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Working Party on Gender Mainstreaming and Governance

Building government capacity on gender and intersectional data: Use cases in selected sectors

This draft report analyses government capacity relating to gender-disaggregated and intersectional data, covering data availability, quality and use across the OECD. It focusses on a limited set of key policy areas: environment, labour market, social affairs and trade. It also analyses countries' efforts to strengthen the collection of gender-disaggregated data across national data ecosystems. It provides case studies, leading practices and recommendations for policymakers with the aim of improving the production and use of gender-disaggregated evidence in policymaking.

This draft report was drafted and co-ordinated by the OECD Public Governance Directorate, with significant contributions from the Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs, the Environment Directorate, the Trade and Agriculture Directorate, and the Centre on Well-Being, Inclusion, Sustainability and Equal Opportunity.

Delegates to the Working Party on Gender Mainstreaming and Governance were invited to provide comments by 20 December 2024. This revised version reflects comments received.

Delegates to the Public Governance Committee are invited to approve and declassify this draft report for publication. Please provide any comments by 11 May 2026. If no objections have been received by that date, the draft report will be considered approved and declassified for publication. The draft report will be shared with the Environment Policy Committee and the Trade Committee, for information only.

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Foreword

1. In a context of rapid economic, social and technological transformations, governments face growing expectations to design and deliver policies that are effective, fair and trusted. Gender equality is a core dimension of this challenge. High-quality gender and intersectional data are essential for understanding how policies affect different groups in society and for ensuring that public action contributes to fair and sustainable outcomes. When systematically integrated into the policy cycle, such evidence strengthens decision making, improves monitoring and evaluation, and enhances transparency and accountability.

2. This report examines how OECD countries collect, use and govern gender-disaggregated and intersectional data across key policy areas, including employment, social affairs, the environment and trade. Progress has been made in expanding the availability of gender-disaggregated data, but important gaps remain, particularly in emerging policy areas related to the global transformations and in the use of intersectional perspectives. Moreover, the report highlights that data availability alone is not sufficient: limited integration into decision-making processes, fragmented responsibilities and the absence of governance frameworks continue to constrain the effective use of gender-related evidence, such as quantitative and qualitative data disaggregated by gender. At the same time, the digital transformation and new data sources offer opportunities to enrich gender analysis, provided that appropriate safeguards, transparency and accountability mechanisms are in place.

3. Drawing on comparative analysis and country experiences, this report provides practical guidance to help governments strengthen the governance of gender-disaggregated data and build a more coherent, whole-of-government approach to evidence-informed policymaking. By identifying key enablers – including leadership, legal and institutional frameworks, co-ordination, capacity building and resourcing – it aims to support OECD countries to embed gender and intersectional perspectives across national data ecosystems. Ultimately, improving the production and use of gender-disaggregated data is not only a technical endeavour, but a cornerstone of sound public governance and fair policy outcomes.

Executive summary

4. Governments are always looking for ways to make policy more effective. A sound understanding of citizens' needs is the first step to policy interventions that deliver results. But the needs of many citizens only come to light through evidence that is gender-disaggregated and intersectional. Gender-disaggregated and intersectional data clarify policy challenges and guide the targeting of policy interventions. Without these lenses, policies may fall short and can also perpetuate existing and deeply entrenched inequalities.

5. This report seeks to expand the availability and use of gender data, including their intersectional dimensions, in OECD countries. It focuses on key policy areas such as environment, employment, leadership, gender-based violence, inclusion and trade. "Gender data" or "gender evidence" refer to data that are collected and presented with gender as a primary and overall classification; data that present gender-related needs, interests or concerns; data that are based on concepts and definitions that adequately reflect the diversity of women and men and capture all aspects of their lives; data collection methods that take into account harmful gender stereotypes and/or consider the social and cultural factors that may introduce gender bias into data.

6. The report identifies gaps in gender and intersectional evidence across the policymaking cycle and explores how these gaps affect decision making. The report offers insights into barriers to data production and use. Additionally, it examines efforts to mainstream gender-related considerations across national data ecosystems, emphasising the importance of strategic planning, legal frameworks and capacity building. Drawing on case studies, new technologies and alternative data sources, the report highlights innovative practices to close data gaps and improve gender data governance. Ultimately, it makes recommendations for enhancing gender-sensitive policymaking to achieve better policy outcomes for all.

7. While progress is being made on gender data availability, significant challenges hinder effective policymaking. Critical data gaps make it difficult to grasp gender disparities in health; climate-related hazards and disasters; the care economy; gender-based violence; trade; leadership; and technological impacts on work and employment. Where gender data availability is improving, their systematic use in policymaking, especially in environment and trade, remains limited.

8. Key obstacles include limited resources; insufficient technical capacity and time; absence of gender equality indicators and goals; and limited understanding of how gender and intersectional data improve policymaking. Specific requirements mandating the collection of gender data across national statistical systems remain rare. That said, with the growing implementation of tools such as gender impact assessment and gender budgeting, demands for the collection and analysis of gender data are increasing. Moreover, with the implementation of gender data mandates comes an increase in gender data availability. Countries with gender data requirements reported stronger gender data availability and a broader range of data sources.

9. A corollary observation is that digital technologies can improve the collection and analysis of gender data. But they come with risks, such as privacy concerns, ethical challenges and the potential for bias. Clear regulatory frameworks, robust risk assessments and implementation guidance are essential.

10. Most OECD countries have fragmented gender data collection and underused insights. They would benefit from a co-ordinated, government-wide strategy for gender data governance. Governments can adopt national gender data strategies, establish gender data requirements and ensure adequate funding, capacity building and data protection regulations. Methodological guidance specific to gender and intersectionality should be developed for key sectors alongside regular consultation with external stakeholders, including civil society and academia, to keep data production relevant and impactful. Enhancing public access to gender data through open platforms can foster transparency and build trust, ensuring that gender and intersectional considerations are embedded in policy design and evaluation. Strengthening the collection and use of gender data requires commitment from governments at all levels – local, national, and international – to build a responsive, fair and effective gender data ecosystem that informs and empowers evidence-based policymaking.

Chapter 1. Summary assessment and recommendations

11. In today's rapidly transforming world, gender and intersectional data are a strategic asset for improving the effectiveness of policymaking and service delivery. They facilitate evidence-based decision-making by revealing inequalities, enabling policymakers to strategically target interventions and allocate resources where they are most needed. They improve policies through more effective monitoring and evaluation. In showing the evidence that informs policy decisions, policymakers can enhance transparency and accountability in the decision-making process.

12. Importantly, gender data play a critical role in better targeting policies and decision-making. As countries tackle global transitions, intentional, gender-sensitive, data-driven approaches can help these shifts overcome rather than exacerbate existing inequalities. In addition, citizens' trust in their national government is closely related to their confidence that governments make policies based on the best available evidence (OECD, 2024[1]). Having access to robust evidence at the right time is especially challenging in today's context, with a complex information environment potentially distorting perceptions of gender-related issues. This need is heightened by recent setbacks in gender equality and the growing polarisation of views, particularly among young people in several countries (Kings College London, 2024[2]).

13. However, the increased production and use of high-quality evidence in government decision-making requires appropriate checks and balances, and responsible governance. Sound governance ensures gender data production is relevant to policymakers' needs and is systematically used across the policy cycle. Researchers also caution that data about people may not be neutral (D'Ignazio and Klein, 2020[3]). Machine learning provides a case in point: while considered a tool for predicting future outcomes, it uses data from the past for such predictions. Machine learning can potentially reinforce existing demographic divides, biases and social inequities (D'Ignazio and Klein, 2020[3]). Governments have a responsibility to ensure that policymaking, and the datasets and models used to inform policy decisions are methodologically transparent and that data producers and users are accountable. This requires establishing appropriate governance mechanisms (OECD, 2024[4]).

14. The limited availability, accessibility and use of high-quality gender data, particularly with intersectional insights, has important implications for evidence-based policymaking and effective monitoring (European Union, 2023[5]) (OECD, 2023[6]) (OECD, 2021[7]). As of 2020, only 35 of the 102 Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) indicators related to women and girls could be monitored reliably at the global level (Cohen and Shinwell, 2020[8]). Gender data challenges are evident across a broad range of policy sectors where such data are often less available and may be considered less relevant (Data2X, 2023[9]) (Data2X, 2022[10]) (OECD, 2019[11]) (OECD, 2021[7]) (OECD, 2024[12]).

15. Yet, gender data alone can fall short in explaining some of the drivers of inequalities. The gaps revealed in gender data are often tied to intersectional factors; that is, multiple intersecting identity factors that influence policy impacts. For example, OECD data show that migrant women face higher employment

gaps in most OECD countries (OECD, 2023[13]). This phenomenon highlights the need to adopt an intersectional approach to collecting and using data (OECD, 2021[14]).

16. Each stage of the policy process has unique informational needs, which is why it is important to integrate gender considerations into the broader data and evidence ecosystem. Policymakers require different types of gender evidence depending on the decisions they are making. Broadly, these types of evidence include: (a) monitoring data to track trends, provide context and define problems; (b) explanatory evidence to understand causes and effects in specific circumstances; and (c) impact data to assess the effects of policies on diverse groups of people. Collecting this varied evidence enables a deeper understanding of gender-specific impacts. For instance, gender impact assessments are essential for evaluating policy proposals for political approval and informing budget decisions. They show decision-makers the ways in which different groups are likely to be impacted by, and benefit from, their decisions.

17. Stakeholders involved in gender mainstreaming – such as line ministries, central budget authorities and evaluation teams – rely on gender data to report annual performance, evaluate policy effectiveness and assess service delivery satisfaction from a gender perspective.

18. Poor-quality data, data silos and limited integration of gender data into policymaking contribute to "gender-blind" policies. The need for improved data literacy and capacity, cross-disciplinary collaboration, access to high-quality and reliable evidence, and systematic data governance is all the more crucial with the advent of evidence from less trustworthy sources and growing mistrust of evidence in political and civil society debate (OECD, 2024[15]).

19. Lessons can be learned and transferred from certain policy areas such as employment and social policy where data-driven approaches have more effectively supported gender equality goals. Such examples offer a strong foundation for action and should encourage continued efforts by OECD countries to apply similar strategies more broadly.

Aims and structure of this work

20. This report aims to support OECD countries expand the availability and use of gender data, including their intersectional dimensions, in the following key policy areas: environment, employment, labour market, social affairs, leadership, gender-based violence, inclusion and trade (see Annex A for methodology).

21. The purpose of this report is twofold. Firstly, it aims to identify gaps in gender-disaggregated and intersectional evidence and its use across the policymaking cycle in four key sectors. Part I analyses the key sources and methodologies for collecting and using gender-disaggregated and intersectional data across countries. This mapping exercise aims to generate a systematic and comparative understanding of the availability of data, how much policymakers use them, and perceptions of data relevance, accessibility and coherency. Gender data collection in employment and social affairs has been relatively strong over the past two decades. Collection in trade and the environment has been slowly increasing, particularly over the last five years, albeit from lower levels. However, important gaps remain. Where gender data exist, this work identifies some of the reasons why they are not being adequately used in decision-making. This analysis reveals challenges to improved gender data production and use. It also highlights the value of gender data in different policy areas and how certain countries have overcome barriers such as policy and legislative requirements for policy areas or the National Statistical Office (NSO) to collect and/or use gender data.

22. Second, this report analyses OECD countries' efforts to mainstream gender across the national data ecosystem, including the broad range of institutions and individuals involved in the production and use of gender data. Mainstreaming gender considerations across the national data ecosystem is key to countries' improving the availability and quality of gender data and their use in decision-making. The

analysis in Part II therefore focuses on gaps and challenges in building the right enabling environment. These enablers are rooted in good gender data governance, including strategic planning, legal and methodological frameworks, co-ordination and capacity building. The most complete systems pair this with adequate financial, human and technical resources across institutions, actors and diverse policy areas. The chapters in Part II outline how countries can better mainstream gender considerations across the data ecosystem, recognising the importance of striking a balance between limited resources and the task of closing data gaps and improving use.

23. Part II covers the perspectives of various stakeholders, encompassing data users and producers. The recent proliferation of new information technologies and digital transitions coupled with advances in data collection and analysis techniques have substantially changed the roles of key actors in data ecosystems (OECD, 2024[16]). It has also influenced the nature of interactions with citizens and the types of data sources available. Part II seeks to pinpoint alternative data sources and collection methods to make progress on gender equality goals. While the use of new technologies for gender data is at the nascent stage of development across OECD countries, this report spotlights how new technologies, such as "Big Data" (see Annex B), may unlock new sources and methodologies for gender evidence and how countries can manage associated risks through improved gender data governance.

24. In-depth case studies are included throughout the report. They discuss policy tools and examples of how gender analysis in the policy areas of environment and trade can lead to improved policymaking and gender equality outcomes. The report draws out the factors for success in building gender and intersectional data capacity as well as a range of detailed and concrete policy recommendations.

Overview of report findings: Challenges and opportunities for building government capacity for gender-related and intersectional evidence

Assessing the availability and quality of gender-disaggregated data

25. The first challenge for OECD countries is ensuring that gender data are available, relevant and high in quality. OECD countries still rely on traditional sources of gender data such as censuses and surveys. Newer sources such as private-sector data, social media and citizen-collected data are the least used. This is likely due to perceptions that these data are low in quality and irrelevant to policymaking goals. There is also limited regulatory and methodological guidance on how to collect and use these data.

26. Gender data collection and availability are increasing in the policy areas of environment, labour market, social affairs and trade but gaps remain, especially in environment, trade, safety and public participation. As the national body responsible for producing data and statistics, National Statistical Offices (NSOs) are a key source of gender data for policymakers alongside gender data produced by policy ministries. Most NSO respondents in the OECD produce gender-disaggregated indicators as part of their core statistical activities relating to society and employment. However, the production of gender-relevant indicators in environment; care economy; new technologies; emerging industries; and trade outcomes is less consistent. Only one in two NSO respondents in the OECD (14 countries) produce regular gender statistics on gender-based violence, and unpaid domestic and care work. Only 10% (3 countries) produce gender statistics relating to climate change and the environment. Only 14% (4 countries) use trade surveys to produce gender statistics.

