparative and easy to understand numbers call out low performers and help to reinforce good performance.

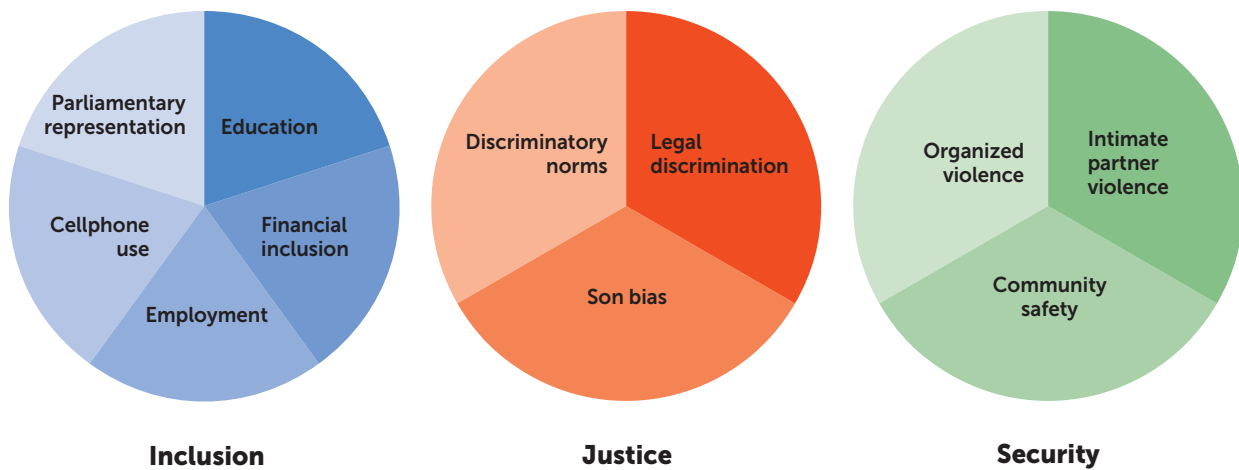
Yet, current gender indices tend to be restricted to such variables as education and political and economic participation. These are important aspects of women’s well-being and empowerment, but they are incomplete in the absence of measures of justice and security. Likewise, traditional measures of security include an array of indicators and assessments but ignore issues of justice, such as systematic bias

and discrimination, as well as violence against women and girls.

The new Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index introduced in this report is unique among indices on both the gender and the security fronts. The index bridges the insights from gender and development indices with those from peace and security indices, adopting key measures and insights of each (box 1.2). Simple and transparent, the index is based on best practice in the field. It was developed within the framework of the 2016 UN Sustaining Peace resolutions and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development agreed by 193 governments and is firmly grounded in the goals, targets, and indicators associated with the 2030 agenda.

The index captures important aspects of women’s autonomy and empowerment as agents in the home, in the community, and in the economy and society. Thus, the 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 family, community, and societal levels; figure 1.1). The index and its 11 indicators, grouped into three dimensions, provide a standardized, quantitative, and transparent measure for ranking all countries with sufficient data and spotlighting key achievements and major deficits. In this first report, ranks and detailed results are presented for 153 countries, covering more than 98 percent of the world’s population. (See statistical table 1 for definitions, data sources, and detailed results.)

FIGURE 1.1 The Women, Peace, and Security Index captures 3 dimensions of women’s well-being in 11 indicators



Source: Authors.

BOX 1.1 The International and National Architecture around the Women, Peace and Security Policy: United Nations Security Council Resolutions and National Action Plans

The United Nations Security Council has adopted eight resolutions since 2000 that together make up the global Women, Peace and Security agenda. The first, Resolution 1325, has been described as “one of the crowning achievements of the global women’s movement and one of the most inspired decisions of the United Nations Security Council” (UN Women 2015a):

- United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 of 2000, the best known, was the first to address the disproportionate and unique impact of armed conflict on women. It stresses the importance of women’s participation in peace and security processes. This resolution is the basis for several subsequent resolutions.
- UNSCR 1820 and 1888, both adopted in 2009, recognize sexual violence as a weapon of war and call for greater efforts in response and prevention.
- UNSCR 1889, also adopted in 2009, focuses on women’s participation in peace processes, while UNSCR 1960 of 2010 reiterates the call to end sexual violence in conflict.
- In 2013, UNSCR 2106 sought to operationalize existing commitments, and UNSCR 2122 laid out specific methods for increasing women’s participation.
- Most recently, UNSCR 2242 (2015) links gender to countering violent extremism and counterterrorism

and calls for greater integration of women, peace, and security concerns across the Security Council agenda.

Pursuant to these commitments, many countries have drafted National Action Plans (NAPs) to implement the tenets of the UNSCRs at the country level. As of 2017, 66 governments have adopted such plans, and both the African Union and the European Union have drafted Regional Action Plans. The 2014 North Atlantic Treaty Organization/Euro-Atlantic Partnership Council Policy on Women, Peace, and Security is another example of progress on the integration of principles of UNSCR 1325 and related resolutions into global strategic policy dialogue (NATO 2016).

There is wide variety in the issues addressed in NAPs in terms of the level of accountability, the extent to which the plans are incorporated in broader national policy, and associated resource allocations. Our review of the Peace-Women online database indicates that to date 18 countries have revised and updated their commitments with second-generation NAPs.

Overall progress toward implementing these resolutions and commitments remains slow and uneven, however, as documented by UN Women’s recent global study on the implementation of UNSCR 1325 (UN Women 2015a).

BOX 1.2 The Women, Peace, and Security Index and other global gender indices

Major innovative features set the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index apart from existing gender indices and security indices. The WPS Index incorporates several indicators that have never been used in other prominent gender indices: whether women's paid work is deemed acceptable by men in the society, women's perceptions of safety in the community, and women's experience of organized violence. The index also incorporates other indicators that have rarely been included in indices: financial inclusion, cellphone use, a bias for sons, and intimate partner violence. (Statistical table 1 defines the 11 indicators.)

The WPS Index, which uses internationally comparable data from published sources, has the most in common with the Social Institutions and Gender Inequality (SIGI) Index, published by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), and the Economist Intelligence Unit's Women's Economic Opportunity Index. But those two indices rely extensively on expert judgment to measure various concepts or to address missing data, are far more complex in construction, and have many more indicators than the WPS Index. And the SIGI Index does not include economic dimensions (such as employment and cellphone use) or indicators of organized violence.

The number of indicators in other gender indices ranges from five (the Gender Inequality Index of the United Nations Development Programme) to 33 (SIGI Index) and averages around 16 indicators. Every index aims to weigh its dimensions equally; most use arithmetic means to aggregate across indicators and dimensions. And most gender indices focus on gender gaps, thereby restricting themselves to indicators that can be measured separately for men and women. The WPS Index—like the SIGI and the Women's Economic Opportunity Index—estimates women's status and achievements in an absolute sense rather than relative to men.

The indices around peace and security tend to focus either on state fragility or on forecasting the probability of armed conflict or political instability.

Among those focusing on state fragility, the Index of State Weakness in the Developing World (from the Brookings Institution), the Fragile States Index (Fund for Peace and Foreign Policy), the Country Indicators for Foreign Policy Fragility Index (Carleton University), and the State Fragility Index (George Mason University) all cover security, governance, and social and economic development. The Fragile States Index also considers refugees and internally displaced people, demographic pressures, elite fractionalization, level of militarization, and illicit trade in and availability of small arms and light weapons. Taking a slightly different slant on security, the Global Peace Index, published annually by the Institute for Economics and Peace, is based on 23 indicators grouped into dimensions of domestic and international violent conflict, level of safety and security in society, and militarization, but it has no indicators that are directly related to women or gender inequality.

Forecasting-type indices include the Conflict Instability Ledger (University of Maryland), the Political Instability Task Force (Central Intelligence Agency), and the Global Conflict Risk Index (Joint Research Centre of the European Commission). These indices use predictive models to calculate the statistical risk of armed conflict based on variables that range from infant mortality rates to trade openness.

The number of indicators in the peace and security indices ranges from 20 (Index of State Weakness in the Developing World) to over 70 (Country Indicators for Foreign Policy). Like the WPS Index, they often cover levels of education and conflict intensity but typically do not include a focus on women or disaggregate results by gender. An exception is the Country Indicators for Foreign Policy Fragility Index, which incorporates a large range of indicators, including scores on gender (like women in parliament and the workforce) and the environment.

Unlike the WPS Index, the peace and security indices generally use a mix of official data and expert judgment, with some relying heavily on expert judgment of country performance in specific domains.

How the Women, Peace, and Security Index adds value

The WPS Index adds value as a more complete measure of women's status in society than other indices in several key respects:

- It is the first gender index to be motivated, developed, and published in the framework of the SDGs and is firmly grounded in the internationally agreed goals, targets, and indicators of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda.
- None of the existing global peace and security indices fully captures the gender dimensions of peace and security, nor do they include key aspects related to justice or to personal or organized violence.
- The WPS Index incorporates a major security dimension, which includes the lifetime incidence of intimate partner violence, women's perceptions of safety in their community, and organized violence in the country.

- The WPS Index uses absolute levels rather than gender gaps, making it possible to use such indicators as intimate partner violence and discriminatory norms and to avoid misleading results in contexts where low levels of achievement and inclusion characterize both men and women.

The WPS Index cannot be used to predict conflict, because organized violence is part of the measure. Moreover, well-known predictive indices of international security already exist (see box 1.2), and forecasting conflict is a major strand of peace and security studies.⁸ The WPS Index does, however, provide useful insights to inform research about the risk of conflict given, for example, the association between intimate partner violence and conflict (discussed in chapter 3). The relationship between gender inequality and violent conflict has been explored in major studies, and box 1.3 highlights key themes and spotlights new findings relevant to the design of the WPS Index.

The index will be updated every two years. Progress will be tracked ahead of the High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development in 2019 and the 20th anniversary of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security in 2020, providing a platform for scaling up efforts toward 2030.

Why adopt a multidimensional approach?

It is universally acknowledged that well-being is multidimensional: that education is important, but so are economic opportunities and security at home and in the community. These multiple dimensions are interconnected, and all are crucial for the well-being of individuals and societies. This insight is often associated with Nobel Prize winner Amartya Sen, and the concept has been popularized in the Human Development Reports and elaborated on by economists, philosophers, and development practitioners. We also know that high achievements in one dimension do not guarantee success in other spheres of life.

While efforts to quantify these dimensions inevitably simplify and lose some of the richness of the underlying concepts, the three dimensions of the WPS Index preserve much of the breadth and depth of the underlying principles. Composite indices such as the WPS Index have important strengths in capturing and synthesizing complex data in a way that can be readily understood and that is especially insightful for multidimensional concepts. By focusing on all countries on a regular basis, global indices can make information easy to process and can magnify the comparative element of status and reputation for individual countries.⁹ A prominent early and still widely cited example is the Human Development Index. The WPS Index specifically aims to accelerate progress on the United Nations Women, Peace and Security agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), bringing partners together around an agenda for women's inclusion, justice, and security. It points toward a roadmap of needed reforms and can enhance the effectiveness of partnerships and collaboration on related fronts.

Why these three dimensions?

The three dimensions chosen for the WPS Index were carefully selected. Inclusion is central both to the Women, Peace and Security agenda and to the SDGs; the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development emphasizes the importance of inclusion throughout, both for economic growth and more broadly.

Likewise, justice and security are at the core of women's well-being. Moreover, they underpin SDG 16 on promoting peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, making access to justice available for all, and building effective, accountable institutions at all levels. These two dimensions of the WPS Index have special resonance and relevance to women and girls, who often face injustice through formal and informal discrimination and a lack of security at home, in the community, and in society at large.

The WPS Index approach fits well with the emerging agenda around SDG 16+, which highlights the links among the SDGs and emphasizes the integrated and cross-cutting nature of the peace and security agenda.¹⁰ Moreover, the index not only promotes the SDG themes of inclusion, peace, and justice, but it is also directly related to how empowered women act as agents in the home, the community, the economy, and political life. This is a key theme of SDG 5, which explicitly aims to eliminate gender inequality and discrimination in all its forms.

Data and methods

Any index requires choices about indicators, data sources, and data aggregation. This section discusses indicators. Definitions and data sources are in statistical table 1. Appendix 1 outlines the normalization and aggregation procedures used in constructing the WPS Index, which have been informed by the policy and academic literature on composite indices.¹¹

Choosing indicators requires dealing with data constraints, which can be severe when identifying global measures that are widely accepted and comparable across a large set of diverse countries. This is especially so in the sphere of women and security, where data are particularly scarce. Our extensive review of the data was informed by the academic literature and the most recent reports of the United Nations (including UN Women¹² and the UN Secretary-General¹³), the World Bank, Data2X, and others.

To keep the index as simple and transparent as possible and to limit the number of indicators, strict criteria were applied in their selection in a two-step process (figure 1.2). The final indicators and their associated rationale are outlined in table 1.1.

All the indicators selected are explicit aspects of the SDGs (figure 1.3). As far as possible, they are part of the official set of indicators and targets for monitoring the SDGs. For each indicator, data came from a single published source, except in the case of intimate partner violence. Because the information for that indicator from the main source, UN databases on intimate partner violence, was too limited in scope,

BOX 1.3 Gender inequality and violent conflict: What we know and new results

A recent study usefully distinguishes two broad explanations that link gender inequality with violent conflict (Forsberg and Olsson 2016). The first relates to gender norms, specifically, that masculinized cultures can worsen the risk of violence. Highly patriarchal societies often assign traditional gender stereotypes to women and men, linking manhood to such characteristics as toughness and more bellicose attitudes. The second explanation emphasizes the capacity to mobilize for conflict, arguing that high gender inequality facilitates recruitment of young men, especially where there are excessive numbers of men due to a cultural bias favoring sons.

Several studies link gender unequal norms to violent conflict (Caprioli 2000, 2003, 2005; Caprioli and Boyer 2001; Gizelis 2009, 2011; Hudson et al. 2008/09; Melander 2005). Caprioli (2005) argues that institutionalized norms of gender inequality can inflame conflict by legitimizing the use of force. A related argument is that a highly patriarchal society normalizes violence in general, and against women specifically, increasing the risk of societal level conflict (Hudson et al. 2008/09).

In a series of articles, Caprioli quantifies factors relating to female social, economic, and political inclusion that are statistically significant in explaining variations in inter- and intrastate conflict, including high fertility (interpreted as a direct measure of gender inequality and a proxy measure for education, employment, and social standing), the share of women in the labor force, and the share of women in parliament (Caprioli 2000, 2003, 2005; Caprioli and Boyer 2001). Her results, which have been widely cited, underline the important point that the relationship between gender inequality and violent conflict cannot be limited to one factor; the social, political, and economic dimensions of gender inequality are all relevant.

High levels of gender inequality manifested in son bias have been linked to higher levels of military recruitment and mobilization. Hudson and den Boer (2002, 2004) draw on data for India and China to link their unbalanced sex ratios and the likelihood of conflict. Urdal (2008) finds that youth population bulges in India over 1956–2002 are associated with higher levels of armed conflict, political violence, and Hindu-Muslim riots. Hudson et al. (2008/09) find that son bias can result in large surplus numbers of aggressive, dissatisfied men, which can reinforce a hypermasculine culture that promotes violence as an acceptable means of conflict resolution.

And if men are unable to find a spouse or a job, this may reduce the opportunity cost of gathering in groups or “gangs,” activities that can then spill over into violent conflict.

Historical support for the thesis that imbalanced sex ratios have a security dimension includes the example of the Qing dynasty government of China, which in the eighteenth century “responded to the rising sex ratios brought about by high levels of female infanticide by encouraging single men to colonize Taiwan” (Ebenstein and Sharygin 2009). A century later, high rates of female infanticide in Shandong province were associated with a local rebellion.

Another dimension of gender inequality is women’s physical insecurity. Hudson et al. (2008/09) create a five-point ordinal scale to capture the degree of physical threat women experience related to domestic violence, rape, and femicide, finding that this threat is a statistically significant correlate of societal violence.

We build on this body of work and add value in several ways. As background analysis to inform development of the Women, Peace, and Security Index, we run a series of regressions to explain levels of organized violence. First, we update the time period from 2001 (the last year in Caprioli’s [2005] most recent analysis) to the latest data available (which extends through 2016 in some cases). Second, we use an improved measure of violent conflict (organized violence) as an outcome variable. Third, our measure of exclusion takes advantage of the more comprehensive dataset on ethnic power relations that has been published since Caprioli’s (2000) seminal piece, the Ethnic Power Relations dataset, which records all politically relevant ethnic groups and their degree of access to executive-level state power (Wimmer et al. 2009). Fourth, we incorporate direct indicators of gender-based violence and discriminatory norms. As in Caprioli’s (2005) models, our regressions also control for polity type, transitional polities, gross domestic product per capita, number of excluded groups, and prior violence.¹

Our results quantify novel insights into the significance of intimate partner violence and discriminatory norms in explaining levels of organized violence. These results are robust across a variety of models and specifications. The effect sizes on these variables are also larger than those associated with high rates of adolescent fertility, maternal mortality, and low parliamentary representation, which generally remain significant.

1. Data for polity type are from the Polity IV Project. The prior violence variable is a lagged version of the dependent variable, based on data from the Uppsala Conflict Data Program/Peace Research Institute Oslo.

those data were augmented with results published in national reports and peer-reviewed literature.

The index was estimated for 153 countries,¹⁴ covering 98.2 percent of the world's population across all levels of income and development. That coverage compares favorably with the Global Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum (144 countries) and the Gender Inequality Index of the United Nations Development Programme (140), for example. To be included in the WPS Index, a country must have data available for at least 8 of the 11 indicators. Of the 153 countries, 15 were missing data for 1 of the 11 indicators, 8 were missing data for 2 indicators, and 8 lacked data for 3 indicators. Missing data for a country were generally addressed by imputing the regional average for that score.¹⁵ In a few cases, the estimate for the country's nearest neighbor that shared common characteristics, such as level of development, was imputed. All these cases are footnoted in statistical table 1.

One important aspect of the justice dimension for which adequate data are lacking at the country level is official identity. An estimated 1.5 billion people—mainly in Africa and Asia—cannot prove their identity, and more than a third of them are under age 18.¹⁶ Important ramifications for the inclusion dimension follow, because without an official identity, a person can struggle to access financial services, social benefits, health care, and education and to secure political and legal rights. Collectively, the barriers facing individuals without a legal identity can lead to substantial exclusion and can be especially severe for people in conflict-affected countries and for people who are displaced from their homes.

Lack of identity affects more women than men, though the gender gap is not large: the best global estimates are 734 million men and boys (23 percent) and 742 million women and girls (22 percent).¹⁷ The highest shares of unregistered women are in Sub-Saharan Africa (38 percent) and the Middle East and North Africa and South Asia (both 29 percent).

In low-income countries overall, more than one in three people are unregistered.

Improving sex-disaggregated data and gender analysis

Holding governments and decision-makers accountable for their international commitments relies on timely and high-quality data that are disaggregated by sex, as well as other relevant characteristics. Such data are just as critical for informing effective decision-making. The data revolution called for by the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development must have women and girls at its heart. Likewise the Women, Peace and Security agenda calls for international actors and national governments to improve data on gender and conflict.¹⁸

A range of data gaps was encountered during development of the WPS Index, from economic opportunities (lack of comprehensive data on earnings, for example) through political participation at the local level. Current data on intimate partner violence are unavailable for many countries, so lifetime rates of partner violence were used. For 29 countries included in the index, the indicator value for intimate partner violence was imputed based on regional averages.¹⁹ Comparable data on discriminatory norms are typically limited to groups of countries (for example, the mainly low-income countries covered by Demographic and Health Surveys); fortunately, however, the new Gallup and International Labour Organization data on male attitudes to women working recently became available.

The indicators that were selected to measure the security dimension are investigated in depth in chapter 3. It should be noted here, however, why some possible measures were not included. Constraints regarding measures of current violence against women are noted above. Women's participation in peace-making, for example, was not included because comprehensive and timely data are not available.²⁰

FIGURE 1.2 Six principles guided selection of the indicators for the Women, Peace, and Security Index

STEP 1

Global relevance

Deeply relevant to women's well-being and applicable to a broad range of country settings and the Sustainable Development Goals.

Actionability

Actionable by policymakers and partners in advancing the women, peace, and security agenda.

Data availability

Data must be available for at least 8 of the 11 indicators that make up the index for at least 150 countries.

STEP 2

Data quality

Represent widely agreed-on measures and are derived from official sources (such as national statistical offices, UN organizations) or other reputable international sources (such as Gallup, Peace Research Institute Oslo, peer-reviewed journals).

Transparency

Data are derived from a population, or a representative survey, based measure and do not rely on the judgment of experts to score performance (such measures can be criticized as subjective).

Statistical comparability, adequacy, and timeliness

Data are collected and processed in a statistically reliable way, are not subject to large or frequent revisions, and are available for at least 120 countries for a recent year.

