

2020



SDG MONITORING REPORT



**AFFIRMING RIGHTS,
ACCELERATING PROGRESS
AND AMPLIFYING ACTION:**
Monitoring SDG5 in Asia-Pacific



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About ARROW

Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW) is a regional, feminist, global-south non-profit organisation based in Malaysia with a consultative status with the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations. ARROW works towards an equal, just and equitable world that enables all women and young people to be equal citizens in all aspects of their lives, and that protects and advances their sexual and reproductive health and rights. For more details: <https://arrow.org.my/>.

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About Equal Measures 2030

Equal Measures 2030 (EM2030) is a unique cross-sector partnership of leading organisations from civil society and the development and private sectors. The partnership, of which ARROW is a member, works to ensure that girls' and women's movements, advocates and decision makers have the data they need, in a format they can use, to guide and drive faster progress towards the gender equality commitments in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). To achieve this, we connect data and evidence with advocacy and action – using existing gender equality related data, supporting calls to fill data gaps, and training and equipping advocates to use data and evidence in their efforts to reach the transformational agenda of the SDGs by 2030. Recent data and analysis released by the partnership includes the SDG Gender Index and Bending the Curve Toward Gender Equality. For more details: <https://www.equalmeasures2030.org/>.

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Introduction

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Affirming Rights, Accelerating Progress and Amplifying Action: Monitoring SDG5 in Asia-Pacific

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development places achieving gender equality at the core of its implementation with its promise to ‘leave no one behind’. Global commitments towards gender equality are captured in the standalone Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5 and as a cross-cutting priority across all SDGs. 2020 marks a milestone year for gender equality, the 25th anniversary of the Beijing Declaration and the ushering in of the decade of action to achieving the SDGs, which is an opportunity to take stock of our progress and gaps and identify transformative measures to achieve the SDG agenda. As the world is coming to terms with the effects of the Covid-19 pandemic, accelerating the realisation of gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls is increasingly identified as an urgent need, not just within the SDG on gender equality, but also across all the 17 SDGs.

BACKGROUND

The Asia-Pacific region has seen uneven and very slow progress in its pathway to achieving gender equality. As per the Equal Measures 2030 (EM2030) SDG Gender Index,¹ the region falls in the middle among other regions with a ‘Poor’ score of 64.6/100. Looking at SDG 5 on gender equality specifically, the index score of the region is 55.3/100 (‘Very poor’) with some countries recording a score less than 40/100.² This clearly indicates that much more needs to be done within the region to achieve gender equality across the SDG framework. A series of regional monitoring efforts on the International Conference on Population Development Programme of Action (ICPD+25) led by ARROW also point to significant gaps and dauntingly slow progress in the 19 Asia-Pacific countries and the region, overall, in regards to gender equality.

Within the 2014-15 period, the Asia-Pacific countries reaffirmed their commitment to accelerate the implementation of the foundational commitments of the ICPD Programme of Action (PoA). The Convention of Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) has also been ratified by all countries in the region, with the exception of the Pacific islands of Tonga and Palua. More recently, in the Asia-Pacific,

45 countries adopted a declaration to advance gender equality and promote women’s empowerment in light of the 25th Anniversary of the Beijing Declaration.^{3,4} As signatories of global and regional commitments, governments of the region have obligations to fulfil the implementation of gender equality goals and targets.

This regional brief monitors the implementation of SDG 5 on gender equality in the Asia-Pacific region through a comprehensive framework of indicators and issues going beyond the scope of the SDG indicators as it also includes indicators and issues within ARROW’s Advocates Guide on SDGs⁵ and EM2030’s Bending the Curve Towards Gender Equality research.⁶

The objective of the brief is to shed light on the progress made by countries in the Asia-Pacific region on a set of key transformative gender equality targets and indicators linked to the SDG 5, and to identify the challenges in achieving our commitments including key data gaps that need urgent attention to realise gender equality for women and girls in the region.

In March 2020, EM2030 released the ‘Bending the Curve Towards Gender Equality’ research that shed light on progress made in 129 countries on a set of five key gender equality issues and how much faster the world needs to move in order to reach targets linked to the SDGs.⁷

The brief draws on the EM2030 analysis in the region, available secondary data, and information generated through ARROW’s country level analysis to measure current progress on select indicators and provide trend analysis in order to predict future trends, based on available data, for 19 countries across the region⁸ as well as the way forward.

The development of a comprehensive monitoring framework of indicators drawing on SDG official indicators, ARROW’s advocates guide (in full), and EM2030 indicators has been the first step in developing this regional brief (refer to Table 1).

The objective of the brief is to shed light on the progress made by countries in the Asia-Pacific region on a set of key transformative gender equality targets and indicators linked to the SDG 5, and to identify the challenges in achieving our commitments including key data gaps that need urgent attention to realise gender equality for women and girls in the region.

TABLE 1: Comprehensive SDG 5 Indicator Framework

TARGET	SDG 5 INDICATOR	INDICATORS IN EM2030's BENDING THE CURVE RESEARCH	ARROW ADVOCATES GUIDE ON SDGs TO ADDITIONALLY MEASURE RESPECTIVE INDICATORS FROM A GENDER AND HUMAN RIGHTS LENS
End all forms of discrimination against women and girls everywhere.	5.1.1 Whether or Not Legal Frameworks are in Place to Promote, Enforce, and Monitor Equality and Non-Discrimination on the Basis of Sex.	The extent to which countries have legal frameworks mandating gender equality in the workplace. ⁹	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Laws/policies on sexual and reproductive health - Laws/policies on adolescent sexual and reproductive health services - Laws/policies on sexual orientation - Laws/policies on gender identity - Laws/policies on gender-based violence - Laws/policies on abortion
Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation.	5.2.1 Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age. Recognizing the concerns around the feasibility current data is only collected on physical and sexual violence.”	Percentage of women aged 15+ who report that they “feel safe walking at night in the city or area where you live.” ¹⁰	<p>Number of respondents who respond “yes” to any of the questions related to what justifies wife beating by husbands</p> <p>Measuring “reproductive and sexual coercion.”</p>
	5.2.2 Proportion of Women and Girls Aged 15 Years and Older Subjected to Sexual Violence by Persons Other Than an Intimate Partner in the Previous 12 Months.		Sexual-violence in conflict situations, adolescents and children, migrant women, and persons living with HIV and sex workers.

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Affirming Rights, Accelerating Progress and Amplifying Action: Monitoring SDG5 in Asia-Pacific

TARGET	SDG 5 INDICATOR	INDICATORS IN EM2030's BENDING THE CURVE RESEARCH	ARROW ADVOCATES GUIDE ON SDGs TO ADDITIONALLY MEASURE RESPECTIVE INDICATORS FROM A GENDER AND HUMAN RIGHTS LENS
Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.	5.3.1 The Proportion of Women Aged 20–24 Years Who Were Married or in a Union Before Age 15 and Before Age 18.	Proportion of women aged 20-24 who completed secondary education.”	Examining disaggregated data on this indicator especially by minority and by migrant status.
	5.3.2 Proportion of Girls and Women Aged 15–49 years Who have Undergone Female Genital Mutilation/ Cutting, by Age.		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Is there a law or policy issued by the government on elimination or prevention of FGM/C? Yes/No b) If there is a law or policy on elimination or prevention of FGM/C, what are its provisions? c) What is the status of implementation of the law or policy? Not implemented/Implemented in some locations or some parts of the policy implemented/Implementation progressing as scheduled d) Number of reported honour killings as a first step to drawing attention to this extreme form of violence against women.
Recognise and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.	5.4.1 Proportion of Time Sent on Unpaid Domestic and Care Work, by Sex, Age, and Location.		Women's unpaid healthcare work within the home and in the community.
Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.	5.5.1 Proportion of Seats Held by Women in <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) National Parliaments and b) Local Governments. 	The proportion of women in ministerial or senior government positions ¹²	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Proportion of women heading or holding membership in committees and commissions related to health at the national and local levels, including in health standing committees and parliamentary committees examining legislations awaiting passage and their positions b) Frequency with which SRHR issues are raised by women in national parliaments and local governments (as documented in the proceedings/ minutes of meetings of these institutions).

TARGET	SDG 5 INDICATOR	INDICATORS IN EM2030's BENDING THE CURVE RESEARCH	ARROW ADVOCATES GUIDE ON SDGs TO ADDITIONALLY MEASURE RESPECTIVE INDICATORS FROM A GENDER AND HUMAN RIGHTS LENS
Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life.	5.5.2 Proportion of Women in Managerial Positions		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Proportion of women in leadership positions in private and public health facilities, in medical colleges, and medical research institutions b) The presence of women as district medical officers, directors of health services and health secretaries c) Documentation of the role played by women in health managerial positions in promoting sexual and reproductive health and rights.
Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences.	5.6.1 Proportion of Women Aged 15-49 Years Who Made Their Own Informed Decision Regarding Sexual Relations, Contraceptive Use, and Reproductive Health	Proportion of women married or in a union of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years) who have had their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods ⁹	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Whether a woman could ask her husband/partner to use a condom if she wanted him to b) If a wife knows that her husband has a disease that she can contract during sexual intercourse, is she justified in asking him to use a condom when they have sex? c) Is a woman justified in refusing sex if she is tired/not in the mood? d) Has she experienced sexual violence by an intimate partner at any time in her life?
	5.6.2 Number of Countries with Laws and Regulations That Guarantee Full and Equal Access to Women Aged 15 Years and Older to Sexual and Reproductive Healthcare, Information, and Education		<p>Sexual violence by intimate partner included:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Ever been physically forced into unwanted sex b) Ever been forced into other unwanted sexual acts and c) Ever been physically forced to perform sexual acts the respondent didn't want to perform.

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Affirming Rights, Accelerating Progress and Amplifying Action: Monitoring SDG5 in Asia-Pacific

In the section below, an analysis of gaps, challenges, and progress or lack of progress around gender equality in the region is provided, followed by conclusion and recommendations.

1. END ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST ALL WOMEN AND GIRLS EVERYWHERE

Whether or Not Legal Frameworks are in Place to Promote, Enforce, and Monitor Equality and Non-Discrimination on the Basis of Sex

The official SDG indicator for this target aims to assess legal frameworks in four areas: (i) overarching legal

frameworks and public life; (ii) violence against women; (iii) employment and economic benefits; and (iv) marriage and family. The data collection for this indicator began only in 2018, which makes it difficult to assess progress towards meeting our target at this stage. A range of additional complimentary indicators around workplace equality laws, gender-based violence laws, abortion laws, and sexual and reproductive health laws should be used to comprehensively assess the regional progress towards ending all forms of discrimination against women and girls.¹⁴

Equality and non-discrimination are critical aspects of all legal frameworks. As signatories of CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action, all states have committed to eliminating all forms of discrimination and revoking any law that discriminates on the basis of sex. The prevalence of legal frameworks that advance gender equality is a prerequisite to achieving gender equality.

Based on the data made available in the UN global database,¹⁵ it is promising that 91.7% of legislations in Vietnam and 83% of laws in India and Fiji place focus on violence against women, however, a gap still exists due to the enforcement and monitoring of the implementation of these legislations.¹⁶ With the understanding that legal and policy reforms take time, it is rather an ambitious target to meet with just a decade left to achieve it. Hence, it is critical that national governments enact and implement legislations to ensure social protections are in place across all 4 areas upholding gender equality and addressing discrimination based on gender.

Despite being a crucial indicator, the data gaps are significant, making it difficult to provide reflections on progress in the region. For the countries where data is available, the numbers point to significant room for progress. The Beijing +5 established 2005 as a target date for revoking discriminatory laws, but there is no data, in the region, tracking the progress on revoking discriminatory laws. In no country do the overarching legal frameworks comprehensively promote, enforce, and monitor gender equality and non-discrimination.¹⁷

The Extent to Which Countries Have Legal Frameworks Mandating Gender Equality in the Workplace

When gender inequality exists in the workplace, it acts as a barrier to women's access and continued engagement with work. A composite assessment of seven laws including anti-discrimination, equal pay, paid leave, treatment of pregnant workers, and laws that restrict what jobs women can do, was used to assess progress around gender equality in the workplace. "Offering protection to women in the workplace" is indicator 8d in the EM2030 SDG Gender Index and is linked to SDG 5.

As per the Bending the Curve analysis, the progress on this indicator has been slow.¹⁸ The average score

(0-100) for key workplace equality laws in the region has increased from 53.9 in 2009 to 66.1 in 2020. Approximately 1.3 billion women in the region are currently not covered by workplace legal protections.¹⁹ The projected score for 2030 at the current pace of progress will be 70.6, and at this pace, the region will only reach its target by 2108 (refer to Annex 1).