27. There is also little available gender data disaggregated by other factors ("intersectional data") across the policy areas studied. Gender data are often disaggregated by age and disability but disaggregation by sexual orientation, Indigeneity and racial background are the least available. This may be due to limited privacy and confidentiality requirements (for example, adequacy of data protection and storage systems); perceived absence of a legal basis for collection; laws prohibiting collection or use;

limited resources or capacity; irregular or limited periodicity of collection; concerns around data quality given small sample sizes; and methodological challenges such as the absence of agreed definitions.

28. The coherency, coverage and relevance of existing gender data varies, especially in the environment and trade policy areas. In the environment policy area, gender evidence is not as relevant and accessible as it could be, particularly for administrative records, population and other surveys. Environmental policymaker respondents also raised privacy concerns and the absence of a central repository and overview of all available primary gender data sources as challenges to increased analysis and use. In the trade policy area, there are constraints on using existing data for analyses of women in trade. While there are more gender-differentiated trade data than ever before, coverage remains inconsistent, with significant gaps in coherency and relevance. Administrative records, for example, are sometimes piecemeal and inconsistent with other sources.

Key to high-quality gender data is to focus on their use in decision-making

29. The second main challenge is expanding the use of gender evidence in decision-making. Some respondent countries reported that there is limited understanding of the availability and value of integrating gender data across the policymaking cycle, particularly at the policy officer level. For example, while a small number of countries reported using gender data periodically for resource allocation in the environment policy area, most countries do not. The primary users of gender data in respondent environment policy areas are data officers, followed by legal and financial officers, and the office of the minister. Policymakers are the least likely to use gender and intersectional data. Furthermore, gender data have been primarily employed in gender equality policies rather than uniformly across all environmental policy areas. Lastly, even in cases where gender data are more routinely used across the policy cycle, such as in the labour market policy area, countries are not systematically using intersectional data.

30. There are different reasons why gender data with intersectional perspectives are used poorly or not at all. Respondents all cited the fast-paced policymaking cycle, allowing little time for gender analysis. The absence of dedicated human resources is another top challenge. Respondents in the environment policy area also reported the absence of gender indicators guiding data collection as being a key challenge. Respondents in central gender institutions mentioned the lack of dedicated financial resources, lack of formal requirements for intersectional data, and limited knowledge and skills in gender data interpretation and analysis.

31. Countries also reported specific challenges relating to the use of intersectional data, including paucity of intersectional data insights into particular policy challenges; limited understanding of the value of intersectional data; and the absence of standard methodological guidance for analysing and interpreting intersectional data insights.

Adopting a system-wide approach to gender data governance is essential for improving their collection, quality and use

32. Some OECD countries have begun to adopt a comprehensive government-wide approach that mainstreams gender considerations across the entire data ecosystem. Together with a national gender data strategy and adequate resourcing, this encompasses policy frameworks and laws; stakeholder co-ordination mechanisms; and information integrity frameworks. This a strong gender data governance ecosystem and it is critical for improved collection and use of gender data in decision-making.

33. However, most countries are not yet taking holistic, strategic and co-ordinated action across policy areas. In these cases, there is an important disconnect between data users within ministries and data producers, which is affecting gender data relevance and gaps.

34. Legal and policy requirements can improve data coverage and use. OECD countries have more requirements for the collection and/or use of gender data through gender impact assessments (GIA), gender analysis as part of legislative development, and gender budgeting or reporting requirements. For example, 18 of 27 central gender equality institutions reported having a mandate to undertake gender analysis as part of regulatory or legislative development and 16 respondent countries require the use of GIA in the policy cycle. However, only one in four respondent countries (25%, 7 countries) have formal regulations requiring the mainstreaming of a gender perspective into national statistics. Nearly half of respondent countries do not have any specific laws or regulations mandating specialised gender-relevant surveys such as those on violence against women, time use and asset ownership. Requirements to collect and/or use intersectional data are even rarer. Countries with such requirements reported stronger gender data availability and a broader range of data sources, with tools such as GIAs and gender budgeting also contributing to improved data collection.

35. Sector-specific methodological guidance can also greatly impact use of gender data; however, it is not widespread across OECD countries. Policy officers are often unaware of the range of gender data available in their policy area and require clearer instructions for undertaking gender data analysis and sector-specific case studies.

36. More OECD countries are developing dedicated gender data strategies and frameworks. For example, 10 of 22 respondent OECD countries have dedicated gender data strategies or frameworks in place. And, while a gender data roadmap or action plan can support implementation of a gender data strategy, in 2022, only a third of respondent OECD countries (36%, 10 countries) reported having roadmaps or action plans for statistics laws and regulations.

37. Several OECD countries are also adopting important innovations, such as Australia's Indigenous data governance framework, Canada's dedicated Centre for Gender, Diversity and Inclusion Statistics within Statistics Canada, Costa Rica's National Action Plan on Gender Equality in Climate Action and Mexico's declaration of their National Time Use Survey as Information of National Interest.

38. Effective gender data production and use rely heavily on collaboration within national data ecosystems. Currently, gender and intersectional data are spread across various government agencies and external sources, often with limited inter-ministerial co-ordination. Most NSOs regularly collaborate with relevant ministries and international organisations but do so in a limited and irregular way with central gender equality institutions, other national entities and academia. National gender data co-ordination mechanisms such as inter-ministerial working groups are critical for understanding gender data users' needs but are not widespread across OECD countries.

39. In many respondent OECD countries, policy officers require greater technical capacity to carry out gender analysis in policy design and monitoring. Yet, capacity-building mechanisms such as dedicated gender data hubs and regular organisational-level gender data audits are not yet widespread across OECD countries. In nearly a third of OECD countries (29%, 8 countries), a single gender focal point exists in the entire NSO. In another third of countries (32%, 9 countries) there is a dedicated office for gender data. Multiple gender data focal points or officers are distributed across various sections, departments, divisions and units of the NSO in only a third (29%, 8 countries) of countries. As for other stakeholders within the national data ecosystem, gender focal points or dedicated structures (units, sections, divisions or departments) are available in almost one-quarter of central gender equality institutions (6 countries) and in one-third of other ministries and agencies (32%, 9 countries). For example, in the environmental policy area, a small number of respondent countries have established dedicated gender focal points.

40. To support greater gender data use and dissemination, OECD countries are increasingly publishing gender data on online portals or dashboards. For example, three-quarters of NSOs (75%, 21 countries) reported producing gender statistics publications and most reported using online communication tools such as web landing pages, data visualisation tools and data portals (61%, 61% and 64%; 17, 17 and 18 countries, respectively). However, these efforts could be improved to ensure all available gender

data can be accessed by policymakers. Policy ministries and other entities across OECD countries also have dedicated communication tools (web pages, data portals, publications, or data visualisation tools) for gender statistics. This is the case for relevant ministries (57%, 16 countries), academia, research institutes and think tanks (50%, 14 countries), and other national entities (43%, 12 countries). However, only a small number of countries have intra-government websites or data platforms displaying government-produced gender data (6 countries in 2024).

New data sources and methods of analysis can be helpful but only with adequate guidance and regulation

41. Respondents from central gender equality institutions and environment policy areas expressed interest in new technologies and sources to increase gender data production and analysis. Understanding social and economic changes resulting from the current transitions and megatrends – including the shift to remote working, the use and impact of AI, new job creation in green and digital etc. – requires new data sources and indicators. But, digital innovations have their own unique challenges and risks. Gaps in regulation mean that policy areas have limited clarity on how to use these new data and technologies. More clarity is needed on what new gender and intersectional data they are authorised to collect and use, and through which sources and digital innovations. Central gender equality institutions highlighted the absence of appropriate regulation and tailored methodological guidance. They also have concerns about privacy, ethics and quality (including reliability and consistency) as key barriers to the use of digital innovations. These were echoed by respondents in environment policy areas. Some respondent countries also noted challenges associated with technical and resourcing capacity to treat, handle and store such data.

42. These challenges have resulted in little application of digital innovations to gender data collection and use across respondent ministries. OECD countries also recognised that digital innovations come with the risk of gender bias and discrimination, technology-facilitated gender-based violence, digital exclusion, misinformation and disinformation. They considered that their use requires careful planning, and appropriate regulation and guidance (Chen, 2023[17]) (Davis, 2020[18]) (Lorenz, Perset and Berryhill, 2023[19]) (OECD, 2024[15]) (UNWomen, 2024[20]).

43. Some OECD countries are adopting regulatory mechanisms to ensure adequate privacy and ethics protection in the use of gender data and digital innovations. These include the establishment of privacy principles and privacy regulators, and developing frameworks that include gender considerations. Enabling people to more easily raise privacy concerns is also important. While this is promising, only 12 central gender equality institutions have participated in the development of frameworks, legislation or strategies on data protection and privacy to support the production and use of gender data. Privacy-related regulatory mechanisms would benefit from the systematic integration of a gender lens. This would ensure they are contributing to the ethical production of gender data while protecting populations that have been disproportionately impacted by digital harms associated with privacy breaches.

Improved gender data production and use require adequate resourcing

44. **Adequate resourcing is key to building strong gender data governance.** In some cases, gender data collection can be achieved by ministries and NSOs at no additional cost by extending existing surveys and incorporating gender indicators into existing onboarding processes or project reporting. In cases, however, where gender data collection requires more resources, the decision to invest must be balanced with the potential value of the additional gender data to policymaking. Over the period 2012 to 2019, resource allocation (human and financial) for gender statistics remained unchanged in nearly two-thirds of OECD countries studied (64%, 18 countries) and increased for nearly a fifth (21%, 6 countries). The gendered impact of the COVID-19 crisis led to an increased demand for gender data in areas most

affected by the pandemic. However, this surge in demand was not matched by additional resource allocation in most cases.

Factors for success and policy recommendations

45. Political and institutional will and adequate resourcing are key factors in increasing the production and use of gender and intersectional data. Responsibility and accountability for building gender data collection and use needs to come from leadership and all levels of government.

46. NSOs, ministries, regulators, research communities, the private sector, technical communities within technology and telecommunications fields, civil society, women's organisations and international organisations can work together to mainstream gender considerations across the national data ecosystem, including through the following actions:

- **Define and integrate gender-equality objectives and indicators across all national plans, strategies, and procurement and grants systems in all policy areas (even those that may appear gender-neutral):** Policy areas can develop these objectives and indicators by looking at international leading practice and indicators of gender equality in specific policy settings as well as through public consultation, particularly with women's organisations and academia. Participation in international fora can further support the alignment of indicators at regional and international levels. Gender-equality objectives can support National Statistical Offices (NSOs) and ministries to produce relevant gender data, enabling countries to monitor progress made through policy frameworks and towards cross-cutting gender equality goals.
- **Take stock of what is missing**: Conducting regular audits and needs assessments on the availability, quality and coverage of gender and intersectional data across policy areas and as part of national strategies can help identify gaps and inconsistencies.
- **Increase visibility of existing gender data, including intersectional perspectives:** Environment, trade and labour market policy areas can work with NSOs to develop a central repository and catalogue of all available primary gender and intersectional data sources available in each policy area.
- **Provide for the collection of gender data, including intersectional perspectives, as part of all public-sector onboarding processes, including legislatures, the judiciary and civil service.** In addition, enable service delivery agencies to collect gender and intersectional data on all public-sector service and programme participants, such as disaster management, social protection, police and health services. Provision of this data by individuals should be voluntary and organisations should ensure adequate consent information is provided as well as appropriate data protection conditions in place relating to privacy and data storage.
- **Align national gender data collection with international gender indicators and common definitions**: Peer learning and standardised definitions across countries is not only efficient, it helps improve the consistency and comparability of gender-disaggregated data across countries. Participation in international meetings on gender data and intersectional perspectives can support international harmonisation efforts. For example, OECD trade policy areas can work to align their data collection with common standards related to women's entrepreneurship developed by the International Standards Organisation (ISO), including definitions related to women-owned and -led businesses, women-led co-operatives and women-led informal enterprises. Further, labour market policy areas can work with international organisations such as the OECD and the International Labour Organization (ILO) to develop a consistent definition and gender indicators associated with telework.

