

**ADVANCING ADMINISTRATIVE
SOURCES OF DATA FOR
MONITORING GENDER-SPECIFIC
SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT
GOALS IN AFRICA**



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UN WOMEN EAST AND SOUTHERN AFRICA
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FOREWORD

The call for a data revolution expressed in the report of the UN Secretary-General's High-Level Panel of Eminent Persons in the lead-up to the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development has generated specific attention on the role of data in driving and monitoring sustainable development. Indeed, the availability of and access to high-quality, timely, disaggregated, gender-responsive and reliable data, supplemented with contextual information for its interpretation and use, are fundamental to successful monitoring and reporting of the 2030 Agenda and the Leave No One Behind commitment.

The 2030 Agenda includes 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) with 169 targets and 232 indicators – thus placing unparalleled data demands on data producers around the world. Six of the 17 SDGs have no indicator to monitor progress for women and girls. As of December 2017, only 24 per cent of the 54 gender-specific indicators had data that covered 2010 to 2017, and only approximately 17 per cent of these are available for two or more points in time. Without better data coverage or data-gathering initiatives at the country level and collective efforts to develop international standards and measures to capture Tier 2 and Tier 3 gender-specific indicators, many of the targets under SDG 5 and the gender-specific targets of other SDGs cannot be monitored. Dedicated attention to improving gender statistics, with a focus on methodological work and data production efforts, is therefore essential.

National statistical offices – the public sector institutions devoted to the production, harmonization and dissemination of official statistics – face challenges in many countries in producing statistics to fill data gaps in national, regional and global SDG indicator frameworks; and in integrating and making the vast amounts of existing SDG-related data and information accessible to decision-makers in a meaningful way. In the last few years, this has led to a growing discussion about the role of official statistics and complementary sources and producers of data to drastically improve data availability and use at national, regional and global levels.

Several important initiatives are being undertaken by different stakeholders to fill the statistics gaps. The Division for Sustainable Development Goals of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs is implementing the SD2015: Delivering on the Promise of the SDGs initiative which seeks to strengthen stakeholder capacities to monitor and contribute to the 2030 Agenda. Also, national statistical offices and systems, in partnership with international and regional organizations, civil society, academia and the private sector, are working to integrate new data sources into the production and dissemination of official statistics for sustainable development. In 2016, UN Women launched a flagship programme, Making Every Woman and Girl Count: Supporting the Monitoring and Implementation of the SDGs through Better Production and Use of Gender Statistics. The aim of the programme is to ensure that gender statistics are available, accessible and analysed to inform policymaking, advocacy and accountability for delivering on gender equality and women's empowerment. The programme is being implemented in a dozen countries globally, three – Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda – in the East and Southern Africa Region.

UN Women in the East and Southern Africa Region Office (ESARO) is complementing these efforts by generating evidence and creating awareness on the possible use of administrative data and civil registration and vital statistics (CRVS) to fill the data gaps for gender-responsive SDG monitoring and reporting. This report presents findings from a recent study on Administrative Data Sources for Monitoring Gender-Related Sustainable Development Goals in Six Countries: Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Ethiopia, Malawi and Rwanda. The study comprehensively examined the potential of administrative data for monitoring gender-specific SDG indicators and presents best practices in the use of gender statistics generated from administrative data for policy interventions. The study's recommendations aim at strengthening systems and structures for generating and making accessible administrative data for gender-responsive monitoring and reporting of the SDGs.

Though innovative and with high potential, the use of administrative and CRVS data faces complex challenges in their integration to support monitoring and decision-making. In particular, it is often difficult to find and link these administrative data sources with those produced by national statistical offices due to discrepancies in the metadata structures and the terminology used to describe and organize their content; additionally, administrative and CRVS data tend not to adhere to common technical and statistical standards.

UN Women believes that addressing these challenges connected to the use of administrative and CRVS data in complementing more traditional official statistics holds great potential for closing the gender data gap. The current study was undertaken to this end, and the study's main conclusion holds that administrative data systems in Africa have great potential for bridging observed gender-specific SDG indicator data gaps. ESARO is consequently committed to using the evidence generated in this study to advocate for the use of administrative and

CRVS data to monitor progress on SDG 5 and gender-specific targets in other SDGs. Further, working with selected national statistics offices, stakeholders and other partners, ESARO will provide guidelines that will improve the quality of administrative and CRVS data, as well as otherwise support countries in overcoming these challenges.

UN Women therefore invites all stakeholders to leverage the opportunity presented by this report to increase advocacy and interventions on administrative and CRVS data to complement official statistics and fill in gender data gaps while strengthening reporting on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.



Izeduwa Derex-Briggs
Regional Director
UN Women East and Southern Africa

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ACRONYMS

AfDB	African Development Bank	NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
AIDS	acquired immunodeficiency syndrome	NDP	national development plan
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa	NIRA	National Identification and Registration Authority
CRS	Department of Civil Registration Services	NSO	national statistical office
CRVS	civil registration and vital statistics	NSS	national statistical system
CSA	Central Statistical Agency	SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
DQAF	Data Quality Assessment Framework	RITA	Registration Insolvency and Trusteeship Agency
GBV	gender-based violence	UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
GTP	growth and transformation plan	UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus	UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
ICD	International Classification of Diseases	UNSD	United Nations Statistics Division
ISO	International Organization for Standardization	WHO	World Health Organization
KVSR	Kenya Vital Statistics Report		
MDAs	ministries, departments and agencies		
MEWGC	Making Every Woman and Girl Count		
MOH	Ministry of Health		

GLOSSARY

Administrative data are any data that public and private sector organizations and institutions routinely collect as part of their business or operational activities. In this report, administrative data refers to any data a government agency other than a national statistical office generates through routine operations.

Certification is the issuance by the civil registrar of a legal document certifying that an event – e.g. a birth or a death – has occurred¹.

Current statistical capacity is the combination of currently available indicators and indicators that can be generated easily given the existing level of resources and external assistance programmes².

Data quality is the perceived ability of a set of data to serve its purpose in a given context. Data are considered to be of high quality if they are fit for their intended use, be it in operations, planning or decision-making.

Data quality assessment is the process of scientifically and statistically evaluating data to determine whether they are of sufficient quality for planning or decision-making and are of the right type and coverage to support their intended use.

Data quality assurance is the process of profiling data to discover inconsistencies and other anomalies in the data and cleaning the data (e.g. removing outliers, imputing missing data) to improve their quality.

Delayed registration is registration of a vital event after the period prescribed in existing laws, rules or regulations (including any specified grace period).

Gender equality is when there is equal ease of access to resources and opportunities regardless of gender, including economic participation and decision-making; and valuing different behaviours, aspirations and needs equally, regardless of gender.

Gender-specific indicators are indicators that explicitly call for disaggregation by sex or refer to gender equality as the underlying objective³.

Input quality indicators measure the quality of administrative data used as inputs in the statistical production process.

Late registration is registration of a vital event after the prescribed period but within a specified grace period.

Metadata is a set of data that describes the information contained in another data set.

Medical certification of cause of death is completion of a death certificate by a medically trained person listing cause of death in accordance with International Classification of Diseases certification standards.

Notification is issuance by an appropriate authority (e.g. health worker) of a form confirming that a vital event such as a birth or a death has occurred. Often the family uses the notification form to report an event to the civil registration office. In the case of death, a notification form may be required to obtain a burial permit. Notification forms do not have the legal status of birth or death certificates.

Output quality indicators measure how well the quality of statistical outputs meets user needs or whether the outputs are fit for the purpose.

Pathfinder countries are countries UN Women has identified for technical support in development and full implementation of the Making Every Woman and Girl Count programme on the basis of their commitment to women's rights and gender equality, among others, to ensure improvement in the production of gender statistics in all Sustainable Development Goal areas as well as for other national priorities.

Potential statistical capacity is the number of indicators that can be generated with a strong effort over the short to medium term⁴.

Process quality indicators measure the quality of the process of using administrative data to produce statistics, including the soundness of the statistical methods and systems and the cost effectiveness of the statistical production process.

Registration is the act of formally registering an event at a civil registration office. The registrar enters details of the event into the official civil register.

Sustainable Development Goals are 17 global goals that the United Nations General Assembly set in 2015. The purpose of the goals is to achieve a more prosperous, equitable and sustainable world by 2030.

Women's empowerment is the process by which women gain power and control over their own lives and acquire the ability to make strategic choices. A woman is said to be empowered if she has a sense of self-worth, the right to make choices, access to opportunities and resources, power to control her own life within and outside the home, and the ability to influence the direction of social change to create a more just social and economic order nationally and internationally.

ABSTRACT

Background: Well-coordinated, effective data systems are required to monitor progress in delivering commitments related to gender equality and women's empowerment. In 2016, UN Women launched its flagship initiative to stimulate sustained production and dissemination of quality gender statistics for monitoring the gender-specific Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) indicators. As part of this initiative, UN Women is vigorously pursuing practical, convenient, cost-effective ways to track these indicators.

Objective: The study objective was to examine the potential of administrative data to produce gender statistics for monitoring gender-specific SDG indicators and to present best practices in the use of gender statistics generated from administrative data for policy interventions.

Methods: The study is based on three pathfinder countries (Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda) and three non-pathfinder countries (Ethiopia, Malawi, Rwanda) in the UN Women East and Southern Africa region. Data for the study were collected through desk reviews, key informant interviews and case studies conducted between August and October 2018. The analysis is mainly descriptive.

Results: Sixty-three per cent of the 54 gender-specific SDG indicators can be derived from administrative sources, which are relatively more cost-effective than other data sources. Of the 45 gender-specific SDG indicators with data gaps, 62 per cent are from administrative sources. There were notable and varied quality concerns and capacity challenges that need to be addressed to ensure comprehensive, widespread use of gender data produced from administrative sources.

Conclusion: Administrative data systems in Africa have great potential for bridging observed gender-specific SDG data gaps, but various stakeholders – including Pan-African institutions; governments; national statistical offices; ministries, departments and agencies; academic and research institutions; and the private sector, including civil society organizations – need to support countries in overcoming challenges in producing relevant gender indicators in the SDG monitoring framework from administrative data.



1

INTRODUCTION

The Flagship Programme Initiative, Making Every Woman and Girl Count (MEWGC), which UN Women launched in September 2016¹, has stimulated the search for practical, convenient, cost-effective ways to monitor strategic goals aimed at achieving gender equality and women's empowerment. The initiative is directly linked to the targets set for Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 5, achieve gender equality and empower women and girls, and other gender-specific SDGs. To assess the direct effect of the SDG commitments on gender equality and women's empowerment, 54 gender-specific indicators (listed in Table E.1) need to be regularly tracked globally.

Better production and use of gender statistics for evidence-based localization of the SDGs is UN Women's strategy to address the pressing need for better and more gender statistics. In general, the various UN Women regional teams are expected to adapt and implement the global initiatives between 2016 and 2021 by providing direct technical support to countries in their regions – including in pathfinder and selected non-pathfinder countries² – (based on demand) and working closely with regional partners to help promote and support country-led plans to localize and monitor the SDGs.

The outcome objectives of the MEWGC project are to strengthen the policy and financial environment to enable gender-responsive national adaptation and effective monitoring of the SDGs; improve production of gender statistics to enable monitoring of national policies and reporting commitments under the SDGs; improve the use of gender statistics by different players to inform advocacy, research, policies and programmes; and generate knowledge on cost-effective ways to provide statistical capacity-building in gender statistics in different contexts. Ensuring the availability, accessibility and use of gender statistics to monitor progress in delivering gender equality and women's empowerment commitments in the SDGs and to inform policymaking, advocacy and accountability in any region requires well-coordinated, responsive, effective data systems.

Traditionally, there are three approaches to data gathering: censuses, sample surveys and administrative data collection (Box 1.1). These approaches have evolved with the data revolution, particularly in response to the complex needs and demands of the SDGs. Various factors inform the choice

BOX 1.1

Traditional data collection methods

Censuses systematically acquire and record information on all members of a population. A census is the complete count of the population in question. Examples are national population and housing censuses, school censuses, censuses of business establishments and censuses of agricultural holdings.

Sample surveys collect information from a sample of statistical units such as population subgroups, households, schools, business establishments and agricultural holdings.

Administrative data production usually occurs as part of the routine operational activities of government ministries, departments and agencies such as event or company registration, transactions and record keeping. Although administrative data are primarily collected with a specific decision-making objective in mind, they can be processed to respond to many national statistical needs.

of a specific method, including quality, coverage, timeliness, cost and purpose. This is especially true for administrative data, which agencies and institutions primarily collect for non-statistical reasons – i.e. to provide overviews on registration, transactions and record keeping³. For example, administrative records are maintained to regulate the flow of goods and people across borders, to respond to legal requirements of registering events such as births and deaths and to administer benefits such as pensions or obligations such as taxation⁴.

Given their importance in the data production process, this study focused solely on administrative data systems. The UN Women 2018 report, *Turning Promises into Action: Gender Equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, uncovered a number of bottlenecks in the production and use of gender statistics⁵, which invariably affect or are affected by data quality and timeliness. This study explored the potential of using administrative data to produce gender statistics for monitoring the SDGs.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

In September 2015, the United Nations member states adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which included 17 goals with 169 targets and 232 indicators; thus placing unparalleled data demands on data producers and presenting challenges and opportunities for data systems around the world. Six of the 17 SDGs have no indicators to monitor progress for women and girls⁶. As of December 2017, only 24 per cent of the 54 gender-specific indicators had data that covered 2010 to 2017, and only approximately 17 per cent of these are available for two or more points in time⁷.

As of July 2018, of the 14 indicators associated with SDG 5, only two were Tier 1 indicators⁸: 5.5.2 (women in managerial positions) and 5.b.1 (individuals who own a mobile phone, by sex). Of the remaining 12 indicators, 10 were Tier 2 (5.1.1 legal frameworks for equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex; 5.2.1 intimate partner violence; 5.2.2 non-partner sexual violence; 5.3.1 child marriage; 5.3.2 female genital mutilation; 5.4.1 unpaid care and domestic work; 5.6.1 women who make their own sexual and reproductive decisions; 5.a.1 women's equal rights to land; 5.a.2 legal frameworks that guarantee women's rights to land; 5.c.1 countries with systems to track budget allocations and expenditures for gender equality). It is difficult to monitor these indicators because there is insufficient coverage at the country level or, in some cases, a lack of comparability. Only one indicator is classified as Tier 3 (5.6.2 laws and regulations that guarantee women access to reproductive health care, information and education); another (5.5.1 women in national parliaments and local governments) is multi-tier (the national parliament component is Tier 1, and the local government component is Tier 2).

This situation clearly indicates that, without better data coverage or data-gathering initiatives at the country level and collective efforts to develop international standards and measures to capture Tier 2 and Tier 3 gender-specific indicators, many of the targets under SDG 5 cannot be monitored. The same can be said of a number of other gender-specific SDG indicators. Dedicated attention to improving gender statistics, with a particular focus on methodological work and data production efforts, is therefore essential.

The UN Women MEWGC project seeks to support the production, availability and accessibility of gender statistics through the following:

- Establishing an enabling environment for gender-responsive localization and effective monitoring of national and international policy commitments
- Increasing the quality, comparability and regularity of gender statistics to address national data gaps and meet reporting commitments under the SDGs and other international treaties and agreements and according to national priorities
- Ensuring that gender statistics are accessible to users in government, civil society, academia, and the private sector and are analysed and used to inform policymaking and advocacy and to monitor progress on the SDGs

Although data to track gender indicators are increasingly available⁹, there are still major gaps in Africa due to weak data systems, inadequate human resources, poor funding of data production activities and failure to coordinate efforts to agree on or adopt international and national standards¹⁰ – meaning that national capacity for producing gender statistics needs to be increased.

At the global and regional levels, technical work to develop internationally agreed-upon standards and methodologies to provide support to countries to improve production of gender statistics began in earnest in the early 2000s. Efforts include developing indices for measuring gender equality, such as the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA) African Gender Development Index, the African Development Bank (AfDB) African Gender Equality Index, the African Union Commission Gender Score Card, and the UNECA and AfDB Gender Status Index. In addition, the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) and UN Women implemented the Gender Asset Gap and the Evidence and Data for Gender Equality initiatives in Africa to support measurement of entrepreneurship and asset ownership from a gender perspective and to contribute to the International Classification of Activities for Time Use Statistics.

Other initiatives include UNECA's development of a handbook on using gender in statistical processes and an African glossary of terms and concepts relating to gender statistics in partnership with the United Nations Population Fund; AfDB's preparation of gender modules for integration into household surveys in partnership with UN Women; and UNECA's development of an online tool kit on gender statistics. UN Women is also leading the methodological work of three Tier 2 indicators: 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), 5.5.1b (proportion of women in local government) and 5.c.1 (proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment). In addition to these, development of monitoring frameworks and review processes

to assess timely delivery of quality data will help produce policy and programmatic lessons that can support progress and advocacy and promote accountability.

Working within the programme strategy of the MEWGC, the UN Women East and Southern African Regional Office is supporting the generation of more and better-quality gender statistics by examining administrative data sources to determine the extent of use and untapped potential to fill gender data gaps. They will assess the type of data being collected from administrative sources; which statistics and indicators have been generated and which have been used for SDG monitoring, policymaking and decision-making; what else can be generated; data tools in use; and individuals involved in collecting such data and individuals contributing to strengthening the tools.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

- Identify gender-specific SDG indicators that have data gaps
- Identify key administrative data sources, including the civil registration and vital statistics (CRVS) system, used to monitor gender-specific SDGs
- Assess the status and potential of these administrative data to monitor priority gender data indicators
- Assess the quality of data from the CRVS system to produce relevant gender statistics using an existing internationally accepted statistical quality assurance framework and identify challenges and opportunities to improve them
- Document uses of administrative data sources for gender equality measurement through examples of good practices
- Propose a set of recommendations for ensuring use of administrative data sources

1.3 RATIONALE

Administrative data are useful in complementing the efforts of national statistical systems (NSSs) in meeting their statistical needs. Data are generally drawn from routine service-based records or from the internal administrative processes of a governmental organization and may be used to manage the organization's day-to-day operations and monitor its service delivery or regulatory performance¹¹. Examples are data on social security, crime, immigration and civil registration. Such data are primarily gathered for non-statistical purposes,

but can serve as a rich source of data for generating official statistics without placing an undue burden on data suppliers. Administrative records, registers and related documents contain a wide range of demographic, social, economic, cultural and environmental data that are primarily required to complete an administrative process, including provision of goods and services. In Africa, administrative data on gender statistics can be compiled from various sources. These are largely the administrative records of ministries, departments and agencies (MDAs)

and associated bodies, which central, provincial and local governments can produce. Administrative data can thus be described as data produced from sources that are primarily established for government administrative or regulatory procedures¹².