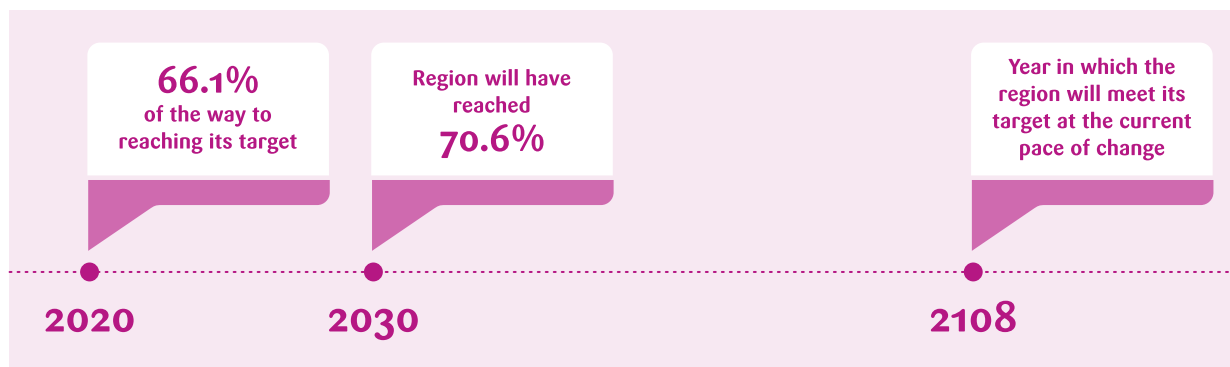
In the Asia-Pacific region, only the Philippines meets the target for workplace equality laws, however significant gaps persist in the implementation. As per the Bending the Curve projections, Lao and Vietnam are on track to achieving the target by 2030.²⁰ Bangladesh, Indonesia and Cambodia have seen no change or shift in their workplace laws in over a decade (refer to Annex 1). At this rate of change, the region will not achieve its target by 2030.

There are a range of factors that need to be considered by national governments while identifying strategies to realise their target of gender equitable workplaces. Gender gaps persist when it comes to labour force participation in the region; the International Labour Organization (ILO) 2015 research indicates that the gap has in fact widened in South Asia. The region presents an overall negative trend in gender wage and employment gap. There also exists a high gender gap among youth not in education, employment and training. These gaps are a reflection and manifestation of gender discrimination in the society at large, and act as a deterrent for women, including young women, to remain in salaried jobs.

It is estimated that women held only 35% of the salaried jobs in 2015.²¹ Thus, discriminatory practices need to be taken into account and all seven areas of law should be enforced in the workplace to make it more gender equitable.

Gender gaps persist when it comes to labour force participation in the region; the International Labour Organization (ILO) 2015 research indicates that the gap has in fact widened in South Asia. The region presents an overall negative trend in gender wage and employment gap.

FIGURE 1: Projection of Trend for the Asia-Pacific Region on the 'Extent to Which Countries have Legal Frameworks Mandating Gender Equality in the Workplace'

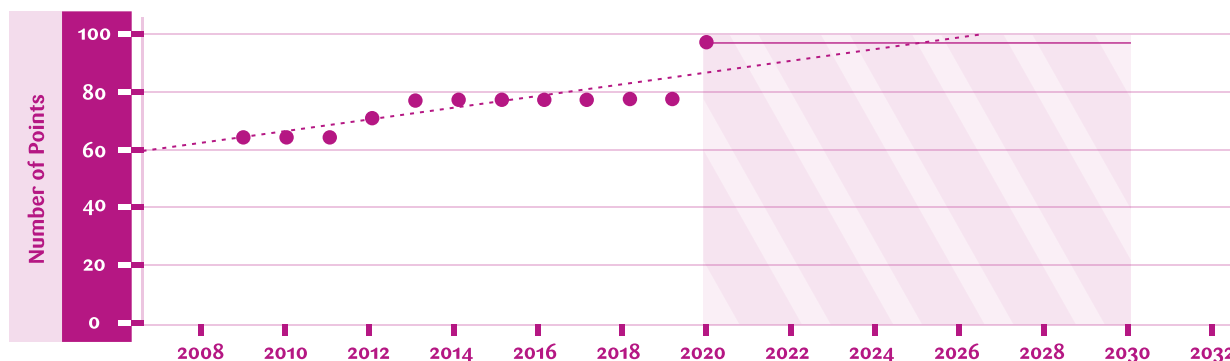


Source: *Equal Measures 2030 (2020) Bending the Curve Towards Gender Equality* <https://www.equalmeasures2030.org/products/bending-the-curve-towards-gender-equality-by-2030/>.

FIGURE 2: The Philippines on Track to Meeting Its Target on Workplace Equality by 2030 – Past Trends, Expected Performance and Progress

LAWS ON WORKPLACE EQUALITY

The extent to that countries have laws mandating gender equality in the workplace comprises seven laws (including anti-discrimination, equal pay, paid leaves, et al. [Target = 100 Points])



Source: *Women, Business and the Law, and EM2030 Calculations*.²²

It is also critical to consider that a significant proportion of women are involved in unpaid care work and/or informal work, they are not accounted for in statistics, and their work is low paying often involving poor working conditions, where workplace protections are not applicable. ILO estimates that one in every 13 women wage earners are domestic workers who are not protected by laws pertaining to equal pay, paid leave and/or maternity benefits.²³ Similarly, many women engaged in the garment industry in Bangladesh and India also face these conditions. In the region, 64% of women are in informal employment. The ILO Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183) provides guidance for countries in terms of the provision of

adequate maternity protection.²⁴ It recommends a minimum paid maternity leave of 14 weeks²⁵ and the accompanying recommendation, No.1918, encourages countries to provide at least 18 weeks.²⁶ The Social Protection Floors Recommendation (No. 202), and the Transition from the Informal to the Formal Economy Recommendation (No. 204) from ILO are relevant guides for countries towards the extension of maternity protection beyond the formal sector.²⁷ The region, thus, needs to prioritise the expansion of workplace legal protection schemes to include women in the informal workspace²⁸ and address vulnerabilities around working conditions and pay that accompany such work.

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Affirming
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The ILO Equal Remuneration Convention and the Discrimination (employment and occupation) Convention are fundamental global commitments that support the introduction and authorisation of legal frameworks mandating gender equality. Out of the 19 countries, only Malaysia and Myanmar have ratified these conventions.²⁹ The governments of the region need to accelerate the pace of their efforts to achieve this target and ensure that they are fully implementing the conventions effectively.

A comprehensive assessment of progress on this SDG target should also take into account laws and policies and its implementation around gender-based violence, abortion and sexual and reproductive health access to comprehensively assess the regional progress towards ending all forms of discrimination against women and girls.³⁰ Revoking discriminatory laws will also be a key pathway to progress.

2. ELIMINATE ALL FORMS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST ALL WOMEN AND GIRLS IN THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SPHERES, INCLUDING TRAFFICKING AND SEXUAL AND OTHER TYPES OF EXPLOITATION

The SDG target 5.2 includes two official indicators on partner and non-partner violence that aim at capturing prevalence data on various forms of violence experienced by women and girls in varying contexts through different stages of their lives. A range of proxy indicators on violence such as women's perception of safety and countries that have ratified CEDAW or have violence prevention laws in place can provide more understanding to context, and complement the existing data gaps in the official SDG indicators in many countries. The use of proxy indicators also recognises that outcome indicators around prevalence can take a longer period to reflect changes and rely on accuracy of reporting which cannot be assumed in the contexts of many countries.

Living a life of dignity and respect, free of violence³¹ is a basic human right. In the Asia-Pacific region, deep rooted gender inequality and discriminatory socio-cultural norms underpin structures and systems; women and girls are consistently subjected to varying forms of violence. In Asia, more women die of sexual and gender-based violence than they do of armed conflict.³² Despite being a heinous form of violence, it is often overlooked by governments and policymakers.

The SDGs identify 'preventing and ending all forms of violence against women by 2030' as a critical and transformational target. The framework recognises that violence against women is multidimensional and manifests in a range of forms including the physical, social, sexual, and psychological, and it persists throughout the life cycle.

The Proportion of Ever-partnered Women and Girls Aged 15 Years and Older Subjected to Physical or Sexual, Violence by a Current or Former Intimate Partner in the Previous 12 Months, by Age (15-49)

The SDG indicator looks to measure experience and prevalence of intimate partner violence or abuse perpetrated by a current or former partner in 12 months preceding the survey.

Given the current rate of progress and data availability, the region is unlikely to achieve its target by 2030 (refer to Annex 2). Indonesia and Malaysia have no cross comparable nationally representative data available, which makes it difficult to identify the year in which the region will currently meet its target. Based on the data available and recognising the challenges around data collection, the Philippines (10.3% in 2008 to 5.5% in 2017) is making progress towards achieving the target (Refer to DHS data, Annex 2). Bangladesh has experienced an increase (22.4% in 2007 to 28.8% in 2015) in prevalence rates for intimate partner violence (refer to DHS data, Annex 2). Other countries including Maldives, Nepal and Cambodia have seen a minor decline in prevalence while India has seen no progress.

Except for Myanmar, all 18 countries have some form of domestic violence legislation in place.³³ However, collection of data on prevalence is not mandated. The domestic violence legislation in most countries also does not protect unmarried intimate partners.

Additionally, several national legal frameworks on domestic violence adopt an unclear status with respect to marital rape. Historically, marital rape has been recognised as a criminal act but most legislative reforms do not recognise it as an act of violence given that it takes place within the social construct of marriage. While several countries in the South-East Asia region including Indonesia, the Philippines and Vietnam have explicitly criminalised marital rape, countries like Pakistan and Malaysia have an unclear stand, and India

BOX 1: Marital Rape in India

Section 375 of the penal code allows a man to rape his adult wife. The law states, 'The husband cannot be guilty of a rape committed by himself upon his lawful wife, for by their mutual matrimonial consent and contract, the wife hath given herself in kind unto the husband, which she cannot retract'. The domestic violence legislation is predominantly confined to experience of physical rather than sexual abuse.

Source: Saurabh Mishra and Sarvesh Singh, "Marital Rape – Myth, Reality and Need for Criminalization."³⁴

and Maldives have explicitly excluded marital rape from gender-based violence related legislations.³⁵ The explicit exclusion of marital rape as a form of gender-based violence in countries has a direct implication on the reported prevalence rates.³⁶

Due to the lack of global standard or measuring and reporting on psychological violence, this indicator currently only reports on women's experience of physical and/or sexual violence across the age of 15-49. Data availability and comparability is also a major challenge in relation to this indicator.

Out of the 19 countries, 2 countries have no data on violence and 8 countries have conducted only one violence prevalence survey since 2000 and the survey methodologies applied and implemented also vary. It is also likely that given the cultural context, the incidence of violence goes under reported.

An additional indicator that can provide more context to data on violence prevalence is if wife-beating is justified for one or more reasons, data which is currently collected by DHS - "Percentage of respondents who consider wife-beating an acceptable way for a husband to discipline his wife for any reason." This indicator if collected across all countries, can provide insights on the extent of gender equality in social setting.

Percentage of Girls Aged 15 Years and Older Who have Experienced Sexual Violence by Persons Other than Their Intimate Partner, in the Previous 12 Months

Data gaps across the region make it impossible to assess and understand current prevalence rates or to track regional progress on prevalence of non-partner violence. Bangladesh is the only country in the region with multi-year data available and Bangladesh is making progress on this indicator (refer to Annex 3).

In the 2013 Global Violence Prevalence study by WHO, globally, 7% of women have been sexually assaulted by someone other than their partner and the prevalence levels are lowest in the South-East Asia region at 4.9%.³⁷ When the partner and non-partner violence prevalence rates of the South-East Asia region are combined, it reached a relatively high 40.2%.³⁸ With the data available, it can be interpreted that the Intimate Partner Violence is more common and prevalent in this region in comparison to non-partner violence. The available data or rather the lack thereof provides limited perspective on non-partner sexual violence prevalence and dangerously paints half a picture. In many countries within the region, the experience of such violence is normative and hence, reporting of sexual violence is likely to be even more stigmatised, which leads to limited availability of data or no data at all. Another barrier is that fewer countries collect this information at a national level and many existing surveys do not employ sophisticated measurement approaches that comply with the SDG framework requirements.

This is not to say that there is no research available. Sri Lanka, for instance, has no nationally representative data on non-partner sexual violence, there are, however, research studies that have generated some data. For instance, the United Nations study on violence prevalence across multiple countries in 2013 looks at male perception of non-partner sexual violence, according to which 4.6% of the 2656 study respondents reported having perpetrated sexual violence on non-partners.³⁹ In 2015, the UNFPA sexual harassment public transport study indicated that out of the sample of 2,500 women ages 15-25 years, 90% reported having experienced sexual harassment.⁴⁰

Despite knowing that the experience of non-partner sexual violence has grave health implications for women, there has been little momentum at the country level in generating data on this indicator. Although several countries in the region use crime statistics to provide data on prevalence, research, however, suggests that the reporting of non-partner sexual violence is a bigger challenge than intimate partner violence.⁴¹

In the contexts where data is available, it is hard to say if the rates are increasing or decreasing. Data on this indicator is obtained either through specialised national surveys or through the Demographic Health Surveys (DHS).⁴² The data on violence prevalence must be investigated carefully and should only be regarded as representative with great caution. The DHS relies on reporting of incidents by women and girls, and their ability and willingness to report is often compromised by a range of factors. Reporting on experience of violence is not normative in a context where perpetrators are known and close to the survivors and continue to cohabit with them.