Build a gender data governance system through leadership, strategic planning, and clear regulation and guidance

- **Develop a whole-of-government national gender data strategy**: Developing a national gender data strategy can improve countries' quality, co-ordination and use of gender and intersectional evidence. It can also help countries remain agile in the face of emerging technologies; prioritise the most important actions; show political and institutional leadership, and accountability; and crystallise government's vision for a strong gender data ecosystem.
- **Ensure clear authorisation is in place to collect, use and store existing gender data:** Develop statistical instruments and regulatory frameworks that provide specific authorisation and instructions on the collection, use and storage of existing gender and intersectional data.
- **Work towards requiring the disaggregation of national statistics and administrative data by gender and where practicable, other factors**: Requiring all national statistics to be disaggregated by gender can help policymakers integrate a gender lens into policy and budget design, and implement a national gender data strategy. Countries may wish to build capacity starting with a combination of incentives, technical support and policy frameworks before implementing a legal requirement.
- **Ensure there is sufficient data to support effective policymaking**: This includes understanding the data needs of policymakers, using tools such as gender impact assessment (GIA), gender budgeting and gender policy evaluation.
- **Develop in-depth sector-specific methodological guidance to support the use of gender data in gender impact assessment and gender budgeting:** Guidance that sets out a methodology for how to analyse, interpret, use and store gender and intersectional data can help civil servants implement tools such as gender impact assessment and gender budgeting. Guidance may also cover how to use new technologies such as AI for gender data analysis. Providing sector-specific case studies and examples can enable different policy areas to see how gender data can be used in their policy area. Countries can also incorporate the collection of gender data disaggregated by other characteristics, enabling this intersectional data to improve national statistical guidance, gender impact assessment and gender budgeting guidelines.
- **Mainstream gender across the national data ecosystem through gender focal points**: NSOs and policy ministries require gender expertise to ensure the production of data include gender considerations. Establishing multiple gender data focal points or officers across various sections, departments, divisions and units of the NSO and policy ministries helps mainstream gender considerations across the national data ecosystem, with close collaboration and co-ordination among the different actors including central gender equality institutions.
- **Ensure gender data are adequately resourced**: Policy areas should consider if they need a dedicated budget for gender and intersectional data collection and analysis as part of all policy priorities. In some cases, existing data collection can be adjusted on a cost-neutral basis to include gender and intersectional data. In other instances, there may be a need for additional activity to gather the information. The use of this new data can be maximised by supporting civil servants to attend data analysis training; engaging gender data analysis experts to build capacity across divisions; initiating gender equality-specific data projects; and providing for a programme of work through NSOs. In some cases, new funding may be needed to build effective gender data infrastructure and make sure that policymakers have the skills and knowledge to use it.
- **Support the use of digital innovations for gender data (including new sources and analysis mechanisms) with appropriate governance rules, risk assessments and guidance**: Developing regulatory and policy guidance to support innovation in gender data collection and use can provide policymakers with clear authorisation and guidance as to what kinds of new gender data sources and methodologies are permissible, and to ensure data collection and use remain

ethical and responsible. This can also support data sharing and greater accountability in the use of gender data. Adopting clear governance rules and regulations is important for data producers and users alike as self- and co-regulatory approaches for regulating digital technologies have, at times, led to uncertainty and inconsistent policy outcomes (OECD, 2024[16]). Governance rules and regulations contribute to higher quality gender evidence, provide for the responsible use of Big Data as part of gender statistics, and provide guidance and authorisation to enable the interoperability of datasets across agencies.

- **Integrate a gender lens into national data privacy and confidentiality frameworks**: Taking into account potential gendered impacts as part of the design and review of privacy and confidentiality frameworks can support countries to determine what is considered sensitive data and what level of protection is needed. This can also support countries to create specific mechanisms to protect the community from potential harms such as technology-facilitated gender-based violence resulting from data breaches.
- **Address gender biases in data through clear regulatory guidance and standards**: Developing systematic approaches to identify and correct gender biases in existing and future datasets, including those derived from non-traditional collection methods, can ensure fairer and more accurate representation.
- **Integrate gender considerations into existing open-access policies where appropriate:** For example, countries could integrate gender considerations into the rules governing national and regional open-access data portals.

Fill gender evidence gaps with high-quality, relevant and cross-cutting data by adopting a systematic approach

- **Prioritise filling gender data gaps, including intersectional perspectives:** To support evidence-based policymaking, countries can prioritise increased data collection in priority areas before progressively expanding. Regular consultation with national policy areas on their data needs and priorities can support this exercise. Some examples of reported gender data gaps which countries may wish to prioritise include:
  - **Environment policy and outcomes:** Exposure to air pollution or other hazardous pollutants, land ownership, employment, entrepreneurship and leadership in climate-vulnerable sectors (such as agriculture, livestock, fisheries, forestry, tourism); access to resources (including energy, safe drinking water, food and transport); training in green jobs and green innovation; climate-related hazards and disasters (for example, financial loss, mortality, migration and gender-based violence due to extreme weather events); and the proportion of climate finance from national budgets targeted at reducing gender inequalities.
  - **Gender balance in leadership, gender-based violence, and inclusion policy and outcomes:** Prevalence and nature of all forms of violence (including physical, emotional, sexual and psychological) across different settings (including online, on public transport, in educational settings, among others); women's health; the care economy; women in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM); digital gender gaps; financial inclusion and women's access to financing, venture capital and start-up support services. Similarly, improving understanding of men's changing attitudes towards gender norms, workplace and online violence, sharing of unpaid care and domestic responsibilities, and relationship dynamics can be used to prioritise policy and programme interventions focused on harmful masculinities.
  - **Labour market, and digitalisation policy and outcomes:** Employment quality (for example, informal employment, perceptions of job quality, commuting including time, modes and safety perceptions); work-life balance (for example, time/leave use by fathers and partners

disaggregated where possible into childcare, eldercare and domestic responsibilities; flexible working arrangements; remote working; paid and unpaid work hours; out-of-school care); technological impacts on work (for example, use and impacts, job quality and experiences of associated adverse behaviours in the workplace such as sexual harassment, discrimination).

- **Trade policy and outcomes:** Business owners, leaders, employees and nature of trade (for example, nature of imports/exports, employment of women in exporting firms), and trade agreement outcomes.

- **Prioritise the collection of gender data disaggregated by other dimensions:** Countries can prioritise additionally disaggregating gender data by other factors. Some examples include Indigeneity, racial and ethnic background, disability (particularly, health, well-being and safety measures), socio-economic status, educational background and rurality/regionality.
- **Ensure systematic measurement**: Established surveys like the national census and Labour Force Survey can provide robust, comparable data across different socio-economic groups but data must be collected, analysed and published regularly over time. Ensuring systematic, institutionally-embedded measurement – rather than ad hoc collection that may be contingent on political will – is important for continuous monitoring and evaluation, identifying trends, making progress, and maintaining relevant and effective policy interventions. NSOs can work with national and sub-national ministries across all policy areas to ensure alignment on definitions and categorisations across collections.
- **Leverage private-sector and civil society data**: Engaging with the private sector and civil society to access and use privately held data, using confidentiality agreements and trust-building mechanisms, can support data sharing and the development of new gender data and digital innovations for gender data analysis and dissemination. This should be combined with appropriate regulation and guidance to mitigate risks of gender bias as well as clarification as to how it can be treated, used and stored.
- **Re-evaluate legal impediments**: Reviewing and assessing the necessity of legal restrictions on collecting data on racial and ethnic background can balance the need to protect individuals with the requirement to gather critical information for addressing social and economic disparities.

To support the use of gender data in decision-making, build technical skills and collaborate to better understand gender inequalities

- **Systematise consultation and collaboration mechanisms**: Formalising consultation and collaboration mechanisms so that NSOs, central gender equality institutions and all other policy ministries are regularly involved in inter-ministerial co-ordination efforts can help clarify the needs of gender data users. Where appropriate, central gender equality institutions can co-lead gender data co-ordination efforts to ensure gender mainstreaming expertise shapes the production of national statistics and data. In parallel, formalising partnerships with actors outside of the public sector, such as universities, service delivery providers, technology and communications industries, and women's organisations can support countries to find innovative and comprehensive solutions to gender equality-related challenges associated with privacy, technology-facilitated gender-based violence, mis- and disinformation, gender bias and digital participation gaps. This can also support greater data sharing. Co-ordination mechanisms such as inter-institutional working groups should have clear terms of reference and regular reporting to ensure accountability.
- **Ensure consultation mechanisms include regular gender data needs assessments:** Consulting with policy ministries on their ongoing and emerging gender data needs can ensure data production is relevant and useful for evidence-based policymaking. This is particularly important in the context of the digital and green transitions so that emerging policy priorities are

shaped by high-quality gender and intersectional evidence reflecting the needs and experiences of citizens.

- **Build gender data literacy through dedicated training and capacity building**: Awareness-raising initiatives for managers, senior civil servants and policy, data, evaluation and legal officers on different forms of inequality and disadvantage across policy areas equips them with the skills to analyse, interpret, and apply gender and intersectional evidence throughout the policy cycle.
- **Build capacity to collect gender data disaggregated by intersectional perspectives**: Gender data that are additionally disaggregated by intersectional factors highlight how gender, disability, age, sexuality etc. can intersect to exacerbate inequalities. Awareness raising and training on the value and applications of intersectional data can support its increased collection and use, and build technical capacity to analyse, interpret and store intersectional data.
- **Develop online tools and modules, and require their use as part of onboarding processes for all civil servants**: These can provide practical examples of how to interpret and incorporate gender and intersectional data into policymaking across different sectors. Online tools can provide centralised, atemporal guidance and links to gender data catalogues and repositories, and should be available to all staff. Tools can be regularly updated with new information as regulation and research on gender data evolve.
- **Expand data accessibility and transparency**: Investing in public platforms, dashboards and databases to make gender data easily accessible to policymakers, researchers and the public enhances knowledge, transparency and accountability.
- **Foster trust in data collection and improve definitional accuracy**: Build relationships with civil society actors such as community representative organisations and service providers, and regularly consult with them on data definitions, data groupings and categorisations. Partnering with civil society actors can also help build community trust to report and participate in government data collection exercises.

Part 1: Gender data production and use

OECD countries have increased the production of gender and intersectional evidence in recent years, but important gaps in availability and quality remain. The following chapters highlight where data gaps remain and how they can affect the use of gender evidence within policymaking. Part I also highlights efforts by OECD countries to enhance gender evidence availability and use through policy and legal requirements.

Chapter 2. Assessing the availability and quality of gender evidence across the OECD

47. OECD countries require relevant, high-quality gender evidence to understand citizens' needs, create gender-responsive policies and assess which policy combinations work to improve people's everyday lives.

48. Poor or incomplete gender data can have significant policy implications. OECD analysis conducted for this report has found that data on time use (i.e. paid and unpaid work hours) are not regularly collected or published in most OECD countries. This is particularly the case for how time use responds to policy changes like family leave or childcare availability. As governments seek to improve gender equality and redistribute care work in the household through dedicated paternity leave and awareness campaigns, time-use data disaggregated by gender are required to assess and evaluate impacts. In another example, data on access to and experiences with technology, including media and mobile phones, are often gathered through surveys at the household rather than the individual level. This complicates policymakers' understanding of gender differences in access to technology and technology's impact on women's economic security and experiences of technology-facilitated gender-based violence.

49. Even when data are collected, quality issues arise in the absence of consistent international standards for data collection. Report analysis identified that although gender data on violence and harassment in the workplace are available geographically, surveys on harassment and violence in the workplace are carried out less than once every five years in most countries. More regular and consistent data collection would help governments and employers design more effective prevention and early detection programmes, and better monitor progress over time.

50. Available and high-quality gender data can lead to policy reforms with significant implications for overall gender equality. For instance, the equal sharing of parental leave around childbirth is critically important for mothers' economic security and employment outcomes (Tavits et al., 2023[21]). Access to high-quality gender data on leave-taking has enabled policymakers in many OECD countries to assess disparities in access and use between mothers, fathers and partners, and adjust their parental leave schemes to ensure more equitable sharing of leave (OECD, 2023[6]).

51. Using audits and gender data needs assessments to identify gaps between policymakers' gender data needs, and available evidence and quality can help OECD countries prioritise bridging these data gaps. Additionally, incorporating gender equality-specific data into results frameworks for national plans and strategies (including benchmarks and outcomes) can improve the production of high-quality gender evidence and help governments track real world improvements in gender equality (see Chapter 5).

52. This chapter provides a brief overview of the range of gender data available in specific sectors across OECD countries, including key sources, themes and methodologies. It also provides an overview of OECD countries' views as to the quality of available gender data, including relevance, accessibility, and coherency. In so doing, it highlights some of the key challenges to the increased use of gender data across

the OECD. Recognising that countries are increasingly relying on requirements to collect and/or use gender data as a means of increasing data quality and use, this chapter concludes by analysing the nature and impact of these mandates. Additional strategies adopted by OECD countries to increase the availability and use of gender data are discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

Countries collect gender data using a wide variety of sources, mainly relying on survey and administrative data sources

53. There is considerable variety in the type of primary data sources for gender and intersectional data across policy areas. Traditional statistical instruments, such as censuses, and household and social surveys, are still the main sources of gender data. For instance, over 80% of the 28 respondent OECD countries to the United Nations (UN) Global Survey on Gender Statistics produce gender statistics from sources such as population censuses (82%, 23 countries), living condition surveys (82%, 23 countries), income and expenditure surveys (86%, 24 countries) and labour force surveys (96%, 27 countries). In addition, more than 60% of countries produce gender statistics based on time-use surveys or modules (64%, 18 countries), disability surveys (64%, 18 countries) and demographic and health surveys (75%, 21 countries). Violence against women and victimisation surveys are produced in only half of respondent OECD countries.

54. Administrative records are also major primary sources of gender data, notably when it comes to labour administrative records (89% of countries, 25 countries), health administration records (89%, 25 countries), civil registration records (86%, 24 countries), judiciary records (86%, 28 countries) and social security records (82%, 23 countries).

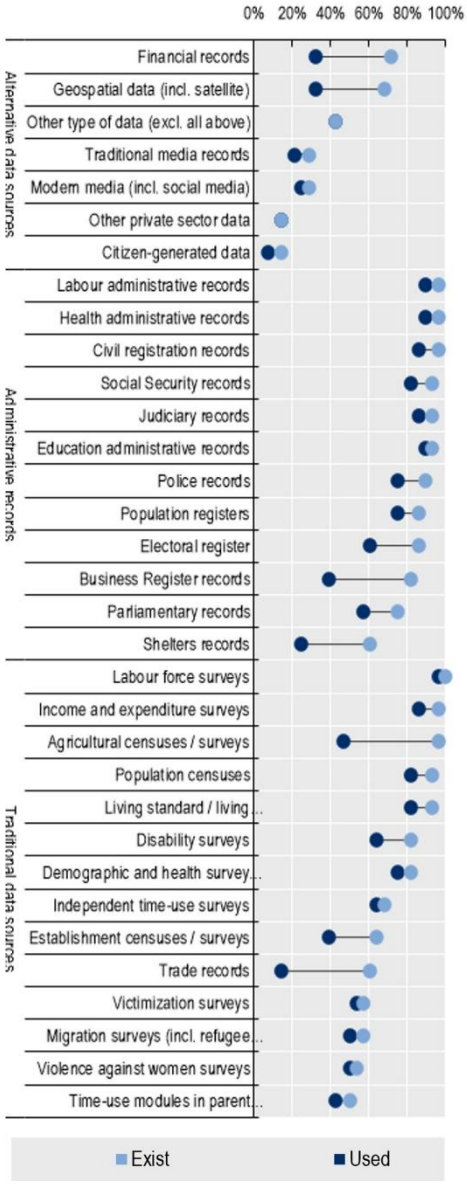
55. These sources are often complementary. Where there are data gaps and the need to enhance the accuracy of gender data, countries are increasingly combining or “triangulating” administrative and survey data to generate a more complete understanding of a particular policy issue.

