Gender Equality in the Commonwealth

Volume 1, 2017/18



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The Commonwealth

The Commonwealth is an association of 53 independent countries, comprising large and small, developed and developing, landlocked and island economies. As the main intergovernmental body of the association, the Commonwealth Secretariat works with member governments to deliver on priorities agreed by Commonwealth Heads of Government and promotes international consensus building. It provides technical assistance and advisory services to members, helping governments achieve sustainable, inclusive and equitable development. The Secretariat's work programme encompasses areas such as democracy, rule of law, human rights, governance and social and economic development.



Achieving gender equality and women and girls' empowerment is one of the fundamental principles of the Commonwealth, and the Commonwealth is committed to promoting a rights-based approach in all areas of its work. The Commonwealth has a strong foundation of commitments, conventions and treaties on which to act towards greater gender equality, articulated in the 2013 Charter of the Commonwealth, which recognises that gender equality and women's empowerment are essential components of human development and basic human rights.

At the 2015 Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (CHOGM) in Malta, leaders reaffirmed their conviction that gender equality and empowerment of all women and girls should continue to be mainstreamed into development. They also reaffirmed their commitment to prioritising the issue in line with the aspirations of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and within the work of the Commonwealth Secretariat.

In fulfilling the above mandate from the 2015 CHOGM, and in line with the

findings of the end-of-term independent evaluation of the Commonwealth's Plan of Action on Gender Equality 2005–2015 completed in early 2016, along with feedback from members throughout the process and together with the outcomes of the inaugural Commonwealth Women's Forum of 2015 in Malta, the annual consultations of Commonwealth National Women's Machineries in March 2016 in New York, and the July 2016 Women's Leaders' Summit in London, four thematic areas emerged as proposed priorities for the Commonwealth:

- 1 Women in leadership
- 2 Women's economic empowerment
- 3 Ending violence against women and girls
- 4 Gender and climate change

The Commonwealth Priorities for Gender Equality 2017–2020 and beyond were endorsed by Women's Affairs Ministers at their 11th meeting hosted by the Government of Samoa in September 2016. The document provides a template for action. The monitoring and evaluation strategies of the document committed the Commonwealth to produce an annual report on the status of gender equality in Commonwealth member countries. This inaugural *Gender Equality Report* meets that commitment. It provides baseline information that can be used by Commonwealth member countries to monitor their performance in meeting the Commonwealth priorities for gender equality and the 2030 Agenda's Sustainable Development Goals.

The report assesses progress in each of the four thematic areas in the Commonwealth Priorities for Gender Equality 2017–2020 and outlines the challenges ahead for Commonwealth member countries in advancing gender equality and women and girls' empowerment in the Commonwealth. It further reflects our commitment to ensure that women and girls are regarded as equal partners with men and boys in shaping our common future.

The Rt Hon Patricia Scotland QC Secretary-General of the Commonwealth



This report documents the Commonwealth's 53 member countries' progress towards achieving the 2030 Agenda's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for gender equality and women's empowerment. In doing so, the report will focus largely, but not exclusively, on progress towards meeting SDG 5, that is, to 'Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls'. The strong association this goal has with many of the other 16 SDGs and the goal's inter-connectedness means that any assessment of progress in promoting gender equality and women's empowerment will necessarily involve an analysis of how the Commonwealth regions and their member states are faring on meeting a number of the other SDGs.

The report will review progress against SDGs under the four themes endorsed as the Commonwealth Priorities for Gender Equality 2017–2020 by the women's affairs minsters at their 11th meeting, hosted by the Government of Samoa in September 2016. These themes are: 1. women in leadership, 2. women's economic empowerment, 3. ending violence against women and girls, and 4. gender and climate change.

The need for an annual review of Commonwealth countries'

progress against the SDGs arose from an end-of-term review of the 2005–2015 Commonwealth Plan of Action (PoA). The review found that monitoring, evaluation and reporting on the PoA's implementation had been difficult, and while evaluators had been able to establish what had changed using the plan's quantitative indicators, the causes of such changes remained elusive. The absence of a rigorous results framework guiding the plan meant that accountability measures gauging its implementation progress were lacking, leading to the recommendation that a post-2015 framework undertake regular and effective reviews. This first Annual Report on gender equality and women's empowerment in the Commonwealth represents a baseline review of the extent to which Commonwealth countries are meeting the SDGs: most notably SDG 5 and other SDGs closely connected with achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls.

The report will analyse progress in meeting SDGs in each Commonwealth region: Africa, Asia, the Caribbean and Americas, Europe and the Pacific. The sections provide an analysis of baseline information that

can be returned to in future Annual Reports, together with reference to any historical or emerging trends. They also include performance highlights concerning good practice and areas requiring improvement for Commonwealth member countries. Good practice will also be designated in feature boxes throughout the report. Each report section will conclude with a summary and a review of Commonwealth countries' results, formulated as a series of conclusions to assist readers to absorb the large amount of information presented in this report.

The report will not repeatedly disaggregate affected groups and examine issues and country performance though an intersectionality lens by considering how particular issues affect the disabled, indigenous people, LGBTI+ (lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender, intersex plus) or other groups of difference, due to limitations concerning resources, including a lack of time to do justice to these dimensions. The lack of an intersectionality dimension in this report constitutes a gap that could productively be addressed in future reports, should the resources required to satisfactorily do so be made available.



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Acronyms and abbreviations

ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EU	European Union
FGM/C	female genital mutilation or cutting
ICAEW	Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
IRENA	International Renewable Energy Agency
MP	Member of Parliament
NAP	National Action Plan
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSCE	Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe
PNG	Papua New Guinea
PV	photovoltaic
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SGBV	sexual and gender-based violence
SIDS	small island developing states
SRHR	sexual and reproductive health and rights
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM merged with UN Women in 2011)
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UN Women	UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
WEF	World Economic Forum
WHO	World Health Organization
WPS	Women, Peace and Security

Summary

This report documents progress made by the Commonwealth's 53 member countries in promoting gender equality and women's empowerment. In doing so, it records Commonwealth countries' performances on available indicators covering the four themes adopted as priorities for Gender Equality 2017–2020 and beyond, endorsed by the 11th Commonwealth Women's Affairs Ministers at their 2016 meeting hosted by the Government of Samoa. These themes are:

- 1 Women in leadership
- 2 Women's economic empowerment
- 3 Ending violence against women and girls
- 4 Gender and climate change

The report is structured around these four themes, and examines the extent to which Commonwealth countries are progressing on achieving the 2030 Agenda's Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). These include SDG 5 ('Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls'); and also, via the strong association this goal has with many of the other SDGs, how women and girls fare under several other SDGs. By assessing women and girls' health and well-being (SDG 3), their access to and use of educational opportunities (SDG 4), their country's record on clean energy (SDG 7), their capacity to participate in the labour force (SDG 8), their experiences of inequalities (SDG 10), their vulnerability to the impacts of climate change (SDGs 11, 13, 14 and 15) and their participation in decisions affecting their lives (SDG 16), and particularly decisions made concerning conflict, the report inevitably deals with many SDGs.

As of 2018, data collection and reporting on the SDGs is still at a nascent stage, with continuing work at the international level, to establish methodologies and standards. The SDG indicators are classified by tier, with the following definitions:

Tier 1: indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant.

Tier 2: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries.

Tier 3: No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but are being, or will be developed or tested.

The tiers are updated on a regular basis, as methodologies are developed and data availability increases. However, it is expected that indicators remaining at the Tier 3 classification in 2020 will be removed from the SDG monitoring list. This will have an implication for measuring gender equality through the SDGs, since of the current list of 232 SDG indicators, 53 are gender related, and of the 53, only nine are currently classified as Tier 1.

To address the challenges of assessing progress on gender equality in a context of low data availability, this report takes a broad approach in its first iteration, seeking to gather available data and analysis through a desk review, supplemented by primary research and case studies. It is anticipated that future iterations of this report will focus on thematic areas, with the broader report updated as data becomes available.

The available data on the status of gender equality indicates uneven progress across all four of the priority themes in the Commonwealth, and brief summaries of the findings are set out below.

1. Women in leadership

Three dimensions of women's leadership are examined in the report. These include women's leadership at the parliamentary, corporate and local community – including local government – levels. Progress in each of these dimensions varies by region and by country, with no single trend across the Commonwealth. It is notable that progress in parliamentary representation, and women's leadership in the corporate sector seem to be benefiting from the presence of positive action and quotas, both voluntary and legislated.

Women's leadership at the parliamentary level

Women's representation in lower houses of parliament, in cabinet positions and their occupancy of executive leadership positions were reviewed for all 53 Commonwealth countries. The report found that during the last 20 years (1997 to 2017), women's lower house representation in Africa has improved markedly, with the exception – barring Cameroon – of West Africa. However, on the election of women to cabinet, although progress has been reasonable in South Africa and Rwanda in Africa, Trinidad and Tobago in the Caribbean, and of course in Canada, with its 50 per cent representation of women in cabinet, progress has been disappointingly slow.

Women have also often been underrepresented in the roles of prime minster, president and parliamentary speaker or parliamentary president. Bangladesh, India and Pakistan lead the World Economic Forum's (WEF's) 2017 political empowerment index (WEF 2017), measuring the amount of time women have occupied executive roles in government over the last 50 years. In contrast to the South Asia subregion's poor performance in other levels of representation, women from Bangladesh, India and to a lesser extent Pakistan, have led the Commonwealth in their occupancy of prime minster and president positions, due to the presence of family dynasties ushering women into these roles.

The progress that has been made concerning women's increasing parliamentary presence is due to the implementation of policy advances and positive action, including legislated or voluntary quotas and reserved seats, increases in educational opportunities and the advocacy undertaken by women's movements.

Women's leadership at the local level

This advocacy often begins at the local level, and can be seen in women's active engagement in civil society discourse throughout most Commonwealth countries – with most regions registering increasing levels of participation by women in civil society. The exception to this is in Asia, where women's participation at this level, aside from in Sri Lanka, has been in notable deficit. In the Pacific, Solomon Islands, Papua New Guinea (PNG) and Fiji Islands also have lower rates of civil society participation by women. This result in parts of Asia and the Pacific may be attributable to increasing government restrictions on civil society freedoms has been suggested elsewhere (Roth 2016), but is beyond the scope of this report to investigate. Concerning women's participation in local government throughout the Commonwealth, this has varied markedly, ranging from less than 7 per cent representation in six small Pacific island states, up to 49 per cent in Lesotho. Several other Commonwealth states in Africa also achieve a 40 per cent or more representation of women at this level, including Namibia (44%), South Africa (42.1%) and Rwanda (40%), with Rwanda and Lesotho having adopted a 30% reserved seat allocation. Africa's results, with the exception of Ghana (6.7%), Zambia (8.2%) and Nigeria (9.8%), lead the Commonwealth regions, while Antigua and Barbuda (45.4%), India (37.2%) and New Zealand (32.5%) lead their respective regions. However, these results indicate that, as with national-level representation, similar attitudinal and policy challenges confront women in striving for representational parity at the local government level.

Women's leadership in the corporate sector

Women's progress in moving into management positions in the business sector has also been incremental, with the most promising advances taking place in Europe, where many countries have a quota system in place. However, this is not the case in the United Kingdom (UK), which has voluntary adoption of boardroom diversity principles and, in doing so, has achieved an increase from 14 per cent of women in boardroom in 2003 to 27.2 per cent in 2017. While not as high as some of its European Union (EU) neighbours, the result is nevertheless encouraging. Africa has also been a world leader in gender diversity at the corporate board and chief executive officer (CEO) levels, with African women holding 23 per cent of positions in executive committees in 2016, compared with a global average of 20 per cent. At the CEO level, women occupied 5 per cent of positions, compared with a global average of 4 per cent that same year.

2. Women's economic empowerment

This section is concerned with factors preventing and facilitating women's entry into the labour market, together with factors assisting them in staying there. It also reviews women's ownership of companies and agricultural holdings and the extent to which they are overcoming barriers to ownership such as inheritance.

Basic human rights deficits preventing women's economic empowerment

A number of barriers preventing women's economic empowerment are covered here, including their experience of forced labour and restrictions in their domestic movement. Commonwealth countries in which women are most subjected to these practices include eSwatini, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Tanzania.

eSwatini also ranks among the lowest in the world concerning women's lack of domestic movement, while India and Pakistan, although both limiting women's freedom of domestic movement, have recently improved on this measure. Further, in Brunei Darussalam and Malaysia, wives are legally required to obey their husbands, while in six Commonwealth countries, spouses do not jointly share legal responsibility for maintaining their families, creating potential restrictions on women's capacities to be self-determining as economic agents.

Basic services supporting women's labour market participation

Young women's secondary school completion rates yielded quite varied results across the Commonwealth. Australia (78.7%) and South Africa (78%) led these outcomes, closely followed by Tonga (74.9%), Fiji (74.2%) and Trinidad and Tobago (71.7%). A number of countries were clustered at the opposite end of the spectrum, registering exceedingly low rates. These were The Gambia, with only 3 per cent of girls completing secondary school, followed closely by Mozambique (4.4%), Uganda (4.7%), Tanzania (6.2%) and PNG (8.9%).

Those Commonwealth countries that were unable to adequately support girls in completing their secondary education also struggled to provide women with adequate access to modern family planning options. Cameroon, Botswana, Ghana and Nigeria also fell short in terms of adequate family planning availability, as did the Pacific island countries, with the exceptions of Australia, New Zealand and Fiji.

Women's experience of violence and access to justice

A number of African countries, including Cameroon, Kenya, Malawi, Namibia, Rwanda, Uganda, Tanzania and Zambia, together with Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, the UK and the Pacific island countries, confront serious challenges in eliminating intimate partner violence. This is at the same time a severe challenge to women entering or maintaining a productive place in the workforce. For those countries where women also have poor access to justice, such as Kenya, Zambia, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and PNG, these challenges are likely to severely compromise their capacity to maintain a job and reach their productive potential.

Women's labour force participation and key factors facilitating this

In many cases, Commonwealth countries have seen progress in women's increasing participation in the labour market. Mozambique, Rwanda and Sierra Leone have 100 per cent of women, or very close to this figure, engaged in the labour market's formal or informal sectors. However, several countries have very poor female labour market participation rates. These include Bangladesh, Pakistan, Belize, Guyana, Malta, Fiji, Samoa and Tonga, while others have seen deceases in women's labour force participation between 1990 and 2016; most notably Vanuatu, Jamaica, Sri Lanka, India, Tanzania, Lesotho and Malawi.

Women's access to credit in Africa and Asia is poor, with women tending to borrow money from sources other than financial institutions, and lower proportions of women borrowing to establish, operate or expand a business or farm. Sri Lanka is the only exception to this, comprising one of the few developing countries in the Commonwealth to exceed the global average in women's accessing credit from a financial institution to establish, operate or expand a business or farm. All other Commonwealth countries exceeding the global average were high-income countries where women's access to credit is strongly marketed.

Women's access to paid parental leave followed a similar pattern, with high-income countries such as Canada and the UK leading Commonwealth countries in the number of paid parental days women benefit from. This Commonwealth average was also exceeded by, among others, Bangladesh, Belize, Cameroon, The Gambia, India, Kenya, Mauritius and Seychelles, indicating that political will rather than national wealth is the most important factor in determining the availability of paid parental leave. This is exemplified by The Gambia, which has the third highest ranking in the Commonwealth, more than double the Commonwealth average.

Women's agricultural land holdings, their ownership and management of businesses

Women's positions in the agriculture sector show, as noted in the final section on gender and climate change, that very small minorities of women have control over the land that they cultivate or where they run livestock. The country with the highest proportion of women controlling the land they work on is Botswana with 34.7 per cent, contrasting with the majority of Commonwealth countries, where less than 25 per cent of agricultural holdings are managed by women.

This pattern is repeated concerning women's majority ownership and occupancy of positions as top managers of companies. South Asian countries are considerably below the world average concerning women's majority ownership of companies, with Bangladesh occupying the lowest ranking (1.7% of companies with majority female ownership). The highest ranking country is Cameroon, with 31 per cent of its companies controlled by women, followed by Lesotho with 25 per cent. This is still far from parity. Almost identical patterns reflect women in top management positions, with East Asia and Pacific region countries substantially ahead of their South Asia and Africa counterparts, but falling considerably short of parity. This reflects a similar phenomenon concerning women in leadership positions in company boardrooms, reported in Section 1 of this report.

3. Ending violence against women and girls

The report examines available data on forms of violence against women and girls, including female genital mutilation or cutting, violent discipline against girls, girls' experience of child marriage and forced sex, as well as intimate partner violence. The section concludes with a review of attitudes towards intimate partner violence. In addition, the report examines the importance of promoting women's roles as peacemakers in preventing conflict or engagement in national negotiations to manage such conflict.

Violence against girls

Female genital mutilation or cutting is not only evident in many African countries, but is also practiced in Asian countries including Brunei Darussalam, India, Malaysia and Singapore. Further, the practice is known to take place – although on a much smaller scale – in a number of countries hosting immigrants from practising countries, as well as refugees and asylum seekers migrating to Europe, Australasia and North America. In Commonwealth countries, the practice is most widespread among girls aged 0 to 14 in The Gambia, Nigeria, Kenya, Ghana, Uganda and Tanzania. For older girls and women exposed to the practice, Sierra Leone should be added to this group. In Asia and elsewhere, comparative data have not been collected, flagging a gap that policy-makers need to address before effective solutions can be found to eliminate the problem globally.

Child marriage is another practice depriving girls of the right to good health and self-determination, subjecting them to risk of sexual, physical and psychological violence throughout their lives. Commonwealth countries practising the tradition in Africa include Nigeria, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Malawi, Zambia, Tanzania and Kenya. The practice is widespread in Bangladesh and evident, although decreasing, for younger girls in India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

Likewise, in the Caribbean, Guyana and Belize record very high proportions of girls affected by child marriage – well above the global average of 21 per cent. The practice is also evident in all other Caribbean countries for which data are available. In the Pacific, the prevalence is quite high in Solomon Islands, Vanuatu, Nauru, PNG, Samoa, Tuvalu and Tonga. In Europe, the problem is evident among practising groups migrating to European host countries as part of immigrant, refugee or asylum seeker movements.

Two additional forms of violence against girls present in all Commonwealth countries are violent discipline by caregivers and girls experiencing forced sex before the age of 18. Although data are unavailable for some Commonwealth countries, violent discipline affects more than nine in every ten girls in Ghana, The Gambia and Nigeria, and more than eight in every ten girls in Bangladesh, Jamaica, eSwatini, Sierra Leone and Vanuatu. The highest prevalence of forced sex experienced by girls in the Commonwealth is in Cameroon and Bangladesh, where more than one in every five girls is affected. In Uganda and Ghana, Rwanda and Malawi, the practice is only slightly less common.

Intimate partner violence

The prevalence of violence perpetrated by intimate partners – whether physical, sexual or psychological – remains a widespread problem throughout the Commonwealth. Six out of every ten women in Namibia reported intimate partner violence occurring in the last 12 months, while the figure was more than four out of every ten women in Vanuatu, Cameroon, Sierra Leone, Uganda and Tanzania. Similar proportions of women to those cited above are affected in Kenya, Bangladesh, Mozambique and Ghana.

Data were also presented on the extent to which women and men either approved or disapproved of intimate partner violence under circumstances such as when a female partner burns the food, argues with her husband/ partner, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses sexual relations. A pattern emerging throughout Commonwealth countries in Africa, Asia and the Pacific is that the majority of girls and women indicated that intimate partner violence was justified and were more in favour of the violence than men.

These attitudes are not unique to the Commonwealth. In cultures where intimate partner violence is condoned, the same cultures prescribe a woman's role as one that obeys the male-determined household rules. In these cases, intimate partner violence is going to seem normal and is therefore often supported by the whole community, including women and girls themselves. This highlights the need for interventions to including public education programmes seeking to change attitudes that target women and girls' attitudes as much as those of boys and men.

Women's role as peacemakers in preventing or ending conflict and violence

One very important strategy in changing a community's attitudes to violence against women and girls is for girls and boys to see women and men as positive role models in preventing violence or in managing it when it takes place. Involving women as leaders in not only peacebuilding at the community level, which is increasingly the case, but also as peacemakers at the national level, is an important way of changing attitudes towards violence against women and girls – which is often viewed as 'normal' behaviour.

While an increasing number of countries are recognising the importance of involving women in peace negotiations by incorporating women's participation strategies into their national action plans, progress has been slow. In the Commonwealth, Canada, the UK and Namibia have been global leaders in advocating for women's engagement at all levels of conflict prevention, peace building and peacemaking, as evidenced by Canada's National Action Plan for 2017–2022 on Women, Peace and Security.

4. Gender and climate change

This section of the report covers the nexus between climate change and gender, and particularly the likely impact of climate change on women throughout the five Commonwealth regions. It begins each regional analysis by referring to the gendered impact of climate change on women in the fisheries and agriculture sectors, before examining Commonwealth countries' recent and historical exposures to disaster events linked to climate change. The report then presents data on Commonwealth countries' vulnerability to one measurable component of climate change, i.e., sea-level rise. Countries' performances on a number of energy-related measures are then presented, including their consumption of fossil fuels as a percentage of their overall energy consumption, and conversely, their uptake of renewable energy in their energy profiles. Countries' greenhouse gas emissions are also reviewed from 1990 to 2015. Lastly, the likely future uptake of renewables is reviewed; a development appearing to depend on the availability of investment capital and the policy framework that countries adopt to encourage this.

The gendered impact of climate change

A number of conclusions have emerged from the analyses conducted. Concerning the gendered impact of climate change, women and children have been displaced by a dramatically increasing number of disasters, many linked to climate change. This is particularly so in Asia, the Caribbean and the Pacific, where population's livelihoods and security will continue to be threatened by storms, hurricanes, droughts and rising sea levels. Countries' national action plans, formulated to deal with such crises, do not, with the exception of Canada's, focus on women and security issues. Nor do they place women with men at the centre of decision-making about climate change prevention, adaptation and crisis management.

Likely population displacement

The largest Commonwealth populations likely to face climate-induced displacement are in India, Bangladesh, Nigeria, Malaysia, the UK, Sri Lanka and Pakistan, although many small island states will confront threats to their entire existence because such large proportions of their populations will face displacement.

In 2017, Hurricane Irma required Saint Maarten and Antigua and Barbuda's whole populations to evacuate and has

left the islands uninhabitable. It is highly likely that in the Pacific, whole island populations will also face evacuation because freshwater aquafers will be overrun with salt water before the inundation of population centres takes place.

Fossil fuel consumption and greenhouse gas emissions trends

When fossil fuel consumption trends are examined, only a handful of Commonwealth countries have shown decreases since 1990, and can therefore be considered models that policy-makers should consider borrowing lessons from. These countries, in order of their fossil fuel percentage reductions, are the UK, with a 10 per cent reduction, New Zealand, yielding a 7.3 per cent reduction, Zambia, showing a 6.9 per cent reduction (although only 1990 to 2000 figures are available) and Cyprus, with a 6.7 per cent fossil fuel reduction.

Six Commonwealth countries show decreases in greenhouse gas emissions, with five of these having shown substantial decreases, again justifying their status as policy and practice models. These are Guyana, registering a 63.3 per cent decrease, Papua New Guinea, producing a 62.4 per cent decrease, the UK, with a 24.6 per cent decrease and Solomon Islands, with a 22.2 per cent decrease. Fiji has recorded a 3 per cent decrease, adding to the numbers of island states showing leadership in producing effective outcomes on this measure. To place this in context, the global average is a 40 per cent increase in post-1990 greenhouse gas emissions.

Renewable energy uptake

Lastly, in most cases, the key to the above results is natural resource protection and sustainable utilisation, as in the case of Guyana, and an uptake of renewable energy sources to replace fossil fuels. On this measure, those Commonwealth countries leading the adoption of renewables are Vanuatu, with an 11.9 per cent increase between 1990 and 2015, Cyprus, with a 9.4 per cent increase, Jamaica, recording a 9.2 per cent increase, the UK (8%), Rwanda (6.6%), Malta (5.4%) and Solomon Islands (4.3%). The challenges faced in adopting renewables on a large scale in many Commonwealth countries include the requirement for high-level capital investment to facilitate the transition to renewables on a large scale and the absence of supportive policy frameworks facilitating investment and the industry's growth.

Chapter 1 Women in Leadership

1.1 Introduction

In reporting on recent developments and results concerning women in leadership throughout Commonwealth countries, this section will, in most cases (1), cover five areas closely linked to SDGs 5 and 16, and their targets. These are: 1. the extent of women's representation in the lower houses of national parliaments; 2 their occupancy of post-election cabinets and 3. their tenure in parliamentary leadership positions; 4. their status as leaders in the corporate sector; 5. their participation in local government; and 6. their engagement in civil society organisations and the media.

1.2 Africa

1.2.1 Representation in national parliaments

While large differences exist concerning women's representation in national parliaments within and across African countries, recent figures show a direct correlation between certain policy measures and increases in the number and level of representation of women in national parliaments. Recent advances in women's representation in Africa indicate that the continent is a world leader in increasing women's representation in national parliaments. Women's occupancy of national parliament seats has increased in North Africa from 4 per cent in 2000 to 25 per cent in 2015 and in sub-Saharan Africa from 13 per cent to 23 per cent over the same period.

This compares with the global average increase from 14 per cent to 23.8 per cent (Inter-parliamentary Union [IPU] 2018b). This sustained progress is due to the implementation of policy advances, including legislated or voluntary quotas and reserved seats, increases in educational opportunities and the advocacy undertaken by women's movements.

This has been most evident in Rwanda, where women's representation has increased from 25.7 per cent in 2000 to 61.3 per cent in 2017 (2). Other Commonwealth countries have also recorded significant increases in women's representation, particularly in the lower houses of parliament. Among these, South Africa (41.8%), Namibia (41.4%), Mozambique (39.6%), Tanzania (36.4%), Uganda (34.3%) and Cameroon (31.1%) were well above the unimpressive global average of 23.8% (IPU 2018b) (see Figures 1 to 4, Annex One, for Varieties of Democracy [V-DEM] data on women's lower house representation in Commonwealth countries in Africa between 1997 and 2017 [Coppedge et al. 2018]).

There are a number of factors that, when taken together, are likely to assist in increasing women's parliamentary representation, beginning with electoral systems themselves often playing a critical role in preventing women from increasing their parliamentary representation. Considerable evidence exists indicating that the adoption of proportional representation voting systems using gender-balanced party list tickets increases women's lower house representation more rapidly than majoritarian voting systems (Hedstrom and Smith 2013). In addition, the introduction of quotas, reserved seats and other positive action measures such as gender-targeted public funding to political parties is also likely to improve women's parliamentary representation. For example, Kenya's 2011 introduction of gender-targeted public funding to political parties appears to have led to significant increases in women's preselection and positioning on electoral ballots. Women have recorded a notable increase in representation from 10 per cent in 2011, when gender-targeted public funding was introduced, to 22 per cent in 2017 (Ohman 2018).

Whether changes to electoral systems and positive action measures such as those mentioned above are adopted will depend on whether political parties, historically serving as gate-keepers preventing marginalised groups such as women accessing political power, start actively supporting efforts to increase women's political participation (Kandawasvika-Nhundu 2014).

While some of the advances mentioned throughout this section are encouraging,

numerical participation in parliaments alone does not indicate *meaningful involvement* in decision-making and leadership. This shortcoming has been highlighted by case studies reflecting the challenges faced by women as new Members of Parliament (MPs) often lacking training and exposure to other confidence-building measures (International IDEA 2013).

The introduction of quotas, reserved seats and other formal gender equality measures designed to improve women's parliamentary numbers must be accompanied by training and mentoring programmes building women's confidence to function effectively as political leaders.

1.2.2 Presence in parliamentary leadership positions

The three measures used to assess women's engagement as parliamentary leaders are: 1) women's occupancy of cabinet positions in government; 2) the years that women have spent in office as prime ministers and presidents; and 3) women's occupancy of parliamentary speaker or parliamentary president roles.

The need for greater proportions of women as Members of Parliaments and attitudinal change in political parties throughout Africa to address women's exclusion from political leadership is evidenced by women's very slow entry into parliamentary leadership positions.

Although some Commonwealth countries in Africa have shown significant increases over the last 20 years in the proportion of women taking up cabinet positions, less than half of these countries (9 out of 19) currently exceed the African average of women in cabinet positions. In East Africa, all four Commonwealth countries recorded women in cabinet levels in 2017 well above the sub-Saharan African average of 20.6 per cent. Kenya (30%), Rwanda (30%) and Uganda (29%) lead these, with Tanzania (22%) just exceeding the sub-Saharan Africa average.

In Southern Africa, countries' performances in allocating cabinet positions to women are generally significantly better than elsewhere across the continent, with South Africa (38%), Mozambique and Zambia (30%), Namibia (26%) and Seychelles (25%) well above the sub-Saharan Africa average (20.6%). Lastly, with the exception of The Gambia (30%), Commonwealth countries in West Africa struggle to match the sub-Saharan average. Figures 5 to 8, Annex One, detail these results.

A second measure of women's advancement into political leadership roles is the number of years that women have actually spent in executive office, i.e., in the prime minster or president's position, during the last 50 years (WEF 2017). On this measure, and consistent with all other regions, with the exception of Asia (see Section 1.2.1), Commonwealth countries in Africa have tended not to perform well. Only five of Africa's 19 Commonwealth countries have produced women prime ministers or presidents over the last 50 years. Of these five countries, the most impressive performer has been Mozambique, led by Luisa Dias Diogo as Prime Minister for almost six years from February 2004 until January 2010. Mauritius (2.4 years), Namibia (2.3 years), Malawi (2.1 years) and Rwanda (0.7 years) remain the only other Commonwealth countries on the continent to have featured women in executive leadership positions, and each for very short periods of time. Table 1, Annex Two, details these results.

Lastly, this pattern of underrepresentation at the highest parliamentary levels is confirmed by Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU 2018a) data on women's occupancy of the parliamentary speaker or parliamentary president roles, indicating that currently only 19.48 per cent of African parliaments are headed by women. The fact that this is slightly above the global average (18.35%) confirms that women's under-representation at this level remains a global phenomenon.

In summary, although there have been steady increases in women's parliamentary representation throughout Commonwealth member countries in Africa over the last 20 years, the lack of women in government leadership positions in Commonwealth parliaments – and African parliaments in general – remains a sizeable challenge.

1.2.3 Leadership in the corporate sector

In 2016, African women held 23 per cent of positions in executive committees, compared with a global average of 20 per cent. At the chief executive officer level, they occupied 5 per cent of positions, compared with a global average of 4 per cent, making Africa the top-performing region. At the corporate board level, African women held 14 per cent of seats compared with a global average of 13 per cent. However, representation varied considerably across regions and industries within Africa, with women occupying considerably higher proportions of boardroom positions in Southern Africa (20%), compared to 14 per cent across the continent as a whole. In North Africa, women's occupancy of boardroom positions was 9 per cent (McKinsey and Company 2017).

As with African women's representation in governance, while this increase

has recently been more notable across Africa than elsewhere, parity in representation will be a long way off due to the slowness with which companies are attracting women into entry-level positions, particularly in sectors such as engineering, where companies struggle to find women graduates. Women are therefore under-represented in promotional pipelines. Some, if not many, companies struggle to promote women for reasons similar to those related throughout this report, which are largely attitudinal.

Although companies make a focused effort to recruit women and establish a fairly even gender split at the nonmanagement level, this becomes unbalanced within the first few promotion cycles, as confirmed by McKinsey's research on 55 African companies, which found that women make up 45 per cent of the workforce but receive just 36 per cent of promotions.

Some companies manage to promote women into middle management roles, but then women encounter difficulties in being promoted to senior management positions, resulting in women continuing to be kept out of top management levels (ibid).

1.2.4 Participation as leaders at the local level

Women's participation as councillors in local government in Commonwealth countries across Africa is, together with the Caribbean, well ahead of other Commonwealth regions but, with the notable exception of Lesotho, remains well below parity with men. In Lesotho, 49 per cent of local government councillors are women, representing a membership well ahead of any other Commonwealth country. Lesotho's result is undoubtedly helped by its system of reserving one-third of local government seats for women, lending weight to the conclusion noted in Section 1.3.3 above that positive action such as quotas and reserved seats can only hasten the correction of the historical gender gap in political leadership globally.

Of the 17 African countries in the Commonwealth for which data are available, nine register proportions of women as local government councillors above the very modest Commonwealth average of 22.3 per cent. Other African Commonwealth countries tallying 40 per cent or more of their local councillors as women are Namibia (44.2%). South Africa (42.1%) and Rwanda (40%). At the other end of the spectrum, five Commonwealth countries across Africa register proportions of women as local government councillors below 15 per cent. These are eSwatini (14.4%), Malawi (12.1%), Nigeria (9.8%), Zambia (8.1%) and Ghana (6.7%). None of these countries have adopted reserved seats or quotas to assist women in overcoming political exclusion at the local government level. Table 2, Annex Two, provides more detail on Commonwealth countries'

performances on the inclusion of women in local government decision-making.

Women's representation in local leadership is also reflected in their engagement in civil society organisations and as journalists in political discourse. Ensuring women's full participation in political expression at the local and subnational levels is a key component of meeting SDG 16 and its emphasis on building accountable institutions.

The extent to which African women are able to participate as agents in civil society has been far greater than their capacity to participate as political leaders in parliaments, although in recent years there has been a marked increase across the world of governments restricting civil society freedoms (Roth 2016). In Commonwealth countries across Africa, women's engagement in civil society has reduced in several countries during periods throughout the 20 years from 1997 to 2017. These are, in East Africa, Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, showing reductions between 2010 and 2017, and in Southern Africa, with Malawi and Lesotho showing declines in women's

civil society freedoms. In Malawi's case, this decline took place between 2012 and 2017, while in Lesotho, the reduction from 2013 to 2017 followed a dramatic improvement between 2012 and 2013.

However, in general, Commonwealth countries in Africa have registered improvements in women's capacity to engage in civil society in the 1997 to 2017 period. Botswana, Zambia and Sierra Leone lead specialists' assessments of women's capacity to engage as agents in civil society, scoring 0.89, 0.89, and 0.88 respectively on a scale of 0 (i.e., women do not have the capacity to express themselves and participate in civil society) to 1 (women are able to fully express themselves and participate in civil society), well above the sub-Saharan average (0.67). Nigeria (0.85), South Africa (0.83) and Mauritius have also registered advances in this dimension of women's participation.

One example of young women's increasing engagement as leaders in civil society is illustrated in Box 1.1, describing the Copper Rose project: a project facilitating young women's leadership in their local communities.

BOX 1.1

SUPPORTING YOUNG WOMEN'S ACCESS TO EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

The Copper Rose initiative in Zambia began in 2015, started by two young women who believed that poverty was not an excuse not to make a difference. The group's mission is to make a difference in the lives of women and girls by educating them about their sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR) and responsibilities so that they may exhibit autonomy and reach their full potential to be effective leaders and agents of change in their communities. Copper Rose aims for a world in which every woman, girl and young person is happy, healthy and living to their full potential.

The group's Candid Pride Campaign aimed to break the silence on menstruation and SRHR among adolescents in Zambian communities. The campaign highlights Copper Rose's success as a young feminist group. In January 2017, the campaign had reached out to more than 7,000 adolescents with donations of over 3,500 sanitary napkins and hygiene kits in four districts of Zambia. The group is also extremely proud of taking steps in advocating consideration for menstrual hygiene at the national level, with the result that from 2017, sanitary napkins have been included in the national budget for school-going girls in Zambia.

Lastly, in addition to Lesotho's 2012–13 dramatic improvement and then reduction in women's capacity to engage as civil society agents referred to above, similar sudden increases in women's civil society participation followed the ending of the civil war in Sierra Leone in 2002 (3) and the change of government in The Gambia in 2012. These events demonstrate the powerful impact that political events at the national level can have in creating opportunities for women to move into leadership roles at the *subnational* as well as the national levels.

Figures 9 to 12 (Annex One) detail specialists' assessments of women's capacity to participate in civil society throughout the 19 Commonwealth countries in Africa.

1.2.5 Political empowerment index

When three of five dimensions of women's presence in political leadership positions referred to throughout this section are combined, it becomes easier to draw conclusions from the wideranging data presented; conclusions that can augment others drawn in this section. These three dimensions are the ratio of women to men in parliamentary positions, the ratio of women to men in ministerial positions, and the ratio of women to men spending time in executive office as prime minister or president during the last 50 years.

After examining results from this composite political empowerment index assembled by the World Economic Forum (WEF 2017), the conclusions we can draw are that Rwanda is the world leader in women's political empowerment by virtue of its top world ranking in women's parliamentary representation, together with its strong performance in other political leadership dimensions. These include its support to women via reserved seats in local government and its status as the only Commonwealth country in East Africa *not* to have reduced women's civil society freedoms.

In comparative terms, South Africa, Mozambique and Namibia have also performed ahead of their African Commonwealth counterparts in women's presence in political leadership, as shown in Table 2, Annex One. These countries have consistently scored higher than others in women's positions in parliamentary, local government and civil society representation. Zambia, Botswana and Sierra Leone should be added to these in light of their support of women participating in civil society, while Lesotho is the world leader in facilitating women's presence in local government, helped by its 33 per cent reserved seats policy for women in local government.

1.3 Asia

1.3.1 Representation in national parliaments

Women's representation in lower houses of parliament throughout both Asia and in the region's Commonwealth countries was, in 2017, very low. Only Singapore (23%) ranked above the 2017 global average (22.15%). Rates of progress in increasing women's lower house representation have also been exceedingly slow, with the exception of Singapore's women's representation increasing dramatically between 2004 and 2007. Sri Lanka (5.8%), Brunei Darussalam (9.1%) and Malaysia (10.4%) continue to experience substantial challenges in overcoming women's exclusion from political representation,

remaining considerably below the current global average of 23.8%. Figures 13 and 14, Annex One, depict women's lower house representation in Asia's parliaments from 1997 to 2017.

1.3.2 Presence in parliamentary leadership positions

In the Commonwealth's Asia region, women's movement into parliamentary leadership positions as cabinet incumbents has, as with women's entry into parliaments, also been painstakingly slow, failing to rise in any country above 10 per cent of cabinet membership, until 2005. While several Commonwealth African countries have shown significant increases in the proportion of women cabinet members, their Asian counterparts have, with the exceptions of Malaysia (15% in 2013) and India (12% in 2014). failed to exceed the unremarkable Asian average (11.75% in 2016). Figure 15 (Annex One) presents these data.

The second measure of women's advancement into the highest of political leadership roles examined here is the number of years that women have actually spent in executive office, i.e., in the prime minster or president's position, during the last 50 years. And in dramatic contrast to Asia's poor performance in accommodating women as cabinet members in government, Commonwealth countries in Asia have three of the world's top seven performing countries in ushering women into executive office. Bangladesh leads the world in approaching parity between women and men at the highest executive leadership level, with women occupying the prime minister's position for 23.6 of the last 50 years, i.e. a parity ratio of 0.896. India has also scored highly on this index, ranked third in the

world for electing women for 20.5 of the last 50 years to the prime ministership (a 0.697 parity ration), while Sri Lanka ranks seventh in the world, having elected women as prime ministers for 13.1 of the last 50 years. In addition, Pakistan also features among the world's leading countries, ranking 28 for Benazir Bhutto's 4.7 years as prime minster. Table 1, Annex Two, presents this information for all Commonwealth countries.

The contrast between the record of Commonwealth countries in Asia on women's occupancy of the highest executive position and women's presence at other levels of the political hierarchy can be explained by South Asia's attraction to dynastic party structures, with prominent families playing a large role in politics. When a husband or father dies or can no longer serve at the highest level, a female family member has often moved into that position. While men have also benefitted from family ties, women in particular have benefitted from this path to power in South Asia.

Lastly, women's occupancy of the parliamentary speaker/presidency role in Asia returns to its less-thanaverage performance concerning women in leadership. Only 10.3 per cent of Asian parliaments are headed by women as their parliamentary speaker or president, compared with the global average of 18.35 per cent.

$1.3.3 \ \ Leadership in the corporate sector$

Asia has shown considerable gains in the proportion of women occupying senior management positions in the region's largest companies, with a 60 per cent rise in gender diversity at the boardroom level between 2010 and 2015. However, this increase comes from a very low base, and even with this level of improvement, female representation on corporate boards in Asia is still below 10 per cent, trailing behind the global average (14%) (WEF 2017) and all other regions except Latin America (Credit Suisse 2016). Figure 16, Annex One, presents this information.

Malaysia is one Asian country undertaking proactive steps to reverse women's negligible boardroom representation and their presence in Malaysia's civil service. As a result of policies adopted by the Malaysian government, women's representation increased from 6 per cent in 2012 to 15 per cent in 2016. Box 1.2 provides more details concerning these developments.

1.3.4 Participation as leaders at the local level

Women's engagement in local government throughout Commonwealth countries in Asia presents a mixed picture, although this is a significantly better picture than their severe under-representation in national parliaments and cabinets.

Of the region's seven Commonwealth countries, three countries substantially exceed the Commonwealth average (22.3%) of women in local government councils. These are India (37.1%), Sri Lanka (29.1%) and Bangladesh (25.2%), each with sizeable reserved seat allocations to women. Commonwealth countries in Asia performing below the Commonwealth average are Pakistan (19.6%) and Malaysia (13.1%) (Commonwealth Local Government Forum 2018) (4).

Women's civil society participation (5) – on a scale of 0 representing women having no capacity to express themselves or to participate in groups to 1, i.e., women having full capacity to

express themselves and to participate in groups – ranges dramatically throughout Commonwealth countries across Asia. Pakistan (0.35) and India (0.46) are placed at the lowest end of the scale, while Sri Lanka (0.88) has much greater freedoms for women as civil society agents. Three of the six Commonwealth countries producing data on this indicator -Singapore (0.72), Malaysia (0.73), and Sri Lanka (0.87) – equal or exceed the global average (0.72). Figure 17, Annex One, provides details of women's civil society participation in the Commonwealth's Asian countries. These data Indicate that, as with Africa, continuing and substantial reform from opinion leaders and legislators is required to ensure that women are able to participate fully in civil society discourse.

1.3.5 Political empowerment index

Asia's performance on the composite index referred to in Section 1.2.5 combining the ratio of women to men in parliamentary positions, the ratio of women to men in ministerial positions and the ratio of women to men spending time in executive office - lags behind the rankings of other regions, with only Bangladesh (ranked 7) and India (ranked 15) featuring in the indexes' top 60 countries (see Table 3. Annex Two). When considered with the fact that these two countries perform ahead of many others in supporting women's entry into local government through reserved seat systems, it appears that these South Asian neighbours are leaders in promoting women's political empowerment.

However, results for Bangladesh and India in areas such as women's presence in parliaments, their membership of cabinets and their freedoms to engage in civil society discourse are well below

BOX 1.2 INCREASING WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP IN MALAYSIA'S CORPORATE SECTOR

In June 2011, the former Malaysian Prime Minister, Datuk Seri Najib Tun Razak, announced the Malaysian Cabinet had approved a policy requiring corporate companies to achieve at least 30 per cent of women occupying decision-making positions in the private sector by 2016. This policy was incorporated into the 10th Malaysia Action Plan, which also sought to boost female participation in the workforce to 55 per cent by 2016.

The Plan specified that women must comprise 30 per cent of boards and senior management positions of public and limited liability companies, in which there are more than 250 employees, by 2016. This policy is an extension of a similar government policy introduced in 2004 for civil services, resulting in the number of women working in government agencies increasing from 18.8 in 2004 to 32.2 per cent in 2011 and 35 per cent in March 2018.

Many corporations have now started to implement a succession plan, including more women's representation at the management and board levels. The NAM Institute for the Empowerment of Women (NIEW) Malaysia, an agency under the purview of the Women, Family and Community Development Ministry, has developed the Woman Directors Programmes to groom potential and qualified women leaders to be effective board directors.

The Women Directors' Programme is implemented by the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales (ICAEW) and Talent Corp, and equips female professionals with the strategies and skills to navigate, build and lead in an ever-changing work environment.

The ICAEW is an accountancy professional body which has a global membership of around 142,000. Through the Women in Leadership programme, the ICAEW provides a platform for women who are just a few steps away from the boardroom to learn from each other's experiences through peer-to-peer mentoring that prepares participants to be able to actively contribute to business board-level decision-making.

On a related matter, corporations are having to now institute flexi-work arrangements and rehire women who have left the workforce to start a family. There are now many women who had temporarily left the corporate world and would like to return, but need to enhance their qualifications to re-enter the workforce and get their careers back on track.

The government also declared that 2018 was women's empowerment year. In addition to the above policies concerning women's appointments to company and statutory body boards, the government also increased maternity leave in the private sector, proposing it be increased from 60 days to the 90 days currently adopted by public sector organisations. In addition, all new office buildings are now required to be equipped with childcare facilities and organisations failing to comply with these measures will be charged once the law has been amended.

global averages. When viewed with their poor performances in promoting women into corporate and company leadership positions (see Section 1.3.3), the assessment of Asia's two strongest performers – Bangladesh and India – becomes very mixed. Results for the five other Commonwealth Asian countries reported throughout this section indicate that the region faces considerable challenges in approaching parity on most of the indicators used throughout this analysis.

1.4 The Caribbean and Americas

1.4.1 Representation in national parliaments

In 2017 and 2018, most Commonwealth countries in the Caribbean and Americas region registered percentages of women in lower houses that are higher than the global average (23.8%). Grenada (33.3%), Guyana (31.9%) Trinidad and Tobago (31%) and Dominica (25%) have the highest proportions of women representing constituents in their parliaments' lower houses. Further, these countries have been consistently higher than the remaining Commonwealth countries in the region since 2007. These results can be seen in Figures 18 and 19, Annex One.

As with other regions' performances discussed in this report, progress on this indicator has been very slow, although

Guyana showed a pronounced spike in women's lower house representation from 1985 to 1991, when it more than doubled the regional average with 36.9 per cent of its lower house then comprising women. This was due to the fact that women increased their proportion on political party candidate lists, particularly those of the ruling party, in a proportional representation voting system (McAlmot 2011). This is a system that, as mentioned in Section 1.3.1, tends to favour candidates from minority - or in the case of women - marginalised groups. Since then, women's representation in Guyana has fallen, but remains well above the Caribbean average (24.6%).

1.4.2 Presence in parliamentary leadership positions

Women's presence in government leadership positions throughout the region, as measured by their proportions in cabinets, has varied considerably during the last 50 years, with no discernible patterns emerging, apart from an incremental increase. In 2017, Canada's result was 50 per cent, the only Commonwealth country to achieve parity in women's cabinet membership. Trinidad and Tobago has shown – with the exception of 2010's cabinet – fairly consistent increases during the last 20 years. The country now has just over one third (34%) of its government's cabinet comprising women. Figure 20, Annex One, presents these results.