Six broad categories of administrative data used to generate administrative statistics have been identified¹³:

- Records maintained to regulate the flow of goods and people across borders (e.g. imports, exports, immigration, emigration)
- Records resulting from legal requirements to register particular events or establishments (e.g. birth, death, marriage, divorce, registration of businesses)
- Records to administer benefits or obligations (e.g. unemployment insurance, taxation, pensions, health insurance, household subsistence allowances)
- Records to administer public institutions (e.g. related to administration of schools or other educational institutions, health institutions)
- Records arising from government regulation of industry (e.g. transport, banking, insurance, telecommunications)
- Records arising from provision of utilities (e.g. electricity, fixed and mobile phones, water services, sewerage)

A number of weaknesses have been identified regarding administrative data sources. For example, data quality problems have been widely discussed. Given that the primary purpose of collecting data is to fulfil an administrative regulation, concepts, definitions and classifications used in administrative laws and regulations may not be suitable for statistical purposes, and changes in definitions to suit administrative needs may affect data comparability. In addition, national statistical offices (NSOs) have a responsibility to ensure that statistical data produced in their respective countries are of the highest quality, but NSOs in many African countries have no standards or frameworks to guide administrative data production. Rather, existing data standards and quality frameworks focus mainly on survey and census data production; even these are not widely circulated, but are used primarily by the NSO.

In addition, even though producers of administrative data strive to achieve complete coverage of the target population, records of administrative units are often incomplete or inaccurate and may not represent the population of interest. Data are frequently incomplete in countries in which registration laws are poorly enforced. In such circumstances, inherent biases undermine the utility of the data because the data represent only those who avail themselves of the services or regulatory provisions. Furthermore, the data may not cover private service providers, resulting in exclusion of a significant proportion of the population that uses the services.

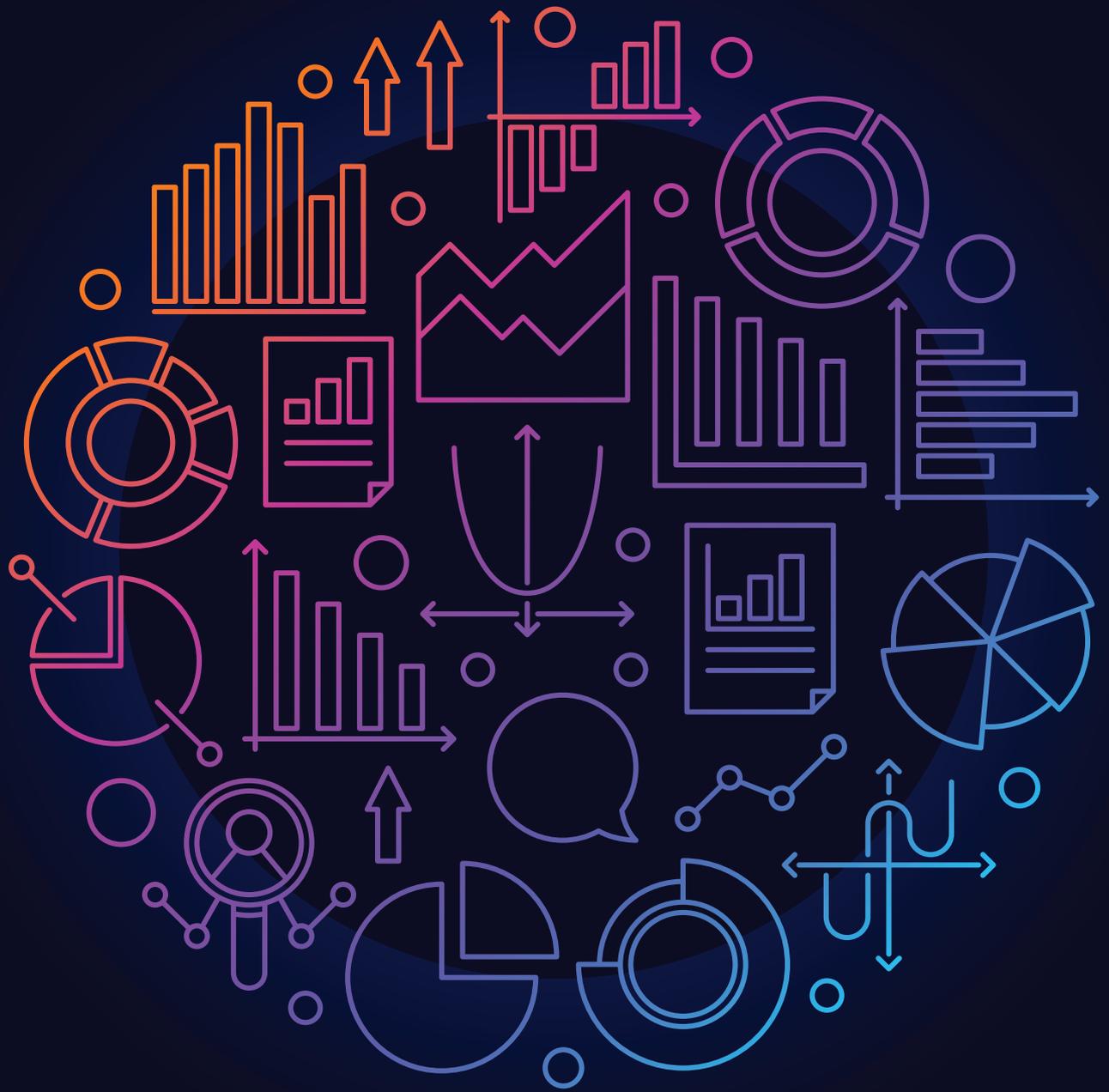
Administrative data can also be subject to deliberate misreporting because of financial incentives or disincentives, and staff responsible for data collection may not have the technical capacity necessary to minimize these tendencies, leading to poor-quality data and delays in processing required information. Data recording forms and registers are difficult to change when new categories of data emerge, given that the changes need to be implemented for the entire administrative data system.

Again, control of the methods by which administrative data are collected and processed rests with the administrative agency, which can create comparability challenges. Data from different sources (branches of the same agency) may not match because of limited quality control measures over the data. Accessibility to such data depends on legal or regulatory provisions governing access to and use of administrative records for secondary purposes – and may in some cases result in limited use of the information produced.

Despite the above-mentioned weaknesses, the advantages of using administrative data to generate statistics can be great. Administrative data sources are a massive untapped resource for generating data for monitoring SDGs. For example, administrative data collection is a continuous process, and the time-series data emerging from these data collection activities are current and suitable for trend analysis, a requirement for SDG indicator monitoring. Another important advantage of using administrative data is that they can help generate lower levels of disaggregation in terms of geographical location, theme and other relevant subgroupings. Also, the rapid, frequent compilation

of data (e.g. daily, weekly, monthly, quarterly or annually, depending on administrative needs or as stipulated by law) makes it possible for the statistics generated from these sources to be released in a timely fashion. This is in contrast to traditional censuses and surveys, for which delays in implementing planned data production activities, as well as irregular or delayed publication of the relevant statistics due to inadequate financial resources, can affect monitoring of developmental processes. In addition, the cost of administrative data collection is lower than that for conducting a census or survey to gather similar information because the data are a by-product of an administrative activity.

There is also a minimal burden on the respondent. Respondents generally report on some required personal data items in the process of receiving an administrative service and do not have to report the information again for statistical purposes. Where regulatory enforcement is high or administrative provisions are adhered to, coverage and completeness of administrative data are high, making them useful for statistical purposes. It is therefore important to explore ways of exploiting these sources of data to monitor the gender-specific SDG indicators.



2

METHODOLOGY

This section describes the methodology used in gathering data for this report. Three main research approaches were employed: desk review, key informant interviews and review of a set of case studies to identify good practices in the use of administrative data to generate gender statistics. Three pathfinder¹ countries (Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda) and three non-pathfinder countries (Ethiopia, Malawi, Rwanda) in Africa served as the study domains. The three pathfinder countries were those that were to begin implementation of the MEWGC project in 2018². Because these pathfinder

countries were all in East Africa, the three non-pathfinder countries were randomly selected from the list of countries in East Africa that the UN Women East and Southern African Regional Office supports but were not among the final selection list for the MEWGC project³. The idea was to ensure geographic comparability and to allow UN Women to provide support through their routine country-level programmes should there be recommendations for any of these countries that required urgent attention. The countries were selected from among Burundi, Ethiopia, Malawi, Rwanda and South Sudan.

2.1 DESK REVIEW

A desk review of relevant documents was undertaken in the six study countries to provide background and supporting information. Documents used in the review included SDG implementation reports, country gender profiles, SDG fact

sheets, national strategies for the development of statistics, administrative data policies, frameworks and data collection tools, gender data sheets, publications on women and men, CRVS assessment reports and reports on gender-specific indicators.

2.2 KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS

Key informant interviews were conducted with selected respondents in the study countries from 4 September 2018 to 31 October 2018 to complement the desk review. Key informants were selected from four groups of stakeholders: heads of NSOs, SDG coordinators, NSS coordinators and key

administrative data system managers (CRVS and gender information management systems, where they existed). Questionnaires were designed and sent to the relevant stakeholders by e-mail for completion. The questions are listed in Annexes B, C and D.

2.3 CASE STUDIES

To identify best practices in use of administrative data to generate priority gender statistics and fill specific gender data gaps, a case study was

conducted in each of the three pathfinder countries and the three non-pathfinder countries.

2.4 ASSESSMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE DATA QUALITY

In evaluating the quality of an administrative data source, three quality indicators may be considered:

1. **Input quality indicators**, which define the quality of administrative data used as inputs in the

statistical production process. These include the type of gender data gap that the administrative data source can help fill in the SDG indicator tiers.

2. **Process quality indicators**, which measure the quality associated with the production process that uses administrative data to produce statistics. These comprise sound statistical methods and systems and cost effectiveness of the statistical production process.
3. **Output quality indicators**, which measure the output quality of statistics involving administrative data, taking input and process quality into account. Generally, the quality of a statistical output is defined as how well the output meets user needs or whether it is “fit for purpose”⁴.

Given the time frame, this study focused on evaluating the quality of the administrative data that the CRVS systems in the study countries produce that enter the statistical production process (input quality). Six of the SDG gender-specific indicators that

required data from administrative sources relied on education records for computation; five indicators each derived information from CRVS and health records (Table E.2). Given that the United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) monitors education indicators at the global level and the World Health Organization (WHO) monitors health indicators, evaluation of the quality and completeness of administrative data for monitoring gender-specific indicators in this study was limited to CRVS data, which is one of the areas that fall within the ambit of UN Women. The evaluation was based on the United Nations Statistical Quality Assurance Framework⁵, a multidimensional framework of quality indicators. The quality dimensions considered were relevance, accuracy, comparability, accessibility, interpretability (clarity) and timeliness of the data.

2.5 STUDY LIMITATIONS

The study has potential limitations and may be subject to biases that may have affected the research findings, conclusions and recommendations.

First, the practices and experiences of the six selected countries may not fully reflect the practices and experiences of other African countries with regard to the production and use of administrative data for generating gender-specific SDG indicators. Therefore, not all the study findings can be generalized.

Second, key informant interviews can be used to gather research information in person or remotely, but there may be biases if key informants are not carefully selected. Key informants were selected based on their roles in the NSS, but it should not be assumed that they are the most knowledgeable persons in the research area because of the possibility of replacements of staff due to transfers or retirement from the targeted positions.

Also, because of the limited resources (funding and short time period allocated for the study), the interviews could not be conducted in person in the study countries. Instead, the questionnaires were administered by e-mail, which can result in non-response or provision of incomplete information, and questionnaires may be hurriedly filled out, leading to biases in interview results. The inability to visit the study countries to gather the data may make it impossible to determine country-specific differences in administrative data production and use.

Finally, not all domains of administrative data production and key quality indicators such as process quality indicators and output quality indicators (including how well the statistical products generated from administrative data met user needs) could be investigated owing to the short period available for the study, limiting the study’s ability to fully meet the research objectives.



3

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To achieve the study objectives, it is important to recognize the priority the study countries place on the generation of data for monitoring gender-specific SDGs. Their understanding of the SDG framework and the effort they have made in acknowledging, adapting and implementing this framework may significantly affect the status of the study countries and their ability to use administrative data to monitor gender-specific SDGs and

fill gender-specific gaps. This section thus begins by providing a context in terms of the efforts made in each of the study countries to localize and implement the SDG indicators. It then examines the data gaps in monitoring the gender-specific SDG indicators, and then looks – from a variety of perspectives – at how administrative data can be used to fill these gaps.

3.1 EFFORTS TO LOCALIZE AND IMPLEMENT THE SDG INDICATORS IN THE STUDY COUNTRIES

Before the 2030 Agenda was implemented, all countries were required to localize the SDGs and put in place structures and mechanisms to implement and monitor them. This section provides some indication of the efforts made to localize, implement and monitor the SDG indicators in the six study countries.

3.1.1 Kenya

Following adoption of the SDGs, Kenya developed a comprehensive road map to guide SDG implementation. The road map provides a programmatic guide for all development stakeholders from 2017 to 2020. Other initiatives included mapping the SDGs with Kenya's Vision 2030, setting up an institutional framework, building capacity, creating advocacy and awareness, and mainstreaming the SDGs into policy and planning. During the mapping exercise, 136 SDG indicators were found to be reflected in Kenya's Vision 2030, 128 of which were identified as ones that can be measured using existing data or data that can be produced within one to two years with minimum effort. Thirty-eight (27.9 per cent) of the mapped SDG indicators were gender specific.

The country held an official launch of the SDGs at which all development actors came together to begin the process of localizing the 2030 Agenda. In addition, the country mapped all SDG targets and indicators against the mandates of the various development actors and assigned goals and targets accordingly¹. The government directed all MDAs to incorporate the SDGs into their policy, planning,

budgeting, and monitoring and evaluation systems and processes. An interagency technical committee comprising representatives from the private sector, civil society, development partners, faith-based organizations and youth was set up to provide strategic oversight on SDG programme design and implementation. The Ministry of Devolution and Planning is responsible for overall management and coordination of implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the SDG process.

In terms of gender, the Kenyan Constitution promulgated in August 2010 gives women the same legal rights as men. The promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment is therefore anchored in the social transformation agenda of the country's Vision 2030 and reflected in the second (2013–2017) and third (2018–2022) medium-term plans. To support tracking of progress in this area, the medium-term plans emphasize building capacity in collection, collation and analysis of gender-sensitive data, of which data system strengthening constitutes a major part – in particular the need to expand and update the administrative statistical information base. These priorities are reflected in a report published in June 2017 on implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development².

3.1.2 Tanzania

Since their adoption, Tanzania has been mainstreaming the SDGs into its national development plans (NDPs) and monitoring frameworks, including the second five-year NDP (2016/17–2020/21),

conceived under Tanzania Development Vision 2025. To this end, a mainstreaming, acceleration and policy support implementation strategy was prepared to help Tanzania incorporate the SDGs into national plans, budgets and policies and translate this to priorities of local government authorities. Several frameworks have also been developed, including frameworks for a research agenda on the SDGs, localization of the SDGs, a communication and dissemination strategy on the SDGs, and monitoring and evaluation of the SDGs. The localization process has resulted in integration of several SDGs in the five-year NDP (SDGs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 17). A data gap assessment conducted in 2016 revealed that Tanzania's ability to meet the demand for data for the global indicators was less than 30 per cent, with more than 60 per cent of the data expected to be drawn from administrative sources³.

3.1.3 Uganda

Uganda was one of the first countries in Africa to develop an NDP in line with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, affirming its strong political commitment to the SDGs. It is estimated that 76 per cent of the SDG targets are reflected in Uganda's second NDP (NDP II, 2015/16–2019/2020) within the framework of its long-term Vision 2040 and adapted to the national context. Steps have been taken to integrate the SDGs into subnational plans in line with the national plan. Other measures that have been taken to articulate the 2030 Agenda include enhancing multisectoral implementation planning and coordination of the SDGs; integrating the SDGs into prospective development plans; strengthening data, monitoring and evaluation systems; establishing concrete public-private partnerships for implementation; and harnessing the "demographic dividend" – i.e. the accelerated economic growth that may result from the decline in Uganda's birth and death rates and subsequent change in the age structure of its population.

National- and subnational-level consultations on localization of the SDGs have been held, and a number of reforms and legislative frameworks have been established to facilitate effective SDG implementation (e.g. Public Procurement and Disposal Act, 2014; Registration of Persons Act, 2015; Public Finance Management Act, 2015; Public Private Partnership Act, 2015; Financial Institutions

Amendment Act, 2015). Monitoring, evaluation and reporting on the SDGs is expected to be achieved through the National Standard Indicator Framework and the Integrated NDP II Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy Framework, and the Office of the Prime Minister has been assigned the responsibility of reporting progress on the SDGs. As of July 2016, Uganda had data readily available on 80 indicators, of which 27 (34 per cent) are gender-specific⁴. The national priority gender equality indicators – a set of national indicators for monitoring gender equality and women's empowerment – were also developed in 2016. These indicators are an amalgamation of SDG and NDP II indicators.

The Public Finance and Management Act of 2015 compels all MDAs and higher local governments to have gender- and equity-responsive budgets. This promotes the need for and use of gender statistics and has led to a number of interventions, plans and budgets geared towards gender equality and women's empowerment.

3.1.4 Ethiopia

Ethiopia has demonstrated a commitment to ownership and implementation of the SDGs as an integral part of its national development frameworks. Endorsement by the House of People's Representatives, with full national ownership, followed the launch of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development at the global level. Accordingly, extensive consultations were held with relevant stakeholders at all levels to prioritize and mainstream selected SDGs aligned with Ethiopia's national development priority areas into its second growth and transformation plan (GTP) (2015/16–2019/20). It is envisaged that two more national GTPs will run concurrently with implementation of the SDGs (2016–30). The Council of Ministers has endorsed the SDG-integrated GTP; the House of People's Representatives has ratified it; and all development actors at all government administrative levels are implementing it in a coordinated way, with strong legal backing. The legislative and executive agencies are expected to monitor and support the SDGs and the second GTP, making use of performance reports compiled from official administrative data, documents, sample surveys and inventories obtained at the federal, regional and municipal levels.

Close monitoring and evaluation of the progress of implementation is also to be achieved through the “public wing” platform, which allows diverse stakeholders to assess SDG implementation performance and identify strengths and weaknesses⁵. One of the nine strategic pillars of the second GTP is “bringing about the participation and competence of women and youth in ensuring they benefit from economic growth”. To enhance the pursuit of gender equality, a women’s policy and strategy and a women’s development package have been produced to support implementation of gender equality decrees. Women have been encouraged to participate in organized and coordinated ways in economic, social and political spheres across the country.

Of the 232 global SDG indicators, 199 were considered applicable to Ethiopia; of the 33 that were considered not to be applicable, only 1 (13.b.1) was gender specific, indicating that 98 per cent of the 54 gender-specific indicators was applicable at the country level. In terms of performance monitoring, the UNSD assessment conducted in May 2018 concluded that, of the 80 SDG indicators for which the country could currently produce data (i.e. data were currently available or easily attainable), 22 (27.5 per cent) are gender specific⁶. Similarly, the assessment indicated that the Ethiopian NSS had the capacity to compile data on 87 indicators (those that could be produced with strong effort); of these, 21 (24.1 per cent) are gender specific, which suggests that, with some support over the short to medium term, Ethiopia could produce data for 43 (79.6 per cent) of the 54 gender-specific indicators. With regard to tracking the SDGs, 46 per cent of Ethiopia’s current statistical capacity and 43 per cent of its potential statistical capacity are vested in administrative data sources.