56. When official statistics and administrative records are not available or not suited for the purposes of the analysis, alternative data sources can also be considered. Their use, however, remains limited, with only one-third or fewer NSOs employing any alternative data sources, such as social-media data, to produce gender statistics (see Chapter 5). Figure 1 provides an overview of the gender-relevant data sources that are used to produce gender statistics. This may provide an indicative reference point for policymakers to map data needs, sources and gaps in their respective policy areas.

57. In the environment policy area, respondent countries identified various alternative data sources that could enhance the availability and use of gender data. For example, Costa Rica emphasised the potential of geospatial data of environmental variables disaggregated by gender to analyse patterns of land use and access to environmental services. The Slovak Republic noted that sensor data, such as transport and mobile phone data, could be instrumental in analysing population patterns and energy poverty. However, Luxembourg cautioned that social-network data might be compromised by dis-information and misinformation, potentially introducing biases.

Figure 1. Existing data sources for the production of gender statistics

% of respondent OECD countries



Note: The chart shows responses from 28 countries to the question: "*Please indicate whether the following data sources exist in your country and whether they are used in producing gender statistics*". Respondents were not asked about the frequency of each source.
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

StatLink 2 https://stat.link/xy3lzn

Overview of gender data sources in specific policy areas

Environment: For environmental policy ministries, most respondent countries collect data in the form of surveys, administrative records, and, to a lesser extent, interviews and focal group data. There were few-to-no countries that reported gathering gender data through field research, data from external stakeholders, alternative data sources or other non-traditional data sources. Policy ministries reported general population surveys and surveys on food and diet, health, household, and labour force. Other surveys included topics on climate risks, transport and consumption habits, and the experiences of women living in rural areas.

Gender balance in leadership, gender-based violence and inclusion policy and outcomes*: Given the cross-cutting nature of gender equality, central gender equality institutions rely on a wide variety of data sources and methodologies, including census and population data, and data from universities, schools, service providers and the police. Central gender equality institutions reported filling gaps in national statistical systems by commissioning smaller-scale research, including interviews.

Labour market: For labour market outcomes, gender data are commonly derived from survey and administrative data. For example, labour force participation, employment and unemployment rates are typically measured through data collected in regular national or multinational household surveys. Gender statistics related to tax, earnings and social security are commonly sourced through administrative data.

Trade: Gender-differentiated trade data are typically collected by national statistics institutions or national departments for business or trade, using business surveys and household surveys as well as administrative records such as tax records, employment statistics and business registers. In many instances, these are then combined with customs data, administrative data or surveys on trade. Some countries rely on detailed register-based systems for data collection that can be linked due to discrete identifiers of individuals and businesses. This allows for a more comprehensive analysis of women's participation in trade across industries, covering the entire registered population. One-off reports and interviews, focus groups, field research and data from external stakeholders are also used to supplement the survey and registry data.

*Note: Central gender equality institutions have dual functions including responsibility for gender equality policymaking and facilitating the implementation of gender mainstreaming programmes across government. The data presented in this box largely focus on their role and experiences as policymakers.

Gender data availability is increasing across the OECD but gaps remain and quality varies substantially across policy areas

58. Gender data availability remains uneven across the policy areas analysed, with larger gaps in environment, trade, safety and public participation, and smaller gaps in employment, labour market, education and health.

59. According to the results of the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics, more than 8 in 10 NSOs in respondent OECD countries produce regular gender statistics on poverty and income (82%, 23 countries), mortality (82%, 23 countries), education and training (86%, 24 countries), and labour force (93%, 26 countries) (Figure 2). On violence against women, and unpaid domestic and care work, only one in two NSOs produce regular gender statistics. Even areas with relatively better coverage are affected by

gender data gaps. For example, within the economic policy area, trade surveys are seldom used to produce gender data (14%, 4 countries).

60. This suggests that most NSOs produce gender-disaggregated indicators as part of their core statistics on society and employment. However, the production of gender-relevant indicators on environment, the care economy, uses and impacts of new technologies, emerging industries and trade outcomes is less consistent, resulting in data and quality gaps. For example, only 11% (3 countries) of NSOs produce gender data relating to climate change and the environment (Figure 2).

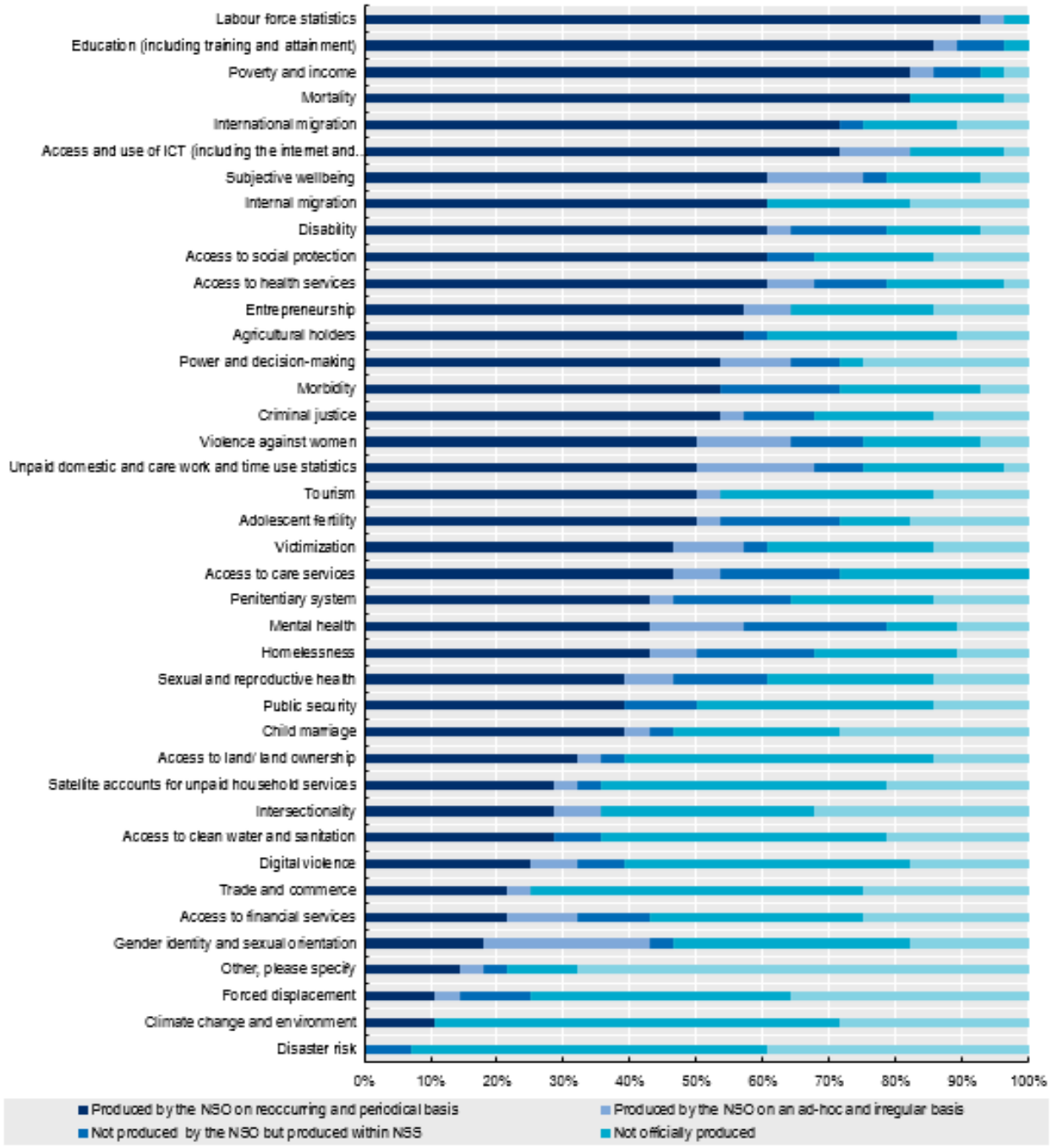
61. Gender data produced by NSOs and ministries need to be cross-cutting, timely and coherent to help governments understand women's and men's needs and the impact of gender-equality policy design on their lives. But, gender data on important topics such as gender-based violence, time use and trade are often produced as part of ad hoc, time-limited projects. Instead, a thorough and holistic approach to meeting the gender data needs of policymakers across all areas is required (see Chapters 5 and 6).

62. In some cases, gender data gaps reflect the absence of an underlying statistical instrument. For instance, victimisation surveys are only available in half of the countries surveyed. Where they do exist, they are systematically used to produce gender-relevant evidence. In other cases, however, data gaps can result from the production of data that are not relevant to policy areas or from available data sources that are underused. For instance, while 68% (19 countries) of respondent OECD countries have geospatial data, only 32% (9 countries) use them. This suggests that policymakers may be unaware of the full range of available gender data or their value in evidence-based policymaking.

63. Countries can make further efforts to promote these unused data sources and develop instruments to improve the production and use of gender data. A first step would be to develop gender-sensitive and intersectional results frameworks and indicators to help policymakers identify data and evidence requirements to close gender gaps and measure progress. Results frameworks and gender data both operate to improve the quality and relevance of the other and, therefore, the quality of policymaking (see Part II for further recommendations on data dissemination and capacity building).

Figure 2. Production of gender statistics by topic

% of OECD countries



Note: The chart shows responses from 28 OECD countries to the question: "*Please indicate the regularity of producing gender statistics in the following areas*".
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

StatLink 2 https://stat.link/zj76w3

Deep-dive analysis of gender data availability and quality across policy areas

Environment policy

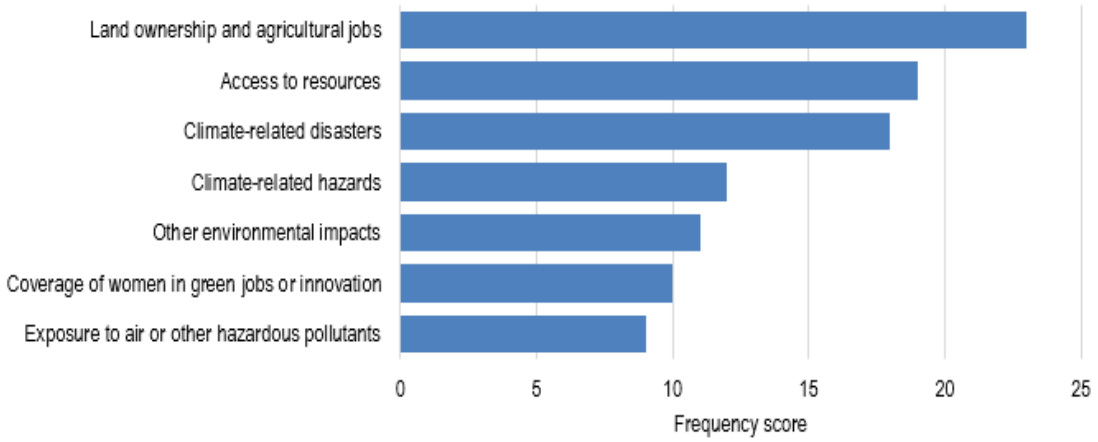
Gender data in the environment policy area are increasingly collected and available on certain policy topics but challenges remain as to their relevance and accessibility

64. In the environment policy area, 10 OECD respondent countries reported that some administrative records now include gender data due to the cross-cutting nature of the environmental policy area with many other policy areas. Gender-disaggregated administrative records include losses and damages due to emergencies and disasters, land and property registers, fishing licenses, forest ownership, heat stress mortality, and green jobs and entrepreneurship. For example, in 2023, the Ministry for the Ecological Transition and Demographic Challenge (MITECO) published a report on "Women's green entrepreneurship and women's entrepreneurship in rural areas" (executive summary in English) that includes an excel database with sex-disaggregated and gender-sensitive indicators that help to compare women and men employed and self-employed in green entrepreneurship and other activities in the rural and urban areas and in Spain and the EU-27. Similarly, Mexico has a census that has included gender data on agriculture, livestock and forestry since 1930.

65. Countries also reported limited gender data availability (Figure 2) in terms of relevance, accessibility and coherency, particularly for administrative records, population and other surveys (see Table 1). Figure 3 shows that while gender data are most abundant on land ownership and agricultural employment, they are least available on women in green jobs or innovation, and exposure to hazardous air or other pollutants.

Figure 3. Availability of gender-specific environmental data is more abundant in the areas of land ownership and agricultural employment

Frequency score across 10 respondent countries



Note: Frequency score is given based on a multiplication of the number of countries by the level of availability, where 'always' is given a score of 5, 'often' is given a score of 4, 'sometimes' is given a score of 3, 'rarely' is given a score of 2, 'don't know' is given a score of 1, and 'never' or 'not available' is given a score of 0. When countries reported multiple levels of availability, depending on the responding authority, the highest score of frequency is selected for that country.
Source: OECD (2024) Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies.

66. Respondent environment policy areas reported fewer challenges when using gender data collected through interviews and focus groups, field research and data from external stakeholders or alternative data sources (see Table 1). However, countries raised the questions of privacy concerns and absence of a central repository and overview of all available primary gender data sources as challenges to their increased analysis and use.