In Canada's case, Prime Minster Trudeau avoided the historical tendency of allocating only minor portfolios to women cabinet ministers after the 2015 national election. Women in the Canadian cabinet have instead assumed the International Trade, Foreign Affairs, Justice and Attorney General, Environment and Climate Change and among others, the Employment, Workforce and Labour portfolios. A similar pattern has emerged in Trinidad and Tobago, where several economic portfolios were also allocated to women in 2015's post-election cabinet.

The second measure reflecting women's advancement into government leadership positions at the highest level is in women's occupancy of prime minster and president positions. In the Caribbean and Americas region, of the five Commonwealth countries for which data are available, only two countries have positioned women in their highestlevel executive roles for more than five of the last 50 years. These are Jamaica (5.6 years) and Barbados (5.5 years). None of the remaining three Caribbean countries listed in Table 1 (Annex Two) have promoted women into this role for more than six months, suggesting that women continue to encounter prohibitive challenges in 'breaking the glass ceiling' and maintaining their positions (amid the shattered glass) for the highest level of office in this region.

Lastly, just over one in four of the parliamentary speakers or presidents throughout the region (26.8%) are women. While this is well above a very low global average of 18.35 per cent and is in fact the highest figure for all Commonwealth regions, it remains substantially short of parity (Inter-Parliamentary Union 2018a).

$1.4.3 \ \ Leadership in the corporate sector$

In the corporate sector, the Caribbean and Americas region comes third in the proportion of women positioned as the highest managers in companies, behind East Asia and the Pacific, and Europe (see Annex Two, Table 4) (6). However, all Caribbean states – with the exception of Antigua and Barbuda (17.5%) – exceed the global average (18.6%) of women in top management positions.

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (38.6%) registers levels above all other Commonwealth countries listed in Table 4, Annex Two. However, while many of these firms are owned by women, they operate in the textile, food, retail and restaurant sectors, often characterised as low productivity and low growth (Complete Caribbean 2017) sectors. As women fulfil multiple roles via their reproductive, productive and community contributions, their work and choices to start businesses are linked to necessity, timing, location, flexibility, family needs and child-rearing responsibilities (Minniti 2010), rather than resulting from any progressive governmentinstigated policies facilitating women's private sector leadership.

In Canada, gender diversity in corporate governance has increased by more than a third since 2010, due to pressure from shareholders, public bodies and a growing debate on the more general topic of women's participation in the corporate world globally. However, in contrast to Europe, Canada has not set any quotas or targets, explaining to a large extent why it is lagging behind Europe, as detailed in Figure 16, Annex One. Given the clear link between gender diversity and improved business performance (Credit Suisse Research Institute 2016), the reluctance of corporate decision-makers to adopt quotas warrants further investigation.

1.4.4 Participation as leaders at the local level

Women's representation in local government throughout the Caribbean and Americas region is significantly above the Commonwealth average (22.3%) in six of the nine states in the region hosting *elected* local governments (7).

In fact, three countries – Antigua and Barbuda (45.4%), Dominica (35%) and Trinidad and Tobago (30.4%) register proportions of women as local government councillors above 30 per cent. Given the absence of reserved seats or quota systems to advance women's local government representation in these countries, these results are noteworthy. However, Guyana (5%) and Saint Kitts and Nevis (12.5%), positioned at the other end of the spectrum, are equally noteworthy for their under-performance. Table 2, Annex Two, details the data reflecting women's local government representation in the region.

Consistent with the generally aboveaverage results concerning women in local government, women's engagement in public debate as journalists and as members of civil society organisations is very high throughout the Caribbean and Americas, particularly when compared with their civil society participation in other regions. Jamaica (0.94), Trinidad and Tobago (0.92) and Guyana (0.91) provide considerable freedom for women to engage in civil society fora, while Canada (0.88) remains well above the world average (0.72). These results (see Figure 21, Annex One) contrast markedly with the region's below-average performance on women's representation in the lower houses of parliament.

1.4.5 Political empowerment index

Only five of the Caribbean and Americas region's 13 countries register scores on the World Economic Forum's political empowerment index (WEF 2017) described in Section 1.2.5., i.e. the index combining women's status vis a vis men's in parliamentary positions held, ministerial positions occupied and time spent in executive office. Of these five countries, only one - Canada - is ranked in the world top 50 countries, with the remaining four ranking between 74th (Jamaica) and 139th, indicating that the region struggles to approach anything near parity on the indexes' constituent measures. Table 3, Annex Two, presents these rankings and their associated scores.

However, as noted in Section 1.4.4 above, the region's results in both women's local government representation and in its encouragement of women's participation in civil society is very strong and considerably above both Commonwealth and global averages, suggesting a disconnect between women's advancement into leadership positions at the subnational and national levels.

1.5 Europe

1.5.1 Representation in national parliaments

In 2017, only one of the three Commonwealth countries in Europe performed above the global average (23.8%) of women in lower houses of parliament. The United Kingdom registered 32 per cent of women in the House of Commons. Both Cyprus (17.9%) and Malta (11.9%) fell well short of the global average. In Malta's case, the gap is considerable and remains well below the EU average (29.4%). Figures 22 and 23, Annex One, present these outcomes.

While Section 1.3.1 refers to the tendency of proportional representative voting systems to assist female candidates yield positive electoral results, in Malta, which uses a form of proportional representation, there are fewer women in parliament than in any other Western democracy. Box 1.3 (see right) details why this is the case (Lane

BOX 1.3

WHY MALTA'S PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION SYSTEM YIELDS SUCH POOR OUTCOMES FOR WOMEN

A detailed analysis of voting data shows that what accounts for the paucity of women legislators in Malta is not a shortage of ballot positions, nor a lack of qualified women candidates or significant voter prejudice against female candidates. Rather, Malta's performance results from the unwillingness or inability of party elites to recruit a substantial number of women candidates, even though voting patterns create an incentive for political parties to maximise the number of candidates. Since the cause of this failure to mobilise more women candidates cannot be ascribed to the workings of the electoral system nor to voter behaviour, it will have to be sought in contextual factors that still work to stifle women's political careers. Malta's experience serves as a caution against optimistic expectations that the adoption of proportional representation will lead to greater legislative opportunities for women.

1995). In summary, the reason appears to be that political party leaders in Malta do not recruit enough women candidates and position them high enough on their candidate lists to procure the required quota of votes to be elected.

1.5.2 Presence in parliamentary leadership positions

When reviewing women's presence in government leadership positions throughout the region as measured by their proportions in cabinets, these appear consistent with women's lower house parliamentary representation in general. Again, the United Kingdom (26%) is the region's leading performer, although achieving markedly less than the EU average (34.1%). Cyprus has only 9 per cent of its government's cabinet positions allocated to women (see Figure 24, Annex One) while comparative figures are unavailable for Malta. However, a recent media report (Times of Malta 2013) after the country's March 2016 elections puts the figure at two female ministers in a total of 22 ministers, or 9 per cent. Both ministers occupy non-economic or lower ranked ministries typically allocated to women, i.e., Family and Social Solidarity, and Social Dialogue, Consumer Affairs and Civil Liberties.

Concerning the region's performance on ushering women into top executive government positions, the region does much better than in its allocation of cabinet positions. Two of its three members, Malta (17th) and the United Kingdom (8th) rank in the world's top 20 performers, with 8.2 and 12.5 of their last 50 years respectively guided by women Heads of State.

Lastly, in 2017, one in five (20%) of Europe's parliamentary speakers or presidents were women (Inter-Parliamentary Union 2018b), just exceeding the 18.35 per cent global average. As with all regions, this falls substantially short of parity. These results suggest that gender parity in parliamentary leadership positions across the region hosting some of the world's oldest democracies has well-embedded challenges to deal with in reversing this pattern.

1.5.3 Leadership in the corporate sector

In the United Kingdom, women are steadily increasing their presence in boardrooms, rising from 14 per cent in 2003 to 27.2 per cent in 2017. Indeed, there are now only have a handful of FTSE (Financial Times Stock Exchange) 100 companies with no female representation on their boards, but the issue remains that there have been no significant increases in the number of female executive directors.

In the absence of quotas in the UK, the corporate sector anticipates that by increasing transparency of diversity policies and targets under the UK Corporate Governance Code, the sector will improve women's presence at the highest corporate decisionmaking levels. However, the key issue appears to be the extent to which women occupy the pipeline supplying executive positions (Deloitte 2013). In terms of good practice, France leads EU countries with 43.4 per cent of female boardroom occupants, closely followed by Iceland (43%) and Norway (42.1%) (see Annex One, Figure 25). All three countries have set binding legislative targets of 40 per cent around gender diversity in the boardroom.

In contrast and consistent with women's parliamentary representation, Cyprus (10.4%) and Malta (8.4%) occupy the opposite end of the EU spectrum of women's presence at the board level, with both countries well below the EU average (25.3%).

1.5.4 Participation as leaders at the local level sector

Women's local government representation in the three Commonwealth countries in Europe varies appreciably, ranging from Cyprus, registering 11.9 per cent, to the United Kingdom, electing 28.2 per cent of women to seats in local government. While the UK easily exceeds the Commonwealth average (22.3%), both Malta (19%) and Cyprus fall short, with both results indicating that women are experiencing systemic barriers to their political inclusion at the local government level. Table 2, Annex One, details these results.

In contrast, women in Cyprus face fewer barriers when engaging in civil society and political discourse as journalists. While women's civil society participation is very high in the United Kingdom (0.91 on a scale of 0 to 1.0) and above the EU average (0.89), Cyprus is not far behind, registering a score of 0.84, suggesting that women's participation in civil society organisations is much more acceptable than their participation as decisionmakers in local government. Figure 26, Annex One, details these findings.

For Malta, comparative data on women's civil society participation are unavailable. However, a 2014 Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) analysis noted that, as with Malta's political participation deficit for women in other areas, Maltese women face strong cultural prescriptions assigning them domestic and caring responsibilities rather than encouraging them to assume roles in civil society and political discourse. These prescriptions leave women with considerably less time to devote to other endeavours. Strong media and educational advocacy promoting the idea that boys and men adopt more of the roles traditionally assigned to women and girls will be required, notes the OSCE, to allow women more space to devote to politics (Cutajar 2014).

After the EU identified women's labour market participation as a key challenge in Malta's Country-Specific Recommendations for 2015, the country's 2015–2017 National Action Plan committed the government to increasing women's participation in public service employment. The National Council of Women cited women's ability to 'increase public trust in political systems and engage with government in settings where ideas can be discussed, creating a collaborative atmosphere characterised by mutual respect, integrity and forthrightness'. However, in Malta's mid-term Self-Assessment Report of its National Action Plan's 2015–2017 progress, the slow progress made in this area led the government to recommit to 'ensuring a more equal representation of women in decisionmaking processes, and providing women with a stronger voice in political decisionmaking' (Government of Malta 2017).

1.5.5 Political empowerment index

When reviewing scores on the World Economic Forum's political empowerment index (WEF 2017), i.e. the index combining women's status vis a vis men's in parliamentary positions held, ministerial positions occupied and time spent in executive office, only the UK (17th) and Malta (85th) are ranked in the world top 100 countries, with Cyprus ranked at 115th (see Table 3, Annex One). The UK's position and score (0.404) on the political empowerment index reflects the fact that, although it has had more years of women as prime ministers over the last 50 years than many other countries, it has still struggled to facilitate women's movement into the House of Commons, cabinet positions, local government and onto corporate boards. This is likely to be due to its majoritarian voting systems, and its voluntary (non-quota) system of incentives for women's advancement in the private sector.

However, the UK's higher-than-average participation of women in civil society and its comparatively stronger position than its Commonwealth European counterparts, indicate that both Cyprus and Malta have sizeable challenges in overcoming women's exclusion from political and business leadership.

1.6 The Pacific

1.6.1 Representation in national parliaments

Women's representation in national parliaments throughout the region has historically been exceptionally low, and this continues to be the case with the Pacific (13.47%) recording the lowest average of any global region in 2016 barring the Caucuses (13.17%). The Pacific is also surpassed on this indicator by the world's least developed states, with 20.11% of their parliaments comprising women.

Within the region there is considerable variation, with women legislators ranging from zero in Vanuatu, Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands (2017 results), to 33.3 per cent in New Zealand, followed by Australia at 28.7 per cent. Several other Pacific countries register exceedingly low proportions of women legislators, well below half of the global average (23.8%). These are Kiribati (6.5%), Tonga (7.7%), Samoa (10%) and Nauru (10.5%). If New Zealand and Australia were removed from the calculations, the region would, in fact, be the lowest in the world on this indicator. Figures 27 and 28, Annex One, present these results.

That the Pacific region contains very highly skilled and gualified women capable of holding office (Council for International Development 2012), begs the question why so few women are entering the region's top decisionmaking roles? The answer appears to be found in the region's history of assigning separate and complementary roles to women and men, and the region's colonial influences – particularly Christianity – and a resultant shift away from women's pre-colonial status as respected leaders. This is despite the fact that women's educational attainment is higher than that of men throughout the region (ibid).

Overcoming this phenomenon requires attracting women away from their often highly paid jobs to face the risks associated with campaigning. It will also require that legislatures develop the will to pass legislative measures allowing women to assume roles that, constitutionally, they often have the right to assume, but to which they are excluded from by an attitude that governance is an exclusively male realm. This, combined with the usual gender-related barriers such as domestic obligations, additional family care burdens, the need to hold down more flexible paid work and the risks of campaigning, mean that a great deal of work needs to be done to overcome women's political exclusion throughout the region.

1.6.2 Presence in parliamentary leadership positions

For those countries for which the data are available, Pacific women's presence in government leadership positions follows the same pattern as their severe under-representation in the region's lower houses of parliament. New Zealand again leads the regional rankings, with women occupying 35 per cent of its 2013 cabinet, followed by Australia with 26 per cent. This contrasts with Papua New Guinea (0%), Vanuatu (0%) and Solomon Islands (4%), having the lowest proportions of women cabinet members (see Figure 29, Annex One).

When reviewing the second indicator used to assess women's occupancy of senior leadership roles in parliament, i.e., their ascendency to the positions of prime minster or president, data are only available for three of the Pacific's 11 countries. Of these, only New Zealand features in the world's top 30 countries, ranking 12th due to the 11 years that Helen Clarke and Jacinda Ardern have spent in the prime minster position. Australia is ranked 35th and Fiji 69th, registering 3 and zero years respectively on the index, and again highlighting that this is not a strong reflection of women's political leadership across the region.

Lastly, the Pacific also has the lowest proportion of women assuming parliamentary speakerships or president roles globally, with 5.9 per cent (Inter-Parliamentary Union 2018a). This compares with the global average of 18.35 per cent (2016 figures).

1.6.3 Leaders in the corporate sector

Recent research (Deloitte 2013) on boardroom composition in the Asia– Pacific region indicates that most countries' boards now have a slightly higher percentage of female directors than two years ago, but only Australian companies have made a significant improvement on this dimension.

In Australia, female directors accounted for 16.7 percent of directorship positions in 2015, up from 11.2 percent in 2010. Elsewhere in the Asia–Pacific region, female directors account for less than 10 per cent of total boardroom members.

However, when the analysis turns to females as top managers in companies throughout the region, World Bank data indicate that the East Asia-Pacific region leads all regions – including Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries – with 32.7 per cent of the firms surveyed having a female top manager (see Table 4, Annex Two). This figure is considerably higher than the global average of 18.6 per cent. However, it is difficult to draw definitive conclusions from these data, because only two Pacific countries were surveyed. The Solomon Islands result of 22.6 per cent is well below the region's average, an average dominated by East-Asian rather than Pacific economies. This is confirmed by the fact that Papua New Guinea is the only other Pacific island economy surveyed, and its average of women in top management positions amounts to only 13.8 per cent, considerably below the global average (8).

Data from elsewhere note that Samoa records the highest percentage of any Commonwealth country when measuring private sector leadership positions held by women, with 60 per cent. Tonga is next highest in the Pacific region, with only 14 per cent. Four other countries in the region register 13 per cent or less, suggesting that aside from Samoa, most counties in the region have low proportions of women in private sector leadership positions (Boardwalk Leadership 2017).

The Economist's Corporate Network notes that many women in the Pacific region outside of Australia and New Zealand are employed in the informal sector. In the formal sector, while more women are entering the workforce, comparatively few have ascended to higher professional and managerial positions. For those designing measures to counter this and move towards gender parity, the same research draws some conclusions warranting consideration. These covered the need for senior corporate leadership to develop a conscious focus on gender balance, providing mentors for women leadership candidates, exposing female staff to female managers and senior female leaders as role models, and instituting flexible work arrangements to help retain women (Wilson Towers Watson 2015).

1.6.4 Participation as leaders at the local level

With the exception of three countries in the Pacific region, i.e., Australia (32.2%), New Zealand (32.5%) and Fiji (13.2%), all remaining countries fail to register above 7 per cent of women councillors in the region's local governments. Indeed, aside from Vanuatu (6.5%), no other Pacific region country comprises local government authorities with more than 5 per cent of women as members. Three of these countries, i.e., Papua New Guinea (1.4%), Tonga (1.1%) and Samoa (0%) have negligible levels of women's local government representation. Consistent with women's severe under-representation in national parliaments, these results reveal a strong subregional exclusion of women from local government

among the Commonwealth's Pacific island states. Table 2, Annex Two, presents these findings.

In contrast to these results, women's civil society participation across the Pacific states for which data are available (see Figure 30, Annex One), compares well with its Asian neighbours, including South Asia (0.58) and Southeast Asia (0.66), and the world's least developed countries (0.61). And although ranking below most other regions, the Pacific region averages the same as the global average (0.72) (9), due to the stronger results from Australia (0.89) and New Zealand (0.94).

Until 2016, Vanuatu – notwithstanding its absence of women parliamentarians – had scored quite highly (0.83), although falling in 2017 to score just below the regional average (0.7). This appears to be consistent with the findings reported in Section 1.6.1 that women in Pacific island communities are highly educated and strong leaders, notwithstanding, or perhaps because, they have had to overcome the systemic barriers they have faced in post-colonial society in attempting to move into public leadership roles.

1.6.5 Political empowerment index

As with several other indicators reflecting women's leadership status, scores on the World Economic Forum's political empowerment index (WEF 2017), i.e. the index combining women's status vis a vis men's in parliamentary positions held, ministerial positions occupied and time spent in executive office, are unavailable for the smaller Pacific island states. When the country scores that are available from the index are examined, New Zealand (11th) and Australia (48th) rank among the world's top 50 countries, while Fiji's ranking is 105.

The major differences between New Zealand and Australia's ratios are New Zealand's better performance in electing women to parliament, possibly due to its proportional representation system as opposed to Australia's preferential voting system, together with its much better record in allocating cabinet and prime minister positions to women.

Fiji's low position and index score reflect the difficulties that many Pacific island states have experienced in returning women to their pre-colonial status as national and subnational leaders. Samoa and Vanuatu exemplify the divergences between women's leadership in business (Samoa) and civil society (Vanuatu) on the one hand, and their severe under-representation and exclusion from national and local government on the other.

1.7 Section summary and conclusions: women in leadership

Women's leadership at the parliamentary level

After noting the global trend of advances made in women securing more seats in parliaments and the challenge of overcoming their lack of representation in political leadership, the preceding section examined the extent to which women's representation in lower houses has improved and whether these improvements had translated into women assuming more positions in cabinet and at the executive leadership level.

It found that women's lower house representation in Africa had improved markedly, with the exception – barring Cameroon - of West Africa. However, on the election of women to cabinet. although progress has been reasonable in South Africa and Rwanda in Africa, Trinidad and Tobago in the Caribbean and of course in Canada, with its 50 per cent representation of women in cabinet, in general improvements have been disappointingly slow. The same holds for women's occupancy of prime minster and president roles, with Asia being an exception – due primarily to the influence of family dynasties in assisting women to move into these roles.

In summary, although there have been steady increases over the last 50 years in women's parliamentary representation, and notably in Africa, the lack of women in government leadership positions remains a sizeable challenge.

The progress that has been made in terms of women's increasing parliamentary presence is due to the implementation of policy advances, including legislated or voluntary quotas and reserved seats, in some cases initiatives such as gender-targeted public funding, increases in educational opportunities and the advocacy undertaken by women's movements.

Women's leadership in the corporate sector

Women's progress in moving into management positions in the corporate sector has also been incremental, with the most promising advances taking place in Europe, where many countries have quota systems in place. However, this is not the case in the UK, which prefers the voluntary adoption of boardroom diversity principles and, in doing so, has achieved an increase from 14 per cent of women in boardroom in 2003 to 27.2 per cent in 2017. While not as high as some of its EU neighbours, the result is nevertheless encouraging. Africa has also been a world leader in gender diversity at the corporate board and chief executive officer (CEO) levels, with African women holding 23 per cent of positions in executive committees in 2016, compared with a global average of 20 per cent. At the CEO level, women occupied 5 per cent of positions, compared with a global average of 4 per cent.

Women's leadership at the local level

Women's participation in local government throughout the Commonwealth has varied markedly, ranging from no representation at

all in Samoa, and less than 7 per cent representation in six other small Pacific island states, to 49 per cent in Lesotho. The Lesotho result has been helped by an allocation to women of one third of all seats as reserved. Several other Commonwealth states in Africa have also achieved a 40 per cent or more representation at the local level for women, including Namibia (44%), South Africa (42.1%) and Rwanda (40%), with Rwanda also adopting a 30% reserved seat allocation. Africa's combined results, with the exception of Ghana (6.7%), Zambia (8.2%) and Nigeria (9.8%), lead the Commonwealth regions, while Antigua and Barbuda (45.4%), India (37.2%) and New Zealand (32.5%) lead their respective regions. However, these results indicate that, at the local government level, similar attitudinal and

policy challenges still confront women in striving for representational parity.

The increasing strength of women's advocacy referred to above can be seen from the report's examination of women's capacity to engage unhindered in countries' civil society networks and journalistic discourse. Most regions have increasing levels of participation by women in civil society, with the exception of Asia, where women's participation at this level, aside from in Sri Lanka, has been in notable deficit. In the Pacific. Solomon Islands, PNG and Fiji also have lower rates of civil society participation by women. Whether this can be explained by the trend in recent years of an increase in governments restricting civil society freedoms is beyond the scope of this report to investigate.

Endnotes

- 1 That is, where data are available. Data may not be available in certain areas, and such cases are noted throughout the report.
- 2 This figure reflects women legislators in Rwanda's lower house.
- 3 The theme of women's presence as leaders in conflict and particularly post-conflict contexts, as peace builders at the subnational level, peacemakers at the national level and as combatants or perpetrators in conflict itself, is explored in Section 3 of this report on ending violence against women and girls.
- 4 Singapore has no local government, but community development councils (CDCs) providing local administration and overseen by the Ministry of National Development, while Brunei Darussalam does not have a local government system.
- 5 Again, these scores are on a scale of 0 representing no freedom to participate to 1, reflecting the capacity to fully participate.
- 6 Note that World Bank data are unavailable for Australia, Canada and New Zealand.
- 7 As Table 2, Annex Two, notes, Grenada has no local government and Barbados, Saint Lucia,

and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines have appointed local administrative structures.

- 8 Nor can the result be explained by distortions created by countries such as New Zealand and Australia, as these countries were excluded from the World Bank survey.
- 9 Such as, for example, East-South Europe (0.89), the Caribbean and Americas (0.8), Latin America (0.78), the Caucuses (0.76), West Africa (0.73) and Central America (0.73).

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World Economic Forum (WEF) (2017), Gender Gap Report 2017, available at: https://www.weforum.org/ reports/the-global-gender-gapreport-2017 (accessed April 2018). Chapter 2 Women's Economic Empowerment

2.1 Introduction

The following section will review progress throughout Commonwealth countries on dimensions reflecting the extent to which women are being economically empowered. The analysis will utilise a range of measures reflecting basic barriers on the one hand, and assistance on the other, to women's engagement as productive economic agents in Commonwealth countries. In doing so, it will deal with SDGs 3, 5, 10 and 16, by examining the extent to which women are able to overcome barriers to their empowerment, the inequalities and labour market disparities they face, their exclusion from decisionmaking about economic resources, and their capacity to secure well-being and healthy lives for themselves and their families.

In an increasing number of countries, women work in servitude and are effectively in a state of forced labour, while many countries legally restrict women's agency and freedom of domestic movement. According to the World Bank (World Bank 2018a), women experience multiple restrictions in many countries preventing their engagement in economic activities. These restrictions encompass decisions affecting their movement, in getting a job, in conducting business transactions and in gaining access to institutions. For many women, these decisions cannot be made without their husband's permission. In 18 countries included in a recent World Bank study, women cannot get a job or pursue a trade or profession without permission from their husband. When women cannot independently decide where they want to go, travel or live, they are likely to face difficulty getting to work or conducting business transactions. After reviewing the data, the World Bank concluded that women are much more likely to assume leadership positions in public life when they have increased legal decision-making capacities (ibid.).

Women's freedom from forced labour, their freedom of domestic movement, their decision-making freedoms within marriage and their access to modern family planning methods are therefore featured among the range of economic empowerment indicators used within this section.

Several additional factors strongly impact upon women's capacity to enter and sustain their place in the labour market. Their entry into the workforce and their capacity to progress to their full potential, particularly in the economy's formal sector, is much more likely if they have completed their secondary school education (World Bank 2018b). Girls' secondary school completion rates therefore comprise part of this analysis. However, their capacity to remain as productive workforce contributors often depends on their physical safety. Globally, the most common form of violence women experience is from an intimate partner (WHO 2017), and because almost one-third of women who have been in an intimate relationship have experienced physical or sexual violence, this dramatically influences women and girls' capacities to sustain their position in the workforce, or indeed their capacity to enter the workforce to begin with. Women and girls' exposure to domestic violence and their access to justice also comprise important components of this analysis and is a theme returned to in Section 3 of this report. Indeed, the World Bank report cited above found that in 65 per cent of the economies it surveyed, there were no laws protecting women and girls from sexual harassment, while 45 countries had no laws protecting women and children from domestic violence. Further, 59 countries did not have laws prohibiting sexual harassment in the workplace (World Bank 2018a).

After then reviewing women's actual labour force participation rates across the Commonwealth, the section looks at additional indicators reflecting measures assisting women to enter or remain in the labour force, and the status of female entrepreneurs within companies. Specifically, these dimensions examine the proportions of women who are able to move into the highest levels in companies.

The indicators used to reflect the above dimensions are women's access to paid parental (i.e., maternity and paternity) leave, their access to credit, the extent to which they have control over the land they cultivate, and their ownership and management of companies.

Importantly, as the World Bank has noted (ibid), the last two indicators reflect women's property rights in the agriculture and business sectors, which, as noted in this report's section on women in leadership, are positively associated with their leadership positions in these sectors. In other words, women are less likely to have business leadership positions in economies where their property rights are constrained. Lastly, each regional analysis will conclude by examining countries' results on a composite index measuring the gaps between women and men on labour force participation, remuneration for the same work and on career advancement. The section itself will end with a summary and a number of conclusions based on the data reviewed.

2.2 Africa

2.2.1 Constitutional rights required for economic empowerment

There are a number of prerequisites that must be met if women are to stand any chance of overcoming the multiple barriers to their economic empowerment. At the most basic level, these include freedom from forced labour, freedom of domestic movement, decision-making freedoms within relationships such as marriage, freedom from domestic and non-intimate partner violence, and access to justice.

When reviewing Commonwealth countries in Africa and the freedom from forced labour they confer upon women (see Figures 31 to 34, Annex One), there are several results worth noting. These are:

- All Commonwealth countries in East Africa perform better than the East Africa average (1). Kenya is the Commonwealth country in East Africa where forced labour is the most common (2.79 on a scale of 0 representing widespread forced labour to 4 representing a complete absence of forced labour); its assessment being the only Commonwealth country in East Africa to score lower than the sub-Saharan average (2.86). On the other hand, Rwanda comes closest to a total absence of forced labour with a score of 3.35.
- In Southern Africa, eSwatini (1.97) is substantially below the sub-Sahara regional average (2.86). Indeed, it has the among the highest levels of women in servitude in the world, only overtaking Saudi Arabia in the last 12 months.
- While South Africa and Namibia's performances improved significantly

after apartheid's termination, Mozambique and most noticeably Lesotho's records have recently worsened considerably.

• While most Commonwealth countries in West Africa have been assessed as being consistently above the sub-Saharan average, Cameroon's freedom from forced labour for women is noticeably below the sub-Saharan average, decreasing markedly since 2009. In contrast, The Gambia's record has improved substantially since 2016.

A second basic human right that, when denied, prevents women attaining economic empowerment is the right to freedom of domestic movement. Figures 35 to 38, Annex One, present trends on women's freedom of movement across the three relevant Africa subregions. Several noteworthy points emerge from the data, including:

- All Commonwealth countries barring eSwatini (2.42) were assessed as affording women substantially more freedom of domestic movement than the sub-Saharan average, which is 3.26 on a scale of 0 (i.e., no freedom of movement) to 4 (reflecting no restrictions on movement whatsoever). As with freedom from forced labour, eSwatini (2.42) ranks among the lowest in the world. Further, this indicator has not significantly improved over the last 20 years.
- In contrast, Seychelles (3.91) and The Gambia (3.87) lead all other Commonwealth African countries, with assessments substantially above the sub-Saharan average.
- Notwithstanding the positive results noted above, some Commonwealth countries have registered worrying recent decreases in this freedom. This includes dramatic decreases since 2015 in Rwanda and Uganda in East

Africa, in Southern Africa's Lesotho and Malawi, and in West Africa's Cameroon and Sierra Leone. The reasons for these sudden decreases across six countries in the same period warrant further investigation. This pattern contrasts with dramatic improvements in Mozambique and Zambia during the same period.

Two additional dimensions reflecting women's capacity to participate in economic activity include their independence in making decisions within marriage and their allowed level of responsibility for maintaining the family (Table 5, Annex Two).

Unlike some other regions, women in Commonwealth countries in Africa are not legally required to obey their husbands and, with the exception of Tanzania, are able to legally share responsibilities for their family's welfare.

2.2.2 Secondary school completion and family planning

Several additional factors each play a critical role in determining whether women and girls can reach their full potential as empowered contributors to the economy. The first of these is whether girls are able to complete their secondary schooling. Data reflecting secondary school completion results vary considerably across regions and countries. However, three countries, South Africa (78%), Mauritius (70%) and Nigeria (42%), record results well above the global (36.7%) average. While these data are no reflection of the quality of education that girls receive, they provide some indication of girls' exposure to educational opportunities. Table 6, Annex Two, presents these data.

At the other end of scale, only 3.3 per cent of The Gambia's girls complete secondary schooling, followed by Mozambique (4.4%), Uganda (4.7%), Tanzania (6.2%) and eSwatini (8.3%). In each of these countries, with the exception of eSwatini, secondary school completion rates for girls lag well behind those of boys and indicate severe disadvantage for girls in meeting their full potential as contributors to their countries' economies.

Lastly, despite having moderate-tolow secondary school completion rates, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia and eSwatini score highly on the World Economic Forum's educational attainment index (WEF 2017). This suggests that in these countries, girls and women achieve or approach parity with boys and men in primary, secondary and tertiary-level enrolments and in literacy levels, even though the secondary school completion rates of both sexes are not high. Table 6, Annex Two, details girls' secondary school completion rates across most Commonwealth countries in Africa, together with data on parity between girls' and boys' educational enrolments and literacy levels.

The availability of modern family planning methods for African women (Table 7, Annex Two) also fluctuates markedly across the continent. In general, modern family planning methods are much more available in Southern African Commonwealth countries than elsewhere in Africa, with South Africa (83%), eSwatini (77.3%) and Lesotho (75.5%), the only countries providing more than 75 per cent of reproductive-aged women access to this basic means of gaining control over their reproductive and, in turn, working lives.

Mozambique is an exception to this rule in Southern Africa, with only 38.4 per cent of Mozambique women able to access non-traditional family planning methods. Women in West Africa are generally highly disadvantaged in terms of their capacity to access modern family planning methods, with women from The Gambia (25.1%), Cameroon (33.6%), Sierra Leone (34.4%), Ghana (36.2%) and Nigeria (38.5%) experiencing severe restrictions in accessing these options.

2.2.3 Exposure to violence and access to justice

A set of data reflecting a critical dimension of whether women can participate in the workforce with physical and emotional security is the extent to which they are subjected to violence by an intimate partner at some time in their lives (2), together with their access to justice to be able to secure protection from such violence. Table 8, Annex Two, provides data from Commonwealth countries on intimate partner violence, violence resulting in considerable costs - physically, psychologically and financially - to women, their families and their communities, while Table 9 (Annex Two) presents data on women's access to justice.

When reviewing regional averages of intimate partner violence experienced by women and girls at some stage in their lives, the reported incidence appears to be only slightly less in Africa (36.6% of women) than the region reporting the highest incidence, i.e., Asia (37.7%). Five of the twelve Commonwealth African countries for which data are available are above the Africa average, with Rwanda (56%), Cameroon (51%), Uganda (51%) and Zambia (50%) recording levels indicating that the experience is shared by more than one in every two women and girls at some stage in their lives.

These rates are extraordinary when compared with South Africa (13%), where, although not perfect, certain policy settings and practices appear to be reducing the problem. The South Africa experience may offer some salient lessons to other African countries dealing with how best to reduce the problem.

The extent to which women enjoy equal, secure and effective access to justice across Commonwealth Africa has, since 1997, registered deteriorations in 11 of the 19 African countries assessed.

The most marked deteriorations have taken place in Botswana, Cameroon and South Africa, although the situation in Kenya, starting from a very low baseline, has also deteriorated considerably. In Kenya's case, women's access to justice appeared in 2017 to be negligible. Further, while less dramatic deteriorations have taken place in Ghana, Mauritius and Mozambique over the last 20 years, these countries have, during this time, *improved* men's access to justice.

Commonwealth countries in Africa scoring well above the global average (2.48 on a scale of 0 [no access to justice] to 4 [full access to justice]) include Ghana (3.25), Seychelles (2.97), Rwanda (2.86), Nigeria (2.84) and The Gambia (2.8). However, the longer-term trends in women's declining access to justice reflected in Table 9 (Annex Two) suggest that a great deal of work needs to be done to reverse such trends.

2.2.4 Labour force participation

Labour force participation rates (3) (World Bank 2017) are a key indicator reflecting the extent to which women are becoming economically empowered. Table 10, Annex Two, presents trends in women's participation in both the formal and informal sectors from 1990 until 2017. In Africa:

- All Commonwealth countries with the exceptions of Botswana (84%), The Gambia (76%), Mauritius (62%), Nigeria (84%), South Africa (77%) and eSwatini (63%) – were above the 2017 sub-Saharan average (86%).
- Rwanda and Mozambique registered 100 per cent of their populations aged 15 or over participating in the labour force, with Sierra Leone close behind (97%). In poorer economies, a large part of this employment is in the informal sector.
- Four countries have shown strong increases between 1990 and 2017. These are Botswana (61% to 84%), Mauritius (47% to 62%), Namibia (75% to 90%) and South Africa (63% to 77%). However, Mauritius' increase is from a very low baseline.
- Of concern is the result that three countries showed reversals. These were Lesotho (82% to 80%), Malawi (97% to 88%) and Tanzania (96% to 91%). Two country economies produced around the same employment opportunities for women, i.e., Kenya (91%) and Sierra Leone (97%) over the 1990 to 2017 period.

2.2.5 Access to credit

One factor facilitating women's ability to engage in the workforce as entrepreneurs – a common role for women in both the informal and formal sectors – is the availability of credit. In sub-Saharan Africa, women have among the lowest borrowing rates in the world, although in most Commonwealth countries throughout the continent, women appear to make more use of credit than in their non-Commonwealth African counterparts.

There are three very notable exceptions to this result. These are Botswana

(2.1%), Cameroon (3.8%) and Lesotho (2.3%), where lower proportions of females aged 15 or above borrow money to establish, operate or expand a farm or business, compared with the sub-Saharan Africa average of 4.2 per cent of women doing so. It should be noted here that this average is less than one half of the global average (9.8%).

In Botswana, the lower proportions of women borrowing money to establish a business or farm reflect a pattern of lower-than-average borrowings for any purpose. In Botswana, only 32.1 per cent of women borrow money at all, compared with the sub-Saharan average of 43.3 per cent and the global average of 44.9 per cent: a result perhaps influenced by cultural or religious factors. However, the same cannot be said of either Cameroon (52.6%) or Lesotho (49.3%), where borrowing money is far more common than for women elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa and indeed throughout the world.

Lastly, very low proportions of women that do borrow money in Botswana (4.1%), Cameroon (5.7%), and Lesotho (4.4%) do so from financial institutions, with them choosing instead to use family, friends, local shops, private lenders or savings clubs.

In contrast to these figures, much larger proportions of women in Uganda (13.6%) and Ghana (8%) borrow money to establish a business or operate/expand a farming enterprise. In Ghana, this figure is notable because the country has much lower proportions of women borrowing money for any purpose (37.6%) than the sub-Saharan average (43.3%). Table 11, Annex Two, presents data on women's use of credit in Commonwealth countries across Africa.

2.2.6 Paid parental or maternity leave

An additional factor often playing a critical role in sustaining their workforce participation, particularly for women in the formal sector, is the availability of paid maternity or parental leave. When reviewing the availability of this benefit to women in Commonwealth countries across Africa, several results are worth noting. These are:

- While all Commonwealth African countries provide paid leave to mothers, fathers or both, some legislate for parents to receive paid leave for considerably longer periods than others. Those countries facilitating parental (whether maternity and/or paternity/parental) leave for the longest periods are The Gambia (190 days paid leave), followed by South Africa (123 days paid leave), Mauritius and Seychelles (103 days paid leave each), Kenya (100 days paid leave) and Cameroon (98 days paid leave).
- At the opposite end of the spectrum are eSwatini (14 days paid leave), Malawi (56 days paid leave) and Mozambique (61 days paid leave).
- All other Commonwealth Africa countries have legislated for between 80 and 89 paid leave days for parents. Table 12, Annex Two, details this information.

2.2.7 Control over land holdings

The review thus far of indicators reflecting the factors facilitating women's participation in the labour force has not yet focused on women in the agriculture sector, and the extent to which these women have control over their productive processes. However, in most of the Commonwealth countries under review in Africa, the agricultural sector employs the vast majority of women. How women fare within this sector, in terms of their control over the land they are using to produce agricultural outputs, therefore warrants close review.

An analysis of data detailing the sex of agricultural holders, i.e., the person making the major decisions regarding resource use, production and management of the agricultural holding (4). leads to two notable conclusions. These are that three Commonwealth countries in Africa, Botswana (34.7%), Malawi (32.1%) and Lesotho (30.8) have women managing agricultural holdings in higher proportions than elsewhere in the world. The fact that these higher-performing countries are still nowhere near achieving parity on control of agricultural land with men is a reflection, among many other things, of the strong land inheritance discrimination that women often face.

This is particularly evident in African countries positioned at the opposite end of the spectrum to those countries referred to above. Very low proportions of women in The Gambia (8.3%) and Nigeria (10%) have control over their agricultural resources, reflecting rural economies almost exclusively controlled by men at the subnational and most likely, national, levels. Table 13, Annex Two, details the data available on agricultural holdings by sex.

2.2.8 Ownership and management of companies

Lastly, as an indicator of women's economic empowerment within the private sector, women's status in terms of ownership and management of companies reveals several notable results. These are:

• While Cameroon was featured above as one of the three countries where

women did not access credit to establish, operate or expand farms or businesses, in 2016 the country had the highest proportion of companies with majority female ownership (31%), accompanied by a comparatively high proportion of women as top managers in companies (22.9%). These figures reveal a very large increase from the 2009 baseline of 10.1% of Cameroon companies with majority female ownership and 10 per cent of women as top company managers.

- Namibia (25.6%), Lesotho (25.4%), Zambia (19.0%) and Sierra Leone (16.9%) are also well above the sub-Saharan Africa average (13%) of the proportion of companies with majority women ownership. These countries also exceed, or in Sierra Leone's case equal, the sub-Saharan Africa average (15.9%) of companies with women as their top managers.
- In contrast, Mauritius, with only 4.9 per cent of its companies registering majority female ownership, is the third lowest of all countries for which data on this indicator are collected, while all other African countries surveyed, with the exceptions of eSwatini (16.9%), Ghana (14.7%) and Nigeria (13.25), fall below the sub-Saharan Africa average of 13 per cent of companies with majority women ownership.

Similarly, only four Commonwealth African countries exceed the sub-Saharan Africa average (15.9%) of women occupying top management positions in companies. Among these, eSwatini has the most impressive result (27.4%), followed by Zambia (23.8%), Rwanda (19.7%) and Botswana (16.5%). Table 4, Annex Two, provides this information.

With some exceptions noted above, Commonwealth countries in Africa appear to be lagging well behind other regions and the global average in terms of women owning companies and occupying top management posts.

The fact that it makes sense for increased productivity to promote women into more senior positions within the private sector has not yet been translated into company policies and practice in Commonwealth countries across the continent.

2.2.9 The economic participation and opportunities index

A final summary measure warranting review in assessing the extent to which women are economically empowered in Commonwealth African countries is their position on the World Economic Forum's economic participation and opportunities index. The index measures: a) the participation gap, i.e., the difference between women and men in labour force participation rates; b) the remuneration gap, i.e., the ratio of estimated wage equality for similar work; and c) the advancement gap, i.e., the ratio of women to men among legislators, senior officials and managers, and the ratio of women to men among technical and professional workers (WEF 2017).

The index, presented in Table 14, Annex Two, reveals six Commonwealth countries in Africa ranking in the world's top 50 countries on the index, including three countries in the top ten. These are Botswana, ranked 6th, Rwanda, ranked 7th, and Namibia, ranked 9th. Other African Commonwealth countries ranking in the world's top 50 index positions are Mozambique (17th), Ghana (18th) and Kenya (44th).

These results suggest that women in these countries have drawn closer to men in terms of their participation in the labour force, their remuneration for completing the same work, and their presence among legislators, senior managers and the skilled workforce. However, achieving parity with men in these and other areas reflecting women's economic empowerment will require attention to other requirements highlighted throughout this section. In Botswana's case, for example, less than one third of its girls are completing secondary school, women do not appear to be accessing credit to establish or expand farms or businesses, and Botswana's women have experienced a notable decrease in their access to justice over recent years.

In Rwanda's case, while Rwandese women benefit more than most in their access to justice, their labour force participation, their diminishing forced labour and their model status in majority political participation, they have experienced recent restrictions in their freedom of movement, while facing among the highest rates of violence from men. These examples indicate that the road to full economic empowerment and gender equality continues to present challenges for even those closest to parity on composite measures such as the economic participation and opportunities index.

2.3 Asia

2.3.1 Constitutional rights required for economic empowerment

When examining women's basic rights to be able to function as economic agents in Commonwealth Asian countries, i.e., women's freedom from forced labour, their freedom of domestic movement and their decision-making freedoms within marriage, several notable points emerge. These are:

- Bangladesh (2012) and Sri Lanka (2014) registered noticeable recent increases in women engaged in forced labour, although Sri Lanka has almost recovered since, nearly returning to its 2010 high point by 2017. In spite of this dip, Sri Lanka remains the region's leading performer in attempts to eliminate the practice and has always been well below the global average in its prevalence of forced labour.
- Pakistan, India and Bangladesh have consistently registered the highest records of forced labour, where the state is unwilling, or unable, to effectively contain the practice. Together with Malaysia and more recently Singapore, these countries have been consistently higher in forced labour prevalence than the global average.
- However, Singapore and Malaysia, together of course with Sri Lanka have recorded better results than their regional counterparts in attempting to control the practice.
- Concerning women's freedom of domestic movement, Singapore, Malaysia and Sri Lanka have consistently led the region on this indicator since 2009, scoring notably higher than the global average since 2012. Singapore returned by far the highest regional assessment of freedom for women in their domestic movement until 2013, when it was overtaken by Sri Lanka.
- All other countries recorded results that were markedly below the global average, with only Pakistan showing any noticeable improvement during the last 20 years; however, this improvement has been from an exceedingly low base line.
- In both Malaysia and Brunei
 Darussalam, unlike any other countries throughout Asia, women are legally

required to obey their husbands, placing further restrictions on their capacity to become economically active and independent. The same countries, together with Bangladesh and Pakistan, do not recognise women as legally responsible for the welfare of their families.

Annex One's Figures 39 and 40, and Table 5, Annex Two, provide the details from which the above conclusions are drawn.

2.3.2 Secondary school completion and family planning

In Commonwealth countries throughout Asia for which data are available, all countries except Pakistan exceed the low South Asia average of 27.7 per cent of women aged 20-24 having completed their secondary schooling. In Pakistan, the result is 24.5 per cent. Bangladesh leads both the region and all but six Commonwealth countries globally with 64.9 per cent, followed by Malaysia (45.1%), India (37.9%) and Brunei Darussalam (37.6%), each of which is ahead of the global average (36.7%). Singapore (31.0%) and Sri Lanka (28.1%), together with Pakistan, perform poorly on this measure, and will require a sizeable shift in priorities and resource allocations to reverse girls' very limited educational opportunities.

When considering educational attainment parity with boys, the region does very poorly – with Malaysia the top ranking Asian country, in 77th position. This indicates that boys in Commonwealth countries throughout Asia are given priority for educational opportunities and, as a result, attain higher literacy outcomes than girls. Table 6, Annex Two, provides this information.

In contrast to the above mixed results, women in Commonwealth Asian

countries appear to have better access to modern family planning methods that their African counterparts, again with the exception of Pakistan. In five of the region's seven Commonwealth countries, seven out of every ten women are able to meet their needs for modern family planning methods.

However, far fewer proportions of women in Pakistan (47.3%) and Malaysia (57.6%) are able to meet their family planning requirements.

This must, in turn, adversely affect women's capacity to determine when they enter or re-enter the workforce and how their caring roles balance with their need to generate a livelihood. Table 7, Annex Two, details these data.

2.3.3 Exposure to violence and access to justice

Two further conditions with serious impacts on women's capacities to securely participate in the workforce are the extent to which they are exposed to violence – by an intimate partner and/or by other people connected to their place of work – and their ability to access justice. Tables 8 and 9, Annex Two, present data from Commonwealth countries on these conditions.

Data on domestic violence perpetrated by intimate partners have not been systematically collected on a global level. The data available for Commonwealth countries in Asia (5) (WHO 2005) cover four countries. These are Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Singapore. The World Health Organization (WHO) has also developed regional averages, including one for Southeast Asia. These data suggest that Asia may have higher rates of intimate partner violence than other regions, with WHO reporting a 37.7 per cent prevalence rate for women across South-east Asia, while the prevalence in Bangladesh (53% of women reporting intimate partner violence) and Pakistan (39%) suggests the prevalence in those countries may be even worse. In India, 37 per cent of women surveyed reported experiencing intimate partner violence at some stage in their lives. By contrast, in Singapore 6 per cent reported intimate partner violence: a proportion among the lowest of all Commonwealth countries. This issue is dealt with in greater detail in Section 3 of this report.