3.1.5 Malawi

The Government of Malawi showed its commitment to implementation of the 2030 Agenda by integrating it into its current NDP (Malawi Growth and Development Strategy III, 2017–22) after country-wide consultations to ensure easy implementation of the SDGs. Sixty-one of the 169 SDG targets were aligned with the key priority areas of the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy⁷. Malawi has also developed a monitoring and evaluation framework in line with its national strategy

and the SDGs. The base year for the evaluation of the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy is 2015/16⁸. This framework covers all sectors and has outcome and impact indicators that are to be reviewed periodically. Development of the National Strategy for the Development of Statistics for 2018 to 2022 is underway. The government has established a technical committee for implementation of the SDGs led by the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development. The NSO of Malawi is responsible for compiling statistics for monitoring the SDGs. With support from international agencies, the government has developed an indicator baseline database to support progress monitoring.

3.1.6 Rwanda

Implementation of the SDGs in Rwanda began with a localization plan, in conjunction with which an initial gap analysis was conducted through review of the country’s 14 sector strategic plans, Vision 2020 and the Second Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy for 2013–2018 to assess the level of integration of the SDG indicators. The findings from the gap analysis revealed that 27.1 per cent of the SDG indicators were fully integrated into the national development frameworks, 36.4 per cent were partially integrated and 36.4 per cent were not reflected at all.

This outcome informed the formulation of a detailed plan to localize and prioritize the new elements inherent in the SDGs. A national coordination framework was developed to facilitate high-level dialogue on national priorities and implementation mechanisms, local ownership, design and monitoring of sector-specific strategies, implementation of innovative initiatives (e.g. *Girinka* – one cow per poor family; *Umuganda* – community works) and updating the national strategy for the development statistics indicator framework, including plans for developing baselines. Other activities included the national launch of SDG localization, social mobilization and sensitization on the SDGs targeted at political parties through the political parties forum, community outreach through a citizen participation and engagement forum, preparation of a full communications strategy, establishment of an overall monitoring and evaluation framework for the SDGs and sensitization of parliamentarians and district

councils using simplified localized communication tools.

Plans were made to ensure full integration of the SDGs into Rwanda's new long-term Vision 2050, the new short-term National Strategy for Transformation (2017–2024) and the new sector strategic plans and district development plans covering 2017/18 to 2023/24. Several coordinating mechanisms have been established. For example,

the national technical coordination role is ceded to the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, which is responsible for integrating SDGs into development plans and budgets and monitoring and evaluating progress made with respect to the SDGs. The Senate and Parliament have been given oversight and accountability functions, with the Cabinet providing strategic guidance. Rwanda produces data on 60 per cent of the required SDG indicators⁹.

3.2 DATA GAPS IN GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS IN THE STUDY COUNTRIES

Performance of the gender-specific SDGs cannot be monitored without information on the relevant indicators. Tables E.2, E.3 and E.4 show the data gaps in the gender-specific SDG indicators in the six study countries according to tier classification¹⁰. Of the 54 gender-specific indicators, 0 were described as not applicable for Malawi, 1 for Ethiopia, 2 each for Kenya and Uganda, and 5 for Rwanda.

As of 19 December 2018, the 54 gender-specific indicators consisted of 11 Tier 1 indicators, 26 Tier 2 indicators, 15 Tier 3 indicators, and 2 multi-tier indicators (indicators 5.5.1, which includes Tiers 1 and 2 indicators, and indicator 4.1.1, which includes Tiers 2 and 3 indicators)¹¹. Across the six countries, 30 of the 39 gender-specific Tier 1, Tier 2, and multi-tier SDG indicators have data gaps; as expected, most (25) of these are Tier 2 (23) and multi-tier (2) indicators. At least one study country reported that each of the 15 exclusively Tier 3 indicators had data gaps (Table E.4).

Taking all three tiers together, this suggests that 45 of the 54 gender-specific SDG indicators have data gaps. The number of indicators with data gaps ranges from 6 in Tanzania to 34 in Ethiopia (Table 3.1). The information obtained from Tanzania suggests that many of the indicators already exist or can be produced from existing data sources¹², including MDA databases, through further analysis; but there was no indication of the indicators whose computation requires further analysis of existing data. Other indicators have been included in ongoing data collection initiatives (e.g. the Household Budget Survey) or will be included in data generation activities planned for 2019 (e.g. the Integrated

Labour Force Survey), but these indicators were not clarified. The data gaps in Tanzania relate to indicators 4.2.1, 4.7.1, 5.c.1, 11.7.1, 13.b.1 and 16.2.3. Even though two (5.c.1, 13.b.1) of these are global indicators, the data for their computation need to be available at the country level to make it possible for the responsible global organizations to compile them. Table 3.1 shows that, in the majority of cases, the data, methodology or technical capacity for computing the indicator does not exist. This is true across the six study countries.

Computation of some indicators requires further in-depth analysis, which is the second most frequent explanation for data gaps. In Malawi, for example, data are available, but further analysis is needed to generate the Tier 2 indicators 4.6.1, 5.1.1, 5.3.2 and 16.2.3. The third most frequent reason for gaps is that data are not comprehensively collected to support complete calculation of an indicator, as in the case of the Tier 2 indicator 4.3.1 (participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex). For this indicator in Uganda, data are available on participation rates in formal education and training, but not in non-formal education and training. Similarly, in Kenya, data on indicator 3.7.2 (adolescent birth rate per 1,000 women) are available for adolescents aged 15–19 but not for those aged 10–14. Indicator 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) is only partially monitored in both Kenya and Uganda because

Table 3.1 Number of Gender-Specific SDG Indicators with Data Gaps by Reason for Gap

Reason for data gap	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
Lack of data, methodology or technical ability to compute indicator	18	5	17	27	21	9
Indicator partially computed	5	1	5	1	0	1
Data not sex disaggregated	0	0	2	0	2	0
Require further analysis of existing data to generate indicator	0	0	6	6	6	0
Total	23	6	30	34	29	10

Source: Based on desk reviews and key informant interviews conducted in September and October 2018 from study country national statistical offices.

psychological violence is not reported on. The Tier 2 component of indicator 4.1.1 (proportion of children and young people in reading and mathematics, by sex) is only partially measured in Kenya because the methodology for assessing proficiency level, particularly in mathematics, is not clear.

For indicator 3.8.1 (coverage of essential health services), the methodology is similarly not clear; for indicator 4.2.1 (proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex), measurement of psychosocial well-being is reported to be difficult. The data gap for indicator 5.5.2 (proportion of women in managerial positions) in Kenya exists because the initial definition of manager was not clear to data producers, including the NSO.

In some cases in which data are collected, the definition used to gather information does not match that of the SDG indicator. For example, in the case of Uganda, the Tier 1 indicator 16.1.1 (number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age) cannot be computed because data are collected on all homicides, not separately on “intentional” homicides. Although indicator 5.c.1 (proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment) is considered a Tier 2 indicator, some countries (e.g. Tanzania) felt they needed technical assistance to generate the information.

For a few other indicators with gaps, data are available, but the computed indicator does not take account of gender. A typical example is indicator

1.2.1 (proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age). In Uganda, this information is computed at the national level and for urban and rural areas, but not by sex. The same is true for Malawi with respect to indicator 1.1.1.

It was assumed that countries were not expected to have generated Tier 3 indicators, given that, at the time of the data collection for the study, these indicators did not have internationally established methodologies for their computation. Overall, although at least one of the study countries reported all 15 exclusively Tier 3 indicators and the Tier 3 component of the multi-tier indicator 4.1.1 as being unavailable, responses from individual countries suggest that some of these indicators do not have data gaps – implying that some countries may have found ways to calculate such indicators. This requires further investigation to ensure that the correct methods are being used. Generally, the observed gender data gaps indicate the need to conduct further analysis of available country-level data or to expand on existing databases by including specific data items in subsequent data collection initiatives.

It is also important to explore ways of responding to methodological challenges related to some specific indicators in Tier 2 and, particularly, Tier 3. For example, information gathered suggests the following:

- In Ethiopia, computation of indicators 4.7.1, 11.2.1, 16.1.1, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1 and 16.7.2 was not feasible even with strong effort, suggesting the

need for technical support in computing these indicators.

- Similarly, Tanzania noted that indicator 4.7.1 was not available because it required a long-term process to produce it. The country further reported that it needed technical assistance to generate indicator 5.c.1 (Tier 2) and indicators 11.7.1 and 13.b.1 (Tier 3).
- Kenya reported inadequate technical capacity to generate indicator 1.1.1.

As of December 2018, UNSD had published meta-data for all gender-specific SDG indicators except 1.b.1, 8.9.2 and 13.b.1, whose methodologies were still under development; and indicator 4.5.1, whose methodology had been partially developed¹³. This means that countries can now produce approximately two-thirds of the Tier 3 indicators at the level of individual institutions or by building partnerships and synergies with relevant institutions, with or without some level of technical assistance.

3.3 USING ADMINISTRATIVE DATA TO CLOSE GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG DATA GAPS

Thirty-four (63.0 per cent) of the 54 gender-specific SDG indicators can be generated from administrative data sources (Table E.5). Of these, 14 can be generated solely from administrative sources, 10 from administrative sources complemented with data from other sources and 10 from administrative or other sources. Computation of the remaining 20 gender-specific indicators is based exclusively on non-administrative sources of data. Of the 45 gender-specific indicators with data gaps cumulatively identified across the study countries, 28 (62.2 per cent) can be computed from administrative sources exclusively (13), in combination with other sources (9) or as an alternative source of data (6). This reflects the significant role administrative data sources can play in filling the observed gender data gaps if they are well developed and managed. For example, in countries where the CRVS system, one of the main administrative sources of data, is functioning well, the data generated can support computation of indicators such as 3.1.1, 3.2.1, 3.7.2, 8.8.1 and 16.1.1 alone or in conjunction with data from other sources.

CRVS-generated data can support calculation of denominators for certain indicators (e.g. 1.3.1, 4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.b.1, 8.5.2, 8.7.1, 10.2.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.2). In the absence of a good CRVS system, computation must rely on other data sources, such as censuses and surveys, which are generally expensive and infrequent. Similarly, education management information systems can assist with generation of indicators 4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1 and 4.a.1;

indicators 3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.8.1, 5.6.2, 8.8.1, 16.1.1 and 16.1.2 can be calculated based on the health management information system. The administrative records of other MDAs – such as gender, social protection, finance, labour, interior, justice, agriculture, land, transport and tourism – can support computation of indicators 1.3.1, 1.b.1, 2.3.2, 5.1.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.2, 5.c.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2, 11.2.1, 11.7.1 and 13.b.1, among others. This means that strengthening the above-mentioned administrative data systems and facilitating and monitoring production of relevant indicators will dramatically increase the availability of data for gender-specific SDG indicators.

Specific gender data gaps that countries felt could be filled with information from administrative sources did not cover the entire indicator list above. For example, in Tanzania, the indicators cited were 1.4.2, 1.b.1, 3.8.1, 4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2, 13.b.1, 16.2.2 and 16.7.1. In Rwanda, the major data gaps that respondents felt needed to be addressed were related to indicators on gender-based violence (GBV) and those requiring disaggregation according to disability and migrant status (1.3.1, 4.5.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 10.2.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1). Kenya listed indicators 5.3.1 and 5.3.2, even though these do not depend on administrative sources of data. Countries must be supported in focusing on the specific data demands the gender-specific SDG indicator framework imposes and make the necessary effort to produce and make such data easily accessible for use.

The major sources of data for the gender-specific SDG indicators were survey data only (35.2 per cent), administrative data only (25.9 per cent), administrative or survey data (11.1 per cent) and administrative data complemented with survey data (11.1 per cent). Others included administrative sources complemented with data from censuses or surveys (7.4 per cent); survey data complemented with census data (3.7 per cent); administrative, survey or census data (3.7 per cent) and survey or census data (1.9 per cent). This has implications for

the monitoring and reporting of gender-specific SDG indicators. A country's potential to report on these indicators will depend on its capacity to generate the required data from these sources, particularly from administrative and survey data sources. This means that the challenges identified in compiling gender-specific SDG indicators (e.g. lack of methodology, technical capacity, resources including finance, technological tools) need to be addressed to alleviate the difficulties countries are experiencing.

3.4 ACTORS INVOLVED IN COMPILATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE DATA FOR MONITORING GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS

Knowledge of the organizations involved in generating administrative data can assist in targeting interventions aimed at addressing challenges associated with generating statistics from such data. Table E.6 shows the key administrative data producers of gender-specific indicators in the study countries. The findings reflect the important role ministries and other state agencies play in the collection and management of administrative data. In some of the study countries, the statistical departments within specific ministries assume responsibility for compiling and publishing statistics from their administrative data for monitoring gender-specific SDGs. In others, the NSO organizes preprocessed administrative data for subsequent processing, analysis and publication.

The type of administrative data produced for monitoring gender indicators covers social protection (e.g. social cash transfer, disability, elderly); child protection; early child development; social welfare; health; education; women in politics; women in decision-making positions; GBV helpline (real-time incident data); child abuse cases; CRVS (e.g. birth, death, marriage, divorce); demographic statistics; externalization of labour; remittances from abroad; violations of labour standards at work places; labour complaints investigated, settled and referred; youth livelihood programmes (e.g. district summary disbursements, sectors, project types benefiting youth); and public expenditure on social protection

schemes and female entrepreneurship programme schemes.

Although the NSS and SDG coordinators from certain countries (e.g. Uganda) indicated that data obtained from these administrative sources were comprehensive and covered the government's gender-specific SDG indicators in the area except for a few indicators such as women leaders in public service and women in unpaid care work (as Uganda reported), others (e.g. Ethiopia, Rwanda) were of the view that the data are not complete, resulting in fragmented compilation of the indicators. For some indicators, the methodology for their calculation is not clear; for others, additional information is required before they can be computed. Some respondents also requested coordination and strengthening of administrative data reporting systems in terms of human resources, data collection and compilation methodology, particularly with respect to the SDGs and the NDP indicators.

The primary capacity challenges that were reported to impede timely production of gender data from administrative sources and effective monitoring and evaluation of gender indicators in study countries were inadequate funding, absent or weak data collection systems, weak coordination of the data collection process at the district level, lack of understanding of the importance and need for data in general and gender statistics in particular, lack of awareness of gender-specific problems, limited understanding and application of gender concepts

and standards for data collection and analysis, limited digitization of paper-based records and lack of coordination among MDAs; this limited the ability of administrative data producers to identify priority data needs and produce statistics in a harmonized manner.

Other challenges cited were inadequate human resources and technical capacity in data collection, compilation and analysis. In Uganda, for instance, there were only two statisticians handling the enormous data sets the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development produced. Further, the ministry did not have staff focusing on gender across departments with basic data management and reporting skills. Administrative data managers'

inability to ensure the quality of data being generated – including efficient compilation of gender statistics – was also a source of great concern. The statistical capacity of administrative data producers to ensure data quality and generate gender statistics was not strong. Staff training on data collection methodologies, analysis and reporting of statistics is irregular. In Tanzania, limited application of technology to some aspects of the data production process poses challenges. For example, compilation of data on marriage is paper based, making it both cumbersome and time-consuming to obtain tabulations based on age. Also, marriage registration is not common in areas where customary marriage is practiced, making it difficult to capture such events.

3.5 AVAILABILITY OF GUIDELINES AND QUALITY FRAMEWORKS FOR COMPILING GENDER STATISTICS FROM ADMINISTRATIVE DATA

The availability of guidelines or quality frameworks for producing gender statistics from administrative data varies across institutions in the six study countries. The Ethiopia Central Statistical Agency (CSA), for example, has no guidelines for compiling gender statistics from administrative data, although it has recently developed national administrative data management guidelines in collaboration with the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). Although these guidelines are not gender specific, they could be tailored to the individual line ministries to enhance data quality and serve as a reference for preparing gender-specific data production and management guidelines. The CSA also has the Data Quality Assessment Framework (DQAF) in place, which is used to evaluate the quality of data and the statistical capacities of actors in the NSS, but this needs to be updated.

In Tanzania, the Registration Insolvency and Trusteeship Agency (RITA) has no such guidelines or quality framework, but the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) has draft guidelines to assist in the preparation of regional profiles from administrative data. These draft guidelines have sex-disaggregated forms to enhance sector data collection. The

NBS has also developed a data quality assurance framework to support data producers and ensure the quality of data produced. The Kenya NBS uses International Organization for Standardization (ISO) guidelines that outline procedures for the production of statistics. These guidelines have been operationalized and are in full use. There are also ISO Quality Management System documents that can be used to assess the quality of administrative data.

The Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) has developed general guidelines for producing quality statistics¹⁴ and specific guidelines for mainstreaming gender in statistical production. The Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development confirmed that it uses the specific guidelines to produce gender statistics because they do not have their own specific guidelines for that purpose. In terms of a quality framework for assessing the quality of administrative data, UBOS has produced a data quality and certifications framework to assist in conducting statistical quality audits within the NSS.

The Rwanda National Institute of Statistics has no specific guidelines or quality frameworks for

producing gender statistics from administrative data, but it has a gender statistics framework with a list of gender indicators that need to be produced

for different development areas. In Malawi, there were no such guidelines or data quality assessment frameworks in the institutions interviewed.

3.6 QUALITY OF EXISTING ADMINISTRATIVE DATA IN THE STUDY COUNTRIES, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO CRVS SYSTEMS

The CRVS system has been identified as the preferred source of data for many of the SDG indicators, particularly those on women's and children's health¹⁵. In general, CRVS systems are designed to facilitate continuous registration of birth, death, marriage, divorce and other vital events to provide up-to-date information on the population for better socioeconomic planning and policymaking. A well-functioning CRVS system registers all births, deaths and other vital events; provides legal identity to all children born in the country; and compiles and disseminates vital statistics, including cause of death. Assessment of quality here focuses on two key vital events – birth and death; the quality dimensions assessed are relevance, accuracy, comparability, accessibility, interpretability (clarity) and timeliness of the data.

3.6.1 Relevance

The relevance of a statistical output is the degree to which the data serve to address user purposes. Relevance has three aspects: coverage of the required population (**completeness**), inclusion of the **appropriate content**, and use of **appropriate concepts**. Almost all African countries have civil registration laws for systematically registering vital events, but few have maintained a comprehensive, complete CRVS system to international standards. Governments and international partners have made efforts to improve CRVS systems in Africa, but in many countries, these systems are incomplete and cannot adequately account for births, deaths and other vital events.

In 2012, UNECA, the African Union Commission and AfDB launched the Africa Programme on Accelerated Improvement of CRVS in collaboration with other partners to garner political commitment and support for strengthening national CRVS

systems. In response, several African countries have conducted comprehensive assessments of their CRVS systems to identify weaknesses and challenges. The results of these assessments suggest that completeness of birth and death registration at the national level are far from optimum (Tables 3.2 and 3.3). According to WHO, a country should have birth and death registration coverage of greater than 80 per cent for its data to be considered complete and reliable.