Table 1. Many primary data sources in the environmental policy area are challenging in terms of relevance, accessibility and coherency

Number of respondent countries reporting challenges related to relevance, accessibility, coherency or other

Primary data source type	Relevance	Accessibility	Coherency	Other challenge
Population surveys	3	2	3	3
Administrative records	3	4	3	3
Surveys	1	3	0	3
Interview and focus groups	2	3	2	1
Field research	2	2	1	1
Data from external stakeholders (academia, international organisations, NGOs)	1	2	1	2
Alternative data sources (e.g. social-media data, open data, third-party data)	1	1	0	1

Note: Countries were asked to rate the accessibility, relevance and coherency of gender data for each primary data source, from 'always', 'often' relevant to 'sometimes' or 'rarely' relevant, from 'easily accessible', 'can be requested and obtained' to 'not easily accessible' and from 'data is coherent across datasets and over time', to 'data is not coherent across datasets and over time' and 'don't know'. The white to red colour gradient indicates how many of the 10 respondent countries reported challenges when dealing with primary data (with white indicating no challenge to dark red indicating significant challenges). Note these sources may not be mutually exclusive and some cross-over may occur between sources.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies.

Spotlight on gaps in environment policy

Climate-related hazards and disasters (for example, financial loss, mortality, migration related to extreme weather events)

67. Climate-related hazard and disaster data have varying levels of accessibility across countries. For example, Costa Rica reported readily available data on climate-related disasters, supporting initiatives like the Loss and Damage System. Colombia also reported availability of climate disaster data; however, they are not easily accessible.

68. Sweden highlighted the role of these data in planning and resource allocation, and pointed out that universities and research institutes rely on these data. This underscores the need for enhanced collection to meet user demand. Other countries do not yet collect gender-disaggregated data on climate-related hazards.

69. Gender data on climate-related mortality are increasingly collected by countries and reported to international organisations, including the OECD (OECD Data Explorer, 2024[22]), which also collects gender data on associated welfare costs from exposure to environment-related risks. In addition, research indicates that there are increased risks of gender-based violence associated with climate-related hazards and disasters (OECD, 2023[23]). More systematic data collection on this is needed to ensure appropriate policy responses.

Exposure to air pollution or other hazardous pollutants

70. Access to air pollution data, both indoor and outdoor, varies by country. Generally, these data are available upon request and not easily accessible. For most respondent countries, data on exposure to air pollution are closely linked with agencies related to health or risk prevention. For example, Costa Rica's National Commission for Risk Prevention and Emergency Response (CNE) provides this information; Sweden's Public Health Agency has employed gender-focused data on health policies; and Colombia's National Unit for Disaster Risk Management has air pollution data easily accessible for users. Additional data sources are provided among other environmental indicators. For example, in Mexico, data are provided by the Secretariat of Environment and Natural Resources. Surveys in Spain (Spain Statistics National Institute[24]) and the European Union on Income and Living Conditions (EU Statistics[25]) include some environmental indicators but they do not specifically focus on air pollution or various hazardous pollutants.

Land ownership and agricultural jobs

71. Land ownership and agricultural jobs data are readily accessible in several respondent countries such as Costa Rica, Sweden, and Colombia, supporting gender-related policies and laws like Colombia's Rural Women's Law. In Costa Rica, data are available in several units, including Gender Policy for the Agricultural Sector, the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (MAG), and the Ministry of Environment and Energy, and are made available in the National Action Plan on Gender Equality in Climate Action 2023-2025. Spain conducts the Agricultural Census every 10 years, ensuring detailed data (more details can be found on the Agricultural Census website or Labor Force Survey). Colombia has strategically used such data to support policies under Law 731 of the 2022 Rural Women's Law. Conversely, data availability is not yet fully developed or accessible in other countries, highlighting a significant gap.

Access to resources including energy, safe drinking water, food and transport

72. Data on access to resources is available in Sweden, Colombia and Mexico. In Sweden, this data are available from the Swedish Agency for Marine and Water Management, Transport Analysis, and the Land Survey. In Mexico, data provide information on women's access to water and sanitation. Data on access to resources can help environment ministries better understand women's access to electricity (Costa Rica). They also inform environmental questions pertaining to gender mainstreaming or anti-discrimination laws (such as Colombia's Law 823 of 2003, which mandates a gender criterion in policies, decisions and actions in national and decentralised public agencies, and Law 1257 of 2008 related to violence and discrimination against women). Among countries that reported this information, the data are predominately accessible to the public.

Women-led businesses or training in green jobs and green innovation

73. Data on women-led businesses and training in green jobs and green innovation are not readily available across respondent countries. In Colombia, data on women-led businesses and green jobs training are available from the Ministry of Environment and Sustainable Development's Green Jobs Office. The Slovak Republic and Mexico reported they are "rarely" available, with other countries uncertain about their existence. Notably, this topic was the least reported on among intersectional data categories and is also the least easily accessible. There needs to be more comprehensive tracking and support for women in green entrepreneurship and employment initiatives.[1]

Gender balance in leadership, gender-based violence and inclusion policy

While gender data are now more readily collected on gender balance in leadership, there are gaps in the areas of gender-based violence and inclusion policy. This prevents countries from assessing the extent of gender inequalities and prioritising responses.

74. Central gender equality institutions have dual functions. Firstly, they often hold sole policy responsibility for strategies on women's leadership, gender-based violence, and gender equity and inclusion policies. On cross-sector topics like women's health or gender equality in STEM, they can be tasked with joint policy responsibility alongside other lead policy ministries and/or be involved in the development, monitoring and implementation of such strategies. To perform these multiple functions, they require gender and intersectional data.

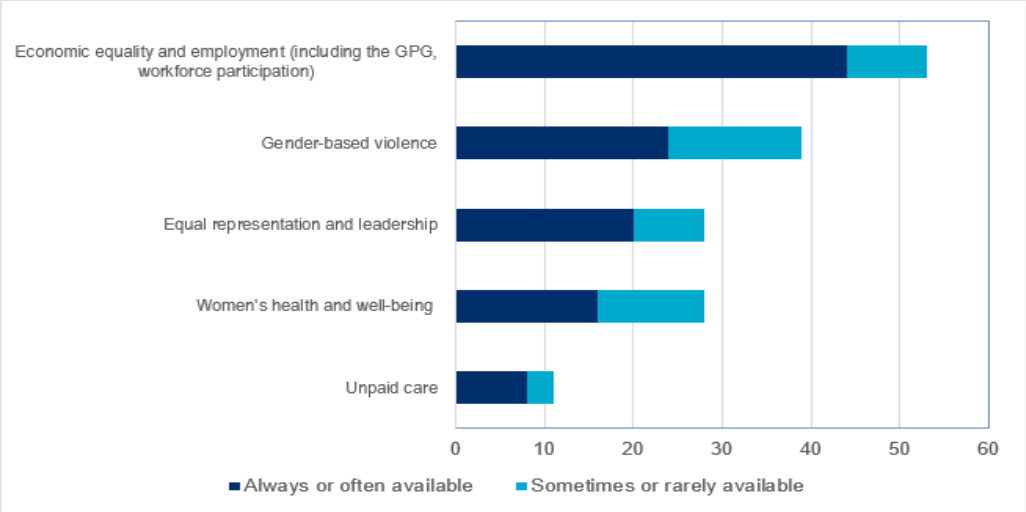
75. Across the 27 central gender equality institutions participating in this work, gender data are more readily collected and available for certain key economic indicators such as the gender pay gap and other labour market outcomes. Nonetheless, countries reported data gaps in their top policy priorities. The top five policy priorities reported by central gender equality institutions were economic equality and employment, gender-based violence, equal representation and leadership, women's health and unpaid care. However, there were important reported gaps in data availability in these areas (Figure 4). Several countries noted that while data on the prevalence of physical violence are now becoming more widely available, data on the prevalence and nature of all forms of violence (including physical, emotional, sexual and psychological) across different settings (including online, on public transport, in educational and health settings, among others) remain limited. Central gender equality institutions reported needing more gender data disaggregated by disability (particularly, health, well-being and safety measures), socio-economic status and rurality/regionality as well as increased data on the following themes:

- women's health
- care economy
- women in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM)
- digital gender gaps
- financial inclusion and women's access to financing, venture capital and start-up support services

76. Capturing and challenging harmful gender norms is a vital component of tackling gender inequalities. As gender norms and attitudes shift, it will be important for policy responses to continue to target drivers of gender inequalities. These include improving understanding of women's and men's relationship dynamics, and men's and boys' changing attitudes towards gender norms, and workplace and online violence. Increasing women's and men's sharing of unpaid care and domestic responsibilities is another priority. Better data on gender norms can help prioritise interventions focused on harmful masculinities.

Figure 4. For central gender equality institutions, gender data are most often available for economic and employment measures, and least available for women's health and well-being, and unpaid care

Data availability for the top five policy priorities across the central gender equality institutions of 21 respondent countries



Note: Frequency score is given based on a multiplication of the number of countries who selected the policy priority by the level of availability, where 'always or often available' is given a score of 4 and 'sometimes or rarely available' is given a score of 3. While 21 countries responded to this question, one country did not rate the level of data availability. The policy priorities provided by respondents were free-form text responses.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions.

Data on gender balance in leadership, gender-based violence and inclusion policy areas are largely relevant, accessible and coherent.

77. Central gender equality institutions reported that available gender data for their top policy priorities were accessible, relevant and coherent (Table 2), with only some respondent countries reporting significant challenges. This suggests that policy prioritisation is based on already available, high-quality gender data. While this is generally positive, there is a risk that policy issues not already captured by available data may remain invisible to decision-makers.

Table 2. Number of central gender equality institutions who reported challenges with data accessibility, relevance and coherency for their top policy priorities

The accessibility and relevance of gender-disaggregated data could be improved on gender balance in leadership, gender-based violence and inclusion policy area

Policy priority	Accessibility	Relevance	Coherency
Priority 1	3	4	5
Priority 2	5	4	4
Priority 3	7	12	4
Priority 4	3	2	0

Note: Countries were asked to rate the accessibility, relevance and coherency of gender data for their top policy priorities, from 'always', 'often' relevant to 'sometimes' or 'rarely' relevant, from 'easily accessible', 'can be requested and obtained' to 'not easily accessible' and from 'data are coherent across datasets and over time', to 'data are not coherent across datasets and over time' and 'don't know'. The white to red colour gradient indicates how many of the 21 respondent countries reported challenges when dealing with primary gender data (with white representing no challenge and dark red representing significant challenges). The frequency score was calculated by totalling the number of countries that indicated data are 'sometimes' or 'rarely' relevant, data are 'not easily accessible' and 'data are not coherent across datasets and over time'.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central gender equality institutions.

Labour market policy

While gender data are available for some labour market outcomes, challenges and gaps remain.

78. Most OECD countries regularly collect and report data on labour force participation and employment rates; earnings and income; occupational and industrial segregation; and skills and the duration of working life (Table 3). However, gender data on employment quality (for example, informal employment, perceptions of job quality); work-life balance (for example, time/leave use, caring responsibilities, flexible working arrangements, remote working, paid and unpaid work hours, out-of-school care); technological impacts on work; and experiences of adverse behaviours in the workplace (for example, sexual harassment, discrimination) are available only in some countries or are reported infrequently. Similarly, some data on aspects of women's employment – such as commuting (time, modes, safety perceptions) or involvement in emerging occupations and industries – are collected only in some countries and are infrequently reported.

Table 3. Overview of key publicly available gender-disaggregated data on labour market outcomes

Availability of data and sources of data (administrative or survey data) for listed indicators, as of 2024

	Significant availability	Some availability	Little availability
Labour force participation (e.g. rates, reasons for inactivity, NEET rates)	S		
Employment (e.g. rates, reasons for absence, public/private sector)	S		
Unemployment (e.g. rates, duration of unemployment, reasons)	S		
Underemployment	S		
Self-employment (e.g. rates, solo or employer)	S		
Maternal employment (e.g. rates, hours, patterns for couples and singles with children)	S		
Temporary employment	S		
Intensity of work (e.g. part-time rates, reasons for part-time, paid hours worked)	S		
Earnings and income (e.g. annual, monthly, weekly, hourly, poverty rates, bonuses, pensions)	S, A		
Occupational and industrial segregation (e.g. women in STEM or leadership)	S		
Skills mismatch (e.g. over- or under-qualification rates)	S		
Duration of working life	S		
Informal employment (e.g. taxes and contributions paid, formal or casual job contract)		S, A	
Perceptions of job quality (e.g. satisfaction, security, work-life balance)		S	
Gig or platform work (e.g. use, perceptions)		S	A
Remote working (e.g. use, access, perceptions)		S	A
Impact of automation and technological change on jobs		S	
Disconnecting from work (e.g. work-related contact outside of work hours,)		S, A	
Childcare (e.g. use, access, perceptions, cost)		S, A	
Impacts of caregiving and family responsibilities on work (e.g. effects on parents' or grandparents' paid work hours)		S	
Experiences of adverse behaviours in the workplace (e.g. sexual harassment, discrimination)		S	
Out-of-school hours care (e.g. use, access, perceptions, cost)			S, A
Unpaid hours worked			S
Maternity, paternity and parental leave (e.g. take-up, duration)	S	A	
Flexible working arrangements (e.g. use, availability)		S	A
Commuting (e.g. times, modes of transportation, trip chaining)			S
Gender gap in non-pay benefits (e.g. holidays, sick days, paid leave)			S, A
Career advancement and promotion			A
Involvement of women in emerging occupations and industries (e.g. green jobs)			S

Note: "Significant availability" indicates that data are available on an annual basis for 30 or more OECD countries. "Some availability" indicates that data are available less regularly (once every 2-3 years) and/or that data are only available for fewer than 30 OECD countries. "Little availability" indicates that data are available even less regularly (once every 4 or more years) and/or that data are only available for fewer than 30 OECD countries. "S" indicates data are available through surveys and "A" indicates data are available through administrative sources. "NEET" indicates "not in employment, education or training." "STEM" indicates science, technology, engineer and mathematics fields.
Source: OECD Secretariat based on an overview of a selection of cross-national databases on labour market and social indicators, many of which are derived from national datasets. Results presented here come from cross-nationally harmonised data in the OECD Data Explorer, the OECD Family Database, the OECD Employment Outlook and Employment Database, the OECD Risks that Matter Survey, the OECD Pensions at a Glance reports, the OECD Gender Data Portal, the European Union LFS (EU-LFS), Eurofound's Working Conditions Surveys, the European Commission's Eurobarometer Surveys, the European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE)'s Gender Statistics Database, and the International Labour Organization's ILOSTAT.