TABLE 1.1 Indicators for the Women, Peace, and Security Index: Definitions and rationale

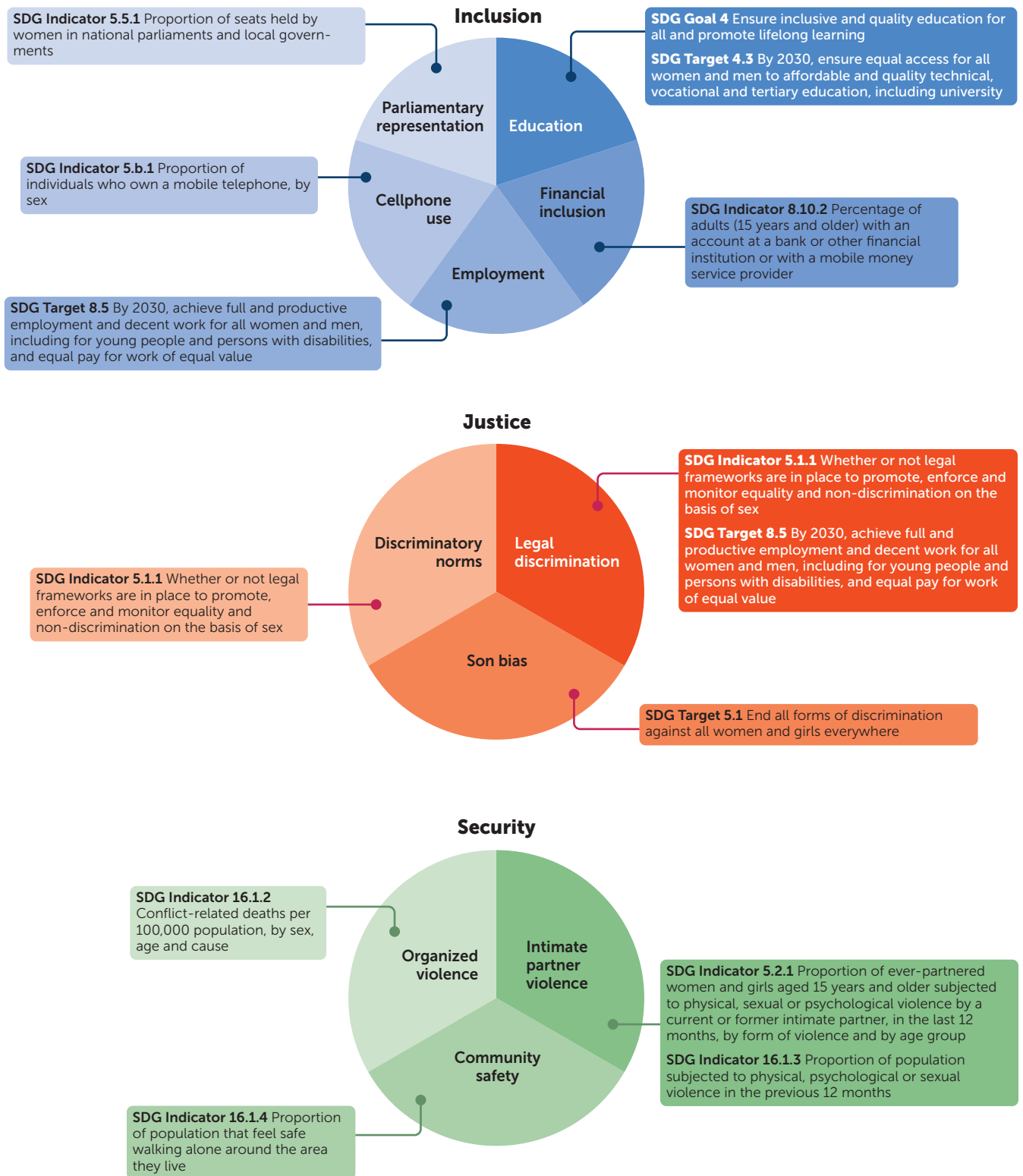
Dimension and indicator	Definition	Rationale
Inclusion		
Education	Average number of years of education of women ages 25 and older.	Education is critical to women's opportunities, freedom from violence, and health. Years of schooling is a more precise measure than, for example, secondary school completion.
Employment	Percentage of women ages 25 and older who are employed.	Reflects 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 years and older who report having a mobile phone that they use to make and receive personal calls.	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 in the past year.	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.	This is the most widely available measure of women's political participation.
Justice		
Legal discrimination	Aggregate score for laws and regulations that limit women's ability to participate in society and 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 professions restricted to men.
Son bias	Extent to which the sex ratio at birth (ratio of number of boys born to number of girls born) exceeds the natural demographic rate of 1.05. ^a	Preference for boys 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."	Captures discrimination against women in economic opportunities and the world of paid work.
Security		
Intimate partner violence	Percentage of women who experienced over their lifetime physical or sexual violence committed by their intimate partner.	Almost one in three women globally has experienced violence at home, with the rate rising as high as 78 percent in one case.
Perception of community safety	Percentage of women ages 15 years 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	Total number of battle deaths from state-based, non-state, and one-sided conflicts per 100,000.	Captures the extent of insecurity in society due to armed conflict.

a. Demographers estimate a natural sex ratio at birth to be 1.05 male births to 1 female birth. We estimate missing girls using the following formula: Missing girls = $G = (X/F)M$, where X is the number of boys born in excess of 1.05 times the number of girls born, F is total number of girls born, and M is total number of boys born.

b. Based on the Women, Business, and the Law database, a World Bank Group product that collects data on laws and regulations that constrain women's economic opportunities (World Bank 2016b). Our indicator aggregates 78 laws and regulations that differentiate between men and women across six categories (accessing institutions, using property, going to court, providing incentives to work, building credit, and getting a job), with greater weight given to six laws (requirement that married women obey their husband, mandate for paternity leave, equal remuneration for work of equal value, non-discrimination based on gender in hiring, and prohibitions of dismissal of pregnant workers and of child or early marriage). The "accessing institutions" category includes several types of constitutional provisions for gender equality.

Source: Authors. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

FIGURE 1.3 The Women, Peace, and Security Index has explicit links to the Sustainable Development Goals, Targets, and Indicators



Source: Authors, based on Sustainable Development Goals <http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/> (UN 2016b).

The battle deaths indicator used in the security dimension of the index is not disaggregated by sex, nor does it account for homicide rates in a society. Homicide data were not used as an indicator because they are generally incomplete and at times not comparable.²¹ Likewise, up-to-date comprehensive data are lacking on sexual violence in conflict (see box 3.1 in chapter 3).

A broad range of actors increasingly recognize the critical importance of addressing the gender data agenda. In May 2016, the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation announced a major tangible contribution of US\$80 million over the next three years to help close gender data gaps. At the 2016 Women

Deliver Conference in Copenhagen, partners across governments, non-profit, and philanthropic organizations agreed on a new statement of principles regarding gender data and their importance for accelerating development outcomes. Another welcome example on action on gender data gaps is the efforts by Women in Informal Employment: Globalizing and Organizing (WIEGO), the International Labour Organization, and the UN Statistics Division to improve the collection, tabulation, and dissemination of statistics on women's paid work, especially in informal employment, which is so extensive in developing countries.

SPOTLIGHT 1 Country performance on the Women, Peace, and Security Index reveals uneven achievements, with some reversals

Iran presents an interesting case of uneven achievements across dimensions. There are good accomplishments on financial inclusion, with almost 9 in 10 women having access to financial accounts, compared with a South Asian regional average of less than 2 in 5, and a similar high share of women using cellphones. Iranian women average about eight years of schooling compared with a regional average of four years. On the other hand, Iran performs considerably worse on the Women, Peace, and Security Index relative to its per capita income rank, dropping a hefty 57 places.

In particular, legal discrimination is a significant barrier to gender equality in Iran and is among the factors pulling the index rank down to 116. According to the World Bank, there are 23 restrictions against married women in Iranian law, including in applying for a passport, traveling outside the home, choosing where to live, and being head of the household. Women cannot get a job or pursue a profession in the same way a man can; they cannot be ensured of equal pay for equal work, and there are no laws to restrain gender discrimination in hiring. There are no laws that penalize or prevent the dismissal of pregnant women from work, nor are there laws that provide rights for paternity or parental leave or tax deductible payments for childcare. The Iranian Civil Code confers power on a husband to prevent his wife from taking any job found to be incompatible with the family interest or the dignity of the husband or his wife. Women have no legal protection against domestic violence or sexual harassment by anyone, and the constitution has no non-discrimination clause with gender as a protected category.

South Africa ranks second in the WPS Index for Sub-Saharan Africa, while revealing major unevenness in performance. Overall levels of achievement in inclusion are high relative to the rest of Sub-Saharan Africa, most notable in women's education and parliamentary representation. While there have been meaningful advances on the inclusion and justice fronts, the security of women lags—with especially low levels of perceptions of community safety. Fewer than 3 in 10 women feel safe walking in their community at night (the regional average is about 5 in 10). The national rate of intimate partner violence (25 percent) in the WPS Index is drawn from a 1998 regional survey of Limpopo, Mpumalanga, and the Eastern Cape. Other regional studies have found even higher lifetime rates (GenderLinks for Equality and

Justice 2015). Implementation of the 1998 Domestic Violence Act has been limited, including the failure of police to record cases, provide victim-friendly rooms at police posts, and convey appropriate information to victims, all of which in turn reduce the chances of successful prosecution (Africa Check 2016).

One promising initiative to change gender norms in South Africa has been the Soul City Program, a multimedia health promotion and social change project. Beginning in 1994 and using drama and entertainment, Soul City has reached more than 80 percent of South Africa's population and helped draw attention to domestic violence and raise awareness of key social services (Soul City Institute for Health and Development Communication 2016). The program also seeks to increase participation and community action and to empower women to negotiate relationships and safer sex.

Sri Lanka has long been recognized for its advances in gender equality and human development. Female literacy is close to universal. Free and mandatory education for boys and girls was established shortly after independence in 1948, and girls have seen equal access to education at all levels (UNICEF 2013). Universal franchise for both sexes was established in 1931, and Sri Lanka elected the world's first female head of state, Sirima Bandaranaike, in 1960. Major investments in women's health following independence led to falling maternal mortality, more girls staying in school, and families investing more in their daughters (Jayachandran and Lleras-Muney 2009).

Sri Lanka is tied with Botswana in 97th place overall on the WPS Index, which is at least 30 places ahead of Bangladesh and India, for example. Yet major gaps persist, and Sri Lanka's ranking on the index is 17 places below its income ranking. In 2016, the employment rate for working age women was less than half that of their male counterparts, and it has remained stagnant in recent decades. Women are also systematically underrepresented in management and decision-making positions in the public and private sectors, and their political representation in parliament is extremely low, at below 6 percent (Kovinthan 2016). While the WPS Index uses the United Nations Population Fund estimate of the lifetime rate of intimate partner violence of about 28 percent, higher rates have been reported by the Women's UN Report Network and PeaceWomen, for example (Nikolau 2016; PeaceWomen 2016).

(continued)

SPOTLIGHT 1 Country performance on the Women, Peace, and Security Index reveals uneven achievements, with some reversals *(continued)*

Turkey is a country of gender-equality paradoxes. Women hold almost half the academic positions and are one-third of the country's engineers and lawyers, yet they are virtually absent from the highest levels of political power, with only one woman currently in the cabinet (Muftuler-Bac 2015). While 1 in 8 chief executive officers in Turkey are women (against around 1 in 14 in the United States), the female labor force participation rate is the lowest among comparable Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development countries (Muftuler-Bac 2015).

This unevenness is captured in Turkey's performance on the WPS Index. Its overall ranking of 105 is 54 places below its income rank and partly reflects low female employment rates and a share of women in parliament standing at 15 percent. Legal discrimination and deep-seated norms appear to be major constraints. Violence against women is another major challenge in Turkey, with almost 40 percent of women experiencing physical or sexual violence from an intimate partner at least once in their lifetime. President Erdogan has declared that men and women are not equal and that believing so goes against nature. A number of politicians reinforce the view that women's role in society is that of traditional homemaker and mother (Muftuler-Bac 2015).

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) stands out as the highest ranking country in the Middle East and North Africa region across a number of metrics related to women's achievements, alongside major constraints. The government's commitment to women's education and participation in public life helps propel the country to a rank far above its neighbors', at 42nd place overall on the WPS Index (tied with Ecuador). In education, the country performs well regionally and globally, averaging just about nine years of schooling for women. Female students outperform their male counterparts in test scores and graduation rates at the secondary and tertiary education levels, leading to worries that men are falling behind on this front (Ridge 2009). The UAE is close to the global average in women's representation in parliament, and women account for almost a third of the cabinet, almost double the global mean, although this is largely through the UAE's system of direct appointments rather than popular elections (Dajani 2016).

An estimated 47 percent of UAE women are in the labor force, the second-highest rate in the region after

Qatar, with the country's large public health and education sectors being the major employers (El-Swais 2016). Poor working conditions for domestic workers, however, affect many of the estimated 150,000 women migrants working in UAE, who are excluded from federal labor law protections (Human Rights Watch 2014). Women remain underrepresented in the formal private and corporate sectors. Although the UAE government mandated that companies include women on their boards in 2012, data for 2015 show that only 1 percent of board directors are women (Lee et al. 2015).

UAE's achievements are constrained by its retention of many discriminatory laws, resulting in a rank close to the bottom on the justice dimension of the WPS Index. While there are some legal protections for women, including constitutionally mandated equal pay for equal work, the Sharia-based Law of Personal Affairs, which covers marriage, divorce, and succession, is restrictive and discriminatory, with clauses that require a male guardian to approve a woman's marriage and that give men a unilateral right to divorce (Ministry of State for Federal National Council Affairs 2009; Begum 2015). Protection measures for victims of sexual assault are weak, and there is no comprehensive law against domestic violence (Salem 2015).

The United States ranks 22 overall, with key deficits pulling the country's ranking 13 places below its global ranking on income per capita. On the inclusion dimension, the United States is on par with other countries in the top 25. However, its inclusion score is depressed by women's low share of parliamentary seats (fewer than one in five: together with Croatia, the United States is the only top 25 country below the global average on this indicator). While countries in much of the world have boosted women's representation through some type of quota, the United States has not. At current rates of progress, according to the Center for American Women in Politics, it will take more than a century to reach gender parity (Silva 2016).

On justice metrics, the United States ranks among its peers in the top tercile. The World Bank's *Women, Business, and the Law* report records no legal differences between men and women. However, the United States has not passed a constitutional amendment barring discrimination against women nor is it a signatory to the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All

(continued)

SPOTLIGHT 1 Country performance on the Women, Peace, and Security Index reveals uneven achievements, with some reversals *(continued)*

Forms of Discrimination against Women. It is also notable that the United States has no legal mandate for equal pay—the gender wage gap in full-time employment averages 20 cents on the dollar and is much wider for non-White women—and the United States and Papua New Guinea are the only countries without legally guaranteed paid maternity leave (ILO 2014). Moreover, the lack of childcare and paid maternity leave make the United States an outlier among rich countries.

The United States ranks 66th on the WPS Index security dimension due primarily to rates of intimate partner violence that are more than 10 percentage points above

the mean for developed countries. U.S. society faces a unique crisis of lethal violence against women, given the intersections between domestic abuse and the widespread availability of firearms. The risk of homicide for women in a domestic violence situation increases five-fold when a gun is present (Everytown for Gun Safety 2014). As for community security, the United States has an unusually large gender gap: 46 percent of men report feeling safe walking alone at night in their community but only 26 percent of women do, a gender gap of 20 percentage points. The average global gender gap is 7 percentage points.

Sustainable Development Goal 5

Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

Sustainable Development Goal 16

Promote just, peaceful and inclusive societies

Sustainable Development Goal Target 17.18

By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts



CHAPTER 2

Key Results, Regional and Country Highlights

This chapter highlights the major results and insights that emerge from an analysis of country rankings on the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index and its dimensions and indicators. The global rankings of 153 countries reveal that alongside some good performers that do well across the board, many others perform unevenly. Large differences within regions illustrate the feasibility of improvements in countries that are below their neighbors' standards. We highlight the top and bottom country performers, and investigate the role of income and correlations among dimensions, followed by a deeper dive into the innovative features of the justice dimension.

Global rankings and major patterns

The WPS Index results yield valuable findings and insights. A global league ranking displays the overall standing from the top (Iceland, scoring .886) through the bottom (Afghanistan and Syria, each at .385; figure 2.1). The figure also shows the relative performance of countries across terciles—best, middling, and worst performers. (The full set of scores for 153 countries and the underlying indicators are in statistical table 1.)

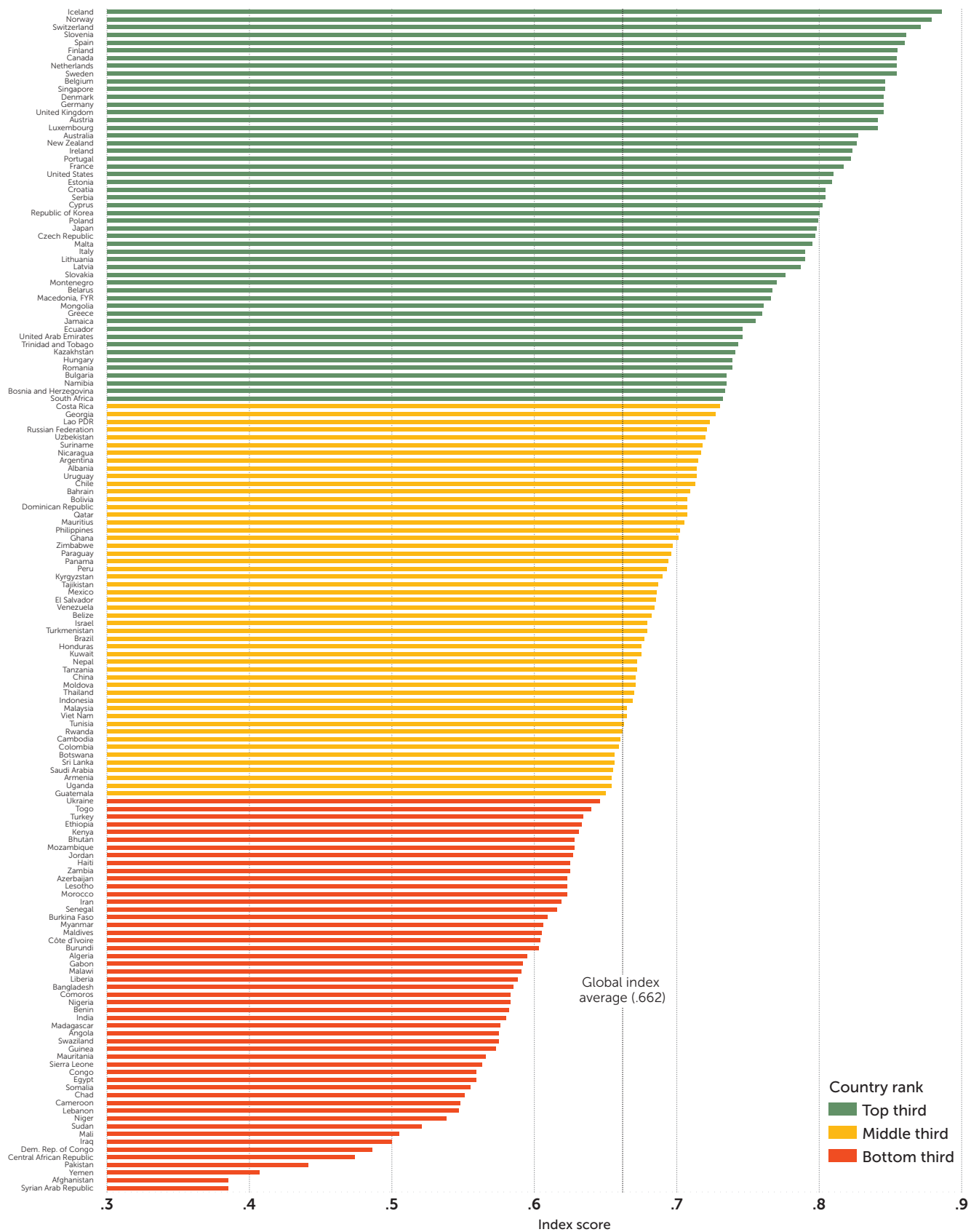
One important finding is that good things often go together—around 30 countries score in the top third for all dimensions and indicators, with achievements in each dimension reinforcing progress more broadly. However, few countries perform uniformly well or badly across the 11 indicators of inclusion, justice, and security. “Traffic lights” visualize good (green), middling (yellow), and bad (red) performance across the indicators (table 2.1).

Performance is also unbalanced across regions and country groups. The patterns of achievement across dimensions reveal that while some country groups attain fairly even achievements—notably the Developed Country group, Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, and East Asia and the Pacific—other regions show unbalanced performance (figure 2.2). Latin America and the Caribbean, for example, does much better on justice than on inclusion. Several other country groups perform very poorly on inclusion, notably the Middle East and North Africa, South Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa, and the Fragile States group. The Fragile States tend to score relatively poorly overall, with especially weak performance on the inclusion and security dimensions. Fewer than 1 in 10 women in the countries in this group have financial accounts—ranging as low as 1 in 50 in Yemen.

A regional lens

Alongside commonalities, there are major differences within regions, illustrating the scope for countries to improve in order to reach the standards of their neighbors (figure 2.3; see also tables 2.2 and 2.3 later in the chapter). The Middle East and North Africa region performs poorly on the index overall, which can be traced largely to high levels of organized violence, discriminatory laws that continue to disempower women, and low rates of inclusion. However, its within-region differences are also striking; for example, when comparing the United Arab Emirates with Syria. (Spotlight 1 at the end of chapter 1 illustrates some countries' patterns of achievement and gives a sense of the factors driving the ratings.)

FIGURE 2.1 Iceland tops the index ranking, while Afghanistan and Syria are at the bottom



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

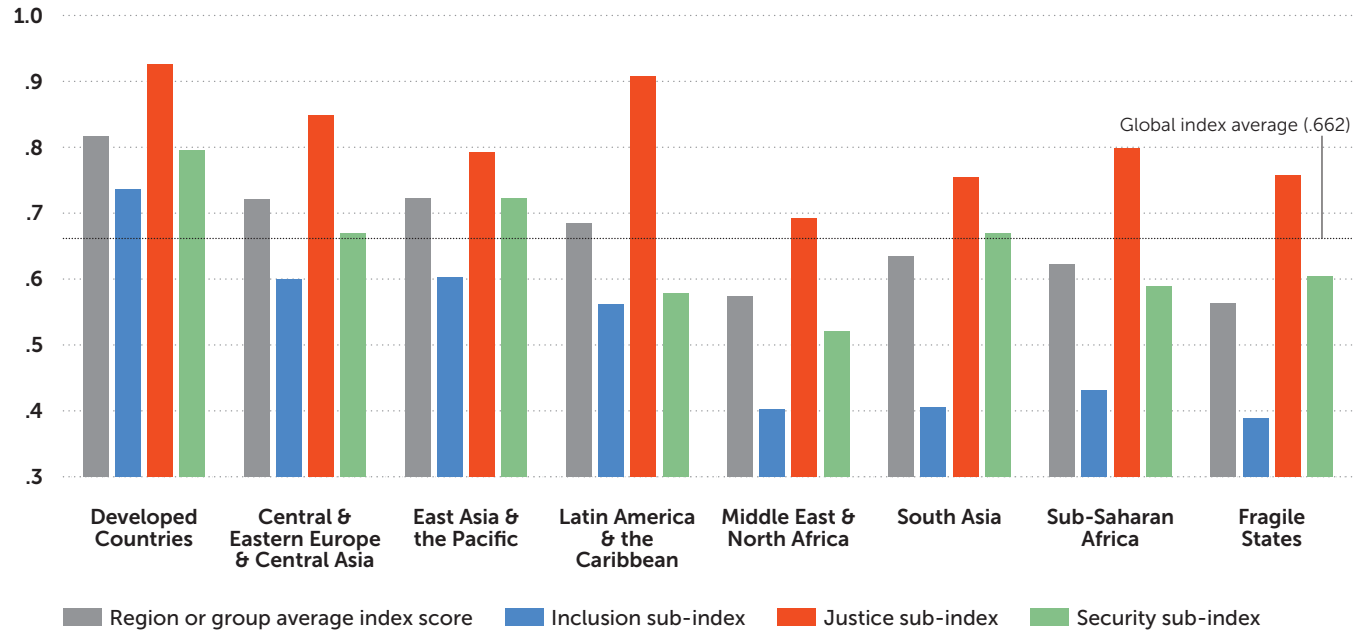
TABLE 2.1 Few countries perform uniformly well (green), middling (yellow), or badly (red) across the 11 indicators of the index (continued)

Rank	Country	Overall score	Inclusion				Justice			Security		
			Education	Financial inclusion	Employment	Cellphone use	Parliamentary representation	Legal discrimination	Son bias	Discriminatory norms	Intimate partner violence	Community safety
107	Kenya		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
108	Bhutan		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
108	Mozambique		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
110	Jordan		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
111	Haiti		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
111	Zambia		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
113	Azerbaijan		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
113	Lesotho		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
113	Morocco		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
116	Iran		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
117	Senegal		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
118	Burkina Faso		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
119	Myanmar		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
120	Maldives		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
121	Côte d'Ivoire		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
122	Burundi		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
123	Algeria		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
124	Gabon		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
125	Malawi		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
126	Liberia		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
127	Bangladesh		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
128	Comoros		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
128	Nigeria		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
130	Benin		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
131	India		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
132	Madagascar		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
133	Angola		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
134	Swaziland		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
135	Guinea		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
136	Mauritania		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
137	Sierra Leone		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
138	Congo		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
138	Egypt		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
140	Somalia		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
141	Chad		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
142	Cameroon		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
143	Lebanon		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
144	Niger		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
145	Sudan		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
146	Mali		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
147	Iraq		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
148	Dem. Rep. of Congo		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
149	Central African Republic		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
150	Pakistan		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
151	Yemen		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
152	Afghanistan		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
152	Syrian Arab Republic		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

Note: Traffic lights represent results for each Women, Peace, and Security Index indicator partitioned into tertiles. Green lights (●) represent top performers, yellow lights (●) middle performers, and red lights (●) bottom performers. Exceptions are son bias and organized violence, whose scores are unevenly distributed, with many zero values. Son bias scores are partitioned into three groups, with values of 1.05 or less receiving a green light (●), values of 1.06 to 1.07 a yellow light (●), and values greater than 1.07 a red light (●). For organized violence, countries with no reported incidents receive a green light (●), countries with up to 0.192 deaths per 100,000 receive a yellow light (●), and countries above that threshold (0.219 to 172.597) receive a red light (●). See statistical table 1 for detailed scores and date ranges. Source: Authors. See statistical table 1 for data sources and definitions of indicators.