The vision of most African governments is to reform and improve their CRVS systems and make them comprehensive, reliable sources of vital statistics. The ultimate aim is to attain universal civil registration of births, deaths and other vital events and provide access to legal proof of registration for all individuals by 2030¹⁶. The Department of Civil Registration Services (CRS) of the Ministry of Immigration and Registration of Persons in Kenya, for example, is pursuing a number of strategies to achieve this, including creation of a comprehensive population database for personal legal records and generation of timely, reliable vital statistics through registration of births and deaths. In Uganda, the National Identification and Registration Authority (NIRA) is solely responsible for registration of births, deaths and adoptions. Birth, death and adoption order registration was transferred from the Uganda Registration Services Bureau to NIRA in January 2016. Only marriage (which falls under the Registration Services Bureau) and divorce (under the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs) registrations have remained outside NIRA's mandate, per the Registration of Persons Act 2015. This means that the major CRVS stakeholder is the Ministry of Internal Affairs, which houses NIRA. In Tanzania, RITA is implementing a CRVS strategy that is expected to aid in substantially improving the

Table 3.2 Completeness of Birth Registration in Study Countries

Country	Year	Completeness of birth registration (%)
Kenya	2014	66.9
Tanzania	2016	26.4
Uganda	2016	32.2
Ethiopia	2016	2.7
Malawi	2017	67.2
Rwanda	2015	56.0

Sources: Kenya Demographic and Health Survey, 2014; Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children [Tanzania]; Ministry of Health [Zanzibar], National Bureau of Statistics, Office of the Chief Government Statistician, and ICF, “2015–16 TDHS-MIS Key Findings”, Rockville, MD, 2016; Uganda Bureau of Statistics and ICF, “Uganda Demographic and Health Survey 2016”, Kampala 2018; CSA, “Ethiopian Data Quality Assessment Framework”, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 2011; <http://www.csa.gov.et/component/phocadownload/category/310?Itemid=310>; NSO and ICF, “Malawi Demographic and Health Survey 2015–16”, Zomba, Malawi, and Rockville, MD, 2017; and National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, Ministry of Health, and ICF, “Rwanda Demographic and Health Survey 2014–15”, Rockville, MD, 2015.

Table 3.3 Completeness of Death Registration in Study Countries

Country	Year	Completeness of death registration (%)
Kenya	2013	45.6
Tanzania	2010/15	<75
Uganda	—	—
Ethiopia	—	—
Malawi	2008	<50.0
Rwanda	2010/15	<75

Source: UNSD, Coverage of Death Registration, <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic-social/crvs/>; accessed 26 October 2018.

Note: — = not available.

quality, accessibility and use of gender data produced from the system.

Completeness is defined as the proportion of vital events the CRVS system registers out of the total estimated number of such events that would have occurred within the population covered by the system. The degree of the registry’s completeness determines the confidence with which statistical interpretations of its data can be made.

Despite efforts of various governments and development partners to improve CRVS systems in Africa, available information suggests that by 2014, birth registration in Kenya, for example, was only 66.9 per cent complete, and coverage of death registration was 45.6 per cent – both well below the international standard (Table 3.2).

Data from demographic and health surveys suggest that, in 2016, birth registration was 32 per cent in Uganda but less than 3 per cent in Ethiopia. Permanent, compulsory, universal civil registration and certification of vital events (birth, death, marriage, divorce) was launched for the first time in Ethiopia in August 2016; the fact that the process of registration is in its early stages explain the deficiencies in Ethiopian situation. It is hoped that coverage will improve in the coming years, with generation of good-quality vital statistics. In Kenya, unsatisfactory levels of birth and death registration have been attributed to a lack of public awareness of the requirements and benefits of immediate registration of births and deaths; cultural and religious beliefs, such as the practice of immediate burial among Muslims; a lack of commitment by and inadequate monitoring of registration agents; budgetary constraints and inadequate funding; coverage problems due to difficult terrain and a vast geographic area; a nomadic lifestyle; hard-to-reach slum areas; incomplete decentralization of civil registration services; weak legislation and non-enforcement of the law; and limited demand for civil registration products¹⁷. In Tanzania, RITA has not published any report based on its administrative data because of various challenges, including the incompleteness of the data it generates. Although birth and death registration data are now available in digital format, the level of completeness is considered too low for the data to be useful.

Information on coverage of death registrations is not easily available, but the data presented in Table 3.3 indicate that registration of deaths in the study countries is low. In terms of **content**, civil registration activities respond to each country’s strategic goal of universal birth and death registration coverage and use of good-quality vital statistics for evidence-based decision-making. Registration of vital events and recording of personal characteristics and other facts associated with events (e.g. date and time of event, type of event, nature of event,

place of occurrence, names of parents, name and gender of individual) is important for statistical purposes and planning.

In Tanzania, civil and vital events registered include birth, death, marriage, divorce and adoption; in all the study countries, forms for registration of vital events are carefully designed to conform to international concepts and standards¹⁸ – except in Rwanda, where registers and forms do not conform to international recommendations and concepts¹⁹. In Kenya, for example, requirements for notification of births occurring within six months of the date of birth include the name of the baby (optional); the date and place of birth; the sex of the child; the type of birth (single/multiple); the nature of the birth (alive/dead); the name, age marital status, previous births of, and residential area and district of the mother; and the name of the father (for married couples). In terms of **content and concepts used**, data generated from these sources can be described as relevant.

3.6.2 Accuracy

The accuracy of a statistical output is the degree to which the data correctly estimate or describe the quantities or characteristics they are designed to measure. Accuracy refers to the closeness between the values provided in the outcome and the (unknown) true values. Accuracy has many attributes, and in practical terms, there is no single overall measure of it. Typically, it is described in terms of errors, or the potential significance of errors, introduced at various stages in the production process, from initial acquisition of data to dissemination of aggregates. In the case of data from sample surveys, the major sources of error are coverage, sampling, non-response, response, processing and seasonal adjustment. There are no sampling errors for data from censuses. Similarly, there are no sampling errors for data from administrative sources, but there are problems due to mismatching of administrative concepts and classifications to statistical requirements.

The volume and accuracy of the data received from contributing offices and departments within the country largely determine the accuracy of the data the agency produces, although agency activities can improve accuracy (e.g. quality checks may result in detection and correction of errors in the data that

countries provide and thus lead to improvements in the data).

Recent quality checks on the vital statistics Kenya produces, for example, indicate that the data are of relatively high quality, albeit with some room for improvement. A CRVS baseline assessment conducted in Kenya in 2013 showed that vital statistics the CRS compiled annually were not consistent because of poor data quality in the Civil Registration Office monthly summaries, a lack of verification and correction of these statistics, and failure to indicate or explain inconsistent numbers. Vital statistics from the Kenya NBS were not harmonized with those the CRS reported because of delays in submission of summaries to CRS headquarters, and CRS staff lacked capacity in data processing and analysis.

The assessment further indicated that the quality of medical certification of cause of death was questionable because of limited up-to-date systematized training in certifying cause of death according to International Classification of Diseases (ICD) standards. Generally, registrars were not trained in ICD and were therefore not able to read and interpret medical diagnoses and determine the underlying cause of death. Since strategies such as training civil registrars, implementing routine quality assurance procedures and other programme support measures have been introduced, there have been significant improvements in the quality of statistics produced²⁰. Vital statistics are now readily available, and reporting between the CRS and the Kenya NBS is harmonized. Implementation of guidelines for certifying and coding causes of death has resulted in greater availability of cause-of-death information from health facilities. Nevertheless, adoption of data quality assurance procedures needs to be intensified to increase reporting and use of mortality statistics at the international level.

3.6.3 Comparability

Comparability of data relates to data sets to which identical definitions and concepts and data collection, processing and analytical procedures have been applied. Data comparability is therefore the extent to which differences between statistics from different geographical areas, from non-geographical domains or over time can be attributed to differences between the true values of the statistics. Efforts to strengthen CRVS systems in all the study

countries follow United Nations principles and recommendations for a CRVS system, including use of step-by-step guidelines outlined for system design and management, as well as compilation of statistics that the system produces. The vital statistics these countries produce can therefore be said to be aligned with international standards of producing comparable statistics.

3.6.4 Accessibility

To be useful, data on vital events must be accessible to as many users as possible, preferably in print and electronic forms. Making data broadly available and adhering to data release dates are therefore important. As the agency responsible for disseminating statistics on births and deaths, the Kenya NBS publishes the country's vital statistics report every year. At the Kenya Vital Statistics Report (KVSR) writing workshop, stakeholders agreed that the KVSR should be published concurrently with the statistical abstract and economic survey report the Kenya NBS produces and publishes. March was set as the month in which the stakeholders are to conduct data analysis and prepare the report. Since 2013, the KVSR has been published annually. Information in the report is also published in the United Nations Demographic Yearbook. At the country level, information from the report has been shared during stakeholder forums.

In 2015, MEASURE Evaluation PIMA, a five-year project that the U.S. Agency for International Development funded in October 2012 to strengthen the ability of health officials at the national and country levels to measure and evaluate health programmes and make better use of health data for decision-making, supported development of country vital statistics briefs. The vital statistics in the KVSR have also been used to inform country integrated development plans, evaluate Ministry of Health (MOH) programmes, update the country's voter register, and inform research by the Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis and university students. Unfortunately, the KVSR is not on the NBS website and is therefore difficult for international users to find.

3.6.5 Interpretability

Users can readily understand, use and analyse any data assisted by clear definitions of concepts, target populations, variables and terminology, as well as by information describing the limitations of the data. Generally, correct use and understanding of a data set depends on providing information about the data (metadata). The availability of metadata helps end users interpret the data appropriately. None of the study countries supplies CRVS metadata along with their vital statistics publications. The concepts, definitions and methodologies used are all specified in the reports.

3.6.5 Timeliness

Timeliness is one of the quality indicators users rate as being of great importance. Timely access to vital statistics enables timely policy interventions. Delays between data collection and availability or publication can affect their utility. Delayed access to data makes them less useful.

Timeliness can be measured in various ways. In Kenya, timeliness is measured as timeliness of submission of monthly summary sheets (percentage of months in the year that the Civil Registration Department receives summary sheets from the Civil Registration Office by the 15th of every month), the percentage of registered births and deaths that are registered late, the percentage of delayed registrations and the percentage of registered births for which a certificate has been issued. The first and third indicators are considered in this report because they can affect the completeness of the data received by the data release date – and, by extension, the computed indicators on the vital events date. The endline assessment conducted in Kenya in 2017 suggests that approximately one-third of the CRVS monthly summary sheets are submitted on time to the civil registration office, which indicates that the data covering the registered population of interest may not be complete by the KVSR publication date. Similarly, the proportion of births for which a certificate is issued is a reflection of the volume of information captured in the CRVS database at a particular point in time.

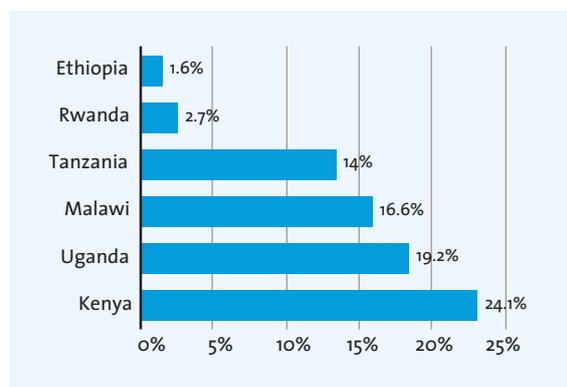
In all the study countries, the process of certification begins with issuance of a written birth notification by the health facility, community health worker or

community management committee or completion of a birth declaration form. The birth notification or declaration form must be presented to the civil registration authority within a given period of time – 30 days in Rwanda, 42 days (6 weeks) in Zanzibar and Malawi, 3 months (90 days) in the Tanzania mainland and Ethiopia, and 6 months in Kenya – for the event to be registered in accordance with the law, after which a birth certificate is issued²¹. In Uganda, a birth certificate is issued within two days of notification of the event²².

In providing information on the proportion of births for which a birth certificate is issued, a proxy variable (percentage of de jure children under age five who had a birth certificate at the time of the survey) included in the demographic and health surveys conducted in the respective countries has been used. Although loss of certificates due to movement, misplacement, etc. and failure to collect processed certificates may affect this variable, it is assumed that the effect of such occurrences is negligible. The percentage of children under age five who had a birth certificate at the time of the survey ranged from 1.6 per cent in Ethiopia to 24.1 per cent

in Kenya (Figure 3.1). Late registration and delays in processing certificates may play a significant role in determining the disappointing levels observed with respect to possession of birth certificates.

Figure 3.1 Percentage of Children under Age Five in Possession of Birth Certificate



Sources: Data were compiled from Demographic and Health Survey reports for Kenya (Kenya Demographic and Health Survey Report, 2014), Uganda (Uganda Bureau of Statistics and ICF, 2018), Tanzania (Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children, 2016), Malawi (National Statistical Office and ICF, 2017), Rwanda (National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, 2015) and Ethiopia (CSA and ICF, “Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey”, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and Rockville, MD, 2016).

3.7 METHODS USED TO SHARE AND DISSEMINATE GENDER-RELEVANT DATA FROM ADMINISTRATIVE SOURCES

The methods for sharing and disseminating data vary and depend on the legal provisions regarding accessibility and the capacity of the institution to analyse and disseminate the information. Approaches used include dissemination workshops, seminars, conferences, meetings and forums on gender-specific topics, regional review meetings and data forums; press releases to media outlets; electronic media such as dissemination data portals, online dashboards, e-mails and posts on institutional websites; and publication of statistical information in institutional newsletters, magazines and special national reports on gender, statistical abstracts or bulletins, gender data sheets, national gender profiles, reports on women and men, books, fact sheets or handbooks on gender statistics, policy briefs, statistical quarterly and annual reports, and research papers. In Ethiopia, there is

no dissemination portal for sharing administrative data, but the data can be shared upon request.

The reports suggest that the analysis, interpretation, dissemination and use of gender-specific data from administrative sources are relatively weak in some MDAs but well developed in others, such as with regard to health and education. The timing and frequency of dissemination may differ and may be less satisfactory in some countries. Rwanda, for example, publishes a national gender statistics report on the website of its National Institute of Statistics every two years. This is a compilation of gender indicators from different data sources (surveys, censuses, administrative). In addition, gender statistics reports (including gender thematic reports) are regularly published from data extracted from newly completed national surveys and censuses or from the CRVS system. Such regular

publication ensures consistent availability of gender statistics. In other countries, gender-specific publications may be irregular and infrequent because of their reliance on data from traditional surveys or censuses, which may be conducted every five years or more, creating urgent data needs in the interim.

At the continental level, data from administrative sources in the study countries are shared for computation of the AfDB's Gender Equality Index and UNECA's African Gender Development Index. At the global level, administrative data are shared through gender data portals the World Bank has established in Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda. The AfDB Women, Gender and Civil

Society Department is collaborating closely with UN Women to develop an interactive gender data portal to consolidate data on various gender indicators from all African countries²³, and all African countries may be required to submit their gender data through this portal when completed. This initiative presents an opportunity for UN Women to promote coordination of all gender statistics programmes being implemented on the continent by drawing in other regional players working in that domain. It is envisaged that, once launched, the gender data portal will serve as a unique repository of gender indicators for the continent and as an advocacy tool for sensitizing countries to ensure the regular flow of such information.

3.8 STRUCTURES FOR REPORTING ON GENDER-SPECIFIC DATA FROM ADMINISTRATIVE SOURCES AT THE NATIONAL, REGIONAL AND GLOBAL LEVELS

Administrative data are collected and aggregated at the local (community), district and regional levels using a standard format and submitted to the headquarters (national) level monthly, quarterly or annually depending on existing provisions and the type of data being compiled. In Kenya, task forces established at the different levels supervise these aggregation and submission processes, and each sector is responsible for reporting on data that has been validated jointly with the NSO. In Uganda, there are guidelines for producing gender statistics at the national level, with three key structures with defined terms of reference providing support to the NSS: the Gender Statistics Sub-Committee, the Gender Statistics Advisory Group and gender technical task teams. The various MDAs gather administrative data in line with the national monitoring and evaluation framework and submit them to UBOS to be included in its statistical abstract and other documents. The resulting document is then shared at the regional and global levels. An SDG 5 data working group has been established in Uganda as a subgroup of the national SDG data working group to monitor progress in achievement of SDG 5 targets. This subgroup supports implementation of the National SDG Indicator Framework, assists with

conducting national data forums and validates data for compilation of gender-specific SDG indicators. The group is also expected to assist in increasing the capacity of MDAs to compile baseline data for national statistics indicators and SDG indicators from administrative data and registration systems, and to conduct subnational data analysis and mapping of demographic and geographic disparities using census and other survey data.

In Tanzania, some institutions under the Ministry of Finance have been mandated to monitor, coordinate and facilitate national-level reporting – specifically, the NBS, the Policy and Planning Department, and the Poverty and Eradication Department, which reports on poverty indicators. The SDG Data Road Map Steering Committee, which comprises representatives from government institutions in the NSS, private institutions, civil society organizations, non-governmental organizations and the Tanzania NBS, coordinates and oversees SDG monitoring. In terms of gender-specific indicators, the country has adopted a multistakeholder approach to monitoring progress at the national and subnational levels. The key stakeholders for monitoring SDG 5 and other gender-specific indicators include

the NBS, the President's Office of Public Service Management and Good Governance, other MDAs, academic and research institutions, and civil society organizations such as CIVICUS – which supports civil society in producing and analysing data, especially citizen-generated data, to drive sustainable development through the DataShift programme – in the private sector²⁴. The NBS is responsible for ensuring that the Data Audit Committee, established by MDAs to monitor the quality of the data they produce, receives the guidelines necessary for evaluating routine administrative data before publication. In this regard, the NBS works closely with MDAs in specific statistical domains, including the Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children, to ensure that relevant gender-specific SDG indicators are processed from available administrative data in that domain.

In most of the countries, gender-specific data from administrative sources are also reported at the continental level through the regional economic commissions and the Pan-African institutions. For example, under Article 140 of the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) treaty – and in line with the COMESA Gender Policy and the Medium Term Strategic Plan 2016–20 – member countries (Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Uganda) have been submitting gender-relevant information for publication in the COMESA Gender Statistics Bulletin. This publication was launched in February 2017 to measure progress on gender equality and empowerment of women and girls. In some countries (e.g. Malawi), the parent ministry of a key administrative data source, the gender management information system, has a well-developed planning and research department that consolidates reports for regional and global institutions.

3.9 PERCEPTION OF ADMINISTRATIVE DATA BY NSS STAKEHOLDERS

Stakeholders working on administrative data at the NSS have described the quality of administrative data as generally weak and of poor quality. Some NSS respondents noted that administrative data are not used effectively because of the inadequate attention given to their management and quality for a variety of reasons; they suggested improvement in data collection methodologies, compilation, analysis and metadata.

Some concerns were also raised about the administrative data non-state actors compile. In particular, planning, production, documentation, dissemination and use of such data was described as weak, and those using the data were cited as not having the autonomy to perform data production activities or as not established at all levels of government. NSS stakeholders maintained that the observed data quality problems would be resolved if training on statistical activities were provided. They also suggested the need for close monitoring to ensure that the data produced meet the basic criteria set by the United Nations Statistical Commission for the production of official statistics.