79. To address these gaps, OECD countries could consider prioritising increased data collection in priority areas before progressively expanding. Prioritisation should be based on consultation with national policy areas on their policy priorities and gender equality goals. For example, improving data on fathers' and partners' leave use can help countries understand if, how, and when fathers and partners take leave. This data can help policymaking improve mothers' labour force participation, working hours and wages.

80. Similarly, in the digitalisation policy area, OECD countries could consider increasing gender data collection on telework (see Box 1 for advice on advancing a common definition); skills and education (for example, digital access and skills); digital transformation (for example, access to digital work, including platform work and related working conditions; the use and impact of digital technologies at the organisational level; and the effects of automation and AI on workers) as well as gender gaps in digital entrepreneurship and job quality (for example, the different gender impacts of digital technologies on hours worked, job security, and experiences of technology-facilitated gender-based violence in workplaces). This gender data can help policymakers bring about more gender-equal digital transitions.

Box 1. Case study: Expanding the collection of gender data on telework

Telework: A common definition can help capture gender differences

While remote working was uncommon in OECD countries before the COVID-19 pandemic, this global health crisis brought remote working to the fore. As remote working becomes more established, accurate data are essential to describing this phenomenon, understanding its impact on labour markets and informing policy decisions with gender in mind.

Currently available evidence suggests that:

- Before the pandemic, women teleworked less than men despite being more often in jobs that can be done remotely.
- The number of both men and women usually working from home has increased dramatically since 2020, with a greater increase among women.
- The gender gap in terms of preferring frequent work from home widened during the pandemic: women already favoured it more than men, and even more so during the pandemic.
- Remote working's impact on gendered work-life balance varies by context, often reflecting existing gender norms and managerial culture. In some cases, it exacerbates inequalities; in others, it alleviates them. Combining remote work with policies that support caregiving such as childcare, eldercare or flexible hours and initiatives that challenge traditional gender roles may help reduce these inequalities.
- The remote working wage premium benefits men's wages more systematically than women's. This generates different effects on the gender pay gap depending on women's education levels. Canadian data, for example, show that remote working increases the motherhood pay gap among the most educated women, who are stigmatised for working from home since face time is used as an indicator of productivity in high-status jobs. Remote working reduces the pay gap for women with lower levels of education as well (Fuller and Hirsh, 2018[26]).
- Evidence on the effect of remote working on career progression is scarce and results are mixed. Gender-differentiated effects are likely influenced by the level of stigma associated with remote working in each context, with some evidence suggesting that perceived threats to salary and career advancement lead more men than women to renounce remote working.

While these insights are valuable, most research on remote working's impact on gendered labour market outcomes remains correlational. Additionally, existing data sources use partly overlapping but different concepts, with inconsistent definitions. This highlights the need for a common, consistently defined concept to better track developments across countries and over time.

For instance, the ILO defines remote working as "carrying out work in a physical location that is different from the default place of work using information and communications technology (ICT) [and/or] telephones", accurately capturing the post-pandemic shift in work practices. By contrast, "work from home" (used in different sources, including Eurostat, research and media) is a looser concept, defined

independently of the default place of work, which makes it less suited to describing current trends. These differences are crucial in understanding gendered patterns of use and access.

Areas for improvement in gender-disaggregated data on remote working

OECD countries would do well to adopt a common definition of remote working that accurately describes the reality following the COVID-19 pandemic. The ILO definition noted above is conceptually precise, focusing on the notions of "default place of work" and "physical location where the work is carried out". The definition used in Working Conditions Surveys (WCS) adds further detail, incorporating frequency and mobility, describing remote working as "regularly using ICTs and working in at least one other location than the employer's premises several times a month". Building on these definitions, a potential approach would be to use the ILO definition as the primary question to identify teleworkers, supplemented by additional questions on frequency, intensity, timing, coverage and mobility. Consistently adopting such a definition across OECD countries in regular individual and/or firm-level surveys would provide a clearer understanding of the gendered aspects of remote working. This underscores the critical role of international organisations in standardising data collection.

Future data collection efforts should also prioritise linking gender-disaggregated remote working data with other labour market outcomes over time, such as pay, career progression, job satisfaction, job quality and work-life balance, to better assess the impact of remote working on gender equality in the labour market.

Note: Analysis prepared by the OECD Secretariat.

Trade policy

Collection of gender-differentiated trade data is increasing but coverage remains inconsistent, with significant gaps in availability and quality.

81. Gender-differentiated trade data have been increasing following the Buenos Aires Declaration on Trade and Women's Economic Empowerment in 2017 and efforts of the WTO Informal Working Group on Trade and Gender. However, across the seven respondent OECD countries, gender-differentiated trade data are often collected on an ad hoc rather than regular basis. The challenge is to obtain data related to trade along with data reflecting business characteristics, such as the employment of women in exporting firms and the gender of firms' leaders and owners. This can be obtained using a variety of methods which depend on countries' data collection histories, the resources and priority allocated to the collection of such data and data protection practices.

82. For example, OECD countries are increasingly collecting data on women's participation in trade as employees (by export status, trade activity, industry, size and ethnicity); the gender wage gap (by industry, export status, trade activity and size); women's employment in direct and indirect exports; women's employment in domestic and foreign final demand (by sector); and the share of women in employment and export-supported employment (by sector).

83. However, there remain challenges in terms of coverage and quality, which differ across sources and respondent countries. Data sources such as administrative data, business registries, and surveys and customs data are sometimes partial or biased and some do not include broad sectors. For example, one sector that often has low data coverage is the services sector. Administrative records are sometimes piecemeal and inconsistent with other sources, particularly with respect to the gender composition of employees. In some respondent OECD countries, administrative records are not disaggregated by gender, posing a significant challenge for policymakers tasked with developing policies to promote gender equality

in and through trade. These challenges limit policymakers' capacity to undertake comparative analysis and can strongly impact the quality, timeliness and representativeness of trade policymaking.

84. Respondent trade policy areas also reported challenges with the coherency and relevance of gender data. For example, unit-level samples and small sample sizes limited policymakers' ability to build a comprehensive picture of particular areas of concern or to compare results over time. Furthermore, in some respondent countries, population surveys provide data about women's employment and the gender pay gap by industry but do not disaggregate by exporters and non-exporters. This means that policymakers are less able to analyse whether a gender pay gap exists between exporters and non-exporters, limiting their ability to craft policy solutions.

85. These challenges underscore the need for a more systematic approach to gender-differentiated trade data, with an emphasis on ensuring administrative records consistently include gender as part of data collection. Systematising the collection of data connected to gender outcomes in trade agreements can also support more consistent monitoring efforts. For example, establishing an international set of gender indicators in trade can support OECD countries to standardise their collections and monitor trade outcomes, particularly for women. UN Trade and Development (UNCTAD) has recently released the first ever set of gender-equality-in-trade indicators, which if adopted by OECD countries, would significantly advance efforts to increase high-quality gender-differentiated trade data (UNCTAD, 2024[27]).

86. In addition, greater collaboration on gender data between trade policy areas, national statistical offices and other ministries such as labour, international development and gender equality, supported by a gender data strategy and regular data quality assessments can support more consistent and relevant data collection (see Chapters 5 and 6).

Expanding gender-differentiated trade data across the OECD

87. While OECD countries are more routinely collecting gender data on employees, gender data on consumers, business leaders and business owners are less often collected. Data disaggregated by characteristics in addition to gender are also under-collected. These data are critically important for evidence-based trade policymaking. Firstly, it can support a more nuanced understanding of how to best promote women's participation in trade through tailored policies and programmes. For example, gender data on women business owners can help shape programmes and policies focused on increasing access to trade promotion and export readiness, finance, networking and climate-change adaptation. Secondly, it can help OECD countries consider the gender and intersectional impacts of their trade policies and agreements.

88. Table 4 provides some examples of the types of expanded gender-differentiated trade data collected in three OECD countries. New Zealand, for example, collects employee data disaggregated by gender and ethnicity. Canada collects gender data on business owners that are additionally disaggregated by management experience and education. Canada also collects gender data on firms that are affected by new trade policies to understand the gender-differentiated impacts of trade policy on employees. The United States collects data on the gender wage gap, additionally disaggregated by location, occupation and education. The United States also collects gender data on business owners, further disaggregated by racial and ethnic background, and veteran status.

Table 4. Examples of expanded gender-differentiated trade data in three OECD countries

Collecting gender data on business owners, leaders and employees can shape more targeted trade policies

Country	Indicators		Data sources
New Zealand	As employees	Employment, disaggregated by gender, export status, trade activity, industry, size and ethnicity. Gender wage gap, disaggregated by industry, export status, trade activity and size	Longitudinal Business Database (LBD) Integrated Data Infrastructure (IDI) database
	As business leaders	Enterprise leadership, disaggregated by gender, export status, export value, and size	
	As consumers	Expenditures, disaggregated by household composition and product group	Household Economic Survey (HES)
Canada	As employees	Employment, disaggregated by gender, age, industry and occupation.	Statistics Canada Census Data Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics Global Trade Analysis Project (GTAP) database
		Employment in firms that export to countries affected by a new trade policy, disaggregated by gender and size of export growth.	Statistics Canada's trade by exporter characteristics
	As business owners	Exporting SMEs, disaggregated by gender of ownership, industry, size, business age, management experience, education of primary decision-maker, and destination market	Survey on Financing and Growth of SMEs
United States	As employees	Gender wage gap, disaggregated by marital status, industry, location, occupation, education and class.	U.S. Census data U.S. imports data Data on U.S. tariffs on imports from Mexico
	As business owners	Enterprise ownership, disaggregated by gender, ethnicity, race, veteran status, exporting status, export destination and enterprise size.	The Profile of U.S. Importing and Exporting Companies (Profile) The Annual Business Survey (ABS)

Source: OECD (2024). Gender-differentiated data: Comparison of methods of data collection and case studies (unpublished).

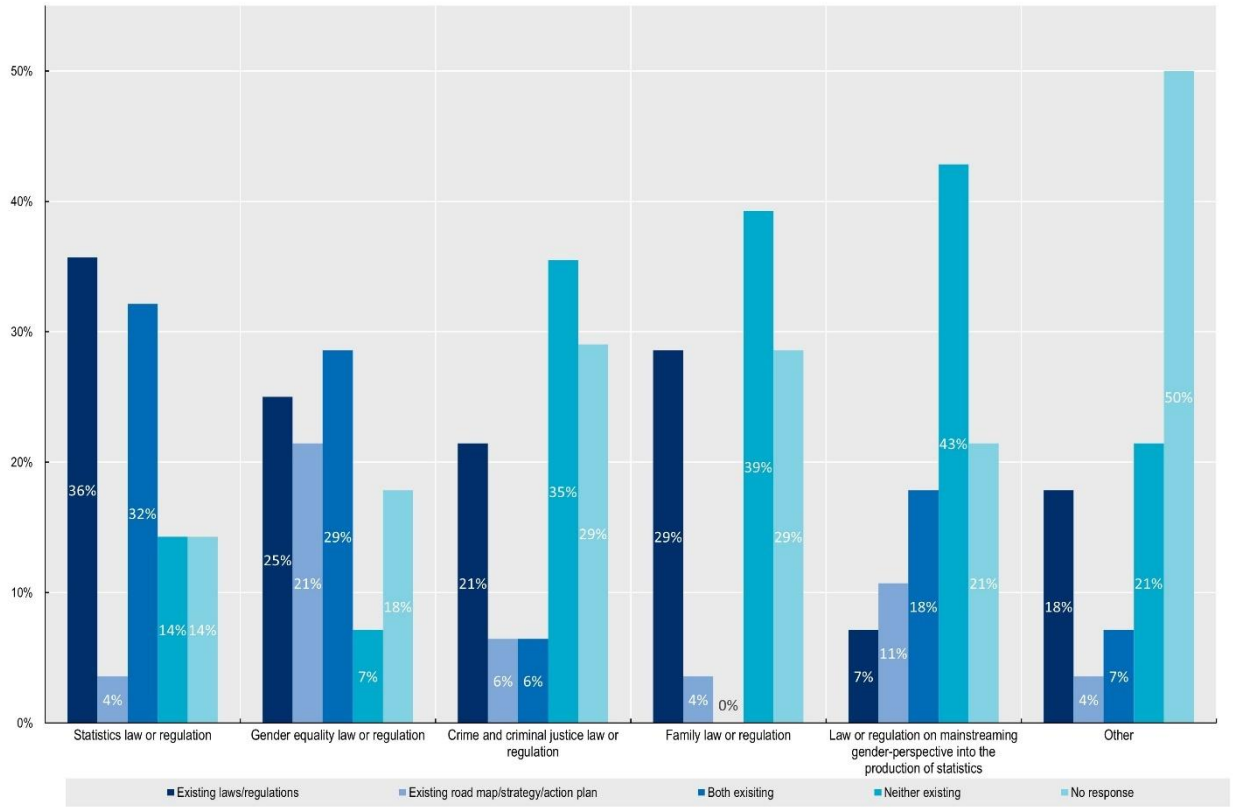
While OECD countries have adopted legal and policy requirements to close gaps on gender and intersectional data collection, these are not yet widespread

89. OECD countries are increasingly adopting gender data requirements, either as part of a requirement to undertake gender impact assessment, gender budgeting, policy evaluation or reporting or in the form of a stand-alone requirement to collect gender data as part of national statistics.