The availability of justice for women exposed to experiences such as physical and/or sexual violence is limited in Asia. Further, in two Commonwealth countries, Bangladesh and India, women's access to justice between 1997 and 2017 has deteriorated. In Bangladesh, this deterioration has been striking, moving from 1.99 to 1.54 over the 20-year period on a scale of 0 (representing no access to justice) to 4 (reflecting unrestricted access to justice). Indeed, Bangladesh has now joined Pakistan (1.12) as the two lowest scoring countries in the Commonwealth on this measure.

On a positive note, both Singapore and Sri Lanka recorded substantial improvements during the 1997 to 2017 period, with Sri Lanka moving from 2.18 to 2.59 and Singapore increasing from 2.72 to 3.23, placing both countries well above the 2017 global average (2.48). Table 9, Annex Two, notes these developments.

2.3.4 Labour force participation

The factors discussed above have considerable impact on whether women can enter the labour force and under what circumstances. When examining labour force participation by women throughout Commonwealth countries in

Asia, five of the seven countries recorded notable increases in the percentages of women employed between 1990 and 2016. Owing perhaps to its previously large proportion of women engaged in enslaved labour, Pakistan recorded a 76.5 per cent increase (or 2.8% per annum) in women's labour force membership, moving from the very low baseline of 17 per cent to 30 per cent between 1990 and 2016. Brunei Darussalam (with a 57.7% or 2.2% per annum increase) and Singapore (up 41.1%, or 1.6% per annum) also recorded very large workforce participation increases for women during the same period.

However, the fact that two Asian economies showed reversals in women's labour force membership during this time indicates that progress has not been at all consistent throughout the region. Both India (42% to 35%) and Sri Lanka (57% to 47%) showed notable decreases during the period under review and, unless a result of measurement irregularities, this must be of considerable concern for policymakers seeking to facilitate the country's economic development. Table 10, Annex Two, presents results for the Asia region.

2.3.5 Access to credit

The availability of credit is an important factor, often determining whether or not women can enter the workforce as entrepreneurs. In Commonwealth Asian countries, fewer proportions of women than the global average borrow money for *any* purpose. Singapore is the sole exception to this. More than one half of women in Singapore (51.6%) had borrowed money from some source in the 12 months preceding the survey, whether it be from family, friends, credit clubs or financial institutions such as banks. A much higher proportion (15.6%) of those women borrowed their money from a financial institution than the global average (9.4%), and an unusually higher proportion of Singaporean women (20.9% against the 9.8% global average) borrowed money to establish, operate or expand a farm or business.

Women from other Commonwealth countries in Asia used credit much less frequently for establishing businesses than the global average, with South Asian women (3.7%) averaging considerably less than the global figure (9.8%) in borrowings for establishing, operating or expanding a farm or business. In addition to Singapore, two exceptions to this result are Malaysia and Sri Lanka. In Malaysia, although comparatively fewer women borrow money than elsewhere throughout the region, a large proportion of those that do (34.2%), do so from a financial institution (11.1% against the 9.4% global average) rather than from other sources. Most of these borrowings are for the purpose of establishing, operating or expanding a farm or business (10.2% of borrowers). The 31.7 per cent of women borrowing money in Sri Lanka adopt a similar profile, with half of these women borrowing money from a financial institution (15.7%); this is an exceptionally high percentage given the country's exceedingly low proportion of women borrowers.

By contrast, only 1.5 per cent of Pakistani women borrow money from a financial institution, with only 0.5 per cent borrowing money to establish, operate or expand a farm or business. As with other predominantly Muslim countries, religious beliefs are likely to play a role in this result. Combined with Pakistani women's lack of freedoms and access to opportunities noted elsewhere in this report, it appears that women in Pakistan face very substantial barriers to their economic empowerment. Refer to Table 11, Annex One, for details of the above findings on women's use of credit in Asia.

2.3.6 Paid parental or maternity leave

When analysing Asia's paid parental leave data (see Table 12, Annex One), reflecting an important benefit influencing some women's employment choices, it becomes apparent that there is substantial variation across the region. More specifically:

- Of the seven Commonwealth countries in Asia, three score above the Commonwealth global average of the paid parental days that mothers, fathers or both are entitled to. These are India, providing parents with 182 combined days of parental leave, Singapore with 122 paid parental days, and Bangladesh, with 112 paid parental leave days.
- Four Commonwealth countries in the Asia region fall below the Commonwealth global average entitlement. These are Brunei Darussalam with a 91-day paid parental leave entitlement, Pakistan and Sri Lanka, each providing 84 paid parental leave days, and Malaysia, allocating 60 days, less than one third of the India total.

2.3.7 Control over land holdings

Data reflecting women's control over the land holdings they are associated with in the region's agricultural sector provide a number of conclusions, partly reflecting the degree to which women are in positions of control within the agriculture sector.

When compared with other Commonwealth regions, the proportion of Asian women in control of land holdings appears to be quite low. At the lowest end of the land holding spectrum are Bangladeshi women, comprising only 4.6 per cent of agricultural land holders, indicating that the country's rural economy appears to be almost entirely controlled by men. On the other hand, Malaysia leads Commonwealth countries in Asia on this indicator, with 18 per cent of its agricultural land holders being women. Sri Lanka registers the next highest proportion at 16.3 per cent. As leading countries in the region, their results on this measure are still considerably below the Commonwealth average. Table 13, Annex Two, details these results.

2.3.8 Ownership and management of companies

Lastly, when reviewing women's status concerning ownership and management of companies (Table 4, Annex Two), the following key results emerge:

- Consistent with other results reported throughout this section, companies in Bangladesh have an exceedingly low proportion of female ownership (1.7%).
- This is followed by India (2.8%), Pakistan (8%) and Malaysia (10.4%). Indeed, all Commonwealth countries except Malaysia are placed below the exceedingly low South Asia average (9.6%).
- Similarly, the region also features as the lowest ranking region in the world in terms of women occupying top management positions. Again, Bangladesh records the lowest proportion of women occupying top management posts (4.8% of occupants), followed by Pakistan with 6 per cent, Sri Lanka (8.8%) and India (8.9%). Malaysia more than doubles India's rate, with 26.3 per cent of its companies led by women as top managers. This rate has undoubtedly been increased by the policy measures

recently adopted by the Malaysian government and referred to in Box 2 in the previous section. It also sheds light on initiatives potentially guiding other countries in the region in overcoming the constraints they are confronting in dealing with this management deficit.

2.3.9 The economic participation and opportunity index

With the exception of Singapore, Asia's Commonwealth countries have struggled to keep abreast of global averages on many if not all of the indicators referred to throughout this section. This is reflected in the gravitation by the region's countries to the economic participation and opportunity index's lowest rankings. The index is a composite measure of the difference between women and men in labour force participation rates, remuneration for similar work, and in advancement to positions as legislators, senior officials, managers, and technical and professional workers.

The index, presented in Table 14, Annex Two, shows that with the exception of Singapore, ranked 27th with a ratio of 0.752 or a 25 per cent short of parity on the above measures, no other Commonwealth country in the region ranks in the top 60 countries. In fact, four countries, Sri Lanka (123rd), Bangladesh (129th), India (139th) and Pakistan (143rd), rank very near to Syria (144th) as the lowest ranked country on the index.

The lack of parity in economic opportunities and participation experienced by women in these countries is consistent with many of the results presented in this section, particularly in the South Asia subregion's tolerance of forced labour, its belowaverage freedom of movement afforded to women, the lack of parity in educational opportunities, and the subregion's higher prevalence of violence against women and girls. The below-average access by the subregion's women to credit and realisation of their legal rights, together with the overwhelming control of agricultural and business resources by men, also highlights the challenges faced by South Asian women in becoming economically empowered.

2.4 The Caribbean and Americas

2.4.1 Constitutional rights required for economic empowerment

An assessment of women's basic rights to be able to perform as economic agents in Commonwealth countries in the Caribbean and Americas region yields the following from Figures 41 and 42 (Annex One):

- For most of the period under review (1997 to 2017), those countries for which data are available only recorded infrequent instances of women's forced labour associated with, for example, the criminal underground.
- The only exception to this was in Guyana between 1998 and 2015, where the practice existed among some groups, but was not widespread and was usually actively opposed by public authorities. Since 2015, the practice in Guyana has decreased to 'infrequent'.
- Concerning women's freedom of domestic movement in the region, virtually all women enjoy freedom of movement, and indeed all of the five countries within the region for which data are available score above the Caribbean and world averages.

However, since 2012, Canada has recorded a pronounced *decrease* in the freedom of movement for women, due to the Quebec provincial government's passing an emergency law to stifle student-led demonstrations against tuition fees and the mass arrests of protestors and use of tear gas to control them.

 Lastly, all Commonwealth countries in the region have no legal requirement that women obey their husbands.
 Each country recognises women and their spouses as sharing legal responsibility for their family's welfare.

2.4.2 Secondary school completion and family planning

When young women's secondary school completion and educational attainment rates for the Caribbean and Americas are examined, it appears that young women's secondary completion rates vary significantly across the region, ranging from 71.7 per cent of 20 to 24-year-olds in Trinidad and Tobago completing their secondary education to 13.7 per cent of the same age group in Barbados. The Barbados result had actually decreased since 2000 from 27.1 per cent.

Most Commonwealth countries in the Caribbean, including Belize (47.2%), Guyana (55.7%) and Jamaica (45%), registered results significantly above the UN Children's Fund's (UNICEF) estimate of 36.7 per cent of young women having completed secondary schooling globally (refer to Table 6, Annex Two). Further, four of the five Caribbean Commonwealth countries achieve parity on the WEF educational attainment index, reflecting an absence of any disparity between girls and women on the one hand, and boys and men on the other, in terms of attendance in all tiers of education and literacy level outcomes (WEF 2017).

Commonwealth countries throughout the Caribbean and the Americas have among the highest levels of modern family planning availability throughout the Commonwealth. Six Commonwealth Caribbean countries report rates of satisfied demand that are above the Caribbean small states average (76.1%). These are Antigua and Barbuda (77.9%), The Bahamas (82.1%), Dominica (77.7%), Grenada (77.9%), Jamaica (83.1%), and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (79.4%). Canada leads the region, with 87.5 per cent of its demand for modern family planning methods being met.

However, five of the region's Commonwealth countries have levels of unmet demand for family planning methods that are above the small Caribbean state's average. Among these, Guyana has only six out of every ten of its women of reproductive age able to access modern family planning methods, with Trinidad and Tobago only slightly higher than this rate (63.4%). Annex Two's Table 7 details these findings.

2.4.3 Exposure to violence and access to justice

While women in the Caribbean and Americas appear to have varying secondary education opportunities and some have access to modern family planning methods, the extent to which women have protection from violence remains unclear. This is due to the fact that survey data canvassing women's lifetime experience of violence from an intimate partner are only available for women in Jamaica and Canada, together with a regional average.

These data reveal that women in Canada report experiencing by far the lowest incidence of intimate partner violence across all countries surveyed, with 6 per cent of women disclosing an experience of intimate partner violence. This figure is considerably lower than the average for all high-income countries (23.2%) and contrasts markedly with the 35 per cent of Jamaican women reporting the experience, an incidence much higher than the regional average (29.8%). Table 8, Annex One, presents the limited available data on violence experienced by women in the region.

While the extent of intimate partner violence occurring elsewhere throughout the region remains unclear, what *is* known with greater certainty is that women's secure and effective access to justice varies between being almost always observed in Canada, to being inconsistently observed throughout the Caribbean. Table 9, Annex Two, provides a historical perspective of women's access to justice in the five countries across the Caribbean and Americas for which data are available. It shows that only Jamaica is below the global average, scoring 2.46 against the world average of 2.48 on a scale of 0 (representing no access to justice) to 4 (indicating unrestricted access to justice). Lastly, two of the region's five countries participating in assessments recorded slight reversals in women's access to justice over the 1997 to 2017 period. These were Barbados and Canada.

2.4.4 Labour force participation

Women's labour force participation in Commonwealth countries in the Caribbean and Americas, with the exception of Jamaica, increased notably between 1990 and 2016. While in Jamaica, women's labour force participation decreased during this time from 76 per cent of women aged 15 and above to 74 per cent, all other

Commonwealth countries witnessed increases in women's labour force participation. In four countries, these increases were substantial, led by Belize, although from a very low base line (42% to 66%), Saint Lucia (60% to 81%), Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (55% to 73%), and Trinidad and Tobago (51% to 69%). Although most of these percentages remain quite low, the scale of increases over the 26-year period goes well beyond the Caribbean small state's average increase. Lastly, Canada's increase (76% to 87%) was also substantially above the North American average, indicating that women are now substantial but not equal contributors to Canada's economy.

2.4.5 Access to credit

Information on credit availability throughout the Caribbean and Americas, is only available for five countries, together with a set of regional averages. When examining these data, it becomes apparent that women in all five countries appear to have better access to credit than the regional average. Other notable points include:

- Higher proportions of women borrowers in Belize (15.4%), Jamaica (11.3%), Trinidad and Tobago (13.6%), and Canada (25.9%) borrow money from financial institutions compared with women from other regions reviewed in this report.
- With the exceptions of Canada (37.2%) and Trinidad and Tobago (9.6%), all other countries in the region borrow much less to establish, operate or expand a farm or business than the regional (11%) and global (9.8%) averages. Women in Belize (5.1%) and Jamaica (5.3%) have other priorities determining their borrowings. Table 11, Annex Two, presents this information in more detail.

2.4.6 Paid parental or maternity leave

In reviewing the data on Commonwealth countries across the region on paid parental or maternity leave, it appears that paid parental leave entitlements vary widely from 350 days in Canada to 56 days in Jamaica. All other Caribbean countries in the Commonwealth range from between 98 days in both Belize and Trinidad and Tobago, to 84 days in Barbados. Most of these countries are marginally below the Commonwealth's global average of 93 days. Table 12, Annex Two, lists these results.

2.4.7 Control over land holdings

Women's control over the land holdings in the agricultural sector throughout Commonwealth countries in this region ranges from a high of 30.2 per cent in Jamaica to a low of 8.1 per cent in Belize. However, the fact that the Belize data were collated in 2003 mitigates against drawing unqualified conclusions from them. Most of the other countries in the region for which data are available – with the exception of Trinidad and Tobago (14.7%) – rank just behind Jamaica. These are Saint Lucia (29.7%), Saint Kitts and Nevis (27.9%), and Canada (27.4%) (6).

All countries in the region – with the exceptions of Belize and Trinidad and Tobago – exceed the Commonwealth average of 19 per cent on this indicator. However, the results shown here, as with other regions assessed throughout this report, show a distinct lack of parity concerning women's control over the land holdings they work (see Table 13, Annex One).

2.4.8 Ownership and management of companies

Data reflecting women's ownership and management of companies in the

region have only produced a regional average rather than being available for each country within the region. This figure shows an average of 24.1 per cent of companies across the region with majority female ownership. This compares favourably with the global average (14.5%) and with the South Asia (9.6%) and sub-Saharan Africa averages (13%), although it is considerably below the East Asia and Pacific average of 28.6%.

Lastly, when data reflecting the percentage of firms with women occupying top management positions are examined, women in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines are much more likely (38.6%) to occupy such positions than women elsewhere in the Caribbean. This is the highest percentage of all countries included in the World Bank survey and is well in excess of the East Asia average (32.7%), where women do much better than their counterparts from other regions. All other Commonwealth Caribbean countries have more women in top company management positions than the regional average (21.8%), and in contrast to control of agricultural holdings, women in Belize occupy top management positions in one in every four (25.5%) Belize companies (refer to Table 4, Annex Two).

2.4.9 The economic participation and opportunity index

In contrast to all other Commonwealth regions, all Caribbean and Americas Commonwealth member countries included on this WEF index (WEF 2017) perform exceptionally well. The index is a measure of the differences between women and men in labour force participation rates, the remuneration they receive for similar work, and in their advancement to positions as legislators, senior officials, managers, and technical and professional workers (see Table 14, Annex Two).

The index reveals that two Caribbean countries, Barbados (2nd) and The Bahamas (3rd) are ranked in the top ten of the 144 countries included in the index. The remaining three Commonwealth countries from the region for which data are available are ranked within the indexes' top 40 countries. These are Belize (21st), Canada (29th) and Jamaica (39th).

The much closer proximity to parity in economic opportunities and participation afforded to women in the Commonwealth's Caribbean and Americas' countries appears consistent with the region's lack of tolerance of forced labour and its lack of restrictions on women's domestic movement, its above-average secondary school completion rates for women and lack of discrimination between the sexes in access to education, and its above-average access to family planning methods. Data on violence against women is generally unavailable, while women's access to justice across the region's countries is above the global average. Concerning economic indicators, Commonwealth countries across the region have shown substantial increases over the last 26 years in women's labour force participation and much higher uses of credit to establish or expand businesses or farms. Women in Commonwealth Caribbean and Americas' countries have reasonable rather than generous parental leave benefits, while their control over agricultural and business assets remains considerably short of parity. This suggests that while approaching parity on workplace and career advancement dimensions,

Caribbean and Americas' women still confront significant challenges in reaching full economic empowerment.

2.5 Europe

2.5.1 Constitutional rights required for economic empowerment

Women's basic rights in Europe facilitating their roles as economic agents are analysed here and detailed in Annex One's Figures 43 and 44, together with Table 5, Annex Two. From the analysis, the following points are worth mentioning:

- In Cyprus, female servitude or other kinds of forced labour exist, but they are not widespread and are usually actively opposed by Cypriot authorities or only tolerated in some geographic areas or among particular groups. In the UK, the practice was very infrequent and only evident in the criminal underground until 2012. After 2012, the practice increased, but remains infrequent.
- While data are not available from Malta, the European Alliance for Human Rights in North Korea and the *Times of Malta* reported in 2016 that around 200 North Koreans were employed primarily in the textiles manufacturing or construction industries, in spite of Malta being a signatory to European Union employment laws prohibiting forced labour (*Times of Malta* 2016).
- The majority of women in Cyprus now enjoy freedom of domestic movement. However, this increased dramatically over the 20-year period from 1997 to 2017. In fact, prior to 1973, most women in Cyprus did not enjoy freedom of domestic movement.

- In Malta, data are not available.
 However, it was only after the Beijing Conference in 1995 that gender mainstreaming began to be part of the government's discourse. From June 2000, it became adopted as government policy (National Commission for the Promotion of Equality Malta 2006). Prior to that, complete freedom of movement for all women's groups in Malta may have had a similar history to that in Cyprus.
- In the United Kingdom, freedom of domestic movement has been evident for the last 20 years.
- No Commonwealth countries in the region require wives to legally obey their husbands and each legally recognises both women and men as contributors to their families' welfare.

2.5.2 Secondary school completion and family planning

Although much higher young proportions of young women aged 20 to 24 had completed their secondary school education in the UK (63.0%) than in Cyprus (41.2%) or Malta (42.7%), the latter two countries are still above the Commonwealth average (35.3%) and the UNICEF global average (36.7%).

In addition, all three countries rank in the world's top 50 tier of countries on the WEF educational attainment index (WEF 2017), reflecting lower disparities than most other regions between girls and women on the one hand, and boys and men on the other, in attendance in all levels of education and in literacy level outcomes.

In fact, Malta has achieved parity on this measure, with the UK and Cyprus not far behind, the latter scoring 0.999 and 0.998 on the index respectively (see Table 6, Annex Two). The availability of modern family planning options follows a similar pattern, with 92.6 per cent of women in the UK being able to meet their needs, constituting the highest satisfied demand in Commonwealth countries. The corresponding figure for Malta is 69.9 per cent, much less than the global average (76%), but more than the Commonwealth (63.5%) average.

2.5.3 Exposure to violence and access to justice

Exposure to violence from intimate partners at some stage of their lives has affected 15 per cent of women in both Cyprus and Malta, considerably below the EU average (25.4%). However, in the UK, 29 per cent of women have reported exposure to violence by an intimate partner at some stage in their lives, markedly higher than the European Union average (refer to Table 8, Annex Two).

Women's access to justice, constituting another critical factor determining their consistent labour force participation, is largely available to women in the Commonwealth countries under review, with notable increases recorded in Cyprus during the last 20 years.

In the UK, women's access to justice decreased during the same period, from 3.9 to 3.57 on a scale of 0 (representing no access to justice at all) to 4 (i.e., unrestricted access to justice). Nevertheless, both Cyprus and the UK remain well above the global (2.48) and EU (3.5) averages (Table 9, Annex Two).

2.5.4 Labour force participation

In each of the three Commonwealth countries located in Europe, women's labour force participation has increased significantly. In Malta, women's labour force participation increased by a substantial 26 per cent between 1990 and 2016. However, this was from the very low base line of 38 per cent in 1990 to 64 per cent in 2016, indicating that considerable room remains for increasing participation. Indeed, Malta remains well below the 2016 European Union average of 80 per cent.

Similarly, women's workforce engagement in Cyprus increased from the higher base line of 63 per cent in 1990 to 83 per cent in 2016, while in the UK, the increase has been similar, from 70 per cent in 1990 to 83 per cent in 2016 (Table 10, Annex Two).

2.5.5 Access to credit

The increasing rates of women's workforce participation cited above could also be due, in part, to the highly entrepreneurial nature of women borrowers in these three countries. While fewer women in both Cyprus and Malta borrow money, many of those that borrow money do so to establish, operate or expand farms or businesses. In fact, women from Cyprus and Malta, together with those from the UK, comprise the largest proportions of women borrowing money for this purpose. And, as Table 11, Annex Two shows, a substantial proportion of women borrowers in these countries borrow money from financial institutions, although in smaller proportions than the European average.

Women in the UK appear to be among those throughout the Commonwealth that have the greatest access to credit, along with women from Australian and Canada. At the same time, a higher proportion of UK women (25.9% of borrowers) borrow to establish, operate or expand businesses or farms than their European counterparts (22.7%).

2.5.6 Paid parental or maternity leave

In Commonwealth countries in Europe, parental leave data indicate that women and their partners from the United Kingdom have the second highest paid parental leave entitlements of all Commonwealth countries, with 283 combined days. Women in Malta (127 days) and Cyprus (126 days) have fewer paid leave days, but all three countries exceed the Commonwealth average of 93 days by more than one calendar month (Table 12, Annex Two).

2.5.7 Control over land holdings

Women's control over the land holdings they work on ranges from 20.6 per cent of plots in Cyprus being managed by women to 13.1 per cent of plots in the UK and 11.1 per cent of Malta land holdings. With the exception of Cyprus, these compare unfavourably with a Commonwealth average of 19 per cent (see Table 13, Annex Two).

2.5.8 Ownership and management of companies

While comparable data are unavailable concerning women's ownership and management of companies in the EU, data reflecting their presence on boards of the largest publicly listed companies in each of the three countries under review, together with the European Union average, reveal the following:

• The United Kingdom is a regional leader in increasing the presence of women on the boards of the largest publicly listed companies, moving from 11.9 per cent in 2010 to 27 per cent in 2016, several percentage points above the EU average (23.9%), an average that leads the world due to Europe's adoption of quotas. The performances of both Cyprus and Malta are far behind, with Cyprus increasing from 4 per cent in 2010 to 10.8 per cent in 2016, and Malta increasing from 2.4 per cent in 2010 to only 4.5 per cent in 2016. Both countries lag far behind the EU average (23.9). Table 15, Annex Two, details these findings.

2.5.9 The economic participation and opportunity index

While the UK ranks guite highly on many of the indicators reviewed throughout this section, it does not rank as highly on the WEF's composite index (WEF 2017), which combines sex differences in labour force participation rates, remuneration for equivalent work and advancement into higher status jobs (Table 14, Annex Two). This divergence indicates that women still experience considerable labour market inequalities with men. This is consistent with findings that the UK performs poorly in enabling women to gain control over agricultural holdings and maintains some disparities in educational attainment between males and females. Although registering assessments above the EU average, the UK has worryingly reduced women's access to justice over the last 20 years, and continues to confront rates of violence against women and girls that are unacceptable. On the positive side, it has achieved generous paid parental leave provision and has more than doubled women's representation on corporate boards in the last ten years.

While both Malta and Cyprus produce above-average results on several of the indicators used throughout this section, challenges continue in terms of women's labour force participation and lack of boardroom presence, together with their absence from many of the decision-making processes and structures referred to in Section 1 of this report.

2.6 The Pacific

2.6.1 Constitutional rights required for economic empowerment

In the Commonwealth's Pacific region, women's basic rights to freedom from forced labour, freedom of domestic movement and their decision-making freedoms within marriage are now largely upheld in those countries where data are available. While Papua New Guinea, prior to 1974, and Solomon Islands between 1979 and 2005, have had periods in their histories when women were subjected to servitude or other kinds of forced labour, the practice was generally opposed by public authorities and only tolerated among particular social groups. However, in more recent decades, the practice has been largely minimised throughout the region.

Vanuatu has consistently led Commonwealth countries in the region in almost eliminating the practice. However, forced labour has risen recently in Australia and New Zealand due to sex trafficking, increasing numbers of women subjected to the practice, and unsatisfactory anti-trafficking law enforcement efforts. Figure 45, Annex One, provides an assessment of forced labour in six countries across the region during the 1997 to 2017 period.

With the exception of Solomon Islands and, more recently, Fiji, domestic movement for women (Figure 46, Annex One) has been largely unhindered. In Solomon Islands, while most women have enjoyed freedom of movement, some minorities have not. Resentment towards non-indigenous communities, particularly Asians, has led to outbreaks of periodic violence (Minority Rights Group 2018), affecting some women's freedom of movement. However, since the conclusion of the 1999–2003 ethnic civil conflict, a post-war restoration of law and order has taken place and freedom of movement for women has incrementally improved since 2004.

More recently, as with Australia and New Zealand, Fiji has also witnessed an increase in human trafficking, and particularly the sex trafficking of minors, with the authorities falling short of prevention and prosecution standards (Freedom House 2015). Figure 46, Annex One, presents these developments graphically.

Lastly, while no Commonwealth countries in the region require wives to legally obey their husbands, in Vanuatu, spouses do not have joint responsibility for maintaining the family (Table 5, Annex Two).

2.6.2 Secondary school completion and family planning

Data on young women's secondary school completion rates in the Pacific indicate varying rates among the six Commonwealth countries for which data are available. These range from Australia (78.7%), Tonga (74.9%) and Fiji (74.2%), to PNG (8.9%). In terms of educational participation and attainment ratios as measured by the WEF educational attainment index (WEF 2017), data are only available for Australia, Fiji and New Zealand. Australia's higher rate of secondary school completion is matched by its parity on educational attainment, scoring 1.0 and ranked first in the world, while New Zealand is close to parity (0.998) and Fiji is ranked just under the mid-point of the indexes' 144 countries at 71st, with a ratio of 0.991. This

suggests that boys are more prevalent in Fiji's educational institutions and lead girls in the country's literacy rates.

A similar pattern emerged in women's access to family planning methods, with New Zealand (83.8%) and Australia (83.1%) having substantial proportions of women's needs being met, while all other Pacific countries were below the Commonwealth average. Kiribati and Samoa had the lowest proportions of demand met, with just over four out of every ten women having access to modern family planning options. Tables 6 and 7, Annex Two, summarise these data.

2.6.3 Exposure to violence and access to justice

Women from Pacific island countries belonging to the Commonwealth have been subjected to the highest rates of intimate partner violence in the world (Table 8, Annex Two). Extraordinarily high proportions of women in Kiribati (68%), Fiji and Solomon Islands (both 64%) and Vanuatu (60%) have reported intimate partner violence at some stage of their lives, reflecting deeplyembedded violent behaviours by men towards women across the region.

Together, these challenges represent structural barriers to women's entry and secure continuation in the workforce and, in turn, prevent them achieving economic empowerment.

When exploring women's capacity to access justice to respond to this and other security threats they face, it becomes apparent that women in Papua New Guinea have little effective access to justice. Women's access to justice elsewhere in the region, with the exceptions of Australia and New Zealand, has been observed only inconsistently. In most Pacific Commonwealth countries, minor problems appear to characterise most cases within the system, although all countries have been assessed as performing above the global average, with the notable exception of Papua New Guinea, where women's access to justice is severely compromised. Lastly, all countries, barring Australia and New Zealand, have seen incremental improvements to women's access to justice in the 20 years covered by this measure. Table 9, Annex Two, summarises these findings.

2.6.4 Labour force participation

A review of women's labour force participation rates throughout the region reveals the following points of interest:

- An apparent distinction between small island Pacific states and larger, more developed economies, such as Australia and New Zealand. In the latter two economies, growth in women's workforce participation has been much more pronounced, with Australia recording a 15 per cent increase and New Zealand a 13 per cent increase between 1990 and 2016.
- In contrast, the Commonwealth's small island Pacific states have recorded only marginal increases. This is exemplified by Papua New Guinea, where the increase was from 96 per cent to 97 per cent. The largest of these increases was in Tonga, moving from a very low base of 48 per cent in 1990 to 61 per cent of women being engaged in the labour force by 2016. In all other small island states, increases were in fact less than the small island state average. This average showed a 60 to 66 per cent increase between 1990 and 2016 of female workforce participants.
- Vanuatu recorded the region's only decrease in women's labour force participation: a marginal decrease from 78 per cent to 77 per cent over

the survey's 26-year period. Table 10, Annex Two, details these increases.

2.6.5 Access to credit

As noted throughout this report, one important determinant of women's labour force participation is the availability of credit. While data on credit access are available for Australia and New Zealand, survey data from the World Bank are unavailable for the Pacific's small island states. However, some data have been produced by Women's World Banking (2013) for Papua New Guinea and Samoa, reflecting some of the issues confronting women seeking to engage as entrepreneurs in island and regional economies. From these data, a number of points emerge concerning women's access to credit in the Pacific region. These are:

- New Zealand and Australian women are the second and third highest borrowers respectively of money across all Commonwealth countries. after Canada, However, New Zealand women have the highest proportion of borrowers organising their loans through financial institutions, with 30 per cent of borrowers as compared to only 20 per cent of Australian women. One in every two Australian women borrowers borrow money to establish, operate of expand a farm or business enterprise, while a much smaller proportion of New Zealand women borrow for this purpose.
- In the Pacific's small island states such as Papua New Guinea and Samoa, the availability of credit is, in contrast, severely limited. In PNG, for example, women confront a number of structural barriers including the high costs, limited access and the complexity of formal banking, leading to negative attitudes about bank fees. Women's low levels of financial literacy and low awareness

of banking choices and how to use a loan, as well as their limited understanding of interest rates, make borrowing money a daunting and risky process. Informal borrowing options are considered to be high risk, with lending rates of between 40 to 50 per cent being common.

- In Samoa, women confront a number of structural barriers including a small financial services sector with limited opportunities for women to access loans and savings accounts. The banking sector has not made significant efforts towards financial inclusion beyond salaried workers, meaning that low-income women do not use financial services to improve their situation. Informal borrowing can be an alternative and is generally interest-free between family, friends and neighbours.
- Village-based women's committees (Komiti) also lend informally to members of the group at a rate of 20–30 per cent per fortnight. Informal borrowing is not very common in Samoa, because income shortfalls are more likely to be met through contributions from the extended family (Women's World Banking 2013).
- Given some of the historical, economic, social and cultural similarities that PNG and Samoa share with their small Pacific island neighbours, it is much more likely that the PNG and Samoa examples are representative throughout the Pacific's small island states than those from Australian and New Zealand.

2.6.6 Paid parental or maternity leave

When the amount of time provided for women and their partners for parental or maternity leave is examined across the region, it appears that the amount of time available to women appears, as is often the case, to be a function of the size of a country's economy. The larger economies of Australia and New Zealand are able to provide longer parental leave periods – 136 and 126 days respectively – than the region's small island economies, three of which provide no parental leave at all. These are Papua New Guinea, Tonga, and Tuvalu. The two remaining countries for which data are available, i.e., Fiji and Solomon Islands, each provide women with up to 84 days paid parental leave. Table 12, Annex Two, details these findings.

The fact that Fiji and Solomon Islands have small-scale economies, and the fact that the world's largest economy – the United States – has no paid parental leave (7), indicates that the issue is much more a function of political will rather than an economy's capacity to pay. In turn, a key factor determining political will is likely to be the public acceptance of the benefits to the economy stemming from the social, psychological and preventive health benefits of paid parental leave (Brown and Overlaid 2017).

2.6.7 Control over land holdings

The extent to which women control the land they are farming is difficult to assess in the Pacific, due to the lack of data available in Commonwealth countries. World Bank data are only available for Fiji and Samoa's agricultural sectors. In Fiji, only 3.6 per cent of farming enterprises are managed by women, representing the lowest proportion in all Commonwealth countries for which data are available.

This is undoubtedly a function of Fiji's highly patriarchal social structure. The Fijian government submitted in its 2012 report to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) committee that rural women were the major subsistence and semi-subsistence agricultural producers in Fiji. The survey results suggest that Fijian women do more routine agricultural work than men, with their workloads typically including subsistence cultivation and market gardening (We are women in Asia and the Pacific 2018). However, women contributors comprise 19 per cent of paid farm labourers and 29 per cent of unpaid farm labourers. That men control 96.4 per cent of agricultural holdings indicates a severe imbalance between contributions and management functions.

In Samoa, women manage 22.9 per cent of agricultural holdings, a figure more in line with other Commonwealth countries which, taken together, average 19 per cent of plots managed by women.

2.6.8 Ownership and management of companies

While the data reflecting women's majority ownership of companies in the Pacific are limited, there are proxy measures of this in the form of data on women's participation in ownership structures. These data reveal that each of the six Commonwealth Pacific countries for which data are available have a substantially higher proportion of firms with female participation in the firm's ownership than the global average.

Samoa leads the results on this measure, with 79.8 per cent of the country's firms comprising some female presence in the firm's ownership. Tonga (65.3%) has the next highest result, followed by Fiji (49.1%), Solomon Islands (47.7%) and Papua New Guinea (46.5%). While the data provide no indication of how much female ownership in these companies exits, the fact that these country proportions are well above the global average (34.9%) suggests than female presence in ownership structures is common throughout the Pacific. Data reflecting women's presence in top management positions in the private sector throughout the region indicate that Samoa heads *all* Commonwealth countries, with an extraordinary 60 per cent of leadership positions in the Samoan private sector occupied by women.

The next highest placed country in the region is Tonga, with 14 per cent, followed by Australia (13%), Fiji (11%), Vanuatu (8%) and Nauru with 0 per cent (Boardwalk Leadership 2017). The success of Samoan women leaders in the private sector suggests that other Pacific countries may have lessons they can learn from the Samoan context; a context that seems likely to reflect women's higher education attainment levels than men, referred to in Section 1.7.

2.6.9 The economic participation and opportunity index

Only three countries from the Commonwealth's Pacific region are included in the WEF economic participation and opportunity index, combining sex differences in labour force participation rates, remuneration for equivalent work, and differences in advancement into higher status. The lack of countries from the region being included makes drawing regional conclusions on the indexes' results difficult. Of the three countries included, New Zealand achieves the highest ranking, i.e., 23rd with an index score of 0.769, considerably higher than Australia's 42nd ranking and score of 0.724. Fiji is positioned at 127th with a score of 0.479.

These scores indicate that while Australia does well on a number of indicators, most notably secondary school completion for girls, women's access to and use of credit, its paid parental leave provision, its reasonable performance on women's labour force participation and its encouraging progress on women's representation on corporate boards, it falls short of parity on some of these and other measures. Meanwhile, on labour market and gender equality indicators, particularly those concerning women's involvement in political decision-making, New Zealand is closer to parity, explaining why New Zealand scores much higher on the economic participation and opportunity index (Table 14, Annex Two).

In most Pacific island countries, notwithstanding some very high ranking results in education attainment, freedom from forced labour, freedom of domestic movement and women's ownership of firms, women struggle to gain access to credit to establish their own businesses and are generally excluded from political decision-making at all levels, despite a pre-colonial history of assuming leadership positions in their communities. Their experience of violence is incomparably high, while their access to family planning options is often very low. These and other barriers result in Pacific island women facing formidable challenges in achieving political and economic empowerment.

2.7 Section summary and conclusions: women's economic empowerment

Basic human rights deficits preventing women's economic empowerment

This section began by covering a number of crucial barriers preventing

women's economic empowerment, including the prevalence of women in forced labour and women experiencing restrictions in their domestic movement. Commonwealth countries in which women are most subjected to these practices include eSwatini, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Tanzania. eSwatini also ranks among the worst in the world concerning women's lack of domestic movement, while India and Pakistan, although both limiting women's freedom of domestic movement, have recently improved on this measure.

Lastly, in Brunei Darussalam and Malaysia, wives are legally required to obey their husbands, while in six Commonwealth countries, spouses do not jointly share legal responsibility for maintaining their families, creating potential restrictions on women's capacities to be selfdetermining economic agents.

Basic services supporting women's labour market participation

The section next looked at Commonwealth countries' records on girls completing secondary school, the extent to which women can meet their family planning needs, their exposure to violence and their access to justice: all key determinants influencing their capacity to participate in the labour force.

Girls' secondary school completion rates varied markedly across the Commonwealth: from the highest rates of 78.7 per cent and 78 per cent respectively in Australia and South Africa, closely followed by Tonga (74.9%), Fiji (74.2%) and Trinidad and Tobago (71.7%), to a cluster of countries with exceedingly low rates. These were The Gambia, with only 3% of girls completing secondary school, followed closely by Mozambique (4.4%), Uganda (4.7%), Tanzania (6.2%) and PNG (8.9%).

Indeed, 15 other Commonwealth countries fell below the global average (36.7%), making a total of 20 of 53 Commonwealth countries failing to provide large proportions of girls with the educational background necessary to be able to access the formal job market.

Those Commonwealth countries that were unable to adequately support girls in completing their secondary education, also struggled to provide women with adequate access to modern family planning options. Cameroon, Botswana, Ghana and Nigeria also fell short of adequate access to and use of family planning methods, as did the Pacific island countries, excluding Australia, New Zealand and Fiji.

Women's experience of violence and access to justice

A number of African countries, including Cameroon, Kenya, Malawi, Namibia, Rwanda, Uganda, Tanzania, and Zambia, together with Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, the UK and the Pacific island countries confront serious challenges in eliminating intimate partner violence, a severe challenge to women entering or maintaining a productive place in the workforce.

For those countries where women have poor access to justice as well, such as Kenya, Zambia, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Papua New Guinea, these challenges are likely to be further confounded. Factors such as these, together with the corruption that women are required to deal with in establishing or expanding a business enterprise (UNIFEM 2010), play an important role in denying many women their full potential to achieve economic empowerment.

Women's labour force participation and key factors facilitating this

Women's participation in the labour force is a clear measure of the extent to which women are being economically empowered. In many cases, Commonwealth countries have seen progress in women's increasing participation in the labour market. Some countries have 100 per cent or very close to this figure of women engaged in the labour market's formal or informal sectors. Among these are Mozambigue, Rwanda and Sierra Leone.

At the other end of the spectrum, several countries have very poor female labour market participation rates, such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, Belize, Guyana, Malta, Fiji, Samoa and Tonga, while others have seen deceases in women's labour force participation between 1990 and 2016. These are Vanuatu, Jamaica, Sri Lanka, India, Tanzania, Lesotho and Malawi.

Women's access to credit, predictably, depended on the region they populated. In Africa and Asia, access to credit is poor, with women tending to borrow money from sources apart from financial institutions, and lower proportions of women borrowing to establish, operate or expand a business or farm.

In Pakistan, for example, only 1.5 per cent of women borrowing money did so from a financial institution, while only 0.5 per cent did so to establish, operate or expand a business or farm. Sri Lanka is the only exception to the above rule, comprising one of the few developing countries in the Commonwealth to exceed the global averages in accessing credit from a financial institution to establish, operate or expand a business or farm. All other Commonwealth countries exceeding the global averages were high-income countries where women's access to credit is strongly marketed.

Women's access to paid parental leave followed a similar pattern, with high-income countries such as Canada and the UK leading Commonwealth countries in the number of paid parental leave days women benefit from. Only a handful of countries exceeded the Commonwealth average for paid parental days, indicating the figure is distorted by high-income countries providing large numbers of paid parental leave days. Notwithstanding this, the average was exceeded by Bangladesh, Belize, Cameroon, The Gambia, India, Kenya, Mauritius and Seychelles, together with the high-income countries referred to, indicating that political will is an important factor in determining the availability of paid parental leave. This is exemplified by The Gambia, which has the third highest ranking in the Commonwealth, more than more doubling the Commonwealth average. This offers a dramatic contrast to its lower rankings on many of the other measures reported above, demonstrating that encouraging women to remain in the workforce is a priority that low-income countries can adopt and ultimately benefit from economically, via women's improved workplace productivity.

Women's agricultural land holdings, their ownership and management of businesses

Women's positions in the agriculture sector show, as noted in the final

section on gender and climate change, that very small minorities of women have control over the land that they cultivate or run livestock on. The country with the highest proportion of women controlling the land they work on is Botswana, with 34.7 per cent, contrasting with the majority of Commonwealth countries where women manage less than 25 per cent of agricultural holdings.

This pattern is repeated with respect to women's majority ownership and occupancy of positions as top managers of companies. South Asian countries are considerably below the world average for women's majority ownership of companies, with Bangladesh occupying the lowest ranking, with 1.7 per cent of companies featuring majority female ownership. India is next lowest, with 2.8 per cent. Pakistan also has a low ranking, with only 8 per cent of its companies being majority owned by women. The highest ranking country is Cameroon, with 31 per cent of its companies controlled by women, followed by Lesotho with 25 per cent. This is still very far from parity.

Almost identical patterns reflect women in top management positions, with East Asia and Pacific region countries substantially ahead of their South Asia and Africa counterparts, but falling considerably short of parity. This reflects a similar phenomenon concerning women in leadership positions in company boardrooms, reported in Section 1 of this report.

Endnotes

- 1 This average includes both Commonwealth and non-Commonwealth countries.
- 2 The issue of violence perpetrated by non-intimate people will be dealt with in Section 4 of this report, covering the theme of ending violence against women and girls.
- 3 These are defined by the International Labour Organization (ILO) as: the proportion of the population ages 15 and older that is economically active; all people who supply labour for the production of goods and services during a specified period. Rates are calculated annually. The 'labour force' is defined as the supply of labour available for producing goods and services in an economy. It includes people who are currently employed and people who are unemployed but seeking work, as well as first-time job-seekers. Not everyone who works is included, however. Unpaid workers, family workers and students are often omitted, and some countries do

not count members of the armed forces. Labour force size tends to vary during the year as seasonal workers enter and leave. The series is part of the ILO estimates and is harmonised to ensure comparability across countries and over time by accounting for differences in data source, scope of coverage, methodology and other country-specific factors. The estimates are based mainly on nationally representative labour force surveys, with other sources (population censuses and nationally reported estimates) used only when no survey data are available.

4 The agricultural holder has technical and economic responsibility for the holding. An agricultural holding is an economic unit of agricultural production under single management comprising all livestock kept and all land used wholly or partly for agricultural production purposes, without regard to title, legal form or size. The holder may also be the owner of the holding, but not necessarily so. While agricultural holdings typically are land holdings, they may also comprise other agricultural production resources and in some cases only non-land resources. The data are collected through national agricultural censuses.

- 5 These data include those collected by the OECD and the WHO, and those presented in a separate WHO report looking at violence against women and girls in Bangladesh, Brazil, Japan, Namibia, Peru, Samoa, Thailand, the United Republic of Tanzania, Ethiopia, New Zealand, Serbia and Montenegro, Chile, China, Indonesia and Vietnam.
- 6 The fact that these data were collected by Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) in the years 2000 to 2011 indicates that the data should not be seen as conclusive.
- 7 The United States has provision under the 1993 Family Medical Leave Act for unpaid leave for 12 weeks covering just 60 per cent of the workforce, due to the fact that only full-time workers with at least 1,250 hours worked in the previous year at companies with more than 50 employees are eligible.

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WHO (2017), 'Violence against women', Factsheet, WHO, Geneva, available at: http://www.who.int/ mediacentre/factsheets/fs239/ en/ (accessed April 2018). Chapter 3 Ending Violence Against Women and Girls

3.1 Introduction

Violence against women and girls is a widespread global problem, with 35 per cent of women and girls over the age of 15 experiencing physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner at least once in their lifetime (WHO 2017). However, the level of violence varies greatly between and within countries. A brief review of intimate partner violence experienced by women and girls aged 15 years and over and its potential to negatively impact on women playing a productive role in the workforce comprised part of this report's preceding section on women's economic empowerment. The review referred to levels of violence perpetrated by intimate partners affecting, according to the data, women ranging from 68 per cent in Kiribati to 6 per cent of women in Canada.

This section of the report will investigate several dimensions of violence against women and girls for which comparative data are available, beginning with female genital mutilation or cutting (FGM/C), violent forms of discipline and child marriage. It will also review data available on girls aged 15 to 19 reporting forced sex before turning 18, and the experiences of married or co-habiting girls dealing with emotional, physical or sexual violence committed by an intimate partner during the last 12 months. It will then examine attitudes towards husbands or partners beating their spouses held by both males and females aged between 15 and 49, as an important dimension explaining to some extent why violence towards women and girls is tolerated in some communities.

The section will then conclude with a review of the opportunities for women to participate as leaders in ending violence against women and girls in conflict settings throughout the Commonwealth and beyond. This is a response to UN Security Council Resolution 1325 and the six subsequent UN Security Council Resolutions addressing the issue of women in peacebuilding and ways of addressing violence against women and girls in conflict. It is also an important part of meeting Agenda 2030's SDGs 3, 5, 10 and 15 on securing healthy lives, empowering women and girls, overcoming inequities, and ensuring their participation in decision-making at all levels.

Lastly, the lack of systematically collected data on violence against women and girls, although being slowly corrected in recent years, remains a challenge in providing a detailed, holistic and global view of the problem and the effective solutions being implemented in response to it.

3.2 Africa

3.2.1 Female genital mutilation/cutting

Female genital mutilation or cutting comprises 'procedures involving partial or total removal of the female external genitalia or other injury to the female genital organs for non-medical reasons' (WHO 2008) and constitutes a violation of girls' and women's human rights. It produces serious physical and mental health risks for girls and women (1). UNICEF estimates that at least 200 million girls and women have been cut in 30 countries for which representative and comparable data are available. While there has been an overall decline in its prevalence over the last three decades, not all countries have made progress, and the pace of decline has, according to UNICEF, been uneven.