FIGURE 2.2 Good performance across dimensions of the index for some country groups and unbalanced for others

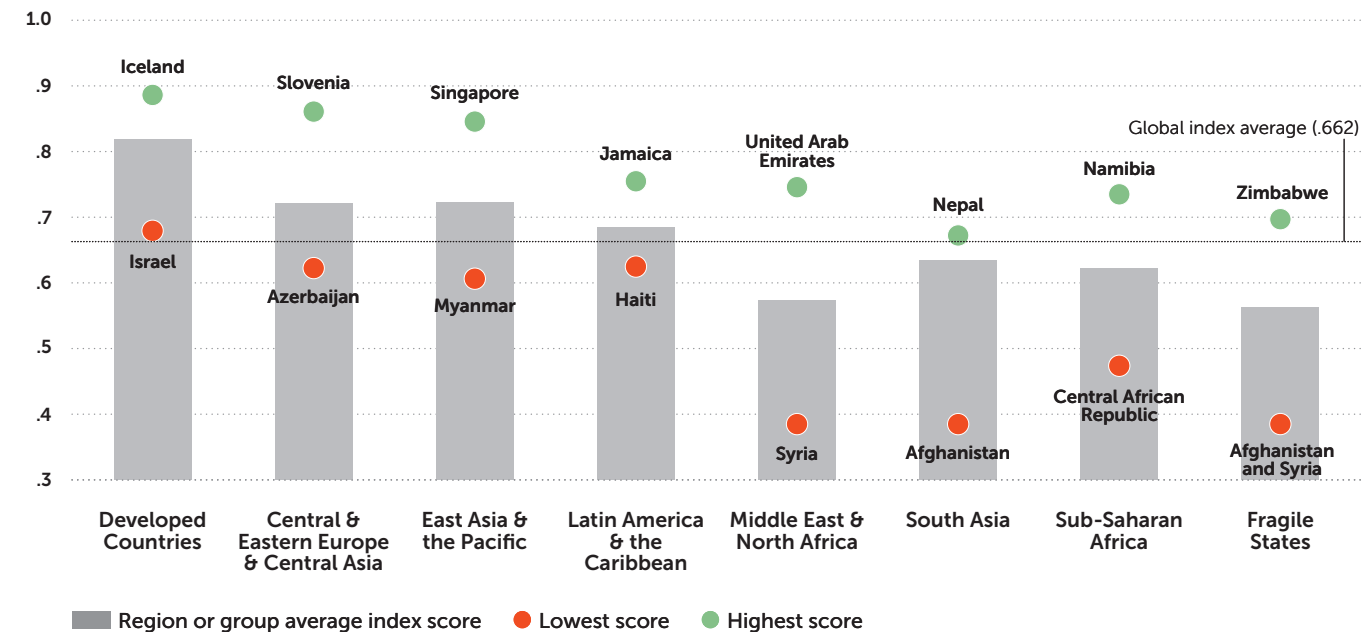
Index and sub-index score



Note: Possible Women, Peace, and Security Index scores range from a low of 0 to a high of 1. See statistical table 1 for 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. See statistical table 1 for data sources and appendix 1 on how sub-indices are calculated.

FIGURE 2.3 Some countries perform much better—and some much worse—than their regional average on the index

Index score



Note: Possible Women, Peace, and Security Index scores range from a low of 0 to a high of 1. See statistical table 1 for 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. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

There are also major differences in achievement in South Asia, such as between Sri Lanka and Afghanistan. Among countries in the Fragile States group, Bosnia and Herzegovina does relatively well.

The data also reveal fronts where too many countries lag way behind global averages, such as women's parliamentary representation. While Rwanda has the global high at 56 percent (for both houses of parliament), Qatar sets the global low at zero, and Yemen's share of women in parliament is only 0.5 percent. And in nearly two dozen countries, the share of women in parliament is only in single digits. On women's employment, behind a global average of about 50 percent, the low is 12 percent (Syria); in five of eight country groups the regional minimum is less than half the global average. Likewise, the share of men who do not accept women working is high in several regions—at or exceeding one-fifth in East Asia and the Pacific, Middle East and North Africa, and South Asia, as well as in the Fragile States group.

There is extensive legal discrimination in all regions. All regions have countries scoring much worse than the global average of 23; Saudi Arabia has a score of 54, the worst in the world. More progress is urgently needed to eliminate legal discrimination, pursuant to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as well as the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

These patterns underline major potential for improvement to address critical deficits for meeting the goals that all governments have signed up to. Readers can explore these patterns using the data and tools available on the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security website (<https://giwps.georgetown.edu/the-index>). For example, relative to other developed countries, the United States performs poorly on intimate partner violence—more than one-third of American women have experienced such violence (see spotlight 1). At more than twice the South Asian regional average of 39 percent, Sri Lanka performs relatively well on women's financial inclusion, compared with other developing countries, but it lags far behind on political representation, with women's seats in parliament hovering around 5–6 percent for at least two decades.

The best and worst performing countries

We see good performing countries all around the world, not only in better-off regions. For most indicators and most regions, there are countries that do much better than the global average. For example, the global average for women's schooling is about seven years, and in all regions except South Asia some countries are well above that level. Namibia and South Africa in Sub-Saharan Africa and Mongolia in East Asia are all at or above 10 years, and several countries in Central and Eastern Europe average about 13 years, including Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, and Poland. Likewise, it is striking that there are countries in all regions that have surpassed the global mean rate of women's cellphone use of about 78 percent, notably Botswana in Sub-Saharan Africa,

at 87 percent; Chile in Latin America, at around 92 percent; and Iraq, a fragile state in the Middle East and North Africa, at near universal coverage. The same is true of women's employment rates around the world, which range as high as 93 percent in Rwanda in Sub-Saharan Africa, and more than 87 percent in Burundi and Madagascar, both in Sub-Saharan Africa and in the Fragile States group.

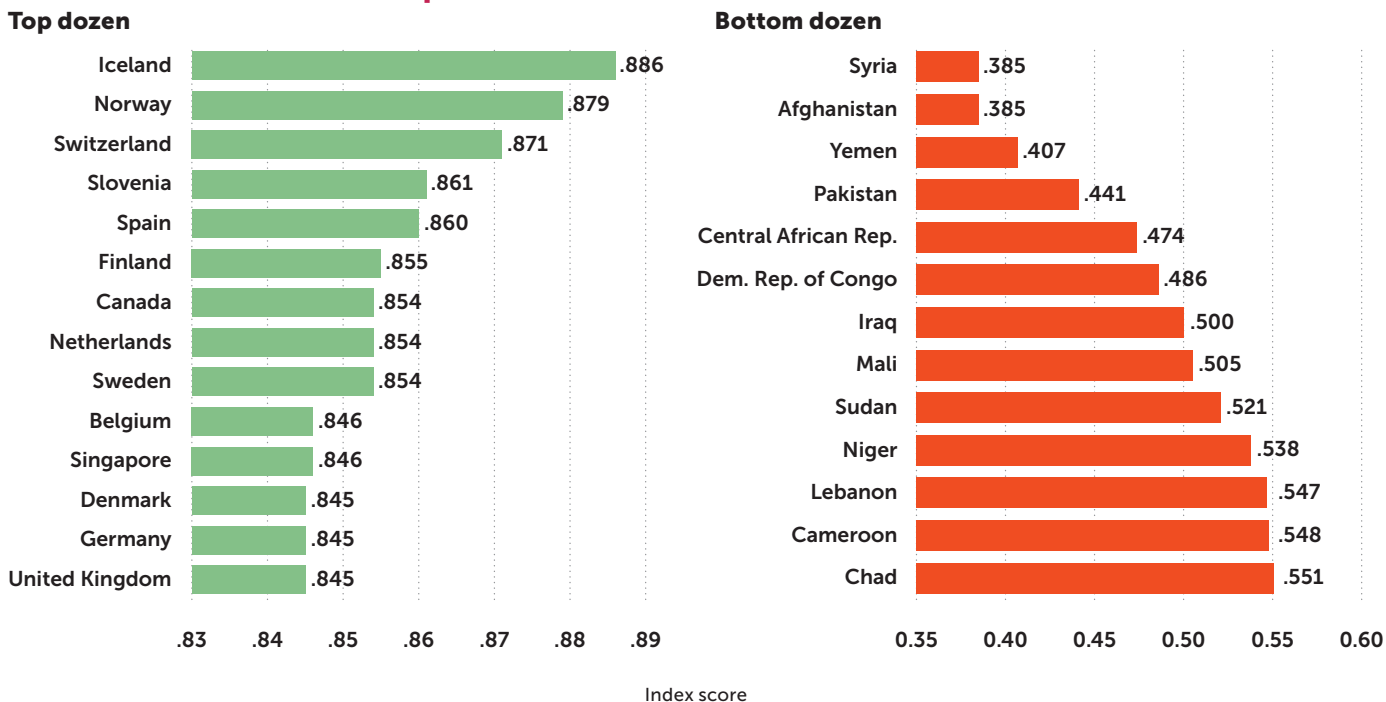
Table 2.2 highlights the patterns of achievement across regions, showing scores for the best and worst performing countries, as well as global and regional averages, for each indicator in the WPS Index. (See statistical table 1 for more detail.)

Who performs best: The top dozen rankings. Countries in the top dozen rankings on the WPS Index (with ties for some positions)—in descending order Iceland; Norway; Switzerland; Slovenia; Spain; Finland; Canada; Netherlands and Sweden (tied in 7th place); Belgium and Singapore (tied in 10th place); and Denmark, Germany, and the United Kingdom (tied in 12th place)—share some important characteristics (figure 2.4, left panel). Each of these societies is generally peaceful and stable. Each has high scores on multiple aspects of inclusion, especially women's education, financial inclusion, and cellphone use, and very low shares of men believing that it is unacceptable for women to work (see statistical table 1). None of the countries has recorded levels of organized violence.

With the exception of Singapore, it is notable that all these top-performing countries also rank higher on the WPS Index than on their income per capita. Slovenia (with the largest difference) is 30 positions higher on the WPS Index than on income, and Spain 24 positions higher. At the top of the global ranking, Iceland is also distinguished by the highest reported rate of women's employment among the top dozen country rankings on the index.

No country has excellent scores on all dimensions, however. Denmark, Finland, Norway, and Sweden record high rates of intimate partner violence, for example, and fewer than half of women in Belgium, Slovenia, and Spain are in paid work. All of these top-performing countries could improve the legal position of women. For example, although Singapore has a non-discrimination clause in its constitution, it does not explicitly mention gender as a category protected against discrimination. Iceland's constitution does not contain a clause on non-discrimination by gender.

Who performs worst: The bottom dozen rankings. The worst performing countries on the WPS Index (ranking 141–152, with a tie for last position) are, from the bottom, Syria and Afghanistan (tied for worst place), Yemen, Pakistan, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of Congo, Iraq, Mali, Sudan, Niger, Lebanon, Cameroon, and Chad (figure 2.4, right panel). These countries all perform poorly on multiple fronts and especially poorly on organized violence. Almost every one of these countries has significant levels of organized violence, with Syria having the highest score of nearly 173 battle deaths per 100,000 people, while only Chad and Niger

FIGURE 2.4 The best and worst performers on the index

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

experience rates of organized violence below the global average. The total number of deaths from organized violence in Syria has escalated rapidly over the past decade, from around 1 recorded death in 2008 to more than 49,000 deaths in 2016. In 2015 and 2016, three countries in the bottom dozen in the WPS Index ranking—Afghanistan, Central African Republic, and Syria—accounted for more than two-thirds of total global deaths from organized violence.

The bottom dozen rankings include the countries with the worst global scores on female employment (notably Syria, where only one in eight women are in paid work and with low rates predating the conflict) and discriminatory norms (most markedly Pakistan). All have scores on legal discrimination that are worse than the global average.

Several of the countries in the bottom dozen rankings do badly on the WPS Index even relative to a low regional average: Afghanistan is 39 percent lower than its regional average, Syria 33 percent, and Pakistan 31 percent (table 2.3).

But even among the group that does so poorly overall, each country performs as well as or better than the regional average on at least one indicator. For example, Yemen's measure of organized violence, at 7 deaths per 100,000 people, is far below the regional average of almost 21 deaths. Afghanistan's parliamentary representation is better than its regional average (which is attributed to quotas), and Niger does at least as well as its regional average on security indicators.

Table 2.3 highlights the countries that do worse—and some much worse—on key indicators relative to regional

averages.²² The poor performing countries that do badly relative to their region again highlight the scope for improvement. The table also shows that there are poor performing countries in every region. These data suggest that poor performing countries tend to do much worse than their regional average on financial inclusion and organized violence. Pakistan performs particularly poorly on women's financial inclusion—only 3 percent of women are estimated to have financial accounts. Syria performs better than Pakistan on that indicator, at almost 20 percent, but currently experiences the world's worst level of organized violence. Afghan women experience low levels of financial inclusion and high levels of violence, but the recent conflict does not approach Syrian levels of battle deaths.

The relationship between performance and income

National income helps performance on the WPS Index, but the two are not always closely correlated. Many countries do substantially better—or worse—than their per capita income rank (figure 2.5). Fifty-seven countries rank at least 10 places better on the WPS Index than their global income ranking—most notably Zimbabwe,²³ Lao PDR, and Nicaragua—while 52 countries do much worse. Saudi Arabia's WPS Index rank is a remarkable 89 places below its rank in per capita income. Among the top 30 countries on the WPS Index, Luxembourg, the United States, and Ireland do much worse than their income ranking; among the bottom third, Iraq and Lebanon do worse (see statistical table 1).

TABLE 2.2 Indicator global and regional averages and scores for the best and worst performers on the index

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	6.8	9.9	9.1	7.1	7.4	5.4	4.4	2.9	5.1
Best country score	14.1	14.1	13.2	11.6	11.9	9.9	5.4	10.3	8.2
Worst country score	1.4	8.9	8.1	3.5	6.3	6.4	2.4	1.4	1.9
Financial inclusion (%)									
Average	55.5	95.5	58.9	65.5	47.5	23.1	39.2	23.3	9.6
Best country score	100.0	100.0	97.5	96.1	77.5	66.7	87.1	80.0	32.9
Worst country score	1.6	83.2	1.6	10.7	14.1	1.7	3.0	2.5	1.7
Employment (%)									
Average	50.3	52.0	52.5	62.0	52.3	20.3	31.5	63.3	26.0
Best country score	92.6	77.2	69.0	80.7	69.1	60.0	80.5	92.6	87.3
Worst country score	12.4	34.5	23.6	33.6	41.4	12.4	13.1	23.8	12.4
Cellphone use (%)									
Average	78.4	90.5	89.7	84.2	74.8	80.2	67.1	63.5	56.0
Best country score	100.0	100.0	96.5	97.5	94.0	100.0	86.9	87.0	100.0
Worst country score	7.6	76.7	76.8	60.4	7.6	34.1	32.6	25.9	17.3
Parliamentary representation (%)									
Average	20.4	25.3	17.8	22.0	24.6	18.8	13.3	22.9	16.0
Best country score	55.7	47.6	34.4	38.5	51.8	31.3	29.6	55.7	37.8
Worst country score	0.5	12.5	9.9	2.0	2.2	0.05	5.8	5.8	0.5
Legal discrimination (aggregate score 0–84)									
Average	23	14	22	24	14	39	27	27	33
Best country score	7	7	8	11	8	25	18	19	19
Worst country score	54	21	29	37	33	54	46	48	48
Son bias (male to female ratio at birth)									
Average	1.08	1.05	1.06	1.13	1.05	1.06	1.1	1.02	1.04
Best country score	1.02	1.04	1.05	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.04	1.02	1.02
Worst country score	1.16	1.07	1.16	1.16	1.08	1.07	1.11	1.06	1.08
Discriminatory norms (%)									
Average	19	2	12	20	9	37	33	16	25
Best country score	0	0	2	2	4	18	18	6	7
Worst country score	73	14	34	37	22	53	73	33	53
Intimate partner violence (%)									
Average	30.3	25.2	20.8	29.8	25.9	18.3	38.6	31.0	28.2
Best country score	6.1	6.4	7.7	6.1	14.1	20.3	19.5	6.4	6.4
Worst country score	78.0	48.3	45.5	67.5	64.1	38.9	67.2	78.0	67.5
Community safety (%)									
Average	60.5	67.3	52.8	67.9	36.1	56.7	63.7	49.9	48.3
Best country score	96.8	81.2	90.3	96.8	60.9	86.1	80.4	85.9	85.9
Worst country score	9.7	48.7	40.3	31.3	9.7	16.9	35.5	27.5	16.9
Organized violence (battle deaths per 100,000 people)									
Average	0.932	0.034	0.062	0.011	0.018	20.752	0.041	2.063	12.942
Best country score	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Worst country score	172.60	6.85	3.26	0.98	1.1	172.60	30.92	30.44	172.60

Note: Scores highlighted in green are the values for the best performers on each indicator of the Women, Peace, and Security Index. See statistical table 1 for detailed scores and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups. Fragile States are also included in their regional group.

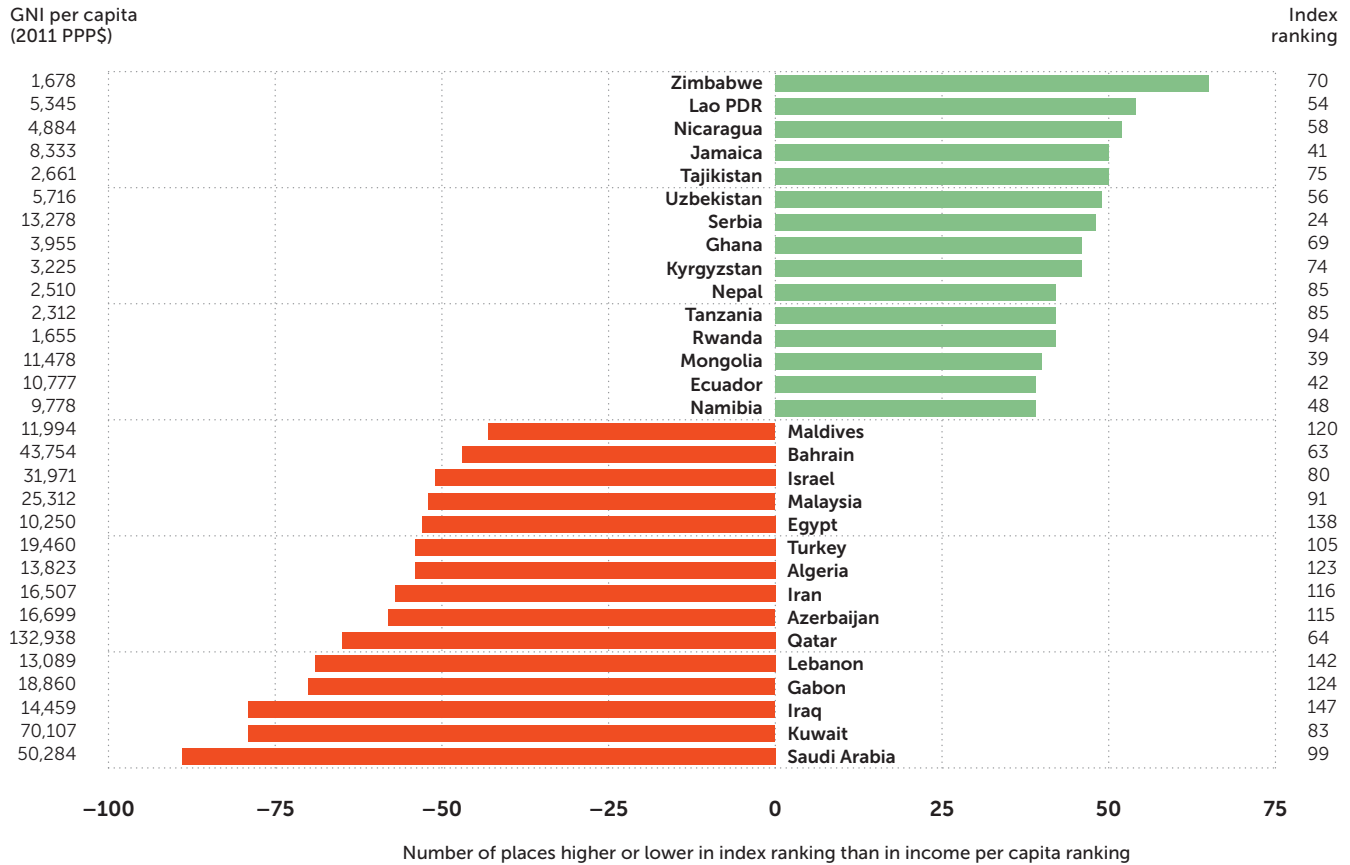
Source: Authors. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

TABLE 2.3 How far the worst performing countries fall behind regional averages on the Women, Peace, and Security Index

Country (index value)	Shortfall to regional average (%)	Inclusion					Justice			Security		
		Education	Financial inclusion	Employment	Cellphone use	Parliamentary representation	Legal discrimination	Son bias	Discriminatory norms	Lifetime intimate partner violence	Community safety	Organized violence
Central & Eastern Europe & Central Asia (.721)												
Azerbaijan (.623)	≈-14	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Turkey (.634)	-12	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Ukraine (.646)	-10	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Armenia (.654)	-9	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Moldova (.671)	-7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
East Asia & the Pacific (.723)												
Myanmar (.606)	-16	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Cambodia (.660)	-9	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Malaysia (.665)	-8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Viet Nam (.665)	-8	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Indonesia (.669)	-7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Latin America & the Caribbean (.685)												
Haiti (.625)	-9	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Guatemala (.650)	-5	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Middle East & North Africa (.574)												
Syria (.385)	-33	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Yemen (.407)	-29	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Iraq (.500)	-13	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
South Asia (.635)												
Afghanistan (.385)	-39	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Pakistan (.441)	-31	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sub-Saharan Africa (.622)												
Central African Republic (.474)	-24	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Dem. Rep. of Congo (.486)	-22	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Mali (.505)	-19	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Sudan (.521)	-16	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Niger (.538)	≈-14	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Developed Countries (.819)												
Israel (.679)	-17	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Greece (.760)	-7	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Italy (.790)	-4	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Malta (.795)	-3	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●

● Much better than regional average: > 0.25 higher than the regional average. ● Better than regional average: > 0.1 to 0.25 higher than the regional average. ● Approximately the same as regional average: 0.1 higher or lower than the regional average. ● Worse than regional average: > 0.1 to 0.25 lower than the regional average. ● Much worse than regional average: > 0.25 lower than the regional average. Note: Possible index scores range from a low of 0 to a high of 1. See statistical table 1 for detailed scores and date ranges and appendix 2 for region and country groups. The Fragile States group is not shown in this table because countries naturally compare themselves with countries in their region, and developed countries with each other; fragile states do not. Source: Authors' estimates. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

FIGURE 2.5 Countries that perform much better and some that perform much worse on the index than on per capita income



Note: Green indicates a gain in rank on the Women, Peace, and Security Index relative to rank in income per capita and red indicates a loss. Source: Authors’ estimates. See statistical table 1 for data sources for the WPS Index and the World Bank World Development Indicators database for gross national income (GNI) per capita in purchasing power parity terms in constant 2011 prices (World Bank 2016b).