Data on the prevalence of violence against women, let alone gender-based violence, are often missing, not generated timely, and not disaggregated (especially across age groups, migrant women, persons living with HIV, and sex workers). The lack of disaggregation masks intersecting diversity, unique experiences, and inequality. Another challenge of relying on national data sets is that the numbers do not provide enough depth and context for the prevalence and experience of sexually diverse LGBTQI and other marginalised people.

Percentage of Women Aged 15+ Who Report that They Feel Safe Walking Alone at Night in the City or Area of Residence

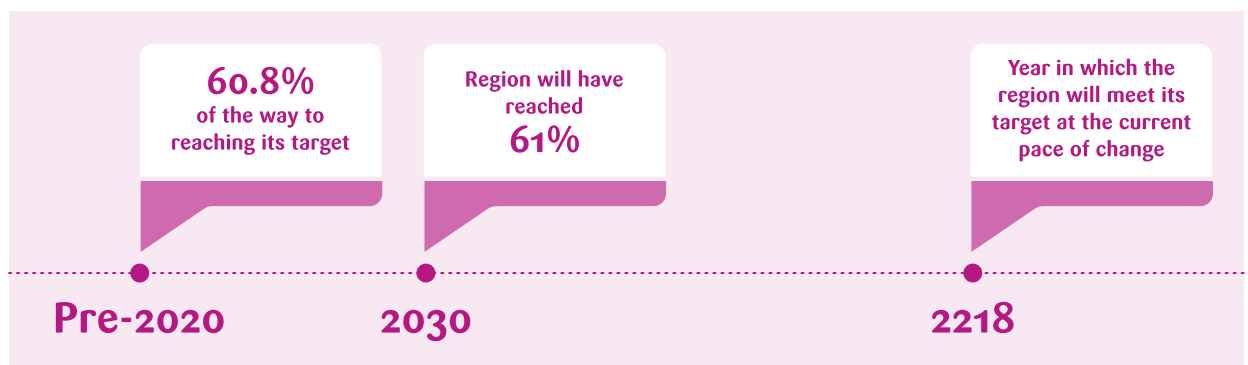
The SDG indicator 5.2.1 and 5.2.2 both measure gender-based violence prevalence; quality, representative and comparable data is rarely available at national and regional levels on these indicators. A range of proxy indicators where data is comparably readily available can be used to provide further insights. The indicator used in this regard is the “Percentage of Women Aged 15+ Who Report that They Feel Safe Walking Alone at

Night in the City or Area of Residence.” This is indicator 11c in the EM2030 SDG Gender Index provides insight on women’s perceptions of safety in the public sphere. This indicator is linked to the official SDG indicator 16.1.4: Proportion of Population that Feel Safe Walking Alone Around the Area They Live.

As per the Bending the Curve analysis, the percentage of women in the region who reported feeling safe walking at night by 2030 at the current pace of change will be 61%. The year in which the region would reach its target at this rate is 2218.⁴³ The progress on this indicator is very slow and, in some countries, it is worsening.

Women in Asia-Pacific have to exercise great caution when they access public spaces. The numbers are directly representative of the narrative. The freedom and safety of mobility is not only a human right but a prerequisite for women’s access to education, employment opportunities, health, wellness, and leisure.

FIGURE 3: Projection of trend for the Asia-Pacific region on the 'Percentage of Women Aged 15+ Who Report That They Feel Safe Walking at Night in the City or Area of Residence'



Source: Equal Measures 2030 (2020) Bending the Curve Towards Gender Equality <https://www.equalmeasures2030.org/products/bending-the-curve-towards-gender-equality-by-2030/>.

Across the region there has been very limited progress on ensuring that women feel safe in the last two decades.

The Bending the Curve research shows that no country in the region is on track to achieving the target by 2030. At the current pace of change, around 450 million women will not feel safe walking alone at night by 2030. In fact, perceptions of safely walking at night worsened in many countries of the region, such as Myanmar (86% in 2012 to 74% in 2016) and Sri Lanka (68% in 2015 to 55% in 2018) have seen a worrying steep decline (refer to Annex 4).

Recently released research by SafetiPin highlights the range of factors that influence women's perception of safety. Infrastructure and urban planning are identified as central to building safe spaces for women, and the specific issues identified by the research include adequate street lighting, well paved and maintained footpaths, and larger spaces to manage overcrowding.⁴⁴ Immediate action is needed on the part of national governments to put in place measures to ensure an improvement in women's perception of safety. At the national level, multi-stakeholder groups that include urban planners, community organisations, and law enforcement personnel need to look at the data and collectively design policy interventions that ensure the intersection between gender, safety, and public space.

3. ELIMINATION OF ALL HARMFUL PRACTICES, SUCH AS CHILD, EARLY AND FORCED MARRIAGE AND FEMALE GENITAL MUTILATION

Harmful practices like child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation/cutting disproportionately affect young women and girls. These practices are critical obstacles in the full achievement of the right to health and well-being. The Sustainable Development Agenda recognises the grave impact of such harmful practices and calls for the elimination of these practices by 2030. The indicators identified as a part of this target focus on understanding prevalence rates for child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.

The Proportion of Women Aged 20–24 Years Who Were Married or in a Union Before Age 15 and Before Age 18

Marriage before the age of 18 is a serious human rights violation. Child, early and forced marriage has an impact on physical, social, emotional and economic development of girls. It interrupts schooling and in turn, limits access to economic opportunities. Being married off at an early age impacts a girl's decision-making ability leading to poor physical and mental health and limited socio-political participation, exposing them to the risk of early pregnancy, STIs, HIV, morbidity and intimate partner violence, leaving them highly vulnerable.⁴⁵ The consequences are lifelong and, in many instances, intergenerational. The indicator is critical as it is interlinked with and impacts other targets on intimate partner violence (5.2.1), education completion, and adolescent birth rate.

The practice of child, early and forced marriage is declining in the region, the pace of the decline, however, is slow and uneven. Some progress has been seen in the form of a marked decline in marriages involving girls under the age of 15 in the region, with India displaying significant progress (refer to Annex 5). Fiji and Malaysia have no nationally representative data available on this indicator. Given the current pace of progress and the gaps in the data, it is unlikely that the region will be able to achieve their target on this goal by 2030 (refer to Annex 5).

Asia-Pacific is home to the largest population of adolescents, and the number of girls affected by child, early and forced marriage is high. According to the UNICEF global database, 8% and 29% of young women were married before age 15 and 18 in South Asia, respectively.⁴⁶ The number for South Asia is higher than the global average of 5% and 20%, for marriages before age 15 and 18, respectively.⁴⁷ The current level of occurrence is a grave concern. All governments in the region have signed and ratified the Convention on the Rights of Child. The UN General Assembly has also adopted a resolution on Child, Early and Forced Marriage in 2014, 2015, and 2017. Despite the global commitments, the practice continues in many countries.⁴⁸

A key barrier to the enforcement of commitments towards ending the harmful practice of child, early and forced marriage is the existing disharmony in legal frameworks and plural legal systems. All countries have laws in place articulating the minimum age at

marriage, in every single country of the region, however, there is a range of intersecting civil and religious laws that provide exemptions in regards to legal age at marriage.⁴⁹ Cambodia, Indonesia and Malaysia have in fact legalised the exceptions to the general minimum age for marriage.⁵⁰ The rationale for exceptions varies from State to State, however, they are rooted in religious belief systems. Early and child marriage is regarded normative in communities across the region. The elimination of this practice is challenging if the legislation is weak, contradictory, and poorly enforced. Leading by example, the Indonesian parliament adopted measures in 2019 by raising the minimum age at which women can marry to 19. Historically, the law in Indonesia permitted girls to marry at 16, with the exception of parents requesting religious courts to authorise marriages of younger girls, wherein no minimum age rule applied.⁵¹

BOX 2: Strong Laws and Policies to Eliminate the Practice of Child, Early and Forced Marriage – Indonesia

In a country with 8th highest number of child brides, the parliament of Indonesia adopted a landmark amendment revising the legal age of marriage in 2019. The outcome was a result of:

- Advocacy of the women's rights movement including EM2030 partner KAPAL Perempuan. The advocacy contributed to the recognition of this practice as harmful and discriminatory. 18 women's rights groups including KAPAL drafted the presidential decree to outlaw the practice.
- Gender champions and female parliamentarians within the government offered support
- Availability of local data through KAPAL's network of community level data collectors that has supported evidence-based advocacy.

For more details on Kapal Perempuan, refer to <http://kapalperempuan.org/>.

Source: Martha Flynn, "Win for Feminist Movements in Indonesia as Government Takes Bold Steps to Curb Child Marriage."⁵²

Although the practice is rampant in the South-Asia sub-region, it has also witnessed the largest decline in child marriage as at-risk girls dropped from 50% to

30% in the region.⁵³ The progress in India has played a significant role in the substantially reduced numbers. The pro-active investment by the government on adolescent education and effective awareness building campaigns around the illegality of child marriage have contributed significantly to this substantive reduction. While the rate has dropped from 47% (2005-06) to 27% (2015-16), the current prevalence level is still very high.⁵⁴ Examining disaggregated data on this indicator, especially by minority and by migrant status, will be key moving forward.

Proportion of Girls and Women Aged 15-49 Years Who have Undergone Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting, by Age

Female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C) is a practice that involves altering or injuring the female genitalia for non-medical reasons and is internationally recognised as a human rights violation.⁵⁵ The practice of FGM/C is a direct manifestation of gender equality. The sustainable development global agenda recognises it as a harmful practice that needs to be eliminated by 2030.

Each year, at least 4.1 million girls are cut globally, and this figure could rise to 4.6 million girls by 2030 due to population growth.⁵⁶ Only 39 countries have official statistical data available on FGM/C, out of which Maldives (13%, 2017) and Indonesia (49%, 2013) are the only countries in the Asia-Pacific region with prevalence data on FGM/C in the DHS. A majority of girls and women in Maldives think that the practice should be abolished as the 2017 DHS showed that 66% of girls and women in Maldives opposed the continuation of FGM/C. Available data from large scale surveys shows that the practice is particularly concentrated in Africa.

Research studies conducted by Stop FGM/C have shown that in South Asia, FGM/C is a common practice. It is believed to be prevalent in Indonesia and Malaysia along with specific communities in South Thailand and Sri Lanka. It is also believed to be prevalent in some areas of Pakistan and Maldives.⁵⁷ FGM/C is considered to be rite of passage in the Philippines,⁵⁸ associated with softening the female character in Southern Thailand,⁵⁹ and in India, Indonesia and Malaysia, it is closely related to female purity. Despite evidence on the practice of FGM/C in these countries, governments have completely denied prevalence, leading to complete absence of discussion and reporting on indicator 5.3.2



Additional key barriers to the elimination of the practice has been the medicalisation of this practice along with the religious and social sanction accorded to it. Given that there are almost no laws in the region to eliminate FGM/C, health professionals continue to practice it in various countries including Malaysia and Singapore, where it is offered in clinics. The Council of Muslims in Sri Lanka declared FGM/C as obligatory in 2007 citing religious teachings as well as the importance of maintaining hygiene and the 2003 survey in Indonesia found that 92% of parents supported the continuation of FGM/C for their granddaughters.⁶¹

The practice of FGM/C in any form violates the principles of equality and non-discrimination on the basis of gender and sex. As signatories of CEDAW and CRC, all countries of the Asia-Pacific region are required to identify FGM/C as a discriminatory practice, generate representative data, and enact legislations. While it is clear that meeting indicator 5.3.2 requires a collaborative approach that would be tailored to each individual national context, the national governments of the region need to, first and foremost, recognise the emerging evidence on the prevalence of FGM/C in their country, urgently act to criminalise all forms of FGM/C and immediately include modules on FGM/C in all household representative surveys.

Child, early and forced marriage, which is a strong indicator of restricted autonomy of girls and young women, plays a big part of the continuum of abuse linked to violence and in many cases FGM/C. This is due to the age of marriage that strongly correlates to the experience and risk of violence as shown by the higher rates of physical violence experienced those in the 15-19 age group in comparison to those in the 20-24 age

BOX 3: FGM/C in Sri Lanka

- In 2008, the Council of Muslims in Sri Lanka issued a fatwa on 'female circumcision' in response to a query from a member of the public, saying it is obligatory and recommended, citing religious teachings as well as the view that circumcision is important to maintain cleanliness of the genitals and 'for enjoyment in family life'.
- A 2012 UN Economic and Social Commission study noted that there was no evidence of mutilation of the vagina and that no source could be obtained to elaborate on the ritual.
- From 2016 onwards, the mention of and dialogue on FGM/C in media became more common
- Women from the Bohra muslim community with support of public health officials came forward to speak about their experience of FGM/C asking the state to stop the practice between 2016-18.
- In 2018, the Ministry of Health released a circular emphasising the harmful nature of FGM/C.