Some countries (e.g. Tanzania) indicated that the data are useful for tracking SDGs but need strengthening in terms of data collection methodology, compilation, analysis and metadata compilation. Others (e.g. Rwanda) had great confidence in the administrative data produced in their country and expressed appreciation for their availability, given that they are produced quickly and cost effectively. They also felt that these data were helpful in checking the accuracy of survey results. Technical support on data collection methodologies that the National Institute of Statistics provides to administrative data managers reinforces this positive perception. Kenya described their administrative data as very useful and of acceptable quality, but indicated that better quality is still desirable. When the question was posed to administrative data managers, they perceived their data as relatively effective based on feedback received from users.

In terms of efficacy, respondents described administrative data as vital and useful in tracking SDGs but needed reinforcement in terms of quality, content and management to make them more effective and enhance their use. In Tanzania, for example, the SDG data gap assessment report indicated

that 61 per cent of the data needed to monitor implementation of the SDGs are from administrative data, suggesting the need to invest more to strengthen compilation to cover identified data gaps. In Ethiopia, the CSA has set up a statistical unit to coordinate the NSS that is preparing documents on statistical standards and guidelines for administrative data management. They must also

provide training on the guidelines for regional statisticians and other experts involved in this work. The section conducts data quality assessments and shares the results with various sectors for appropriate action. In Kenya, administrative data were perceived to be regularly available but as needing some improvement in quality.

3.10 BARRIERS TO PRODUCTION, UPTAKE AND USE OF GENDER-SPECIFIC DATA FROM ADMINISTRATIVE SOURCES AND EFFORTS TO ADDRESS THESE

3.10.1 Barriers

The study countries cited a number of barriers to production, uptake and use of gender-specific data from administrative sources.

- **Delayed or irregular data production and dissemination:** Production or dissemination of statistics from administrative data may be delayed or irregular due to inadequate resources (e.g. funding, skilled staff), which may lead to difficulty in obtaining up-to-date gender statistics and limit the use of such data to support monitoring of national priority gender equality indicators and SDGs. In other cases, data are collected daily at the station level and compiled weekly, monthly, quarterly and annually and the returns submitted manually to headquarters for processing – posing a challenge to timely release of data or a relevant statistical product.
- **Incompleteness of data and poor data quality:** Administrative data often have missing values as a result of incomplete returns. This may require imputation, for which technical capacity may be limited, reducing the utility of the information produced. In some cases, inadequate supervision and monitoring of data collection activities renders the data unreliable and of questionable quality. In other cases, the sheer number of data collection stations spread across the country poses a challenge to coordination and compilation of administrative data by MDAs and may lead to incomplete, unusable data sets.
- **Mode of data transmission and sharing:** The method used to transmit data from the point of collection will determine the quality and timeliness of the statistical output that is likely to be produced. In countries such as Kenya, most administrative data producers transmit hard copies of data collection forms from the point of collection to headquarters for processing; this may lead to data loss in the case of form misplacement or spoilage. Just a few administrative data producers in Kenya transmit soft copies of the data collected using electronic media such as e-mail or web platforms. When data are compiled on an ad hoc basis in response to specific user requests rather than through agreed-upon dissemination platforms at scheduled intervals, the tendency to use the data diminishes.
- **Non-disaggregation or inadequate disaggregation of data:** The data may be completely non-disaggregated; or where available, disaggregation may only be according to sex.
- **Limited understanding of the importance of gender statistics and inadequate knowledge of gender indicators:** Some officers implementing programmes do not understand the importance of and need for gender statistics, lack sufficient knowledge of the national priority gender equality indicators and are unable to measure progress adequately on these indicators.
- **Resistance to change:** Administrative data producers may resist change, which might result in

the required indicators not being produced at the analysis stage.

- **Limited statistical literacy and access to data:** These factors can lead to poor use and inaccurate interpretation of administrative data.
- **Poor coordination and limited use of harmonized terms, concepts and standards:** These coordination and harmonization issues may lead to differences in methodologies used to produce data by different administrative data producers, which can present comparability challenges. In other cases, the quality of the data may be questionable.
- **Limited data validation and the unavailability of metadata:** These factors sometimes hinder uptake and use of administrative data. In some cases, not all data sent to headquarters from various data collection stations are validated, possibly because of inadequate staff or lack of required technical skills, limiting their quality and use. Administrative data are easier to use if there is metadata available to assist with interpretation.
- **Lack of “data culture”:** When the staff of administrative data-producing agencies do not properly appreciate the need and use of quality data, this can result in poor generation and use of statistics from administrative sources.
- **Unavailability of indicator frameworks for global, regional and national development plans:** This can lead to difficulties in identifying the minimum level of demand for statistical data and the type of data and disaggregation required.
- **Limited access to administrative data:** Not all data that administrative data producers collect are released to NSOs and other data users because some of these data are meant for internal consumption only. Such data are normally produced to assess the effectiveness of service delivery, monitor staffing levels and ensure value for money of institutional programmes of the respective agencies. This may hinder optimal use of administrative data because of the absence of certain relevant variables required for statistical analysis.

- **Non-application of technology and internationally accepted or nationally updated statistical methodologies:** These factors in data production and management processes and non-use of internationally accepted statistical methodologies can be a barrier to the use of administrative data. A lack of dedicated statistical units in all MDAs and the non-availability of a strong, active management information system at the lowest administrative level or data collection or data capturing level may explain this.
- **Lack of systematic statistical coordination of data producers and users:** Bringing data producers and users together in a regular, systematic manner will ensure improvements in the production and dissemination of statistics and increase the participation of users in production of data within the NSS and remove barriers to the use of such data.

Only one administrative data manager (in Malawi) indicated that the data his institution produces are mostly used to address the ministry’s data needs, and there are no barriers to their uptake and use.

3.10.2 Strategies to Overcome Barriers

To address these challenges, the various NSSs have established strategies to leverage the quality, availability and use of administrative data. Ethiopia, for example, has prioritized data quality specifically for administrative data production and has developed the Ethiopia DQAF to improve the quality of data the various sectors and regions produce²⁵. Sectors that have been assessed in Ethiopia include the ministries of health, education, water, irrigation, agriculture and livestock, energy and the Ethiopian Road Authority. The national guidelines for administrative data management have also been customized so MDAs and regional government administrative offices can use them to improve data quality. Annual training sessions in administrative data management and use have been organized for members of the Ethiopian NSS to build their capacity in producing quality data from administrative sources. Guidelines and training sessions are intended to ensure process and methodological improvements in the generation and compilation of data from administrative records in all MDAs to support monitoring of SDG indicators and regional and

country-specific policy indicators. This has improved the timeliness and quality of statistical outputs that MDAs produce and has facilitated the use of administrative data for monitoring both gender-sensitive and non-gender-sensitive SDGs. Nevertheless, the Ethiopian DQAF needs to be updated, and each sector should have its own DQAF drawn from this national framework. Sector-specific guidelines should be prepared based on the national guidelines for administrative data management to improve the quality of administrative data.

In addition to a data quality assessment framework²⁶, Tanzania has prepared guidelines and definitions for official data producers to assist them in improving the quality of their data. A draft guideline for compiling regional profiles from administrative data produced by the various sectors has been prepared as well. Administrative data producers collaborate with the NSO to develop data collection forms. In Rwanda, the National Statistical Institute has general guidelines for data collection and a national quality assurance framework to guide data production in the NSS²⁷. The institute provides technical support to administrative data producers, advises on data collection methodologies, and reviews and approves the statistical reports of these data producers before they are published. The country has also compiled a list of gender-specific indicators in different domains that it shares with members of the NSS. In Kenya,

as part of its coordinating role, the NBS has established technical working committees in all sectors. These meet quarterly to harmonize and validate the quality of administrative data, which are mainly collected by non-statisticians. The committees also ensure that the validated data are submitted to the NBS for analysis and publication in a timely manner.

In terms of what national producers of administrative data can do to improve the quality, availability and accessibility of gender statistics, respondents from the NSS gave a range of answers, citing the need for institutionalization and ownership of statistical activities by enacting or revising relevant laws on production, use and dissemination of statistics using proper production, documentation and dissemination processes; giving due recognition and attention to statistical activities in government organizations; coordinating and harmonizing statistical production and use by using standardized documents and procedures for data collection; using technology in data collection and improving the compilation, analysis and dissemination of data and the convening of regular meetings with producers and users of data to help identify user needs and ensure users understand the data production process. Others pointed out the need to create a platform for information sharing and collaborating with NSOs and other stakeholders, and to ensure adequate budget allocation at all levels of the data production process.

3.11 COUNTRY CASE STUDIES ON BEST PRACTICES IN USE OF ADMINISTRATIVE DATA TO GENERATE GENDER STATISTICS

This section presents country case studies of best practices in use of gender statistics generated from administrative data for policy and programme interventions. Relevant best practices are summarized in Boxes 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5.

3.11.1 Kenya

In March 2009, the Kenya Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development developed a monitoring and evaluation framework for gender mainstreaming. The objective was to provide

a structured process that will enable tracking of progress, ensure informed decision-making in the planning and implementation of interventions, inform prudent use of resources and avoid wasting resources, and ensure that none of the key stakeholders duplicate efforts²⁸. Consequently, core performance indicators have been identified for each of the stakeholders, including programme implementers, the parastatal management team, gender commissioners and key development partners. These performance indicators are linked to the gender mainstreaming core priority areas

and based on the National Policy on Gender and Development (2000); the National Plan of Action to implement the National Gender Policy (2008–2012); the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development draft Strategic Plan (2008–2012); Vision 2030; the Medium-Term Strategy (2008–2012); and the National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy developed in 2004. The framework has two main types of indicators: impact and outcome-level indicators, which measure progress over the long term; and intermediary results and output indicators, which measure the results of the implementation process in each key priority area.

The data source and frequency of data collection and reporting for each of the indicators have been specified, and administrative data feature prominently. The country has developed an E-National Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy, under the aegis of the Ministry of Devolution and Planning, to capture and present data in real time and in colour code to provide the implementation status of defined SDG indicators at a glance. Similarly, as the coordinator of the NSS, the Kenya NBS has responsibility for coordinating and collaborating with key data producers, including all MDAs that produce gender data as part of their routine activities to compile the required statistics. In line with this, the Kenya NBS has, in collaboration with the Ministry of Public Service, Youth and Gender Affairs and the National Gender Equality Commission, established the Gender Statistics Technical Committee to review priority indicators and validate gender data generated in all sectors of the economy. The government is training statistical officers, planning officers and gender officers at the national and subnational levels to enhance collection, collation and analysis of gender-sensitive data²⁹. Box 3.1 reflects some uses of administrative data in Kenya³⁰.

3.11.2 Tanzania

In line with Tanzania's constitution, its Vision 2025 stipulates equality of men and women, and recognizes gender equality and the empowerment of women in all socioeconomic and political relations and cultures as one of the strategies to attain this vision. Key national policy frameworks such as the Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (MKUKUTA II in Tanzania Mainland

BOX 3.1

Use of Administrative Data in Kenya

In 2015, Kenya produced a gender data sheet involving data from all sources (surveys, administrative data and censuses) to guide policy formulation and planning. A 2015 report provides information on the status of women across various sectors. In addition, Kenya has been tracking budgetary allocation towards women's empowerment endeavours, including women's enterprises.

In terms of specific administrative data use, in 2009, the score for the women's access to land measure was estimated at 1.0, which is defined as impossible. However, in 2014 after the passage and implementation of the 2010 Constitution and the 2012 Land Act, the measure decreased to 0.5, indicating significantly improved access to land for women. Nevertheless, much more needs to be done in terms of access to non-land property, which remained unchanged at 0.5. Based on these findings, the government has enacted laws to protect women's inheritance of their father's and/or spouse's properties, including land; these laws override customary laws and considerations.

and MKUZA II in Zanzibar) have identified gender equality and women's empowerment as a major development concern requiring the use of multi-sectoral approaches. Tanzania's current five-year development plan (2016/17–2020/21) emphasizes women's economic empowerment as a means of bringing about equality in economic empowerment³¹. To ensure that these frameworks are well implemented, the Tanzania Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children has been charged with coordinating and providing guidance for mainstreaming gender in all development processes. Box 3.2 outlines the use of administrative data to monitor progress on gender issues and related policy interventions.

BOX 3.2

Use of Administrative Data in Tanzania

The goal of increasing gender equality and women's empowerment in Tanzania is partly based on recent institutional (administrative) data that suggest that, despite the remarkable progress the country has made in gender equality and women's empowerment, attainment of gender parity among students transitioning to secondary schools, and the growth of women in senior positions (from 33 percent in 2010/11 to 41 percent in 2014/15), the yield per hectare in agriculture was persistently lower on land worked primarily by women, making them poorer than men. In addition, women marry before the age of 18 and start raising families soon after, limiting their education and future employment options. Patriarchal norms largely fuel this situation.

Interventions such as gender-responsive budgeting and the Southern African Development Community Protocol on Gender and Development, which calls for 50/50 representation on all decision-making organs, are being implemented to ensure gender balance and increase women's ability to contribute to overall national socioeconomic transformation. Other strategies in the five-year NDP include rekindling growth in sectors such as agriculture and manufacturing in which the poor tend to derive their livelihoods and which therefore have a strong potential to reduce poverty. Interventions are also in place to combat the low participation of women in economic activities and increase women's economic empowerment, reduce gender income inequality and end child marriage and early pregnancy by 2021.

3.11.3 Uganda

In Uganda, information from the education and health management information systems and from the annual statistical abstracts that MDAs and higher local governments produce contain gender statistics for national and subnational planning and decision-making. Annual crime reports by the Uganda police force incorporate gender statistics,

which have greatly informed policies and interventions on GBV, among others.

In November 2016, the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development launched the National Policy on the Elimination of Gender-Based Violence in Uganda under the theme "Peace in the Home to Peace in the Nation, Making Education Safe for All". The policy aimed to assist stakeholders in increasing their programmatic efforts to prevent and respond to GBV. The underlying reason for this policy came from annual police crime reports, which identified defilement as the leading sex-related crime in the country, with prevalence increasing since 2011. The ministry has also put in place a national GBV database to monitor trends in GBV.

Another study from the Ministry of Education and Sports in 2012 revealed alarming levels of GBV in primary (77.7 per cent) and secondary schools (82 per cent), resulting in effects such as psychological trauma, sexually transmitted infections, unintended pregnancies, nightmares, and feelings of shame and guilt among the victims. This was in addition to routine corporal punishment meted out to students in schools (74.3 per cent). Sexual abuse was also found to be prevalent in universities and other tertiary institutions; the perpetrators were mostly people who had power over their victims

BOX 3.3

Use of Administrative Data in Uganda

Uganda's Ministry of Education and Sports prepared Guidelines on Reporting, Tracking, Referral and Response on Violence against Children. The Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development developed National Parenting Guidelines to create awareness among parents to ensure that every child enjoys positive parenting as a human right as enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

In 2014, the ministry launched the Uganda Child Help Line, a toll-free service that operates 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. People can call in to seek information, formally report cases of violence against children and be referred to nearby authorities and service providers.

(e.g. teachers, tutors, administrators). Box 3.3 indicates some of the policy responses to the findings of these studies.

3.11.4 Ethiopia

Article 25 of Ethiopia's Constitution states that all persons are equal before the law. Article 35 elaborates, "Women have equal rights with men in all economic, social and political activities". The latest Ethiopia Women's Policy and Development Package was prepared based on these constitutional articles, and the government approved it in March 2017. The main objective of the policy is to create an enabling environment for women to participate at all levels in economic, social and political activities. To ensure that existing data are fully used for planning and decision-making, CSA has started compiling gender statistics from the administrative data generated by sector ministries such as those of health and education.

Preparation of guidelines for administrative data management by CSA, in collaboration with some sector ministries and UNICEF, is expected to facilitate administrative data production across the country. Box 3.4 illustrates the use of administrative data to monitor gender-specific indicators in Ethiopia³². Generally, increasing and emerging demands for data are expected to increase efforts to produce and make administrative data accessible. For example, CSA, in collaboration with UN Women and other stakeholders, has been working to mine data (data extraction) from various sources over time to compute gender-specific indicators. Close relationships and collaborations with the NSS and international agencies will help improve the production and use of gender statistics from administrative data and raise awareness about existing gender inequalities and the need to protect women's rights.

3.11.5 Malawi

The 2015 Malawi National Gender Policy seeks to address several challenges emerging from implementation of the 2000–2005 National Gender Policy, including persistent unequal power relations between men and women and boys and girls due to strong patriarchal attitudes, increasing cases of GBV, high HIV and AIDS infection rates especially

BOX 3.4

Use of Administrative Data in Ethiopia

Available administrative data suggest that some progress has been made with respect to implementing strategies to enhance gender equality and women's empowerment. For example, women's representation in leadership and decision-making positions has gradually but progressively increased, with women occupying 38.8 per cent of national parliamentary seats at the federal level, 20.6 per cent of the judiciary and 13.3 per cent of decision-making positions in the executive branch.

Substantial improvements in gender parity have also been achieved in education. In the 2014/15 academic year, total primary net enrolment was 90.9 per cent for girls and 97.5 per cent for boys, up from approximately 84 per cent and 90 per cent, respectively, in 2012/13. Also, the share of women enrolled in technical and vocational education and training increased from 48 per cent in 2011/12 to 52 per cent in 2015/16, and the share of women enrolled in undergraduate institutions rose from 27 per cent in 2010/11 to 34 per cent in 2015/16.

Women accounted for 35.2 per cent of public sector employees in 2015/16. Men held 62.6 per cent of jobs created in micro and small enterprises in 2015/16. For women, the largest proportion (26.2 per cent) of jobs created was in construction; for men, it was in urban agriculture (29.4 per cent).

in women and girls, limited male involvement in reproductive health and HIV and AIDS programmes, continued high dropout rates for girls from school, high poverty levels particularly among women, limited participation and representation of women in decision-making processes at all levels, inadequate enforcement of laws and huge disparities in access and control over resources by the majority of women³³. For example, data compiled from administrative sources show that female representation in Parliament dropped from 43 women in 2009 to 32 in 2014³⁴. The outlook in terms of gender issues is to increase women's involvement in decision-making

positions through merit-based appointment or affirmative action.

3.11.6 Rwanda

In terms of emerging good practices in the use of administrative data to generate gender statistics, Rwanda has established a gender monitoring office that is responsible for monitoring all national and international gender commitments in the private and public sectors using gender-sensitive indicators computed from administrative and other data sources. After the genocide in Rwanda in 1994, the government recognized women as key players in the country's reconstruction and development. Several policies and programmes were introduced to maximize women's participation in the nation's socioeconomic development. These include the Constitution of the Republic of Rwanda (2003) (as revised on 24 December 2015 in Article 10, 4 to enshrine the promotion of gender equality, family promotion and protection of children's rights among the major priorities of the government of Rwanda); Vision 2020 (1998–1999); the New Civil Code; the Economic Development and Poverty Reduction Strategy (2008–2012); the National Gender Policy (2010); and establishment of the Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion, the Gender Monitoring Office, the National Women's Council and the Forum of Rwandan Women Parliamentarians.