Correlations between dimensions

The WPS Index allows us to investigate correlations at the country level between pairs of dimensions (figure 2.6). Countries in the upper right quadrant in the three panels in figure 2.6 have higher levels of achievement on both dimensions, whereas countries in the bottom left quadrant have lower levels of achievement. While, as discussed above, the general tendency is that all three dimensions are positively associated with each other, as indicated by the upward sloping fitted line in each panel of the figure, some countries do poorly on some dimensions but very well on others. The Maldives, for example, is among the low-ranking countries in inclusion and justice (panel C), but in the top right quadrant on security. The substantial variation around the fitted line is also striking, underlining the value of capturing and exploring each of these dimensions separately.

Regional clustering is prominent, as is evident from the clustering of the different colors of circles in figure 2.6. Countries in the Developed Country group generally do well, except

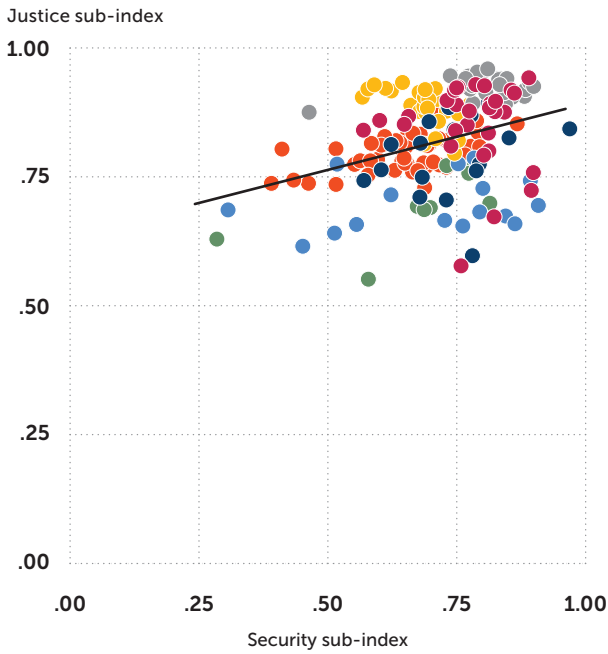
for Israel, which performs poorly on security. Countries in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia perform relatively well on justice and security but less well on inclusion. Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa tend to fall along the fitted line in each of the panels in figure 2.6, indicating that countries tend to perform similarly across the three dimensions—good performers like Ghana, Namibia, and South Africa do well on inclusion, justice and security, whereas Central African Republic, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Mali, and Sudan are among the countries doing badly on inclusion and security. Countries in the Middle East and North Africa typically perform very poorly on the justice dimension but do somewhat better on the other two dimensions.

A closer look at two indicators of social injustice: Son bias and discriminatory norms

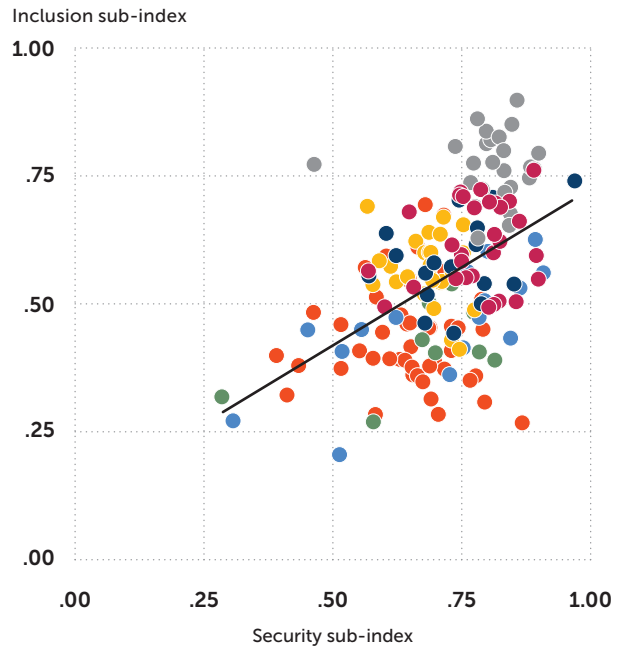
The index underlines that in too many countries women face serious constraints to justice and security, even where some progress has been made on inclusion. In Afghanistan, for

FIGURE 2.6 Correlations show positive associations between dimensions and regional clustering

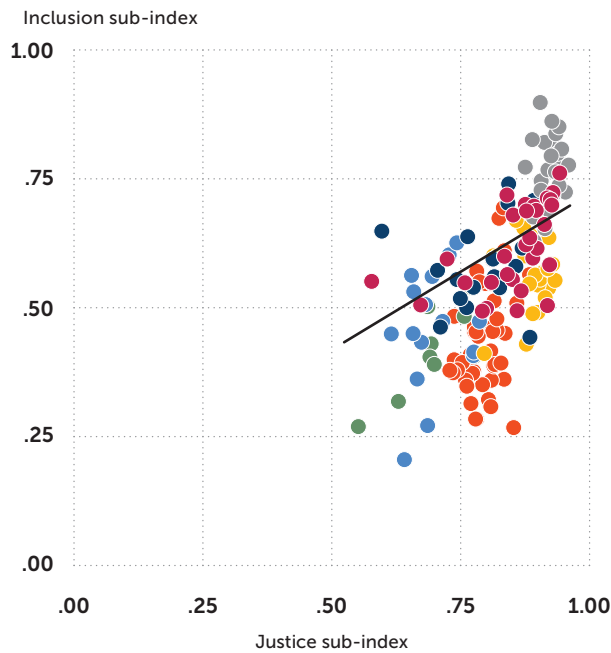
A. Justice and security



B. Inclusion and security



C. Inclusion and justice



- 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: Possible scores on the dimension sub-indices of the Women, Peace, and Security Index range from a low of 0 to a high of 1. See statistical table 1 for detailed scores and date ranges, appendix 1 for calculation of sub-indices, and appendix 2 for region and country groups.
 Source: Authors' estimates. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

example, a multitude of legal constraints combined with prejudice against women in paid work conspire against progress in women's well-being more broadly (see table 2.3), as is also the case in Saudi Arabia.

Because social injustices can be deeply entrenched and detrimental to women's well-being, the WPS Index directly captures two manifestations of this injustice, in indicators of son bias and discriminatory norms.

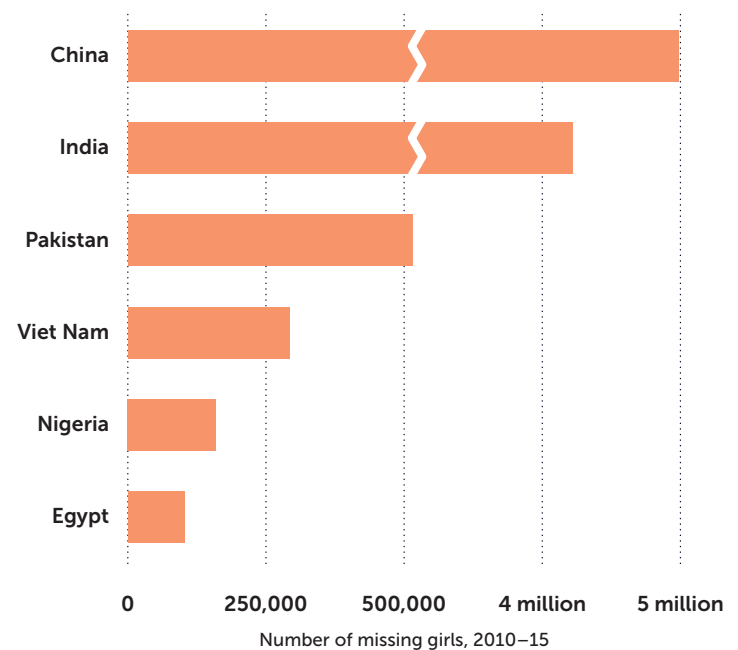
Son bias. Son bias is a stark manifestation of discrimination against girls and women. In an influential 1990 article, Amartya Sen examined the high ratios of men to women in several countries and estimated that more than 100 million women were "missing" worldwide, underlining that "these numbers tell us, quietly, a terrible story of inequality and neglect leading to the excess mortality of women."²⁴ Women and girls are missing because of an entrenched preference for sons over daughters in some communities, leading to prenatal sex selection.²⁵

Azerbaijan and China top the list of 10 countries with the worst son bias, with 116 boys born for every 100 girls, followed by Armenia (114), Viet Nam (112), India and Georgia (111), the Maldives (110), Pakistan (109), and Albania and Papua New Guinea (108). China's son bias threatens to become a major social challenge: according to the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences' *Analysis and Forecast of China's Social Situation 2009*, by 2020 one in five young men in China will not be able to find a female partner. Some researchers have concluded that China is on the cusp of a major social crisis due to the dramatic deterioration in men's marital prospects.

The number of missing girls (girls who would have been born according to normal sex ratios at birth) was estimated for 2010–15 as part of our work on developing the WPS Index.²⁶ Given the combination of adverse sex ratios and large population size, China (5 million missing girls) and India (4 million) account for the vast majority over the five-year period, followed by Pakistan, Viet Nam, Nigeria, and Egypt (figure 2.7). Beyond this five year period, the aggregate numbers of missing girls are obviously much larger—estimated on the order of about 66 million in China, for example.²⁷

Discriminatory norms. For discriminatory norms, the WPS Index uses a new measure derived from the Gallup World Poll question that asked respondents whether "it is perfectly acceptable for any woman in your family to have a paid job outside the home if she wants one."²⁸ The extent of male

FIGURE 2.7 Six countries account for the largest number of missing girls, led by China and India



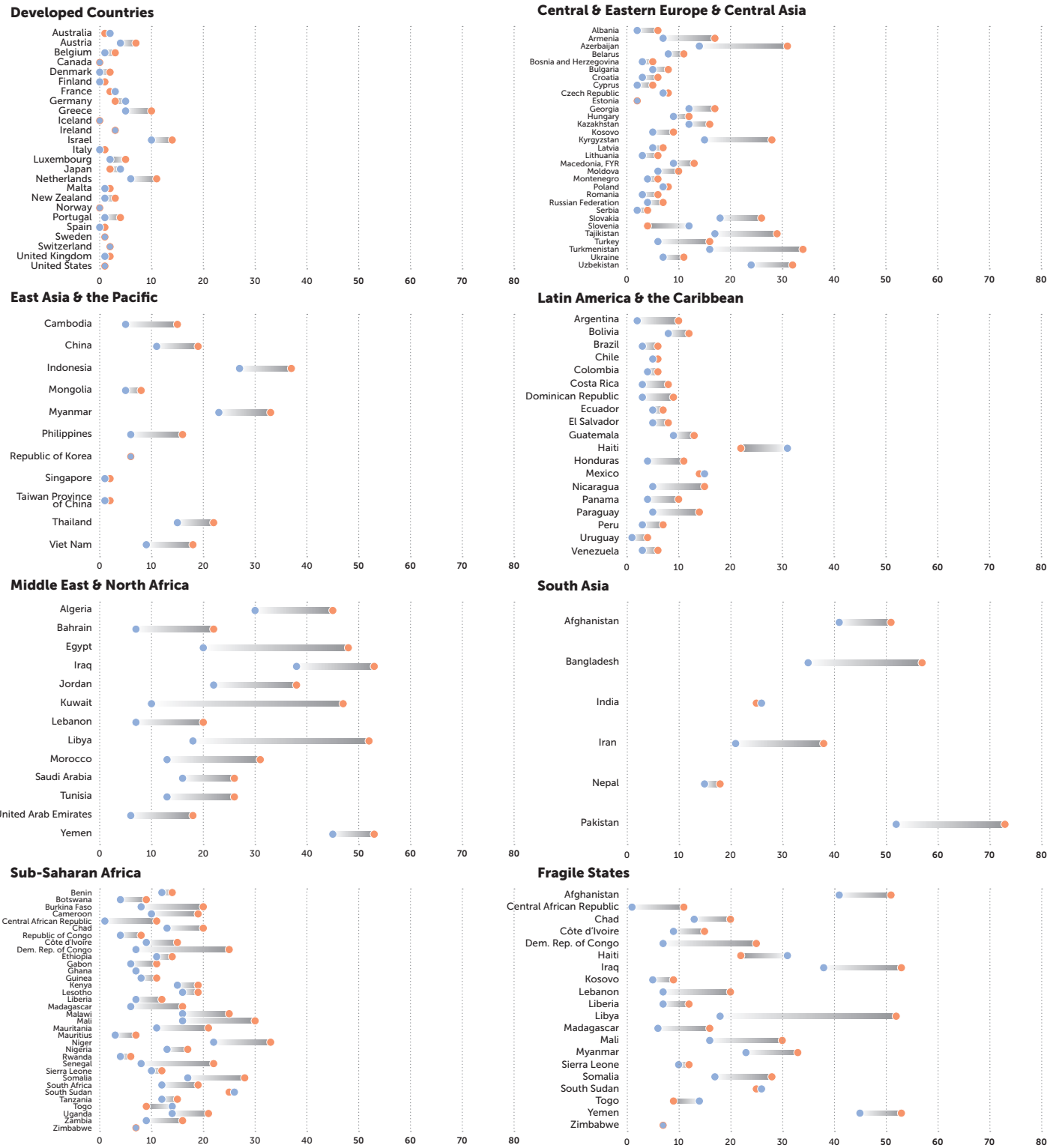
Note: Demographers estimate a natural sex ratio at birth as 1.05 male births to 1 female birth. We estimate missing girls as $G = (X/F)M$, where G is missing girls, X is the number of boys born in excess of 1.05 times the number of girls born, F is total number of girls born, and M is total number of boys born.

Source: Author estimates based on data from UN Population Division database and UNDESA (2015).

disagreement with this proposition—which ranges as high as 73 percent in Pakistan—is used as the measure of discriminatory norms. Male disapproval exceeds 50 percent in Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Iraq, Libya, and Yemen. In even the best-performing countries in several regions—the Middle East and North Africa, East Asia and the Pacific, and South Asia—male disapproval of women working stands at close to one-fifth (18 percent of men disapprove of women working in the United Arab Emirates, Viet Nam, and Nepal). It is also notable that figure 2.8 shows that differences between men and women in the acceptance of women working are large in much of the Middle East and North Africa, notably in Egypt, Kuwait, and Libya, as well as in several Eastern and Central Europe and Central Asia countries, including Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, and Turkmenistan.

FIGURE 2.8 Gender gaps remain large in many countries for disapproval of women working

Percent ● Male ● Female



Note: Figure is based on expressed disagreement 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."
 Source: Authors' estimates based on Gallup and ILO (2017).

SPOTLIGHT 2 Women, peace, and security in countries emerging from conflict

Bosnia and Herzegovina has made gender equality part of its institutional architecture, but women still lack full participation in politics and the economy. The national Law on Gender Equality, adopted in 2003, mandates gender mainstreaming in all public policies and legislation (Pozarny and Rohwerder 2016). Legal discrimination is less extensive than in many countries, yet women's political participation remains limited; fewer than one in five parliamentarians are women. The priorities of the country's 2010 National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security include increasing women's participation in decision-making, but the plan is vague on funding, a key to implementation (Miller, Pournik, and Swaine 2014).

For both men and women, employment rates are low, at just half the regional average (Goldstein, Davies, and Fendler 2015). However, women have high levels of education in line with regional standards. Nearly half of all women have access to formal financial institutions. The country ranks an impressive 16 on the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index's security dimension and illustrates the potential for reforms to yield progress in the wake of conflict.

Burundi, emerging from a 12-year civil war in 2006, made major gains in women's empowerment, despite high levels of poverty. After 2006, girls' primary school enrollment rose, and many women entered paid work. The 2005 constitution includes quotas, which increased women's parliamentary representation to 38 percent, which is well above the global average.

Key aspects of inclusion remain unfulfilled, however. The average number of years of schooling, at less than two, is still among the lowest in the world. Cellphone use among women is also low, at only 26 percent, compared with neighbors: 48 percent in Rwanda and 87 percent in Kenya. Women's financial inclusion is extremely low, at 7 percent, against a Sub-Saharan African regional average of 23 percent.

However, the resumption of conflict poses major threats. At least 325,000 people have fled the country, and several hundred people have been killed (Human Rights Watch 2017b). Widespread rape and sexual violence have been perpetrated, including by security forces, police, military, and members of the youth wing of the ruling party (Imbonerakure; Vigaud-Walsh 2015). Many women say that they were raped because of a family member's link to an opposition party or because of a grievance against their husband (Human Rights Watch 2016).

Women have sought to end the current conflict. They have organized non-violent marches to demand peace and security as preconditions for new elections and to

support implementation of the 2006 Arusha peace agreement (Alleblas, Cools, and Messina Laurette 2016). The Women's Platform for the Peace, Security, and Cooperation Framework Agreement in Africa's Great Lakes region promotes women's participation in peacebuilding and public life, as well as protection and respect for women's rights (Office of the Special Envoy of the Secretary-General for the Great Lakes in Africa 2016).

Colombia, a middle-income country, has embedded the right to equality for women in its constitution since 1991 and has advanced women's parliamentary representation from single digits to around 20 percent following the introduction of quotas in 2011. Women's education achievements, at eight years, and cellphone use, at 85 percent, are favorable by regional and global standards. Colombia attained these gains despite the world's longest-running conflict, which involved leftist guerrillas, narco-traffickers, right-wing paramilitaries, and the state military. The human costs of the conflict were enormous, including an estimated 220,000 fatalities and around 7 million displaced people (UNHCR 2016).

Rates of intimate partner violence are high—estimated lifetime rates exceed 37 percent—and the official victims' registry of the conflict includes 10,000 victims of conflict-related sexual violence, a number that is believed to be vastly underreported (ABColumbia, Corporación Sisma Mujer, and U.S. Office on Colombia 2013).

This uneven pattern of achievement is reflected in Colombia's scores across the WPS Index dimensions: ranking well on inclusion but falling to 120 on the security dimension, for an overall ranking of 96. Looking ahead, the 2016 peace accords commit to ending impunity for sexual violence, require women's participation in transitional justice, and promote formalized rural property rights for women, all of which augur well for future gains for women.

Mali is among the poorest countries in the world and ranks in the bottom dozen on the WPS Index. Women's years of schooling average less than two—one of the lowest in the world. Malian women are also underrepresented in political and economic spheres. They made up less than 9 percent of the members of parliament in 2016, or less than half the regional average, despite the adoption in 2015 of a 30 percent gender quota. (The share of women in the National Assembly has even fallen, from about 10 percent in 2010.) Fewer than half of Malian women are in paid employment, compared with a regional average of 63 percent, and only 10 percent of Malian women have a financial account.

Mali's 2012–15 armed conflict had serious ramifications for women and girls. Armed groups occupying northern

(continued)

SPOTLIGHT 2 Women, peace, and security in countries emerging from conflict *(continued)*

regions forced women to veil, and those accused of breaking the law were flogged and publicly stoned. Many girls were forced into marriage with members of armed groups. These types of violence have long-term repercussions, while fear of reprisals prevents women from speaking out about their experiences. The United Nations also reports that women have experienced increasingly severe poverty due to the conflict (MINUSMA n.d.).

On the positive side, women helped shape the 2015 peace agreement. The Platform for Women Leaders of Mali worked to ensure their representation in peace processes by advertising on TV and radio, sponsoring public debates, training women in conflict mediation techniques, and raising awareness of the peace agreement (UN Women 2015c). Although the situation in Mali remains tense, there are some signs of progress. Women in civil society have been vocal about their needs during the post-conflict period, lobbying decision-makers about their priorities for reconstruction (UN Women 2015c). A new land reform policy set aside 15 percent of government-managed land for women's associations and other vulnerable groups (Coulibaly 2017).

Myanmar is in transition after its first democratic elections and a nationwide ceasefire agreement with eight ethnic armed groups in 2015 (Radio Free Asia 2015). Despite some promising steps, fighting continues, the military still plays a major role in government, and laws restricting individual freedoms remain in place. While women's parliamentary representation has risen from below 5 percent in 2012 to about 10 percent in 2016, Myanmar still lags behind neighboring Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Viet Nam. Women account for less than 5 percent of regional parliamentarians and have virtually no representation (0.25 percent) among village-level administrators (Human Rights Watch 2017a).

Women were largely excluded from peace negotiations; only 2 of 32 negotiators in the Nationwide Ceasefire Agreement were women (Asian Development Bank et al. 2016). Gender discrimination, housework, and family responsibilities impede women's entry into the workforce (Kanayde 2016). Women fare better in education settings. Mean years of schooling is about seven, and gender parity has been achieved at primary and secondary school levels (Asian Development Bank et al. 2016). However, there are concerns over low retention rates, student performance, and the quality of education, and national averages also mask regional inequalities.