Source: Zainab Ibrahim and Ermiza Tegal, *Towards Understanding Female Genital Cutting in Sri Lanka*.⁶²

group.⁶³ For instance, a research from India shows that those who were married prior to age 18 were less likely to be consulted in the decision to marry and choice of partner.⁶⁴ This experience triggers and perpetuates the vicious cycle of poverty, poor health, violence, limited autonomy and restricted educational attainment.⁶⁵

In addition to child, early and forced marriage and FGM/C, there is a range of practices unique to certain national contexts in the region that affect the reproductive health and well-being of women and girls. The Chhaupadi in Nepal, dowry practice in India, honour killing, taboos and practices around menstruation, and acid attacks are just a few of those practices among many others. **While the broad anti-discriminatory policy measures in place at the national level do address these practices, hardly any nationally representative data is being generated at the moment to understand prevalence and identify measures specific to eradicating them.**

BOX 4: Chhaupadi in Nepal

A practice wherein menstruating women are considered impure and required to live outside the house in a shed like dwelling.

I had my first period when I was 12 years old. It was in November, and it was cold, and I was banished to stay at my neighbor's chhau.... I wasn't allowed to go to my house for 13 days. I wasn't even allowed to look in the direction of my house, or even talk to my family members, particularly the males. ~ (Deepa, student, Nepal)

Source: Deepa Nepali, "Chhaupadi Prama in Nepal."⁶⁶

Girls' Completion of Secondary Education

Across Asia, the practice of son preference and patriarchal family structures enforce value systems that regard women and girls as secondary in the household. This often translates into women and girls not having the equal access to their rights in relation to health and education. The ICPD mentions that an adolescent's right to education, especially secondary school education, is a critical pathway towards meeting our global commitment to gender equality. Girls, who complete schooling, are less likely to marry young and more likely to lead healthy lives with increased agency to build a better future for themselves.⁶⁷

Despite this, the region is plagued with high drop-out rates due to a range of socio-economic reasons such as poverty, the pressure to earn a livelihood, the burden of caring for young siblings or the elderly, restrictions on mobility and most often, the practice of early marriage. The indicator used to understand the current state and pace of progress on this is "Share of Women Aged 20-24 Years Who Completed Secondary Education." This is indicator reference 4a in the SDG Gender Index and is the official SDG indicator 4.1.4.

As per the Bending the Curve analysis, the percentage of women in the region who completed secondary school based on the latest data available is 55.1%.⁶⁸ At the current rate of progress, only China and Vietnam will meet the target of all girls completing secondary education by 2030. Vietnam has shown a fast-paced

progress with a 10% annual increase in the number of girls who complete secondary school since 2000 (refer to Annex 6). At the current pace of change, over 39 million women ages 20-24 will not have completed secondary school in 2030. The year in which the region will reach its target (100% women, ages 20-24 years) at the current rate of change is 2355.

Data indicates that only three countries are moving fast in their pace to achieving the completion of secondary education for all girls. In addition to China and Vietnam, Nepal has showcased an accelerated pace of change (refer to Annex 6). Political will and commitment are critical as new policies can improve parity: A recent country level review led by ARROW's partner organisation indicates that the government of Nepal has taken significant measures to improve education outcomes for girls, over the last five years, through the introduction of a compulsory Free Education act (2018), higher education policy (2017), comprehensive school safety implementation procedures (2017), and pro-poor targeted scholarship procedures (2017). Across all policies, a significant focus has been on taking measures to increase girls' access to, retention in, and completion of school. Although Nepal is not on track to meeting the target by 2030, it has seen an accelerated pace of change due to increased political will and commitment.⁶⁹

Although most countries are on a positive trajectory of growth, the pace of growth of many, however, is not adequate. Based on the available data, 8 out of the 15 countries are displaying a medium pace of growth, but, many of these countries will not achieve their target in the near future (refer to Annex 6). With the current pace of progress, Pakistan will take 98 more years and Bangladesh, 131 more years to achieve the target.

Adequate implementation of policy measures is critical for progress towards the target. India, for instance, has a history of progressive policy measures and complementing campaigns and programs, however, the rate of progress on this indicator is medium. According to research by the Centre for Budget and Policy Studies, 65% of the total population of 15-18-year-old out-of-school girls in India, who are not attending any educational institution, are either engaged in household activities and are dependents.⁷⁰ Apart from that, the burden of domestic unpaid care work is also cited as the primary reason for dropping out.

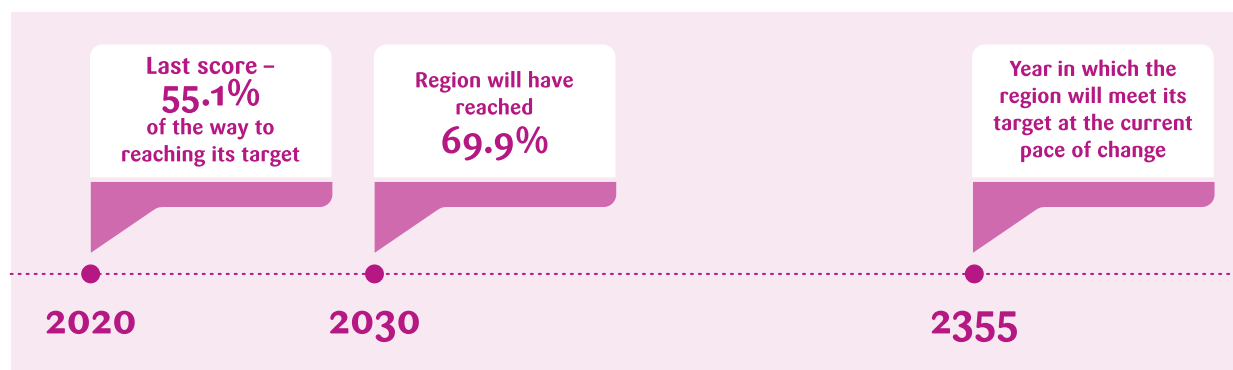
The learning crisis in South Asia also has an impact on the progress of this indicator. The Pakistan ASER survey identifies gender as a barrier in accessing education and a significant gap in language and numeracy skills between girls and boys age 5-16.⁷¹ The ASER survey in India, on the hand, discusses the impact of the availability of school facilities such as a boundary wall and usable toilets in regards to girls' access to and retention in school.⁷²

Two countries also saw rates of the completion of upper secondary school go in the wrong direction (refer to Annex 6). The decline in the growth rate is minor but worrying. Sri Lanka, for example, has seen a minor decline in trend which could be due to a range of reasons. With a history of conflicts, several conflict-affected areas within the country, which are struggling with early marriage and poverty rates, also have much

higher school drop-out rates. Additionally, the limited investment in gender equality and the absence of gender lens in existing school curriculums are also identified as contributing factors by the civil society network.⁷³

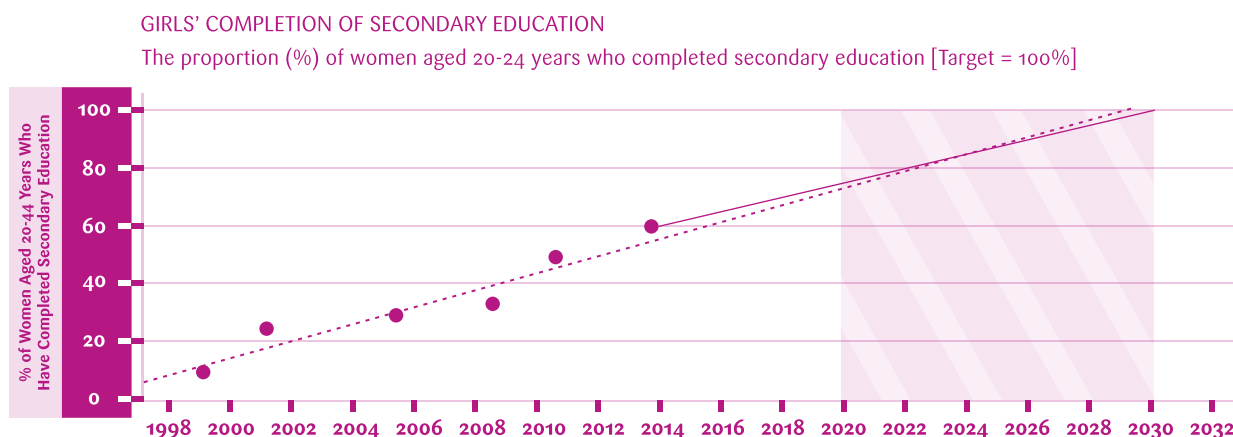
Policies and programmes that aim to promote completion of education for girls must adopt a multi-dimensional approach that focuses on improving education systems and addresses the deep-rooted norms within households that act as barriers to access. In addition to ensuring access to education, implementing a curriculum with a gender lens and a focus on sexuality education can promote healthy sexual behaviours and activities that are linked to a decrease in risky behaviour and contribute to eliminating harmful practices. The right to completion of education is linked to the right to sexual health information and sexuality.⁷⁴

FIGURE 4: Projection of Trend for the Asia-Pacific Region on 'Proportion of Women Ages 20-24 Who Completed Secondary Education'



Source: Equal Measures 2030 (2020) *Bending the Curve Towards Gender Equality* <https://www.equalmeasures2030.org/products/bending-the-curve-towards-gender-equality-by-2030/>.

FIGURE 5: Fast Pace of Progress – Past Trends, Expected Performance and Progress Needed by Vietnam to Reach Target by 2030

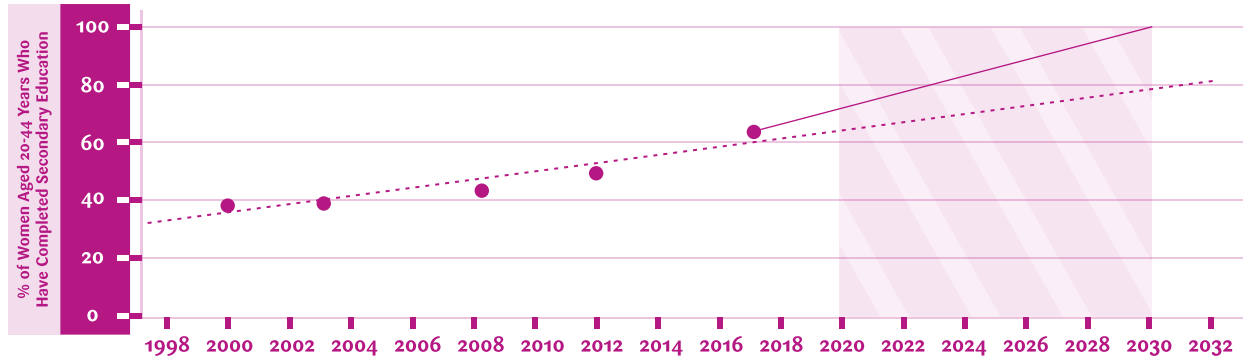


Source: UIS and EM 2030 Calculations.⁷⁵

FIGURE 6: Medium Pace of Progress – Past Trends, Expected Performance and Progress Needed by Indonesia to Reach Target by 2030

GIRLS' COMPLETION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The proportion (%) of women aged 20-24 years who completed secondary education [Target = 100%]

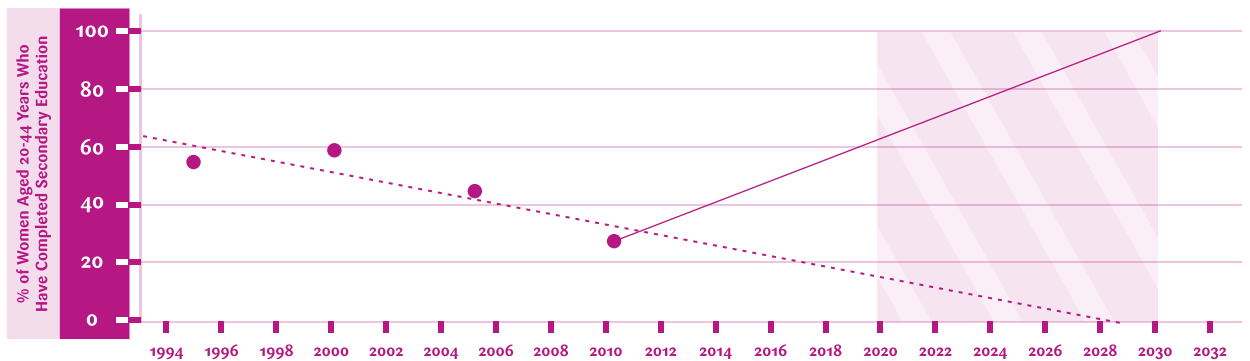


Source: UIS and EM 2030 Calculations.⁷⁶

FIGURE 7: Negative Pace of Progress – Past Trends, Predicted Progress and Progress Needed by Sri Lanka to Reach Target by 2030

GIRLS' COMPLETION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

The proportion (%) of women aged 20-24 years who completed secondary education [Target = 100%]



Source: UIS and EM 2030 Calculations.⁷⁷

Policies and programmes that aim to promote completion of education for girls must adopt a multi-dimensional approach that focuses on improving education systems and addresses the deep-rooted norms within households that act as barriers to access. In addition to ensuring access to education, implementing a curriculum with a gender lens and a focus on sexuality education can promote healthy sexual behaviours and activities that are linked to a decrease in risky behaviour and contribute to eliminating harmful practices.