Some of the outcomes of these policies based on administrative data are described in Box 3.5³⁵. Even though enrolment in tertiary education increased between 2011 and 2016, male enrolment was significantly higher than female enrolment (58 per cent versus 42 per cent), suggesting that young women are missing out on opportunities for higher education³⁶. Such gender gaps in enrolment at the tertiary level will ultimately increase gender inequality in employment and incomes. This analysis, which the availability and accessibility of up-to-date institutional data have made possible, has opened up opportunities for educational authorities and other policymakers to increase the inclusiveness of education at all levels for male and female students and to ensure that the expected outcomes are achieved.

BOX 3.5

Use of Administrative Data in Rwanda

Available institutional data suggest that Rwandan policies and programmes led to women securing 61.3 per cent of seats in the Parliament and 38.5 per cent of seats in the Senate in 2018. Rwanda is the first country in the world to record a majority of women in Parliament. Women in leadership positions also increased from 22.0 per cent in 2016/17 to 24.5 per cent in 2017/18, and poverty among women fell from 39.1 per cent in 2014 to 38.1 per cent in 2017. Even though maternal mortality dropped from 476 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2010 to 210 in 2014/15, the level is still considered to be high. An audit of maternal deaths by cause showed that, for three consecutive years (2013 to 2015), postpartum haemorrhage was the leading cause of maternal deaths in Rwanda, leading to calls for health providers to be more accountable.

Primary school enrolment achieved gender parity in 2012, with girls' net enrolment (98 per cent) being slightly higher than that of boys (95 per cent); net secondary school enrolment rose from 27 per cent in 2011 to 30 per cent in 2012 for girls and from 24 per cent to 26 per cent for boys. Data for 2017 reveal that net secondary school enrolment continues to be higher for girls (36 per cent) than for boys (32 per cent).

Despite these achievements, key constraints still hinder the enhancement of gender equality and women's empowerment. For example, women have limited access to credit and wage employment. Following a study on gender and access to finance, in 2017 the Gender Monitoring Office advocated the need for the country to, among other things, invest in financial capacity-building programmes for women to reinforce their ability to act as informed, educated financial consumers.



4

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 CONCLUSIONS

The goal of this study was to explore the extent of the use and potential of administrative data to bridge observed data gaps in gender-specific SDG indicators. Three main research methods were used: desk reviews of relevant documentation, interviews with key stakeholders and case studies to identify best practices in use of administrative data for gender equality measurement. The study focused on three pathfinder countries (Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda) and three non-pathfinder countries (Ethiopia, Malawi, Rwanda).

Findings revealed that administrative data systems have great potential for generating data for monitoring SDG 5 and other gender-specific SDG indicators. Sixty-three per cent of the 54 gender-specific SDG indicators can be derived from administrative data sources, and 28 of the 45 gender-specific SDG indicators that were reported to have data gaps (62.2 per cent) can be derived from administrative sources. Of the 45 gender-specific indicators with data gaps, 5 are Tier 1 indicators, 23 are Tier 2, 15 are Tier 3 and 2 are multi-tier. The indicators with data gaps are generally those for which data do not exist or where countries face methodological challenges with their computation. It is thus important to expand existing databases or explore ways of increasing the technical capacity of data producers to generate these indicators.

Administrative data in the study countries are mainly derived from routine operations of MDAs such as health, education, science and technology, gender, CRVS, population registration, justice, interior (police), employment, labour, agriculture, local government, land, housing, finance and telecommunications. The data these institutions generate cover topics related to social protection, social welfare, child protection, early child development, health, education, women in politics, women in decision-making, women entrepreneurship schemes, youth livelihood programmes, GBV, vital statistics, demographic statistics, labour, crime and remittances, among others.

In response to how stakeholders perceive the quality of administrative data, some were of the view that the data were comprehensive and met almost all the administrative data requirements; others

indicated that the data the administrative data systems produce are not complete and called for strengthening these systems in terms of available human resources, coordination, data collection and compilation methodology, and data reporting systems.

Across the study countries, administrative data system managers were confronted with capacity challenges that affected the functioning and timely production of quality data from administrative data systems. These included inadequate funding, absent or weak data collection systems, weak coordination of the data collection process, lack of awareness of gender-specific issues, and limited understanding and application of gender concepts and standards for data collection and analysis. Other weaknesses were the limited ability of administrative data producers to identify priority data needs and produce statistics in a harmonized manner; inadequate human resources and technical capacity in data collection methodologies, data management, data compilation, analysis and reporting of gender statistics; and lack of statistical capacity for data quality assurance.

As a result of the above capacity challenges, many barriers were reported that hinder use of gender-specific data from administrative sources. These were, among others, delayed or irregular data production and dissemination, incompleteness of data and poor data quality, inadequate disaggregation of data, difficulty understanding the importance of and need for gender statistics, lack of sufficient knowledge of the gender equality indicators, low statistical literacy, limited access to administrative data, and inadequate coordination and harmonization of the data production process.

These barriers have prompted NSSs in some of the countries to establish strategies to leverage the quality, availability and use of administrative data. These include guidelines for administrative data management, data quality assessment frameworks and technical support to administrative data producers in developing data collection forms, data collection methodologies and statistical reporting of their data. Nevertheless, the quality of data generated from some of these administrative

sources was found to require further improvement. Assessment of the quality of vital statistics (mainly births and deaths) produced in the study countries suggests that even though quality indicators such as relevance, comparability, interpretability and accessibility are somewhat satisfactory, more effort needs to be made to improve the quality of the data that the responsible institutions produce in terms of their completeness, accuracy and timeliness. For example, the completeness of birth registration varied from 2.7 per cent in Ethiopia to 66.9 per cent in Kenya. These figures are well below the 80 per cent WHO recommends. In terms of timeliness, the 2017 endline assessment of Kenya's CRVS system discovered that civil registration officers were submitting only one-third of CRVS monthly summary returns on time (15th of each month) to CRS headquarters, which in turn releases them to the Kenya NBS for analysis and publication – leading to mismatches in the vital statistics the CRS eventually releases and those the Kenya NBS publishes.

There are also inherent deficiencies with cause-of-death statistics due to limited skills associated with use of the ICD in coding data. In Kenya, cause-of-death information is collected on two registration forms: Form D1, which a medical practitioner completes and is used to report deaths that occur in health facilities; and Form D2, which CRS staff use to register deaths that occur at home. Information on Form D2 is based on a cause of death selected from a list of probable causes and is not medically certified, whereas that on Form D1 is based on ICD classification. In addition to the quality challenges found to be associated with these cause-of-death data, those that the MOH generates are different from those that the CRS produces because they use different methods of compilation¹. Consequently, as part of good practice, the Health Technical Working Committee recommends that the MOH and the CRS work together to harmonize their coding procedures by using the ICD.

In all the study countries, specific institutions have been charged with monitoring, coordinating and facilitating national-level reporting on gender-specific data from administrative sources, but varied structures are in place for reporting these data. In some countries (e.g. Malawi), the statistical or planning and research department of the gender ministry compiles and publishes reports on gender

statistics and consolidates reports for regional and global institutions. In others (e.g. Tanzania), a group of institutions has that responsibility. Elsewhere (e.g. Uganda), NSOs are assigned the task of reporting on such statistics using the national SDG indicator framework. In addition, all the study countries report on gender-specific SDG indicators at the continental level through the regional economic commissions and the Pan-African institutions.

Methods used in sharing and disseminating gender-specific data from administrative sources vary depending on the legal provisions regarding accessibility to data. These include statistical publications, press releases, newsletters, policy briefs, magazines, dissemination workshops, seminars, conferences, data forums, data sheets, gender profiles, fact sheets, handbooks, institutional websites and national dissemination portals. Data can also be provided to users upon request.

The best practices case studies indicate that efforts are being made to enhance administrative data quality by improving data production practices, as Ethiopia's National Guidelines on Administrative Data Management and Tanzania's digitization of the birth registration process demonstrate. Similarly, the study countries have used and continue to use a range of gender statistics produced from various types of administrative data to monitor gender equality and women's empowerment and to design policies and programmes to enhance the status of women. In Kenya, this has led to the enactment of laws to protect women's inheritance of their father's or spouse's property, including land. In Uganda, a national gender policy was developed and launched in 2016 based on consistent and increasing reports of defilement and GBV from crime records and education data. In Tanzania, based on the lower yield per hectare of agricultural land cultivated by women than by men, interventions have been put in place to increase women's agricultural output, combat low participation rates of women in economic activities and reduce their poverty level. In Rwanda, on the basis of data generated from the education management information system, policies and programmes were implemented to increase school enrolment and consequently to increase participation in economic activities and reduce poverty levels in women. Ethiopia has developed a women's

policy and development package to create an enabling environment for women to participate in all levels of economic, social and political activities. This policy was the result of data that various sector ministries compiled indicating existing gender inequalities. In Malawi, the continuous decline in and limited representation and participation of women in decision-making processes and gender disparities in many socioeconomic domains led to formulation of the 2015 National Gender Policy. Administrative data systems are therefore critical for monitoring and evaluation of progress made in gender equality and women's empowerment indicators in the study countries; they need to be enhanced to ensure that they are comprehensively and efficiently used.

Countries do not strictly follow the metadata UNSD publishes for computation of gender-specific indicators. There appear to be inconsistencies in the sources of data that are expected to be used for producing specific indicators. For example, even though the desired source of data for the production of indicators 3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2 and 16.1.1 is the CRVS system, the current level of coverage of these data systems in the study countries means that they must rely on survey data to compute the indicators. This calls for immediate and ongoing improvement in the study countries' CRVS systems in terms of infrastructure,

human resources and data production practices to ensure that there is ready availability of good-quality data for generation of these gender indicators. In the case of Ethiopia, the CRVS system is at an embryonic stage, so efforts should be intensified to bring this administrative data system to a level at which it can be used to compile the required gender indicators. SDG indicator 5.a.1 should be derived from surveys, but three countries (Ethiopia, Malawi, Rwanda) rely on administrative data sources, suggesting the need for training administrative and non-administrative data producers in the study countries on the SDG metadata UNSD publishes, as well as evaluation of the methodology used in generating the indicator. Kenya and Rwanda mentioned one national indicator each as not being applicable to them – 5.3.2 and 16.7.1, which can be generated from survey and administrative data, respectively. This is further indication that the countries need to be thoroughly familiar with the framework and metadata for monitoring gender-specific SDG indicators. In general, there is a need for targeted training of administrative and non-administrative data producers to ensure that NSS stakeholders in individual countries have a comprehensive knowledge of their own and other stakeholders' roles in meeting gender-specific SDG data needs.

4.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the study's findings, the following initiatives are proposed for implementation by the key stakeholders to ensure that administrative data systems function effectively and generate good-quality gender-specific data.

4.2.1 UN Women

As the key regional partner responsible for gender-specific SDG indicators, UN Women can support the strengthening and coordination of specific activities as follows:

- Sensitizing countries to the need to fully integrate gender dimensions into their administrative data production systems
- Raising awareness of subject matter statisticians about gender concerns and the importance of gender equality for national development to

ensure that attention is focused on gender-sensitive statistics

- Ensuring that countries are aware of the indicators that need to be produced at the country level to avoid gaps in the national gender-specific SDG indicator list
- Supporting African countries in using sound international standards and methods in the production of quality gender statistics
- Providing technical assistance and financial support for the production and dissemination of gender-sensitive data from administrative sources, including facilitating in-depth analysis of existing data to bridge observed gender data gaps and ensure broader disaggregation of data

- Partnering with relevant regional stakeholders to track national-level gender-specific SDG indicators

4.2.2 Regional and International Partners

Regional partners such as the Pan-African institutions (AfDB, the African Union Commission, UNECA, the African Capacity Building Foundation), regional economic communities, other regional partners (AFRISTAT, civil society organizations) and international partners and donor agencies such as the International Labour Organization and other members of the United Nations family, PARIS21 and the World Bank can collaborate to advance the production of gender statistics in a number of ways, including the following:

- Building the capacity of staff of administrative and non-administrative data systems in data collection methodologies, international standards and guidelines, quality assurance and analytical procedures to ensure the quality and harmonization of gender data collected and timely dissemination of the statistical output emanating from the process
- Providing technical support to administrative data producers to ensure that metadata are regularly produced alongside gender statistics publications and related data sets
- Supporting development of national guidelines for production of gender statistics by administrative and non-administrative data producers
- Assisting in defining methodologies for generating Tier 3 indicators and providing training in application of methods for complex Tier 2 indicators
- Promoting regular allocation of financial and human resources dedicated to strengthening administrative data collection systems

4.2.3 Study Countries

Governments in the study countries can support the development and strengthening of administrative data systems that contribute to production of gender-specific SDG indicators through regular allocation of funds needed for the following:

- Acquiring infrastructure and tools for data gathering, documentation, storage, security, processing, analysis, dissemination and archiving; for example, NSSs can be supported in removing barriers to the development of good CRVS systems and other administrative data systems, such as by replacing paper-based data collection methods with electronic data capture
- Establishing statistical units in all MDAs and ensuring that they employ trained statisticians and specifically and regularly allocate annual budgets for their operations
- Recruiting personnel with the skills necessary for administrative data collection, data management and analysis
- Ensuring that staff of administrative data systems are equipped with relevant, up-to-date data recording, processing and analytical tools (e.g. computers, personal digital assistants, computer-assisted personal interviewing, open data kits, data digitization, stable Internet systems and statistical software) to increase efficiency in the collection and compilation of gender statistics from these sources
- Developing protocols and policies to guide gender-sensitive data production and dissemination
- Providing regular training of personnel responsible for administrative data production on new methodologies needed to measure pertinent emerging issues
- Helping other NSSs develop national guidelines for administrative data management such as Ethiopia's

4.2.4 National Statistical Offices

As leaders of NSSs, NSOs have major roles to play in enhancing the quality and availability of gender data from administrative sources, including the following:

- Building relationships with users of gender-specific data and organizing user-producer dialogues to create awareness of data needs and the processes involved in data production
- Equipping administrative data producers, including those responsible for the production of CRVS, with adequate knowledge of gender-sensitive

SDG indicators and highlighting those relevant to their domain

- Implementing national strategies for the development of statistics that ensure that administrative data systems are fully gender responsive through the use of gender-sensitive data collection tools
- Reviewing data collection forms that administrative data producers use to ensure they cover all domain-specific indicators
- Building strong coordination and cooperation with MDAs to ensure harmonization of methodologies and data production and management processes, as well as timely production of relevant indicators; for example, until a CRVS system is enhanced, the NSO can collaborate with the police service and justice ministry to produce indicator 16.1.1 based on the concept and definition outlined for the indicator
- Establishing quality assurance mechanisms related to the collection and processing of data at the subnational and central levels of responsible institutions to enhance the quality of administrative data produced
- Helping administrative data managers to adopt better data management processes
- Conducting periodic data quality assessments of existing administrative data systems
- Assisting administrative data producers to overcome challenges in the compilation of gender-specific data, including incompleteness of data, difficulty applying data collection methodologies and data management and analytical challenges
- Creating awareness among users regarding the type of gender-sensitive data that existing administrative data systems regularly produce
- Providing leadership in the development of national SDG indicator frameworks to support monitoring and evaluation of gender-specific SDG indicators
- Working with the SDG monitoring agency in the country to communicate monitoring, reporting and evaluation mechanisms related to the SDG framework to ensure that all stakeholders understand their roles in the statistical production process to improve compliance and sustainability in gender data production and dissemination
- Ensuring that the NSS has a gender monitoring team or agency responsible for regularly monitoring all gender-sensitive indicators in the public and private sectors
- Collaborating with key administrative data producers in the NSS to publish gender-sensitive reports
- Working with administrative data producers within the NSS to establish systems to increase the accessibility of gender-sensitive administrative data and related products to users through regular statistical releases, publications and data sharing

4.2.5 Further Research

To enhance further improvements in administrative data production, further research is needed to assess the quality of the administrative data production process (including the production system and the soundness of the statistical methods used in generating the data) and the quality of statistical products generated from the data produced.



ANNEXES

ANNEX A: KEY INFORMANTS

Name	Job title	Institution	Country
National Statistical Offices			
Sorsie Gutema Deme	Director, Gender Mainstreaming Directorate	Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia	Ethiopia
Venuste Nkurunziza	Gender and Youth Statistician	National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda	Rwanda
Rosemary Uside Kongani	Statistician	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics	Kenya
Mariam Kitembe	Gender Data Focal Person	National Bureau of Statistics	Tanzania
Glory Mshali	Statistician	Malawi National Statistical Office	Malawi
SDG Coordinators/Coordinators of National Statistical Systems			
Fekade Asrat	Data Quality and Standards Senior Expert	Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia	Ethiopia
Michel R. Ndakize	Director of Demographic and Social Statistics Unit	National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda	Rwanda
Ruth Minja	Principal Statistician and Manager of Environmental Statistics	National Bureau of Statistics	Tanzania
Norah Madaya	Director, Statistical Coordination Services	Uganda Bureau of Statistics	Uganda
Mary Wanyonyi	Statistical Coordination and Methods/SDG Coordinator	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics	Kenya
Administrative Data Managers			
Richard Chakhame	Director of Planning and Research	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Welfare	Malawi
Faustin Nilingiyimana	Vital Statistics and Cross-cutting Social Statistics Team Leader	National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda	Rwanda
Charles Etoma	Data Manager/Gender Statistician	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development	Uganda
Christopher Sanga	Statistician	Registration Insolvency and Trusteeship Agency	Tanzania
Peer Reviewers			
Sorsie Gutema Deme	Director, Gender Mainstreaming Directorate	Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia	Ethiopia
Fekade Asrat	Data Quality and Standards Senior Expert	Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia	Ethiopia
Yelfigne Abegaz	Programme Coordinator	UN Women	Ethiopia
Abdulkadir Amin Awes	Senior Manager, Social Statistics	Kenya National Bureau of Statistics	Kenya
Glory Mshali	Statistician	Malawi National Statistical Office	Malawi
Venuste Nkurunziza	Gender and Youth Statistician	National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda	Rwanda
Mariam Kitembe	Gender Data Focal Person	National Bureau of Statistics	Tanzania
Diana Byanjeru	Senior Officer, Gender Statistics	Uganda Bureau of Statistics	Uganda

ANNEX B: QUESTIONS FOR HEADS OF NATIONAL STATISTICAL OFFICES

- Q1.** Which of the Tier 1 gender-specific indicators of the SDGs is your country unable to produce currently? Can you explain your country's inability to produce this indicator?
- Q2.** Which of the Tier 2 gender-specific indicators of the SDGs is your country unable to produce currently? Can you explain your country's inability to produce this indicator?
- Q3.** Which of the Tier 3 gender-specific indicators of the SDGs is your country unable to produce currently? Can you explain your country's inability to produce this indicator?
- Q4.** List the key agencies or actors which currently compile administrative data that are relevant to monitoring gender-specific SDGs, in particular SDG 5 and other specific gender-specific indicators for which information can be collected.
- Q5.** How does your institution perceive the efficacy of administrative data production in general?
- Q6.** How does your institution perceive the quality and usefulness of administrative data in tracking progress on the SDGs general?
- Q7.** Please describe the primary capacity challenges that impede the production of gender data from administrative sources in your country.
- Q8.** Are there any specific SDG gender data gaps that can be filled with information from administrative sources? Which indicators are these?
- Q9.** What can the producers of administrative data do to significantly improve on the quality, availability, accessibility and use of gender statistics in this country?
- Q10.** What strategy is your institution putting in place to leverage the quality, availability and use of administrative data?
- Q11.** Does the country already have in existence a set of guidelines for collecting administrative data for gender statistics? If yes, what is included in them? (Can you please share?).
- Q12.** What is the status of use of these guidelines?
- Q13.** What should be in these guidelines to make them more effective?
- Q14.** How can the guidelines be rolled out or disseminated for use?
- Q15.** Does your country have a quality framework for assessing the quality of the administrative data produced? What is this framework? Can you please share?
- Q16.** What are some of the emerging good practices in your country that provide opportunities for enhanced monitoring of the gender-specific SDG indicators using administrative data?
- Q17.** What is the status of the civil registration and vital statistics system in the country, and what can be done to make it more gender-responsive?