90. With respect to the latter, NSOs reported that over two-thirds of respondent OECD countries (68%, 19 countries) have embedded their commitment to incorporating a gender perspective within their national statistical systems (Figure 5). However, only one in four respondent countries (25%, 7 countries) have formal regulations requiring the mainstreaming of a gender perspective into the production of statistics. Moreover, nearly half of respondent countries do not have any specific laws or regulations requiring the national statistical system to conduct specialised gender-relevant surveys (e.g. violence against women surveys, time-use surveys, surveys on asset ownership).

Figure 5. Laws, regulations or policies mandating the production or dissemination of gender data

% of OECD countries

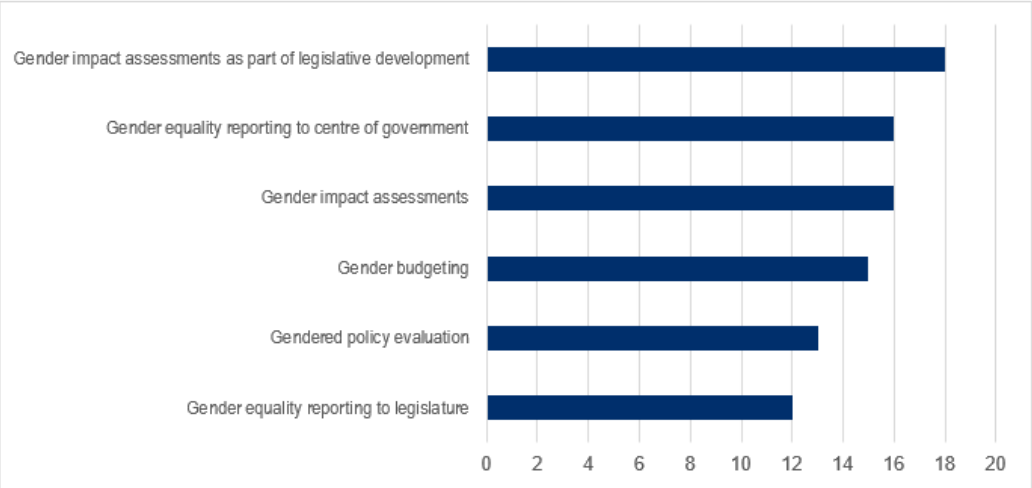


Note: The chart shows responses from 28 countries to the question: "*Are there laws/regulations in your country mandating the production and/or dissemination of gender statistics (or indicators) and related road map/strategy/action plan*?". The mandate covers gender statistics produced by entities in the National Statistical System.
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

StatLink 2 https://stat.link/fan80c

91. There is variation in countries' requirements to *collect* gender statistics as part of national statistical systems. There is variation as well in requirements to *use* gender-sensitive and intersectional data and evidence in key decision-making points in the policy cycle (Figure 6). In some OECD countries, gender data are required as part of policy, legislative and budget design. For example, central gender equality institutions participating in the questionnaire reported requirements to undertake gender analysis as part of regulatory or legislative development (18 countries), gender impact assessment (GIA) (16 countries), gender equality reporting to the centre of government (16 countries) and gender budgeting (15 countries).

Figure 6. Source of requirements for gender analysis across the policy cycle



Note: This chart depicts the number of responses to the question "*Is your institution required to implement the following tools and processes (either within your own institution and/or to support the work of another institution/ministry? Select: Gender impact assessments, gender equality reporting to the centre of government, gender impact assessments as part of legislative development, gender budgeting, gender equality reporting to legislature, gendered policy evaluation*". A total of 27 countries responded to this question. Some countries reported having multiple requirements.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions.

Intersectional data requirements

92. Compared to gender data requirements, there are significantly fewer intersectional data requirements. Only nine respondent countries reported requiring intersectional approaches to data collection and use at some point during the policymaking cycle. In contrast, several countries reported adopting an intersectional approach without a legal and/or policy requirement or in areas additional to what is required under law. There is growing interest in the adoption of an intersectional approach to gender budgeting, which may over time improve the availability of intersectional data (Nicol and Kim, 2023[28]). Intersectional data requirements are largely contained within legislation governing GIA and budgeting or as part of the design and implementation of gender equality or gender-based violence strategies or monitoring. Several countries, including Mexico and Spain, require intersectional data collection through their technical statistics laws and manuals whereas several countries include intersectional gender data as part of their national data strategies (for example, Canada and Ireland (in progress) (see Chapter 5).

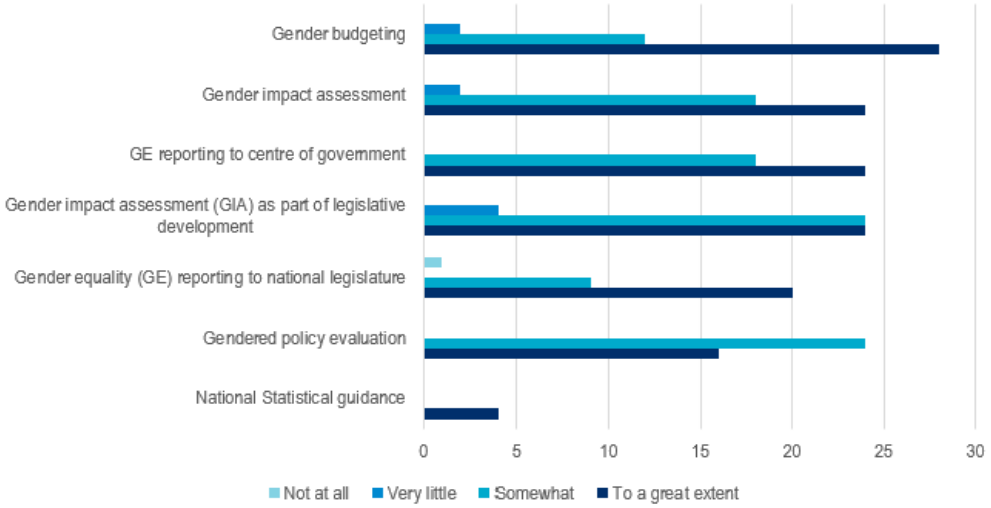
Legal requirements are effective: Countries with requirements to collect gender data embedded across a range of mechanisms reported strong gender data availability and a wide variety of sources

93. Countries with legal requirements for all official statistics to be broken down by gender reported strong gender data availability and a wide variety of sources in the policy areas assessed (Figure 7). Central gender equality institutions considered that having a mandate positively impacted collection of gender data. Respondent countries also considered that gender analysis requirements related to gender budgeting and GIA were most effective at increasing the collection of gender data.

94. OECD countries without gender data mandates in place may wish to introduce requirements through either policy or regulation. An overview of leading practice mandates is provided in Box 2.

Figure 7. Extent to which different gender mainstreaming tools assisted with the collection of gender data

Most respondent countries considered that having gender mainstreaming requirements in policy or law supported the collection of gender data to a great extent



Note: Frequency score is based on the number of countries who rated the impact of the mandate in supporting gender data collection, where 'to a great extent' is given a score of 4, 'somewhat' is given a score of 3, 'very little' is given a score of 2 and 'not at all' is given a score of 1. 24 countries responded to this question. Countries only provided a rating if the mandate currently exists in their context, otherwise they reported N/A.

Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions.

Box 2. Examples of gender and intersectional data requirements

OECD countries with the most reported gender and intersectional data sources tend to have gender data requirements embedded across a wide range of mechanisms

National statistical systems

In **Sweden**, under Section 14 of the 2001 Swedish Ordinance (2001:100) on Official Statistics and other national requirements, all official statistics related to individuals have been required by law to be broken down by sex since 1994 unless there are special reasons for not doing so. Since 2017, the Swedish government has also made it mandatory for agencies to present gender-disaggregated statistics in their annual reports.

In 2006, **Mexico** introduced the General Law on Equality between Women and Men (Gender Equality Law), which mandated gender mainstreaming, including the assessment of the gender impact of any planned action, including public policies and administrative activities. The Gender Equality Law also specifies that it is up to public authorities and organisations to "support the improvement and co-ordination of national statistical systems, for better knowledge of issues related to equality between women and men in the national labor strategy" (Article 34, Section IV). Likewise, the Gender Equality Law requires the development and updating of gender data on decision-making positions and management positions in the public, private and civil society sectors (Article 36, Section VI), the promotion of research with a gender perspective on health and safety at work (Article 40, Section II) and the promotion of research on the prevention, care, punishment and eradication of violence against women. In line with this, the National Institute for Statistics and Geography (INEGI) subsequently anchored a mandate to generate and disseminate statistics with a gender perspective within the National Statistics and Geography Program 2019-2024 and Strategic Plan 2020-2024, which led to the inclusion of gender across the national statistical system.

In 2024, **Switzerland's** Federal Council introduced a new policy directive requiring federal offices to analyse gender effects and gender-specific differences and integrate these into federal studies and statistical publications. In **Israel**, the National Statistical Office is required to produce and publish gender statistics as well as report on which gender data were produced on an annual basis.

Gender Impact Assessment

Spain introduced the Organic Law for Effective Equality of Women and Men (3/2007) in 2007 and Article 19 sets out the legal obligation to undertake an ex-ante gender impact assessment when drafting laws and policies, including bills of a general nature and plans with particular economic, social, cultural and artistic relevance submitted to the Council of Ministers for approval. Article 20 of this law requires public authorities to systematically include the sex variable in their statistics, surveys and data collection, as well as indicators to allow better understanding of the differences between men and women, and their expression and interaction in reality. It also requests the integration of other relevant variables whose co-occurrence generates multiple forms of discrimination in the different domains where action is taken.

Canada enacted the Impact Assessment Act in 2019, which created the Impact Assessment Agency of Canada (IAAC) and repealed the Canadian Environmental Assessment Act, 2012. Under Section 22(1)(s) of the new Act, sex, gender and intersecting identities are among the factors to be considered in the impact assessment of a designated project, for example, certain mines, oil facilities, bridges, roads and dams.

Gender budgeting

In **Spain,** the Ministry of Finance sets out a series of rules concerning the preparation of the General State Budget Bill on an annual basis, including instructions on how to evaluate the gender impact of their spending programmes. Due to this, since 2009, the General State Budget Bill includes a corresponding gender impact report providing gender-disaggregated data. The gender perspective was reinforced by the modification of article 37.2 of the General Budget Law 47/2003 in 2020, which included the Gender Impact Report as a compulsory document. In **Austria**, the federal budget includes dedicated gender equality targets for each ministry, requiring gender-disaggregated performance data.

In **Australia**, all ministries must undertake a minimum level of gender analysis for new policy proposals and cabinet submissions that meet set criteria. In **Sweden**, the budget circular requires budget proposals to be accompanied by gender analysis and in **Canada**, budget templates ask departments to provide information, supported by data and evidence of the direct and indirect benefits of proposals on diverse groups of Canadians differentiated by gender, age, income and many other identity factors.

Reporting to the centre of government and legislature

In **Austria**, ministries provide reporting against gender-related objectives, indicators and activities together with the measurement of the activities' success in different policy areas as part of the 'Report on the dimension of Gender Equality as part of Performance Management'. In **Sweden**, government authorities are required to present and analyse data on the gender equality aspects of their core activities when reporting to government offices as part of their annual report.

In **Canada,** all federal departments and agencies must produce and table in Parliament a Departmental Plan Supplementary Information Table on Gender-based Analysis Plus (GBA Plus) with their Departmental Results Report (SIT DRR) on an annual basis. All departments must complete the GBA Plus supplementary information table. Even if GBA Plus is deemed not relevant to a department's programmes, the department must complete the table and explain how GBA Plus is not relevant.

Canada's Treasury Board Guidance for the Departmental Results Reports also requires departments to provide information on the distribution of benefits (by gender, income level and age group as well as specific demographic group outcomes) and key programme impacts on gender and diversity.

Regulatory and legislative design

Canada requires ministries and agencies to undertake an assessment of the social and economic impacts of each regulatory proposal on diverse groups of Canadians, and **Sweden** requires that gender equality considerations and impact are assessed as part of the legal framework drafting process. In **Mexico**, as part of their mandate to mainstream gender equality across all policymaking, the National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI) contributes information and analysis gleaned from gender statistics into legislative review and development processes.

Sources: Government of Switzerland (2024), Gender Equality in Federal Studies and Statistics. https://www.ebg.admin.ch/en/gender-equality-in-federal-studies-and-statistics; Government of Israel (2024), Statistics Ordinance [New Version], 5732-1972; https://www.nevo.co.il/law_html/law01/323_001.htm#Seif26; OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions (unpublished); OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies (unpublished); 2022 OECD Survey on Gender Budgeting

Chapter 3: Intersectional data availability and quality across the OECD

95. Policymakers across the OECD increasingly recognise that inequalities often result from interaction between discrimination and bias due to diverse identify factors (OECD, 2023[6]). This has spurred interest in intersectional approaches to gender-disaggregated data collection.

96. Gender data that are disaggregated by additional factors such as age, sexuality, rurality, disability etc. can help countries understand how people experience policies and services, such as employment, education and healthcare, differently as a result of their identity and social inequalities. Indeed, disaggregating gender data by other characteristics is an important step towards understanding the realities of some vulnerable sub-populations that, in the absence of granular data, are often invisible in official statistics (PARIS21, 2023[29]) (PARIS21, 2024[30]).

97. Understanding these differences can help countries design and implement more effective and efficient policies. Using intersectional data to shape decision-making, target structural discrimination and publicly monitor policy impacts can also help democracies meet citizens' expectations for responsive, transparent and accountable governance (OECD, 2023[31]) (OECD, 2024[4]). In turn, this can support public trust in government as policies are more equitable and governments are accountable for progress (OECD, 2024[1]). Limited availability of intersectional data is a critical challenge, hindering efforts to leave no woman or girl behind (UNWomen, 2024[32]).