4. RECOGNISE AND VALUE UNPAID CARE WORK AND DOMESTIC WORK THROUGH PROVISION OF PUBLIC SERVICES, INFRASTRUCTURE AND SOCIAL PROTECTION POLICIES AND THE PROMOTION OF SHARED RESPONSIBILITY WITHIN THE HOUSEHOLD AND THE FAMILY AS NATIONALLY APPROPRIATE

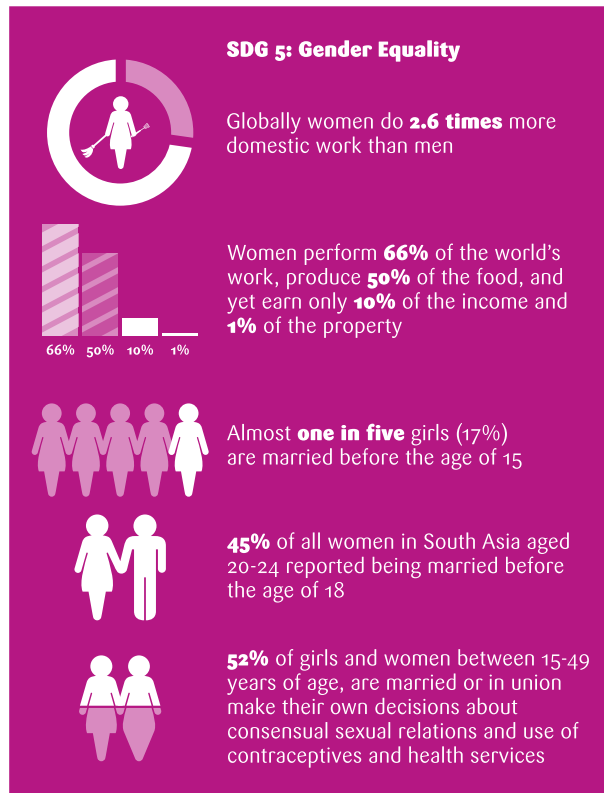
The recognition and valuation of the unpaid care work performed is critical because of its contribution not only to the household but economy at large. As social norms warrant for a disproportionate amount of unpaid care work to be performed by women, it has implications on household gender dynamics, women's economic participation, gender earning gaps, gender gaps in political representation, and access to equal opportunities. Unpaid care work is a subset of unpaid work and includes care of persons and household work for family members that is outside the boundaries of production activities.

Proportion of Time Spent on Unpaid Domestic and Care Work, by Sex, Age, and Location

Women in Asia and the Pacific work the longest hours in the world.⁷⁸ On average, women in the region work 7.7 hours daily, of which only 3.3 hours are paid, and the rest are dedicated to unpaid care work.⁷⁹ The labour force participation rate of women in the region is only 46%.⁸⁰ In Asia and the Pacific, around 426 million people belonging to the working age population cite unpaid care responsibilities as one of the main reasons for staying out of the labour market, and around 80% of the unpaid care work in the region is done by women.⁸¹ If included in the measurement of GDP, unpaid care work that women in the Asia-Pacific undertake would add 3.8 trillion USD to the regional total GDP.⁸²

In 1995, the Beijing Platform for Action at the Fourth World Conference on Women brought to attention the unremunerated contributions of women to the economy, recognising that these contributions often go undervalued and unrecorded.⁸³ Unpaid work is one of the causes for women's economic and social disempowerment and a fundamental starting point to eliminating gender gaps in the labour market. The 2017 Report of the UN Secretary General's High-Level Panel on Women's Economic Empowerment shows that the recognition, reduction and redistribution of unpaid care and domestic work is one of the seven drivers of economic empowerment of women.⁸⁴

IMAGE 1: Women, Unpaid Work, and Harmful Practices



Source: Sharni Jayawardena, Sustainable Development Agenda & Young People: Recognising Voices and Claiming Rights.⁸⁵

SDG target 5.4 deals with social protection and public infrastructure as mechanisms to address invisibility of the contribution of unpaid care work. Social protection offers safeguarding from poverty and other vulnerabilities. The ADB social protection index indicates that women in Asia-Pacific have a lower chance of being a part of social protection schemes compared to men.⁸⁶ Improved public infrastructure, on the other hand, can contribute to reducing the burden of unpaid care work on women and accord them equal opportunities to join the labour force. One such example of a challenge that public infrastructure can amend is around access to water. Narratives from across South Asia indicate that women and girls spend a large part of their day travelling to collect water and research shows that in India, Nepal and Pakistan, women spent an average of more than five hours every week doing that.⁸⁷ The care economy and the recognition of unpaid care work is also directly linked to improving women's access to SRH services.⁸⁸

In order to be gender inclusive in social protection and public infrastructure, it is critical for nations to produce economic statistics on household and non-market activities. Time-use surveys are one effective tool to capture a range of activities in the household that are otherwise invisible. Historically, time-use surveys have been conducted in many countries across the region with the objective of understanding living conditions, however, most of these have been small scale, one-time and limited in their ability to contribute to economic policy. All countries that were included in this analysis have had small-scale standalone time-use surveys while Maldives has never had a time-use survey.⁸⁹

Systematic collection of data through time-use surveys can help create momentum towards achieving the target in SDG 5.4.

The area of interest to SRHR advocates with respect to this indicator is women's unpaid healthcare work within the home and in the community. Time-use studies in many countries document time spent by women and men in paid and unpaid work. The United Nations Development Programme has produced a number of documents highlighting the importance of unpaid work of women, and unpaid care work in particular.⁹⁰

Availability of robust and updated data on the division of paid and unpaid work will bring more visibility to the issue of unpaid work and provide impetus for advocacy and campaigning to support policy level shifts towards recognising the economic contribution of women.

5. ENSURE WOMEN'S FULL AND EFFECTIVE PARTICIPATION AND EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR LEADERSHIP AT ALL LEVELS OF DECISION-MAKING IN POLITICAL, ECONOMIC AND PUBLIC LIFE

Parity at all levels is a tool for development and critical to meeting the SDG on gender equality. Gender balance and feminist leadership can help reform policy issues and solutions in the interest of women and the community.

Proportion of Women in Ministerial or Senior Governmental Positions

Women's political participation is essential for gender equality and a representative democracy. The

indicator used to measure representation in terms of the proportion of women who hold ministerial or cabinet-level senior government roles. This is indicator reference 5e in the SDG Gender Index and it is related to SDG indicators for Goal 5.

As per the Bending the Curve analysis, the percentage of ministerial roles held by women in the region has increased from 8% in 2001 to 12% in 2019.⁹¹ At the current pace of progress, only 15% of senior governmental positions will be held by women in 2030 and the region will meet its target by 2676.

The region has not performed well on this indicator. Asia-Pacific's score on women's political representation is lower than the global average, and the region is the furthest away in terms of progress right after the Middle East, and has the slowest pace of change.⁹² The pace of progress also varies across the sub-regions. Sri Lanka and Bangladesh in South Asia and Vietnam in South-East Asia are showing negative growth trends (refer to Annex 7).

The Beijing Platform for Action and the CEDAW explicitly mention political equality and the access to equal opportunities for leadership at all levels.⁹³ However, across the region, the progress towards the application of the commitments for parity in political leadership has been uneven. While the provision for reservations exists across most countries, the application varies given the diversity in the forms of governance in the region (with a military dictatorship in Sri Lanka to a democracy in India), and the cultural and patriarchal norms that act as barriers. In India, for instance, the application is selectively logical, while there is a 50% reservation in the local governance structures (village level). The women's reservation bill that allows for 33% women representation in the parliament has been waiting to be passed by the lower house since 2010.⁹⁴ Nepal, on the other hand, incorporated affirmative action for women's political representation in 2007, guaranteeing women 33% seats in the Constituent Assembly.⁹⁵ Nepal is also the only country in the region that is progressing at a fast pace in introducing measures to meeting the target for this indicator (refer to Annex 7).

However, implementation continues to be a challenge. Malaysia although having declared its commitment to meeting a third representation in decision-making positions, concrete actions such as reservations have not been adopted.

Increasing women’s representation at all levels of governance will have a long-term effect on the appointment of women into leadership positions in the government. The example of local governance structures in India specifically shows that while reservations may start as a tokenistic gesture, overtime, the presence of women in local governance bodies has led to women

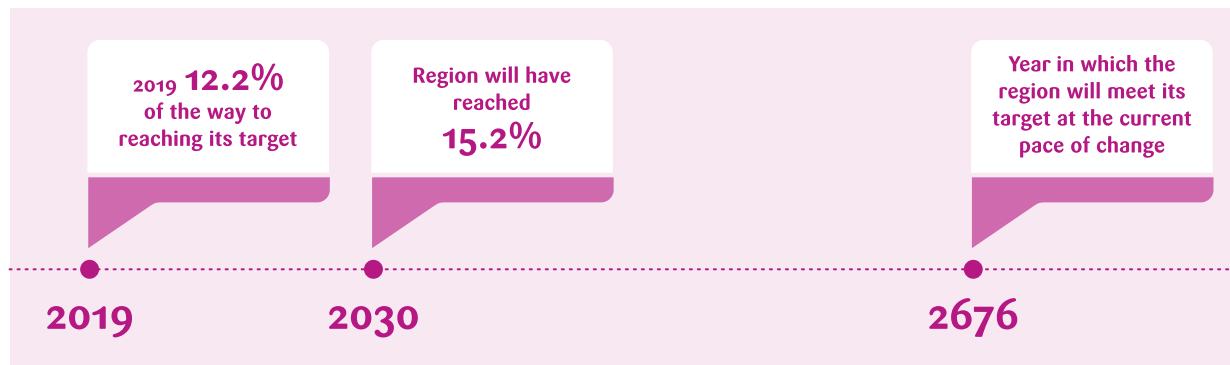
friendly policy outcomes. Quotas and reservations have value and such special measures can be critical to increasing women’s access to political opportunities, challenging patriarchal norms that deem public roles to be male dominated and create a cycle of positive transformation for generations to come.

BOX 5: Women’s Representation Policy v/s Practice – Nepal

The acceptance of women as bosses in all sectors is far from reality; sexism, discrimination, harassment and security concerns are the emerging issues in the case of women representatives either in politics, in administration, in social services or in private sector. The private sector companies, industrial establishments and financial institutions are also following the same conservative path while appointing women as bosses.

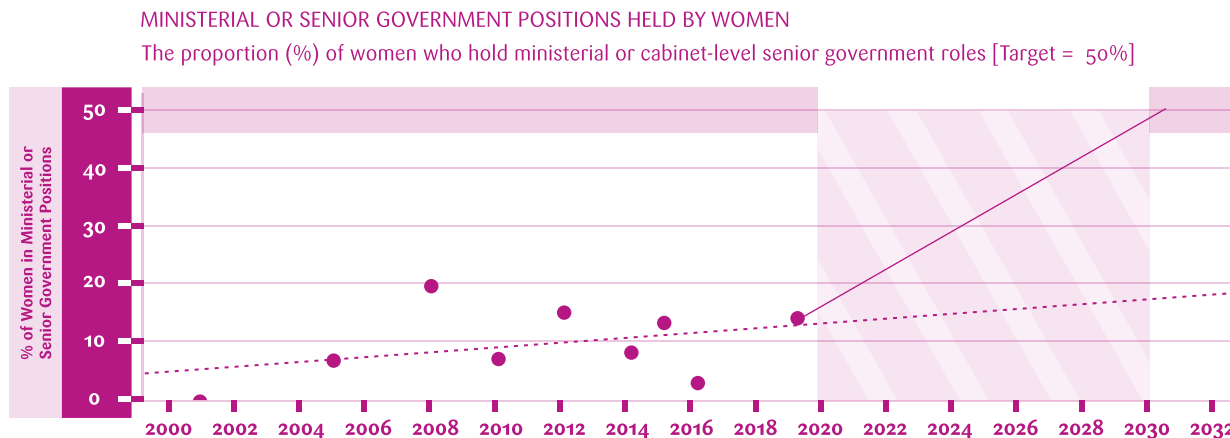
Source: ARROW Beijing+25 monitoring report Nepal.⁹⁶

FIGURE 8: Projection of trend for the Asia-Pacific Region on 'Proportion of Women in Ministerial or Senior Government Positions'



Source: Equal Measures 2030 (2020) Bending the Curve Towards Gender Equality <https://www.equalmeasures2030.org/products/bending-the-curve-towards-gender-equality-by-2030/>.

FIGURE 9: Nepal – Past Trends and Progress Needed to Meet Gender Parity by 2030



Source: IPU and EM2030 calculations.⁹⁷

6. ENSURE UNIVERSAL ACCESS TO SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH AND REPRODUCTIVE RIGHTS AS AGREED IN ACCORDANCE WITH THE PROGRAMME OF ACTION OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT AND THE BEIJING PLATFORM FOR ACTION AND THE OUTCOME DOCUMENTS OF THEIR REVIEW CONFERENCES.

Proportion of Women Married or in a Union of Reproductive Age (Aged 15-49 Years) Who Have Had Their Need for Family Planning Satisfied with Modern Methods

Modern methods of family planning enable girls and women to make choices about their bodies, avoid unwanted or dangerous pregnancies, and space out births thus reducing their exposure to risks. Access to safe, voluntary modern methods of contraception is central to gender equality. The indicator used to measure access is the proportion of women married or in a union (aged 15-49 years) whose need for family planning is met with modern methods. It is indicator reference 3c in the SDG Gender Index and is an official SDG 3 indicator.