Data collected between 2010 and 2016 on FGM/C across six Commonwealth countries indicate that the incidence affecting girls aged from 0 to 14, as reported by their mothers, varies dramatically. In The Gambia, the practice has been widespread, reaching 56 per cent of girls aged 0 to 14 years in 2010. However, more recent developments reported in The Gambia's Upper River region have decreased its incidence considerably (International IDEA 2013). The next highest African country reporting FGM/C was Nigeria, with the practice affecting 25 per cent of its 0 to 14-year-old population.

Other Commonwealth African countries reporting FGM/C affecting the 0 to 14-year age group included Kenya (3%), Ghana and Uganda (both 1%) and Tanzania (0.4%). Table 16, Annex Two, presents these data, disaggregated by location and wealth group. When reviewing data on the experience of girls and women aged between 15 and 49, again, the majority of women in The Gambia (75%) have been subjected to FGM/C. In Sierra Leone, nine in every ten girls and women in this age range have been affected. Substantial proportions of girls and women have also reported experiencing FGM/C in Kenya (21%), Nigeria (18%) and Tanzania (10%). Table 17, Annex Two, provides these results.

3.2.2 Violent discipline

Violent discipline, whether physical or psychological, and carried out at home, in schools or by caregivers in a range of settings is, according to UNICEF (2017e), the most common form of violence that children experience. It estimates that three out of every four children – or close to 300 million children globally – experience violent discipline by their caregivers on a regular basis.

In Commonwealth countries throughout Africa, girls' experience of violent discipline is generally the same as boys and, with the exception of Malawi, higher than that experienced by girls in countries from other regions for which data are available. Malawi registers the lowest proportion of girls reporting violent discipline among Commonwealth African countries at 72 per cent. Although very high, this is substantially lower than Ghana (94%), The Gambia (91%), Nigeria (90%) and eSwatini (88%). Data for other Commonwealth African countries on violent discipline are unavailable (see Table 18, Annex Two).

3.2.3 Child marriage

Marriage or cohabitation before the age of 18 is a violation of children's rights, as specified in a number of international conventions. The practice predominantly affects girls, placing them at risk of health problems from early pregnancy and, in turn, often compromising a girl's development, leading to her social isolation. It also interrupts her schooling, limiting her opportunities for career and vocational advancement, and places her at increased risk of domestic violence.

Globally, levels of child marriage are highest in sub-Saharan Africa, where around four in ten young women are married before age 15. In African countries belonging to the Commonwealth, Nigeria has the highest proportion (18%) of girls who are married before turning 15 years of age, followed by Mozambique (14%) and Sierra Leone (13%), all exceeding the sub-Saharan average of 12 per cent. Uganda (10%), Malawi (9%), Zambia (6%), Tanzania (5%) and Kenya (4%) also register significant rates, assuming zero tolerance is adopted as the standard. Several other countries are listed in Table 19, Annex Two, as registering between 1 per cent and 2 per cent of girls being subjected to child marriage.

When it comes to the child marriage of girls prior to 18 years of age in Commonwealth countries, the proportions of affected girls are considerably higher. Women and girls most afflicted by early marriage are those in Nigeria and Malawi, recording 44 per cent and 42 per cent respectively, followed by Uganda (40%) and Sierra Leone (39%); all these countries record rates above the sub-Saharan average (38%). The 11 other Commonwealth countries in Africa registering rates below the sub-Saharan average are also listed with the above in Table 19 Annex Two

3.2.4 Girls experiencing forced sex

Sexual violence against children encompasses both sexual exploitation and sexual abuse of children. It often occurs with other forms of violence and can range from direct physical contact to unwanted exposure to sexual language and images.

Although children of every age are susceptible, adolescence is a period of pronounced vulnerability, especially for girls. Globally, UNICEF estimates that around 15 million adolescent girls aged 15 to 19 have experienced forced sex in their lifetime (UNICEF 2017d) (2).

In Commonwealth countries in Africa, nearly one in every four girls (23%) in Cameroon have reported experiencing forced sex at some stage of their lives. In Uganda, 19 per cent of girls have reported the experience, followed by Ghana (17%), Rwanda (15%), Malawi (14%) and Tanzania (11%). Seven other Commonwealth countries have girls reporting such abuse, as detailed in Table 20, Annex Two.

3.2.5 Girls experiencing intimate partner violence

Intimate partner violence includes any physical, sexual or emotional abuse perpetrated by a current or former partner taking place in marriage, cohabitation or any other formal or informal union. Although both girls and boys can be victims, girls are at greater risk. UNICEF notes that in three quarters of countries with data, at least one in five adolescent girls has been the victim of recent intimate partner violence (UNICEF 2017f).

In Commonwealth countries in Africa, six in every ten Namibian women have experienced physical, sexual or emotional violence from an intimate partner within the last 12 months. As with girls reporting forced sex, Cameroon also has a comparatively high rate (43%) of intimate partner violence, as do Uganda (42%), Tanzania (40%), Ghana (35%), Mozambique (35%), Zambia (33%), Malawi (32%) and Sierra Leone (31%). Four other countries are listed in Table 21, Annex Two, registering rates below the Commonwealth average (30%) but above a zero-tolerance standard.

3.2.6 Attitudes towards intimate partner violence

In certain cultures, some people may consider violence as an acceptable way of dealing with or resolving conflict, and this may in turn assist in establishing underlying causes of violence, together with more effective ways of preventing it.

This section reviews the responses from men and boys, followed by those of women and girls, aged 15 to 49 years from Commonwealth countries when asked whether or not a husband was justified in hitting or beating his wife or partner for at least one of several specified reasons. The reasons given were: 'that his wife/partner burns the food, argues with him, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses sexual relations'.

Men and boys responded 'yes' to the question in percentages ranging from 44 per cent in Uganda, 40 per cent in Lesotho and Tanzania, and 39 per cent in Cameroon, to a much lower 13 per cent in Malawi. Men and boys from the remaining Commonwealth countries surveyed were all clustered around the sub-Saharan average of 34 per cent, as detailed in Table 22, Annex Two. Malawi's status as a unique outlier warrants further investigation for those seeking to replicate these results elsewhere.

Lastly, the attitudes of girls and women reflected in their answers to the same question are especially noteworthy (Table 23, Annex Two). With the exception of two countries - Cameroon and Lesotho - girls and women in Commonwealth Africa had much higher percentages of 'yes' responders than men and boys to the question of whether or not a husband was justified in hitting or beating his wife for the reasons cited. Sierra Leone (63%), The Gambia and Tanzania (both 58%) were well above the sub-Saharan average (48%), while Malawi, consistent with the result for men and boys, registered only 16 per cent of female 'yes' responders, a result again warranting further investigation by policy reformers and others.

The generally higher percentages recorded here from girls and women is repeated in other regions, suggesting that women and girls' attitudes towards intimate partner violence deserve as careful attention as those of men and boys. Section 3.7 refers to some of the reasons likely to explain this apparent anomaly; reasons that are associated with the strong traditional cultural prescriptions determining that a woman's role is limited to housekeeping, and one where a wife is expected to ask a husband's permission before leaving the house or simply to never argue. The same prescriptions appear to expect that it is within a man's role to hit his wife for violating the rules. In such cases, intimate partner violence will, to many people, seem normal.

3.2.7 Women's leadership in peacebuilding and peacemaking

One very important strategy in changing a community's attitudes to violence against women and girls is for girls, boys and others to see women and men as positive models in preventing violence or in managing it when it takes place. Involving women as leaders in not only peacebuilding at the community level, which is increasingly the case, but importantly, as peacemakers at the national level is an important way that attitudes will change towards the violence against women and girls that is often viewed as 'normal' or acceptable behaviour. Indeed, there is general consensus in the literature on gender and conflict that conflict has the potential to transform gender relations, creating opportunities for women to challenge restrictive gender roles and assume leadership positions (International IDEA 2015).

This dimension of women's leadership also has critical implications for ending violence against women and girls in a very practical way, as women often play important roles as not only peacebuilders, but also as important actors in conflict itself. These involve women as peace 'spoilers', i.e., as combatants, provocateurs, intelligence operatives and informants. Women play other active roles in conflict as auxiliary personnel, protectors of those targeted by the conflict, communicators and fundraisers. However, women's roles in the conflict itself are often trivialised or downplayed (3).

Historically, women's participation as leaders in peace process negotiating teams has been negligible, and Africa has been no exception. The UN has noted that between 1992 and 2011, women's engagement in nationallevel negotiations in Sierra Leone i.e., the Lomé Peace Agreement, was zero. In Burundi's Arusha Peace and Reconciliation Agreement, women comprised 2 per cent of negotiators, in Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) during the Sun City Agreement, women constituted 12 per cent of negotiators, and during the Darfur Peace Agreement negotiations in Abuja, 8 per cent of participants were women. Lastly, in Uganda's Juba Peace Agreement, 9 per cent of negotiators were women (UN Women 2012).

However, recent initiatives, consistent with SDGs 5, 10 and 15, and UN Security Council Resolution 1325, appear to be prioritising women's involvement as leaders in peacemaking at the national level. Specifically, these include National Plans of Action, such as the Namibia Plan of Action on 'Mainstreaming a Gender Perspective in Multidimensional Peace Support Operations', calling for greater representation of women in national decision-making, especially in prevention and resolution of conflict (4). Such initiatives are producing a greater likelihood of successful outcomes in both their effectiveness in resolving conflicts and the sustainability of such outcomes (SIDA 2017).

This recent trend to involve women in peacemaking is partly due to the adoption of international frameworks for more inclusive peacebuilding and, importantly, national initiatives such as the Namibian example above.

Indeed, the number of countries creating national strategies to advance women's participation as leaders in peace and security processes has tripled globally since 2010, advancing from 18 to more than 60 (Amling and O'Reilly 2016). This development signals an important change in addressing the historical deficit concerning women's engagement as leaders in peacemaking at the national and regional levels. One example of this development took place in Sierra Leone and is featured in Box 3.1.

BOX 3.1

WOMEN'S ROLE IN THE SIERRA LEONE PEACE NEGOTIATIONS

After the National Action Plan for the Full Implementation of UN Security Council Resolutions 1325 and 1820 (SiLNAP) was launched in 2010, implementation commenced in 2012 – but stalled significantly after two years due to the Ebola outbreak.

Despite the plan establishing structures enhancing women's protection and inclusion as change-makers in peace and security, women tended to be treated more as victims than leaders and mobilisers during Ebola, and rescue packages did not target them effectively. As the government called upon the military to support response efforts, women at the community level mobilised – much like during the civil war –and combatted widespread mistrust in the military by raising awareness about Ebola and its prevention, helping to slow transmission rates.

In 2017, as the country continued to emerge from the crisis, talks began on updating the existing plan and integrating emerging challenges and lessons learned on new security threats like Ebola. There is also general agreement to localise the next SiLNAP more thoroughly at the district and chiefdom levels, to optimise women's engagement as leaders and build on the previous plan's local engagement structures (Amling and O'Reilly 2016).

3.3 Asia

3.3.1 Female genital mutilation/cutting

A great deal of attention has been given to FGM/C taking place in countries located from Africa's Atlantic coast to the Horn of Africa, in areas of the Middle East such as Iraq and Yemen, and in some countries in Asia, most notably in Indonesia. However, evidence suggests that FGM/C also exists in other Asian countries such as Brunei Darussalam, India, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand. Anecdotal and small-scale research has also noted the problem in Colombia. Iraq (including Kurdistan), Oman, Russia (Dagestan), Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates. The Orchid Project collates information on FGM/C in all affected countries, including countries hosting refugees (Orchid Project 2018), immigrants and diaspora from FGM/ C-practicing countries. With migration, FGM/C has become an issue in Europe and North America, as well as Australia and New Zealand. The existence of FGM/C in many non-African countries underlines the importance of extending comparative data collection to all countries reporting the problem (5).

3.3.2 Violent discipline

The lack of data on FGM/C in Asia also extends to violent discipline, although UNICEF has collected data on the issue for two Asian countries belonging to the Commonwealth: Bangladesh and Malaysia. UNICEF's research suggests that violence against children is widespread across the East Asia–Pacific region, with 17–35 per cent prevalence for both boys and girls in low- and lower middle-income countries and lower prevalence rates (1–13%) in upper middle-income and high-income countries. Fairly consistent findings across the region highlight the fact that nearly three out of every four children experience violent discipline. In Bangladesh, this figure is much higher for girls aged between two and fourteen years of age, 82 per cent of whom have experienced violent discipline, including psychological aggression and/or physical punishment, as reported by primary caregivers. In Malaysia, the corresponding figure is considerably less, with 67 per cent of girls experiencing discipline in a violent form. Table 18, Annex Two, presents these data.

3.3.3 Child marriage

South Asia has the highest prevalence of child marriage in the world, with just under one in every two girls being married before 18 years of age and 17 per cent of girls married by the age of 15. Bangladesh has the highest child marriage rate in the region, with 22 per cent of girls being married by the age of 15 and 59 per cent of girls being married by the age of 18.

Among other Commonwealth countries for which there are data, India has the next highest rate of 7 per cent of girls being married by the age of 15 and 21 per cent being married by age 18, followed by Pakistan with 3 per cent of its girls being married by age 15 and 21 per cent of girls being married by the age of 18.

Lastly, Sri Lanka has recorded 2 per cent of its girls being married by 15 years of age, and 12 per cent being married by the age of 18.

However, the trend in South Asia over recent decades is that the practice is decreasing. In Pakistan, for example, the percentage of women who were married by age 15 decreased from 10 per cent to 2 per cent among those age 15–19 (Girls Not Brides 2016). Table 19, Annex Two, details this information, while Box 3.2 outlines the drivers determining the practice in South Asia (ibid).

3.3.4 Girls experiencing forced sex

A 2013 UN study of 10,000 men in Asia and the Pacific found that overall, nearly half of those men interviewed reported using physical and/or sexual violence against a female partner – ranging from 26 to 80 per cent across the locations studied. Nearly one quarter of men interviewed reported perpetrating rape against a woman or girl, and this ranged from 10 to 62 per cent in the study's locations. These locations included Bangladesh, Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Papua New Guinea.

Of those men who had admitted rape, the vast majority – between 72 and 97 per cent in most study locations – did not experience any legal consequences, confirming that impunity remains a serious problem in the region.

The most common motivation that the men cited for rape, including over 80 per cent of men admitting rape from rural Bangladesh locations, was related to sexual entitlement: a belief that men have a right to sex with women regardless of consent (UN Women Asia and the Pacific 2013).

UNICEF data from two Commonwealth countries on girls' experience of forced sex at some stage during their lives confirm the widespread extent of the problem in Bangladesh, with 20 per cent of girls aged 15 to 19 years reporting the experience. In India, the proportion was significantly lower at 5 per cent of girls reporting forced sex, but nonetheless widespread given the sheer numbers of girls affected (see Table 20, Annex Two).

BOX 3.2 THE DRIVERS OF CHILD MARRIAGE IN SOUTH ASIA

Child marriage in South Asia is rooted in gender inequality. Girls are primarily expected to become wives and mothers and have limited educational or employment opportunities. Control of female sexuality and fear of sexual violence also underlie the practice.

Poverty is a factor too. Girls from poorer families are more likely to marry young than girls from wealthier backgrounds. Many families in South Asia do not see the value in sending girls to school, which can be of poor quality and offer few economic prospects.

Social norms that value boys more than girls mean that parents do not invest in their daughters' health and education, with child marriage as the only alternative.

At the same time dowries – where a girl's family is expected to pay the groom in money, goods or property upon marriage – can drive child marriage too. The younger a girl is, the less dowry is demanded from parents, which gives them an incentive to marry their daughters at a younger age (Girls Not Brides 2016).

3.3.5 Girls experiencing intimate partner violence

UNICEF estimates that in most countries producing comparable data, one in five adolescent girls report experiencing recent intimate partner violence, whether it be physical, sexual or emotional. This is highly evident in the three Asian Commonwealth counties for which data are available. In fact, Bangladesh again far exceeds the UNICEF estimate, with 36 per cent of 15- to 19-year-old girls reporting intimate partner violence. India (29%) and Pakistan (25%) also register responses from girls exceeding the UNICEF estimate, although the India and Pakistan rates are marginally below the Commonwealth country average of 30 per cent. Table 21, Annex Two, provides data for each of the Commonwealth countries for which data are available.

3.3.6 Attitudes towards intimate partner violence

This section reviews the responses of men and boys on the one hand, and women and girls on the other, to the question asking whether or not a husband was justified in hitting or beating his wife for at least one of the reasons specified in the preceding section (6). When reviewing responses to the above question by sex across the three Commonwealth countries producing data (see Tables 22 and 23, Annex Two), several key points emerge. These are:

- As with most Commonwealth countries in Africa cited in Section
 3.2.6 above, women supported wife beating more than men, particularly in Pakistan, but also in India.
 Bangladesh was an exception, with
 8 per cent fewer women approving wife beating than men; i.e., 36 per cent of men supported wife beating, while 28 per cent of women did so.
- In all three countries, rural men and women supported the practice much more than their urban counterparts. This was particularly so among rural women.
- A notable correlation was evident with wealth. Poorer people, whether male or female, condoned wife beating much more than wealthier people.

3.3.7 Women's leadership in peacemaking

This final section deals with a priority requirement for ending violence against women and girls. That is, the involvement of women in peacemaking at the national level, rather than the peacebuilding work alone that many women are already effectively engaged in at the community level.

This is needed to redress the fact that in the Asia region, women are typically excluded from decisionmaking concerning responses to conflict, including violent extremism and terrorism.

There is also a strong gender stereotype that women, especially as mothers and family members, are inherent peacebuilders, and therefore less likely to be involved as key players themselves in violent conflict. However, this is clearly not case. Women are in fact participating as agents in violent conflict after being recruited to rebel and extremist groups across Asia (International IDEA 2015). One example of this comes from the Maoist insurgency in India, the details of which are presented in Box 3.3. Women have great potential from their positions in political groups and religious communities to be able to prevent or counter violent extremism and terrorism (True 2016).

BOX 3.3 WOMEN IN INDIA'S MAOIST REBEL GROUP

In India, the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and more recently the *Hindustan Times* have reported on India's Maoist rebel groups increasingly hiring more women for their operations. Women join the Maoists because of the desperate conditions prevailing in India's rural areas, stemming from displacement of locals from their lands due to big business projects, grinding poverty and fear of atrocities by security forces and state-backed militia. Women now comprise almost half the rebel fighters and have led some of the major rebel attacks in India. However, women are also leaving rebel groups after complaining of abuse by male leaders and fatigue.

Within the Asia–Pacific region, there is a wide range of violent extremism involving Buddhist, Hindu and Islamic religious fundamentalism, as well as class and clan-based movements.

The region presents strong similarities across countries in the challenges of extremism from fundamentalist Muslim insurgents, some of whom are linked to Jihadi movements including Islamic State (IS)/Daesh.

National responses to violent extremism are diverse across the region, and there appears little evidence of a gender perspective in designing national or subnational counterterrorism strategies or in dealing with violent extremism, aside from civil society-led programmes at the local level. These are programmes such as 'mother schools' implemented in several countries around the region (ibid), and the South Asia Young Women's Leadership and Mentoring initiative, featured in Box 3.4.

As referred to in Section 3.2.7 above, National Plans of Action present a critical opportunity to increase women's involvement as leaders in conflict prevention, peacebuilding and conflict resolution at the subnational and national levels in line with SDGs 5, 10 and 16. However, this is a priority yet to be adopted by countries throughout the Asian region.

3.4 The Caribbean and the Americas

3.4.1 Female genital mutilation/cutting

As with the previous section's review of FGM/C in Commonwealth Asian

countries, there is an absence of data on whether the practice takes place in the Caribbean and Americas region countries and, if so, the extent of the practice. Further, in countries hosting refugees or immigrants from FGM/ C-practicing countries, some groups may travel to host or transit countries and participate in the practice. This practice has been legally outlawed in certain countries in Europe and North America. However, difficulties have arisen on the determination of who to hold responsible, i.e., practitioners or parents, as well as how to enforce sanctions. In fact, criminalising the practice of FGM/C, without implementing accompanying behaviour change strategies and addressing social norms, leads to other problems by driving the practice further underground (Edouard et al. 2013).

BOX 3.4

THE SOUTH ASIA PROJECT: MENTORING FOR YOUNG WOMEN AS LEADERS IN SOUTH ASIA

The South Asia Project is a three-year Kendeda Fund-financed collaboration between the Global Fund for Women and Creating Resources for Empowerment in Action (CREA), a feminist human rights organisation based in New Delhi, India. The project aims to strengthen the leadership of young women in Bangladesh, India and Nepal by supporting 30 young women in negotiating their way through the issues younger women face in having sustained and meaningful engagement with established women's movements in the region.

Teams of mentors in each country accompany participating young women over three years in their journey of self-discovery and empowerment. By investing in their capacity and potential, strengthening their support infrastructure, and building strong, long-lasting inter-generational relationships of coaching and exchange, they aim to create a resilient cohort of young women leaders who can carry the women's movement forward in South Asia (Global Fund for Women 2017).

Concerning responses to the practice, Canada is a leading country in using its international aid to address FGM/C by supporting organisations in raising awareness of rights among women and girls. This includes improving women and girls' access to justice and psychosocial support for survivors of violence. Canada also commits in its 2017 international aid policy to raising the importance of these issues through diplomatic channels and advocacy efforts (Government of Canada 2017).

3.4.2 Violent discipline

Seven Caribbean states report the prevalence of violent discipline experienced by children. Jamaican children report the highest proportion of girls in the region experiencing violent discipline by caregivers, registering 82 per cent of girls affected. Indeed, this experience has been common for girls across all seven Commonwealth countries included in the data, with more than six out of every ten girls in Belize (63%), Saint Lucia (64%) and Guyana (65%) experiencing violent forms of discipline, while notably higher proportions do so in Barbados (72%) and Trinidad and Tobago (77%). A final point worth noting is that, unlike South Asia, and with the exception of Jamaica, girls from urban areas experience violent discipline more than girls from rural areas. Table 18, Annex Two, presents this information.

3.4.3 Child marriage

Child marriage statistics are reported here for six Caribbean states. The average rates of child marriage for girls in the Caribbean and Americas marrying before the age of 18 is 25 per cent, compared with the global average of 21 per cent. The figure for girls being married before age 15 is 5 per cent for both the Caribbean and Americas and the world average.

By far the highest proportion of children being married before the aged of 18 in the six countries examined here are in Guyana, with 30 per cent of girls being subjected to child marriage – substantially higher than the global average (21%). Belize also registered rates (26%) well above the world's average, while the remaining three states reviewed here – Jamaica (8%), Saint Lucia (8%), Barbados, and Trinidad and Tobago (both 11%), are well below the global figure.

Lastly, for girls married before the age of 15, all the above states fall under the global average (5%). Specifically, these figures are Guyana (4%) Belize and Trinidad and Tobago (both 3%), and Barbados, Jamaica and Saint Lucia (each registering 1%). Table 19, Annex Two, contains these data.

3.4.4 Girls experiencing forced sex

In the Eastern Caribbean, sexual exploitation and abuse of children is widespread and includes intra-family abuse, non-family abuse, transactional sexual abuse, cell phone and internet pornography, and child sex tourism.

All Caribbean states have higher rates of sexual violence than the world average (Plaskett et al. 2010). Meanwhile, in Canada, one half of all women have experienced at least one incident of physical or sexual violence since the age of 16 (7).

In the Caribbean and Americas, no comparative statistics are available. However key informants consulted by UNICEF indicate that child sexual abuse occurs in all countries, and within all racial, ethnic, religious and socio-economic groups. It affects children of all ages, including infants. While both boys and girls are sexually abused, in all reported studies girls substantially outnumber boys as victims.

Child sexual abuse is under-reported, making assessments of the actual incidence of child sexual abuse difficult. Reasons suggested for underreporting, as has been noted in most contexts, included shame and embarrassment, fear of the abuser and of possible reprisal, reluctance on the part of the family to admit what had happened, and the belief on the part of many victims that the veracity of their story would be questioned. Focus groups interviewed by UNICEF in six countries participating in the research agreed that sexual abuse of children was widespread in their societies. All groups could cite examples and provide anecdotal evidence to support this assessment.

Practitioners from Grenada thought that child sexual abuse had reached alarmingly high rates, although interviewees acknowledged that there were no empirical data to support this perception.

Lastly, concerning attitudes towards child sexual abuse, the great majority of people questioned (76%) thought that sexual activity between adults and children was never acceptable, no matter what the circumstances. However, 17 per cent of respondents thought there were circumstances when sexual activity between adults and children was 'okay', while the remaining 5.2 per cent were not sure. No variations in responses occurred among different socioeconomic classes, degree of religious conviction, or level of education. Of those who suggested that sexual activity with children was 'okay', people from

rural communities outnumbered those from urban communities by two to one.

Under some circumstances, child sexual abuse was perceived as normal or acceptable. For focus groups in Barbados, the involvement of older men in sexual relationships with female minors was seen as so widespread that it could be described as 'normal'. The majority of these relationships were viewed as 'consensual'. and did not seem to most participants to be worth reporting (Jones and Trotman-Jemmott 2010), underlining the unwillingness of people familiar with children's experience of forced sex to challenge long-standing practices and act as advocates on children's behalf.

3.4.5 Girls experiencing intimate partner violence

Inadequate data again make it difficult to formulate an accurate picture of the extent of violence in the Caribbean region. There is a lack of unified registers collecting this information. The few available studies indicate that one in every three women in the Caribbean will experience domestic violence and more than one third of the region's women report incidents of intimate or sexual violence.

According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), every one of the Caribbean islands has a sexual violence rate exceeding the world average. Three of the top ten recorded rape rates in the world occur in the Caribbean. While the worldwide average for rape was 15 events per 100,000 population, The Bahamas had an average of 133, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines 112, Jamaica 51, Dominica 34, Barbados 25 and Trinidad and Tobago 18. And consistent with the UNICEF findings presented in Section 3.4.5 above, UNODC and World Bank survey data have revealed that in nine Caribbean countries, 48 per cent of adolescent girls' sexual initiation was 'forced' or 'somewhat forced' (UNODC and World Bank 2007).

Lastly, data from the Canadian Women's Foundation (2018), in contrast with earlier data cited from the OECD (see Section 2.4.3) observe that in Canada, half of all women have experienced at least one incident of physical or sexual violence since the age of 16, and that 67 per cent of Canadians say they have personally known at least one woman who has experienced physical or sexual abuse. Further, a woman in Canada is killed by her intimate partner approximately every six days. Aboriginal women are killed at six times the rate of non-aboriginal women, and women living with physical and cognitive impairments experience violence two to three times more often than women living without impairments (Canadian Women's Foundation 2016).

3.4.6 Attitudes towards intimate partner violence

This section reviews the responses of men and boys, in addition to those of women and girls, to the question asking whether or not a husband was justified in hitting or beating his wife for at least one of the previously specified reasons. When reviewing responses to the above question by sex across the five Commonwealth Caribbean countries producing data, several points stand out. These are:

• Three of the five countries reporting female responses did not report male responses to the survey questions. However, in contrast to most Commonwealth countries in Africa and Asia cited in Sections 3.2.6 and 3.3.6 above, women and girls showed the same low levels of support for wife beating in the event that a husband's wife burnt the food, argued with him, went out without telling him, neglected the children or refused sexual relations. In fact, in all five Caribbean countries providing female responses to the above question, girls and women showed support ranging from only 5 per cent (Belize and Jamaica) to 10 per cent (Guyana).

- With the exception of Saint Lucia, rural women and girls in all four countries surveyed showed slightly more support for husbands beating their wives than their urban counterparts.
- With both male and female respondents, a strong correlation emerged between attitudes and wealth, with poorer people – as with Asia respondents – condoning wife beating much more than wealthier people. Tables 22 and 23, Annex Two, show these patterns.

3.4.7 Women's leadership in peacemaking

Canada, together with the United Kingdom and Sweden, has been a global leader in advocating for women's engagement at all levels of conflict prevention, peacebuilding and peacemaking, as evidenced by its National Action Plan for 2017–2022 on Women, Peace and Security. The plan's main features are detailed in Box 3.5 (Trojanowska et al. 2018).

The plan serves as a model for other countries engaged in promoting women's role in peace negotiations and decision-making at all levels. In summary, its goal is to achieve more inclusive, gender-equal and stable societies by increasing the meaningful participation of women, women's

BOX 3.5

SOME KEY ELEMENTS OF CANADA'S NATIONAL ACTION PLAN ON WOMEN, PEACE AND SECURITY, 2017–2022

Global Affairs Canada (GAC) is the focal point department for Women, Peace and Security (WPS) within the Government of Canada. GAC will programme to:

- support the work of local women's organisations, to increase access to sexual and reproductive health services, and to improve access to justice for survivors of sexual and gender-based violence;
- advocate for women's participation in peace negotiations in fragile and conflict-affected states, for zero tolerance for sexual exploitation and abuse by peacekeepers, and for more women in the UN, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE); and
- increase its capacity through training its personnel on WPS and gender in conflict, by strengthening its collaboration with civil society, and by ensuring that gender-based analysis plus (GBA+) is undertaken and applied to policies, strategies and projects

The plan also contains:

- a commitment to strengthening the capacity of peace operations to advance the UN's 2015 Women, Peace and Security (WPS) agenda, by deploying more women and fully embedding the WPS agenda into Canadian Armed Forces' operations and police deployments;
- baselines, outcome targets, indicators and public reporting schedules; and
- content based on an extensive consultation with civil society, and in particular the Women, Peace and Security Network-Canada (WPSN-C).
- The Government of Canada has praised the collaboration and expressed its commitment to strengthen it.

Further, in June 2017, the Canadian Minister of International Development and La Francophonie presented Canada's new International Assistance Policy, and committed Canada to ensuring that women and girls have the opportunity to take active roles in establishing and maintaining peace in their communities.

organisations and networks in conflict prevention, conflict resolution, and post-conflict state building.

3.5 Europe

3.5.1 Female genital mutilation/cutting

In both Cyprus and Malta, as of February 2012, no estimates had been made of the number of women survivors of FGM/C or girls at risk. In the UK, between April 2016 and March 2017 there were 9,179 attendances reported at NHS trusts and GP practices where FGM/C was identified or a procedure for FGM/C was undertaken. The average age at attendance was 31 years. Ninety-five per cent of the women and girls first recorded in the data in 2016/17 had undergone FGM/C before they were 18 years old (Government of the United Kingdom 2017).

Concerning responses to the practice, the United Kingdom, in partnership with Canada, is a leading country in addressing FGM/C through its international development programme. In September 2017, the prime ministers from both countries announced a joint commitment to 'deepen collaboration at home and abroad' to make a tangible difference to 'promote sexual and reproductive health and rights [and] prevent gender-based violence', with commitments to support work to end FGM/C comprising a key dimension of international development programming.

3.5.2 Violent discipline

Comparable data with other regions on the prevalence of violent discipline is lacking in Europe. On the one hand, while serious cases of violence may have come to the attention of national child protection authorities, the problem also takes less obvious forms when recurring over long periods. Acts of violence may go unreported for a number of reasons. Child victims and/ or their parents may, through fear, shame or lack of confidence, choose to erect 'a wall of silence'. The social acceptance of certain forms of violence, such as corporal punishment for the purposes of discipline and a number of traditional customs, is also an important factor. On the other hand, attempts to investigate the extent of the problem in Europe encounter a number of problems, including a lack of comparable data at the international level, the compartmentalised approach to violence and a failure to involve children themselves in inquiries.

However, data on children's experience of physical, sexual or psychological violence before the age of 15 by an adult perpetrator provides some indications of children's exposure to violence in their formative years. The data reflect significantly higher proportions of girls in the UK experiencing physical, sexual or psychological violence (32%) than those in Cyprus (14%), Malta (17%) or the EU average (27%). Table 24, Annex Two, details these findings.

Concerning children's corporal punishment, governments are increasingly enacting laws to prohibit this form of violence against children. As at January 2018, 53 states have achieved prohibition in all settings, including the home. However, of the three Commonwealth countries in Europe, only Cyprus and Malta have achieved full legal prohibition, while the United Kingdom has not prohibited corporate punishment of children in the home. It has, however, prohibited the practice in residential institutions and foster care arranged by local authorities and voluntary organisations, and in day-care

and childminding facilities in England, Wales, Scotland and in Northern Ireland (Global Initiative to end all Corporate Punishment of Children 2018).

3.5.3 Child marriage

Comparative child marriage data are also unavailable in Europe, with the exception of some Eastern European countries. As with FGM/C, the practice is associated with refugee and immigrant communities, including longer-term diaspora. The UK government has committed to addressing the issue through its international development programming. With the very large number of arrivals in Europe of refugees from Syria and northern Iraq, the 100 child brides identified to date is potentially only the 'tip of the iceberg'. With 442,000 children arriving into Europe in the past 12 months, there are potentially thousands of child-brides living with their '*husbands*' across the continent (Plan International 2018).

Certain EU governments have already issued directives that couples including underage girls should be separated. However, this isn't being applied universally and many brides are being allowed to remain with their husbands.

3.5.4 Girls experiencing forced sex

Data on forced sex experienced by girls aged 15 to 19 are not available for Europe. Consequently, the experiences of women aged 18 to 29 of physical, sexual or psychological violence before the age of 15 an adult perpetrator will be referred to here instead.

Girls in the UK again report a much higher prevalence of this experience than those in Cyprus, Malta or throughout the European Union in general. While girls' average exposure to physical, sexual or psychological violence across the European Union is 27 per cent, the UK proportion of girls subjected to the experience is 32 per cent. In Malta, the figure is 17 per cent and in Cyprus, 14% of girls are subjected to violence before age 15. Table 24, Annex Two, provides this information.

3.5.5 Girls experiencing intimate partner violence

The last assessment of girls' experiences in this section deals with ever-married girls aged 15–19 years experiencing emotional, physical or sexual violence committed by a husband or partner in the last 12 months. Girls in the UK again registered the highest proportion of girls in Commonwealth countries in Europe experiencing this behaviour, with 5 per cent reporting intimate partner abuse, followed by Malta (4%) and Cyprus (3%). These proportions are all considerably below the Commonwealth average of 26 per cent and are presented in Table 25, Annex Two.

3.5.6 Attitudes towards intimate partner violence

As with most of the information presented throughout this section, data reflecting attitudes towards intimate partner violence from European countries were not collected by UNICEF. Instead, the data reported here are attitudinal data collected by the EU's Eurobarometer survey on gender-based violence (European Commission 2016).

For the three Commonwealth countries under review, attitudes towards domestic violence are very similar, with the majority of respondents agreeing with the statement that violence against women is 'unacceptable and should be punishable by law'. The largest proportion of respondents supporting this statement come from Cyprus (87%), followed by the UK (83%) and then Malta (82%), while the EU average was 84%. However, slightly larger variations across Commonwealth countries appeared in those agreeing with the statement that violence against women is 'unacceptable, but should *not* always be punishable by law'. While 10 per cent of respondents from Cyprus agreed with this statement, larger proportions (17%) did so from Malta and the UK (13%). The European average of respondents falling into this category was 12 per cent.

Lastly, 2 per cent of UK respondents and 1 per cent of respondents from Cyprus indicated that violence against women was 'acceptable in certain circumstances', while 1 per cent of Malta's respondents indicated that violence against women was 'acceptable in all circumstances'. Table 26, Annex Two, includes these data.

In drawing conclusions across the whole EU region (European Commission 2016), the survey administrators disaggregated responses by sex and age, noting the following outcomes:

- Women are slightly more likely to say domestic violence against women is unacceptable and should always be punished by law, compared to men (86% as opposed to 81%).
- Men aged 15 to 24 are less likely to say domestic violence against women is unacceptable and should always be punished by law than women of the same age (81% as opposed to 91%). The same group of young men are slightly more likely than their female counterparts to say this behaviour 'is unacceptable, but should not always be punished by law' (14% as opposed to 8%).
- The older the woman, the less likely they are to say domestic violence against women is unacceptable and

should always be punishable by law: 84 per cent of the oldest female respondents say this, compared to 91 per cent of those aged 15–24.

 Respondents who say domestic violence against women is common are more likely to say it is unacceptable and should always be punishable by law, compared to those who say that domestic violence against women is not common (86% as opposed to 78%).

3.5.7 Women's leadership in peacemaking

As noted throughout this report, there are strong links between gender equality, sustainable development and the prevention of conflict that affects women and girls more than any other demographic groups. The UK government's own 2016–2022 National Action Plan (NAP), as with Canada's, aims to put women and girls at the centre of all its efforts to prevent and resolve conflict, to promote peace and stability, and to prevent and respond to violence against women and girls. Its strategic outcomes encompass increasing women's meaningful and representative participation and, ultimately, their leadership in decision-making processes, especially those associated with conflict prevention and peacebuilding at both the community and national levels.

Importantly, the plan seeks to place women at the centre of the security and justice sectors by committing to making security and justice actors increasingly accountable to women and girls, and responsive to their needs in preventing conflict and countering violent extremism (Government of the United Kingdom 2018).

The plan allocates specific funding to the independent monitoring and evaluation of these goals and, like Canada's plan,

was based on extensive consultations with civil society organisations. Very importantly, these consultations also involved civil society organisations in the plan's six target countries (Afghanistan, Burma, Democratic Republic of Congo, Libya, Somalia and Syria).

In turn, the plan commits the UK to support the implementation of existing NAPs in focus countries (Afghanistan, DRC, Iraq, Nigeria and South Sudan) and to incorporate its Women, Peace and Security strategy into its work with partners, both at the national level and global levels. Together with the Canadian and Swedish plans, the UK National Action Plan serves as a model for donors in promoting women's involvement as leaders in preventing and resolving conflict.

3.6 The Pacific

3.6.1 Female genital mutilation/cutting

As with other regions, aside from Africa and parts of Asia, comparative data on FGM/C are unavailable in the Pacific. However, in countries hosting refugees and immigrants, such as Australia, surveys such as those involving paediatricians have indicated that informed approaches when dealing with girls and women presenting with FGM/C were frequently lacking, as noted in Box 3.6 (Zurynski et al. 2015).

3.6.2 Violent discipline

Prevalence estimates from UNICEF (UNICEF East Asia and the Pacific 2014) for witnessing parental violence show that 32 per cent of girls report that they witnessed violence between their parents or caregivers at some point in their childhood. The prevalence estimates for emotional abuse range from 18 per cent to 41.6 per cent across

BOX 3.6 A SUMMARY OF RESULTS FROM A PAEDIATRICIAN SURVEY ON FGM/C IN AUSTRALIA

Research on FGM/C conducted by Australian Paediatric Surveillance Unit's Female Genital Mutilation Study found girls are presenting to paediatricians in Australia with female genital mutilation, but misconceptions about the practice are common and doctors want more information on how to manage this illegal practice. Health professionals, lawyers, teachers, child protection authorities and communities at risk must be better informed. They must also work together to help prevent female genital mutilation, which contravenes declarations including the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child.

We *found* health professionals worldwide are poorly informed about female genital mutilation: why it is performed and its relationship to culture rather than religion. Our *survey* of Australian paediatricians, for instance, found 10 per cent had ever seen a child with female genital mutilation; few knew the procedure was done outside Africa; few routinely asked about or examined girls for female genital mutilation; or understood the World Health Organization (WHO) *classification types*. Few had read local policy on how to manage girls presenting with female genital mutilation. Most had no relevant training and requested *educational resources*.

Some paediatricians had been asked to perform female genital mutilation or for information about who would perform it. Increasingly, we are learning that some immigrants to high-income countries, including Australia, may have had the procedure or be at risk.

Of the girls with female genital mutilation who Australian paediatricians had seen, all were from immigrant families, mostly from Africa, and seen in refugee clinics. Two children had female genital mutilation performed in Australia. One child born in Australia was taken to Indonesia for the procedure, a country where as many as *49 per cent of girls* under the age of 14 years have had female genital mutilation.

(Zurynski et al. 2015)

countries in the Pacific. UNICEF reports that the highest prevalence estimates for emotional abuse are for girls in high-income countries in the Pacific.

Data on girls' experience of violent discipline are available for three Commonwealth countries in the Pacific, i.e., Fiji, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu. The results indicate that higher proportions of girls in Solomon Islands (85%) and Vanuatu (84%) report violent discipline than girls from Fiji (72%) (8).

In Solomon Islands, the experience is much more prevalent in rural areas, while children from wealthier families experience less violent discipline than those from poorer families. Table 18, Annex Two, details experiences of violent discipline across Commonwealth countries.

3.6.3 Child marriage

Data are available from seven Pacific countries on child marriage prevalence (Table 19, Annex Two). When compared to the prevalence in non-African countries, the rate is very high, particularly for girls in the 16 to 18-year age range. However, for girls aged 15 or less, the practice is still evident in Solomon Islands, where 6 per cent of girls are subjected to child marriage. In Vanuatu, 3 per cent of girls confront this fate, and in both Nauru and Papua New Guinea, 2 per cent of girls are married before turning 15. Concerning the 16 to 18-year age range, in Nauru, 27 per cent of girls are married before turning 18, while in Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands and Vanuatu, 21 per cent of girls are married prior to their 18th birthday. In Samoa, 11 per cent of girls are married before turning 18, while the corresponding figures for Tuvalu and Tonga are 10 per cent and 6 per cent respectively.

3.6.4 Girls experiencing forced sex

Aside from some smaller-scale research studies, comparative data on girls' experiences of forced sex from the Pacific region are unavailable. From two small studies, forced sex was reported in three Pacific countries including Palau, Marshall Islands and the North Mariana Islands. These studies showed the prevalence of girls experiencing forced sex before the age of 15 in 2007 of 35.8 per cent in Marshall Islands, 22.8 per cent in the North Mariana Islands and of 21 per cent in Palau.

In a 2009 UNICEF study reporting the percentage of child household questionnaire respondents aged 16 to 17 in four Commonwealth countries disclosing having been touched inappropriately at school in the past month, the results varied considerably. In Solomon Islands, nearly one third of adolescents (32%) reported in appropriate touching at school, while 21 per cent reported the experience in Vanuatu, 11 per cent in Fiji and 7 per cent in Kiribati (Jones and Trotman-Jemmott 2010). The above studies suggest that forced sex and inappropriate touching are as much a problem in the Pacific as they are in other regions reviewed in this report.

3.6.5 Girls experiencing intimate partner violence

Table 21, Annex Two, shows the proportion of married or partnered girls aged 15-19 years who have reported experiencing emotional, physical or sexual violence perpetrated by a husband or intimate partner in the last 12 months in the nine Commonwealth countries across in Pacific region. It reveals that there are considerable differences in the experience throughout Commonwealth Pacific countries. These range from 44 per cent and 42 per cent of women in Vanuatu and Solomon Islands respectively, and 38 per cent of women in Kiribati, to 2 per cent in Australia reporting intimate partner violence.

Tuvalu (25%), Fiji (24%), Nauru and Samoa (22%), and Tonga (19%) fall just

below the Commonwealth average, but nevertheless have rates that compromise the ability of substantial proportions of their female populations to live safe, secure and productive lives.

3.6.6 Attitudes towards intimate partner violence

This section examines attitudes across seven Pacific small island states to the question of whether or not a husband was justified in hitting or beating his wife for the reasons specified in previous sections (9). The responses to the above question by males and females from urban or rural locations and different wealth groups produce a number of salient points. These are:

- As with responses from males and females in most African and Asian countries, the majority of girls and women tended to respond that intimate partners were justified in beating their wives/partners and responded that they approved of this much more than men and boys.
- In the case of smaller Pacific island countries, Tuvalu and Vanuatu were exceptions to this rule. In Tuvalu's case, higher proportions of men and boys supported the beating of intimate partners than women and girls, while in Vanuatu, equal proportions of males and females (i.e., 60%) supported intimate partner violence.
- Compared with the other regions reviewed in this report, support for intimate partner violence was exceptionally high in the Pacific, including 77 per cent of Solomon Island and 76 per cent of Kiribati women and girls. Seventy-three per cent of Tuvalu men and boys and 70 per cent of Tuvalu women and girls condoned intimate partner beatings.

- The Tonga and, to a lesser extent, Samoa populations were much less supportive of intimate partner violence than elsewhere throughout the region. Tonga potentially provides some lessons for policymakers, due to the fact that 21 per cent of men and boys and 29 per cent of women and girls support the practice – considerably fewer people than in other Pacific states.
- With the exception of men from Samoa and Vanuatu, in all other countries surveyed, people in rural areas supported intimate partner beatings slightly more than their urban counterparts. In contrast to most results concerning urban–rural differences, more urban men in Samoa and Vanuatu thought wife beating was justifiable than their rural neighbours.
- Lastly, wealthier groups tended to respond with less support to the practice than poorer groups, with the exceptions of Tuvalu women and Samoan men, where people from wealthier groups tended to support the practice more than poorer people.

Tables 22 and 23 in Annex Two provide more details concerning these attitudes.

3.6.7 Women's leadership in peacemaking

Over recent decades, the Pacific region has experienced multiple civil conflicts, including violent conflicts. Many of these have been related to natural resource governance and the impact extractive industries have had on island communities. This relates especially to Pacific island institutions' abilities to set the direction for their development plans – whether at the local or regional government level – and doing so by involving landowner groups, civil society organisations and other stakeholders. One challenge often evident in the regions' conflicts over natural resource management is the extent to which stakeholders have governance structures in place that can handle an influx of mine-derived funds (Brett 2018).

As women have often been excluded from political and economic leadership and from public institutions across the region, the critical role they have historically played in ending conflict in the region is in danger of being lost. In fact, women have been known to act as go-betweens with warring factions (Gigisi 2015) in conflicts such as the 1990s Bougainville war, negotiating at the time with the local Bougainville Revolutionary Army. Women have done likewise in the 1998–2003 ethnic conflict in Solomon Islands. Box 3.7 presents Betty Gigisi's account of her role in negotiating with the Guadalcanal Revolutionary Army's leader, Harold Keke, concerning prioritising and ensuring the safety of the Guadalcanal's women and children in the conflict, to which he agreed. It also deals with her work on achieving a resolution between the conflict's warring parties.

The importance of recognising and promoting women's roles in managing, resolving and indeed preventing conflict in the region appears to be in danger of being overlooked unless National Plans of Action and their accountability mechanisms begin to acknowledge the roles that women have played in resolving past conflicts, in addition to women's potential to undertake strategically significant roles in preventing or managing future conflicts. For example, Solomon Islands 2011-2020 National Development Strategy partially addresses the SDG 16 requirement to engage women at all decision-making levels

by identifying the country's deficit in women's parliamentary representation (Government of Solomon Islands 2011), but overlooks the importance of promoting women's peacemaking role: a role consistent with their past.

3.7 Section summary and conclusions: ending violence against women and girls

The foregoing section has examined a number of dimensions of violence against women and girls for which comparative data are available.