The constitution ostensibly guarantees equal rights and protection before the law, yet the 2015 Race and Religion Protection Laws discriminate against women. These laws restrict reproductive rights by imposing birth spacing

requirements and restricting the right of Buddhist women to marry men of other faiths. As elsewhere in the world, crimes of intimate partner violence often go unreported in a culture of silence and victim blaming (Dinmore and Myint 2015; Aung 2016). There are no laws criminalizing spousal abuse or marital rape. Recent conflict has been associated with reports of sexual violence, as well as exploitation and trafficking of women (U.S. Department of State 2015; Human Rights Watch 2017a). Yet because the military adjudicates crimes committed by its own members, as in many countries around the world, there is impunity for military perpetrators in many sexual violence cases (Women's League of Burma 2016).

The Philippines ranks 32 places higher on the WPS Index than on income per capita, reflecting major achievements in inclusion, despite long-running conflicts in some parts of the country. In 2009, the national government adopted a Magna Carta for Women, a national plan to implement the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. This followed earlier commitments to gender equality in the 1987 constitution and the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development 1995–2025 (Philippine Commission on Women 2009). Also in 2009, the Philippines became the first Asian country to adopt a National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security, committing to more gender-responsive peace processes and agreements. The 2014 Comprehensive Peace Agreement was the world's first to be brokered and signed with a rebel group by a female peace negotiator. Although there were no formal mechanisms for women's participation in the peace process, women influenced the shape of the agreement, including, for example, establishing designated development funds for women's programs and economic programs for decommissioned female forces (Chang et al. 2015).

In the Philippines, women's parliamentary representation is high by regional standards, almost 30 percent in the House of Representatives and 25 percent in the Senate (IPU 2016). Yet, gender inequality persists in the labor market, including, for example, a gender wage gap in annual earnings exceeding 40 percent (Asian Development Bank 2013). Women's employment rate in the Philippines also falls below the regional average of 62 percent. In addition, women's access to justice is limited. A woman cannot be head of household or convey citizenship in the same way as a man (World Bank 2016b). While comprehensive domestic violence legislation covers physical, sexual, psychological, and economic violence, the courts in the Philippines are reportedly congested and corrupt, and litigation is lengthy (de Silva de Alwis and Klugman 2015).



**“Sexual violence in conflict is a serious, present-day atrocity affecting millions of people, primarily women and girls....
The most common form of violence experienced by women globally is physical violence inflicted by an intimate partner, with women beaten, coerced into sex or otherwise abused.”**

United Nations Secretary-General's
UNiTE to End Violence against Women campaign
(<http://www.un.org/en/women/endviolence/situation.shtml>)



CHAPTER 3

Why Security is Important

The inclusion of security is a major innovation of the Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index, captured at several levels that are crucial for women's well-being: the home and family, the community, and society. This focus reflects the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the global consensus that concerted efforts are needed to eliminate all forms of violence against women at a time when the goal of sustaining peace has moved to the top of the international agenda. All of this motivates a closer look at the indicators that make up the security dimension—intimate partner violence, safety in the community, and organized violence—in this third and final chapter.

The family—intimate partner violence

Intimate partner violence is the most common form of violence experienced by women globally, in both conflict and non-conflict settings. Intimate partner violence causes physical, sexual, and psychological harm within an intimate relationship, such as marriage, cohabiting partnership, or other sexual relationship.²⁹ Here we examine patterns of intimate partner violence, with a focus on fragile and conflict settings. Evidence about sexual violence in conflict, committed by a broad range of perpetrators, from militias and government soldiers to peacekeeping forces, is addressed in the section below about organized violence.

The incidence of intimate partner violence is high around the world; about 30 percent of women who have been in a relationship have experienced violence from their intimate

partner.³⁰ In the European Union, one in five women 15 years or older have experienced physical or sexual violence by a partner.³¹ One paradox is that the Nordic countries are both the most gender-equal countries in the world and have high rates of intimate partner violence: Denmark's reported lifetime rate is 32 percent, Finland's is 30 percent, and Sweden's is 28 percent. Investigations into why these rates are so high suggest that Nordic women might be suffering from a backlash effect as traditional definitions of manhood and womanhood are challenged.³² The high rates might also reflect greater awareness of intimate partner violence and greater willingness of victims to self-identify in population surveys.

Wherever intimate partner violence occurs, it has multiple harmful repercussions for women's well-being, as well as major direct and indirect economic costs.³³ Direct costs include healthcare, social services, police deployment, court, and incarceration expenses. There are also indirect costs, such as time lost from paid work and volunteer labor, and second-generation effects of violence on children. The World Bank estimates the economic costs at 3–5 percent of GDP—more than what many developing country governments spend on primary education.³⁴ In addition, there is the inestimable cost in pain and suffering and lost lives. It is well documented that intimate partner violence can lead to severe physical, reproductive, and mental health complications.³⁵

In conflict and disaster settings, these repercussions can be exacerbated by lack of access to medical care and widespread infectious disease, stress, and malnutrition.³⁶ Very high rates

of intimate partner violence have been reported in a range of conflict settings (box 3.1). A multicountry study found that living in a fragile or conflict-affected state (following the World Bank's definition) was associated with a 35 percent higher risk of intimate partner violence than living in other developing countries in the sample.³⁷

There are several reasons why conflict might worsen intimate partner violence. These factors, which are not mutually

exclusive, include the disruption of gender norms and a crisis of male identity, post-traumatic stress, increased depression and alcohol use among men, loss of support from families and social networks, changes in marriage practices, an increased culture of impunity as law enforcement breaks down, and increased normalization of violence in general. There is some evidence to support each of these hypotheses, as recounted in box 3.1.

BOX 3.1 Country evidence on intimate partner violence in conflict-affected states

High rates of intimate partner violence have been documented in conflict settings. A study of the Asia and Pacific region found particularly high rates in Bougainville, Papua New Guinea, and Jayapura, Indonesia, both post-conflict communities (Fulu et al. 2013). A study of local variations in violence in Colombia in the mid-2000s found that proximity of conflict was associated with much higher rates of intimate partner violence (32 percent versus 20 percent; Rieckmann 2015). A study in neighboring Peru reported that women who were exposed to fighting and conflict in their late childhood and adolescence were more likely to be victims of domestic violence in later life (Gallegos and Gutierrez 2016).

Several studies associate conflict with a higher risk of both male perpetration and female experience of intimate partner violence:

- A 2010 study in northern Uganda found that women's lifetime exposure to war-related events was the risk factor most highly correlated with severe intimate partner violence (Saile et al. 2013). Childhood maltreatment was also a significant risk factor.
- Palestinian women whose husbands had experienced political violence and its economic effects had an 89 percent higher chance of reporting physical violence and a 123 percent higher chance of reporting sexual violence by their partner than other women (Clark et al. 2010).
- Factors found to be predictors of intimate partner violence during a resurgence in conflict in eastern Democratic Republic of Congo that began in 2012 included binge drinking, inequitable gender attitudes, and experience of childhood violence. While variations in intimate partner violence rates were not correlated with the presence of conflict, researchers suggested that this result was due to high rates of intimate partner violence pre-dating the conflict (Sleggh, Barker, and Levtoev 2014).
- An investigation of partner abuse in 17 Sub-Saharan countries using Demographic and Health Surveys found that the intensity of conflict in the home region

has a significant effect on women's risk of intimate partner violence even after controlling for childhood exposure to parent violence and husband's alcohol consumption (Østby 2016).

- While not conducted in a conflict setting, two U.S. studies are informative. One finds that immigrant men who reported exposure to political violence before arrival were more than twice as likely to report having perpetrated partner violence (Gupta et al. 2009). Another study documented a tripling of intimate partner violence among displaced people in Mississippi in the year after Hurricane Katrina and elevated rates for two years after displacement (Anastario, Shehab, and Lawry 2009).

The normalization of violence in conflict settings can worsen cycles of violence, as when victims experience re-victimization or become perpetrators (Catani et al. 2008). Some researchers have suggested that when a society experiences extreme conflict, violence can become the normative mode of handling conflict, including at home (Gupta et al. 2009). Political violence, humiliation, and economic hardship may lead to increased rates of male depression and alcohol consumption, which are risk factors for the perpetuation of intimate partner violence (Clark et al. 2010; Hanmer and Klugman 2016).

A heightened sense of inadequacy among men who are unemployed, exacerbated by their partners pursuing economic opportunities, has also been associated with gender-based violence, as in Colombia and Syria (Wirtz et al. 2014; Lehmann et al. 2014). Likewise women in West Africa have noted a violent backlash from their husbands after taking on increased responsibilities during wartime (IRC 2012).

Changes in marriage practices associated with conflict-induced economic hardship may worsen rates of intimate partner violence. Some women in Colombia have noted that financial difficulties led them to successively marry violent partners (Wirtz et al. 2014). Women in Pakistan and Syria describe how financial need leads

(continued)

BOX 3.1 Country evidence on intimate partner violence in conflict-affected states *(continued)*

to an increase in early marriages and greater vulnerability to violence (IRC 2012). In the Kakuma refugee camp in Kenya, women explained that they were powerless to leave violent marriages because families were unable or unwilling to return their dowry.

Loss of support from family and social networks due to displacement has also been identified as a driver of violence. When women are physically separated from family, friends, and community services, perpetrators may more readily go unchallenged (UNHCR 2003). For example, Palestinian women cited the separation barrier in the West Bank as depriving them of contact with their families, who might otherwise intervene to prevent intimate partner violence (Clark et al. 2010). Women in the Kakuma refugee camp noted that following displacement

they no longer had access to a safe place to which to temporarily escape violent domestic situations (Horn 2010).

There are some promising interventions at the community level to reduce intimate partner violence in post-conflict settings. For example, the Living Peace program in the Democratic Republic of Congo is working with men and boys to transform norms that support violence. It has achieved an impressive program completion rate (95 percent) for the more than 1,000 participants in North and South Kivu, including members of the military and police and inhabitants of high-risk communities. Some 89 percent of participants reported improved relationships with their families, and 86 percent reported less traumatic responses, with similar rates of improvement for female partners (PROMUNDO 2016).

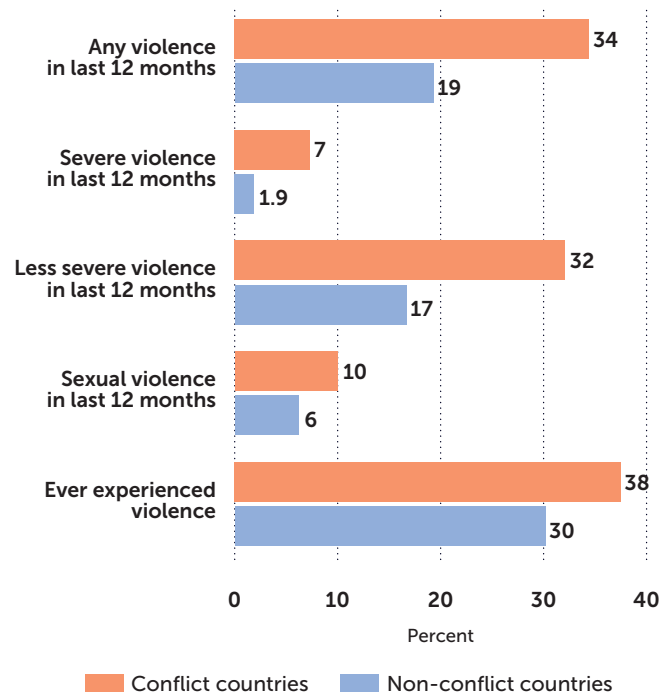
Source: Klugman et al. (forthcoming).

Analysis of Demographic and Health Survey data for 37 developing countries finds that rates of current intimate partner violence (experienced in the preceding 12 months) are more than one-third higher in conflict countries than in non-conflict countries—34 percent, compared with 19 percent (figure 3.1).³⁸ The largest differences are reported for cases of severe violence, which are substantially higher in conflict countries (7.3 percent) than in non-conflict countries (1.9 percent). Lifetime rates of intimate partner violence (whether women have ever experienced intimate partner violence, the indicator used in the WPS Index), are also much higher in conflict countries (38 percent) than in non-conflict countries (30 percent). The differences between conflict and non-conflict countries are much larger for current violence than for lifetime rates (78 percent versus 24 percent relative difference), suggesting that the recency of conflict affects the current likelihood of violence in conflict countries.

When institutional systems are disrupted or destroyed, individuals and communities have fewer means to prevent and respond to intimate partner violence,³⁹ and women’s access to justice, already typically low,⁴⁰ may be especially restricted. Actions by law enforcement agencies can break down or be unavailable, and in the wake of conflict, victims may not know where to turn for help. Weak police forces and judicial infrastructure have been cited as reasons for high rates of intimate partner violence in conflict-affected countries in West Africa,⁴¹ and Pakistan’s police culture and legal structure are given as reasons that Afghan refugees struggle to seek justice in cases of intimate partner violence.⁴²

Victim reporting and institutional responses are often weak outside conflict settings, too. A 2014 survey found that

FIGURE 3.1 Rates of intimate partner violence are worse in conflict-affected countries



Note: The sample includes 6 conflict-affected countries with available data (Colombia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Liberia, Nepal, Pakistan, and Rwanda) and 31 low- and middle-income non-conflict countries.
Source: Source: Klugman et al. (forthcoming) estimates based on Demographic and Health Surveys (various). For more details see <http://dhsprogram.com>.

in the 28 countries of the European Union, victims reported the most serious incidents of partner violence to the police in only 14 percent of cases. For about a quarter of victims, feeling ashamed or embarrassed about what had happened inhibited them from reporting the most serious incidents of sexual violence.⁴³

Many countries have not criminalized marital rape—103 according to the World Bank's *Women, Business, and the Law*.⁴⁴ Provisions criminalizing marital rape are more common in Latin America and the Caribbean and in countries in the Developed Country group. No countries in the Middle East criminalize marital rape. In Sri Lanka, marital rape is recognized as a crime only when the spouses are judicially separated. India criminalizes marital rape only when the wife is younger than 15, and Bangladesh does so only when the wife is younger than 13.⁴⁵

Laws protecting women from intimate partner violence have even been rolled back in some countries, as in the Russian Federation, where President Putin signed a law in February 2017 partially decriminalizing some types of domestic violence. Even before this rollback, according to the Gallup World Poll, only 20 percent of Russian women felt that the government was doing enough to combat domestic violence.⁴⁶

Having laws on the books is not enough, of course, to end intimate partner violence. Enforcement is critical and depends on a range of factors, from community norms around violence to the skills, capacity, and attitudes of police and legal personnel. Evidence suggests that legislative reforms coupled with investments in the justice system can improve women's access to justice. Papua New Guinea, for example, introduced a Family Protection Bill in 2013 after extensive consultations with the community and stakeholders. The reform was accompanied by support for victims and training for service providers, prosecutors, and legal staff. The results are promising, although progress has been uneven and there is still a long way to go.⁴⁷ A recent evaluation concluded that the reforms have been a catalyst for change, even though changes in practice and attitude have been at the individual rather than the organizational level and are inconsistent across police stations and provinces.⁴⁸

The community—safety in the neighborhood

The feeling that one can walk alone at night anywhere near one's home without fear is a basic indicator of security. This sense is also correlated with other measures of well-being, such as good health.⁴⁹

Globally, about two of three adults feel safe walking alone at night, and the gender gap is about 7 percentage points (figure 3.2). The share among women drops to 1 in 10 in Venezuela, which is the lowest score on record for the Gallup World Poll. Fewer than one in three women feel safe in their community in several Latin American countries, including Argentina, Brazil, Dominican Republic, and El Salvador. Only 31 percent of Liberian and Malaysian women reported feeling safe in their neighborhood, and less than 30 percent in Botswana, Gabon, South Africa, and Syria. At the other end

of the spectrum, countries where women report a high sense of safety include Singapore, Somalia, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Qatar, United Arab Emirates, Rwanda, and Bangladesh, as well as Norway and Spain, where perceptions of community safety are at least 80 percent.

There are also large differences in perceptions of community safety within countries. In the United States, for example, alongside the 20 percentage point difference between men (46 percent) and women (26 percent) in being afraid to walk alone, almost half of Americans with a family income below \$20,000 expressed such fear, compared with 26 percent of those with incomes exceeding \$75,000.⁵⁰

Trends in perceptions about community safety over the past decade are mixed. The Gallup data, which have been tracking trends since 2007/08, suggest substantial improvements in a number of countries, including Czech Republic, Lithuania, and Russia in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia; Finland, Spain, and the United Kingdom among Developed Countries; and Chad and Zimbabwe (albeit both from low bases) in Sub-Saharan Africa. The most marked negative trends over the decade are reported for Cambodia and Malaysia in East Asia and the Pacific, Mexico and Venezuela in Latin America and the Caribbean, and Central African Republic, Mauritania, and Senegal in Sub-Saharan Africa.

How do the patterns in community safety relate to patterns of intimate partner violence? Our analysis suggests that women who feel unsafe in their community are also generally more likely to feel unsafe at home. A simple correlation between community safety and the absence of intimate partner violence shows a positive association (figure 3.3).

Society—organized violence

Security at the societal level is captured in the WPS Index using battle-death data for organized violence from the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP).⁵¹ This measure includes three types of conflict, with a threshold of 25 deaths per 100,000 annually. *State-based conflict* refers to "armed conflict," either between two states or between a state and a rebel group—for example, armed conflict between the Colombian government and the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) or armed conflict between Syria and the Islamic State. *Non-state* conflicts, which do not involve a state combatant, include, for instance, fighting between rebel groups and militias. Examples include the Lord's Resistance Army against the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army in the late 1990s and early 2000s or between groups with a common identification along ethnic, clan, or religious lines, as in Hindu-Muslim violence in India and Buddhist-Muslim conflicts in Myanmar. The most common type of non-state conflict is between organized groups, such as the conflict among different rebel groups in Syria. *One-sided* violence is defined as the use of armed force by the government or by a formally organized group against civilians, the Rwandan genocide being the most horrific case.

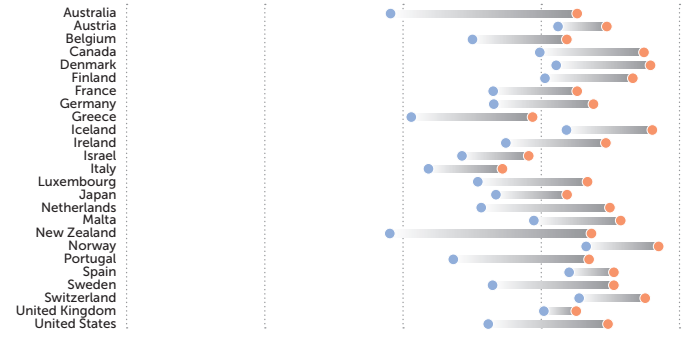
Kenya illustrates the diversity of conflict. Since the 1980s, no state-based violence has been recorded, yet there has been

FIGURE 3.2 The global gender gap in feeling safe walking alone at night is about 7 percentage points