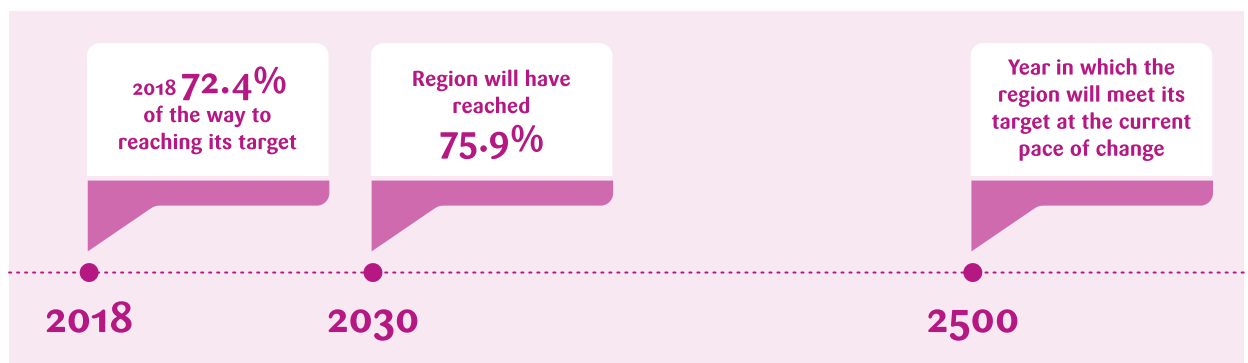
As per the Bending the Curve analysis, the percentage of girls and women with access to family planning in the region increased from 64.5% in 2000 to 72.4% in 2018.⁹⁸ The percentage of girls and women in the region that will have access to family planning in 2030 at the current pace of change is 76% and at this pace, the region will meet only its target of universal access in 2500.

Access to modern methods of family planning increased slowly between 2000 and 2018 (refer to Annex 8). Two countries from the region, which are China and Thailand, are also among the five countries with the highest percentage of girls and women with access to family planning.⁹⁹ Both countries though are also depicting a negative trend of the growth on this indicator.

Unmet need is low in Indonesia (11%, 2017) and virtually non-existent in China and Vietnam owing to their strong family planning policy. Within each country, the proportion of unmet need varies across rural and urban. The government of Indonesia has adopted a model that is based on choice and increasing demand for modern contraception. The government has prioritised equity in contraceptive prevalence among women and integrating its family planning provisions within the national health scheme.¹⁰⁰ Adopting universal health coverage that includes sexual and reproductive health services can play a critical role in addressing inequality and ensuring equity in contraceptive access.

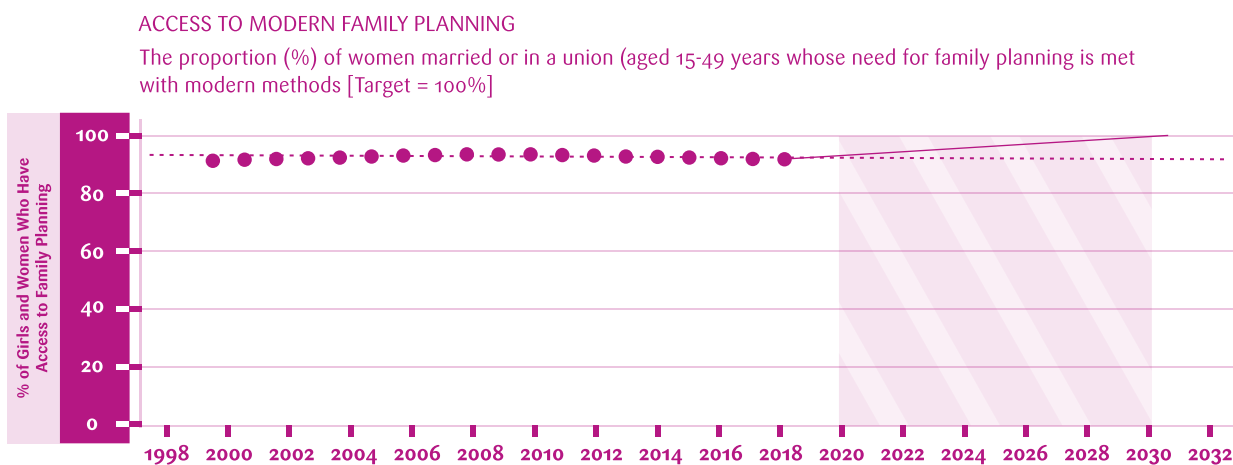
As we enter into the decade of action on the SDG agenda, it would be critical for the region to intensify its efforts towards meeting the unmet need for contraception and recognise and address the limitations of the current family planning programmes. This would mean shifts in norms and narratives that government-run family planning programmes are based on and implementing strong and progressive interventions. One limitation of the current narrative on contraception access is the overzealous focus on pregnancy

FIGURE 10: Projection of Trend for the Asia-Pacific Region on the 'Proportion of Women Married or in a Union (15-49 years) Whose Need for Family Planning is Met with Modern Methods'



Source: *Equal Measures 2030 (2020) Bending the Curve Towards Gender Equality* <https://www.equalmeasures2030.org/products/bending-the-curve-towards-gender-equality-by-2030/>.

FIGURE 11: Past Trends, Predicted Progress and Progress Needed by Thailand to Achieve Universal Access to Contraceptives by 2030



Source: UN Population Division and EM2030 Calculations.¹⁰¹

prevention and family planning instead of reproductive health care and meeting demand for contraception. This is reflective in the indicators used. A critical challenge in using this indicator to look at progress on contraceptive access is that it only covers married women. In countries where data is available it can be seen that the unmet need for contraception is, in fact, higher among sexually active unmarried women. In the Philippines and Papua New Guinea, 49% (almost half) and 65% of the unmet need, respectively, amounts to 25.9%¹⁰² is among sexually active unmarried women.¹⁰³ For the sexually active youth in these countries, contraception access is plagued by stigma around sexual activity and contraceptive decision-making behaviour, hence, their needs move beyond pregnancy, incorporating prevention of STIs and HIV. DHS data from Bangladesh, Maldives, Samoa and the Philippines shows that highest number of mistimed and unintended pregnancies in the region occur amongst mothers below the age of 20.¹⁰⁴

Married and unmarried adolescents are a key serving demographic that are often ignored in national contraception programmes.¹⁰⁵ A more inclusive framework has to be adopted that encompasses the needs of unmarried sexually active women, and people from the gender diverse groups that have unmet need for reasons that go beyond family planning. India's national level family planning data module and programme, for instance, does not recognise contraceptive needs of unmarried women.¹⁰⁶ For the

programme in India to reach its goals on contraceptive access, it is critical to expand the scope of data collection and programme outreach, subsequently.

Access to contraception is only a part in the SRHR continuum. Right to safe and legal abortion is a critical indicator of gender equality at the country level within the continuum. The ARROW ICPD+25 brief found that the levels of permissibility in regards to abortion access vary significantly in the 19 countries studied in the region. The grounds upon which abortion is permitted are typically additive i.e. failure of contraception, pregnancy resulting from rape/incest, foetal impairment etc.¹⁰⁷ with limited focus on choice and bodily autonomy. In countries like Cambodia, India, and Nepal, abortion laws are liberal but pregnancy terminations are performed in substandard conditions.¹⁰⁸ Stigma around abortion among providers and the community is a critical barrier in ensuring safe access in countries where access is legal and liberal. Access to a range of SRHR services including pregnancy and childbirth related care and complications, STI/HIV, RTI, cancers of reproductive systems and the availability, access, and quality care to all individuals including young people, is key to universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights. Universal access would mean provision of a range of SRH services to all individuals without financial risk and burden.

Covid-19 and Gender Equality

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Affirming Rights, Accelerating Progress and Amplifying Action: Monitoring SDG5 in Asia-Pacific

As we write this brief in the middle of a pandemic, we acknowledge its implications on the data being presented and recognise that Covid-19 will pose additional challenges to the region's progress. The Covid-19 pandemic has had an unprecedented impact, it has caused an incredible loss of life, affected social networks and health systems, and warranted widespread economic shutdowns. The pandemic has manifestly exposed the glaring gaps in our health systems and exacerbated pre-existing social, political and economic vulnerabilities, especially for women, girls, and gender diverse groups.

The numbers indicate that the pandemic is proving to be dire for men,¹⁰⁹ for women and girls, however, they are experiencing a bigger socio-economic set back. Their overrepresentation in the informal sector has meant almost no access to social protection systems and benefits.¹¹⁰ In addition to women in the informal sector, those working in the service industry, manufacturing and women who own small and medium enterprises are also impacted due to disruptions in the supply chain. The economic impact is accentuated by the unequal division of care and domestic work at home. The closure of schools and businesses as a preventive health measure have meant an increase in the already existing burden of care related responsibilities for women and increased vulnerability to violence. As women in Asia make, on average, 15% less than men,¹¹¹ it is more likely that women will stay home with children to enable their higher-earning male partners to continue working, putting their job and income security at risk. Experience of Ebola also suggests that the return to income and opportunity for men was faster in comparison to women.¹¹²

The closure of schools and education institutions is having a differential impact on girls, boys and youth of diverse genders. Covid has forced nearly 743 million girls out of schools in 185 countries.¹¹³ While in many regions learning has shifted to internet-based platforms, the digital gender gap is affecting girl's access disproportionately, compounding inequalities of multidimensional poverty. With restrictions in learning

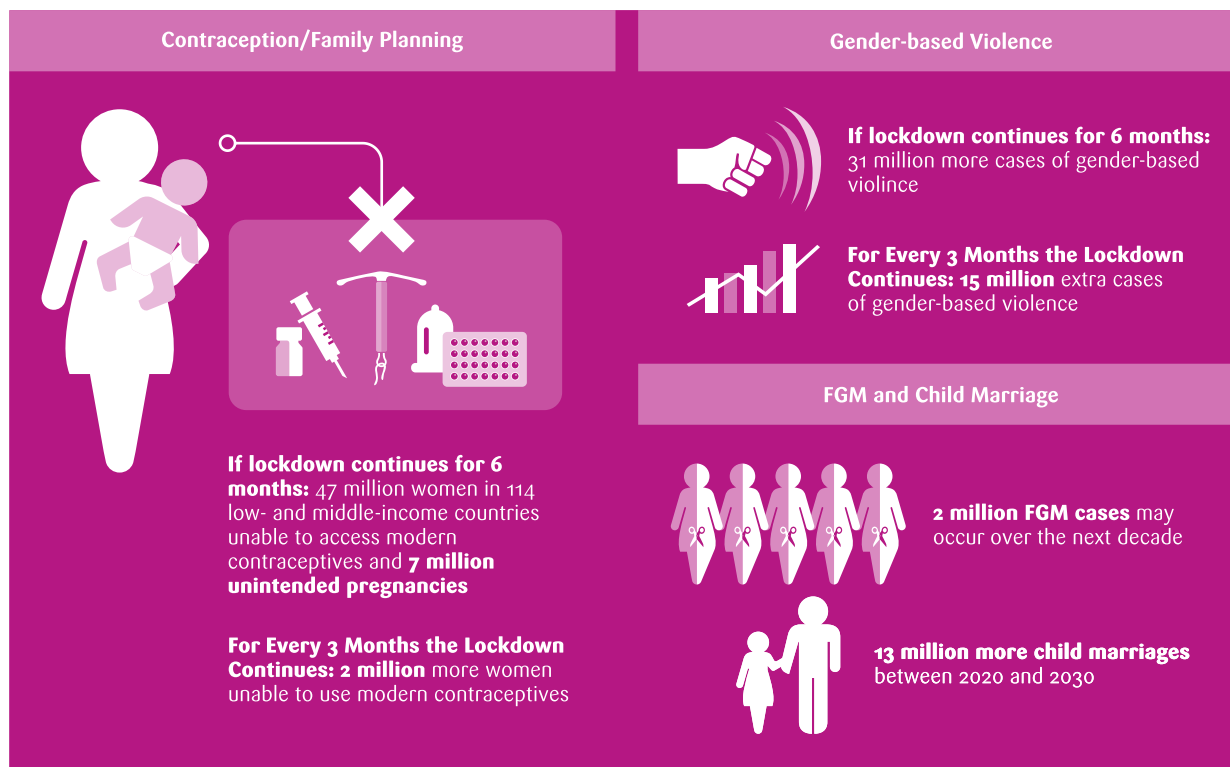
opportunity and mobility, these might lead to an increased expectation to contribute to unpaid care work. In households with financial burdens, it might also mean an increased risk to harmful practices of FGM/C and child, early and forced marriage.