Violence against girls

These dimensions begin with female genital mutilation or cutting, a form of violence that is not only evident in many African countries, but is also practiced in Asian countries including Brunei Darussalam, India, Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand, together with a number of other counties around the world. Further, the practice is known to take place – although on a much smaller scale – in a number of countries hosting immigrants including refugees and asylum seekers migrating to Europe, Australasia and North America.

In Commonwealth countries, the practice is most widespread among girls aged 0 to 14 in The Gambia, Nigeria, Kenya, Ghana, Uganda and Tanzania. For older girls and women exposed to the practice, Sierra Leone should be added to this group. In Asia and other locations mentioned here, comparative data have not been collected, flagging a gap that policy-makers need to address before effective solutions can be found to eliminate the problem globally.

Child marriage is another practice that deprives girls of the right to self-determination while subjecting them to risk of sexual, physical and psychological violence throughout their lives. Commonwealth countries practicing the tradition in Africa include Nigeria, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Malawi, Zambia, Tanzania and Kenya. Several other Commonwealth countries register much lower prevalence. In other regions, the practice is widespread in Bangladesh and evident although decreasing for younger girls in India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

Likewise, in the Caribbean, Guyana and Belize record very high proportions of girls affected by child marriage – well above the global average of 21 per cent. The practice is also evident in all other Caribbean countries for which data are available. Meanwhile, in the Pacific, the prevalence is quite high in Solomon Islands, Vanuatu, Nauru, PNG, Samoa, Tuvalu and Tonga. In Europe, the problem is evident among practising groups migrating to European host countries as part of immigrant, refugee or asylum seeker movements.

Two additional forms of violence against girls present in all Commonwealth countries are violent discipline by caregivers and girls experiencing forced sex before the age of 18. Although data are unavailable for some Commonwealth countries, violent discipline affects more than nine in every ten girls in Ghana, The Gambia and Nigeria, and more than eight in every ten girls in Bangladesh, Jamaica, eSwatini, Sierra Leone and Vanuatu.

The highest prevalence of forced sex experienced by girls in the Commonwealth is in Cameroon and Bangladesh, where the issue affects

BOX 3.7 'IT WAS A REAL CHALLENGE TO GO AND TALK TO THE WARLORD': A WOMAN'S ACCOUNT OF PEACE NEGOTIATIONS IN SOLOMON ISLANDS

In a matrilineal descent system, a person's ancestry is traced or identified through the mother's lineage. Property and power are also inherited through the mother. But, there isn't much difference in the role women in matrilineal systems can play in conflict resolution compared to that in a patrilineal system. However, experience shows that in matrilineal systems, a woman's voice can be respected in the height of a tension. In a tribal war or a family argument, you will often hear both men and women use women's names to calm a situation, for instance, 'olsem sista blo yumi tufala nao bae iu faet!'

I come from Guadalcanal, one of the five provinces in Solomon Islands that actively practices a matrilineal land tenure system. I am also a distant relative of Harold Keke, the warlord and leader of the Guadalcanal Revolutionary Army, the most notorious rebel leader in Solomon Islands. As the war went on, I sought to establish communication with Harold Keke. Eventually I was able to speak to him from Honiara. I informed him that a group of us women were hoping to meet with him in person. He agreed that we could go.

We felt that if we could speak to him in person, he would listen to us and stop the lawlessness that was going on at that time. So in the height of the ethnic tension, I travelled to Peochakuri village in the southern part of Guadalcanal to meet him. The trip consisted of five women: Aunty Prudence Chasi, late Susan Kukiti, Gladys Robo, late Grace Manea and myself. Late Grace Manea was from Malaita province. The conflict was between the people of Malaita and the people of Guadalcanal.

On arrival, we found out that we were not allowed to go ashore. We were told that we had to go through security, which meant we had to be checked by militant commanders. We waited for two long hours in the boat. It wasn't easy waiting in a floating boat. After two and half hours, the chief commander finally arrived. He informed that Harold Keke was not available, but that he would meet us the following day.

We now had to find somewhere to sleep for the night. A sister of mine approached me and told me she couldn't have us sleep or stay at her place as she feared for her safety. At first, I couldn't make out what she was saying as she wasn't speaking loud enough for fear of being reported to the warlord. She told me to speak to my uncle's caretaker and ask his permission to spend the night at his place. I did as I was told. It got a bit more frightening when a few women came and told me that they didn't know what was going to happen to us.

At about 9:45 am the next day, we met with the warlord at Inakona village where he and his followers were based. It was a real challenge to go and talk to the warlord; he had so many followers and he owned high-powered weapons that his men carry around with them, even in the church when they attend prayer meetings. The place looked like an army base. Hostages were also kept there, many of them were church and community leaders. Also there were men who were in charge of the corporal punishment. It was quite terrifying, but we felt that our message was very important and it had to be delivered. We were confident that being mothers, and coming in peace, Harold Keke would respect our voice.

Our team negotiated for him to prioritise and ensure the safety of the women and children of Guadalcanal in the conflict. He agreed. He also acknowledged the fact that both militia groups were now in a no-trust relationship and that a negotiation situation between the warring parties had to be reached. We spent four days at his place before returning to Honiara. We were putting together our report to present to Solomon Islands Christian Association (SICA) when news broke out that a team of ten mercenaries from Kwaio in Malaita who had gone over to search out Harold Keke had unfortunately been caught and killed by Keke and his men. This was just immediately after our visit. Shortly afterwards, Harold Keke surrendered.

(Gigisi 2015)

more than one in every five girls. It is also close to that prevalence in Uganda and Ghana, while in Rwanda and Malawi, the practice is only slightly less common.

Intimate partner violence

The prevalence of violence perpetrated by intimate partners – whether physical, sexual or psychological, or most likely, a combination of these – remains a widespread problem throughout the Commonwealth. Six out of every ten women in Namibia reported intimate partner violence occurring in the last 12 months, while the figure is more than four out of every ten women in Vanuatu, Cameroon, Sierra Leone, Uganda and Tanzania.

Similar proportions of women to those cited above are affected in Kenya, Bangladesh, Mozambique and Ghana.

Women from Canada, Australia and Cyprus report 1 per cent, 2 per cent and 3 per cent respectively of intimate partner violence in the last 12 months and may conceivably offer some lessons worth considering elsewhere in attempting to eliminate violence against women and girls. This is notwithstanding the fact that solutions are always highly context specific.

Data were also presented on the extent to which women and men either approved or disapproved of intimate partner violence under certain circumstances. A pattern emerging throughout Commonwealth countries in Africa, Asia and the Pacific is that a majority of girls and women indicated that intimate partner violence was justified and were more in favour of this violence than men. The exceptions to this trend in Africa were women from Cameroon and Lesotho. In Asia, women from Bangladesh were less approving than men, while in the Pacific, women from Tuvalu and Solomon Islands were likewise less approving than men.

In the Caribbean and Americas, women and girls showed the same low levels of support for partner beating than men, and in Europe, women were slightly more likely than men to say domestic violence against women was unacceptable and should always be punished by law.

World Values Survey data confirm the widespread nature of the majority attitudes described above, commonly held in Africa, Asia, South America and the Middle East. In cultures where intimate partner violence is condoned, the same cultures prescribe a woman's role as one that obeys the male-determined household rules. In these cases, intimate partner violence is going to seem normal and is therefore often supported by the whole community, including women and girls themselves (Aizenman 2015).

However, violence against women and girls is an international priority requiring a multidimensional response, including major public education programmes seeking to change attitudes about the acceptability of any violence against women and girls, targeting women and girls' attitudes as much as those of boys and men (Tran et al. 2016).

Women's role as peacemakers in preventing or ending conflict and violence

Lastly, women's involvement as leaders in preventing or ending subnational, national and international conflict and, with it, violence against women and girls, via their engagement as peacemakers, has been reviewed in this section. This role is increasingly being recognised as a critical requirement in ensuring more effective and sustainable conflict resolution outcomes. Globally, such involvement remains a substantial deficit in the gender equality and women's empowerment agenda, and has serious consequences for women and girls' security, particularly in conflict zones.

While an increasing number of countries are recognising this and incorporating women's participation strategies into their national action plans, progress has been incremental. In the Commonwealth, Canada, the UK and Namibia have been global leaders in advocating for women's engagement at all levels of conflict prevention, peacebuilding and peacemaking, as evidenced by Canada's National Action Plan for 2017–2022 on Women, Peace and Security. The plan serves as a model for other countries engaged in promoting women's role in peace negotiations and decision-making at all levels, its goal being to achieve more inclusive, gender-equal and stable societies by increasing the meaningful participation of women, women's organisations and networks in conflict prevention, conflict resolution and post-conflict state building.

Endnotes

- 1 These include increased complications in childbirth and maternal deaths, severe pain, haemorrhaging, tetanus, infection, infertility, cysts and abscesses, urinary incontinence, and sexual and psychological problems.
- 2 While boys are also at risk, a global estimate is unavailable.
- 3 The relevance of this dimension is highlighted by SDGs 5 and 16. One of SDG 16's 12 indicators (indicator 16.7) refers to ensuring 'responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making at *all* levels'. Although not explicitly nominating peace negotiation processes, it follows that if such crucial decision-making processes

are to be responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative, they must involve women as a human right and matter of principle, and not simply because women are more effective at negotiating effective, peaceful outcomes.

- 4 Other National Action Plans linking development to women and peacemaking are Canada, the UK and Sweden's NAPs based on a holistic view of security, development and human rights and arguing that development and security go hand in hand.
- 5 Some studies, conducted mainly in Europe, have attempted to quantify the number of immigrant girls and women who have undergone the practice or are at risk of undergoing it, but such efforts have not been systematic in all affected countries.

- 6 The reasons given were: 'that his wife burns the food, argues with him, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses sexual relations'.
- 7 This finding appears to be at odds with OECD data cited in Section 3 of this report on Canadian women's lifetime experience of intimate partner violence, exemplifying the complexities of collecting data on such sensitive issues that often go unreported.
- 8 This figure is a total for boys and girls. Given the lack of variation in responses by sex in other Pacific locations on this variable, it is safe to assume that the percentage equates with girls' experiences if the total of 72 per cent were to be disaggregated.
- 9 The reasons given were: 'that his wife burns the food, argues with him, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses sexual relations'.

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Chapter 4 Gender and Climate Change

4.1 Introduction

This section of the report deals with the relationship between climate change and gender in Commonwealth countries. The relationship is not simply a one-way relationship, with climate change impacting on different sexes in different ways or, more specifically, having a greater negative impact on women and girls than men and boys. The association between gender and climate change also encompasses the impact that women have had to date in shaping climate change policies at the subnational, national and international levels.

Notwithstanding this, the evidence indicates that women and children are 14 times more likely to die or be injured than men in a disaster, an effect that decreases as social inequalities between men and women decrease. In addition to high fatalities, loss of homes and livelihoods, women and girls also experience secondary impacts, including sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) and trauma, loss or reduction of economic opportunities, and increased workloads. For example, increased rates of SGBV, including rape, were reported in Solomon Islands after the Gizo tsunami in 2007.

Recurrent and expensive climate-related disaster relief, recovery and reconstruction drain resources that could otherwise be used for development, including promoting gender equality. Further, disasters such as hurricanes or cyclones damage critical infrastructure, such as schools and hospitals. In response to the impacts of disasters and their damage, girls are more likely than boys to be pulled out of school to help with domestic chores after a disaster, making the achievement of universal primary education more difficult. Damaged infrastructure also limits access to health resources for pregnant women, increasing the risk of maternal death (UN Women Fiji 2014).

In terms of planning and disaster response, in many cases women lead both preventive and adaptive practices on the ground. There is evidence indicating that climate change, climate variability and extreme environmental events and natural disasters result in women, due to their social roles (Carvajal-Escobar et al. 2008), facilitating their communities' work in reducing disaster risks and in developing effective climate change adaptation strategies. Women often have a strong body of knowledge and expertise that can be used in climate change mitigation, disaster reduction and adaptation strategies.

Furthermore, women's responsibilities in households and communities, as stewards of natural and household resources, positions them well to contribute to livelihood strategies adapted to changing environmental realities (Women Watch 2018). Their extensive knowledge and expertise should also be used in climate change mitigation, disaster reduction and adaptation strategies. And at the national level, evidence suggests that countries with higher proportions of women in political leadership perform much better on climate change mitigation than governments with fewer women, possibly due to women being more concerned than men about the impact of climate change in such countries (Women's Environmental Network and National Federation of Women's Institutes 2007).

A critical issue in how well countries cope with climate change is adaptive financing and how we overcome the existing gap between wealthier and poorer countries in adapting to climate change. Estimates of adaptation costs vary greatly, depending on the methodology used, analytical principles applied and assumptions made.

These choices involve complex and often subjective issues and, as such, produce very different views on the costs of adaptation and the resources it requires. As a result, there are no widely agreed methods for calculating costs, and therefore no agreed single estimate of the costs of adaptation. However, a review of the literature on the costs of adaptation in developing countries indicates they are likely to be underestimates. In light of limited financing and uncertainties about future impacts, developing countries require greater emphasis on early adaptation actions, 'low-regrets' options and the populations – including subgroups such as women and girls – these options will affect. Such options need to build in flexibility for longer-term decisions and formulate early planning for likely major future risks (UNEP 2016).

This section of the report will examine the gendered impact of climate change, referring to some adaptation issues and

their implications for women and girls, before examining the five Commonwealth regions' recent exposure to disasters and member countries' vulnerability to sea-level rise, together with countries' results to date in implementing climate change mitigation policies. In doing so, it will cover a number of SDGs ranging from women's role in agriculture (SDGs 2 and 5) and the sustainable use of ocean resources (SDGs 5, 14 and 16), to the safety and resilience of cities and other population centres (SDG 11) and the sustainable but productive use of forests (SDG 15) through development partnerships. The focus on reducing fossil fuel consumption and carbon emissions through adoption of renewable energy (SDG 7) is covered in the analysis of comparative data looking at Commonwealth countries' performances on these goals.

However, a lack of data prevents analyses of other important dimensions of the nexus between climate change and gender, such as climate change displacement and the adaptive finance gap between richer and poorer countries. Nevertheless, the examination of data on sea-level rise and the populations that are potentially at risk will shed light on the importance of adaptive resourcing for vulnerable population centres.

4.2 Africa

4.2.1 The gendered impact of climate change

Agriculture is a highly climate-sensitive sector, supporting the livelihoods of 70 per cent of Africans, contributing to about 30 per cent of the continent's gross domestic product (GDP) and about 50 per cent of its total export value. It employs 65 per cent of the continent's labour force. And while women own less than 1 per cent of the land in sub-Saharan Africa (Wikigender 2018), they contribute 70 per cent of the continent's food production. Women also account for nearly half of all farm labour, and 80 to 90 per cent of food processing, storage and transport, as well as hoeing and weeding activities (Kimani 2012).

It is clear then that women will be first and most affected by climate change events and will be tasked with making up the shortfall in food and fuel. The proportion of women affected by climate-related crop changes is predicted to range from 48 per cent in Burkina Faso to 73 per cent in the Congo (UN Women 2018).

Africa has 9.3 per cent of all fishers and fish farmers in the world, employing an estimated ten million Africans who rely on small-scale fisheries as their primary livelihood. An additional 90 million Africans depend on fishing as part of a diversified livelihood strategy. And while there is limited 'gender'specific data, it well known that women play a significant role in fisheries, particularly in landing, processing and selling fish across the continent.

In West Africa, as much as 80 per cent of seafood is marketed by women. However, the sector is characterised by low-paid, low-skilled, seasonal jobs, making women more vulnerable and less resilient to the loss of livelihoods.

In contrast, as with many other sectors, men dominate so-called 'expert' and decision-making positions in fisheries governance and the sector as a whole. While Section 1 of this report noted that women's movement into political leadership positions across the continent was steadily progressing, this was not consistent across all countries. Nor is it so evident at the subnational level or in the private sector. As with the Women, Peace and Security theme, women need to be promoted into more senior decision-making roles concerning climate change planning and response, including adaptation. The only country recognising this to date is Finland, which is committing to 'establish the connection between gender, climate change, natural resources and peacebuilding' (Government of Finland 2018).

The following sections begin with a review of Africa's most recent (2017) experience of disaster events, compared with that of other regions, before exploring indicators reflecting the vulnerability to sea-level rise of Commonwealth countries in Africa. These are: 1) 2010 national populations below particular sea levels from different global warming amounts; and 2) populations living in areas where the elevation is below 5 meters in terms of the percentage of total population and that are therefore at immediate risk of sea-level rises.

The section then deals with Commonwealth countries performances on: 1) greenhouse gas emissions; and 2) changes in their emission percentages since 1990. It then reviews countries' fossil fuel consumption, the proportion of their energy use provided by renewable energy, and prospects for the future in renewable energy uptake.

4.2.2 Vulnerability to disaster events and sea-level rise

Figure 47 (Annex One) shows that in 2017, Africa experienced 9 per cent of the world's disastrous events, behind Asia (42%), the Caribbean and Americas (23%) and Europe (14%), and ahead of South America (7%) and the Australia and Oceania (i.e., the Pacific) region (5%). These events are increasingly being caused by climate- or weatherrelated disasters, a phenomenon dramatically illustrated in Figure 48, Annex One, which shows a rapid increase since the late 1970s in the frequency of disasters across the world.

Since 2008, an average of 22.5 million people, the majority of whom are women and children, have been displaced by climate- or weatherrelated disasters. Climate change, on top of increasing exposure and vulnerability, is expected to exacerbate this trend further, as the intensity and frequency of extreme weather hazards increases in the coming decades (UN Human Rights Council 2017).

One dimension of vulnerability to future climate disasters, is rising sea levels and its implications for population displacement across Commonwealth countries. Table 27 (Annex Two) shows the percentages of Commonwealth countries' populations most vulnerable to sea-level rises. In Nigeria (2.67%), Mozambique (5.25%) and Ghana (2.62%), substantial proportions of the countries' populations live in the most vulnerable areas. When these percentages are converted to numbers of people affected under different sea-level rise scenarios, the results can be overwhelming.

Table 28 (Annex Two) presents four global temperature increases, ranging from a 1oC global warming scenario to a 4oC global warming scenario. The Commonwealth countries in Africa that are most likely to be affected are Nigeria, Mozambique and Ghana. In a 2oC global warming scenario, the median estimate would be 3.7 million Nigerians directly affected, followed by approximately 971,000 Mozambicans and 439,000 Ghanaians.

However, in a worst-case scenario of a 4oC rise in global temperatures, the affected populations could rise to between 7.8 and 9.4 million Nigerians, between 1.86 and 2.1 Mozambicans, and between 904,000 and 1.16 million Ghanaians (1).

4.2.3 Fossil fuel consumption, greenhouse gas emissions and uptake of renewables

This section deals with four indicators reflecting countries' results in addressing climate change mitigation commitments. The indicators are: 1) their records on fossil fuel consumption and 2) greenhouse gas emissions; 3) the percentage change of greenhouse gas emissions from 1990; in addition to 4) the proportion of renewables in their energy consumption mix.

Consistent with both world and sub-Saharan Africa trends, all Commonwealth countries in Africa show increases in greenhouse gas emissions from their 1990s' levels. However, some of these increases are negligible and from a very low base, while others are much higher (2). Several points emerge from an analysis of Tables 29 to 32, located in Annex Two. These are:

- The size of greenhouse gas emissions varies considerably across Commonwealth countries in Africa, ranging from the smallest economy – Seychelles – producing 910 kilo tonnes of carbon dioxide (CO2) equivalent, to South Africa's 420,483 kilo tonnes of CO2 equivalent (3).
- Some economies, most notably those of Cameroon, Ghana, Mozambique and Tanzania, almost doubled their fossil fuel energy consumption as a percentage of their total energy consumption in the four years between 2000 and 2014 (see Table 29, Annex Two).
- Mozambique (829%), Botswana (514%), Ghana (265%) and The Gambia (197%) showed very large increases in their greenhouse emission changes from their 1990 baselines, while Cameroon (3.5%), Sierra Leone (22.7%) and Kenya (39.4%) showed the smallest increases.
- To put this in the broader African context, while no Commonwealth country in Africa has decreased its greenhouse gas emissions since 1990, several other African countries have done so. These are Angola (-18%), Benin (-28.9%), Cote d'Ivoire (-78%), Congo (DRC) (-41.7%) and the Congo Republic (-43.8%).

4.2.4 The future uptake of renewables

Table 32. Annex Two, provides details on Commonwealth countries' uptake of renewable energy power in their overall energy consumption. From this table, several points worth noting are:

• In 12 of the 17 Commonwealth countries in Africa, renewable energy consumption as a percentage of total energy consumption was reducing rather than increasing. This is more or less consistent with trends in sub-Saharan Africa, where the uptake of renewables is negligible in comparison to fossil fuel consumption. However, this trend contrasts with the global average, trending as a very small increase in the use of renewables.

- Three Commonwealth countries in Africa appear to be resisting this trend by slowly transitioning to renewables as an energy source. Indeed, in two of these cases, renewables comprise their main energy source. These are Malawi, where renewables have increased between 2010 and 2015 from 79.5 to 83.6 per cent, and in Zambia, with renewables increasing from 83 per cent in 1990 to 88 per cent in 2015.
- In South Africa, renewables increased from 16.6 per cent in 1990 to 17.2 per cent in 2015. It appears that both Malawi and Zambia may have some transitioning lessons that other countries can learn from.

Finally, when examining Africa's potential to further develop it renewable energy sources, a 2015 report by International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA 2015) suggests that the continent could meet nearly a quarter of its energy needs through the use of indigenous, clean, renewable energy by 2030.

IRENA's analysis provides a roadmap for Africa's energy transition. The report presents a country-by-country assessment of supply, demand, renewable energy potential, and technology prospects. For Africa, it identifies options amounting to nearly 10 'exajoules' – the equivalent of more than 341 million tonnes of coal – for sustainable development through renewable energy, around half of which would come through biomass-based heat applications. These will progressively displace unsustainable and unhealthy traditional biomass combustion.

The report notes that renewable energy capacity additions could increase the share of modern renewable energy technologies in the power sector to 50 per cent by 2030, reducing carbon dioxide emissions by more than 310 megatonnes. It notes that in the presence of record-low electricity prices from solar and wind energy, developing such projects has become more cost-effective than previously and recommends actions to accelerate the continent's renewable energy uptake. In summary, these include adopting enabling policies, a regulatory framework to catalyse investment, measures to attract investors, and promoting off-grid renewable solutions to increase energy access and reduce poverty. The report identifies four key modern renewable energy technologies with highest deployment potentials for Africa: modern biomass for cooking; hydropower; wind; and solar power (IRENA 2015).

4.3 Asia

4.3.1 The gendered impact of climate change

Climate change is having and will continue to have a devastating impact on communities across Asia, and the rapidly increasing frequency of such events is depicted in Annex One's Figure 47. Flooding, drought and crop failure are a strong 'push factor' for migration, co-existing with strong 'pull factors' including urbanisation, development, seasonal labour and access to health and other services. The region is prone to heatwaves, cyclones, rising sea levels, ocean acidification, heavy rainfall, floods and landslides. As noted in the preceding section, such events will continue to expose the region's most vulnerable population groups – women and girls belonging to poorer communities – to livelihoods, displacement and security threats.

In South Asia, because men have historically migrated more often than women, the impacts of climateinduced migration on women is not fully understood. What *is* known is that displacement will leave millions of female-headed households across the region exposed to loss of livelihoods, creating an additional burden for women.

It will lead to a gradual feminisation of agriculture (Asian Development Bank 2013) in a region where women currently constitute more than 60 per cent of the workforce. In some communities in Bangladesh, women face social pressure not to leave the house, and this makes earning a livelihood very difficult if their husbands have migrated (Commonwealth Secretariat 2017).

Regional co-operation is lacking over the management of floods and droughts affecting rivers flowing through two or more countries such as the Ganges, Brahmaputra and Indus rivers in South Asia. Agriculture in Asia is dominated by smallholder cultivators. South Asia has a patrilineal system, where land is passed down the male line of inheritance. In Southeast Asia, patrilineal and matrilineal inheritance systems exist; however, despite the almost equal land ownership rights in countries across the Southeast Asia subregion, in practice women do not actually own much land (ibid).

Asia has 85 per cent of all fishers and fish farmers in the world, with China alone constituting one third of the world's total. Women's contribution to aquaculture in Asia is markedly different between countries, with women comprising 33 per cent of the rural aquaculture labour force in China, 42 per cent in Indonesia and 80 per cent in Vietnam. In Bangladesh, the only Commonwealth country producing FAO data, only 5 per cent of the aquaculture workforce are women, although millions of women who fish for a livelihood are not recognised by these data.

Sea-level rises are highly likely to affect aquaculture infrastructure, and globalisation has had a profound influence on the fishing industry in Asia. This has led to whole fish from Europe and North America being sent to Asia for processing and packaging, particularly to India, China and Vietnam. Consequently, those engaged in aquaculture are far less likely to have control over their employment and livelihoods, because decisions over its future are made from Europe and North America.

4.3.2 Vulnerability to disaster events and sea-level rise

Figure 47 (Annex One) shows that in 2017, Asia experienced by far the largest proportion of disasters across the globe, with 42 per cent of the world's disastrous events, well above the Caribbean and the Americas (23%) and Europe (14%). Figure 48, Annex One illustrates the sharp increase in disasters within Asia between 1975 and 2000, and the consistently high numbers of disasters between 2000 and 2017. As mentioned in the preceding section, the trend of increasing numbers of weatherrelated disasters will continue and, with it, an increasing number of people, particularly women and girls, adversely affected by climate displacement.

Across the Asia region, Commonwealth countries' populations most vulnerable to sea-level rises are detailed in Table 27 (Annex Two). In Singapore (10.3%), Bangladesh (8.9%), and Malaysia (5.1%), large proportions of national populations are living in highly vulnerable zones located at 5 metres elevation above sea level or less. In India, although the corresponding figure is lower (2.7%), this translates to millions of people, as Table 28 (Annex Two) reveals.

In Table 28, four global temperature rise scenarios are presented, ranging from a 1oC global warming scenario to a 4oC global warming scenario. Asia's Commonwealth countries most affected in these scenarios are India, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Sir Lanka and Pakistan. If global temperatures rise by 2oC, an estimated 19.8 million Indians would likely be displaced and approximately 12.5 million Bangladeshis would be directly affected.

Malaysia (1.7 million displaced), Pakistan (509,000 displaced) and Sri Lanka (534,000 displaced) would be less affected in scale, although not in terms of the severity of the crises confronting substantial numbers of people and their communities.

However, should global temperatures rise by an average of 4oC, the affected numbers would increase dramatically to between 55 and 73.5 million Indians, between 48 and 63.87 million Bangladeshis, and between 6.8 and 8.8 million Malaysians. In the same scenario, between 2.3 and 3.5 million Pakistanis and 2.4 to 3.7 million Sri Lankans would be directly affected.

4.3.3 Fossil fuel consumption, greenhouse gas emissions and uptake of renewables

This section outlines Commonwealth countries' results in addressing climate change mitigation commitments using four measures. These measures are: 1) their records on fossil fuel consumption and 2) greenhouse gas emissions; 3) the percentage change of greenhouse gas emissions from 1990; in addition to 4) the proportion of renewables in their energy consumption totals. From these analyses, several notable points emerge. These include the following:

- With the exceptions of Pakistan and Sri Lanka, all Commonwealth countries in Asia obtain more than 70 per cent of their energy needs from fossil fuels. Brunei Darussalam derives 100 per cent or its energy from fossil fuels, which comprise natural gas and oil.
- All Asian countries, with the exception of Singapore, increased their fossil fuel reliance between 1990 and 2014, consistent with the South Asian average. However, Singapore's fossil fuel reliance reduced from 99.4 per cent in 1990 to 97.4 per cent in 2014.
- India's greenhouse gas emissions more than doubled between 1990 and 2012 – from 1.39 million kilotons equivalent to 3.002 million kilotons equivalent. All other Asian Commonwealth countries have followed similar continuous increases, with the exception of Brunei Darussalam, which has substantially decreased its greenhouse gas emissions between 1990 and 2012.
- These trends are also reflected in greenhouse gas emission change from 1990, expressed in percentage terms. India's increase has been the region's largest at 116.4 per cent compared to its 1990 greenhouse gas emission levels, while Brunei Darussalam has decreased its emissions by 19.3 per cent, admittedly from a very small base.
- All Commonwealth counties in Asia have reduced rather than increased their renewable energy consumption as a percentage of total energy consumed, except Singapore, which showed a slight increase. However,

renewables comprise a very low proportion of Singapore's energy consumption (i.e., 0.7%). In contrast, Sri Lanka relies on renewables for 52.9 per cent of its energy consumption. India's renewables reliance stands at 36 per cent, which, for such a large economy, is a substantial proportion.

Tables 29 to 32, Annex Two provide more detail on the above analysis.

4.3.4 The future uptake of renewables

According to a recent IRENA analysis (IRENA 2018), energy demand in the region is expected to grow by 4 per cent annually, leading to a likely energy demand increase by the region of 50 per cent between 2014 and 2050. As urbanisation increases, manufacturing and other energy-intensive industries will increase, requiring a doubling of power generation. This will make the adoption of renewables a pressing priority for the region. According to the report, while a target of 23 per cent of energy from renewables has been adopted by the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), if existing policies, including those under consideration, are implemented without further initiatives, renewables will likely comprise just under 17 per cent of the region's energy supply. To meet the ASEAN target, a dramatic increase in renewables investment is required, as noted in Box 4.1.

4.4 The Caribbean and Americas

4.4.1 The gendered impact of climate change

Small island developing states (SIDS) such as those found in the Caribbean and Americas region are some of the most vulnerable countries in the world

BOX 4.1 RENEWABLES INVESTMENT REQUIRED TO MEET ASEAN TARGETS

A US\$290 billion investment in renewables is required to reach the ASEAN target, including \$7.5 billion in solar photovoltaic (PV) and \$6.3 billion in hydropower per year, together with a \$7 billion in annual investment in the building and industry sectors, focused largely on bioenergy and solar thermal. In doing so, IRENA identifies four priority areas:

- 1 Increasing power system flexibility while using renewables to provide modern energy access for all by expanding transmission and distribution grids and interconnection capacity between countries and power systems. Member states also need to develop flexibility measures, such as flexible thermal capacity, energy storage, demand response and the coupling of the power and end-use sectors.
- 2 Expanding efforts for renewable energy uptake for the power sector, as well as the heating, cooking and transport sectors. It is important to develop renewable technologies in end-use sectors, such as heating, cooking and transport, as they comprise two-thirds of the capacity needed to meet ASEAN's renewable energy goal.
- 3 Creating a bioenergy market that is sustainable, affordable and reliable. On the supply side, the use of sustainable residues and waste feedstocks has to be maximised, bearing in mind the seasonality of supply. To ensure environmental, social and economic sustainability on both the supply and the demand sides, innovative suggestions and technologies must be delivered.
- 4 Increasing the availability of up-to-date renewable energy data and enabling the sharing of best practices. In light of the rapid changes in the renewables landscape in the region, accurate and timely data and its sharing are important, as this will facilitate the transfer of information and technical know-how between regional members with different levels of technical expertise in the renewables sector.

to climate change. In this region, climate change is an issue of survival to its people and the long-term existence of its countries. Sea levels will continue to rise, and populations will inevitably be displaced, while the increase in the frequency of catastrophic category five hurricanes is already two-fold.

The Caribbean and Americas has also a limited capacity to generate clean energy and has a strong dependence on tourism. It has a strong reliance on food imports, increasing the region's vulnerability to weather crises while posing considerable challenges to find pathways to longer-term sustainable development. Women and girls living in low-elevation areas will be subjected to the uncertainties and security risks of displacement and disrupted livelihoods, while the privatisation of water taking place in the region has had greatest impact on female-headed households and the poor, due to the increased cost of water (Commonwealth Secretariat 2017).

Within the Caribbean, information on gender in fisheries is limited and scattered. Only four of the region's Commonwealth countries have fisheries policies or plans that include gender. In Canada, women accounted for 47 per cent of the workforce in 2006 (Government of Canada 2006) and in the fishing industry, this was 34 per cent. For the self-employed falling into the 'fish harvesters' category, the proportion of women employed was 20 per cent. Rising sea surface temperatures, ocean acidification and rising sea levels will affect thousands of fish species, making waters more hospitable to invasive species and shifting the lifecycle timing of certain other fish species. This, in turn, will disrupt the

ecosystem supporting subsistence fishing. It will also adversely affect commercial and recreational fisheries and tourism, leading to livelihood risks for those employed in these sectors.

Substantial numbers of women employed in the region's agriculture sector will also be affected by the impacts of climate change on crop and livestock viability. Changes in the frequency and severity of droughts and floods will pose challenges for farmers and threaten food safety, with decreasing crop yields from inundation and salinisation becoming more pronounced. Livestock may be at risk, both directly from heat stress and indirectly from reduced quality of its food supply.

The proportions and numbers of women engaged in the region's agriculture sector are difficult to assess due to data

limitations, but agricultural landholders vary from 14.7 per cent in Trinidad and Tobago to 27.9 per cent in Saint Kitts and Nevis and 29.7 per cent in Saint Lucia, suggesting that figures for female farm labourers will be even higher. For Canada, the distribution of female agricultural holders is 27.4 per cent. These data indicate that women will have a substantial role to play in how farming communities adapt to climate change. A review of National Action Plans (NAPs) indicates that, with the exception of Canada's NAP, gender analysis does not feature as part of planning, implementation and monitoring processes. This highlights a recurring theme emerging in this report concerning the lack of women's engagement in planning for countries' requirements to adapt to climate change and its social, economic and political impacts.

4.4.2 Vulnerability to disaster events and sea-level rise

In 2017, the region experienced the second highest proportion of disasters with 23 per cent (see Figure 47, Annex One).

As with the Africa and Asia regions, these events began increasing sharply after 1980, peaking during the first decade of the new millennium. The most severe category five hurricanes have been an increasing part of this development. Hurricane Irma, which passed through Barbuda and neighbouring Antigua in September 2017, was the most powerful Atlantic Ocean hurricane in recorded history, leaving a trail of storm damage. In Barbuda, over 90 per cent of buildings and vehicles were destroyed, leaving the island 'barely inhabitable' (Keneally 2017). The Island's total population of 1,800 people required evacuation.

Populations most vulnerable to storm surges and sea-level rises in the Caribbean and Americas are detailed in Table 27 (Annex Two). Throughout the region, four countries have very large proportions of their populations living in areas where elevation is below 5 meters.

These are Guyana, with 27.9 per cent of its population located in this zone, followed by Belize (20.5%), the Bahamas (20.3%) and Antigua and Barbuda – as discussed above – with 11.8% of its population highly exposed. In fact, the Caribbean small states register the highest percentage of any region globally of population living in this most vulnerable elevation zone (11.6%).

The consequences of this geographical vulnerability are presented in Table 28, Annex Two, outlining temperature rise scenarios ranging from 1oC to 4oC. Those Caribbean and Americas countries most affected by these rises and the population numbers in question will be Canada, with 737,000 people at risk of displacement in a 2oC global temperature rise scenario, followed by Guyana with 543,000 people likely to be displaced and Jamaica with 291,000 people facing likely displacement.

In the much worse scenario of a 4oC average global temperature rise, these figures increase, and in some cases considerably. In Canada's case, a 4oC temperature rise would mean between 1.08 million and 1.34 million people displaced, in Guyana's case a likely displacement of between 566,000 and 572,000 people, and in Jamaica's case, between 518,000 and 588,000 people vulnerable to displacement. The exposure of populations to climate displacement in other Caribbean countries is detailed in Table 28.

4.4.3 Fossil fuel consumption, greenhouse gas emissions and uptake of renewables

The extent to which Commonwealth countries in the Caribbean and Americas have been able to reduce their reliance on fossil fuels and, in turn, their greenhouse gas emissions is covered here, together with their uptake of renewable energy sources. From the available data, the most salient points emerging are:

- Data on countries' fossil fuel consumption as a percentage of their overall energy consumption was limited to three countries (Canada, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago) and the small island states' average. The regional averages for small island states indicate an increasing use of fossil fuels from 1990 to 2014, from 78.3 per cent of their energy consumption totals to 96.9 per cent. Of the three countries providing data, Trinidad and Tobago shows an increasing reliance on fossil fuels, comprising 98.9 per cent of its energy consumption in 1990 and rising to 99.9 per cent in 2014.
- Two countries appear to be stabilising or decreasing rather than increasing their reliance on fossil fuels. These are Canada, decreasing from 76.1 per cent of fossil fuels reliance in 2000 to 73.6 per cent in 2015, and Jamaica, decreasing from 84.6 per cent in 2000 to 81 per cent in 2014. Notwithstanding these results, fossil fuels remain, unsurprisingly, the dominant source of energy for these economies.
- All but one of the countries in the region are producing net increases in greenhouse gas emissions, and some of these have been quite dramatic, as in the cases of Jamaica, Saint Lucia, Trinidad and

Tobago, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and the Caribbean's small island states' average.

- Guyana provides a stark contrast to the region's increasing fossil fuel reliance, decreasing its greenhouse gas emissions dramatically between 1990 and 2012. This has been achieved through its partnership with the Norwegian government, launching a Low Carbon Development Strategy (LCDS) in 2009 to protect its substantial forest resources through the prevention of deforestation and transitioning towards a low-deforestation, low-carbon, climate-resilient economy. The strategy works to maintain Guyana's forests while generating payments for the services the forests provide.
- The above results are confirmed by Table 31's data on percentage changes in greenhouse gas emissions from 1990. While some Caribbean states have very high increases in greenhouse gas emissions, headed by Grenada with a 360 per cent increase from its 1990 level, Guyana has a 63.3 per cent decrease in emissions from its 1990 level.
- Concerning the percentage of renewables in countries' energy consumption profiles, Guyana's decrease in greenhouse gas emissions has not been associated with any increase in renewables as an energy source. In fact, the Guyana's renewables consumption as a percentage of its energy profile has decreased from 42 per cent in 1990 to 25 per cent in 2015. All other Caribbean countries have a similar decrease in the percentage of renewables in their energy consumption profiles, with the exceptions of Jamaica and The Bahamas.
- Jamaica's renewables consumption has increase from 7.6 per cent in 1990 to 16.8 per cent in 2015. Although

much more than Belize's negligible increase – from 34.6 per cent to 35 per cent – renewables in Belize comprise over one third of its energy consumption, the highest in the region.

Tables 29 to 32, Annex Two, provide more detail on the above analysis.

4.4.4 The future uptake of renewables

Renewables in the Caribbean, as with other regions, have struggled to attract the required investment to achieve widespread adoption. The edited excerpt presented in Box 4.2 below (*The Guardian* 2015) summarises some of the advances made on the one hand, and on the other, the challenges confronting the region in adopting renewables on a larger scale.

4.5 Europe

4.5.1 The gendered impact of climate change

Women linked to the land through agriculture, food security, biodiversity and water resources in Europe are particularly vulnerable to climate change because they face social, economic and political barriers limiting their involvement in decisionmaking processes within these areas. Furthermore, women in rural areas have less mobility and are therefore less likely to become agents for change, while being more likely to be affected by climate change (Commonwealth Secretariat 2017).

In the fishing industry, decisions at the highest levels are dominated by men. While women are employed, often in large proportions, throughout every stage of the fishing industry process, from fishing haul to refinement, their contribution is not recognised and their presence in decision-making bodies goes under-represented, making them effectively invisible. They are therefore not given access to the same benefits as men are, such as new technologies (Torp 2016). Within Europe, women are vessel owners, operators and merchants, but these women are a small minority, with industry research suggesting that women in the industry are looked down upon as an extension of 'domestic space', facing barriers in gaining recognition and status within the industry. A characteristic feature of employment in the fishing industry is the prevalence of occasional and part-time labour due to the nature of the industry's enterprises as often being family businesses (Commonwealth Secretariat 2017).

Data on women's landownership for Commonwealth countries in Europe are not available. However, policymakers are aware that women located in rural areas often lack access to affordable childcare, and lack economic opportunities, networks and access to skills development training; such training is considered essential in assisting their communities to keep abreast of climate change in the agriculture and fisheries sectors.

In 2017, Europe incurred 14 per cent of the world's disastrous events (see Figure 47, Annex One) and, as reported in previous sections, a steep rise in these events from around 1980.

The pattern of extreme weather events associated with climate change varies greatly across Europe, with larger numbers in the United Kingdom and West-Central Europe and lower numbers in Scandinavia and Northern Europe. In Southern Europe, heat waves, droughts and wildfires have become the most numerous events, whereas in Western and Central Europe floods and storms predominate. Weather events have also been responsible

BOX 4.2 RENEWABLES IN THE CARIBBEAN

The Caribbean appears to be the ideal location for renewable energy development. Petroleum resources are scarce and renewable resources such as solar, wind and geothermal are plentiful. Energy prices are high as there is no opportunity for economy of scale benefits that large land masses enjoy. Added to that, climate change impacts pose a major threat to the region's small-island economies that are largely dependent on tourism and agriculture.

So, what has been the barrier to using renewables? Many people have pointed to the cost factor. Small economies mean that in most cases countries require high upfront capital. Also, these factors have led some international investors and developers to be cautious about entering the Caribbean market.

However, indigenous grassroots knowledge paired with the experience and access to capital of larger local and international companies would be a winning combination.

The advantage of building on local interest and indigenous talent can be seen in Jamaica. The late Raymond Wright was trained as a petroleum geologist and was head of the Petroleum Corporation of Jamaica (PCJ) in the 1970s. His interest in wind energy was piqued while searching for areas with suitable geological characteristics for petroleum development. It soon became evident that Jamaica had a significant wind resource. Over time Wright shifted the focus of his energy development to renewables and PCJ took on a leading role in the establishment of the Wigton Wind Farm, which now generates about 0.1 per cent of Jamaica's energy.

Jamaica is keen to build on Wright's legacy. Expansion of the wind farm is under way and Jamaica plans to increase renewable energy use further, with a goal to reach 20 per cent by 2030, as part of its policy. There are plans for 20 MW (Mega Watt) of PV solar to be installed to complement the wind farm. In addition, Jamaica is offering benefits for any company or individual selling electricity to the grid from a renewable source.

In Barbados, there is a story of another pioneer, the late Professor Oliver Headley. An organic chemist by training, he became a leading international voice for solar energy development. He got into developing renewable energy in the 1960s after a PhD student colleague challenged him to put the sun that was beating down on them daily to productive use. His pioneering efforts helped propel Barbados to be a leader in solar water heater use in the western hemisphere.

There are three solar water heater companies in Barbados, which can be written off against income tax. This policy has been in place since 1974. The story goes that the then prime minister installed a solar water heater on his house and was so impressed with the results that he put the economic incentives in place.

Barbados is keen to expand the success of solar water heaters to solar photovoltaic with the introduction of the 'renewable energy rider'. This allows people installing solar photovoltaics to sell their power back to the grid at 1.6 times the usual charge. As a result of this incentive, there are now more than 300 house-top PV systems in the island, and that is expanding.

A few other Caribbean countries have seen success with renewable energy... It is encouraging to see developments such as these. But the efforts of individual champions cannot be successful without policies, legislation and economic incentives, which governments are slowly but surely putting in place. Having these policies on the books without recognising and supporting local businesses or providing an environment through which champions can come to the fore is likely to impede the progress of this spectacularly beautiful but vulnerable region in developing a flourishing green economy.

Source: The Guardian 2015

for considerable loss of life in Europe, estimated at around 140,000 lives lost since 1980. The largest impacts on life have come from heat waves such as those in Central Europe in 2003. The economic loss has been considerable, with an estimated loss of \leq 415 billion since 1980 (2010 values). Storms and floods have been the most costly hazards, amounting to a combined total of almost \leq 300 billion (Norwegian Meteorological Institute 2013). Climate model simulations also suggest more frequent droughts throughout Europe, although flash and urban floods triggered by intense local rainfall events are also likely to be more frequent. Other likely consequences of climate change include decreased annual river flow in Southern Europe and increased water stress in regions that are already vulnerable to reductions in water resources.

Studies suggest higher precipitation intensity for Northern Europe and increased dry-spell lengths for Southern Europe. High-intensity and extreme rainfall are expected to become more frequent within the next 70 years. More extreme events will occur with greater frequency, but will vary considerably from subregion to subregion across Europe (ibid).

4.5.2 Vulnerability to disaster events and sea-level rise

Table 27, Annex Two, provides data on populations (%) living in areas across Commonwealth countries in Europe that are most vulnerable to sea-level rise. Cyprus has the largest proportion of people at risk of displacement in Europe's three Commonwealth countries, with 5.64 per cent of its population at risk.

This is slightly ahead of the UK (5.31%), although when these proportions are converted to population figures, many more Britons will be displaced in each of the three scenarios provided in Table 28 (Annex Two).

This table details temperature rise scenarios ranging from 1oC to 4oC and, specifically, the size of populations likely to be affected. Of the three European Commonwealth countries, the UK will have large numbers of people facing likely displacement, ranging from around 3.85 million people in a 2oC temperature rise scenario to between 5.9 and 7.3 million people in a 4oC temperature rise scenario. In Cyprus, the impact appears to be much less sizeable but by no means insignificant, ranging from 19,000 people facing likely displacement in a 2oC global temperature rise scenario, to between 51,000 and 72,000 in a 4oC global temperature rise outcome.

In Malta, the corresponding affected populations would be 10,000 (2oC temperature rise) to between 22,000 and 28,000 in a worst-case scenario of a 4oC temperature rise.

4.5.3 Fossil fuel consumption, greenhouse gas emissions and uptake of renewables

The performances of Commonwealth countries in Europe in terms of results to date in reducing their reliance on fossil fuels and, in turn, limiting their greenhouse gas emissions are covered in this section, together with the adoption of renewable energy sources. The results to date are as follows:

- When considering data on countries' fossil fuel consumption as a percentage of their overall energy consumption, Commonwealth countries in Europe together constitute the only Commonwealth region where fossil fuel consumption is decreasing. In fact, all three countries show decreases. These range from a 10 per cent decrease in the UK (90.7% to 80.7%) between 1990 and 2015, a 6.7 per cent decrease in Cyprus from 1990 to 2014, and a 2.2 per cent decrease in Malta, from 100 per cent in 1990 to 97.8 per cent in 2014.
- However, only the UK reduced its greenhouse gas emissions during the 1990 to 2012 period by a noticeable level. From 1990, the UK has reduced its greenhouse emissions by 24.6 per cent, while Cyprus, despite decreasing its fossil fuel reliance, still managed to increase its greenhouse gas emissions by 44.8 per cent between 1990 and 2102. No data are available for Malta on this measure.

 Consistent with the region's reductions in fossil fuel consumption, each of its three countries registered increases in renewable energy consumption. These increases were from 0.5 per cent to 9.9 per cent renewable energy consumption in Cyprus, 0.7 per cent to 8.7 per cent in the UK, and from 0 per cent to 5.4 per cent in Malta.