ANNEX C: QUESTIONS FOR SDG AND NATIONAL STATISTICAL SYSTEM COORDINATORS

- Q1.** What are the key administrative data systems that currently exist in your country?
- Q2.** Which agencies or actors currently compile administrative data that are relevant to monitoring gender-specific SDGs, in particular SDG 5 and other specific gender-specific indicators for which information can be collected?
- Q3.** For each of the data systems, kindly indicate the following:
 - Are the data collected comprehensive (Do they cover the government's gender-specific SDG indicators in the area?) If not, what major data needs still exist?
 - How do you think the gender data gap for this data system can be filled?
 - Has there been any attempt to update the data collection tool to bridge the gender data gap since the launching of the SDGs? If not, what is holding back the review and modification of the tool?
 - What are the main avenues for sharing or disseminating the data, and with what frequency are these data shared or disseminated?
 - What national monitoring and evaluation processes are specifically targeted with these data?
 - In what ways are these administrative data shared or disseminated?
 - What kind of structures do you have in place to facilitate national, regional and global level reporting?
- Q4.** How does your organization perceive the efficacy of administrative data production in general?
- Q5.** How does your organization perceive the quality and usefulness of administrative data in tracking progress on the SDGs general?
- Q6.** Please describe the primary capacity challenges that impede the production of gender data from administrative sources in your country.
- Q7.** What barriers exist to prevent the uptake and use of administrative data?
- Q8.** What can the producers of administrative data do to significantly improve on the quality, availability, accessibility and use of gender statistics in this country?
- Q9.** What strategy is the national statistical system putting in place to leverage the quality, availability and use administrative data?
- Q10.** Does the country already have in existence a set of guidelines to collect administrative data for gender statistics? If yes, what is included in them? (Can you please share?).
- Q11.** What should be in these guidelines to make them more effective?
- Q12.** How can the guidelines be rolled out and disseminated for use?
- Q13.** Does your country have a quality framework for assessing the quality of the administrative data produced? What is this framework? Can you share?
- Q14.** What are some of the emerging good practices in your country that provide opportunities for enhanced monitoring of the gender-specific SDG indicators using administrative data?
- Q15.** Which of the gender-specific SDGs indicators is your country unable to produce currently? Can you explain your country's inability to produce this indicator?

ANNEX D: QUESTIONS FOR MANAGERS OF KEY ADMINISTRATIVE DATA SOURCES FOR GENDER-SPECIFIC SDGs

- Q1.** What institution or agency do you work with?
- Q2.** What type of administrative data does your institution produce?
- Q3.** Do you currently compile administrative data that are relevant to monitoring gender-specific SDGs, in particular SDG 5 and other specific gender-specific indicators for which data can be collected?
- Q4.** Do you think that the data collected are comprehensive? In other words, do they cover the expected gender indicators related to your institution's area of focus? If not, which of the relevant SDG indicators are missing? What major data needs still need to be addressed?
- Q5.** How do you think the gender data gap in your institution's administrative data system can be filled?
- Q6.** Are the data collection tools effective? If not, what can be done to improve or enhance data collection?
- Q7.** Has there been any attempt to update the data collection tool to bridge the gender data gap since the launching of the SDGs in 2015? If not, what is holding back the review and modification of the administrative data collection tool?
- Q8.** What are the main avenues for sharing or disseminating the data produced by your institution and with what frequency?
- Q9.** What products does your institution regularly generate from its administrative data?
- Q10.** What national monitoring and evaluation processes are specifically targeted with these data?
- Q11.** What kind of structures does your institution have in place to facilitate national-, regional- and global-level reporting?
- Q12.** Please describe the primary capacity challenges that impede the production of gender data from your institution's administrative data source.
- Q13.** What barriers exist to prevent the uptake and use of the administrative data produced by your institution?
- Q14.** How does your institution perceive the efficacy of its administrative data production?
- Q15.** How does your institution perceive the quality and usefulness of its administrative data in tracking progress on the SDGs general?
- Q16.** Do you have any guidelines and/or quality framework for producing good-quality administrative data for gender statistics? Which guidelines and/or framework is this? Can you please share?
- Q17.** What is the status of use of these guidelines?
- Q18.** What should be in these guidelines to make them more effective?
- Q19.** How can the guidelines be rolled out or disseminated?
- Q20.** What strategy has your institution put in place to improve on the quality, availability, accessibility and use of the gender data it produces? What more can your institution do to significantly improve on the quality, availability, accessibility and use of gender statistics in this country?
- Q21.** Can you share with us any good practices in your administrative data production process that provide opportunities for enhanced monitoring of the gender-specific SDG indicators?
- Q22.** What is the status of the civil registration and vital statistics system in the country, and what can be done to make it more gender-responsive?

ANNEX E: GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS

Table E.1 Gender-Specific SDG Indicators by Goal

No.	Indicator
Goal 1	
1.	1.1.1 Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)
2.	1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age
3.	1.2.2 Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions
4.	1.3.1 Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable
5.	1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognized documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure
6.	1.b.1 Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to sectors that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups
Goal 2	
7.	2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status
Goal 3	
8.	3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio
9.	3.1.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
10.	3.2.1 Under-five mortality rate
11.	3.3.1 Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations
12.	3.7.1 Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods
13.	3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group
14.	3.8.1 Coverage of essential health services (defined as the average coverage of essential services based on tracer interventions that include reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health, infectious diseases, non-communicable diseases and service capacity and access among the general and the most disadvantaged population)
Goal 4	
15.	4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people (a) in grades 2/3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex
16.	4.2.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex
17.	4.2.2 Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex
18.	4.3.1 Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex
19.	4.5.1 Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated
20.	4.6.1 Percentage of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex

No.	Indicator
21.	4.7.1 Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in (a) national education policies, (b) curricula, (c) teacher education and (d) student assessment
22.	4.a.1 Proportion of schools with access to: (a) electricity; (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes; (c) computers for pedagogical purposes; (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities; (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities (as per the WASH indicator definitions)
Goal 5	
23.	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
24.	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
25.	5.2.2 Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence
26.	5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18
27.	5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age
28.	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location
29.	5.5.1 (a) Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and (b) local governments
30.	5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions
31.	5.6.1 Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care
32.	5.6.2 Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee women aged 15–49 years access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education
33.	5.a.1 (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure
34.	5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women equal rights to land ownership and/or control
35.	5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex
36.	5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment
Goal 8	
37.	8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex
38.	8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities
39.	8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities
40.	8.7.1 Proportion and number of children aged 5–17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age
41.	8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status
42.	8.8.2 Increase in national compliance of labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status
43.	8.9.2 Number of jobs in tourism industries as a proportion of total jobs and growth rate of jobs, by sex
Goal 10	
44.	10.2.1 Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by age, sex and persons with disabilities

No.	Indicator
Goal 11	
45.	11.2.1 Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities
46.	11.7.1 Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities
47.	11.7.2 Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months
Goal 13	
48.	13.b.1 Number of least developed countries and small island developing States that are receiving specialized support, and amount of support, including finance, technology and capacity-building, for mechanisms for raising capacities for effective climate change-related planning and management, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities
Goal 16	
49.	16.1.1 Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age
50.	16.1.2 Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause
51.	16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation
52.	16.2.3 Proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18
53.	16.7.1 Proportion of positions (by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local legislatures, public service, and judiciary) compared to national distributions
54.	16.7.2 Proportion of population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive, by sex, age, disability and population group

Table E.2 Gaps in Gender-Specific Tier 1 SDG Indicators

SDG	Tier 1 indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
1	1.1.1 Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)	●	●	X	X	NSD	●
	1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age	●	●	NSD	RFA	●	●
3	3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio	●	●	●	●	●	●
	3.1.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	●	●	●	●	●	●
	3.2.1 Under-five mortality rate	●	●	●	●	●	●
	3.7.1 Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods	●	●	●	●	●	●
4	4.2.2 Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex	●	●	●	●	●	●
5	5.5.1 (a) Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments	●	●	●	●	X	●
	5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions	●	●	X	●	X	●
	5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex	●	●	●	●	●	●
8	8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	●	●	●	●	X	●
16	16.1.1 Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age	●	●	X	X	X	●

Sources: For Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda and Tanzania, information was obtained from key informant interviews conducted between September and October 2018. For Ethiopia, key informant interview results were complemented with information from UNSD, “Report on the Third Country Mission and Final Report, Ethiopia”, 2018. For Uganda, information was compiled from the “2016 Review Report on Uganda’s Readiness for Implementation of the 2030 Agenda. Theme: Ensuring That No One Is Left Behind” (https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/content/documents/10689Uganda%20Review%20Report_CDs1.pdf).

Note: ● = no data gap exists, indicator is fully and routinely computed; X = lack of data, methodology and/or technical ability to compute indicator; NSD = data are not disaggregated by sex; RFA = requires further analysis of data to generate indicator.

Table E.3 Gaps in Gender-Specific Tier 2 SDG Indicators

SDG	Tier 2 indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
1	1.2.2 Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions	●	●	●	X	●	IPC
	1.3.1 Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable	IPC	●	X	X	●	●
	1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognized documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure	X	●	NSD	X	●	●
3	3.3.1 Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations	●	●	X	X	●	●
	3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group	IPC	●	IPC	IPC	●	●
	3.8.1 Coverage of essential health services (defined as the average coverage of essential services based on tracer interventions that include reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health, infectious diseases, non-communicable diseases and service capacity and access among the general and the most disadvantaged population)	X	●	RFA	X	X	X
4	4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people: (a) in grades 2/3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex	IPC	●	●	RFA	RFA	X
	4.3.1 Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex	●	●	IPC	X	●	●
	4.6.1 Percentage of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex	●	●	●	X	RFA	●
	4.a.1 Proportion of schools with access to: (a) electricity; (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes; (c) computers for pedagogical purposes; (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities; (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities (as per the WASH indicator definitions)	●	●	IPC	X	●	●

SDG	Tier 2 indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
5	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	●	●	RFA	●	RFA	●
	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	IPC	●	IPC	●	●	●
	5.2.2 Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence	IPC	●	IPC	RFA	●	●
	5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18	●	●	●	●	●	●
	5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age	●	●	●	●	RFA	NA
	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location	X	●	●	●	●	●
	5.5.1 (b) Proportion of seats held by women in local government	●	●	●	●	X	●
	5.6.1 Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care	IPC	●	●	●	●	●
	5.a.1 (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure	X	●	X	●	●	●
	5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women equal rights to land ownership and/or control	●	NA	NA	RFA	X	NA
	5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment	IPC	X	NA	X	X	NA

SDG	Tier 2 indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
8	8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex	●	●	●	●	●	●
	8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities	●	●	●	X	X	●
	8.7.1 Proportion and number of children aged 5–17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age	●	●	●	●	●	●
	8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status	X	●	X	X	X	X
11	11.2.1 Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	X	●	X	X	X	X
16	16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation	X	●	●	X	X	●
	16.2.3 Proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18	●	IPC	X	X	RFA	●

Note: ● = no data gap exists, indicator is fully and routinely computed; X = lack of data, methodology and/or technical ability to compute indicator; IPC = indicators is partially computed; NA = indicator not applicable to country; NSD = data are not disaggregated by sex; RFA = requires further analysis of data to generate indicator.

Table E.4 Gaps in Gender-Specific Tier 3 SDG Indicators

SDG	Tier 3 indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
1	1.b.1 Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to sectors that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups	●	●	X	●	●	●
2	2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status	X	●	X	X	X	●
4	4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people (a) in grades 2/3 achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex	●	●	●	RFA	●	X
	4.2.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex	X	X	X	RFA	X	●
	4.5.1 Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated	●	●	RFA	X	●	●
4	4.7.1 Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in (a) national education policies, (b) curricula, (c) teacher education and (d) student assessment	X	X	X	X	RFA	X
5	5.6.2 Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee women aged 15–49 years access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education	●	NA	NA	X	X	NA
8	8.8.2 Increase in national compliance of labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status	●	●	RFA	X	X	X
	8.9.2 Number of jobs in tourism industries as a proportion of total jobs and growth rate of jobs, by sex	●	●	RFA	X	●	●

SDG	Tier 3 indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
10	10.2.1 Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by age, sex and persons with disabilities	●	●	X	X	NSD	●
11	11.7.1 Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	X	X	X	X	X	X
	11.7.2 Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months	X	●	X	●	X	●
13	13.b.1 Number of least developed countries and small island developing states that are receiving specialized support, and amount of support, including finance, technology and capacity-building, for mechanisms for raising capacities for effective climate change-related planning and management, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities	NA	X	NA	NA	X	NA
16	16.1.2 Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause	X	●	X	X	X	X
	16.7.1 Proportion of positions (by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local legislatures, public service, and judiciary) compared to national distributions	X	●	RFA	X	X	●
	16.7.2 Proportion of population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive, by sex, age, disability and population group	●	●	X	X	X	●

Note: ● = no data gap exists, indicator is fully and routinely computed; X = lack of data, methodology and/or technical ability to compute indicator; NA = indicator not applicable to country; NSD = data are not disaggregated by sex; RFA = requires further analysis of data to generate indicator.

Table E.5 Gender-Specific SDG Indicators by Data Source

No.	Indicator	Sources for generating indicator				Source agency
		Admin data only	Admin and other	Admin or other	Non-admin	
1.	1.1.1 Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)				●	NSO (HIES, LSMS, LFS)
2.	1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age				●	NSO (HIES, LSMS, LFS)
3.	1.2.2 Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions				●	Not specified, but the most likely source may be the NSO using survey data
4.	1.3.1 Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable			●		Ministries of labour, social security, social welfare, social protection, gender, finance (based on administrative records) or NSO (using data from nationally representative household surveys)
5.	1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognized documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure		●			NSO (based on Census of household data) and administrative data on land tenure that national land institutions report
6.	1.b.1 Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to sectors that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups	●				Methodology for indicator still under development, but probable sources of data include ministries of finance, gender, social welfare, social security and social protection.
7.	2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status			●		NSO (based on agricultural surveys, agricultural censuses or household surveys with agricultural module) or administrative data from Ministry of Agriculture
8.	3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio			●		CRVS (preferred source if complete), NSO (DHS, MICS, censuses, maternal health surveys, other specialized surveys) and surveillance systems managed by specialized Expanded Programme on Immunization monitoring bodies

No.	Indicator	Sources for generating indicator				Source agency
		Admin data only	Admin and other	Admin or other	Non-admin	
9.	3.1.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel			●		Administrative data from routine health service statistics or household survey data that NSO (e.g. DHS, MICS, reproductive health surveys) generates
10.	3.2.1 Under-five mortality rate			●		CRVS (preferred source) or NSO (based on sample surveys (e.g. DHS, MICS) and population censuses).
11.	3.3.1 Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations				●	Household or key population surveys with HIV incidence testing by NSO or special teams of health and national AIDS advisory groups; regular surveillance of key populations
12.	3.7.1 Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods				●	NSO (e.g. nationally representative household surveys – DHS, MICS, reproductive health surveys, performance monitoring and accountability 2020 surveys, fertility and family surveys, contraceptive prevalence surveys)
13.	3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group			●		CRVS (preferred source) or NSO (based on censuses and household surveys)
14.	3.8.1 Coverage of essential health services (defined as the average coverage of essential services based on tracer interventions that include reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health, infectious diseases, non-communicable diseases and service capacity and access among the general and the most disadvantaged population)		●			NSO (household and facility surveys) and administrative data from health ministry (including facility data and data from sentinel survey systems)
15.	4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people (a) in grades 2/3, (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex			●		Administrative data from schools (In-school learning assessments) or NSO (from population-based learning assessments – MICS6 and other cross-national learning assessments)
16.	4.2.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex				●	NSO (based on household surveys, e.g. MICS)

No.	Indicator	Sources for generating indicator				Source agency
		Admin data only	Admin and other	Admin or other	Non-admin	
17.	4.2.2 Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex		●			Ministry of Education (administrative data from schools and other centres of organized learning) and NSO (population census and survey data for population estimates) or household surveys on enrolment in early learning programmes plus administrative data from Ministry of Education on official entrance age to primary education
18.	4.3.1 Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex		●			Ministry of Education (administrative data on enrolment from schools and other educational and training centres) complimented with data from population censuses and surveys for population estimates) or NSO (household survey data on participants in formal and informal education and training)
19.	4.5.1 Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated		●			NSO (censuses and household surveys) and administrative data from Ministry of Education
20.	4.6.1 Percentage of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex				●	Ministry of Education, NSO and other providers responsible for conducting learning assessments (through skills assessment surveys and national adult literacy surveys)
21.	4.7.1 Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in (a) national education policies, (b) curricula, (c) teacher education and (d) student assessment		●			Based on periodic surveys conducted by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization on member states, education sector reviews and other thematic reports

No.	Indicator	Sources for generating indicator				Source agency
		Admin data only	Admin and other	Admin or other	Non-admin	
22.	4.a.1 Proportion of schools with access to: (a) electricity; (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes; (c) computers for pedagogical purposes; (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities; (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities (as per the WASH indicator definitions)	●				Administrative data from schools and other providers of education or training
23.	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	●				NSO, National Women's Machinery, legal practitioners, researchers (based on assessment of legal frameworks using primary sources and official government documents – laws, policies, action plans)
24.	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				●	NSO, gender ministry (through specialized national surveys dedicated to measuring violence against women and international household surveys that include module on the topic (e.g. DHS)
25.	5.2.2 Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence				●	NSO, gender ministry (through specialized national surveys dedicated to measuring violence against women and international household surveys that include module on the topic (e.g. DHS)
26.	5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18				●	NSO (through nationally representative household surveys (e.g. DHS, MICS) and in some countries through censuses)
27.	5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/ cutting, by age				●	NSO (based on nationally representative household surveys (e.g. DHS, MICS)
28.	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location				●	NSO (based on dedicated time-use surveys or multi-purpose household surveys integrated with time-use modules)

No.	Indicator	Sources for generating indicator				Source agency
		Admin data only	Admin and other	Admin or other	Non-admin	
29.	5.5.1 (a) Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and (b) local governments	●				Parliament, electoral management body or commission, NSO (based on administrative data received from Parliament and electoral records)
30.	5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions			●		NSO (based on labour force surveys (preferred source) or other household surveys with module on employment), establishment surveys or administrative records
31.	5.6.1 Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care				●	NSO (based on DHS or other nationally representative household survey)
32.	5.6.2 Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee women aged 15–49 years access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education	●				Relevant government ministries, departments and agencies (based on self-reported survey tool using administrative data)
33.	5.a.1 (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure				●	NSO (based on household surveys, e.g. household budget surveys LFS, LSMS, living conditions survey, DHS, MICS, integrated or multipurpose household surveys (recommended); alternative sources – population and housing censuses and agricultural surveys)
34.	5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women equal rights to land ownership and/or control	●				Ministry of Land or national institution mandated to govern land matters, national gender machinery, Ministry of Justice or Human Rights Commission (based on, e.g. constitution, national policies and legislation on land, family, marriage, gender equality, inheritance, agriculture)
35.	5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex			●		NSO (based on national household surveys) or records of Ministry of Telecommunications
36.	5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment	●				Ministry of Finance or Budget Office in coordination with NSO, gender machinery, other relevant sector ministries

No.	Indicator	Sources for generating indicator				Source agency
		Admin data only	Admin and other	Admin or other	Non-admin	
37.	8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex				●	NSO (based on LFS)
38.	8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities		●			NSO or agency responsible for producing data on earnings (based on establishment surveys (preferable) or household surveys and variety of administrative records)
39.	8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities				●	NSO, Labour Ministry, other related agency (based on household LFS -preferred source); alternative sources – population census or other household survey with appropriate employment module
40.	8.7.1 Proportion and number of children aged 5–17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age				●	NSO, line ministries and other relevant government agencies that have conducted child labour surveys or other nationally representative household surveys (LFS, integrated or multipurpose household surveys, MICS, DHS, LSMS through which data on child labour were collected)
41.	8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status		●			Administrative data from ministries of health, labour (based on records of national systems for notification of occupational injuries - labour inspection records and annual reports, insurance and compensation records) and death registers from CRVS, supplemented with household surveys and establishment surveys
42.	8.8.2 Increase in national compliance of labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status	●				ILO (based on reports of ILO Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations, reports of ILO Conference Committee on the Application of Standards, country baselines under ILO Declaration Annual Review, representations under Article 24 of ILO Constitution, complaints under Article 26 of ILO Constitution, reports of Committee on Freedom of Association, national legislation.