Women, girls and vulnerable groups are also at a higher risk of being exposed to gender-based violence. Restrictions in mobility, limited avenues for information access, and gendered decision-making in the household places them in a volatile position. Social and legal support mechanisms are disrupted offering almost no safety nets. Intimate partner violence specially has the potential to dramatically increase.¹¹⁴ Hotlines worldwide have seen an increase in the number of calls received. For instance, in Malaysia, hotlines reported a 57% increase in calls while orders aimed at controlling movement are in effect.¹¹⁵

Those seeking emergency maternal and reproductive health services with infection management protocol have almost limited to no options at the moment due to diversion and deployment of all service providers and infrastructure to Covid management.¹¹⁶ Experience of Ebola and Zika show similar trends.¹¹⁷ The pandemic has also resulted in disruptions in the contraceptive supply chain, globally, which will have large implications on access and availability to vital SRH services.

Covid has forced nearly 743 million girls out of schools in 185 countries. While in many regions learning has shifted to internet-based platforms, the digital gender gap is affecting girl's access disproportionately, compounding inequalities of multidimensional poverty. With restrictions in learning opportunity and mobility, these might lead to an increased expectation to contribute to unpaid care work. In households with financial burdens, it might also mean an increased risk to harmful practices of FGM/C and child, early and forced marriage.

IMAGE 2: Impact of COVID-19 on SRH Services



Source: United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), "New UNFPA Projections Predict Calamitous Impact on Women's Health as COVID-19 Pandemic Continues."¹¹⁸

As we talk about SDG 5 and leaving no one behind, it is important to recognise that the pandemic places LGBTQ+, persons with disabilities, migrant women, indigenous women, women living with HIV, and refugee women and girls, and other marginalised groups at an even greater risk than before.

Despite the gendered impact of the pandemic, very few experts and political leaders making decisions about Covid response are women.¹¹⁹ Experience shows that where women have higher levels of empowerment and access in emergency scenarios, economic recovery is fast paced.¹²⁰ However, representation continues to be a challenge.

This regional brief talks about progress on key indicators and targets under Goal 5 and projects growth prior to the Covid outbreak. It is becoming increasingly real that Covid-19 will impact the progress to date and our targets for 2030. While the numbers are at risk of changing in the wake of Covid-19, the recommendations to pathways for achieving our goals are even more relevant as we think about building a better future after Covid-19. Covid-19 has brought forth the urgent need to meet basic needs of gender equality, poverty, social security, and universal health coverage. The Sustainable Development Goals offer a blueprint for the process to achieve these needs and the SDG5 on gender equality assumes utmost priority going forward.

Recommendations

We ask governments in our region to....

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Affirming
Rights,
Accelerating
Progress and
Amplifying
Action:
Monitoring
SDG5 in
Asia-Pacific

- Accelerate the progress towards SDG5 and fully implement the SDG5 targets and indicators at the country level, allocating adequate budgets, and ensuring regular monitoring mechanisms in place of gender equality, laws, regulations policies, and its implementation.
 - Focus on integrated progress around the dimensions of economic, environment and social pillars of the Agenda 2030, with gender equality and human rights at the core;
 - Support and invest an assessment on the impact of Covid-19 on gender equality laws, policy and programme implementation, and develop plans to bounce back on SDG5 progress.
 - Ensure that laws around eliminating discrimination against women and girls are in place and are implemented. All discriminatory laws and parallel legal systems must be repealed.
 - Eliminate all harmful practices against women and girls. Other harmful practices such as honour killing, son preference, taboos around menstruation and fertility that affect women and girls need to be eliminated.
 - Generate and monitor quality, representative and comparable data. There are some targets and indicators with limited data that deserve immediate and specific attention including unpaid care work, FGM/C, and violence prevalence.
 - Expand the current framework of data collection and analysis to generate disaggregated data that considers age ratios from child to adolescents to youth as well as variations that are defined by race, ethnicity, sexual identity, disability and other markers. Disaggregated data can be used for devising appropriate policies and programmes that address diverse needs. Strengthening the policy and programme data nexus towards evidence-based monitoring of SDG progress, and gaps should be taken into account.
- Accelerate the progress towards SDG5 and fully implement the SDG5 targets and indicators at the country level, allocating adequate budgets, and ensuring regular monitoring mechanisms in place of gender equality, laws, regulations policies, and its implementation.*
- Young people, both married and unmarried, are a key demographic group. Their experience and need must be recognised in all reproductive and sexual health related action plans and policy.
 - Allocate adequate budget to gender equality laws, policies and programme design and implementation within the SDG implementation at national level. For gender responsive sustainable development, additional resources on gender equality and sustainable financing should be mobilised.
 - Put in place redress mechanisms for grievances at all levels to hold stakeholders accountable on gender equality related violations.
 - Revitalise partnership for gender equality in the region and facilitate country to country and regional cooperation to achieve gender equality.
 - Recognise and address all barriers that prevent gender parity in leadership and workplace to ensure women's meaningful participation and representation.
 - Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights including access to abortion, sexuality education for all women and diverse gender groups.
 - Governments should ensure universal access to social security, universal health coverage (UHC) of sufficient quality, without financial hardship. These services should be available to all, and these include universal access to contraception, delivery and safe abortion services.
 - Seek meaningful and regular engagement from women's movements and regional and national civil society in meeting and monitoring the goals around gender equality.

Endnotes

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A key barrier to the enforcement of commitments

towards ending the harmful practice of child, early and forced marriage is the existing disharmony in legal frameworks and plural legal systems.

All countries have laws in place articulating the minimum age at marriage, in every single country of the region, however, there

is a range of intersecting civil and religious laws that provide exemptions in regards to legal age at marriage.

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ANNEX 1: The Extent to Which Countries Have Legal Frameworks Mandating Gender Equality in the Workplace				
	2010	2016	2020	2030 Forecast based on Current Rate of Progress
EAST ASIA				
China	66.70	66.70	66.70	66.70
Mongolia	80.00	80.00	80.00	83.40
SOUTH ASIA				
Bangladesh	26.70	26.70	26.70	26.70
India	40.00	40.00	66.70	82.60
Maldives	—	—	—	—
Nepal	13.30	13.30	60.00	71.70
Pakistan	6.70	6.70	26.70	31.70
Sri Lanka	26.70	26.70	46.70	40.30
SOUTH EAST ASIA				
Cambodia	60.00	60.00	60.00	60.00
Indonesia	60.00	60.00	60.00	60.00
Lao PDR	60.00	60.00	80.00	100.00
Malaysia	13.30	13.30	13.30	13.30
Myanmar	13.30	33.30	33.30	62.90
Philippines	66.70	80.00	100.00	100.00
Thailand	53.30	53.30	73.30	66.90
Vietnam	66.70	86.70	86.70	100.00
PACIFIC				
Fiji	—	—	—	—
Papua New Guinea	—	—	—	—
Samoa	—	—	—	—

Source: Women in Business and Law and EM2030 Calculations' EM2030 Bending the Curve Analysis, Data Source: Women in Business and Law.

ANNEX 2: The Proportion of Ever-partnered Women and Girls Aged 15 Years and Older Subjected to Physical or Sexual, Violence by a Current or Former Intimate Partner in the Previous 12 Months

	By Age (15-49)			
	2000	2010	2016	2018/Latest Year
EAST ASIA				
China	—	—	—	—
Mongolia	—	—	—	14.7% (2017)
SOUTH ASIA				
Bangladesh	—	22.4% (2007)	28.8% (2015)	—
India	—	23% (2006)	22%	—
Maldives	—	6.4% (2006)	5% (2016-DHS)	—
Nepal	—	14.3% (2011)	11.2%	—
Pakistan	—	—	18% (2013-DHS)	15% (2018-DHS)
Sri Lanka	—	—	17% (2016-DHS)	—
SOUTH EAST ASIA				
Cambodia	15%	10.3% (2005-DHS)	10.9% (2014)	—
Indonesia	—	—	—	—
Lao PDR	—	—	6.4% (2014)	—
Malaysia	—	—	—	—
Myanmar	—	—	11% (2016)	—
Philippines	—	10.3% (2008-DHS)	7.1% (2013)	5.5% (2017)
Thailand	—	—	—	—
Vietnam	—	10.8% (2010)	—	—
PACIFIC				
Fiji	—	—	29.7% (2011)	—
Papua New Guinea	—	—	—	48% (2017-2018-DHS)
Samoa	22%	—	—	—

Source: UN Elimination of Violence Against Women database,² Demographic Health Survey.

ANNEX 3: Percentage of Girls Aged 15 Years and Older Who Have Experienced Sexual Violence by Persons Other Than Their Intimate Partner, in the Previous 12 Months.

	By Age (15-49)			
	2000	2010	2016	2018/Latest Year
EAST ASIA				
China	—	—	—	—
Mongolia	—	—	—	2.6% (2017)
SOUTH ASIA				
Bangladesh	—	7.6% (2003)	4.4% (2011) 2.5% (2015) EVAW	—
India	—	0.30% (2006)	—	—
Maldives	—	6.24% (2006)	—	—
Nepal	—	—	0.40% (2011)	—
Pakistan	—	—	—	—
Sri Lanka	—	—	—	—
SOUTH EAST ASIA				
Cambodia	—	—	—	—
Indonesia	—	—	—	—
Lao PDR	—	—	—	—
Malaysia	—	—	—	—
Myanmar	—	—	—	—
Philippines	—	—	71.6% (2013)	—
Thailand	—	—	—	—
Vietnam	—	2.3%	—	—
PACIFIC				
Fiji	—	—	8.5% (2011)	—
Papua New Guinea	—	—	—	—
Samoa	11% (2000)	—	—	—

Source: UN Elimination of Violence Against Women database,³ Various Demographic Health Survey of Country Reviewed.

ANNEX 4: Percentage of Women Aged 15+ Who Report That They Feel Safe Walking Alone at Night in the City or Area of Residence.					
	By Age (15-49)				
	2000	2010	2016	2018/Latest Year	2030 Forecast Based on the Current Pace of Change
EAST ASIA					
China	—	74%	—	83%	87.4%
Mongolia	—	40%	52%	40.1%	54.5%
SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	—	77%	79%	69%	66.5%
India	—	52%	66%	69.152% (2017)	60.2%
Maldives	—	—	—	—	—
Nepal	—	48%	47%	49%	54.2%
Pakistan	—	38%	50%	64%	61.7%
Sri Lanka	—	66%	68% (2015)	55%	42.6%
SOUTH EAST ASIA					
Cambodia	—	61%	45%	51.1%	29.3%
Indonesia	—	73%	66%	72%	52.8%
Lao PDR	—	74% (2008)	—	63% (2017)	57%
Malaysia	—	33%	35% (2015)	46.1%	28.6%
Myanmar	—	—	74%	67%	36.9%
Philippines	—	60%	60%	59%	45.2%
Thailand	—	53%	60%	66.1%	66.4%
Vietnam	—	56%	54% (2014)	53%	38.8%
PACIFIC					
Fiji	—	—	—	—	—
Papua New Guinea	—	—	—	—	—
Samoa	—	—	—	—	—

Sources: Gallup and EM2030 Calculations.⁴ EM2030, Bending the Curve Research. Data from Gallup.

ANNEX 5: The Proportion of Women Aged 20–24 Years Who Were Married or in a Union Before Age 15 and Before Age 18						
	Before Age 15			Before Age 18		
	2010	2016	2018	2010	2016	2018
EAST ASIA						
China	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mongolia	0.0% (2010) 0.1% (2013)	—	1%	5% (2010) 5.2% (2013)	—	12%
SOUTH ASIA						
Bangladesh	—	22.4% (2014)	—	—	65% (2011) 58.6% (2014)	—
India	18% (2005)	6.6%	—	47% (2005)	27.3%	—
Maldives	0.3% (2009)	—	—	3.9% (200)	—	2% (2017)
Nepal	—	10% (2011) 7% (2016)	—	—	41% (2011) 39.5% (2016)	—
Pakistan	2.8% (2013)	—	4%	21% (2013)	—	18%
Sri Lanka	1.7% (2007)	0.9%	—	11.8% (2007)	9.8%	—
SOUTH EAST ASIA						
Cambodia	2%	1.9% (2014)	—	18%	18.5% (2014)	—
Indonesia	1.1% (2013)	—	0.6%	13.6% (2013)	—	11.2%
Lao PDR	—	9% (2012)	7.1% (2017)	35.4% (2012)	—	32.7% (2017)
Malaysia	—	—	—	—	—	—
Myanmar	—	1.9% (2015)	—	—	16% (2015)	—
Philippines	2.0% (2013)	—	2.2% (2017)	15% (2013)	—	16.5% (2017)
Thailand	—	4% (2012) 4.4% (2015)	—	—	22% (2012) 22.5% (2015)	—
Vietnam	—	1% (2011) 0.9% (2014)	—	—	9% (2011) 10.6% (2014)	—
PACIFIC						
Fiji	—	—	—	—	—	—
Papua New Guinea	2.1% (2006)	—	8%	21.3% (2006)	—	27%
Samoa	—	0.7% (2014)	—	—	10.8% (2014)	—

Source: UNICEF data base,⁵ SDG global database.⁶

ANNEX 6: Girls Aged 20-24 Completion of Secondary Education

	2000	2010	2016	2019/Latest Year	2030 Forecast Based on the Current Pace of Change
EAST ASIA					
China	—	43%	61.6% (2014)	—	100%
Mongolia	57.4%	72.5%	72.4% (2014)	—	92.9%
SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	16%	16%	6.3%	—	3%
India	—	20.7 (2006)	39.6%	—	68%
Maldives	—	—	—	—	—
Nepal	17.5%	29.9%	—	—	54%
Pakistan	—	14.5% (2007)	18% (2012)	23.1% (2018)	32.4%
Sri Lanka	57.6%	28.1%	—	—	-3%
SOUTH EAST ASIA					
Cambodia	2.6%	15.5%	20.9% (2014)	—	41.2%
Indonesia	37.5%	43.2% (2008)	49.4% (2012)	62.7% (2017)	78.1%
Lao PDR	8.8%	18.2% (2006)	24.2% (2012)	30.2% (2017)	46.5%
Malaysia	46%	45.1%	—	—	49%
Myanmar	17.1%	30.7%	—	—	50.8%
Philippines	66.1%	71.7% (2008)	76.1% (2013)	83.4%	93.4%
Thailand	39.1%	58.5% (2005)	63.4%	—	81.7%
Vietnam	15.3%	36.3% (2009)	60.4%	—	100%
PACIFIC					
Fiji	—	—	—	—	—
Papua New Guinea	—	—	—	—	—
Samoa	—	—	—	—	—

Sources: UNESCO, UNICEF, DHS, and Barro and Lee, and EM2030 Calculations.⁷ Bending the Curve Analysis. Data Sources: UNESCO, UNICEF, DHS and Barro and Lee.