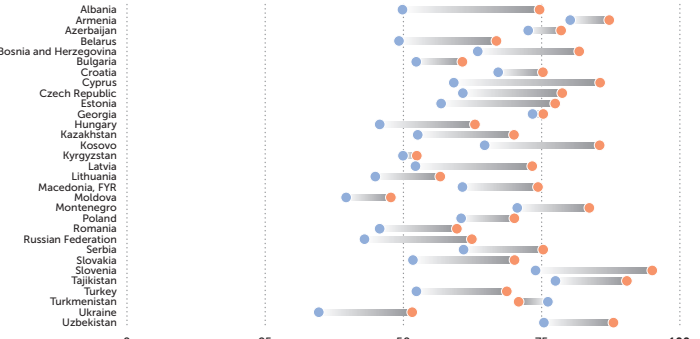
Percent

● Male ● Female

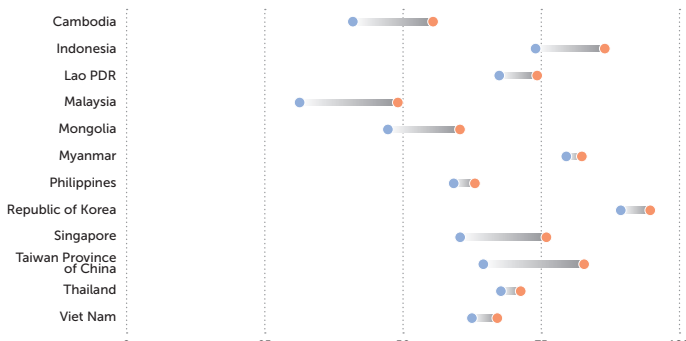
Developed Countries



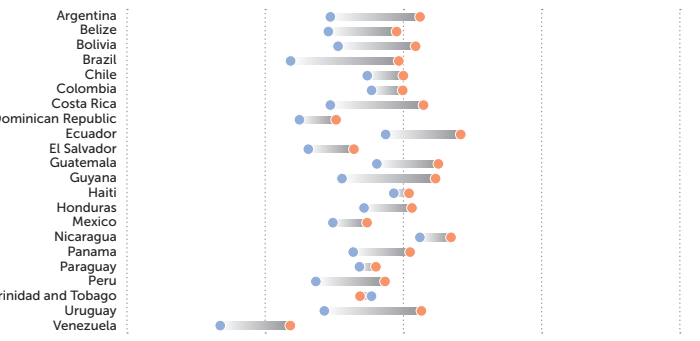
Central & Eastern Europe & Central Asia



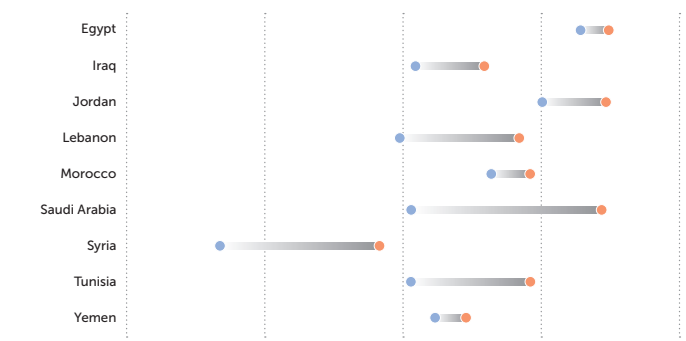
East Asia & the Pacific



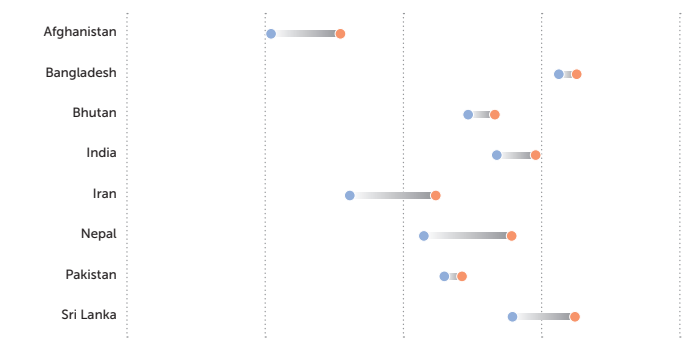
Latin America & the Caribbean



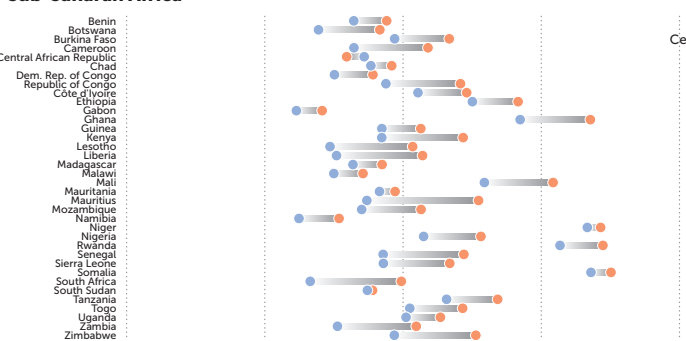
Middle East & North Africa



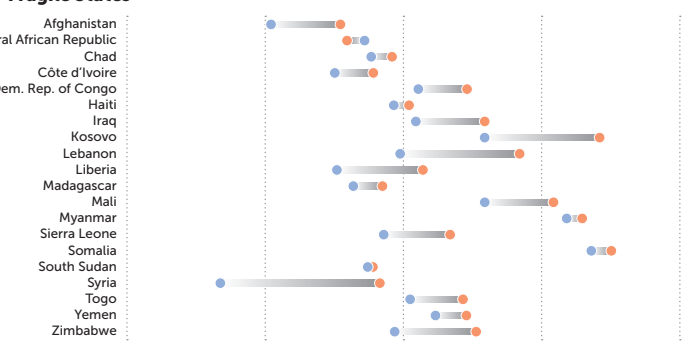
South Asia



Sub-Saharan Africa

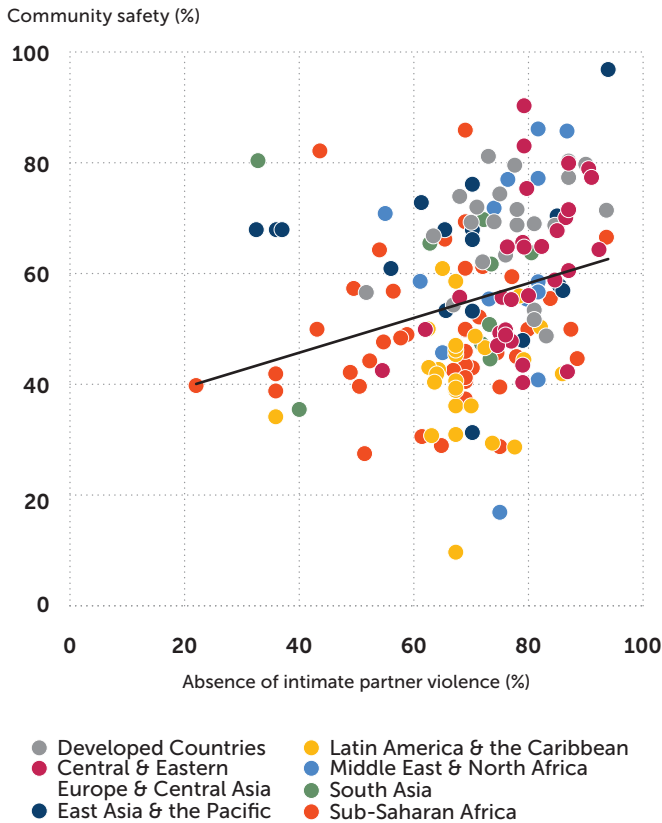


Fragile States



Note: Data are most recent for 2010–16.
 Source: Authors' estimates. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

FIGURE 3.3 Women who feel unsafe in their community are also more likely to be unsafe at home



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

Source: Authors' estimates. See statistical table 1 for data sources.

ongoing fighting among ethnic groups (non-state conflicts) and the security forces, while militias and rebel groups have killed hundreds of civilians (one-sided violence). The measure of organized violence better captures these different contemporary types of conflict.⁵²

This is now the gold standard in statistical analysis of armed conflict and widely used by policy-makers and academics. Unfortunately, deaths are not disaggregated by sex. Nor does the UCDP measure capture the broader negative repercussions of conflict, which differ by sex, as recognized by the UN Security Council and the international community and explored further below. Mary Kaldor argues that the UCDP concept of conflict misses the nuances of contemporary war, which is characterized by transnational violence or persistent low-intensity fighting that may fall below the UCDP threshold.⁵³ Most important for the WPS Index, as Jacqui True has pointed out, the battle death measure fails to account for sexual and gender-based violence or any form of interpersonal violence, which often disproportionately affects women.⁵⁴

Right now, however, the UCDP measure provides the country coverage and transparency needed for the WPS

Index, based on a clear and widely accepted definition of armed conflict with rigorous and independent coding criteria.⁵⁵ While case studies have examined gender differences in conflict zones based on surveys, reliable data are not available at the global level for conflict mortality disaggregated by sex.⁵⁶ There are no micro-level datasets with comparable data for most of the countries included in our index. To help offset the partiality of the battle-death measure, it is complemented by two additional indicators of security that are most important to women—intimate partner violence and safety in the community—which together better reflect the personal security of women than battle deaths alone.

The data on organized violence underline several prominent facts about the global pattern of armed conflict, many of them well known: civil war is the most frequent form of armed conflict; the lethality of war has declined, albeit unevenly, since the peak in World War II; and deaths from organized violence are now concentrated in a few countries.⁵⁷ Specifically, since 1989, fewer than 10 countries have accounted for at least two-thirds of deaths from organized violence, and in the past few years, just three countries—Afghanistan, Central African Republic, and Syria—have accounted for two-thirds of the total.

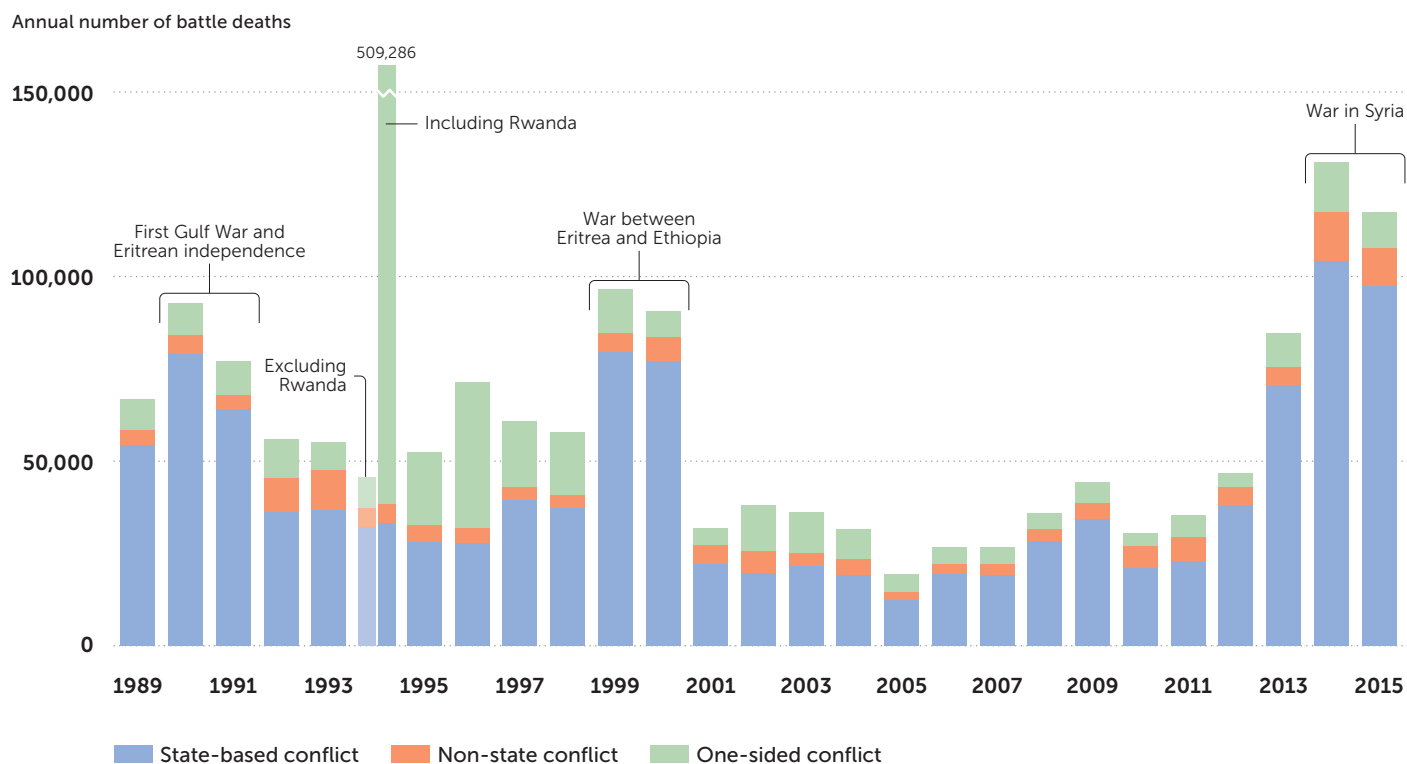
The good news is that most countries do not reach the threshold of 25 deaths per 100,000 annually, and for 113 of the 153 countries in the WPS Index the observed value for 2010–15 was zero. Yet for some countries, civil conflict has become chronic. About half the countries that attained peace after civil conflict later experienced a relapse into conflict, even after several years of peace.⁵⁸

Armed conflicts vary enormously in their severity, as measured by battle-related deaths. Total deaths globally tend to be driven by especially severe individual conflicts. This is reflected in the several peaks in figure 3.4: in 1990–91, during the first Gulf War and Eritrea's fight for independence from Ethiopia; a huge spike in 1994, due to the genocide in Rwanda; in 1999, with the war between Eritrea and Ethiopia; and, most recently, in 2014–15, due to the war in Syria, which accounted for about half of all battle-related deaths.

In all but 2 of the 10 most conflict-affected countries, as measured by total number of battle deaths, state-based conflicts have dominated (table 3.1, left panel). Since 1989, the exceptions have been Rwanda (one-sided conflict) and Democratic Republic of Congo (largely one-sided). However, in the decade 2005–2015, in 4 of the 10 most conflict-affected countries, state-based violence accounted for less than 60 percent of deaths (not shown in table 3.1), as non-state and one-sided conflict became more prevalent. This emerging pattern underlines the value of a broader measure of organized violence.

Of course, the human cost of war extends beyond those killed in violent events, as major losses of life and harmful health effects may follow for a long time after the conflict.⁵⁹

The unique impacts of conflict on women and girls has been recognized in a series of resolutions adopted by the UN

FIGURE 3.4 Global fatalities from organized violence are driven by especially severe individual conflicts, 1989–2015

Note: The sample is global and is not restricted to countries in the Women, Peace, and Security Index. *State-based conflict* is armed conflict between two states or between a state and a rebel group. *Non-state 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.

Source: Authors' estimates based on the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP) dataset available at <http://ucdp.uu.se/#/>.

TABLE 3.1 The 10 most conflict-affected countries, by battle deaths, 1989–2015

Country	Total number of battle deaths	Percent of total			Country	Number of battle deaths per 100,000 people
		State-based	Non-state	One-sided		
Rwanda	522,078	1.4	0.02	98.5	Rwanda	8,670
Syria	187,624	90.1	6.0	3.9	Eritrea	4,092
Afghanistan	162,291	92.9	1.6	5.5	Syria	989
Eritrea	137,987	99.4	0.0	0.6	Liberia	933
Dem. Rep. of Congo	99,312	22.0	12.1	66.0	South Sudan	811
Iraq	95,858	82.0	3.0	15.1	Afghanistan	754
Sri Lanka	58,862	93.6	1.0	5.5	Bosnia and Herzegovina	645
Ethiopia	54,242	84.8	12.0	3.2	Dem. Rep. of Congo	536
South Sudan	53,759	58.1	25.4	16.5	Sierra Leone	534
India	52,935	68.5	9.8	21.8	Somalia	528

Note: Percentages may not sum to 100 because of rounding. *State-based conflict* is armed conflict between two states or between a state and a rebel group. *Non-state 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. The analysis reported in this table is based on data for current borders and therefore the results may differ from those of Melander, Petterson, and Themnér (2016).

Source: Authors' estimates based on the Uppsala Conflict Data Program (UCDP) dataset available at <http://ucdp.uu.se/#/>.

Security Council on Women, Peace and Security, beginning with Resolution 1325 in 2000, which was the first to address the disproportionate and unique impact of armed conflict on women (see box 1.1 in chapter 1).

Conflict has different impacts on men and women because men typically account for the vast majority of combatants and are more likely to die in battle, while women and children may be more affected by the breakdown of health and other services.⁶⁰ One global study found that conflict is associated with a modest increase in maternal mortality, although this association was not significant once national income was controlled for.⁶¹ At the same time, among the 25 countries with the highest maternal mortality ratio, all but one are also affected by organized violence.⁶² For example, in the Democratic Republic of Congo, despite the end of the second civil war in 2003, ongoing violence committed by different armed groups, continuing instability, and governance failure have aggravated already high rates of maternal mortality, which reportedly rose from 549 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2007 to 846 in 2013–14. This reversal stands in stark contrast to overall improvements in reproductive health in most of Sub-Saharan Africa, where regional rates of maternal mortality dropped more than 40 percent from 1990 to 2010.

Conflict-related sexual violence is a major cost of conflict that is disproportionately borne by women and girls. The violence ranges from sexual assault by strangers when women are collecting firewood in refugee camps⁶³ to rape as a weapon of war⁶⁴ and sexual abuse and exploitation by UN peacekeepers.⁶⁵ Recent literature on sexual violence by peacekeepers finds such abuse to be correlated with the number of peacekeepers and the occurrence of sexual violence by other perpetrators during the conflict.⁶⁶ The international community has made major commitments to end all forms of conflict-related sexual violence (as recounted in box 1.1), and major legal decisions have established the responsibility of states to prevent such violence.⁶⁷

Conflict-related sexual violence is important but not included in the organized violence indicator because of data constraints. The best available evidence on conflict-related sexual violence is a new dataset covering 129 active armed conflicts over 1989–2009.⁶⁸ Overall, the dataset reveals that state militaries are more likely to be reported as perpetrators of sexual violence than are non-state actors such as rebel groups and militias: 42 percent of state forces were reported as perpetrators, compared with 24 percent of rebel groups and 17 percent of militias. Likewise in Africa, the majority of rebel groups in active conflict during 2000–2009 were not reported to be the primary perpetrators of such violence.

The data also show that sexual violence varies significantly by perpetrator, over time, and by region. While underreporting remains a problem in documenting sexual violence, we now know that this type of violence is not inevitable in war and that some armed groups have effectively prohibited its use—such as the Tamil Tigers in Sri Lanka and Sendero Luminoso in Peru.⁶⁹ Variations in the ideology and

institutional nature of armed groups, including the attitude or tolerance of leadership to civilian rape, emerge as important factors explaining patterns of violence, as in El Salvador.⁷⁰ There appears to be a correlation between sexual violence and forcible recruitment since gang rape may be used to build group cohesion.

Even in conflict settings, family members tend to be the main perpetrators of sexual violence. During the conflict in rural Côte d’Ivoire, for example, combatants constituted less than 10 percent of the perpetrators in reported cases of sexual and gender-based violence.⁷¹ As noted previously, conflict settings appear to be associated with a higher risk of both individual male perpetration and female experience of intimate partner violence.

Finally, there may be some positive impacts in the aftermath of conflict, as the disruption of economic and political norms during conflict may upset traditional norms and expand opportunities for women. In countries as diverse as Bosnia and Herzegovina, Colombia, Kosovo, Nepal, Tajikistan, and Timor-Leste, empirical analysis has found that while women’s responsibilities in the household increase during conflict, financial pressures and the absence of men can also boost women’s participation in work outside the home, although the jobs are often low skilled or low paid.⁷²

There are cases where some of women’s gains have been legally secured after the conflict, as in the 1991 Colombian Constitution and the quotas introduced in the new Rwandan Constitution. But whether gains are sustained depends on whether traditional norms resurface after the conflict. The reemergence of old patterns has been reported among Guatemalan refugee women, for example, who had taken collective action to secure land rights in Mexico, but who lost their improved status when they returned to post-conflict Guatemala, where they faced hostility from men in patriarchal systems.⁷³ In Eritrea, many women who had taken up jobs as doctors, administrators, and teachers during the conflict with Ethiopia lost these positions after the conflict.⁷⁴

* * *

Security is integral to a global measure of women’s well-being. Too many governments are failing to ensure security for women at the family, community, and societal levels, although there is much to learn from gains and challenges at the country level, as illustrated in spotlights 1 and 2.

The WPS Index reveals priorities for action on security to enable the changes that are also needed to improve inclusion and justice for women. It is our hope that civil society and other advocates will use the results to argue for progressive reforms and investments and to track progress and hold governments accountable. And alongside much needed actions, this report aims to inspire further thought and analysis to advance understanding of the constraints and positive contributors to meeting the world’s goals and commitments to advance women and girls.

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Women, Peace, and Security Index and indicators

WPS Index rank 2016	Country or region	WPS Index value (0-4)	WPS Index rank 2016	GDP per capita (ppps) minus WPS Index rank				Inclusion			Justice			Security		
				WPS Index rank 2016	WPS Index rank 2016	WPS Index rank 2016	WPS Index rank 2016	Mean years of schooling (women ages 25+, %) 2005-16 ^a	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, %) 2011-14 ^a	Employment (women ages 25+, %) 2011-16 ^a	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %) 2008-16 ^a	Parliamentary seats ^b (held by women, %) 2016	Legal discrimination (aggregate score) 2016	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth) 2010-15 ^c	Discriminatory norms (men ages 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %) 2016	Lifetime intimate partner violence (experienced by women, %) 2016
<i>Top tercile</i>																
1	Iceland	.886	18	12.3 ^d	95.5 ^e	77.2	98.7	47.6	15	1.04	2 ^e	22.4	79.6	0.000		
2	Norway	.879	4	12.8	100.0	61.4	99.5	39.6	12	1.05	2 ^e	27.0	81.2	0.000		
3	Switzerland	.871	5	13.7	96.7	60.3	90.2	29.3	16	1.05	2	10.0	79.7	0.000		
4	Slovenia	.861	30	12.4	97.0	49.2	96.5	27.7	9	1.05	4	13.0	79.9	0.000		
5	Spain	.860	24	9.9	97.6	44.7	96.1	38.6	8	1.06	1	13.0	80.3	0.000		
6	Finland	.855	15	12.4 ^f	100.0	51.9	100.0	42.0	14	1.05	1	30.0	69.3	0.000		
7	Canada	.854	10	13.5 ^g	99.2	57.6	76.7	30.1	17	1.06	0	6.4	71.4	0.000		
7	Netherlands	.854	4	12.1	99.2	53.3	92.5	36.9	11	1.06	2	25.0	74.4	0.000		
7	Sweden	.854	3	12.3	99.8	68.1	93.5	43.6	12	1.06	1	28.0	62.1	0.000		
10	Belgium	.846	10	11.9	99.5	47.8	96.9	41.4	14	1.05	3	24.0	63.3	0.000		
10	Singapore	.846	-8	11.5	96.1	60.8	89.2	23.8	25	1.07	2	6.1	96.8	0.000		
12	Denmark	.845	1	12.4	100.0	54.7	97.9	37.4	17	1.06	2	32.0	73.9	0.000		
12	Germany	.845	3	14.1	99.4	53.5	91.9	37.2	21	1.06	3	22.0	68.8	0.000		
12	United Kingdom	.845	8	12.7	98.7	55.0	94.7	27.7	8	1.05	2	29.0	72.0	0.000		
15	Austria	.841	-2	9.9 ^e	97.4	52.7	95.2	30.7	15	1.06	7	13.0	77.4	0.000		
15	Luxembourg	.841	-14	11.6	96.7	54.1	95.2	28.3	11	1.05	2	22.0	71.6	0.000		
17	Australia	.827	0	12.2	99.0	55.2	86.4	32.7	9	1.06	1	16.9	48.7	0.000		
18	New Zealand	.826	7	12.2 ^h	99.2	62.8	92.1	34.2	10	1.05	3	33.1	54.3	0.000		
19	Ireland	.823	-12	11.1	94.8	51.8	94.7	24.3	10	1.07	3	15.0	68.4	0.000		
20	Portugal	.822	18	8.9	86.1	50.8	93.2	34.8	9	1.06	4	19.0	69.0	0.000		
21	France	.817	3	11.3	95.5	49.8	88.6	26.4	9	1.05	2	26.0	69.3	0.002		
22	United States	.810	-13	13.5	94.8	55.0	89.7	19.4	13	1.05	1	36.6	66.8	0.000		
23	Estonia	.809	13	9.1 ^e	97.5	55.0	95.0	26.7	14	1.05	2	20.0	56.0	0.000		
24	Croatia	.804	23	11.1	87.7	42.2	86.9	19.9	12	1.06	6	13.0	71.5	0.000		
24	Serbia	.804	48	11.0	83.0	38.6	85.7	34.4	14	1.05	4	23.7	64.8	0.000		
26	Cyprus	.802	6	11.9	90.3	53.0	92.0	17.9	16	1.07	5	15.0	67.7	0.000		
27	Korea, Rep. of	.800	-1	11.6	93.4	53.4	95.7	17.0	11	1.07	6	14.0	56.9	0.000		
28	Poland	.799	11	12.7	73.0	48.1	87.8	25.5	16	1.06	8	13.0	60.5	0.000		
29	Japan	.798	-6	11.6 ⁱ	97.0	49.6	87.6	13.1	20	1.06	5	15.4	68.7	0.000		
30	Czech Republic	.797	3	12.8	79.4	51.3	92.9	19.6	16	1.06	8	21.0	65.6	0.000		
31	Malta	.795	-3	10.9	95.6	39.0	94.4	12.5	7	1.06	11	15.0	67.7	0.000		

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Women, Peace, and Security Index and indicators (continued)