4.5.4 The future uptake of renewables

The slow progress to date in transitioning to renewables in Europe may be a function of men's domination of the power industry. The article in Box 4.3 (*The Guardian* 2018) below explores this issue.

4.6 The Pacific

4.6.1 The gendered impact of climate change

In the Pacific, women have limited access and control of the land, marine, water and energy resources required for their meaningful engagement in planning sustainable consumption and production.

In some Pacific island countries such as Papua New Guinea (PNG), changes in rainfall patterns, droughts, floods, rising sea-levels and salinisation will make it harder for communities to make a living out of agriculture.

Climate change and its associated disasters are likely to make life even harder for women, who are responsible for the production of the majority of food for subsistence. In fact, Pacific women's role in food production, whether through subsistence farming to feed their families or growing cash crops for income, is an indispensable part

BOX 4.3

GENDER AND THE TRANSITION TO RENEWABLES

'Lack of women in energy, holding back fight against climate change': Gender imbalance at energy firms and industry events is slowing transition to greener power, claims expert.

The lack of women in energy companies is holding back the sector's efforts to tackle climate change, a leading industry watcher has warned. Catherine Mitchell, a professor of energy policy at the University of Exeter, said poor gender diversity meant the industry was less open to new ideas, in particular the move to a lower-carbon energy system.

'I absolutely do think that the fact that the industry is so dominated by men and particularly older white men it is slowing down the energy transition', said Mitchell, who has worked on energy issues for more than 30 years and advises the government, regulators and businesses. She admitted it was not a given that women are more progressive on energy issues than men, but noted that the 'conventional' parts of the sector – fossil fuel power generation and energy networks – are more male-dominated than greener, innovative companies.

'The fact we are not moving is not good for Britain, is not good for the environment', she said of attitudes slowing the transition to renewable and decentralised energy. Juliet Davenport, the chief executive of the energy supplier Good Energy, said the argument was credible. 'The energy sector is lagging sorely behind other industries in terms of diversity, meanwhile sustainable [green] businesses are very balanced. So the idea that lack of diversity is contributing to the issue of transition to renewables is very plausible', she said.

Nearly two-thirds of the leading 89 energy companies in the UK have no women on their boards and industry events with men-only panels, or just one woman, are common. One female energy expert said she had been disinvited from a panel of chief executives at an annual event after a company deputised a female executive.

'It became a panel of CEOs, with a woman, and so they did not "need" another woman', she said.

Sometimes it is a case of being the only woman in the room. One senior female executive said she was the sole woman at a meeting hosted by an influential male government adviser in London.

Sexual harassment is not unknown either: one female leader, who did not want to be named, said she was groped by the head of a trade body at an awards event several years ago.

Occasionally, the lack of gender diversity breaks out in public. During a recent questioning of energy chiefs by MPs on the impact of a price cap, the Conservative MP, Antoinette Sandbach, said: 'I am quite struck by the panel. We have four men here'. Sandbach went on to scold the retail chief executive of SSE, Stephen Forbes, for the company's 19.4 per cent gender pay gap, a figure he attempted to defend.

Some in the industry are making an effort to address the problem, such as the big six lobby group Energy UK, which has banned men-only panels at its events. 'The energy sector is undergoing a huge period of transition, which brings with it a huge opportunity to increase gender balance', said the group's external affairs director, Abbie Sampson.

Source: The Guardian 2018

of food production and consumption practices. Given the unique knowledge and skills held by women, development planning for the region needs to acknowledge and effectively utilise women's contributions in order to adapt to climate change impacts.

Despite the critical role that women play in food production (see Box 4.4), they often face barriers to accessing agricultural land, training, credit and services. The agricultural production that women and girls perform also tends to be considered part of women's household responsibilities. Climate

change impacts, combined with these challenges, will make it even more difficult for them to make a living from agriculture. Women may also struggle more than men in finding alternative livelihoods, entering the formal employment sector or migrating, due to cultural barriers and lack of economic opportunities and education. Meanwhile, the stresses associated with climate change and its impact, including climate-driven relocation and disastrous climate-influenced events can increase violence against women, particularly in insecure environments resulting from population displacement.

Reduced food security threatens social and economic development and will prevent some countries from achieving sustainable development. In fact, many Pacific island countries are already struggling with food security: countries that were known to produce plentiful food quantities that, a short time ago, more than covered the needs of their populations. The impacts on agriculture of climate change are likely to worsen this trend, as women have responsibility for many of the key roles in the agriculture sector. Their priorities, needs and concerns should be heard and reflected in planning, budgeting

BOX 4.4 INNOVATIVE RESPONSES TO CLIMATE CHANGE

In Fiji's Totoya Island, coastal flooding and erosion from climate change, in addition to unsustainable land management, have reduced the land available to grow crops, leading to lower yields. The Totoyan women have existing knowledge on production of local nutritious food, and traditional food preservation methods. This knowledge is now being used to grow resilient crops in vegetable gardens, and to make flour, both of which will help to reduce reliance on imported products.

and decision-making in climate change adaption (UN Women no date).

4.6.2 Vulnerability to disaster events and sea-level rise

Every island in the Pacific will be threatened by rising sea levels, as island populations tend to cluster around coastal zones and ports. Most populations are highly dependent on shipping and goods made in distant locations.

As sea levels continue to rise, coastal erosion will increase. Port facilities will experience new currents and extreme water levels, making navigation challenging. Extreme high tides, which are already occurring, will lead to flooding in unexpected ways, such as water rising up through storm drains onto streets, and waves flowing across beaches into buildings and roads. Coastal wetlands, where important staples such as taro are grown, are now experiencing saltwater intrusion.

Saltwater is contaminating shallow aquifers and threatening freshwater availability. As temperatures rise, climate models are projecting that the Pacific will experience more frequent, strong El Niño events, bringing enormous changes for all Pacific islands. These include changes in rainfall, in wind directions, in droughts, in waves and erosion processes, in water temperature and therefore in fish stocks.

Globally, data show a shift to increased rain intensity. With more extreme precipitation, it is possible that less water will soak into the ground to recharge aquifers and more of it will remain on the surface as runoff. This will deplete freshwater reserves and increase flooding. In some areas, this trend is compounded by extended drought periods. And El Niño phases exacerbate these impacts. The typical variability of storms and droughts rises in magnitude when El Niño effects occur.

In Yap and Palau, during the 2015–16 El Niño, the drought was so severe that communities were required to adopt 'two-hour water days', i.e., water restrictions when people could collect water for one hour in the morning and one hour in the evening. All reservoirs were nearly at zero, the rivers were drying up and freshwater was in desperately short supply.

In the Pacific's atoll communities, relying on thin freshwater aquifers, saltwater intrusion occurs into aquifers both by wave overwash and saltwater rising up from below. In 2007 and 2008, there was a state of emergency in the Federated States of Micronesia, when a king tide and a high-wave event superimposed across the islands, causing around 80 communities to suddenly lose their food and freshwater because of saltwater intrusions. While concerns are expressed about sea-level rise, freshwater capacity is already being challenged (Schiffman 2017).

When data examining regional populations' vulnerability to sea-level rise are assessed, some island states will have substantial proportions of their populations subjected to displacement pressures. Typically, around 80 per cent of displaced populations comprise women and children (Thomas and Thomas 2004).

As Table 27 (Annex One) shows, three Pacific island states have very high proportions of their populations at risk of sea-level rise due to their lowelevation locations. These are Tuvalu. with 47.5 per cent of its population confronting likely displacement, Kiribati, with 20.6 per cent of its population vulnerable to displacement, and Nauru, with 7.6 per cent of its residents in exposed locations. However, when the size of affected populations is assessed, Australia has the largest of the region's populations at risk with 668,000 in a 2°C global temperature rise scenario, followed by New Zealand with 185,000 likely displaced people and Fiji, with approximately 108,000 vulnerable people.

In worst-case 4oC global temperature rise scenario, these populations increase significantly to between 1.88 and 2.46 million Australians, between 552,000 and 712,000 New Zealanders, and between 224,000 and 266,000 Fijians.

4.6.3 Fossil fuel consumption, greenhouse gas emissions and uptake of renewables

The results of Pacific Commonwealth countries' endeavours to reduce their reliance on fossil fuels and, in turn, limit their greenhouse gas emissions are reviewed here, together with their adoption of renewable energy sources. Data on Pacific island states and their fossil fuel emissions are unavailable, aside from a regional average that includes East Asian states. Notwithstanding this, when reviewing the fossil fuel consumption of Australia and New Zealand, a divergence is evident in their respective consumption patterns.

Australia's fossil fuel consumption between 1990 and 2015 has been static, while New Zealand's has decreased from 66.7 per cent in 1990 to 59.9 per cent in 2015. Conversely, New Zealand has shown a minor increase in its uptake of renewables, moving from 30 per cent of renewables as a proportion of its total 1990 consumption to 30.8 per cent in 2015. Australia's increase has been similarly negligible and from a much lower base, moving from 8 per cent in 1990 to 9.2 per cent in 2015.

When the performances of the Pacific island states on adopting renewables is reviewed, a very mixed set of results emerges. Fiji, Kiribati and Papua New Guinea have registered decreases in renewable energy consumption between 1990 and 2015, and Fiji and PNG have recorded very substantial decreases. However, the reverse is true in Vanuatu, Solomon Islands and Tonga. In Vanuatu's case, the island state has increased its renewables consumption from 24.2 per cent to 36.1 per cent in the 1990 to 2015 period. Lastly, and seemingly at odds with their decreasing deployment of renewables, PNG and the Solomon Islands have shown substantial decreases in greenhouse gas emissions from their 1990 baselines. PNG's decrease is the region's most impressive, reducing fossil fuel emissions by 62.4 per cent between 1990 and 2015, while Solomon Island's result is a 22.7 per cent reduction. Fiji's result was a 3 per cent reduction. In contrast, Vanuatu's emissions were similar to its 1990 level, while New Zealand, Samoa, Tonga and Tuvalu recorded small gains. Australia has recorded the largest greenhouse gas increases in the region since 1990, recording a 57.9 per cent increase in emissions between 1990 and 2015.

4.6.4 The future uptake of renewables

The challenges faced in Asia referred to in Box 4.1, together with those faced in the Caribbean and Americas concerning the requirement for high-level capital investment to facilitate the transition to renewables, are shared in the Pacific region as well. IRENA describes this in a series of reports identifying the steps required throughout the region, specific to each small island state, in making a successful transition to renewables. An excerpt of IRENA's report (IRENA 2013) on hybrid power systems in the region is presented in Box 4.5.

4.7 Section summary and conclusions: gender and climate change

This section of the report covered the nexus between climate change

and gender, and particularly the likely impact of climate change on women throughout the five Commonwealth regions. It began each regional analysis by referring to the gendered impact of climate change on women in the fisheries and agriculture sectors, before examining Commonwealth countries' recent and historical exposures to disaster events linked to climate change. It then presented data on Commonwealth countries' vulnerability to one measurable component of climate change, i.e., sealevel rise. Countries' performances on a number of energy-related measures were then presented, including their consumption of fossil fuels as a percentage of their overall energy consumption and, conversely, their uptake of renewable energy in their energy profiles. Countries' greenhouse gas emissions were also reviewed from 1990 to 2015. The likely future uptake of renewables will depend on the availability of investment capital in all regions, and the policy frameworks that countries adopt to encourage this.

The gendered impact of climate change

A number of conclusions have emerged from the analyses conducted. Concerning the gendered impact of climate change, women and children have been displaced by a dramatically increasing number of disasters, many linked to climate change. This is particularly so in Asia, the Caribbean and the Pacific, where populations' livelihoods and security have and will continue to be threatened by storms, hurricanes, droughts and rising sea levels. Countries' National Action Plans, formulated to deal with such crises, do not, with the exception of Canada's, focus on women and security

BOX 4.5 HYBRID POWER SYSTEMS IN THE PACIFIC

The variable nature of photovoltaic and wind power generation and the dependence on diesel generators throughout the region mean that high levels of renewable energy utilisation will require complex hybrid power systems. As such, island renewable energy planners need to adopt a comprehensive energy systems planning approach, deploying high-penetration renewable energy systems together with existing fossils that, over time, will be phased out.

A significant build-up of renewable energy generation in the Pacific is inhibited by the region's limited financing, primarily composed of public funding from various development partners. The creation of island groups with similar renewable energy resources presents a potential opportunity to create the economies of scale required to bring down costs and provide the needed access to private financing. Working with the National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL), IRENA is providing Pacific islands with information on island groupings and other options to increase access to private renewable energy project financing.

Furthermore, the United Arab Emirates has offered a commitment from the Abu Dhabi Fund for Development (ADFD) of up to USD 350 million to support financing of renewable energy projects in developing countries endorsed by IRENA. The IRENA/ADFD project facility is currently evaluating projects from various countries, including countries in the Pacific islands region, for the first round of funding from the fund.

Finally, it needs to be noted that although the focus of this report is on near-term deployment of renewable energy power generation, this sector represents on average only 25 per cent of Pacific island oil imports. Achieving reduced dependence on fuel imports will require regional renewable energy planners to address the more challenging issue of widespread renewable energy use in the transport sector. Electric vehicles are the best technology currently available for renewable energy-based transport, but require deployment of large renewable energy power generation to offset fuel consumption.

Source: IRENA 2013

issues. Nor do they place women with men at the centre of decision-making about climate change prevention, adaptation and crisis management.

Likely population displacement

The largest Commonwealth populations likely to face climate-induced displacement are India, Bangladesh, Nigeria, Malaysia, the UK, Sri Lanka and Pakistan, although many small island states will confront threats to their entire existence, as such large proportions of their populations will face displacement. Tuvalu is a case in point, where 47.5 per cent of its population live in areas below 5 metres elevation above sea level. In 2017, Hurricane Irma required Saint Maarten and Antigua and Barbuda's whole populations to evacuate and has left the islands uninhabitable. It is highly likely that in the Pacific, whole island populations will also face evacuation because freshwater aquafers will be overrun with salt water before the inundation of population centres takes place.

Fossil fuel consumption and greenhouse gas emissions trends

When fossil fuel consumption trends are examined, only a handful of Commonwealth countries have shown decreases since 1990 and can therefore be considered models from which policy-makers from other countries could consider borrowing lessons.

These countries, in order of their fossil fuel percentage reductions, are the UK, with a 10 per cent reduction,

New Zealand, yielding a 7.3 per cent reduction, Zambia, showing a 6.9 per cent reduction (although only 1990 to 2000 figures are available), and Cyprus, with a 6.7 per cent fossil fuel reduction.

Concerning greenhouse gas emissions, many Commonwealth countries have shown substantial increases in emissions since 1990, while others are less dramatic. However, six countries show decreases in greenhouse gas emissions, and five of these have shown *substantial* decreases, again justifying their status as policy and practice models. These are Guyana, registering a 63.3 per cent decrease, Papua New Guinea, producing a 62.4 per cent decrease, the UK, with a 24.6 per cent decrease, and Solomon Islands, with a 22.2 per cent decrease. Fiji has recorded a 3 per cent decrease, adding to the numbers of island states showing leadership in producing effective outcomes on this measure. To place this in context, the global average is a 40 per cent increase in post-1990 greenhouse gas emissions.

Renewable energy uptake

Lastly, in most cases, the key to the above results is natural resource

protection and sustainable utilisation, as in the case of Guyana, and an uptake of renewable energy sources to replace fossil fuels. On this measure, those Commonwealth countries leading the adoption of renewables are Vanuatu, with an 11.9 per cent increase between 1990 and 2015, Cyprus, with a 9.4 per cent increase, Jamaica, recording a 9.2 per cent increase, the UK (8%), Rwanda (6.6%) Malta (5.4%) and Solomon Islands (4.3%). Rwanda's status as a land-locked country indicates that non-island states can also productively implement policies recognising that climate change is a priority for all and not just for countries at risk of imminent sea-level rise.

Endnotes

1 The figures referred to throughout this section on populations

affected by sea level rise are those between the median and 83rd percentile markers rather than the 17th and 83rd percentile markers found in Table 28. 2 Unfortunately, per capita figures are not available.

3 This is a figure provided in 2000. No data have been provided since 2000 from South Africa.

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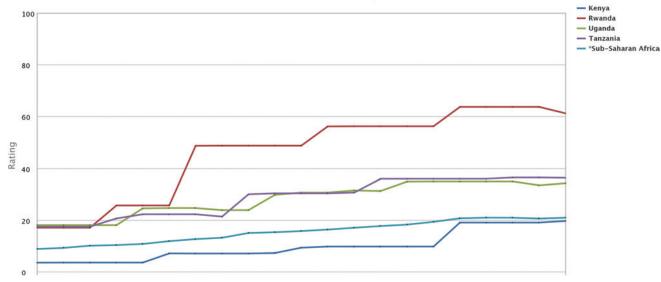
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Annex One

Figures 1 to 48¹

FIGURE 1

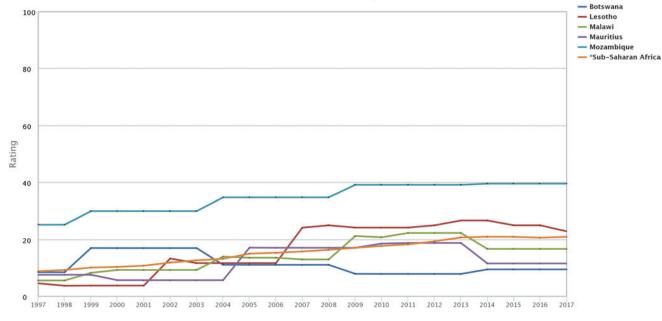
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, EAST AFRICA REGION, 1997-2017



Lower chamber female legislators

FIGURE 2

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, SOUTHERN AFRICA REGION, GROUP 1, 1997–2017

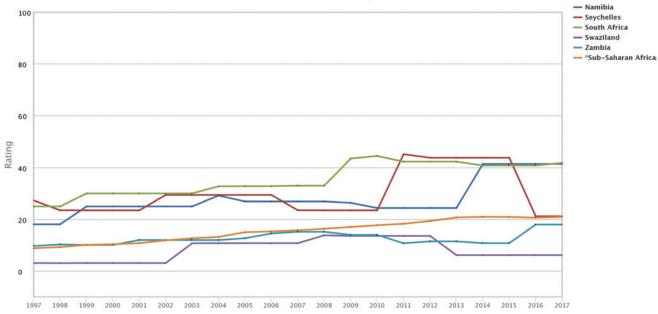


Lower chamber female legislators

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).



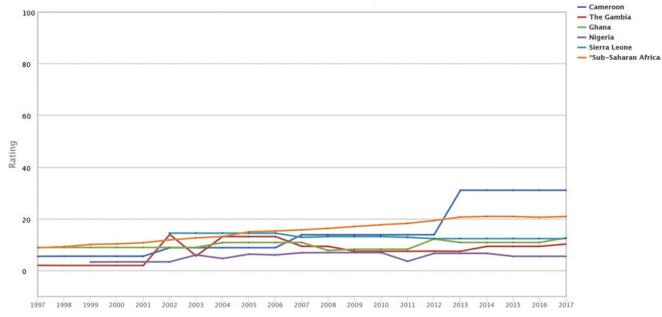


Lower chamber female legislators

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

FIGURE 4

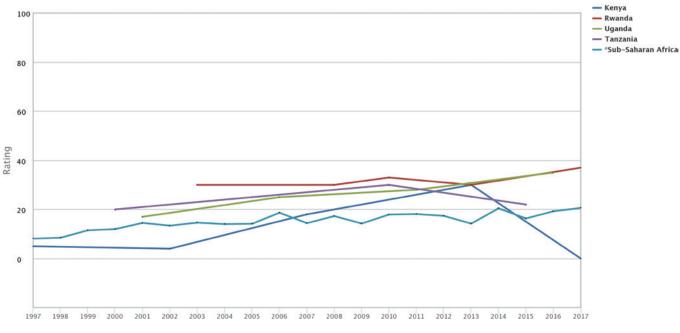
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, WEST AFRICA REGION, 1997–2017



Lower chamber female legislators

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN POST-ELECTION CABINETS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, EAST AFRICA REGION, 1997–2017

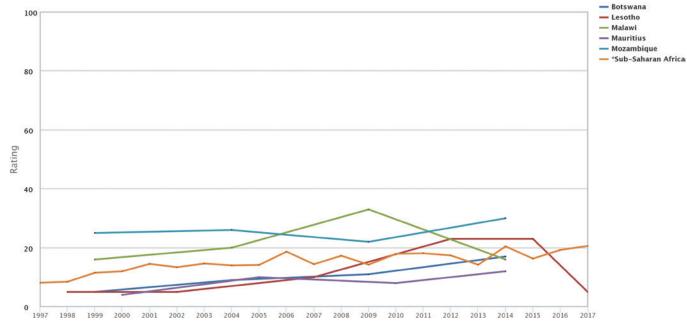


Election women in the cabinet

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

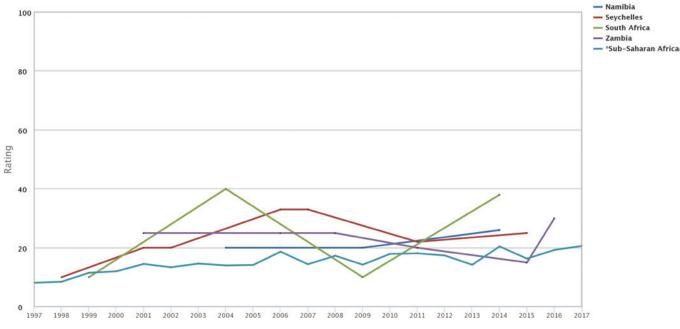
FIGURE 6

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN POST-ELECTION CABINETS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, SOUTHERN AFRICA REGION, GROUP 1, 1997-2017



Election women in the cabinet



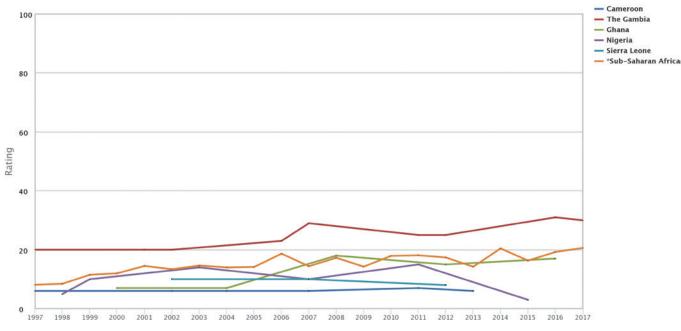


Election women in the cabinet

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

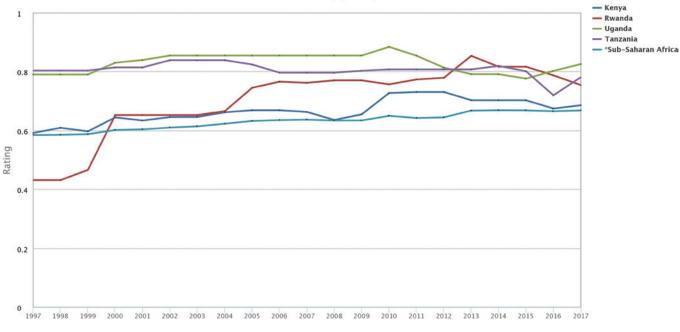
FIGURE 8

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN POST-ELECTION CABINETS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, WEST AFRICA REGION, 1997-2017



Election women in the cabinet

WOMEN'S CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN CIVIL SOCIETY ON A SCALE OF 0 (WOMEN HAVE NO CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) TO 1.0 (WOMEN HAVE FULL CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, EAST AFRICA REGION, 1997–2017

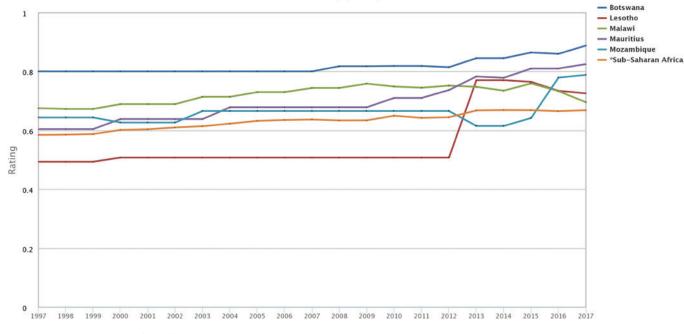


Women civil society participation index

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

FIGURE 10

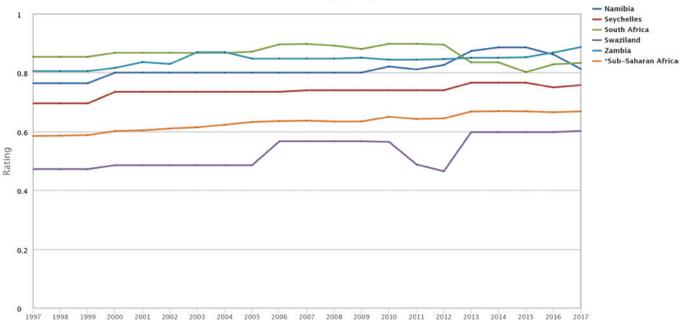
WOMEN'S CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN CIVIL SOCIETY ON A SCALE OF 0 (WOMEN HAVE NO CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) TO 1.0 (WOMEN HAVE FULL CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, SOUTHERN AFRICA REGION, GROUP 1, 1997-2017



Women civil society participation index

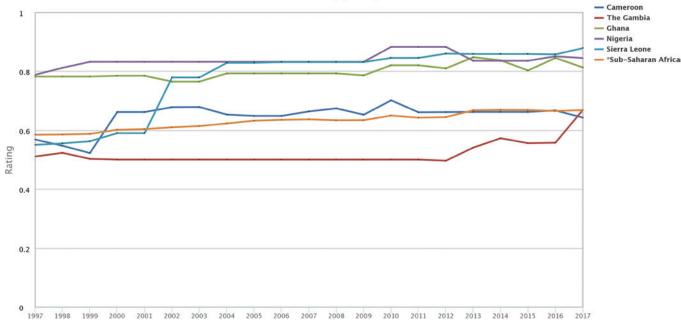
WOMEN'S CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN CIVIL SOCIETY ON A SCALE OF 0 (WOMEN HAVE NO CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) TO 1.0 (WOMEN HAVE FULL CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, SOUTHERN AFRICA REGION, GROUP 2, 1997–2017

Women civil society participation index



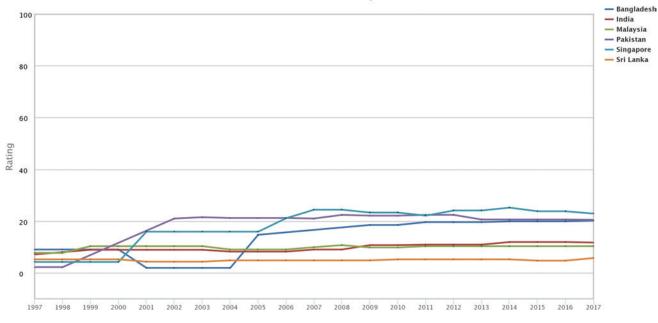
Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

FIGURE 12 WOMEN'S CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN CIVIL SOCIETY ON A SCALE OF 0 (WOMEN HAVE NO CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) TO 1.0 (WOMEN HAVE FULL CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, WEST AFRICA REGION, 1997-2017



Women civil society participation index

FIGURE 13 PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, ASIA REGION, 1997–2017

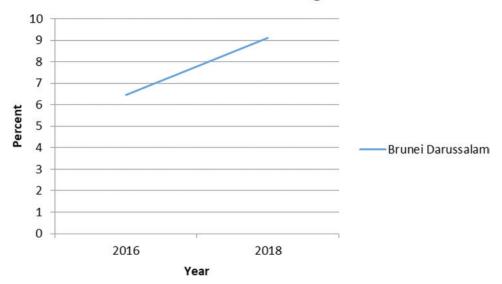


Lower chamber female legislators

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

FIGURE 14

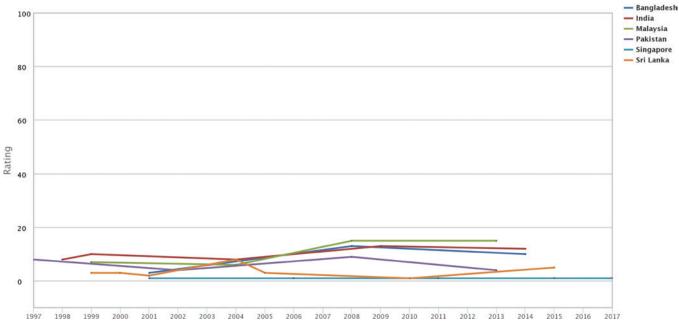
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE, BRUNEI DARUSSALAM, 2016–2018



Lower chamber female legislators

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (2018).



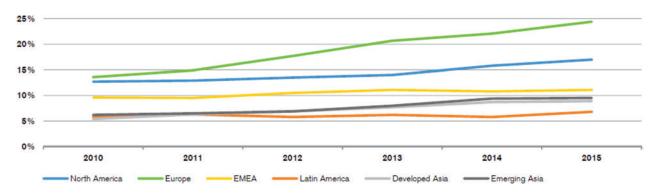


Election women in the cabinet

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

FIGURE 16

AVERAGE PROPORTION OF FEMALE DIRECTORS (%) IN COMPANY BOARD ROOMS BY REGION



Key

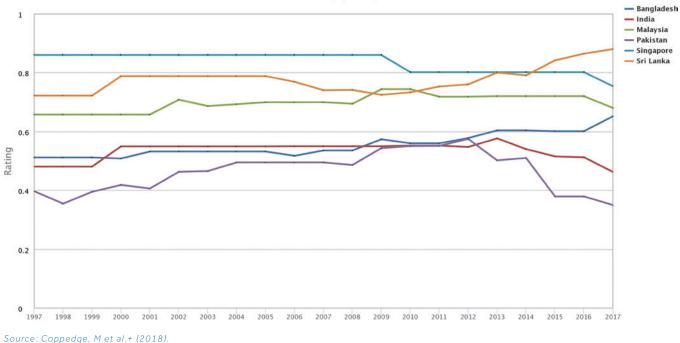
EMEA = (southern) Europe, Middle East and (north) Africa.

Developed Asia = Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore.

Emerging Asia = China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Philippines, South Korea, Taiwan and Thailand.

Source: Credit Suisse Research Institute (2016).

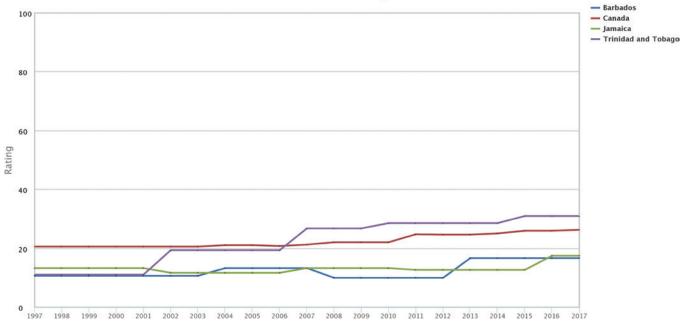
WOMEN'S CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN CIVIL SOCIETY ON A SCALE OF 0 (WOMEN HAVE NO CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) TO 1.0 (WOMEN HAVE FULL CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, ASIA REGION, 1997–2017



Women civil society participation index

FIGURE 18

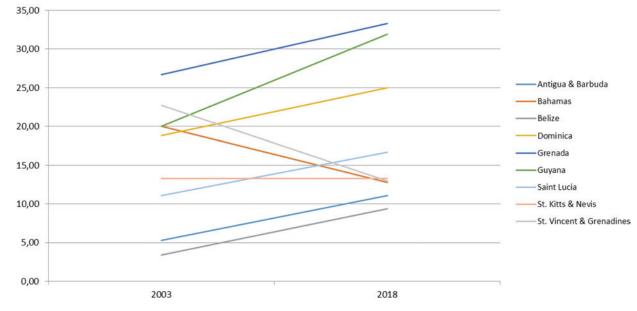
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, THE CARIBBEAN AND AMERICAS REGION, 1997–2017



Lower chamber female legislators

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).



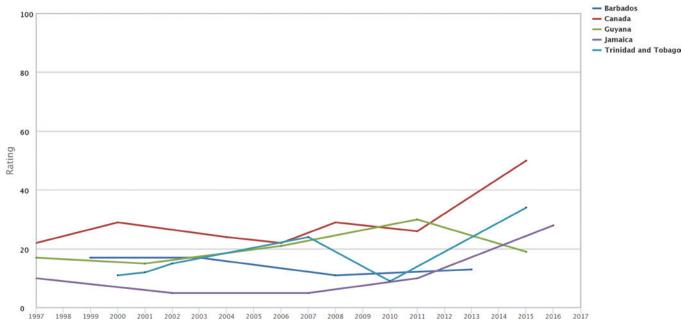


Caribbean and the Americas - % women in Lower House

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (2018).

FIGURE 20

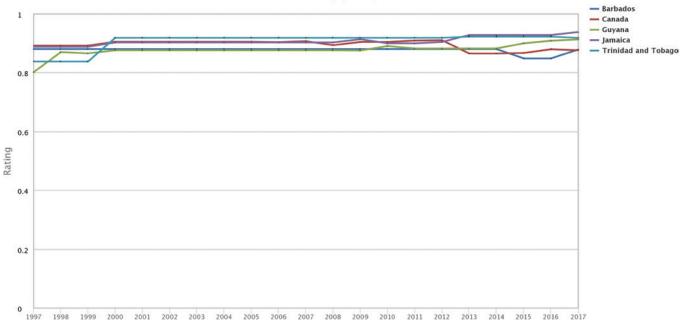
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN POST-ELECTION CABINETS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, THE CARIBBEAN AND AMERICAS REGION, 1997–2017



Election women in the cabinet

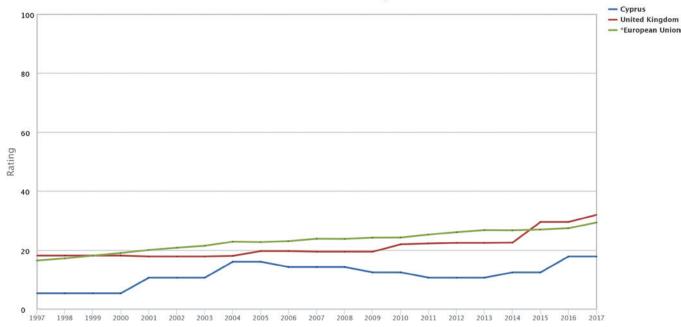
WOMEN'S CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN CIVIL SOCIETY ON A SCALE OF 0 (WOMEN HAVE NO CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) TO 1.0 (WOMEN HAVE FULL CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, THE CARIBBEAN & AMERICAS REGION, 1997–2017

Women civil society participation index



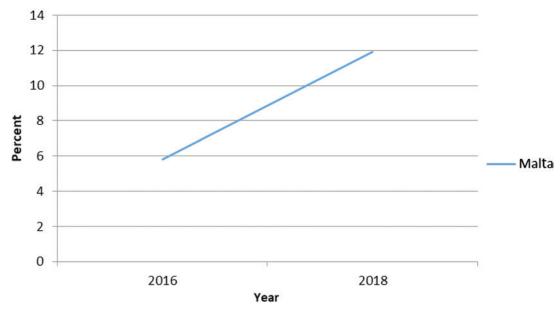
Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

FIGURE 22 PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY AND EUROPEAN UNION AVERAGE, 1997-2017.



Lower chamber female legislators

FIGURE 23 PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY (MALTA), 2003–2018

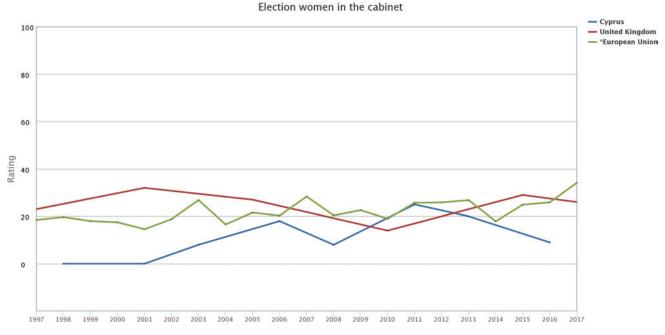


Lower chamber female legislators

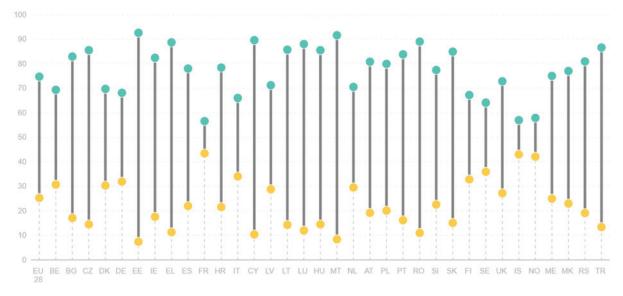
Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union (2018).

FIGURE 24

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN POST-ELECTION CABINETS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, AND EUROPEAN UNION AVERAGE, 1997-2017



PROPORTION OF WOMEN AND MEN ON BOARDS (INCLUDING SENIOR EXECUTIVES, CEOS, AND BOARD MEMBERS) IN EUROPEAN UNION'S LARGEST LISTED COMPANIES BY EU MEMBER STATES, 2ND QUARTER 2017

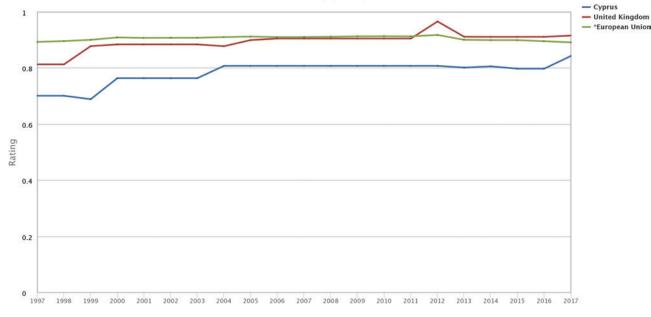


Source: European Institute for Gender Equality (2018).

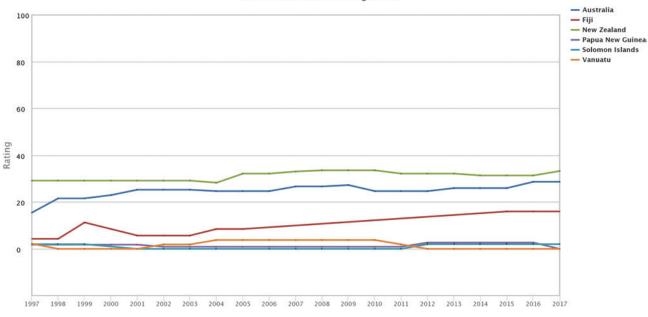
FIGURE 26

WOMEN'S CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN CIVIL SOCIETY ON A SCALE OF 0 (WOMEN HAVE NO CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) TO 1.0 (WOMEN HAVE FULL CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY AND THE EUROPEAN UNION AVERAGE, 1996–2017

Women civil society participation index





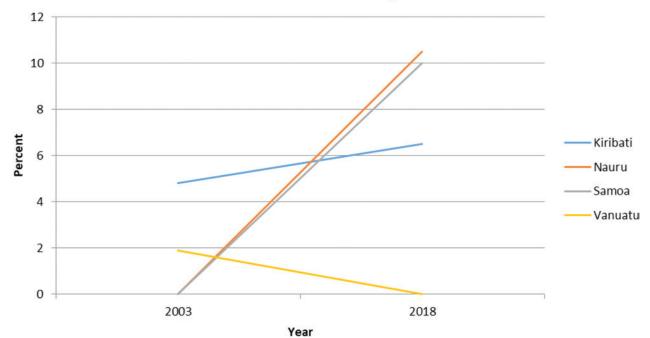


Lower chamber female legislators

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

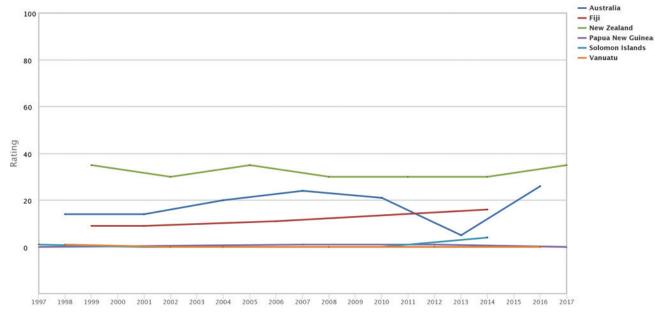
FIGURE 28

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN LEGISLATORS IN THE LOWER HOUSE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, PACIFIC REGION (SMALLER STATES), 2003–2018



Lower chamber female legislators

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN POST-ELECTION CABINETS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, PACIFIC REGION, 1997–2017

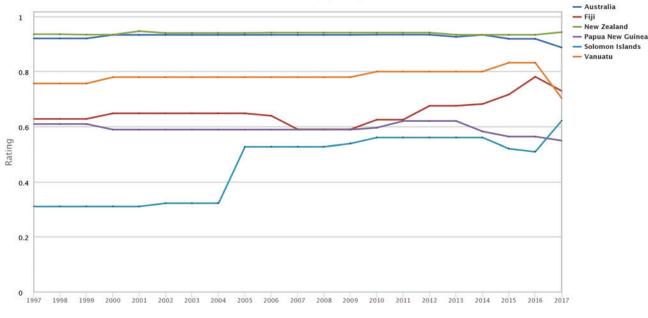


Election women in the cabinet

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

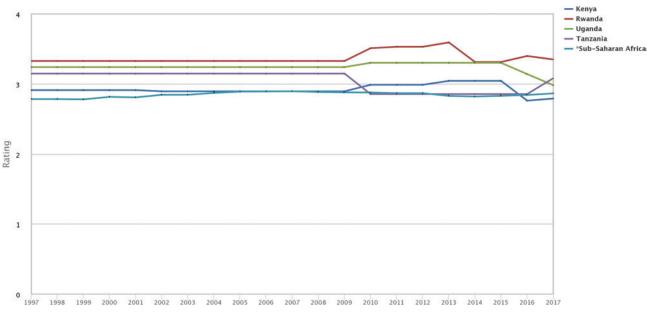
FIGURE 30

WOMEN'S CAPACITY TO PARTICIPATE IN CIVIL SOCIETY ON A SCALE OF 0 (WOMEN HAVE NO CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) TO 1.0 (WOMEN HAVE FULL CAPACITY TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES AND TO FORM AND PARTICIPATE IN GROUPS) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, PACIFIC REGION, 1997–2017



Women civil society participation index

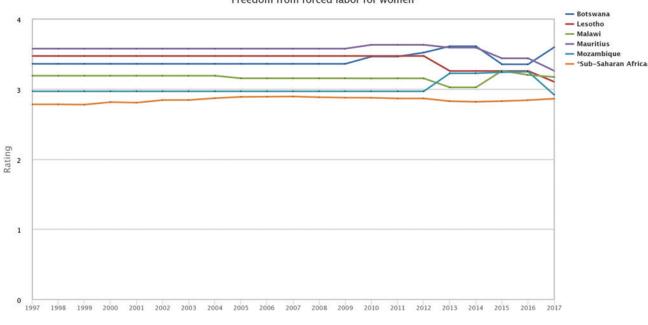
WOMEN'S FREEDOM FROM FORCED LABOUR ON A SCALE OF '0', BEING WIDESPREAD FORCED LABOUR CONDONED BY THE AUTHORITIES, TO '4' REPRESENTING THE ABSENCE OF FORCED LABOUR FROM ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY AND ENJOYED BY ALL GROUPS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES, EAST AFRICA, 1997–2017



Freedom from forced labor for women

FIGURE 32

WOMEN'S FREEDOM FROM FORCED LABOUR ON A SCALE OF '0', BEING WIDESPREAD FORCED LABOUR CONDONED BY THE AUTHORITIES, TO '4' REPRESENTING THE ABSENCE OF FORCED LABOUR FROM ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY AND WHICH IS ENJOYED BY ALL GROUPS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES, SOUTHERN AFRICA, GROUP 1, 1997-2017

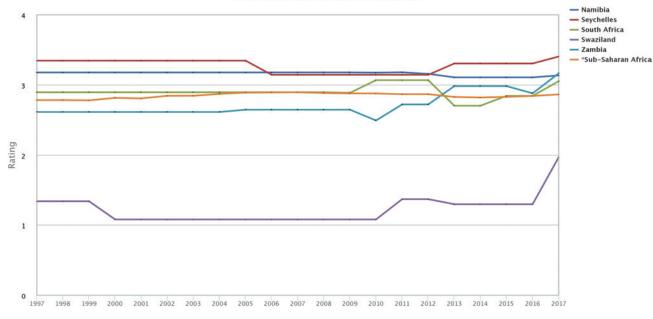


Freedom from forced labor for women

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

WOMEN'S FREEDOM FROM FORCED LABOUR ON A SCALE OF '0', BEING WIDESPREAD FORCED LABOUR CONDONED BY THE AUTHORITIES, TO '4' REPRESENTING THE ABSENCE OF FORCED LABOUR FROM ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY AND WHICH IS ENJOYED BY ALL GROUPS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES, SOUTHERN AFRICA, GROUP 2, 1997–2017

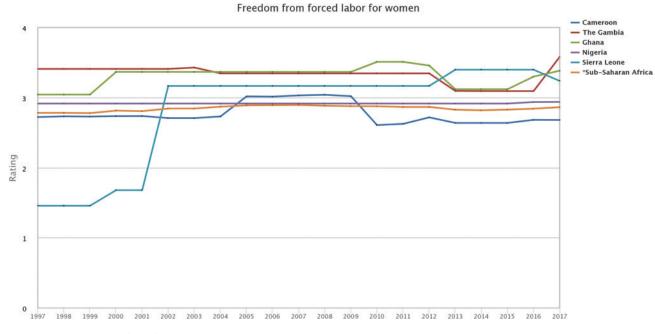


Freedom from forced labor for women

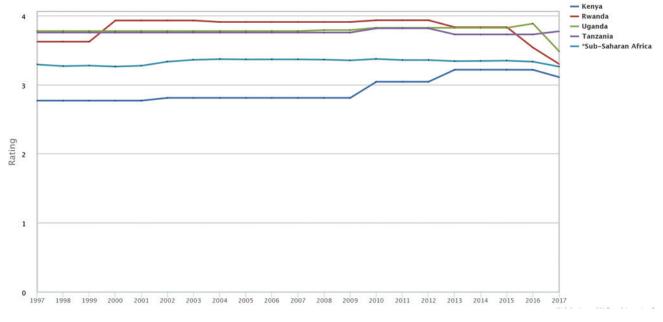
Source: Coppedge, M et al.+(2018).