No.	Indicator	Sources for generating indicator				Source agency
		Admin data only	Admin and other	Admin or other	Non-admin	
43.	8.9.2 Number of jobs in tourism industries as a proportion of total jobs and growth rate of jobs, by sex		●			No data available for indicator, and methodology still under development, but likely sources of data are Ministry of Tourism and NSO
44.	10.2.1 Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by age, sex and persons with disabilities				●	NSO (based on nationally representative household surveys or assessments of income or consumption distributions)
45.	11.2.1 Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities		●			National focal points such as Ministry of Transport, NSO, academic and research institutions, civil society organizations or transport operators working under agreement facilitated by national government (based on data on location of public transport stops in city-city administration or service providers, GIS data; dwelling units within 500m of public transport stops – census and GIS data; number of residents per dwelling unit – census and household survey data; household surveys that collect information on proportion of households that declare they have access to public means of transport within 0.5 km
46.	11.7.1 Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	●				NSO and development partners (based on satellite imagery, documentation on publicly owned land and community-based maps)
47.	11.7.2 Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months	●				Ministries of justice and interior, police force in coordination with NSO and other relevant institutions (based on data on crime and criminal justice)

No.	Indicator	Sources for generating indicator				Source agency
		Admin data only	Admin and other	Admin or other	Non-admin	
48.	13.b.1 Number of least developed countries and small island developing States that are receiving specialized support, and amount of support, including finance, technology and capacity-building, for mechanisms for raising capacities for effective climate change-related planning and management, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities	●				Methodology for indicator still under development but will possibly be based on administrative sources of data
49.	16.1.1 Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age	●				CRVS, police, ministries of justice, interior and health (based on administrative data on intentional homicide)
50.	16.1.2 Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause			●		Justice and health ministries and agencies involved in peace-keeping operations (based on administrative records) or NSO (through population surveys)
51.	16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation	●				Ministries of foreign affairs and other national authorities competent in detecting victims of trafficking (e.g. law enforcement institutions or national agencies responsible for assisting victims of trafficking).
52.	16.2.3 Proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18				●	NSO or line ministries and other government agencies that have conducted national surveys on sexual violence
53.	16.7.1 Proportion of positions (by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local legislatures, public service, and judiciary) compared to national distributions	●				National parliaments
54.	16.7.2 Proportion of population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive, by sex, age, disability and population group				●	NSO (based on national household surveys)
	Total number of indicators	14	10	10	20	

Note: DHS = Demographic and Health Survey; HIES = Household Income and Expenditure Survey; LFS = Labour Force Survey; LSMS = Living Standards Measurement Survey; MICS = Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey.

Table E.6 Key Administrative Data Producers of Gender-Specific SDG Indicators in Study Countries

Indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
1.3.1 Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable	—	NAS	—	—	Ministry of Gender, Children, Disability and Social Welfare	Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion; Gender Monitoring Office; National Women Council
1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognized documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure	—	Ministry of Lands, Housing and Human Settlements	Ministry of Agriculture; Ministry of Lands, Housing and Urban Development	—	Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security	Ministry of Lands and Forestry; Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources
1.b.1 Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to sectors that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups	Ministry of Finance	Ministry of Finance and Planning	—	Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs; Ministry of Finance and Economic Cooperation	Ministry of Gender, Children, Disability and Social Welfare; Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development	Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion; Gender Monitoring Office; National Women Council
2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status	—	NAS	—	—	—	NAS
3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio	Department of Civil Registration Services; Ministry of Health	RITA; Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children; Electronic Population Registration System managed by Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics	National Identification and Registration Authority; Ministry of Health	Ministry of Health	National Registration Bureau; Ministry of Health	National Identification Agency; Ministry of Health

Indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
3.1.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	Ministry of Health	Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children	Ministry of Health	Ministry of Health	Ministry of Health	Ministry of Health
3.2.1 Under-five mortality rate	Department of Civil Registration Services; Ministry of Health	RITA; Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children; Electronic Population Registration System managed by Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics	National Identification and Registration Authority; Ministry of Health	Ministry of Health	National Registration Bureau; Ministry of Health	National Identification Agency; Ministry of Health
3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group	NAS	NAS	NAS	NAS	NAS	NAS
3.8.1 Coverage of essential health services (defined as the average coverage of essential services based on tracer interventions that include reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health, infectious diseases, non-communicable diseases and service capacity and access among the general and the most disadvantaged population)	—	Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children	Ministry of Health	—	—	—
4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people (a) in grades 2/3, (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training	Ministry of Education and Sports	Ministry of Education and Sports; National Education Assessment Examination Agency	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	—
4.2.2 Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training	Ministry of Education and Sports	Ministry of Education and Sports	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education

Indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
4.3.1 Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training	Ministry of Education and Sports	—	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education
4.5.1 Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training	Ministry of Education and Sports	—	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education
4.7.1 Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in (a) national education policies, (b) curricula, (c) teacher education and (d) student assessment	—	—	—	—	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	—
4.a.1 Proportion of schools with access to: (a) electricity; (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes; (c) computers for pedagogical purposes; (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities; (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities (as per the WASH indicator definitions)	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training	—	—	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology	Ministry of Education
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	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development; Ministry of Public Service, Youth and Gender Affairs	Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development; Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs	Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs	Ministry of Gender, Children, Disability and Social Welfare; Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs	Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion; National Women Council; Gender Monitoring Office

Indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
5.5.1 (a) Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and (b) local governments	Parliament; Ministry of Local Government	Parliament Office; National Electoral Commission	Ministry of Local Government; Parliamentary Service	Electoral Board; Department of Interior and Local Government	—	Ministry of Local Government; National Electoral Commission; Gender Monitoring Office
5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions	—	President's Office, Public Service Management	—	NAS	—	Gender Monitoring Office
5.6.2 Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee women aged 15–49 years access to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education	Ministry of Health	NA	NA	—	—	NA
5.a.1 (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure	—	NA	—	Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources	Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security	Ministry of Agriculture and Animal Resources
5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women equal rights to land ownership and/or control	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development; Ministry of Public Service, Youth and Gender Affairs	NA	NA	Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs; Ministry of Justice	—	NA
5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex	Communications Authority	Tanzania Communications and Regulatory Authority	—	Ministry of Telecommunications	Malawi Communications Regulatory Authority	Rwanda Utilities Regulatory Authority
5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development; Ministry of Public Service, Youth and Gender Affairs; Ministry of Finance	—	NA	—	—	NA

Indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities	Ministry of Labour, Social Security and Services	NAS	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development; National Accounts	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs	Ministry of Youth Sports and Manpower Development	Ministry of Public Service and Labour
8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status	—	Ministry of Labour, Employment, Youth and Disabled Persons; Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children	—	—	—	—
8.8.2 Increase in national compliance of labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status	Ministry of Labour, Social Security and Services	Ministry of Labour, Employment, Youth and Disabled Persons	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development	—	—	—
8.9.2 Number of jobs in tourism industries as a proportion of total jobs and growth rate of jobs, by sex	Ministry of Tourism and Wild Life	NAS	Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Antiquities	—	Ministry of Tourism, Wildlife and Culture	Tourism and Conservation Department
11.2.1 Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	—	NAS	—	—	Ministry of Transport and Public Works	—
11.7.1 Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	—	—	—	—	—	—
11.7.2 Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months	—	NAS	—	Department of Interior and Local Government	—	Gender-based Violence Service (now under Rwanda Investigation Bureau)

Indicator	Kenya	Tanzania	Uganda	Ethiopia	Malawi	Rwanda
13.b.1 Number of least developed countries and small island developing States that are receiving specialized support, and amount of support, including finance, technology and capacity-building, for mechanisms for raising capacities for effective climate change-related planning and management, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities	NA	—	NA	NA	—	NA
16.1.1 Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age	National Police Service	Tanzania Police Force	—	—	—	Rwanda National Police; Ministry of Justice
16.1.2 Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause	—	RITA; Ministry of Health Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children	—	—	—	—
16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation	—	Ministry of Home Affairs (Immigration); Tanzania Police Force	—	—	—	Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion Gender Monitoring Office; Gender-based Violence Service (now under Rwanda Investigation Board)
16.7.1 Proportion of positions (by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local legislatures, public service, and judiciary) compared to national distributions	NA	President's Office, Public Service Management	Parliamentary Service	—	—	Gender Monitoring Office; Parliament (Senate and Chamber of Deputies)

Note: — = indicator not currently produced; NA = indicator not applicable; NAS = country relies on non-administrative source of data.

1. Registration of births, deaths and adoptions formerly a function of the Registration Services Bureau under the Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs.

NOTES

Glossary

1. World Health Organization (WHO), “Strengthening Civil Registration and Vital Statistics for Births, Deaths and Causes of Death. Resource Kit”, 2013.
2. United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), “Report on the Third Country Mission and Final Report, Ethiopia”, 2018.
3. UN Women, *Turning Promises into Action: Gender Equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, 2018; <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/SDG-report-Gender-equality-in-the-2030-Agenda-for-Sustainable-Development-2018-en.pdf>.
4. UNSD, “Report on the Third Country Mission”.

Section 1

1. UN Women, “Making Every Woman and Girl Count: Supporting the Monitoring and Implementation of the SDGs Through Better Production and Use of Gender Statistics”, 2016.
2. Twelve pathfinder countries have been selected on the basis of their commitment to women’s rights and gender equality, statistical quality standards, sociopolitical environment and income classification; these are, by region: Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda (East and Southern Africa); Cameroon, Senegal and Sierra Leone (West and Central Africa); Bangladesh and Nepal (Asia and the Pacific); Albania (Europe and Central Asia); Columbia (Latin America and the Caribbean); and Morocco and Jordan (Middle East and North Africa). Six additional countries (Brazil, Egypt, Georgia, Haiti, Rwanda and Thailand) have been listed as alternatives if any of the selected countries in a region fail to participate in the programme.
3. Administrative Data Liaison Service, “Administrative Data Introduction”, 2016.
4. Statistics Canada, “Use of Administrative Data”, 2015; <https://www150.statcan.gc.ca/n1/pub/12-539-x/2009001/administrative-administratives-eng.htm>.
5. UN Women, *Turning Promises into Action*.
6. SDGs 6 (clean water and sanitation), 7 (affordable and clean energy), 9 (industry, innovation and infrastructure), 12 (responsible production and consumption), 14 (life below water) and 15 (life on land).
7. UN Women, *Turning Promises into Action*.
8. UNSD’s Tier Classification for Global SDG Indicators (<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/tier-classification/>; accessed 29 August 2018) is as follows. **Tier 1:** Indicator is conceptually clear and has an internationally established methodology, standards are available and countries regularly produce data for at

least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant. **Tier 2:** Indicator is conceptually clear and has an internationally established methodology, and standards are available, but countries do not regularly produced data.

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

9. The World’s Women, “Moving Forward on Gender Statistics”, 2015; <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/dataWW2015.html>.
10. UN Women, “Assessment of Opportunities for the Implementation of a Regional Project on Gender Statistics in Africa”, 2017.
11. Asian Development Bank, “Administrative Data Sources for Compiling Millennium Development Goals and Related Indicators. A Reference Handbook on Using Data from Education, Health and Vital Registration Systems Featuring Practices and Experiences from Selected Countries”, 2010.
12. T. Rizinde, F. Nkikabahizi, L. Babamwana, and J. Umutesi, “Achieving the Sustainable Development Goals in Rwanda: The Role of Administrative Data Inclusion”, *East Africa Research Papers in Economics and Finance*, EARP-EF No. 2018: 34, 2018.
13. G.J. Brackstone, “Issues in the Use of Administrative Records for Statistical Purposes”, *Survey Methodology*, vol. 13, (1987), pp. 29–43.

Section 2

1. The six African pathfinder countries were classified as either Tier I (recommended for immediate implementation): Kenya, Senegal, Uganda; or Tier II (recommended for implementation in the next phase 2018/2019): Cameroon, Sierra Leone, Tanzania. Rwanda was designated as a Tier III country (recommended as a reserve country in the event a Tier I or II country could not serve).
2. UN Women, “Making Every Woman and Girl Count. 2017 Annual Report. Planning Phase”, 2018; <http://www.unwomen.org/-/media/headquarters/attachments/sections/library/publications/2018/making-every-woman-and-girl-count-2017-annual-report-en.pdf?la=en&vs=0>.
3. UN Women, “Making Every Woman and Girl Count. Flagship Programme Initiative. Pathfinder Country Selection Report. Recommendations to the MEWGC Steering Committee”, 2017.
4. U.K. Office for National Statistics, “Guidelines for Measuring Statistical Output Quality. Version 4.1”, 2013; <https://www.statisticsauthority.gov.uk/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/Guidelines-for-Measuring-Statistical-Outputs-Quality.pdf>.

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28. Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development, “Monitoring and Evaluation Framework for Gender Mainstreaming. Department of Gender and Social Development”, Nairobi, 2009.
 29. Ministry of Devolution and Planning, “Implementation of the Agenda 2030”.
 30. The data presented in Box 3.1 are from Ministry of Devolution and Planning, “Implementation of the Agenda 2030”; and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, “Kenya Social Institutions and Gender Index”, 2014, <http://www.genderindex.org/country/kenya>. Data on the land measure score are from N.L. Frosina and G.M. Mwaura, “An Assessment of Gender Mainstreaming in STI and the Knowledge Society in Kenya”, African Centre for Technology Studies, 2016.
 31. Ministry of Finance and Planning, “National Five-Year Development Plan 2016/17 – 2020/21. Nurturing Industrialization for Economic Transformation and Human Development”, United Republic of Tanzania, 2016.
 32. The data in Box 3.4 are from the respective ministries (Ministry of Women and Children Affairs, 2017; Ministry of Education, Education Statistics, 2015–2016; and Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, 2017) as cited in National Planning Commission and CSA, “Gender Statistics Report”, 2017.
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 34. Statement by Hon. Patricia Kaliati, M.P., Minister of Gender, Children, Disability and Social Welfare of the Republic of Malawi at the 62nd Session of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women Committee upon the Consideration of the Seventh Periodic Report of Malawi.
 35. In Box 3.5, the parliamentary and senate data are from Inter-Parliamentary Union, “Women in National Parliaments. Situation as of 1st February 2019”, 2019; <http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>. Data on women in leadership positions and on secondary school enrolment are from National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, “Rwanda Statistical Year Book 2018”, 2018. Poverty data are from World Bank, “The World Bank in Rwanda: Overview”, 2019; <https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/rwanda/overview>. Maternal mortality data are from National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda, Ministry of Health and ICF International, “Rwanda Demographic and Health Survey 2014–15”, Rockville, MD, 2015; and Republic of Rwanda, Ministry of Health, “Annual Health Statistics Booklet”, Rwanda, 2015. Primary school enrolment data are from Republic of Rwanda, Ministry of Education, “2012 Education Statistical Yearbook, Rwanda”, 2013, http://mineduc.gov.rw/fileadmin/user_upload/2012_Education_statistical_yearbook.pdf; and United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), “Children’s Rights and Sustainable Development in Rwanda: A Situation Analysis”, 2017. The source for the Gender Monitoring Office’s investment requests is from Republic of Rwanda, “Gender and Access to Finance. Gender Monitoring Office”, 2017; http://www.gmo.gov.rw/fileadmin/user_upload/profiles/Gender_and_Access_to_Finance_Booklet_GMO_March_2017.pdf.
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Section 4

1. MEASURE Evaluation PIMA, “Civil Registration and Vital Statistics System.”

Additional references

The following publications were also consulted in the preparation of this report:

Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Central Statistical Agency and UNICEF, “Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), Ethiopia Fact Sheet”, 2017.

Oxfam, “Ethiopia Snapshot”, 2017; https://interagencystandingcommittee.org/system/files/ethiopia_gender_snapshot_2017_-_oxfam.pdf

**UN WOMEN IS THE UNITED NATIONS
ENTITY DEDICATED TO GENDER EQUALITY
AND THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN.
A GLOBAL CHAMPION FOR WOMEN AND
GIRLS, UN WOMEN WAS ESTABLISHED
TO ACCELERATE PROGRESS ON MEETING
THEIR NEEDS WORLDWIDE.**

UN Women supports UN Member States as they set global standards for achieving gender equality, and works with governments and civil society to design laws, policies, programmes and services needed to ensure that the standards are effectively implemented and truly benefit women and girls worldwide. It works globally to make the vision of the Sustainable Development Goals a reality for women and girls and stands behind women's equal participation in all aspects of life, focusing on four strategic priorities: Women lead, participate in and benefit equally from governance systems; Women have income security, decent work and economic autonomy; All women and girls live a life free from all forms of violence; Women and girls contribute to and have greater influence in building sustainable peace and resilience, and benefit equally from the prevention of natural disasters and conflicts and humanitarian action. UN Women also coordinates and promotes the UN system's work in advancing gender equality.



**Planet 50-50 by 2030
Step It Up for Gender Equality**

East and Southern Africa Regional Office
UN Gigiri Complex, UN Avenue Block M, Ground Floor
P.O. Box 30218
00100 Nairobi, KENYA
Tel: +254 20 762 4301
Fax: +254 20 762 4494
Email: esaro.publications@unwomen.org
Website: africa.unwomen.org