WPS Index rank 2016	Country or region	GDP per capita (ppps)		Inclusion			Justice			Security					
		WPS Index value (0-4)	rank 2016	WPS Index value (0-4)	rank 2016	Mean years of schooling (women ages 25+, %) 2005-16 ^a	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, %) 2011-14 ^a	Employment (women ages 25+, %) 2011-16 ^a	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %) 2008-16 ^a	Parliamentary seats ^b (held by women, %) 2016	Legal discrimination (aggregate score) 2016	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth) 2010-15 ^c	Discriminatory norms (men ages 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %) 2016	Lifetime intimate partner violence (experienced by women, %) 2016	Perception of community safety (among women ages 15+, %) 2010-15
32	Italy	.790	-6	10.2	83.2	37.4	96.6	30.1	12	1.06	1	19.0	51.7	0.000	
32	Lithuania	.790	5	12.8	77.9	53.7	95.1	21.3	13	1.05	6	24.0	49.8	0.000	
34	Latvia	.787	11	13.2	90.2	51.6	94.4	16.0	12	1.06	7	32.0	55.7	0.000	
35	Slovakia	.776	0	12.7	80.0	49.5	89.9	20.0	9	1.05	26	23.0	55.3	0.000	
36	Montenegro	.770	28	11.1	57.9	43.7	95.5	23.5	13	1.07	6	20.8 ^e	64.8	0.000	
37	Belarus	.767	21	12.3	72.0	50.7	88.6	33.1	25	1.06	11	25.0	49.3	0.000	
38	Macedonia, FYR	.766	37	9.1 ^e	64.0	36.0	86.9	31.7	18	1.05	13	17.7	64.9	0.000	
39	Mongolia	.761	40	10.0	93.2	59.9	97.5	17.1	22	1.03	8	29.8 ^e	53.2	0.000	
40	Greece	.760	2	10.7	86.6	34.5	84.9	18.3	12	1.06	10	19.0	53.4	0.000	
41	Jamaica	.755	50	9.1	77.5	57.1	94.0	19.0	25	1.05	9 ^e	35.0	60.9	0.000	
42	Ecuador	.746	39	8.7	40.8	56.2	79.9	41.6	14	1.05	7	37.5	50.0	0.000	
42	United Arab Emirates	.746	-37	8.9	66.3	47.0	100.0	20.0	47	1.05	18	13.3 ^e	86.1	0.000	
44	Trinidad and Tobago	.743	-13	9.3 ⁱ	69.9	50.7	92.1	30.1	22	1.04	9 ^e	32.7 ^e	47.0	0.000	
45	Kazakhstan	.741	-1	9.1 ^e	55.6	51.4	90.7	20.8	22	1.06	16	15.4	58.8	0.000	
46	Hungary	.739	-5	12.3	72.5	46.9	86.3	10.1	10	1.06	12	21.0	40.3	0.000	
46	Romania	.739	2	11.0	56.8	45.8	77.9	18.9	10	1.06	6	24.0	48.9	0.000	
48	Bulgaria	.735	7	9.1 ^e	63.2	47.8	88.1	19.2	16	1.06	8	23.0	47.8	0.000	
48	Namibia	.735	39	10.3 ^k	56.0	55.7	83.7	36.3	20	1.03	16 ^e	25.0	39.5	0.000	
50	Bosnia and Herzegovina	.734	37	9.0	47.1	23.6	82.8	19.3	8	1.07	5	7.7	64.3	0.000	
51	South Africa	.732	25	10.3	68.8	42.6	84.6	41.2 ^l	15	1.03	19	25.0	28.7	0.000	
<i>Middle tercile</i>															
52	Costa Rica	.730	14	8.6	60.2	43.2	88.9	35.1	22	1.05	8	36.0	41.9	0.000	
53	Georgia	.727	36	12.6	39.8	55.2	86.2	16.0	24	1.11	17	9.0	77.4	0.000	
54	Lao PDR	.723	54	7.1 ^e	26.2	80.1	60.4	27.5	27	1.05	20 ^e	15.0	70.4	0.000	
55	Russian Federation	.721	-12	11.5	70.2	65.5	95.5	16.1	27	1.06	7	21.0	43.5	0.224	
56	Uzbekistan	.720	49	11.4	39.3	49.5	76.8	16.4	29	1.06	32	20.8 ^e	90.3	0.000	
57	Suriname	.718	4	9.0	47.5 ^e	53.8	87.5	25.5	24	1.08	9 ^e	32.7 ^e	58.6	0.000	
58	Nicaragua	.717	52	7.4 ^e	14.1	50.7	76.2	45.7	14	1.05	15	29.3	48.7	0.000	
59	Argentina	.715	-7	7.4 ^e	50.9	49.3	82.6	39.5	14	1.04	10	32.7 ^e	30.9	0.000	
60	Albania	.714	20	10.0	33.6	45.4	85.8	22.9	17	1.08	6	24.6	55.7	0.000	
60	Uruguay	.714	-10	8.7	41.3	55.7	88.4	22.3	17	1.05	4	32.7 ^e	39.3	0.000	

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Women, Peace, and Security Index and indicators (continued)

WPS Index rank 2016	Country or region	WPS Index value (0-4)	WPS Index rank 2016	GDP per capita (PPP\$)				Inclusion			Justice			Security	
				rank	minus WPS Index rank	rank	rank	Mean years of schooling (women ages 25+, %) 2005-16 ^a	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, %) 2011-14 ^a	Employment (women ages 25+, %) 2011-16 ^a	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %) 2008-16 ^a	Parliamentary seats ^b (held by women, %) 2016	Legal discrimination (aggregate score) 2016	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth) 2010-15 ^c	Discriminatory norms (men ages 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %) 2016
62	Chile	.713	-16	10.0	59.1	50.7	91.9	15.8	21	1.04	6	35.7	42.7	0.000	
63	Bahrain	.709	-47	8.7	66.7	47.0	99.7	15.0	44	1.04	22	13.3	58.5	0.000	
64	Bolivia	.707	37	8.3	37.6	67.0	85.6	51.8 ^m	14	1.05	12	64.1	34.1	0.000	
64	Dominican Republic	.707	7	7.8	55.8	46.9	81.0	24.3	15	1.05	9	22.4	28.7	0.000	
64	Qatar	.707	-65	9.8	61.6	60.0	93.4	0.0	43	1.05	37 ^e	13.3 ^e	85.7	0.000	
67	Mauritius	.705	-14	8.5	80.0	44.2	77.9	11.6	19	1.04	7	31.0 ^e	43.4	0.000	
68	Philippines	.702	32	9.1 ^e	33.9	55.0	82.0	29.1	17	1.06	16	14.6	57.8	0.448	
69	Ghana	.701	46	7.0	34.0	77.5	71.1	12.7	28	1.05	7	22.9	59.4	0.000	
70	Zimbabwe	.697	65	8.1	15.3	81.0	82.6	36.0	19	1.02	7	42.3	48.4	0.002	
71	Paraguay	.696	19	8.4	22.7	58.6	74.7	16.0	16	1.05	14	17.9	50.3	0.000	
72	Panama	.694	-25	9.3	40.3	54.0	80.4	18.3	21	1.05	10	32.7 ^e	40.6	0.000	
73	Peru	.693	5	9.1	22.5	67.0	70.9	27.7	11	1.05	7	36.4	40.4	0.010	
74	Kyrgyzstan	.690	46	10.9	18.9	51.8	93.0	19.2	20	1.06	28	25.4	47.0	0.000	
75	Tajikistan	.687	50	9.1 ^e	9.1	62.3	77.3	20.0	26	1.05	29	20.3	75.4	0.012	
76	Mexico	.686	-16	8.6	38.8	45.6	62.1	41.4	8	1.05	14	14.1	41.9	1.107	
77	El Salvador	.685	16	6.5	29.4	52.7	69.8	32.1	15	1.05	8	26.3	29.4	0.000	
78	Venezuela	.684	-22	10.1	53.3	54.1	73.2	22.2	13	1.05	6	32.7 ^e	9.7	0.000	
79	Belize	.682	15	10.5	52.3	51.9	74.8	11.1	26	1.03	9 ^f	32.7 ^e	45.4	0.000	
80	Israel	.679	-51	13.0	90.0	59.6	95.3	27.5	18	1.05	14	48.3 ⁿ	56.6	6.845	
80	Turkmenistan	.679	-18	9.1 ^e	1.6	48.0	84.8	25.8	22 ^e	1.05	34	20.8 ^e	83.0	0.094	
82	Brazil	.677	-14	7.4	64.8	53.9	80.6	11.3	16	1.05	6	36.9	30.7	0.003	
83	Honduras	.675	27	6.3	24.9	49.5	77.6	25.8	16	1.05	11	21.6	56.0	0.165	
83	Kuwait	.675	-79	7.1	64.0	49.4	98.5	3.1	42	1.04	47	13.3 ^e	77.2	0.000	
85	Nepal	.672	42	3.3	31.3	80.5	76.6	29.6	34	1.07	18	28.2	47.3	0.000	
85	Tanzania	.672	42	5.5	17.1	82.7	64.7	36.4	24	1.03	15	43.6	56.8	0.001	
87	China	.671	-18	7.0	76.4	64.2	89.5	23.7	24	1.16	19	38.7	72.8	0.000	
87	Moldova	.671	25	11.6	19.0	42.7	81.8	22.8	20	1.06	10	45.5	42.5	0.000	
89	Thailand	.670	-26	8.3	75.4	66.3	90.3	4.9	22	1.06	22	44.0	60.9	0.284	
90	Indonesia	.669	-6	7.9	37.2	50.9	69.5	19.8	29	1.05	37	29.8 ^e	66.1	0.000	
91	Malaysia	.665	-52	10.1	78.1	60.8	86.4	13.1	37	1.06	20 ^f	29.8 ^e	31.3	0.079	
91	Viet Nam	.665	15	7.8	31.9	75.7	73.2	26.7	20	1.12	18	34.4	53.3	0.000	
93	Tunisia	.663	-10	6.7	20.5	21.0	87.7	31.3	32	1.05	26	20.3	55.4	0.000	

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Women, Peace, and Security Index and indicators (continued)

WPS Index rank 2016	Country or region	WPS Index value (0-4)	WPS Index rank 2016	GDP per capita (PPP) rank minus WPS Index rank				Inclusion			Justice			Security	
				2016	2016	2016	2016	2016	2016	2016	2016	2016	2016	2016	2016
				2005-16 ^a	2011-14 ^a	2011-16 ^a	2008-16 ^a	2016	2010-15 ^c	2016	2010-15 ^c	2016	2010-15 ^c	2016	2010-15 ^c
94	Rwanda	.662	42	3.8	30.5	92.6	48.4	55.7	24	1.02	6	56.4	82.1	1.149	
95	Cambodia	.660	24	3.5	10.7	80.7	69.4	18.5	16	1.05	15	21.0	47.9	0.002	
96	Colombia	.659	-22	8.1	33.6	57.3	84.6	19.8	15	1.05	6	37.4	43.0	0.364	
97	Botswana	.656	-33	8.1 ^o	45.9	67.2	87.0	9.5	32	1.03	9	35.2	28.9	0.000	
97	Sri Lanka	.656	-17	5.2 ^p	83.1	40.8	71.6	5.8	28	1.04	33 ^e	27.8	69.7	0.008	
99	Saudi Arabia	.655	-89	9.4	61.1	21.7	95.9	19.9	54	1.03	26	26.9 ^a	55.4	0.000	
100	Armenia	.654	-6	11.7	14.3	48.3	92.4	9.9	19	1.14	17	9.5	78.9	0.112	
100	Uganda	.654	34	5.1	23.1	83.8	65.4	34.3	25	1.03	21	50.5	57.3	0.017	
102	Guatemala	.650	-3	7.1	34.6	41.4	66.1	12.7	20	1.05	13	27.6	46.6	0.000	
<i>Bottom tercile</i>															
103	Ukraine	.646	-6	9.1 ^e	51.7	56.1	89.1	12.3	22	1.07	11	13.2	42.3	3.259	
104	Togo	.640	39	3.6	14.4	82.2	70.5	17.6	30	1.02	9	22.1	45.0	0.000	
105	Turkey	.634	-54	8.1	44.3	28.6	90.4	14.9	22	1.05	16	38.0	49.9	0.342	
106	Ethiopia	.633	33	2.1	21.0	74.4	42.8	37.3	30	1.04	14	28.0	61.3	0.192	
107	Kenya	.631	16	5.5	51.9	69.0	86.9	20.6	28	1.03	19	41.2	49.0	0.698	
108	Bhutan	.628	-13	2.4	27.7	63.5	79.2	8.3	23	1.04	33 ^f	26.5	61.7	0.000	
108	Mozambique	.628	37	2.4	23.3 ^f	71.1	49.4	39.6	21	1.03	16 ^f	33.1	42.5	0.071	
110	Jordan	.627	-24	9.8	15.5	15.2	89.4	15.4	48	1.05	38	23.6	77.0	0.000	
111	Haiti	.625	25	7.4 ^e	14.2	69.1	68.5	2.2	33	1.05	22	20.8	44.4	0.000	
111	Zambia	.625	6	8.1 ^o	29.7	73.6	63.1	18.0	22	1.03	16	49.5	39.6	0.028	
113	Azerbaijan	.623	-58	10.5	25.9	67.0	79.2	16.8	20	1.16	31	13.5	70.1	0.255	
113	Lesotho	.623	10	5.4	16.9	52.0	71.7	24.8	29	1.03	19	31.0 ^e	36.8	0.000	
113	Morocco	.623	-15	5.4 ^f	26.7	25.2	82.0	18.4	25	1.06	31	45.0 ^f	70.8	0.000	
116	Iran	.619	-57	7.8 ^s	87.1	13.1	86.9	5.9	46	1.05	38	26.7 ^t	44.6	0.014	
117	Senegal	.616	12	2.8	8.2	44.8	74.5	42.7	30	1.04	22	31.0 ^e	46.0	0.074	
118	Burkina Faso	.609	20	1.4	11.8	78.6	58.1	11.0	29	1.05	20	11.5	44.6	0.000	
119	Myanmar	.606	-10	7.1 ^e	17.1	78.7	67.3	10.2	34	1.03	33	29.8 ^e	76.1	0.980	
120	Maldives	.605	-43	3.7	39.2 ^e	52.1	67.1	5.9	18	1.10	33 ^f	19.5	63.7	0.000	
121	Côte d'Ivoire	.604	-3	3.3	12.0	56.9	80.0	11.5	23	1.03	15	25.5	45.7	0.011	
122	Burundi	.603	28	1.9	6.5	87.1	25.9	37.8	24	1.03	16 ^e	31.0 ^e	41.8	0.032	
123	Algeria	.595	-54	6.7	40.1	14.9	85.2	25.8	34	1.05	45	13.3 ^e	40.9	0.519	
124	Gabon	.592	-70	2.9	28.1	54.5	85.7	17.4	34	1.03	11	48.6	27.5	0.000	
125	Malawi	.591	21	2.9 ^e	13.0	74.8	45.9	16.7	25	1.03	25	31.0	45.9	0.000	

STATISTICAL TABLE 1 Women, Peace, and Security Index and indicators (continued)

Country or region	WPS Index rank 2016	WPS Index value (0–4)	WPS Index rank 2016	GDP per capita (ppps) rank minus WPS Index rank			Inclusion			Justice			Security	
				2016	2016	2016	Mean years of schooling (women ages 25+)	Financial inclusion (women ages 15+, %)	Employment (women ages 25+, %)	Cellphone use (women ages 15+, %)	Parliamentary seats ^b (held by women, %)	Legal discrimination (aggregate score)	Son bias (male to female ratio at birth)	Discriminatory norms (men ages 15+ who agree it is unacceptable for women to work, %)
Cabo Verde	6.1	..	50.4	..	23.6	17	1.03	..	12.6	..	0.000
Cuba	11.4	..	43.2	7.6	48.9	..	1.06	46.18	0.000
Korea, Dem. People's Rep. of	1.05	0.000
Djibouti	8.8	..	41.2	10.8	29	1.04	0.000
Equatorial Guinea	83.2	..	20.6	31	1.03	..	56.9	..	0.000
Eritrea	78.2	..	22.0	31	1.05	0.000
Fiji	9.3	..	36.3	..	16.0	24	1.06	..	64.0	..	0.000
Gambia	50.5	..	9.4	28	1.03	..	20.1	..	0.000
Guinea-Bissau	71.0	..	13.7	34	1.03	0.000
Guyana	7.4	..	42.2	..	31.9	17	1.05	38.9	0.000
Kosovo	36.3	12.3	84.8	..	11	..	9	..	63.2	..
Libya	33.6	100.0	16.0	37	1.06	52	8.093
Oman	9.6	63.5	27.8	..	8.8	49	1.05	0.000
Papua New Guinea	74.6	..	2.7	31	1.08	..	67.5	..	0.266
Solomon Islands	57.6	..	2.0	35	1.07	..	63.0	..	0.000
South Sudan	30.9	26.6	38	1.04	25	..	41.2	14.424
Taiwan Province of China	90.5	51.5	94.4	..	10	..	2	..	64.1	..
Timor-Leste	33.6	..	38.5	16	1.05	..	34.6	..	0.000
<i>Country groups and regions</i>														
Developed Countries	.819	9.9	95.5	52.0	90.5	25.3	14	1.05	2	25.2	67.3	0.034
Central & Eastern Europe & Central Asia	.721	9.1	58.9	52.5	89.7	17.8	22	1.06	12	20.8	52.8	0.062
East Asia & the Pacific	.723	7.1	65.5	62.0	84.2	22.0	24	1.13	20	29.8	67.9	0.011
Latin America & the Caribbean	.685	7.4	47.5	52.3	74.8	24.6	14	1.05	9	25.9 ^w	36.1	0.018
Middle East & North Africa	.574	5.4	23.1	20.3	80.2	18.8	39	1.06	37	18.3 [*]	56.7	20.752
South Asia	.635	4.4	39.2	31.5	67.1	13.3	27	1.10	33	38.6	63.7	0.041
Sub-Saharan Africa	.622	2.9	23.3	63.3	63.5	22.9	27	1.02	16	31.0	49.9	2.063
Fragile States	.563	5.1	9.6	26.0	56.0	16.0	33	1.04	25	28.2	48.3	12.942
Global	.662	6.8	55.5	50.3	78.4	20.4	23.0	1.08	19.1	30.3	60.5	0.9318

Notes

- .. Not applicable.
- a. Data are the most recent available in the period specified.
- b. For countries with bicameral legislative systems, the share of seats is calculated based on both houses.
- c. Data are annual average for the period specified.
- d. Sweden's estimate is used.
- e. Regional average is used.
- f. Denmark's estimate is used.
- g. U.S. estimate is used.
- h. Australia's estimate is used.
- i. Republic of Korea's estimate is used.
- j. Panama's estimate is used.
- k. South Africa's estimate is used.
- l. The data on the distribution of seats do not include the 36 special rotating delegates appointed on an ad hoc basis; all percentages are therefore calculated on the basis of the 54 permanent seats.
- m. For calculating the index, the value is capped at 50.
- n. Cwikel et al. 2003.
- o. Zimbabwe's estimate is used.
- p. Pakistan's estimate is used.
- q. Tashkandi and Rasheed 2009.
- r. Mohammadhosseini, Sahraean, and Bahrami 2010.
- s. Iraq's estimate is used.
- t. Olayanju et al. 2013.
- u. Estimate drawn from Social Institutions and Gender Index (OECD 2016; <http://www.genderindex.org/country/syrian-arab-republic>).
- v. Countries not in the index are included because the indicators for which data are available are included in the regional averages.
- w. Based on the population-weighted average of the actual estimates for 17 of the 27 countries in the Latin America and Caribbean region.
- x. Based on the population-weighted average of the actual estimates for 8 of the 16 countries in the Middle East and North Africa region.

Definitions

Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index. A composite index measuring women's achievements for the three dimension of inclusion, justice, and security, using 11 indicators.

Education. Average number of years of education received by 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 years and older that is employed.

Cellphone use. The percentage of women ages 15 years 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.

Legal discrimination. Aggregate score of laws and regulations that limit women's ability to participate in the society or economy or that differentiate between men and women, as measured by Women, Business, and the Law, a World Bank Group product that collects data on laws and regulations that constrain women's economic opportunities. This indicator aggregates 78 laws and regulations that differentiate between men and women across six categories (accessing institutions, using property, going to court, providing incentives to work, building credit, and getting a job), with greater weight given to six laws (requirement that married women obey their husband, mandate for paternity leave, equal remuneration for work of equal value, non-discrimination 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.

Discriminatory norms. Percentage of men ages 15 years 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?"

Community safety. Percentage of women ages 15 years 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?"

Lifetime intimate partner violence. The percentage of women who have experienced physical or sexual violence committed by their intimate partner.

Organized violence. Total number of battle deaths from state-based, 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. *Non-state 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.

Main data sources

WPS Index value: Calculated by the authors following the methodology outlined in appendix 1.

WPS Index rank: Based on values on the Women, Peace, and Security Index shown in the table.

Education: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (<http://uis.unesco.org/>). Accessed in March 2017. (UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2016).

Financial inclusion: World Bank Global Findex Database (<http://www.worldbank.org/en/programs/globalfindex>). Accessed in January 2017. (World Bank 2016d).

Employment: ILOSTAT database (<http://www.ilo.org/ilostat>). Accessed in March 2017. (ILO 2016).

Cellphone use: Gallup World Poll 2016 (http://www.gallup.com/topic/world_region_worldwide.aspx). Accessed in March 2017. (Gallup 2016b).

Parliamentary seats: Inter-Parliamentary Union (<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>). Accessed in March 2017. (IPU 2016).

Legal discrimination: World Bank, Women, Business, and the Law database (<http://wbl.worldbank.org>). Accessed in February 2017. (World Bank 2016b).

Son bias: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2016. *2015 Revision of the World Population Prospects*. (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/>). Accessed in February 2017. (UNDESA 2015).

Discriminatory norms: Gallup, Inc., and International Labour Organization 2017. *Towards a Better Future for Women and Work: Voices of Women and Men*. Accessed in March 2017. (Gallup and ILO 2017).

Lifetime intimate partner violence: UN Women Global Database on Violence against Women (<http://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en>), accessed in March 2017. (UN Women 2016); DHS (Demographic and Health Surveys) Program STATcompiler database 2016 (<http://www.statcompiler.com/en/>); DHS 2016), accessed in December 2016; and United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) Asia-Pacific, accessed in December 2016.

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APPENDIX 1

Index methodology: data normalization, aggregation, and index construction

The Women’s Peace and Security (WPS) Index is a summary measure capturing achievements in women’s well-being in three dimensions: inclusion, justice, and security.

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.⁷⁵ This appendix describes the steps in calculating the sub-indices and the overall WPS Index and presents a worked-through example.

Normalization

Normalization makes data comparable across indicators, so that the information can be combined 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 describing the optimum. This is done for the Sustainable Development Goals Index (SDGI) developed by Schmidt-Traub et al. (2017),⁷⁶ 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, for example.

The values for several indicators in the WPS Index fall naturally between 0 and 100—for example, all those presented as percentages (financial inclusion, employment, cellphone use, intimate partner violence, and community safety). Other indicators require setting maximum values. We set

aspirational maximum values of 15 years for mean years of schooling and 50 percent for parliamentary representation. 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, and outliers can have undue influence. Setting upper and lower bounds can reduce spurious variability, although this needs to be done with care.

Unless otherwise indicated, indicators are normalized as follows:

$$\text{Indicator score} = \frac{\text{actual value} - \text{minimum value}}{\text{maximum value} - \text{minimum value}}$$

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 (indicators) were aggregated for each dimension and then aggregated across the three dimensions of the WPS Index. The arithmetic mean was used to aggregate indicator scores within each dimension, reflecting the broadly complementary nature of the indicators. The relative weight of each indicator in a dimension is inversely proportional to the number of indicators in that dimension.