FIGURE 34

WOMEN'S FREEDOM FROM FORCED LABOUR ON A SCALE OF '0', BEING WIDESPREAD FORCED LABOUR CONDONED BY THE AUTHORITIES, TO '4' REPRESENTING THE ABSENCE OF FORCED LABOUR FROM ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY AND WHICH IS ENJOYED BY ALL GROUPS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES, WEST AFRICA, 1997–2017



FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT FOR WOMEN, WHERE '0' REPRESENTS NO MOVEMENT AND '4' IS UNRESTRICTED MOVEMENT, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, EAST AFRICA 1997–2017

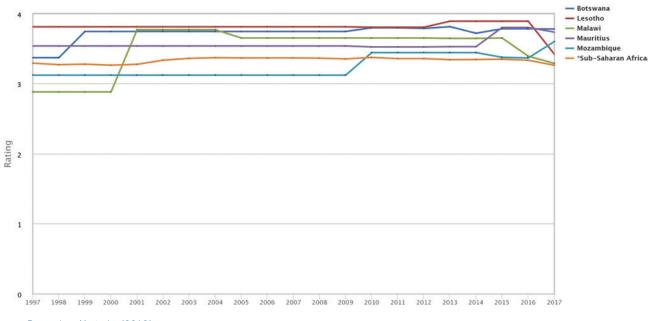


Freedom of domestic movement for women

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

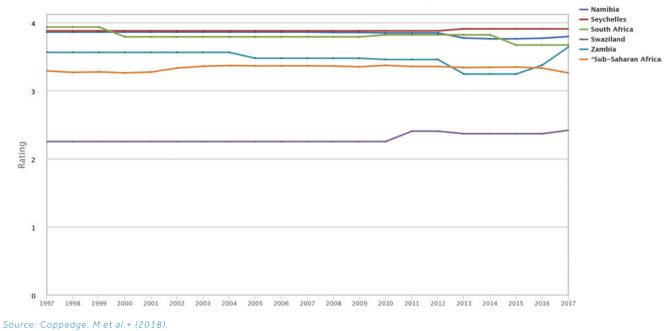
FIGURE 36

FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT FOR WOMEN, WHERE '0' REPRESENTS NO MOVEMENT AND '4' IS UNRESTRICTED MOVEMENT, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, SOUTHERN AFRICA, GROUP 1, 1997–2017



Freedom of domestic movement for women

FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT FOR WOMEN, WHERE '0' REPRESENTS NO MOVEMENT AND '4'IS UNRESTRICTED MOVEMENT, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, SOUTHERN AFRICA, GROUP 2, 1997–2017



Freedom of domestic movement for women

FIGURE 38

FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT FOR WOMEN, WHERE '0' REPRESENTS NO MOVEMENT AND '4' IS UNRESTRICTED MOVEMENT, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, WEST AFRICA, 1997–2017

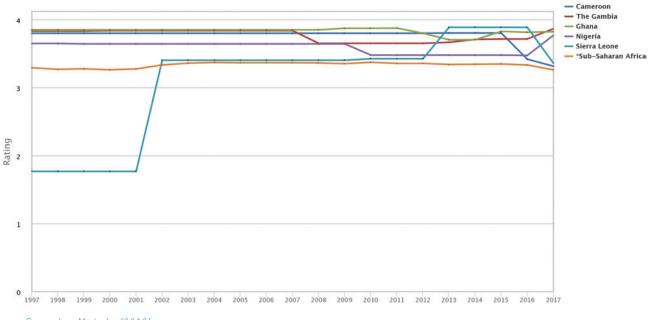
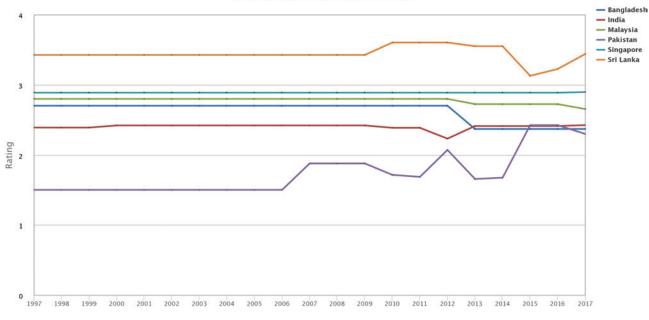




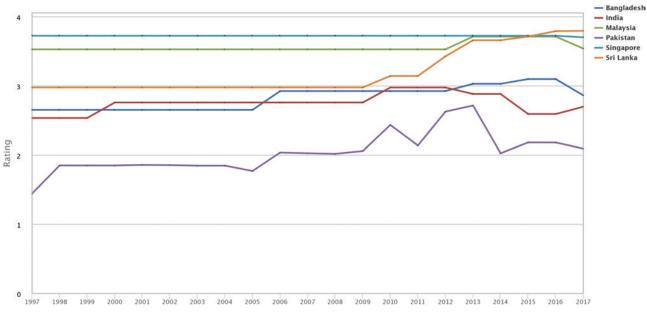
FIGURE 39 WOMEN'S FREEDOM FROM FORCED LABOUR ON A SCALE OF '0', BEING WIDESPREAD FORCED LABOUR CONDONED BY THE AUTHORITIES, TO '4' REPRESENTING THE ABSENCE OF FORCED LABOUR FROM ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY ENJOYED BY ALL GROUPS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES, ASIA, 1997–2017



Freedom from forced labor for women

FIGURE 40

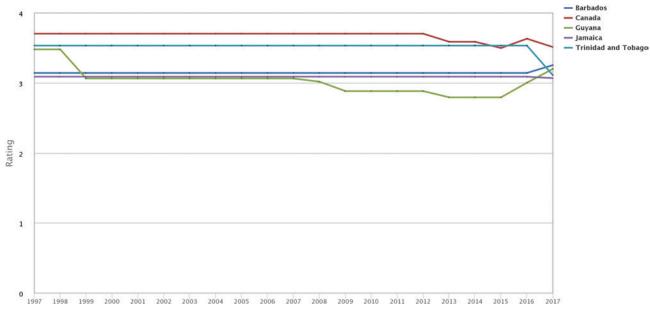
FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT FOR WOMEN WHERE '0' REPRESENT NO MOVEMENT AND '4' IS UNRESTRICTED MOVEMENT, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY ASIA, 1997-2017



Freedom of domestic movement for women

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

WOMEN'S FREEDOM FROM FORCED LABOUR ON A SCALE OF '0', BEING WIDESPREAD FORCED LABOUR CONDONED BY THE AUTHORITIES, TO '4' REPRESENTING THE ABSENCE OF FORCED LABOUR FROM ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY ENJOYED BY ALL GROUPS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, THE CARIBBEAN AND AMERICAS, 1997–2017

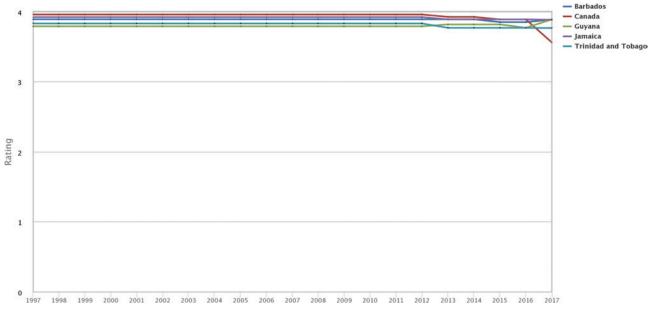


Freedom from forced labor for women

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

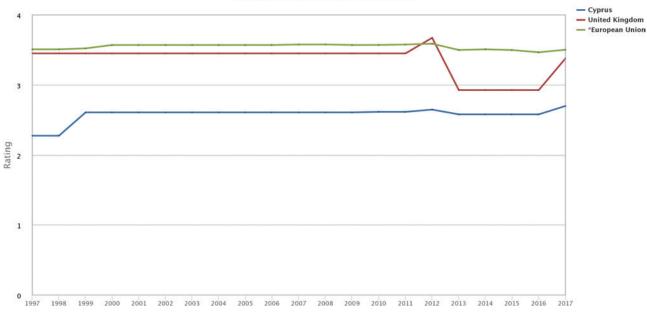
FIGURE 42

FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT FOR WOMEN WHERE '0' REPRESENT NO MOVEMENT AND '4' IS UNRESTRICTED MOVEMENT, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, THE CARIBBEAN AND AMERICAS, 1997–2017



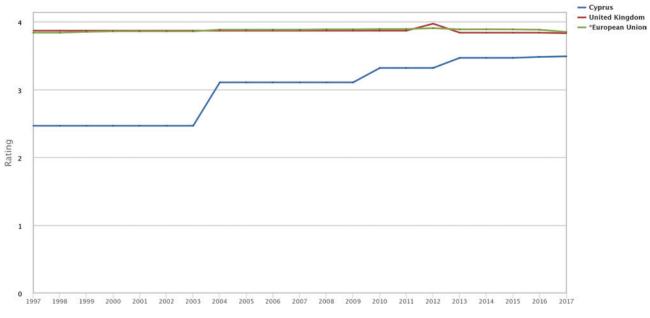
Freedom of domestic movement for women

FIGURE 43 WOMEN'S FREEDOM FROM FORCED LABOUR ON A SCALE OF '0', BEING WIDESPREAD FORCED LABOUR CONDONED BY THE AUTHORITIES, TO '4' REPRESENTING THE ABSENCE OF FORCED LABOUR FROM ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY ENJOYED BY ALL GROUPS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, EUROPE, 1997–2017



Freedom from forced labor for women

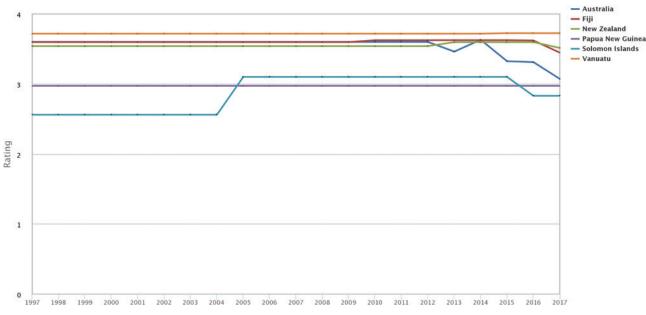
FIGURE 44 FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT FOR WOMEN WHERE '0' REPRESENT NO MOVEMENT AND '4' IS UNRESTRICTED MOVEMENT, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, EUROPE, 1997-2017



Freedom of domestic movement for women

Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

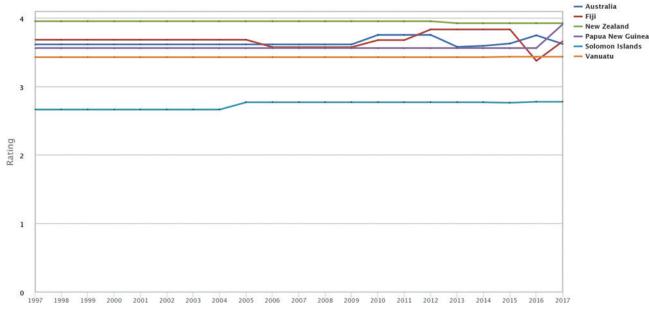
WOMEN'S FREEDOM FROM FORCED LABOUR ON A SCALE OF '0', BEING WIDESPREAD FORCED LABOUR CONDONED BY THE AUTHORITIES, TO '4' REPRESENTING THE ABSENCE OF FORCED LABOUR FROM ALL PARTS OF THE COUNTRY ENJOYED BY ALL GROUPS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, THE PACIFIC, 1997–2017



Freedom from forced labor for women

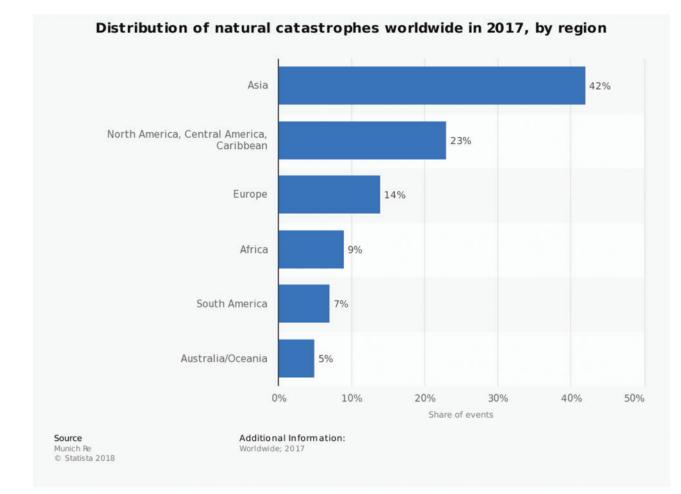
Source: Coppedge, M et al.+ (2018).

FIGURE 46 FREEDOM OF DOMESTIC MOVEMENT FOR WOMEN WHERE '0' REPRESENT NO MOVEMENT AND '4' IS UNRESTRICTED MOVEMENT, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, THE PACIFIC, 1997–2017

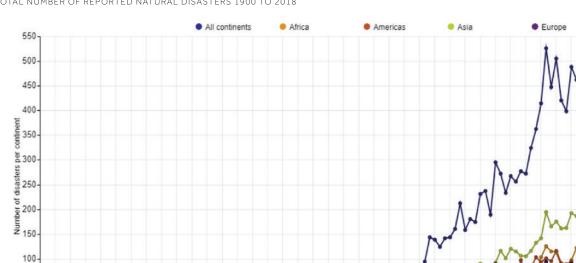


Freedom of domestic movement for women

FIGURE 47 DISTRIBUTION OF NATURAL DISASTER EVENTS WORLDWIDE BY REGION, 2017



Source: Statistica (2018)



Oceani

FIGURE 48 TOTAL NUMBER OF REPORTED NATURAL DISASTERS 1900 TO 2018

1906 1912 1918 1924 1930

Source: EM-DAT: The Emergency Events Database - Université catholique de Louvain (UCL) - CRED, D. Guha-Sapir - www.emdat.be, Brussels, Belgium

1954

1936

1942 1948

1960 Year

1966 1972 1978 1984

1990

1996

2002

2008

2014

Source: EDMAT (see above)

50 -

1900

Endnote

1 Researcher's Note: Although every effort has been made to include data in the following graphs from all Commonwealth countries, the original data source was in many cases unable to supply data for every Commonwealth country. Countries without data collected by the source have not been included in graphs.

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Annex Two

Table 1 to 32¹

 TABLE 1

 YEARS THAT FEMALE LEADERS HAVE OCCUPIED EXECUTIVE OFFICE OVER THE LAST 50 YEARS INCLUDING PARITY RATIO AND WORLD

 RANKING, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Region and Country	Years with female leader (last 50 years)	Ratio of women to men in years of exec. service (i.e., PM/Pres) in last 50 years (1.0 = parity)	World ranking	
Africa				
Botswana	0.0	.0	69	
Cameroon	0.0	.0	69	
Gambia	0.0	.0	69	
Ghana	0.0	.0	69	
Kenya	0.0	.0	69	
Lesotho	0.0	.0	69	
Malawi	2.1	.045	42	
Mauritius	2.4	.050	40	
Mozambique	5.9	.134	21	
Namibia	2.3	.048	41	
Nigeria	0.0	.0	69	
Rwanda	0.7	.015	53	
Seychelles				
Sierra Leone				
South Africa	0.0	.0	69	
eSwatini	0.0	.0	69	
Uganda	0.0	.0	69	
United Republic of Tanzania	0.0	.0	69	
Zambia				
Asia				
Bangladesh	23.6	.896	1	
Brunei Darussalam	0.0	.0	69	
India	20.5	.697	3	
Malaysia	0.0	.0	69	
Pakistan	4.7	.104	28	
Singapore	0.0	.0	69	
Sri Lanka	13.1	.356	7	
Caribbean and Americas				
Antigua and Barbuda				
Bahamas, The	0.1	.002	63	
Barbados	5.5	.125	24	

 TABLE 1 (Continued)

 YEARS THAT FEMALE LEADERS HAVE OCCUPIED EXECUTIVE OFFICE OVER THE LAST 50 YEARS INCLUDING PARITY RATIO AND WORLD

 RANKING, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Region and Country	Years with female leader (last 50 years)	Ratio of women to men in years of exec. service (i.e., PM/Pres) in last 50 years (1.0 = parity)	World ranking
Belize	0.0	.0	69
Canada	0.4	.007	59
Dominica			
Grenada			
Guyana			
Jamaica	5.6	.126	23
Saint Kitts and Nevis			
Saint Lucia			
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines			
Trinidad and Tobago			
Europe			
Cyprus	0.0	.0	69
Malta	8.2	.197	17
United Kingdom	12.5	.335	8
Pacific			
Australia	3.0	.064	35
Fiji	0.0	.0	69
Kiribati			
Nauru			
New Zealand	11.0	.281	12
Papua New Guinea			
Samoa			
Solomon Islands			
Tonga			
Tuvalu			
Vanuatu			

Source: World Economic Forum (2017)

Key

... = Data unavailable

 TABLE 2

 PROPORTION OF WOMEN AS LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCILLORS (%) BY ELECTION YEAR AND METHOD OF ENTRY, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

egion and Country % women councillors		Election year (latest available)	Elected/Appointed/ Reserved	
Africa				
Botswana	18.1	2014	elected	
Cameroon	28.0*	2014	elected	
Gambia				
Ghana	6.7	2010	elected	
Kenya	35.0	2017	reserved 1/3	
Lesotho	49.0	2011	reserved 1/3	
Malawi	12.1	2014	elected	
Mauritius	25.4	2012	elected	
Mozambique	22.0	2002	elected	
Namibia	44.2	2015	elected	
Nigeria	9.8	2015	elected	
Rwanda	40.0*	2015	reserved 30%	
Seychelles			appointed	
Sierra Leone	19.1	2012	elected	
South Africa	42.1	2016	elected	
eSwatini	14.4	2012	elected	
Uganda	30.0	2015	reserved 30%	
United Rep. of Tanzania	34.0*	2015	elected	
Zambia	8.1	2016	elected	
Asia				
Bangladesh	25.2	2013	reserved 1/4 & 1/3	
Brunei Darussalam	No local Government			
India	37.1	2013	reserved 1/3 or 1/2	
Malaysia	13.1	2011	appointed	
Pakistan	19.6	2015	reserved 15, 22, 33%	
Singapore			appointed	
Sri Lanka	29.1	2018	reserved 25%	
Caribbean and Americas	<u>.</u>			
Antigua and Barbuda	45.4	2017	elected	
Bahamas, The	26.0	2017	elected	
Barbados	40.7	2010	appointed	
Belize	24.1	2015	elected	
Canada	27.0*	2014	elected	
Dominica	35.0	2015	elected	

 TABLE 2 (Continued)

 PROPORTION OF WOMEN AS LOCAL GOVERNMENT COUNCILLORS (%) BY ELECTION YEAR AND METHOD OF ENTRY. BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Region and Country	% women councillors	Election year (latest available)	Elected/Appointed/Reserved	
Grenada	No local Government			
Guyana	5.0	2008	elected	
Jamaica	19.3	2016	elected	
Saint Kitts and Nevis	12.5	2017	elected	
Saint Lucia	45.3	2016	appointed	
St. Vincent & Grenadines			appointed	
Trinidad and Tobago	30.4	2016	elected	
Europe				
Cyprus	11.9	2011	elected	
Malta	19.0	2013	elected	
United Kingdom	28.2	2017	elected	
Pacific				
Australia	32.2	2017	elected	
Fiji	13.2	2005	No local government	
Kiribati	3.4	2013	elected	
Nauru	No local Government			
New Zealand	32.5	2017	elected	
Papua New Guinea	1.4	2013	elected	
Samoa	0.0	2015	elected	
Solomon Islands	2.4	2015	elected	
Tonga	1.1	2016	elected	
Tuvalu	4.2	2011	elected	
Vanuatu	6.5	2016	elected	
Commonwealth average	22.3	(Average across latest known year for the 46 countries with available data)		

Notes: Of the 53 Commonwealth countries listed above: 42 have elected local governments including eight with quota/reservations. Six have appointed local councillors and four have no local government.

Source: Commonwealth Local Government Forum (2018)

Key

* = approximate from latest available data; ... = data unavailable

 TABLE 3

 POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT INDEX RATIOS AND RANKINGS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Region and Country	Ratio showing gap between women & men at highest political decision making levels (Parity = 1.0)	World ranking
Africa		
Botswana	.079	122
Cameroon	.191	64
Gambia	.106	104
Ghana	.097	112
Kenya	.147	83
Lesotho	.147	84
Malawi	.152	81
Mauritius	.090	116
Mozambique	.340	24
Namibia	.318	26
Nigeria	.035	135
Rwanda	.539	3
Seychelles		
Sierra Leone		
South Africa	.399	18
eSwatini	.109	102
Uganda	.305	30
United Republic of Tanzania	.239	44
Zambia		
Asia		
Bangladesh	.493	7
Brunei Darussalam	.031	140
India	.407	15
Malaysia	.058	133
Pakistan	.127	95
Singapore	.110	101
Sri Lanka	.188	65
Caribbean & Americas		
Antigua and Barbuda		
Bahamas, The	.122	98
Barbados	.150	82
Belize	.032	139
Canada	.361	20
Dominica		

 TABLE 3 (Continued)

 POLITICAL EMPOWERMENT INDEX RATIOS AND RANKINGS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Region and Country	Ratio showing gap between women & men at highest political decision making levels (Parity = 1.0)	World ranking
Grenada		
Guyana		
Jamaica	.171	74
Saint Kitts and Nevis		
Saint Lucia		
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines		
Trinidad and Tobago		
Europe		
Cyprus	.092	115
Malta	.146	85
United Kingdom	.404	17
Pacific		
Australia	.232	48
Fiji	.104	105
Kiribati		
Nauru		
New Zealand	.317	11
Papua New Guinea		
Samoa		
Solomon Islands		
Tonga		
Tuvalu		
Vanuatu		

Source: World Economic Forum (2017)

Key

... = Data unavailable

 TABLE 4

 FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN COMPANY OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT AND PRODUCTION BY YEAR, REGION AND COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY (2006–2016)

Economy	Year	Percent of firms with female participation in ownership	Percent of firms with majority female ownership	Percent of firms with a female top manager	Proportion of permanent full-time workers that are female (%)	Proportion of permanent full- time production workers that are female (%)*	Proportion of permanent full-time non- production workers that are female (%)*
All Countries		34,9	14,5	18,6	32,4	25,4	35,2
East Asia & Pacific		47,4	28,6	32,7	37,5	38,5	34,7
Latin America & Caribbean		43,0	24,1	21,8	36,5	23,4	44,7
South Asia		18,4	9,6	11,0	18,3	19,8	18,4
Sub-Saharan Africa		31,8	13,0	15,9	28,2	19,4	30,4
Bangladesh	2007	16,1		1,3	19,4	20,5	6,6
Bangladesh	2013	12,7	1,7	4,8	15,8	21,1	10,7
Belize	2010	30,4		25,5	47,2		
Botswana	2006	40,9			43,1	41,3	51,9
Botswana	2010	55,3	8,9	16,5	41,2	29,9	53,9
Cameroon	2009	15,7	10,1	10,0	27,8	11,3	32,9
Cameroon	2016	39,7	31,0	22,9	31,8	16,1	27,2
Dominica	2010	41,0		23,6	32,1		
Fiji	2009	49,1			37,3		
Ghana	2007	44,0			34,8	35,1	33,9
Ghana	2013	31,6	14,7	14,9	24,7	18,0	32,8
Gambia, The	2006	21,3			16,2	15,2	31,9
Grenada	2010	57,3		24,0	45,9		
Guyana, CR	2010	58,3		17,7	39,1		
India	2014	10,7	2,8	8,9	14,7	11,0	17,1
Jamaica	2010	38,2		24,1	44,5	20,0	61,5
Kenya	2007	37,1			20,8	18,1	30,7
Kenya	2013	48,7	8,6	13,4	29,1	20,5	29,5
St. Lucia	2010	32,1		23,7	41,5		
Sri Lanka	2011	26,1		8,8	24,0	30,8	17,4
Lesotho	2009	18,4	15,6	21,6	38,4		
Lesotho	2016	39,1	25,4	36,2	48,2	45,6	50,1
Mozambique	2007	24,4			13,5	10,5	30,7
Mauritius	2009	16,9	4,9		30,0	26,5	30,8
Malawi	2009	23,9	13,8	15,6	23,0		
Malawi	2014	28,1	11,4	14,2	27,6	10,1	27,2

(Continued)

 TABLE 4 (Continued)

 FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN COMPANY OWNERSHIP. MANAGEMENT AND PRODUCTION BY YEAR. REGION AND COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY (2006–2016)

2006-2016)							
Economy	Year	Percent of firms with female participation in ownership	Percent of firms with majority female ownership	Percent of firms with a female top manager	Proportion of permanent full-time workers that are female (%)	Proportion of permanent full- time production workers that are female (%)*	Proportion of permanent full-time non- production workers that are female (%)*
Malaysia	2015	25,4	10,4	26,3	33,9	28,1	35,7
Namibia	2006	33,4			27,1	24,1	43,0
Namibia	2014	41,0	25,6	27,4	33,8	25,7	56,0
Nigeria	2007	20,0			16,0	19,0	26,6
Nigeria	2014	16,2	13,2	13,9	24,3	24,2	19,3
Pakistan	2007	6,7			0,8	0,9	0,4
Pakistan	2013	11,8	8,0	6,0	7,3	0,8	1,5
Papua New Guinea	2015	46,5	12,4	13,8	37,2	n.a.	n.a.
Rwanda	2006	41,0			30,3	28,7	31,5
Rwanda	2011	42,7	12,9	19,7	32,4		
Solomon Islands	2015	47,4	12,8	22,6	34,0		
Sierra Leone	2009	7,9	1,7	7,1	17,4		
Sierra Leone	2017	18,8	16,9	15,9	23,3	23,6	33,4
eSwatini	2006	28,6			42,5	42,6	42,6
eSwatini	2016	36,0	16,9	27,4	40,5	38,1	31,1
Tonga	2009	65,3			56,3		
Tanzania	2006	30,9			22,8	23,0	23,7
Tanzania	2013	24,7	9,9	14,0	44,0	19,1	38,2
Uganda	2006	34,7			17,6	13,6	37,2
Uganda	2013	26,6	10,2	15,4	40,1	20,9	40,1
St. Vincent & Grenadines	2010	76,0		38,6	49,3		
Vanuatu	2009	51,4			37,7		
Samoa	2009	79,8			34,4		
South Africa	2007	22,6			29,1	26,6	41,9
Zambia	2007	37,2			14,8	11,7	24,8
Zambia	2013	49,8	19,0	23,8	38,1	16,9	23,3

Source: World Bank (2018)

Key

.... = data unavailable

 TABLE 5

 DECISION MAKING FREEDOMS AND RESPONSIBILITIES WITHIN MARRIAGE BY COMMONWEALTH REGION AND COUNTRY

Country	Are wives required to obey their husbands?	Do spouses jointly share legal responsibility for maintaining the family?
Africa		
Botswana	no	yes
Cameron	no	yes
Gambia, The	no	yes
Ghana	no	yes
Kenya	no	yes
Lesotho	no	yes
Malawi	no	yes
Mauritius	no	yes
Mozambique	no	yes
Namibia	no	yes
Nigeria	no	yes
Rwanda	no	yes
Seychelles	no	yes
Sierra Leone	no	yes
South Africa	no	yes
eSwatini	no	yes
Uganda	no	yes
United Rep. of Tanzania	no	no
Zambia	no	yes
Asia		
Bangladesh	no	no
Brunei Darussalam	yes	no
India	no	yes
Malaysia	yes	no
Pakistan	no	no
Singapore	no	yes
Sri Lanka	no	yes
Caribbean and Americas		
Antigua and Barbuda	no	yes
Bahamas, The	no	yes
Barbados	no	yes
Belize	no	yes
Canada	no	yes
Dominica	no	yes

(Continued)

 TABLE 5 (Continued)

 DECISION MAKING FREEDOMS AND RESPONSIBILITIES WITHIN MARRIAGE BY COMMONWEALTH REGION AND COUNTRY

Country	Are wives required to obey their husbands?	Do spouses jointly share legal responsibility for maintaining the family?
Grenada	no	yes
Guyana	no	yes
Jamaica	no	yes
Saint Lucia	no	yes
St Kitts and Nevis	no	yes
St Vincent and The Grenadines	no	yes
Trinidad and Tobago	no	yes
Europe		
Cyprus	no	yes
Malta	no	yes
United Kingdom	no	yes
Pacific		
Australia	no	yes
Fiji	no	yes
Kiribati	no	yes
Nauru	no	yes
New Zealand	no	yes
Papua New Guinea	no	yes
Samoa	no	yes
Solomon Islands	no	yes
Tonga	no	yes
Tuvalu	no	yes
Vanuatu	no	no

Source: World Bank (2018e)

TABLE 6(1) PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE POPULATION AGE 20-24 WITH COMPLETED SECONDARY SCHOOLING AND (2) EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENTRATIOS AND GLOBAL RANKINGS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country	% women (20–24) completing	Educational attainment ratio* Parity = 1.0	
Country	Secondary School	Ratio	World ranking
Africa			
Botswana	30.1	1.00	1
Cameroon	17.1	.868	129
Gambia	3.3	.896	127
Ghana	30.5	.931	119
Kenya	17.5	.929	120
Lesotho	26.9	1.00	1
Malawi	12.9	.908	126
Mauritius	70.0	.991	71
Mozambique	4.4	.857	130
Namibia	20.8	.999	41
Nigeria	42.1	.813	135
Rwanda	10.2	.951	113
Seychelles			
Sierra Leone	13.3		
South Africa	78.0	.992	69
eSwatini	8.3	.995	59
Uganda	4.7	.913	124
United Republic of Tanzania	6.2	.910	125
Zambia	15.9		
Eastern & Southern Africa	49.3		
Sub-Saharan Africa	36.7		
Asia			
Bangladesh	64.9	.954	111
Brunei Darussalam	37.6	.990	78
India	37.9	.952	112
Malaysia	45.1	.991	77
Pakistan	24.5	.802	136
Singapore	31.0	.997	94
Sri Lanka	28.1	.986	86
South Asia	27.7		
Caribbean and Americas			
Antigua and Barbuda			
Bahamas, The		1.00	1
Barbados	13.7	1.00	1

TABLE 6 (Continued)(1) PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE POPULATION AGE 20-24 WITH COMPLETED SECONDARY SCHOOLING AND (2) EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENTRATIOS AND GLOBAL RANKINGS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country	% women (20–24) completing	Educational attainment ratio* Parity = 1.0	
Country	Secondary School	Ratio	World ranking
Belize	47.2	.988	85
Canada	43.6	1.00	1
Dominica			
Grenada			
Guyana	55.7		
Jamaica	45.0	1.00	1
Saint Kitts and Nevis			
Saint Lucia			
Saint Vincent & Grenadines			
Trinidad and Tobago	71.7		
Latin America & Caribbean*			
Europe			
Cyprus	41.2	.998	46
Malta	42.7	1.00	1
United Kingdom	63.0	.999	36
Pacific			
Australia	78.7	1.00	1
Fiji	74.2	.991	71
Kiribati			
Nauru			
New Zealand		.998	43
Papua New Guinea	8.9		
Samoa			
Solomon Islands			
Tonga	74.9		
Tuvalu			
Vanuatu			
East Asia & Pacific	49.3		
World	36.7		

Sources: World Bank Education Database: (2017) UNICEF (2018) and World Economic Forum (2017)

Key

*This ratio is the gap between girl's/women's and boy's/men's current access to education through ratios of women to men in primary-, secondary- and tertiary-level education, and the ratio of the female literacy rate to the male literacy rate.

 TABLE 7

 FAMILY PLANNING DEMAND FROM WOMEN SATISFIED BY MODERN METHODS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES

Country	% demand Met	Survey year
Africa		
Botswana	74,9	2015
Cameroon	33,6	2015
Gambia, The	25,1	2015
Ghana	36,2	2016
Кепуа	73,7	2015
Lesotho	75,5	2015
Malawi	72,5	2016
Mauritius	65,4	2014
Mozambique	35,4	2015
Namibia	76,3	2015
Nigeria	38,5	2016
Rwanda	64,2	2015
Seychelles		
Sierra Leone	34,4	2015
South Africa	83,0	2015
eSwatini	77,3	2015
Uganda	51,5	2016
United Republic of Tanzania	52,9	2016
Zambia	63,6	2015
Sub-Saharan Africa	51,1	2015
Asia		
Bangladesh	74,3	2015
Brunei Darussalam		
India	72,0	2015
Malaysia	57,6	2015
Pakistan	47,3	2015
Singapore	74,7	2015
Sri Lanka	70,9	2015
South Asia	69,6	2015
Caribbean and Americas		
Antigua and Barbuda	77,9	2015
Bahamas, The	82,1	2015
Barbados	74,3	2015
Belize	71,2	2015

Country	% demand Met	Survey year
Canada	87,5	2015
Dominica	77,7	2015
Grenada	77,9	2015
Guyana	60,9	2015
Jamaica	83,1	2015
Saint Lucia	73,1	2015
St Kitts and Nevis	73,2	2015
St Vincent and The Grenadines	79,4	2015
Trinidad and Tobago	63,4	2015
Caribbean small states	76,1	2013
Europe		
Cyprus		
Malta	69,9	2015
United Kingdom	92,6	2015
Pacific		
Australia	83,1	2015
Fiji	62,5	2015
Kiribati	40,8	2015
Nauru	44.6	2015
New Zealand	83,8	2015
Papua New Guinea	46,3	2015
Samoa	41,3	2015
Solomon Islands	52,6	2015
Tonga	47,3	2015
Tuvalu	43.7	2015
Vanuatu	52,3	2015
Least Developed Countries	55,1	2013
World	76,0	2015

 TABLE 7 (Continued)

 FAMILY PLANNING DEMAND FROM WOMEN SATISFIED BY MODERN METHODS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRIES

Sources: United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs (2017) and the World Bank (2018b)

TABLE 8
PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN EXPERIENCING PHYSICAL AND OR SEXUAL VIOLENCE FROM AN
INTIMATE PARTNER AT SOME STAGE IN THEIR LIVES BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country	%
Africa	
Botswana	
Cameroon	51
Gambia, The	
Ghana	23
Kenya	31
Lesotho	
Malawi	31
Mauritius	
Mozambique	32
Namibia	36
Nigeria	18
Rwanda	56
Seychelles	
Sierra Leone	
South Africa	13
eSwatini	
Uganda	51
United Republic of Tanzania	44
Zambia	50
Africa	36.6
Asia	
Bangladesh	53
Brunei Darussalam	
India	37
Malaysia	
Pakistan	39
Singapore	6
Sri Lanka	
Southeast Asia	37.7
Caribbean and Americas	
Antigua and Barbuda	
Bahamas, The	
Barbados	

Country	%
Canada	6
Dominica	
Grenada	
Guyana	
Jamaica	35
Saint Lucia	
St Kitts and Nevis	
St Vincent and The Grenadines	
Trinidad and Tobago	30
Americas	29.8
Europe	
Cyprus	15
Malta	15
United Kingdom	29
Europe	25.4
Pacific	
Australia	25
Fiji	64
Kiribati	68
Nauru	48
New Zealand	33
Papua New Guinea	33
Samoa	46
Solomon Islands	64
Tonga	40
Tuvalu	37
Vanuatu	60
Western Pacific	24.6

TABLE 8 (Continued) PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN EXPERIENCING PHYSICAL AND OR SEXUAL VIOLENCE FROM AN

TABLE 9 WOMEN'S ACCESS TO JUSTICE, ON A SCAL (UNRESTRICTED ACCESS TO JUSTICE) BY C		
Region and Country	1997	2017
Africa		
Botswana	2.95	2.62
Cameroon	2.45	2.07
Gambia	2 21	2 80

Botswana2.952.62Cameroon2.452.07Gambia2.212.80Ghana3.393.25Kenya1.831.64Lesotho2.422.20Malawi2.582.66Mauritius3.043.02Mozambique2.712.10Namibia2.822.49Nigeria2.262.86Seychelles2.712.97Sierra Leone0.542.12South Africa3.282.77eSwathi1.551.97Uganda2.492.52Zambia2.942.67United Republic of Tanzania2.392.52Singapore2.412.59Malaysia1.021.54Singapore2.713.23Singapore2.723.23Sin Lanka2.123.23Singapore3.243.33BelizeCanada3.343.33BelizeCanada3.343.344	Africa		
Gambia2.212.80Gambia2.212.80Ghana3.393.25Kenya1.831.64Lesotho2.422.20Malawi2.582.66Mauritius3.043.02Mozambique2.712.10Namibia2.822.49Nigeria1.952.84Rwanda2.262.86Seychelles2.712.97Sierra Leone0.542.12South Africa3.282.77eSwatini1.551.97Uganda2.942.67United Republic of Tanzania2.392.52Zambia2.492.45Bangladesh1.991.54Brunei DarussalamIndia2.402.25Malaysia2.182.21Pakistan1.021.12Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Hatigua and BarbudaBarbados3.343.33BelizeCanada3.44	Botswana	2.95	2.62
Ghana3.393.25Kenya1.831.64Lesotho2.422.20Malawi2.582.66Mauritius3.043.02Mozambique2.712.10Namibia2.822.49Nigeria1.952.84Rwanda2.262.86Seychelles2.712.97Sierra Leone0.542.12South Africa3.282.77eSwatini1.551.97Uganda2.942.67United Republic of Tanzania2.392.52Zambia2.492.45Asia1.991.54Brunei DarussalamIndia2.402.25Malaysia2.182.21Pakistan1.021.12Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Artigua and BarbudaBarbados3.343.33BelizeCranada	Cameroon	2.45	2.07
Kenya 1.83 1.64 Lesotho 2.42 2.20 Malawi 2.58 2.66 Mauritius 3.04 3.02 Mozambique 2.71 2.10 Namibia 2.82 2.49 Nigeria 1.95 2.84 Rwanda 2.26 2.86 Seychelles 2.71 2.97 Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 SriLanka 2.18	Gambia	2.21	2.80
Lesotho 2.42 2.20 Malawi 2.58 2.66 Mauritius 3.04 3.02 Mozambique 2.71 2.10 Namibia 2.82 2.49 Nigeria 1.95 2.84 Rwanda 2.26 2.86 Seychelles 2.71 2.97 Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwathi 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Bahamas, The .	Ghana	3.39	3.25
Malawi 2.58 2.66 Mauritius 3.04 3.02 Mozambique 2.71 2.10 Namibia 2.82 2.49 Nigeria 1.95 2.84 Rwanda 2.26 2.86 Seychelles 2.71 2.97 Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.18 2.59 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize </td <td>Kenya</td> <td>1.83</td> <td>1.64</td>	Kenya	1.83	1.64
Mauritius3.043.02Mozambique2.712.10Namibia2.822.49Nigeria1.952.84Rwanda2.262.86Seychelles2.712.97Sierra Leone0.542.12South Africa3.282.77eSwatini1.551.97Uganda2.942.67United Republic of Tanzania2.392.52Zambia2.492.45AsiaBangladesh1.991.54Brunei DarussalamIndia2.402.25Malaysia2.182.21Pakistan1.021.12Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Antigua and BarbudaBarbados3.343.33BelizeCanada3.483.44	Lesotho	2.42	2.20
Mozambique 2.71 2.10 Namibia 2.71 2.10 Namibia 2.82 2.49 Nigeria 1.95 2.84 Rwanda 2.26 2.86 Seychelles 2.71 2.97 Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Srit Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Bahamas, The Barbados	Malawi	2.58	2.66
Namibia 2.82 2.49 Nigeria 1.95 2.84 Rwanda 2.26 2.86 Seychelles 2.71 2.97 Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 Uganda 2.93 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia 2.49 2.45 Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Srit Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize	Mauritius	3.04	3.02
Nigeria 1.95 2.84 Rwanda 2.26 2.86 Seychelles 2.71 2.97 Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia 1.99 1.54 Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize	Mozambique	2.71	2.10
Rwanda 2.26 2.86 Seychelles 2.71 2.97 Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.48 3.44	Namibia	2.82	2.49
Seychelles 2.71 2.97 Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize	Nigeria	1.95	2.84
Sierra Leone 0.54 2.12 South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.44	Rwanda	2.26	2.86
South Africa 3.28 2.77 eSwatini 1.55 1.97 Uganda 2.94 2.67 United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.48 3.44	Seychelles	2.71	2.97
eSwatini1.551.97Uganda2.942.67United Republic of Tanzania2.392.52Zambia2.492.45Asia1.991.54Bangladesh1.991.54Brunei DarussalamIndia2.402.25Malaysia2.182.21Pakistan1.021.12Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Antigua and BarbudaBarbados3.343.33BelizeCanada3.483.44	Sierra Leone	0.54	2.12
Uganda2.942.67United Republic of Tanzania2.392.52Zambia2.492.45AsiaBangladesh1.991.54Brunei DarussalamIndia2.402.25Malaysia2.182.21Pakistan1.021.12Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Caribbean and AmericasAntigua and BarbudaBarbados3.343.33BelizeCanada3.483.44	South Africa	3.28	2.77
United Republic of Tanzania 2.39 2.52 Zambia 2.49 2.45 Asia Bangladesh 1.99 1.54 Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.48 3.44	eSwatini	1.55	1.97
Zambia2.492.45AsiaBangladesh1.991.54Brunei DarussalamIndia2.402.25Malaysia2.182.21Pakistan1.021.12Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Caribbean and AmericasAntigua and BarbudaBahamas, TheBarbados3.343.33BelizeCanada3.44	Uganda	2.94	2.67
AsiaBangladesh1.991.54Brunei DarussalamIndia2.402.25Malaysia2.182.21Pakistan1.021.12Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Caribbean and AmericasAntigua and BarbudaBahamas, TheBarbados3.343.33BelizeCanada3.44	United Republic of Tanzania	2.39	2.52
Bangladesh1.991.54Brunei DarussalamIndia2.402.25Malaysia2.182.21Pakistan1.021.12Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Caribbean and AmericasAntigua and BarbudaBahamas, TheBarbados3.343.33BelizeCanada3.44	Zambia	2.49	2.45
Brunei Darussalam India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.44	Asia		
India 2.40 2.25 Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.48 3.44	Bangladesh	1.99	1.54
Malaysia 2.18 2.21 Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.44	Brunei Darussalam		
Pakistan 1.02 1.12 Singapore 2.72 3.23 Sri Lanka 2.18 2.59 Caribbean and Americas Antigua and Barbuda Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.48 3.44	India	2.40	2.25
Singapore2.723.23Sri Lanka2.182.59Caribbean and AmericasAntigua and BarbudaBahamas, TheBarbados3.34BelizeCanada3.44	Malaysia	2.18	2.21
Sri Lanka2.182.59Caribbean and AmericasAntigua and BarbudaBahamas, TheBarbados3.343.33BelizeCanada3.483.44	Pakistan	1.02	1.12
Caribbean and AmericasAntigua and BarbudaBahamas, TheBarbados3.34BelizeCanada3.44	Singapore	2.72	3.23
Antigua and BarbudaBahamas, TheBarbados3.34BelizeCanada3.44	Sri Lanka	2.18	2.59
Bahamas, The Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.48 3.44	Caribbean and Americas		
Barbados 3.34 3.33 Belize Canada 3.48 3.44	Antigua and Barbuda		
Belize Canada 3.48 3.44	Bahamas, The		
Canada 3.48 3.44	Barbados	3.34	3.33
	Belize		
Dominica	Canada	3.48	3.44
	Dominica		

Region and Country	1997	2017	
Caribbean and Americas, continued			
Grenada			
Guyana	2.48	2.94	
Jamaica	2.25	2.46	
Saint Kitts and Nevis			
Saint Lucia			
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines			
Trinidad and Tobago	3.38	3.41	
Europe			
Cyprus	3.43	3.58	
Malta			
United Kingdom	3.90	3.57	
Pacific			
Australia	3.82	3.43	
Fiji	2.75	2.83	
Kiribati			
Nauru			
New Zealand	3.65	3.53	
Papua New Guinea	1.81	1.81	
Samoa			
Solomon Islands	2.48	2.56	
Tonga			
Tuvalu			
Vanuatu	2.83	2.97	
World	2.42	2.48	

 TABLE 9 (Continued)

 WOMEN'S ACCESS TO JUSTICE, ON A SCALE OF '0' (NO ACCESS TO JUSTICE) TO '4'

 (UNRESTRICTED ACCESS TO JUSTICE) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, 1997–2017

Source: Coppedge et al.+ (2018)

Key

 TABLE 10

 FEMALE LABOUR FORCE: PARTICIPATION (%) OF FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15+ BY

 COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

C	Year (%)	
Country	1990	2017
Africa		
Botswana	61	84
Cameroon	85	88
The Gambia	65	76
Ghana	92	94
Kenya	91	91
Lesotho	82	80
Malawi	97	88
Mauritius	47	62
Mozambique	96	100
Namibia	75	90
Nigeria	73	84
Rwanda	94	100
Sierra Leone	97	97
South Africa	63	77
eSwatini	51	63
Tanzania	96	91
Uganda	81	89
Zambia	86	88
Sub-Saharan Africa	80	86
Asia		
Bangladesh	26	41
Brunei Darussalam	56	79
India	42	35
Malaysia	58	66
Pakistan	17	30
Singapore	60	79
Sri Lanka	57	47
South Asia	40	36
Caribbean and the Americas		
Bahamas, The	82	85
Barbados	79	89
Belize	42	66
Canada	76	87

	Year (%)						
Country	1990	2017					
Guyana	45	55					
Jamaica	76	74					
St. Lucia	60	81					
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	55	73					
Trinidad and Tobago	51	69					
Caribbean small states	65	72					
Europe							
Cyprus	63	86					
Malta	38	64					
United Kingdom	70	83					
European Union	67	80					
Pacific							
Australia	69	84					
Fiji	50	54					
New Zealand	72	85					
Papua New Guinea	96	97					
Samoa	59	61					
Tonga	48	61					
Vanuatu	78	77					
Small Island Pacific States	60	66					
World	67	67					

 TABLE 10 (Continued)

 FEMALE LABOUR FORCE: PARTICIPATION (%) OF FEMALE POPULATION AGED 15+ BY

 COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Source: International Labour Organization, ILOSTAT database (2018)

 TABLE 11

 WOMEN AND GIRL'S AGED 15+ BORROWING SOURCES & LOANS FOR ENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT (%) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY AND REGION; 2017 UNLESS OTHERWISE NOTED

Country/region	Borrowed money in the last 12 months	Borrowed from a financial institution in the last 12 months	Borrowed to start, operate or expand a farm or business (aged 15+)				
Africa		•					
Botswana	32.1	4.1	2.1				
Cameroon	52.6	5.7	3.8				
Ghana	37.6	9.9	8.0				
Kenya	61.7	12.3	7.0				
Lesotho	49.3	4.4	2.3				
Malawi	50.2	8.2	6.6				
Mauritius	30.7	6.1	7.0				
Mozambique	47.7	5.0	7.0				
Namibia	58.2	7.5	6.6				
Rwanda	62.5	6.4	5.8				
Sierra Leone	45.3	5.4	5.4				
South Africa	51.1	7.9	5.1				
eSwatini		10.0					
Tanzania	37.6	4.6	3.6				
Uganda	63.8	13.4	13.6				
Zambia	43.4	5.9	7.5				
Asia							
Bangladesh	32.9	7.9	8.5				
India	38.9	5.0	3.2				
Malaysia	34.2	11.1	10.2				
Pakistan	31.4	1.5	0.5				
Singapore	51.6	15.6	20.9				
Sri Lanka	31.7	15.7	10.4				
South Asia	37.8	5.2	3.7				
Caribbean & Americas							
Belize	56.4	15.4	5.1				
Canada	88.8	25.9	37.2				
Jamaica	40.2	11.3	5.3				
Trinidad and Tobago	41.6	13.6	9.6				
Europe							
Cyprus	42.3	8.9	20.9				
Malta	45.9	7.5	24.0				
United Kingdom	73.9	16.3	25.9				

 TABLE 11 (Continued)

 WOMEN AND GIRL'S AGED 15+ BORROWING SOURCES & LOANS FOR ENTERPRISE DEVELOPMENT (%) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY AND REGION; 2017 UNLESS OTHERWISE NOTED

Country/region	Borrowed money in the last 12 months	Borrowed from a financial institution in the last 12 months	Borrowed to start, operate or expand a farm or business (aged 15+)
The Pacific			
Australia	72.5	20.8	35.6
New Zealand	78.1	30.0	33.2
Regions			
East Asia & Pacific	44.5	9.6	9.5
Euro area	51.8	14.5	22.7
Latin America & Caribbean (excluding high income)	33.9	8.4	11.0
Middle East & North Africa	40.0	7.4	6.9
World	44.9	9.4	9.8

Source: World Bank (2018a)

Key

Country	Length of time covered by paid maternity/ paternity/parental leave
Africa	
Botswana	84
Cameroon	98
The Gambia	190
Ghana	84
Kenya	100
Lesotho	84
Malawi	56
Mauritius	103
Mozambique	
Namibia	84
Nigeria	84
Rwanda	88
Seychelles	103
Sierra Leone	84
South Africa	123
eSwatini	14
Tanzania	87
Uganda	88
Zambia	84
Asia	
Bangladesh	112
Brunei Darussalam	91
India	182
Malaysia	60
Pakistan	84
Singapore	122
Sri Lanka	84
Caribbean & Americas	
Antigua & Barbuda	91
Bahamas, The	91
Barbados	84
Belize	98
Canada	350
Dominica	84

(Continued)

 TABLE 12

 LENGTH OF TIME PARENTS BENEFIT FROM PAID PARENTAL LEAVE BY (DAYS)

 COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country	Length of time covered by paid maternity/ paternity/parental leave
Grenada	90
Guyana	91
Jamaica	56
St. Kitts and Nevis	91
St. Lucia	91
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	91
Trinidad and Tobago	98
Europe	
Cyprus	126
Malta	127
United Kingdom	283
Pacific	
Australia	136
Fiji	84
Kiribati	84
Nauru	
New Zealand	126
Papua New Guinea	0
Samoa	33
Solomon Islands The	84
Tonga	0
Tuvalu	
Vanuatu	84

 TABLE 12 (Continued)

 LENGTH OF TIME PARENTS BENEFIT FROM PAID PARENTAL LEAVE BY (DAYS)

 COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Source: The World Bank Women, Business and the Law database (2018)

Key

TABLE 13 FEMALE AGRICULTURAL HOLDERS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, YEAR (MOST RECENT DATA) & ORIGINAL SOURCE

Country	Year	% female	Source				
Africa							
Botswana	2004	34.7%	Agricultural Census				
Gambia	2001–2002	8.3%	Agricultural Census				
Lesotho	1999–2000	30.8%	Agricultural Census				
Malawi	1993	32.1%	Agricultural Census				
Mozambique	1999–2000	23.1%	Agricultural Census				
Nigeria	2007	10.0%	Collaborative Survey				
Seychelles	2011	18.7%	Agricultural Census				
Tanzania	2002	19.7%	Agricultural Census				
Uganda	1991	16.3%	Agricultural Census				
Zambia	2000	19.2%	Agricultural Census				
Asia							
Bangladesh	2008	4.6%	Agricultural Census				
India	2010-2011	12.8%	Agricultural Census				
Malaysia	2005	18.0%	Agricultural Census				
Sri Lanka	2002	16.3%	Agricultural Census				
Caribbean & Americas							
Belize	2003	8.1%	Website Min. of Agriculture				
Canada	2011	27.4%	Agricultural Census				
Jamaica	2007	30.2%	Agricultural Census				
Saint Kitts and Nevis	2000	27.9%	Agricultural Census				
Saint Lucia	2007	29.7%	Agricultural Census				
Trinidad and Tobago	2004	14.7%	Agricultural Census				
Europe							
Cyprus	2010	20.6%	Eurostat				
Malta	2010	11.1%	Eurostat				
United Kingdom	2010	13.1%	Eurostat				
Pacific							
Fiji	2009	3.6%	Agricultural Census				
Samoa	2009	22.9%	Agricultural Census				

Source: UN FAO (2018)

Key

*The agricultural holder is the civil or juridical person who makes the major decisions regarding resource use and exercises management control over the agricultural holding.