ANNEX 7: Proportion of Women in Ministerial or Senior Governmental Positions

	2000	2010	2016	2019/Latest Year	2030 Forecast Based on the Current Pace of Change
EAST ASIA					
China	—	11.5%	10%	6.5%	14.1%
Mongolia	—	7.1%	13.3%	13.3%	22.2%
SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	—	16%	6.3%	8%	3%
India	—	10%	19%	23.1%	33.7%
Maldives	—	—	—	—	—
Nepal	—	7.7%	3.7%	14.3%	17.8%
Pakistan	—	7.5%	—	12%	—
Sri Lanka	—	5.9%	4.3%	6.7%	3.9%
SOUTH EAST ASIA					
Cambodia	—	9.7%	9.1%	9.4%	10%
Indonesia	—	14.3%	25.7%	23.5%	34.5%
Lao PDR	—	10.3%	7.4%	11.5%	20.1%
Malaysia	—	6.7%	8.3%	18.5%	14.5%
Myanmar	—	—	5%	3.7%	6.4%
Philippines	—	13.6%	25%	10.3%	20.5%
Thailand	—	12.5%	11.1%	—	4.4%
Vietnam	—	4.2%	4.2%	4%	3%
PACIFIC					
Fiji	—	—	—	—	—
Papua New Guinea	—	—	—	—	—
Samoa	—	—	—	—	—

Source: Interparliamentary Union and World Bank, "Gender Statistics."⁸ EM2030 Bending the Curve Analysis.

**ANNEX 8: Proportion of Women Married or in a Union of Reproductive Age (Aged 15-49 years)
Who Have Had Their Need for Family Planning Satisfied with Modern Methods**

	2000	2010	2016	2018/Latest Year	2030 Forecast Based on the Current Pace of Change
EAST ASIA					
China	96%	95.3%	94.9%	94.8%	93.8%
Mongolia	73%	70.9%	71.7%	72.4%	67%
SOUTH ASIA					
Bangladesh	61.5%	69.9%	74.9%	75.6%	86.8%
India	66.5%	70.5%	72.6%	73.4%	78.1%
Maldives	—	—	—	—	—
Nepal	48.4%	58.9%	59.1%	61.8%	67.9%
Pakistan	37.2%	42.7%	50.5%	52.7%	60.6%
Sri Lanka	66.9%	71.5%	73.2%	73.8%	78.7%
SOUTH EAST ASIA					
Cambodia	33.4%	52.3%	59.7%	61.9%	82.6%
Indonesia	76.4%	80.2%	79.8%	80.1%	84.5%
Lao PDR	45.7%	60.4%	66.7%	68.4%	85%
Malaysia	49.5%	51.3%	53.6%	55.2%	57.4%
Myanmar	56.5%	68.4%	74.7%	75.9%	90.1%
Philippines	44.5%	49.4%	54.9%	56.4%	62.2%
Thailand	90.3%	91.1%	90%	90%	89.8%
Vietnam	70.3%	77.3%	76.2%	77%	81.2%
PACIFIC					
Fiji	—	—	—	—	—
Papua New Guinea	—	—	—	—	—

Sources: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), Population Division, *Estimates and Projections of Family Planning Indicators 2020*;⁹ EM2030, "2020 Index Projections: Data Explorer By Country."¹⁰

ANNEX 9: Comparing Levels of Gender Equality and Pace of Progress on Five Themes for Countries in the Asia-Pacific Region

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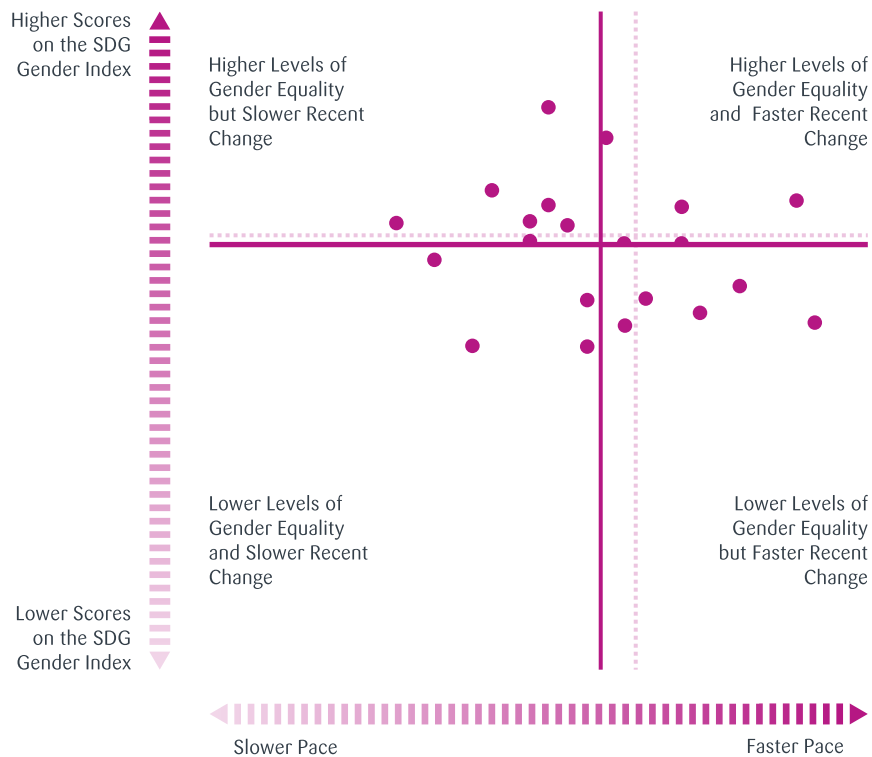
Affirming Rights, Accelerating Progress and Amplifying Action: Monitoring SDG5 in Asia-Pacific



EM2030 data hub has an interactive platform that provides the opportunity for the countries in the region to assess their level of gender equality and pace of change.

Each dot below represents a single country. Its position on the chart indicates both its current score on the SDG Gender Equality Index and the rate at which indicators for five gender equality targets are changing. The summary measure has been calculated by Equal Measures 2030 and is based on rates of change in the last 10-20 years for indicators on access to contraception, secondary education, women in senior government positions, gender equal workplace laws, and perceptions of public safety.

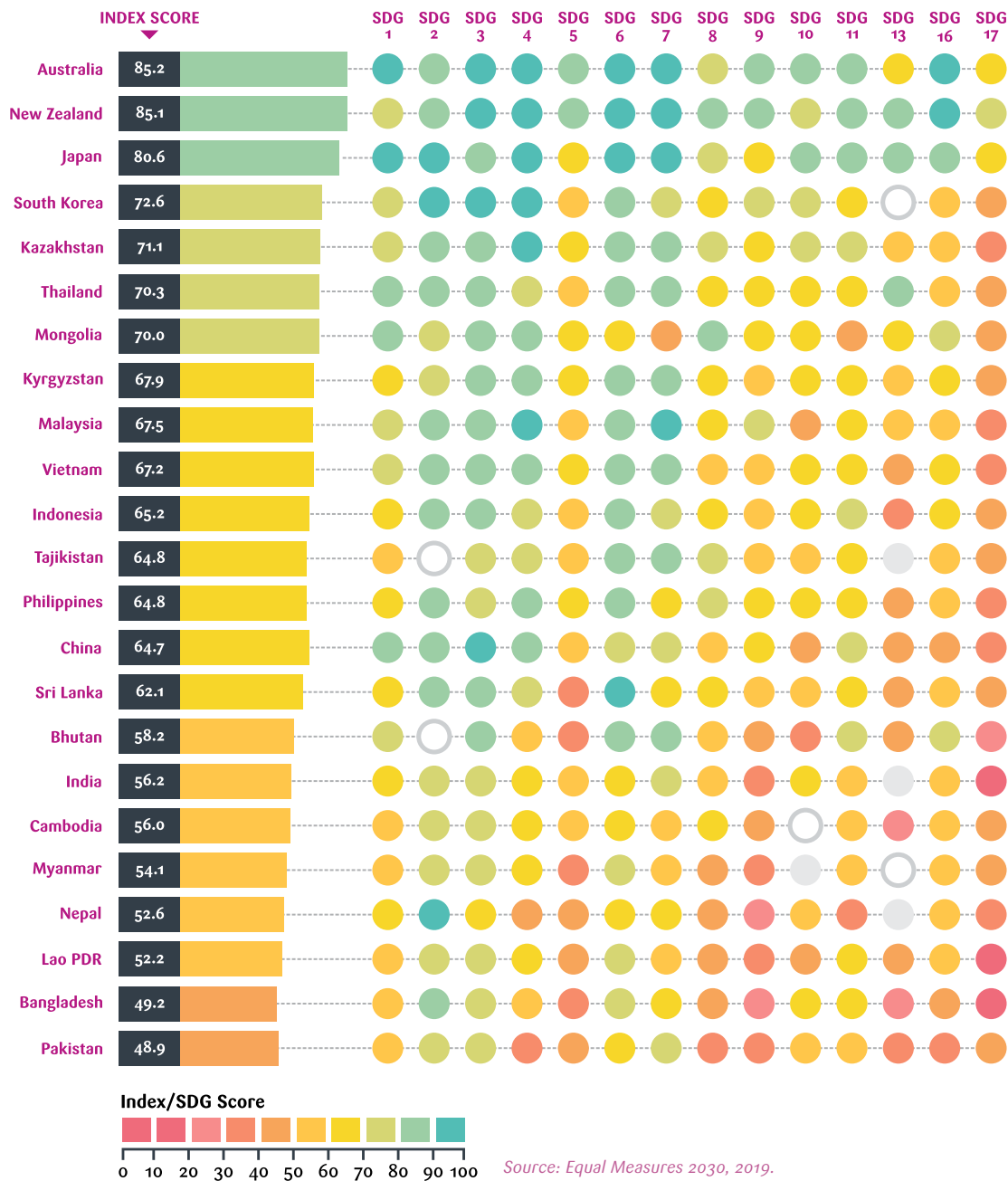
Levels of Overall Gender Equality Compared With the Pace of Change Since the Early 2000s



Source: EM2030, "2020 Index Projections: Data Explorer By Country."

ANNEX 10: Equal Measures SDG Gender Index 2019 Score, Asia-Pacific Region

2019 SDG Gender Index
Scores and Rankings by Country – Asian and the Pacific

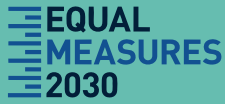


Annex Endnotes

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Asia-Pacific

- 1 Refer to “2020 Index Projections: Data Explorer by Country,” EM2030, accessed July 3, 2020, <https://data.em2030.org/2020-index-projections/data-explorer-by-country/>.
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- 3 Refer to Asia-Pacific estimates for non-partner sexual violence, accessed June 25, 2020, <https://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/en/countries>.
- 4 Refer to “2020 Index Projections: Data Explorer by Country,” EM2030, accessed July 3, 2020, <https://data.em2030.org/2020-index-projections/data-explorer-by-country/>.
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Equal Measures 2030 (EM2030) is a unique cross-sector partnership of leading organisations from civil society and the development and private sectors. The partnership, of which ARROW is a member, works to ensure that girls' and women's movements, advocates and decision makers have the data they need, in a format they can use, to guide and drive faster progress towards the gender equality commitments in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). To achieve this, we connect data and evidence with advocacy and action – using existing gender equality related data, supporting calls to fill data gaps, and training and equipping advocates to use data and evidence in their efforts to reach the transformational agenda of the SDGs by 2030. Recent data and analysis released by the partnership includes the SDG Gender Index and Bending the Curve Toward Gender Equality.

Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW) is a regional, feminist, global-south non-profit organisation based in Malaysia with a consultative status with the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations. ARROW works towards an equal, just and equitable world that enables all women and young people to be equal citizens in all aspects of their lives, and that protects and advances their sexual and reproductive health and rights.



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