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

Dimension and indicator	Minimum value	Maximum value
Inclusion		
Education	0	15
Financial inclusion	0	100
Employment	0	100
Cellphone use	0	100
Parliamentary representation	0	50
Justice		
Legal discrimination	84	0
Son bias	1.2	0.9 ^a
Discriminatory norms	100	0
Security		
Community safety	0	100
Intimate partner violence	100	0
Organized violence	200	0

a. Biased against male births (biased in favor of female births).
Source: Authors.

Arithmetic means were used to aggregate the normalized indicators into each dimension sub-index:

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

To emphasize that all three dimensions are equally important and that countries are expected to perform well on each dimension, we then used a geometric mean to aggregate the three dimension sub-indices into the overall WPS Index:

- *WPS Index* = Inclusion sub-index^{1/3} × Justice sub-index^{1/3} × Security sub-index^{1/3}.

Figure A1.1 summarizes how the WPS Index is constructed.

The geometric mean is often used to aggregate heterogeneous variables with limited substitutability, because this method penalizes unequal achievements across dimensions.⁷⁷ 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.

A worked-through example: China

We use China's scores from statistical table 1 (as shown in table A1.2) to illustrate the application of our method.

That example demonstrates how the arithmetic mean of the indicator scores within each dimension is used to aggregate the scores within each dimension and then how the geometric mean is used to aggregate the three dimension sub-indices into the WPS Index.

Inclusion dimension

- Education = $(7.01 - 0)/(15 - 0) = .467$
- Financial inclusion = $(76.36 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .763$
- Employment = $(64.2 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .642$
- Cellphone use = $(89.54 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .895$
- Parliamentary representation = $(23.7 - 0)/(50 - 0) = .474$

Inclusion sub-index =

$$(.467 + .763 + .642 + .895 + .474) / 5 = .648$$

Justice dimension

- Legal discrimination = $1 - (24/84) = .7143$
- Son bias⁷⁸ = $(1.2 - 1.16)/(1.2 - 1.05) = .267$
- Discriminatory norms = $1 - (19/100) = .810$

Justice sub-index =

$$(.714 + .267 + .810) / 3 = .597$$

Security dimension

- Community safety = $(72.8 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .728$
- Intimate partner violence = $1 - (38.7 - 0)/(100 - 0) = .613$
- Organized violence = $[1 - (0/200)^{1/3}]^3 = 1$

Security sub-index =

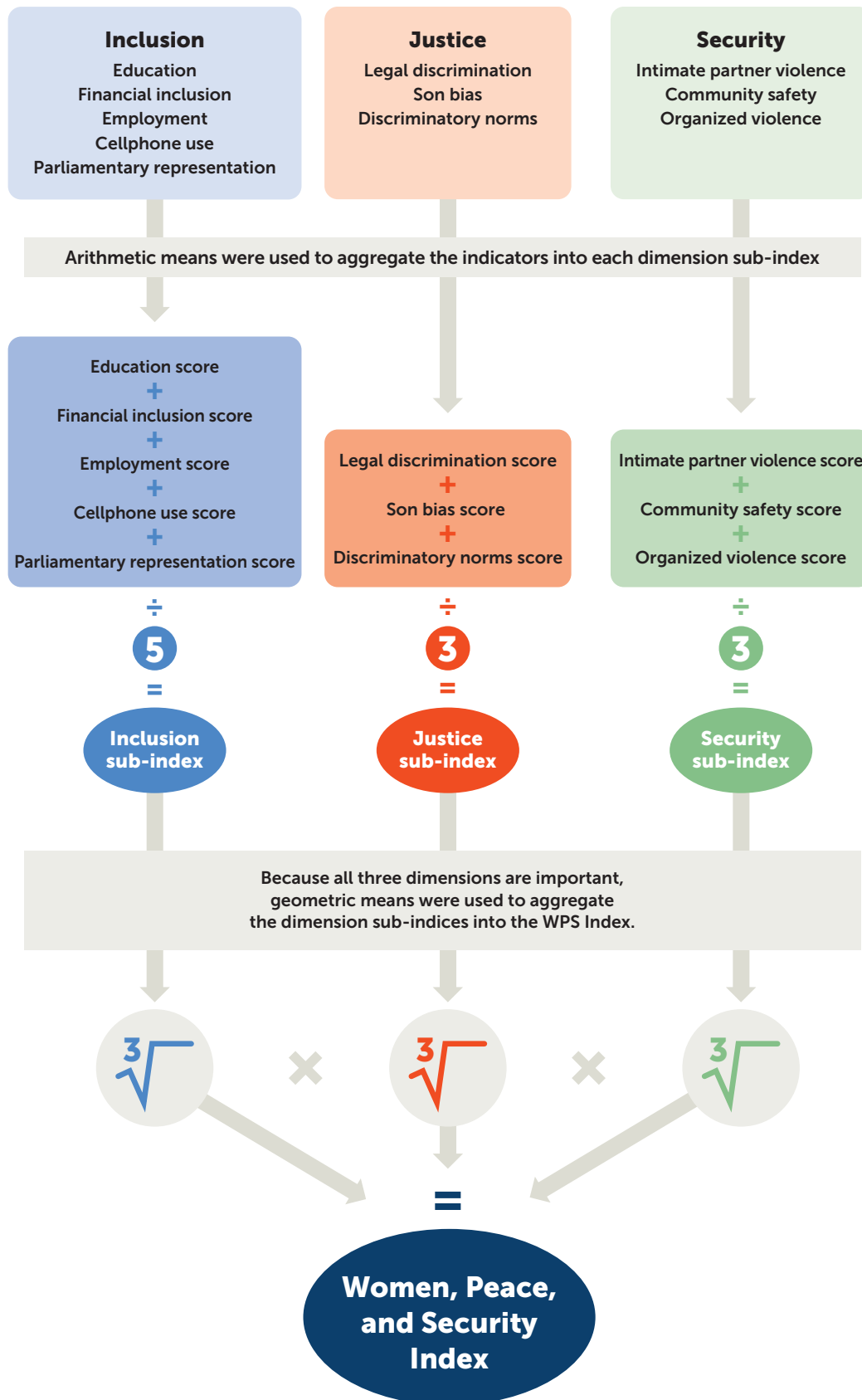
$$(.7281 + .613 + 1) / 3 = .780$$

$$\text{China's WPS Index} = .648^{1/3} \times .597^{1/3} \times .780^{1/3} = .671$$

TABLE A1.2 Illustration of aggregation with China as an example

Indicator	Value for China
Education (mean years)	7.0
Financial inclusion (%)	76.4
Employment (%)	64.2
Cellphone use (%)	89.5
Political participation (%)	23.7
Legal discrimination (0–84)	24
Son bias (male/female ratio)	1.16
Discriminatory norms (%)	19
Community safety (%)	72.8
Intimate partner violence (%)	38.7
Organized violence (per 100,000 people)	0.0

Source: See statistical table 1.

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

Source: Authors.

APPENDIX 2

Regional and country groups

Developed Countries

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

Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia

Albania
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Belarus
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Bulgaria
Croatia
Cyprus
Czech Republic
Estonia
Georgia
Hungary
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Latvia
Lithuania
Macedonia, FYR
Moldova
Montenegro
Poland
Romania
Russian Federation
Serbia
Slovakia
Slovenia
Solomon Islands
Tajikistan

Thailand
Timor-Leste
Turkey
Turkmenistan
Ukraine
Uzbekistan
Viet Nam

East Asia and the Pacific

Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
China
Fiji
Indonesia
Korea, Democratic People's Republic
Korea, Republic of
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Mongolia
Myanmar
Papua New Guinea
Philippines
Singapore

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
Syrian Arab Republic
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
Ethiopia
Gabon
Gambia
Ghana
Guinea
Guinea-Bissau
Kenya
Lesotho

Liberia
Madagascar
Malawi
Mali
Mauritania
Mauritius
Mozambique
Namibia
Niger
Nigeria
Rwanda
Senegal
Sierra Leone
Somalia
South Africa
South Sudan
Sudan
Swaziland
Togo
Uganda
Tanzania
Zambia
Zimbabwe

Fragile States

Afghanistan
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Burundi
Central African Republic
Chad
Comoros
Congo, Democratic Republic
Côte d'Ivoire
Djibouti
Eritrea
Gambia
Guinea-Bissau
Haiti
Iraq
Lebanon
Liberia
Libya
Madagascar
Mali
Myanmar
Papua New Guinea
Sierra Leone
Solomon Islands
Somalia
South Sudan
Sudan
Syrian Arab Republic
Togo
Yemen
Zimbabwe

Note: The Regional groupings and Developed Country group are from UN Women (2015b); the Fragile States group follows the harmonized World Bank definition (<http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/fragilityconflictviolence/brief/harmonized-list-of-fragile-situations>).

Notes

1. Appendix 2 presents the country and regional groups. The report defines regional and developed country groups according to the definitions of UN Women 2015b. The Fragile States group follows the harmonized World Bank definition (<http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/fragilityconflictviolence/brief/harmonized-list-of-fragile-situations>). Countries in the Fragile States group are also included in their regional group.
2. GSMA 2015.
3. Suri and Jack 2016.
4. It should be noted that Zimbabwe's relatively good performance on the WPS Index compared with its income rank appears to reflect the contrast between economic collapse—income per capita fell by more than a third between 2000 and 2015—and earlier investments in human development that helped to ensure women's inclusion, at least for the time being, on such fronts as education and employment. A notable exception is low rates of financial inclusion, not surprising in the context of hyperinflation.
5. UNSC 2016.
6. For example, the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) "*underscores* the importance of women's leadership and participation in conflict prevention, resolution and peacebuilding, and recognizes the continuing need to increase representation of women at all decision-making levels in national, regional and international institutions and mechanisms for the prevention and resolution of conflict, and the consideration of gender-related issues in all discussions pertinent to sustaining peace; [and] *Encourages* the Secretary-General to promote the gender dimensions of peacebuilding, including through the delivery of gender-sensitive and targeted programming, through the strengthening of women's meaningful participation in peacebuilding, supporting women's organizations and through monitoring, tracking and reporting achievement" (UNSC 2016).
7. Kelley 2017.
8. See Hegre et al. (2017) for an excellent overview.
9. Kelley 2017.
10. See in particular the recent work of the Center for International Cooperation at New York University: Stevens (2016) <http://cic.nyu.edu/programs/sdg16plus>.
11. See Klugman, Rodríguez, and Choi (2011); OECD (2008); UNDP (2014).
12. UN Women 2015b.
13. <http://www.womenseconomicempowerment.org/reports/>.
14. There are 153 countries with WPS Index values, but because the last two countries are tied, they are both ranked 152.
15. In 10 cases, the country value was imputed from a reported value for a nearby country at a similar level of development.
16. World Bank 2016a.
17. Hanmer and Cem 2016. Data cover 168 economies within World Bank Group regions.
18. Gallup and ILO 2017. The UN Women's global study of Resolution 1325 documented and made recommendations to address these gaps (UN Women 2015a).
19. Among the 153 countries ranked in the index, 34 countries were missing some data. For 29 countries, the value was imputed from their respective regional average, while in five countries data were drawn from a source different from the main source of data for the indicator (see statistical table 1 for notes n, q, r, t, and u).
20. See UN Women (2015a), which calls for creating a gender, conflict, and crisis database to inform programming and to facilitate knowledge sharing, following good practice, and disseminating data through an on-line repository.
21. Homicide data from the World Health Organization and the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime are based on reporting from only about half of member states and are incomplete for such large countries as Brazil, China, and the Russian Federation; the data for Sub-Saharan African countries are modeled based on only a handful of data points. See UNODC (2013).
22. A country's normalized score for an indicator that is more than 0.25 higher than the regional average is coded as *much better*, a score that is more than 0.1 to 0.25 higher than the regional average is coded as *better*, a score that is 0.1 higher or lower than the regional average is coded as *approximately the same*, a score that is more than 0.1 to 0.25 lower than the regional average is coded as *worse*, and a score that is more than 0.25 lower than the regional average is coded as *much worse*. Some regions have fewer than five countries that perform worse than the regional average, in which case those below the average are shown.
23. It should be noted that Zimbabwe's relatively good performance on the WPS Index compared with its income rank appears to reflect the contrast between economic collapse—income per capita fell by more than a third

between 2000 and 2015—and earlier investments in human development that helped to ensure women’s inclusion, at least for the time being, on such fronts as education and employment. A notable exception is low rates of financial inclusion, not surprising in the context of hyperinflation.

24. Sen 1990.
25. Bongaarts and Guilmoto 2015.
26. Data to calculate missing girls came from the UN Population Division and special aggregates from UNDESA (2015).

To calculate missing girls, we first determined the number of “excess boys”:

$$\frac{(M - X)}{F} = 1.05$$

where M is the number of male births, F is the number of female births, and X is the number of excess boys. We then solve for X to solve the equation for excess boys:

$$X = M - 1.05 \times F.$$

This allows the number of missing girls to be estimated based on the equation:

$$G = (X / F) M$$

where again M is the number of male births, F is the number of female births, X is the number of excess boys as calculated above, and G is the number of missing girls.

27. Ebenstein and Sharygin 2009.
28. Gallup and ILO 2017.
29. United Nations General Assembly Resolution 48/104 (1993), Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women. <http://www.un.org/documents/ga/res/48/a48r104.htm>. See box 1.1 for additional information.
30. WHO 2013.
31. FRA 2014.
32. Gracia and Merlo 2016.
33. Klugman et al. 2014.
34. Klugman et al. 2014.
35. WHO 2013.
36. UNHCR 2003.
37. Hanmer and Klugman 2016.
38. Klugman et al. forthcoming.
39. Horn 2010.
40. de Silva de Alwis and Klugman 2015.
41. IRC 2012.
42. Hyder, Noor, and Tsui 2007.
43. FRA 2014.
44. World Bank 2015.
45. Sakhonchik, Recavarren, and Tavares 2016.
46. Esipova and Ray 2017.
47. Barr 2014.
48. Australian Aid 2015.
49. Newport 2013.
50. Gallup 2016a.
51. Melander, Pettersson, and Themnér 2016.
52. Melander, Pettersson, and Themnér 2016.
53. Kaldor 2013.
54. True 2013.
55. Nygard, Wheeler, and Urdal 2016.
56. Murray et al. 2002; Reza, Mercy, and Krug 2001; Hynes 2004; Ormhaug, Meier, and Hernes 2009. For a critique and comparison with microdata sets, see Restrepo, Spagat, and Vargas (2006).
57. Melander, Pettersson, and Themnér 2016.
58. Melander, Pettersson, and Themnér 2016.
59. Cross-national studies have documented surges in overall mortality associated with conflict. Ghobarah, Huth, and Russett (2003) concluded that almost as many people died from indirect causes attributable to civil war in the period 1991–97 as those who died in conflict. Other cross-national studies also find considerable excess mortality both during and after conflict (Li and Wen 2005; Plümper and Neumayer 2006). Excess mortality is a measure of deaths for a given population over and above the regular death rate that would be predicted in the absence of a negative defined circumstance, in this case armed conflict.
60. Mansour and Rees 2012; Urdal and Chi 2013; Chi et al. 2015.
61. Urdal and Chi 2013.
62. The 25 countries with the worst maternal mortality ratios are (from the bottom up) Sierra Leone, Central African Republic, Chad, Nigeria, South Sudan, Somalia, Liberia, Burundi, Gambia, Democratic Republic of Congo, Guinea, Côte d’Ivoire, Malawi, Mauritania, Cameroon, Mali, Niger, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Eritrea, Mozambique, Lesotho, Angola, Zimbabwe, and Republic of Congo. UN Maternal Mortality Estimation Group 2015.
63. Patrick 2007.
64. United Nations Security Council Resolution 1820 (2008) on Women, Peace and Security. [http://undocs.org/en/S/RES/1820\(2008\)](http://undocs.org/en/S/RES/1820(2008)).
65. Gilliard 2011.
66. Nordås and Rustad 2013. Also, see Stern (2015) and Karim and Beardsley (2016).
67. Klugman 2017.
68. Cohen and Nordås 2014.
69. Wood 2006.
70. Cohen and Nordås 2014.
71. Stark and Ager 2011.
72. Justino, Brück, and Verwimp 2013.
73. Bouta, Frerks, and Bannon 2005.
74. Stewart (2010) and Schmidt-Traub et al. (2017).
75. Klugman et al. (2011); OECD (2008); UNDP (2014).
76. Schmidt-Traub et al. 2017.
77. 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 means in 2010.
78. If the sex ratio 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 China’s case, the value is higher than 1.05, so the first formula is used.

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Rank	Country	Index	Rank	Country	Index	Rank	Country	Index
1	Iceland	.886	52	Costa Rica	.73	103	Ukraine	.646
2	Norway	.879	53	Georgia	.727	104	Togo	.64
3	Switzerland	.871	54	Lao People's Democratic Republic	.723	105	Turkey	.634
4	Slovenia	.861	55	Russian Federation	.721	106	Ethiopia	.633
5	Spain	.86	56	Uzbekistan	.72	107	Kenya	.631
6	Finland	.855	57	Suriname	.718	108	Bhutan	.628
7	Canada	.854	58	Nicaragua	.717	108	Mozambique	.628
7	Netherlands	.854	59	Argentina	.715	110	Jordan	.627
7	Sweden	.854	60	Albania	.714	111	Haiti	.625
10	Belgium	.846	60	Uruguay	.714	111	Zambia	.625
10	Singapore	.846	62	Chile	.713	113	Azerbaijan	.623
12	Denmark	.845	63	Bahrain	.709	113	Lesotho	.623
12	Germany	.845	64	Bolivia	.707	113	Morocco	.623
12	United Kingdom	.845	64	Dominican Republic	.707	116	Iran	.619
15	Austria	.841	64	Qatar	.707	117	Senegal	.616
15	Luxembourg	.841	67	Mauritius	.705	118	Burkina Faso	.609
17	Australia	.827	68	Philippines	.702	119	Myanmar	.606
18	New Zealand	.826	69	Ghana	.701	120	Maldives	.605
19	Ireland	.823	70	Zimbabwe	.697	121	Côte d'Ivoire	.604
20	Portugal	.822	71	Paraguay	.696	122	Burundi	.603
21	France	.817	72	Panama	.694	123	Algeria	.595
22	United States of America	.81	73	Peru	.693	124	Gabon	.592
23	Estonia	.809	74	Kyrgyzstan	.69	125	Malawi	.591
24	Croatia	.804	75	Tajikistan	.687	126	Liberia	.588
24	Serbia	.804	76	Mexico	.686	127	Bangladesh	.585
26	Cyprus	.802	77	El Salvador	.685	128	Comoros	.583
27	Korea, Republic of	.8	78	Venezuela	.684	128	Nigeria	.583
28	Poland	.799	79	Belize	.682	130	Benin	.582
29	Japan	.798	80	Israel	.679	131	India	.58
30	Czech Republic	.797	80	Turkmenistan	.679	132	Madagascar	.576
31	Malta	.795	82	Brazil	.677	133	Angola	.575
32	Italy	.79	83	Honduras	.675	133	Swaziland	.575
32	Lithuania	.79	83	Kuwait	.675	135	Guinea	.573
34	Latvia	.787	85	Nepal	.672	136	Mauritania	.566
35	Slovakia	.776	85	Tanzania	.672	137	Sierra Leone	.563
36	Montenegro	.77	87	China	.671	138	Congo	.559
37	Belarus	.767	87	Moldova	.671	138	Egypt	.559
38	Macedonia, FYR	.766	89	Thailand	.67	140	Somalia	.555
39	Mongolia	.761	90	Indonesia	.669	141	Chad	.551
40	Greece	.76	91	Malaysia	.665	142	Cameroon	.548
41	Jamaica	.755	91	Viet Nam	.665	143	Lebanon	.547
42	Ecuador	.746	93	Tunisia	.663	144	Niger	.538
42	United Arab Emirates	.746	94	Rwanda	.662	145	Sudan	.521
44	Trinidad and Tobago	.743	95	Cambodia	.66	146	Mali	.505
45	Kazakhstan	.741	96	Colombia	.659	147	Iraq	.5
46	Hungary	.739	97	Botswana	.656	148	Congo, Democratic Republic	.486
46	Romania	.739	97	Sri Lanka	.656	149	Central African Republic	.474
48	Bulgaria	.735	99	Saudi Arabia	.655	150	Pakistan	.441
48	Namibia	.735	100	Armenia	.654	151	Yemen	.407
50	Bosnia and Herzegovina	.734	100	Uganda	.654	152	Afghanistan	.385
51	South Africa	.732	102	Guatemala	.65	152	Syrian Arab Republic	.385

The new global Women, Peace, and Security (WPS) Index introduced in this inaugural report incorporates three basic dimensions of well-being—inclusion (economic, social, political); justice (formal laws and informal discrimination); and security (at the family, community, and societal levels). The index ranks 153 countries—covering more than 98 percent of the world’s population—along these three dimensions in a way that focuses attention on key achievements and major shortcomings. It reflects a shared vision that countries are more peaceful and prosperous when women are accorded full and equal rights and opportunity and aims to accelerate progress toward that goal.

“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

“As the world works to realize the sustainable development goals (SDGs), we will need robust tools to measure progress. I welcome this new global Index—the first gender index to be developed for women’s role in peace and security—as a mechanism to assess countries’ progress against the SDGs, thus creating inclusive, just, and peaceful societies for all.”

—**Amina Mohammed**, Deputy Secretary General, United Nations

“It has taken 17 years from the adoption of the first resolution on women, peace and security for this index to become a reality. Much has been said about justice, security, and inclusion being interlinked, but only now have the data been put together that show us how. We know that women are often the first to feel the impact of smoldering conflicts. Their rights and security are often threatened long before gunshots are heard. This index has the potential to sensitize us to dangerous situations and could ultimately contribute to conflict prevention efforts. We are excited about the index and hope that it will be used actively by the UN system, nation states, academia, and civil society alike.”

—**Børge Brende**, Minister of Foreign Affairs, Norway

“I welcome this groundbreaking global index, which for the first time links women’s justice and security with measures of broader inclusion. This is a critical step forward in efforts to better connect humanitarian, peace and security, and development work in order to fulfill women’s human rights and create more stable and just societies. The WPS Index is a welcome addition to the evidence base we need to both highlight progress and achievements and to hold decision-makers to account. It provides policy-makers with critical evidence to guide them in setting priorities to enhance gender justice and women’s security and inclusion.”

—**Winnie Byanyima**, Executive Director, Oxfam International

“The Peace Research Institute of Oslo and the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security deserve our thanks for devising a new global index that captures the complexity of issues at the heart of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The WPS Index provides invaluable insight into the well-being of women and girls. We know that wherever they are accorded full and equal rights and opportunity, the prospects for peace and prosperity improve. The condition of women and the denial of their rights is an indicator of future instability and conflict. The WPS Index has the potential to contribute to building our resilience globally.”

—**Kristalina Georgieva**, Chief Executive Officer, The World Bank

“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 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, UN Women



ISBN 978-0-692-94090-7