 TABLE 14

 ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION AND OPPORTUNITY INDEX RATIOS AND RANKINGS. BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country	Ratio showing gap between women & men on labour force participation, remuneration & advancement. Parity = 1.0	World ranking
Africa		
Botswana	.822	6
Cameroon	.725	40
Gambia	.627	100
Ghana	.784	18
Kenya	.720	44
Lesotho	.655	84
Malawi	.654	85
Mauritius	.595	113
Mozambique	.789	17
Namibia	.813	9
Nigeria	.728	37
Rwanda	.820	7
Seychelles		
Sierra Leone		
South Africa	.652	89
eSwatini	.595	112
Uganda	.693	59
United Republic of Tanzania	.674	69
Zambia		
Asia		
Bangladesh	.465	129
Brunei Darussalam	.692	61
India	.375	139
Malaysia	.654	87
Pakistan	.309	143
Singapore	.752	27
Sri Lanka	.521	123
Caribbean and Americas		
Antigua and Barbuda		
Bahamas, The	.871	3
Barbados	.877	2
Canada	.744	29
Dominica		
Grenada		

 TABLE 14 (Continued)

 ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION AND OPPORTUNITY INDEX RATIOS AND RANKINGS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country	Ratio showing gap between women & men on labour force participation, remuneration & advancement. Parity = 1.0	World ranking
Guyana		
Jamaica	.725	39
Saint Kitts and Nevis		
Saint Lucia		
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines		
Trinidad and Tobago		
Belize	.772	21
Europe		
Cyprus	.679	66
Malta	.610	107
United Kingdom	.705	53
Pacific		
Australia	.724	42
Fiji	.479	127
Kiribati		
Nauru		
New Zealand	.769	23
Papua New Guinea		
Samoa		
Solomon Islands		
Tonga		
Tuvalu		
Vanuatu		

Source: World Economic Forum (2017)

Key

... = Data unavailable

1 This subindex measures:

 $a\quad the \ participation \ gap, \ i.e., \ the \ difference \ between \ women \ and \ men \ in \ labour \ force \ participation \ rates,$

b The remuneration gap, i.e., the ratio of estimated wage equality for similar work,

and

c the advancement gap, i.e., the ratio of women to men among legislators, senior officials and managers, and the ratio of women to men among technical and professional workers.

 TABLE 15

 PROPORTION OF WOMEN AS MEMBERS OF CORPORATE BOARDS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

 AND EUROPEAN UNION AVERAGE

Country/Region	% Boardroom positions							
Country/Region	2006	2016						
Cyprus	4.0	10.8						
Malta	2.4	4.5						
United Kingdom	13.3	27.0						
European Union	11.9	23.9						

Source: European Institute for Gender Equality (2018)

 TABLE 16
 GIRLS SURVIVING FGM/C AS REPORTED BY MOTHERS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY, LOCATION AND WEALTH GROUP

	Fgm/c	fGM/C prevalence among girls aged 0 to 14 years, by residence and wealth group (%)											
Country	prevalence: girls aged 0–14	Resic	lence	Wealth group									
			Poorest Second N		Middle	Fourth	Richest						
Gambia	56	51	60	51	55	62	66	45					
Ghana	1	0,3	1	2	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,3					
Kenya	3	2	3	6	2	2	2	1					
Nigeria	25	21	29	43	38	26	20	14					
Tanzania	0,4	0,1	0,4	1	0,2	0,3	0,1	0,1					
Uganda	1	1	1	2	2	0,4	2	1					

Source: UNICEF (2017b)

 TABLE 17

 GIRLS AND WOMEN AGED 15-49 REPORTING FGM/C BY COUNTRY, LOCATION AND WEALTH GROUP AFRICA REGION

	FGM/C	FGM/C prevalence among girls and women aged 15 to 49 years, by residence and wealth group (%)											
Country	prevalence: girls&	Resic	lence	Wealth group									
		Poorest	Second	Middle	Fourth	Richest							
Cameroon	1	1	2	1	4	1	1	1					
Gambia	75	72	79	79	78	82	73	66					
Ghana	4	3	5	13	4	3	1	1					
Kenya	21	14	26	40	26	18	17	12					
Nigeria	18	23	16	10	15	19	23	23					
Sierra Leone	90	81	94	95	95	95	90	77					
Uganda	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2					
Tanzania	10	5	13	19	10	12	9	4					

Source: UNICEF (2017b)

 TABLE 18

 PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN 2–14 YEARS OLD WHO EXPERIENCE ANY VIOLENT DISCIPLINE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY 2010–2016

Violent discipline (%)*																	
Countries and	То	otal Sex			Loc	Location					Wealth group						
areas			Ma	ale	Fem	Urb	Rural Poor Second			ond	Mic	ldle	Fourth		Richest		
Antigua and Barbuda	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Australia	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Bahamas	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Bangladesh	82		83		82	77	84	87		85		83		81		73	
Barbados	75	У	78	у	72	77	72	80	у	71	У	78	У	75	у	72	у
Belize	65		67		63	68	64	72		69		61		61		59	
Botswana	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Brunei Darussalam	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Cameroon	85		85		85	87	84	80		86		87		88		87	
Canada	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Cyprus	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Fiji	72	ху	-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Gambia	90	у	90	у	91	89	91	93	у	90	У	90	У	90	У	88	у
Ghana	94	у	94	у	94	94	94	93	у	94	У	94	У	94	У	92	у
Guyana	70		74		65	71	69	72		70		71		66		68	
India	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Jamaica	85	У	87	у	82	83	87	90	у	87	У	83	У	83	У	76	у
Kenya	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Malawi	72		73		72	73	72	71		72		72		74		73	
Malaysia	71	У	74	У	67	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Malta	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Mauritius	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Mozambique	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Namibia	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Nauru	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
New Zealand	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Nigeria	91	У	91	У	90	91	91	88	у	90	у	93	у	92	у	91	у
Pakistan	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Papua New Guinea	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Rwanda	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
St. Kitts & Nevis	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Saint Lucia	68	у	71	у	64	77	65	-		-		-		-		-	

 TABLE 18 (Continued)

 PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN 2-14 YEARS OLD WHO EXPERIENCE ANY VIOLENT DISCIPLINE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY 2010-2016

	Violent discipline (%)*																
Countries and	То	tal		Sex			ation	Wealth group									
areas			Ma	ale	Fem	Urb	Rural	Pc	or	Sec	ond	Mic	dle	Fou	ırth	Rich	nest
Saint Vincent & Grenadines	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Samoa	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Sierra Leone	82	У	81	У	82	83	81	81	У	82	У	80	у	81	У	85	У
Singapore	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Solomon Islands	86	У	86	У	85	76	87.3	88	У	-		89	у	84	У	76	У
South Africa	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
eSwatini	88		89		88	85	89	92		88		89		92		79	
Tonga	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Trinidad & Tobago	77	ху	78	ху	77	-	-	80	ху	78	ху	80	ху	76	ху	73	ху
Tuvalu	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Uganda	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
United Kingdom	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Tanzania	-		—		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	
Vanuatu	84	У	83	У	84	83	84	80	У	85	у	86	у	84	У	82	У
Zambia	-		-		-	-	-	-		-		-		-		-	

Source: UNICEF (2017c)

Key

– Data not available.

x Data refer to years or periods other than those specified in the column heading.

y Data differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of a country.

* Data refer to the most recent year available during the period specified in the column heading.

	Child marriage	(%) (2010–2017)
Country	Married by 15	Married by 18
Africa		• •
Botswana	-	-
Cameroon	10	31
The Gambia	9	30
Ghana	5	21
Kenya	4	30
Lesotho	1	17
Malawi	9	42
Mauritius	-	-
Mozambique	14	38
Namibia	2	7
Nigeria	18	44
Rwanda	0	7
Seychelles	-	-
Sierra Leone	13	39
South Africa	1*	6*
eSwatini	1	5
Tanzania	5	31
Uganda	10	40
Zambia	6	31
Asia		
Bangladesh	22	59
Brunei Darussalam	-	-
India	7	21
Malaysia	-	-
Pakistan	3	21
Singapore	13	39
Sri Lanka	2*	12*
Caribbean & Americas		
Antigua & Barbuda	-	-
Bahamas, The	-	-
Barbados	1	11
Belize	-	-
Canada	-	-
Dominica	-	-

Country	Child marriage (%) (2010–2017)
Country	Married by 15	Married by 18
Grenada	-	-
Guyana	-	-
Jamaica	1	8
St. Kitts and Nevis	-	-
St. Lucia	1	8
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	-	-
Trinidad and Tobago	3	11
Europe		
Cyprus	-	-
Malta	-	-
United Kingdom	-	-
Pacific		
Australia	-	-
Fiji	-	-
Kiribati	-	-
Nauru	2*	27*
New Zealand	-	-
Papua New Guinea	2*	21*
Samoa	1	11
Solomon Islands The	6	21
Tonga	0	6
Tuvalu	0*	10*
Vanuatu	3	21
Regions		
Sub–Saharan Africa	12	38
South Asia	17	45
East Asia and the Pacific	-	-
Latin America & Caribbean	5	25
World	5	21

Key

– Data not available.

 \ast Data refer to years or periods other than those specified in the column heading.

TABLE 19 (Continued) CHILD MARRIAGE AND AGE OF CHILD AT MARRIAGE BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

TABLE 20GIRLS 15-19 YEARS REPORTING FORCED SEX. BYCOMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country	%
Africa	
Botswana	
Cameroon	23
Gambia	3
Ghana	17
Kenya	7
Lesotho	
Malawi	14
Mauritius	
Mozambique	9
Namibia	8
Nigeria	6
Rwanda	15
Seychelles	
Sierra Leone	8
South Africa	
eSwatini	
Uganda	19
United Rep. of Tanzania	11
Zambia	8
Asia	
Bangladesh	20
India	5

Source: UNICEFd (2017)

Key

... = data unavailable

TABLE 21

EVER-MARRIED GIRLS AGED 15–19 YEARS REPORTING EMOTIONAL, PHYSICAL OR SEXUAL VIOLENCE BY PARTNER IN THE LAST 12 MONTHS, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country	%
Africa	
Cameroon	43
Gambia	8
Ghana	35
Kenya	7
Malawi	32
Mozambique	35
Namibia	59
Nigeria	14
Rwanda	15
Sierra Leone	31
Uganda	42
UR of Tanzania	40
Zambia	33
Asia	
Bangladesh	36
India	29
Pakistan	25
Caribbean and Americas	
Jamaica	19
Europe	-
Cyprus	3
Malta	4
United Kingdom	5
The Pacific	
Australia	2
Fiji	24
Kiribati	38
Nauru	22
New Zealand	
PNG	
Samoa	22
Solomon Islands	42
Tonga	19
Tuvalu	25
Vanuatu	44

Source: UNICEF (2017e) and UNWomen (2018)

Key

	Justification of wife-beating (%) (2010-2016)*															
Countries	Locati Total					tion				Wealth group						
	10	ital	Url	ban	Ru	ıral	Pc	or	Sec	ond	Mic	ldle	Fοι	urth	Ricl	nest
Antigua and Barbuda	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Australia	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Bahamas	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Bangladesh	36	ху	28	ху	38	ху	45	ху	44	ху	39	ху	34	ху	20	ху
Barbados	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Belize	5		5		5		10		4		6		4		4	
Botswana	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Brunei Darussalam	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Cameroon	39		34		46		55		48		40		32		30	
Canada	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Cyprus	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Dominica	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Fiji	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Gambia	33		28		41		43		36		36		34		24	
Ghana	13		9		17		22		16		15		11		6	
Guyana	10		5		11		18		10		9		8		5	
India	42	х	33	х	47	х	53	х	50	х	48	х	40	х	26	x
Jamaica	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Kenya	36		36		37		45		39		37		36		30	
Kiribati	60	х	51	х	67	х	65	х	66	х	66	х	57	х	44	х
Lesotho	40		32		44		54		47		43		35		28	
Malawi	13		9		14		15		14		14		13		10	
Malaysia	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Malta	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Mauritius	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Mozambique	20		14		24		21		25		27		19		11	
Namibia	22		17		28		33		26		21		19		15	
Nauru	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
New Zealand	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Pakistan	32	У	23	У	37	у	52	У	43	У	34	У	19	У	17	У
Papua New Guinea	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Rwanda	18		13		19		24		19		19		19		13	

TABLE 22PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND MEN 15-49 YEARS OLD CONSIDERING A HUSBAND TO BE JUSTIFIED IN HITTING HIS WIFE FOR AT LEAST ONE OFTHE SPECIFIED REASONS1 BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

TABLE 22 (Continued)PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND MEN 15-49 YEARS OLD CONSIDERING A HUSBAND TO BE JUSTIFIED IN HITTING HIS WIFE FOR AT LEAST ONE OFTHE SPECIFIED REASONS¹ BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

					Jı	ustificat	tion of	wife-be	eating (%) (201	0–2016)*				
Countries	T	tal		Loca	ation		Wealth group									
	Total		Urban Rural		Pc	Poor Second		Middle		Fourth		Richest				
Saint Kitts and Nevis	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Saint Lucia	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Saint Vincent & Grenadines	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Samoa	30		43		27		34		24		28		30		35	
Seychelles	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Sierra Leone	34		29		38		40		39		37		30		28	
Singapore	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Solomon Islands	57		51		59		65		60		53		56		52	
South Africa	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Sri Lanka	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
eSwatini	17		10		21		22		25		20		13		9	
Tonga	21		16		22		27		18		22		18		18	
Trinidad and Tobago	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Tuvalu	73	x	-		-		75	x	73	х	74	x	71	x	73	
Uganda	44		29		47		49		49		47		40		36	
United Kingdom	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
UR of Tanzania	40		37		41		47		43		38		43		32	
Vanuatu	60		69		55		60		58		56		65		62	
Zambia	32		25		38		39		39		40		30		19	

Source: UNICEF (2017f)

Key

- Data not available.

x Data refer to years or periods other than those specified in the column heading.

y Data differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of a country.

* Data refer to the most recent year available during the period specified in the column heading.

 $1 \quad \textit{That is, his wife burns the food, argues, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses sex.}$

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(Continued)

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	Justification of wife-beating (%), (2010–2016)*															
Countries and areas	То	tal		Loca	ation						Wealth	group				
			Urt	ban	Ru	ral	Роо	rest	Sec	ond	Mid	dle	Fou	rth	Rich	lest
Antigua and Barbuda	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Australia	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Bahamas	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Bangladesh	28	у	25	у	30	у	34	У	33	у	28	у	28	У	19	У
Barbados	3		4		3		9		3		3		2		1	
Botswana	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Brunei Darussalam	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Cameroon	36		30		43		41		45		42		33		25	
Canada	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Cyprus	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Dominica	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Fiji	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Gambia	58		47		73		69		69		70		55		38	
Ghana	28		21		37		50		38		30		21		12	
Guyana	10		3		13		19		12		11		7		5	
India	47	х	37	х	52	х	55	х	54	х	54	х	47	х	30	х
Jamaica	5		4		6		7		8		5		2		2	
Kenya	42		31		49		59		52		49		37		23	
Kiribati	76	х	75	х	77	х	77	х	79	х	74	х	77	х	73	х
Lesotho	37	х	26	х	43	х	55	х	48	х	41	х	33	х	23	х
Malawi	16		11		18		20		18		18		18		11	
Malaysia	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Malta	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Mauritius	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Mozambique	23		18		25		30		29		24		22		13	
Namibia	28		22		37		46		37		33		22		12	
Nauru	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
New Zealand	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	

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Nigeria Pakistan

Rwanda

Papua New Guinea

 TABLE 23

 PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS AND WOMEN 15–49 YEARS OLD WHO CONSIDER A HUSBAND TO BE JUSTIFIED IN HITTING OR BEATING HIS WIFE FOR

 AT LEAST ONE OF THE SPECIFIED REASONS1 BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

TABLE 23 (Continued) PERCENTAGE OF GIRLS AND WOMEN 15–49 YEARS OLD WHO CONSIDER A HUSBAND TO BE JUSTIFIED IN HITTING OR BEATING HIS WIFE FOR AT LEAST ONE OF THE SPECIFIED REASONS1 BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

AT LEAST ONE OF THE S	PECIFI	EDREA	501151	BICOM								2.4				
							ion of wife-beating (%), (2010-2016)*									
Countries and areas	То	Total Loca		ation	tion					Wealth group						
			Url	ban	Ru	ıral	Роо	rest	Sec	ond	Mic	ldle	Foι	ırth	Rich	nest
Saint Kitts and Nevis	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Saint Lucia	7		10		6		-		-		-		-		-	
St. Vincent & Grenadines	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Samoa	37		23		40		40		42		39		35		27	
Seychelles	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Sierra Leone	63		56		67		70		66		66		62		53	
Singapore	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Solomon Islands	77		72		78		79		78		78		80		71	
South Africa	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
eSwatini	20		13		23		28		27		24		17		8	
Tonga	29		21		32		35		30		29		29		22	
Trinidad and Tobago	8	x	-		-		12	x	10	x	9	x	5	x	3	x
Tuvalu	70	x	-		-		71	x	68	x	68	x	65	x	78	x
Uganda	58		46		61		58		61		63		67		47	
United Kingdom	-		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
Vanuatu	60		60		60		56		60		64		61		57	
Zambia	47		35		57		62		61		55		40		27	
Sub-Saharan Africa	48		-		-		-		-		-		-		-	
East Asia and Pacific	29	**	-		-		-		-		-		-		-	

Source: UNICEF (2017e)

Key

– Data not available.

x Data refer to years or periods other than those specified in the column heading.

y Data differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of a country.

 $^{\ast} \textit{Data refer to the most recent year available during the period specified in the column heading.}$

 $1 \quad \textit{These include: if his wife burns the food, argues with him, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses sexual relations.}$

TABLE 24

WOMEN AGED 18–29 (%) EXPERIENCING PHYSICAL. SEXUAL OR PSYCHOLOGICAL VIOLENCE BEFORE AGE 15. BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY AND THE EU

Country	Yes	No
Cyprus	14	86
Malta	17	83
United Kingdom	32	68
European Union	27	73

Source: European Agency for Fundamental Human Rights (2018)

TABLE 25

INDICE 25 AGED 15–19 (%) EXPERIENCING EMOTIONAL, PHYSICAL OR SEXUAL ABUSE BY AN INTIMATE PARTNER IN THE LAST 12 MONTHS BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY AND THE EU

Country	Yes	No
Cyprus	3	97
Malta	4	96
United Kingdom	5	95
European Union	4	96

Source: European Agency for Fundamental Human Rights (2018)

TABLE 26

RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TO VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN BY INTIMATE PARTNER BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY AND THE EU

Country	AccepTable in all circumstances	AccepTable in certain circumstances	UnaccepTable but not always punishable by law	UnaccepTable and always punishable by law	Other/ Don't know
Cyprus	0	1	10	87	2
Malta	1	0	17	82	0
United Kingdom	0	2	13	83	2
European Union	0	2	12	84	2

Source: Eurostat (2016)

TA		

POPULATION LIVING IN AREAS WHERE ELEVATION IS BELOW 5 METERS (% OF TOTAL POPULATION)¹

	Year	
1990	2000	2010
11,78	11,78	11,83
4,34	4,51	4,52
9,04	8,92	8,92
22,83	20,40	20,28
21,85	20,63	20,53
0,72	0,72	0,71
1,52	1,62	1,61
2,10	2,22	2,22
0,46	0,45	0,46
11,30	11,37	11,58
5,53	5,62	5,64
0,95	0,98	0,98
4,71	4,84	4,89
5,27	5,32	5,31
24,68	23,38	23,53
29,57	27,89	27,87
2,73	2,65	2,66
3,67	3,63	3,63
0,40	0,41	0,41
20,65	20,57	20,57
3,89	3,88	3,89
1,60	1,60	1,61
3,81	2,99	2,98
2,34	2,32	2,26
5,08	5,22	5,25
1,41	1,41	1,41
5,30	5,09	5,10
0,85	1,06	1,09
2,61	2,61	2,67
7,63	7,63	7,61
4,39	4,23	4,23
1,05	1,06	1,06
	11.78 4,34 9,04 22.83 21.85 0,72 1,52 2,10 0,46 11,30 5,53 0,95 4,71 5,27 24,68 29,57 2,73 3,67 0,40 20,65 3,89 1,60 3,81 2,34 5,08 1,41 5,30 0,85 2,61 7,63	1990 2000 11.78 11.78 4.34 4.51 9.04 8.92 22.83 20.40 21.85 20.63 0.72 0.72 1.52 1.62 2.10 2.22 0.46 0.45 11.30 11.37 5.53 5.62 0.95 0.98 4.71 4.84 5.27 5.32 24.68 23.38 29.57 27.89 2.73 2.65 3.67 3.63 0.40 0.41 20.65 20.57 3.89 3.88 1.60 1.60 3.81 2.99 2.34 2.32 5.08 5.22 1.41 1.41 5.30 5.09 0.85 1.06 2.61 2.61 <

 TABLE 27 (Continued)

 POPULATION LIVING IN AREAS WHERE ELEVATION IS BELOW 5 METERS (% OF TOTAL POPULATION)¹

Country/Region		Year	
Country/Region	1990	2000	2010
Papua New Guinea	0,53	0,49	0,49
Rwanda			
South Asia	3,20	3,12	3,11
Singapore	10,48	10,48	10,33
Solomon Islands	2,74	2,82	2,86
Sierra Leone	3,72	3,79	3,79
eSwatini	0,00	0,00	0,00
Seychelles	16,75	16,75	16,64
Tonga	7,57	7,53	7,53
Trinidad and Tobago	2,93	2,92	2,91
Tuvalu	43,02	47,47	47,47
Tanzania	0,70	0,70	0,71
Uganda			
St. Vincent & the Grenadines	3,72	3,72	3,71
Vanuatu	1,13	1,17	1,18
Samoa	1,45	1,45	1,44
South Africa	0,16	0,16	0,16
Zambia			
European Union	6,05	6,13	6,19
Latin America & Caribbean	2,18	2,19	2,19
Pacific island small states	5,85	5,81	5,67
Sub-Saharan Africa	1,87	1,88	1,91
World	5,00	5,02	4,97

Source: Centre for International Earth Science Information Network (CIESIN) (2013)

Key

1 Population below 5m is the percentage of the total population living in areas where the elevation is 5 meters or less.

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		1.5°C warming	٥		2°C warming	б		3°C warming	ő		4°C warming	0
Country	Median est.	17th per- centile	83rd per- centile	Median est.	17th per- centile	83rd per- centile	Median est.	17th per- centile	83rd per - centile	Median est.	17th per- centile	83rd per- centile
Antigua & Barbuda	б	4	13	13	б	17	16	12	20	20	17	23
Australia	267	60	707	668	246	1234	1 114	574	1 726	1 885	1253	2 460
Bahamas	115	26	206	204	109	252	242	182	271	275	250	287
Bangladesh	3 630	516	13 426	12 487	3 280	28 463	25793	10 700	44 010	48 086	30 194	63 866
Barbados	9	2	15	15	9	29	27	13	41	42	29	52
Belize	06	41	118	117	86	132	131	113	146	147	132	164
Brunei	4	1	20	20	4	66	58	15	107	112	67	142
Cameroon	49	Ø	153	134	39	280	254	111	394	425	285	567
Canada	540	277	767	737	507	952	883	671	1 105	1 079	861	1 339
Cyprus	7	2	20	19	9	35	32	15	49	51	34	72
Dominica	4	2	9	9	4	6	Ø	£	11	11	6	12
Fiji	46	11	109	108	45	166	162	103	212	224	174	266
Gambia	100	45	154	147	92	226	200	131	293	323	223	434
Ghana	284	155	452	439	273	645	606	413	842	904	654	1 156
Grenada	9	м	10	б	9	12	12	б	14	15	12	17
Guyana	511	393	545	543	506	558	555	539	564	566	558	572
India	8 100	2 153	20 492	19782	7 608	35853	33 566	17 634	51 356	55 014	37 293	73 475
Jamaica	176	70	298	291	169	415	392	268	502	518	415	588
Kenya	60	29	100	97	58	154	148	93	218	227	158	295
Kiribati	17	Ø	29	29	17	45	43	27	67	76	50	93
Malaysia	420	64	1 812	1 709	382	4 156	3 823	1 489	6351	6876	4 491	8824
Malta	5	2	11	10	5	16	15	6	21	22	15	28
Mauritius	23	7	53	51	22	86	82	47	117	126	92	152
Mozambique	498	149	994	971	479	1 458	1 412	923	1 799	1 857	1 490	2 111
Namibia	Ø	2	28	27	7	46	45	25	53	54	48	56
												(Continued)

		1.5°C warming	bu		2°C warming	б		3°C warming	ő		4°C warming	ő
Country	Median est.	17th per- centile	83rd per- centile	Median est.	17th per- centile	83rd per- centile	Median est.	17th per- centile	83rd per - centile	Median est.	17th per- centile	83rd per- centile
New Zealand	79	22	210	185	66	357	332	163	518	552	372	712
Nigeria	1872	572	3871	3 720	1 756	5946	5 676	3 433	7 640	7 852	5 987	9 3 4 9
Pakistan	190	47	574	509	161	1210	1 009	389	1971	2 307	1 283	3 487
PNG	34	Ø	06	87	32	184	172	79	288	319	200	451
St. Kitts & Nevis	М	2	£	4	М	9	9	4	7	Ø	9	б
Saint Lucia	12	4	25	24	11	32	31	23	37	39	32	43
Saint Vincent & Gren.	IJ	м	∞	Ø	Û	11	11	7	15	15	11	18
Samoa	10	2	23	22	10	34	33	22	44	47	36	55
Seychelles	10	ŝ	14	14	6	17	16	13	20	20	17	22
Sierra Leone	123	48	193	189	120	253	248	184	306	314	255	375
Singapore	22	Ø	61	59	22	185	166	53	455	537	210	1 011
Sol. Islands	52	25	83	82	51	106	103	78	126	132	110	153
South Africa	126	38	322	292	112	569	536	265	854	952	634	1 247
Sri Lanka	130	14	566	534	118	1 288	1 183	466	2 163	2 443	1 419	3 743
Tanzania	89	22	212	211	88	394	390	209	601	626	408	869
Tonga	17	5	36	36	17	54	53	35	65	67	55	74
Trinidad and Tobago	64	24	118	116	62	174	164	105	228	239	176	305
Tuvalu	4	2	9	9	4	7	7	9	Ø	Ø	7	6
United Kingd.	2 455	1078	4021	3 850	2 287	5 388	4734	3 165	6217	5925	4417	7 312
Vanuatu	11	4	17	17	11	23	22	16	29	31	24	38

 TABLE 29
 FOSSIL FUEL ENERGY¹ CONSUMPTION (% OF TOTAL) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

		Ye	ar	
Country	1990	2000	2014	2015
Antigua and Barbuda	0,0			
Australia	93,9	94,0	93,4	93,4
Bangladesh	45,5	57,9	73,8	
Bahamas, The	0,0			
Belize	0,0			
Bermuda				
Barbados	0,0			
Brunei Darussalam	99,9		100,0	
Botswana	64,8	65,1	74,7	
Canada	73,6	76,1	73,4	73,6
Cameroon	18,7	16,3	29,9	
Cyprus	99,6	97,9	92,9	
Dominica	0,0			
Fiji	0,0			
Ghana	18,2	28,4	52,3	
Gambia, The	0,0			
Grenada	0,0			
Guyana	0,0			
India	53,8	63,7	73,5	
Jamaica	82,6	84,6	81,0	
Kenya	17,8	18,2	17,2	
Kiribati	0,0			
St. Kitts and Nevis	0,0			
St. Lucia	0,0			
Sri Lanka	24,1	43,0	50,3	
Lesotho				
Malta	100,0		97,8	
Mozambique	5,5	6,7	12,6	
Mauritius	55,5	73,9	84,5	
Malawi				
Malaysia	89,9	95,0	96,6	
Namibia		62,2	66,7	
Nigeria	20,5	18,4	19,0	
Nauru				
				(Continued)

		Ye	ear	
Country	1990	2000	2014	2015
New Zealand	66,7	69,5	59,9	
Pakistan	52,7	59,4	59,7	59,4
Papua New Guinea				
Rwanda				
South Asia	52,1	61,9	71,3	
Singapore	99,4	98,9	97,5	
Solomon Islands	0,0			
Sierra Leone				
eSwatini	0,0			
Seychelles	0,0			
Tonga	0,0			
Trinidad and Tobago	98,9	99,8	99,9	
Tuvalu				
Tanzania	6,9	6,1	14,4	
Uganda				
United Kingdom	90,7	88,4	82,6	
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	0,0			80,7
Vanuatu	0,0			
Samoa	0,0			
South Africa	86,2	84,2	86,9	
Zambia	15,5	8,8		
Regions				
East Asia & Pacific	72,0	76,7	85,3	
European Union	82,0	78,8	71,1	
Latin America & Caribbean (excluding high income)	70,6	74,1	72,9	
Sub-Saharan Africa	40,7	38,2	39,8	
World	80,7	79,9	80,8	

 TABLE 29 (Continued)

 FOSSIL FUEL ENERGY¹ CONSUMPTION (% OF TOTAL) BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Source: OECD/IEA (2014)

1 Fossil fuel comprises coal, oil, petroleum, and natural gas products.

Notes

Annex Two \ 153

Country Name	1990	2000	2010	2011	2012
Antigua and Barbuda	372	399		538	553
Australia	482 298	1081244	782 103	785 795	761 686
Bangladesh	126 702	136013	177 504	180 498	183 301
Bahamas, The	3 594	3 185	4 570	4 726	4 865
Belize	633	1 676	1 499	1 536	1 570
Bermuda	653	519	595	615	633
Barbados	1 200	1 314			1 541
Brunei Darussalam	18 367	9 6 4 9	14 124	14 494	14 829
Botswana	13 373	39 682	81 652	81 891	82 110
Canada	608 685	760 643	764 138	1 033 482	1 027 064
Cameroon	97 555	163 101	99 823	100 387	100 922
Caribbean small states	43 058	51 195	86 416	92 088	95 977
Cyprus	5 130	7 953		7 652	7 431
East Asia & Pacific	6845134	6 883 003	13 690 331	14 921 809	15 379 925
European Union	5 692 721	5 121 051	4 847 306	4 728 178	4 702 090
Fiji	2 329	1 575	2 164	2 213	2 258
Ghana	29 496	107 700	106 433	107 126	107 784
Gambia, The	1 190	2 865	3 482	3 506	3 529
Guyana	16 735	4 405	5 937	6043	6 141
India	1 387 372	1 885 189	2 771 457	2828846	3 002 895
Jamaica	9 319	12 364	14 582	15 054	15 474
Kenya	38 943	46 237	52 675	53 514	54 302
Kiribati	40	43			
St. Kitts and Nevis					
St. Lucia	278	405	564	582	599
Latin America & Caribbean	3 365 946	3 176 115	5 052 728	5 667 496	5 746 908
Sri Lanka	18 379	23 283	29 131	29 823	30 452
Lesotho	1882	3 2 3 1	3 425	3 4 4 9	3 473
Malta	2 605	2 553			
Mozambique	40 9 4 3	215 278	379 824	380 073	380 308
Mauritius	1 577				
Malawi	8 537	15 450	21 416	21 526	21 632
Malaysia	198 588	171 394	263 676	271 819	279 098
Namibia	7 300	33 985	37 648	37 856	38 0 4 9
Nigeria	163 274	314 979	292 212	296 800	301 010
Nauru					

TABLE 30 (Continued)
TOTAL GREENHOUSE GAS EMISSIONS IN KT OF CO2 EQUIVALENT BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country Name	1990	2000	2010	2011	2012
New Zealand	65 690	74 423	76 142	75 851	78 131
Pakistan	172 551	247 349	354 529	362 475	369 735
Papua New Guinea	29 504	8 257	10 668	10 888	11 087
Pacific island small states	9 169	6 665	7 576	7 699	7 657
Rwanda	3 252	4 900	6 5 4 7	6 620	6 690
South Asia	1 743 930	2 338 908	3 386 372	3 456 044	3 630 442
Singapore			52 732	54 414	55 910
Solomon Islands	5 904	4 086	4 480	4 537	4 591
Sierra Leone	9 629	14 764	11 647	11 731	11 811
Sub-Saharan Africa	3 394 615	4 807 543	4 557 406	4 573 086	4 600 245
eSwatini	2 262	2 815	3 378	3 430	3 478
Seychelles	365	856 545	854	884	910
Tonga	124	175	152	155	
Trinidad and Tobago		24 112	58 069	59 777	61 309
Tuvalu	4	5	5	5	5
Tanzania	94958	215 939	234 147	234762	235 353
Uganda	36 901	72 771	79 906	80 319	80725
United Kingdom	777 244	673 897	609 587	568 062	585 780
St. Vincent &Gren.	141	223	302	311	319
Vanuatu	433	463	434	440	446
Samoa	287	319	341	349	356
South Africa	349 202	420 483			
Zambia	209 649	290 812	319 785	320 025	320 254
World	38 232 170	40 563 437	50 911 114	52 790 527	53 526 303

Source: European Commission, Joint Research Centre (JRC)/Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency (PBL) (2016)

 TABLE 31

 GREENHOUSE GAS EMISSION CHANGE (%) FROM 1990 BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

			Year		
Country Name	1991	2000	2010	2011	2012
Antigua and Barbuda	0,3	7,1		44,5	48,5
Australia	3,5	124,2	62,2	62,9	57,9
Bangladesh	0,0	7,3	40,1	42,5	44,7
Bahamas, The	-3,5	-11,4	27,2	31,5	35,4
Belize	9,1	165,0	136,9	142,8	148,1
Barbados	3,7	9,5			28,4
Brunei Darussalam	-4,1	-47,5	-23,1	-21,1	-19,3
Botswana	-18,0	196,7	510,6	512,4	514,0
Canada	2,9	25,0	25,5	69,8	68,7
Cameroon	-17,1	67,2	2,3	2,9	3,5
Cyprus	11,2	55,0		49,2	44,8
Dominica	-0,3	7,8	61,7	66,4	70,5
Fiji	-6,7	-32,4	-7,1	-5,0	-3,0
Ghana	-15,7	265,1	260,8	263,2	265,4
Gambia, The	-4,0	140,8	192,7	194,7	196,7
Grenada	-0,3	200,8	332,3	346,9	359,9
Guyana	-1,4	-73,7	-64,5	-63,9	-63,3
India	4,0	35,9	99,8	103,9	116,4
Jamaica	0,6	32,7	56,5	61,5	66,0
Kenya	-2,1	18,7	35,3	37,4	39,4
Kiribati	11,1	7,3			
St. Kitts and Nevis					
St. Lucia	1,4	45,6	102,8	109,4	115,3
Sri Lanka	-1,9	26,7	58,5	62,3	65,7
Lesotho	-0,5	71,6	82,0	83,2	84,5
Malta	-4,0	-2,0			
Mozambique	-17,0	425,8	827,7	828,3	828,9
Mauritius	2,7				
Malawi	-6,7	81,0	150,9	152,1	153,4
Malaysia	0,8	-13,7	32,8	36,9	40,5
Namibia	-0,7	365,6	415,7	418,6	421,2
Nigeria	4,9	92,9	79,0	81,8	84,4
Nauru					
New Zealand	-0,4	13,3	15,9	15,5	18,9

Country Name	Year					
	1991	2000	2010	2011	2012	
Pakistan	2,0	43,3	105,5	110,1	114,3	
Papua New Guinea	99,8	-72,0	-63,8	-63,1	-62,4	
Rwanda	2,0	50,7	101,3	103,6	105,7	
South Asia	3,4	34,1	94,2	98,2	108,2	
Singapore						
Solomon Islands	-25,2	-30,8	-24,1	-23,2	-22,2	
Sierra Leone	-14,2	53,3	21,0	21,8	22,7	
eSwatini	-0,5	24,5	49,4	51,7	53,8	
Seychelles	10,0		133,8	142,0	149,2	
Tonga	5,4	40,7	22,1	24,8		
Trinidad and Tobago						
Tuvalu	8,4	21,4	26,7	28,4	30,0	
Tanzania	-13,8	127,4	146,6	147,2	147,8	
United Kingdom	0,7	-13,3	-21,6	-26,9	-24,6	
Uganda	-4,3	97,2	116,5	117,7	118,8	
St. Vincent & Gren.	-4,0	58,2	114,4	121,1	127,0	
Vanuatu	-3,0	6,8	0,1	1,6	3,0	
Samoa	-1,0	10,9	18,8	21,5	24,0	
South Africa	-1,7	20,4				
Zambia	-17,0	38,7	52,5	52,6	52,8	
Regions						
Caribbean small states	-1,4	18,9	100,7	113,9	122,9	
East Asia & Pacific	16,4	0,6	100,0	118,0	124,7	
European Union	-1,7	-10,0	-14,9	-16,9	-17,4	
Latin America & Caribbean	-1,3	-5,6	50,1	68,4	70,7	
Pacific sm. isl. states	-18,0	-27,3	-17,4	-16,0	-16,5	
Sub-Saharan Africa	-13,3	41,6	34,3	34,7	35,5	
World	0,9	6,1	33,2	38,1	40,0	

 TABLE 31 (Continued)

 GREENHOUSE GAS EMISSION CHANGE (%) FROM 1990 BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Source: World Bank (2018d)

Key

 TABLE 32

 RENEWABLE ENERGY CONSUMPTION AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ENERGY CONSUMPTION. BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

	Year					
Country Name	1990	2000	2010	2015		
Antigua and Barbuda	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0		
Australia	8,0	8,4	8,1	9,2		
Bahamas, The	0,0	0,0	1,7	1,2		
Bangladesh	71,7	59,0	41,1	34,7		
Belize	38,0	34,6	33,7	35,0		
Barbados	18,9	13,6	9,0	2,8		
Brunei Darussalam	0,7	0,0	0,0	0,0		
Botswana	47,6	36,6	30,2	28,9		
Canada	22,0	21,5	22,1	22,0		
Cameroon	81,6	84,5	78,6	76,5		
Cyprus	0,5	3,1	6,4	9,9		
Dominica	14,6	11,0	8,9	7,8		
Fiji	53,1	52,9	29,6	31,3		
Ghana	80,6	71,6	49,8	41,4		
Gambia, The	61,4	63,1	54,7	51,5		
Guyana	42,2	39,5	33,8	25,3		
Grenadines						
India	58,7	51,6	39,5	36,0		
Jamaica	7,6	11,9	13,7	16,8		
Kenya	77,5	79,0	76,3	72,7		
Kiribati	5,2	4,8	3,5	4,3		
St. Kitts and Nevis	40,0	26,6	1,0	1,6		
St. Lucia	5,5	2,6	2,2	2,1		
Sri Lanka	78,1	64,2	61,8	52,9		
Lesotho	52,0	56,7	53,4	52,1		
Malta	0,0	0,0	1,4	5,4		
Mozambique	93,1	93,6	91,3	86,4		
Mauritius	47,1	20,4	13,7	11,5		
Malawi	84,0	82,5	79,5	83,6		
Malaysia	12,0	6,7	3,8	5,2		
Namibia		33,5	26,4	26,5		
Nigeria	87,8	86,2	86,8	86,6		
Nauru	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,1		
New Zealand	30,0	29,0	31,3	30,8		

 TABLE 32 (Continued)

 RENEWABLE ENERGY CONSUMPTION AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL ENERGY CONSUMPTION, BY COMMONWEALTH COUNTRY

Country Name	Year					
Country Name	1990	2000	2010	2015		
Pakistan	57,5	51,0	46,7	46,5		
Papua New Guinea	71,7	66,4	55,3	52,5		
Rwanda	80,1	86,7	90,7	86,7		
Singapore	0,2	0,3	0,5	0,7		
Solomon Islands	59,0	66,9	63,5	63,3		
Sierra Leone	91,3	89,3	84,2	77,7		
Seychelles	4,2	0,6	0,6	1,4		
eSwatini	85,2	48,2	62,7	66,1		
Tonga	1,5	2,5	1,0	1,9		
Trinidad and Tobago	1,2	0,8	0,3	0,3		
Tuvalu	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0		
Tanzania	94,8	93,7	90,3	85,7		
Uganda	96,0	93,9	91,6	89,1		
United Kingdom	0,7	1,0	3,6	8,7		
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	15,4	8,5	5,5	5,8		
Vanuatu	24,2	48,7	38,4	36,1		
Samoa	46,2	45,4	46,8	34,3		
South Africa	16,6	18,5	17,1	17,2		
Zambia	83,0	90,0	92,1	88,0		
World	17,1	17,9	17,3	18,1		
Regions						
Caribbean small states	10,3	12,4	9,1	8,8		
East Asia & Pacific	37,0	31,9	16,5	15,9		
European Union	6,1	7,9	13,0	16,6		
Latin America & Caribbean	32,7	28,5	28,6	27,9		
Pacific island small states	47,7	45,0	31,5	30,4		
South Asia	60,0	52,9	41,6	38,3		
Sub-Saharan Africa	71,1	72,9	71,4	70,1		
World	17,1	17,9	17,3	18,1		

Source: World Bank (2018c)

Key

Endnote

1 Researcher's Note: Although every effort has been made to include data in the following tables from all Commonwealth countries, the original data source was in many cases unable to supply data for every Commonwealth country. In some cases, missing data have been marked in tables as '-' or '..' alongside the country in question, while in other cases, countries with unavailable data have not been included in a Table for formatting reasons.

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