98. However, to be useful for policymaking, intersectional data need to be high-quality, useable, and accessible. This chapter provides an overview of the availability and quality of intersectional data across OECD countries, explores the challenges to enhanced collection of intersectional data and provides some leading practice examples of intersectional data collection from across the OECD. Additional strategies for enhancing the quality and use of intersectional data are discussed in further detail in Chapters 5 and 6.

There are significant gaps in the collection of intersectional data across the OECD

Across all policy areas, there are significant gaps in available intersectional data

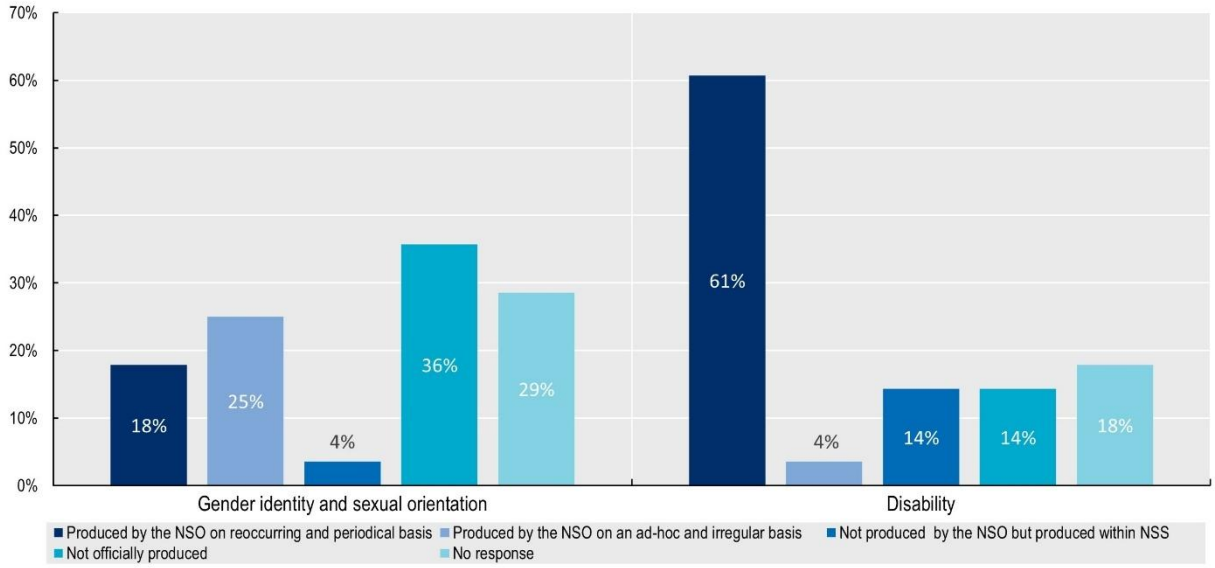
99. There is little available gender data disaggregated by disability, sexual orientation and racial or ethnic background. Gender data also disaggregated by Indigeneity was reported as being little available in OECD countries with Indigenous populations. Yet, collecting and analysing intersectional data can reveal important insights into discrimination and inequality across policy areas. A case study illustrating the value of intersectional data in understanding labour market outcomes is provided in Box 3.

100. Countries may consider reviewing and assessing the necessity of legal restrictions on collecting historically sensitive data, for example, on racial and ethnic background, to balance the need to protect individuals with the requirement to gather critical information for addressing social and economic disparities.

101. In terms of national statistics, National Statistical Offices (NSOs) in OECD countries reported that the regular production of data remains very limited for gender identity and sexual orientation (19%) (Figure 8). Indeed, 15 of 23 central gender equality institutions rated the absence of formal requirements for the collection and use of intersectional data as either 'challenging', 'an important challenge' or a 'significant challenge' for the improved use of intersectional data.

Figure 8. Production of certain intersectional statistics by National Statistics Offices (NSOs)

Statistics on disability are more regularly produced than statistics on gender identity/sexual orientation, % of OECD countries



Note: The chart shows responses from 28 OECD countries to the question: "*Please indicate the regularity of producing gender statistics in the following areas*".
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

StatLink 2 https://stat.link/w4bdhs

Overview of intersectional data availability in specific policy areas

Environment: Gender-age data is the most collected intersectional data in the environment policy area, especially on exposure to air pollution and climate-related disasters. The second most common intersection is socio-economic status, which is particularly relevant in data on climate-related hazards, land tenure, agricultural jobs, and access to resources. Intersectional data on sexual orientation and racial background is least prevalent among all indicators in the environment policy area, revealing significant gaps in coverage. Most countries have reported that this data is not available or rarely available.

Gender balance in leadership, gender-based violence and inclusion policies*: Gender data disaggregated by age and disability are most widely available across central gender equality institutions. Gender data on sexual orientation is the least available, with no central gender equality institutions reporting it as 'always' or 'often' available and 10 reporting it as never available. Gender data disaggregated by Indigeneity**, and racial or ethnic origin were the next least available, with no country reporting it as 'always available' and three or fewer countries reporting it as 'often' available.

Labour market: While in many OECD countries, key labour market indicators are disaggregated by gender and age group, level of education, rural or urban status, parenthood characteristics and migrant status, there are cases where intersectional data remain missing or outdated. Only a handful of OECD countries collect labour market data that intersect gender with racial and ethnic background, and disability status, and even where such data are collected, limited resources often result in irregular availability, analysis and publication.

Trade: Within the trade policy area, intersectional data collection remains relatively low. Some OECD countries such as New Zealand and the United States collect gender-differentiated trade data on factors such as age, racial and ethnic background, and several others collect gender data on educational background. However, there are significant gaps in coverage of intersectional factors across the OECD membership as a whole.

*Note: Central gender equality institutions have dual functions including responsibility for gender equality policymaking, and facilitating the implementation of gender equality and mainstreaming programmes across government. The data presented in this box largely focus on their role and experiences as policymakers.
** Among OECD countries with Indigenous populations.

Box 3. Case study: Collecting and analysing intersectional data can reveal important insights into discrimination and inequality in the labour market and workplaces

Intersectional gender wage gaps in the public sector in the State of Victoria, Australia

Beyond the efforts of NSOs, other actors can support the collection, dissemination and use of gender-disaggregated data to improve policy and programmes. An example is the State of Victoria in Australia, which requires all public-sector organisations with 50 or more employees to take positive action towards achieving gender equality in the workplace and the community (see *The Gender Equality Act 2020)*. This action can include data collection and analysis of gender pay equity; the gender composition of the workforce at all levels; the gender composition of governing bodies; experiences of workplace sexual harassment; recruitment and promotion; gendered workforce segregation; and gendered patterns of leave and flexibility. Organisations are encouraged to provide data disaggregated not only by gender but across aboriginality, age, disability, gender identity, racial and ethnic background, religion, and sexual orientation, among others.

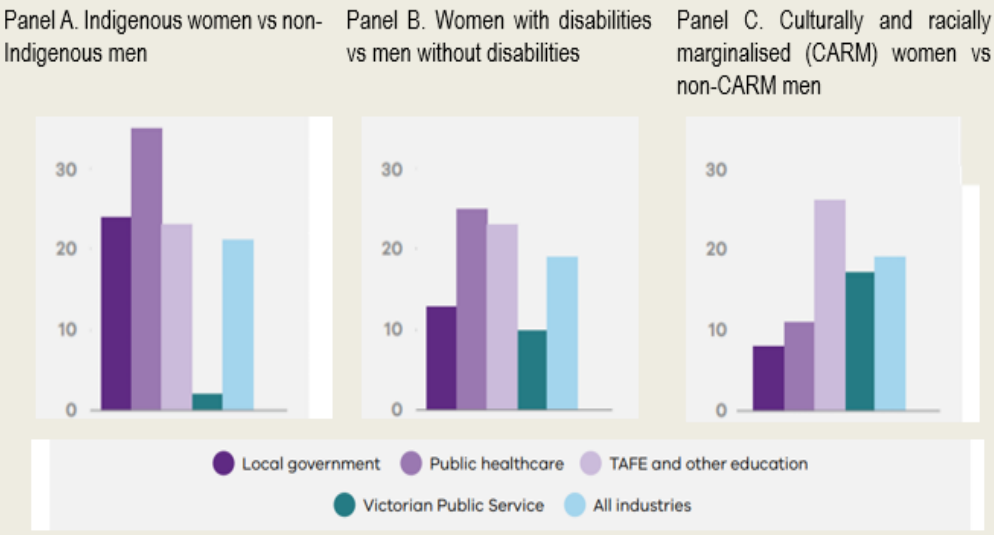
To fulfil this action, organisations covered by the Act collected two categories of data as part of the 2021 workplace gender audit: workforce data that were extracted from defined entities' internal data collection systems and employee experience data that were collected through surveys. Based on such data, a recent analysis of gender wage gaps in the public sector in the State of Victoria complements official statistics on gender gaps with an intersectional lens, supporting a better understanding of how factors such as racial background, disability and sexual orientation contribute to wage disparities. This is comparable to what some national governments are now doing as part of gender pay gap reporting and equal pay audits, where organisations are required to produce gender-disaggregated statistics within their workforce, including – infrequently – on racial and ethnic background (OECD, 2023[33]).

Data show that the average gender wage gap in the State of Victoria's public sector is 15.6% (Commission for Gender Equality in the Public Sector, 2023[34]) but this gap widens significantly when considering intersecting factors (Figure 9):

- **First Nations women**: Pay gaps were largest between First Nations women and non-Indigenous men, at 21% across all industries covered by the Commission's audit data.
- **Women with disabilities**: Women with disabilities faced a 19% pay gap compared to men without disabilities across all industries, larger than the gap faced by men with disabilities and women without disabilities. Women with disabilities also reported lower confidence in promotion practices.
- **Culturally and racially marginalised (CARM) women**: Relative to non-CARM men, pay gaps were 19% for CARM women, 11% for CARM men and 13% for non-CARM women.

These results collectively highlight the compounding effects of gender intersected with disability status and racial, cultural and ethnic identity on labour market outcomes. They inform evidence-based policymaking by supporting targeted interventions, such as developing strategies to address the unique barriers faced by culturally marginalised women, women with disabilities, and First Nations women. Through the publication of such data, public-sector leaders are urged to prioritise diversity and inclusion initiatives, foster inclusive environments for all gender identities and sexual orientations, and implement comprehensive data collection practices that capture the complexities of intersecting identities to better guide policy development (Commission for Gender Equality in the Public Sector, 2023[34]).

Figure 9. Gender pay gaps by intersectional factors and industry, %



Notes: The pay gaps presented here are based on estimates of median salaries, produced using a combination of salary bracket data from the People Matter survey and the Commission's workforce remuneration data.
Source: Commission for Gender Equality in the Public Sector (Commission for Gender Equality in the Public Sector, 2023[34]) based on 2021 workplace gender audit data (People Matter survey data), total sample of 106 069 respondents. The People Matter survey is an anonymous survey completed by approximately 90% of organisations with reporting obligations under the Gender Equality Act 2020 (Vic). The People Matter survey is administered by the Victorian Public Sector Commission (VPSC). For more information see https://vpsc.vic.gov.au/data-and-research/aboutthe-people-matter-survey/.

There remain significant challenges to the increased collection and availability of intersectional data across the OECD

102. Respondent countries reported that some of the perceived challenges to increasing the collection of intersectional data include:

- Privacy and confidentiality requirements or concerns (for example, adequacy of data protection and storage systems)
- Perceived absence of legal basis to collect intersectional data or laws prohibiting collection or use
- Limited resources or capacity
- Irregular or limited periodicity of collection, limiting the coherency and relevance of the dataset (for example, national censuses may only be run every decade)
- Cultural or historical factors (for example, prohibition on the collection of sensitive data on religion or racial origin in certain countries)
- Absence of collection at the population level (for example, certain factors may not be collected as part of national censuses)
- Concerns around data quality and relevance based on small sample sizes for certain population groups
- Collection limited to federal civil service or other sector
- Data collected as part of human resources onboarding processes; however, authority to use data for other purposes has not been expressly requested/granted

- Methodological challenges including absence of agreed definitions and categorisations (for example, definition of disability may be different to how citizens see their abilities/limitations. Similarly, the perception of wide methodological differences for measuring gender identity and sexual orientation can be a challenge for collection and analysis in the absence of guidance).

103. Some OECD countries are working to increase intersectional data collection, as explored in Box 4. An example of this is by mandating their collection as part of statistical guidance or gender impact assessment guidelines, awareness raising, data analysis training and online tools. Methods for increasing the use of intersectional data collection across the policy cycle are discussed in Chapters 4, 5 and 6.

Good practice examples of intersectional data collection in the environmental policy area

Sweden and Spain collect a variety of intersectional gender data to support environmental policymaking.

The Swedish Agency for Marine and Water Management, alongside Statistics Sweden, disaggregates land pollution exposure data by income level, education level and residential region. They also estimate the gender-disaggregated number of people in Sweden's fishing fleet annually. The Board of Agriculture provides age-related data on climate-related disasters and the Public Health Agency and Environmental Protection Agency offer detailed information on air pollution exposure by age, ethnicity and socio-economic status.

In Spain, data on the gender composition of access to resources are disaggregated by educational attainment, household type and migrant status.

The European Union and Spain's Statistics on Income and Living Conditions provide information on population (by gender and age) exposure to pollution, among other local environmental issues (for example, hazardous pollutants, smoke, dust, polluted water).

Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies.

Box 4. Examples of intersectional data collection and dissemination

OECD countries use guidelines, technical manuals and online tools to support use and dissemination of intersectional data

Mexico

Mexico's Technical Manual to Incorporate the Gender Perspective in the Statistical Programs of the National Statistical and Geographic Information System and accompanying guidelines encourage statisticians to consider intersectionality as part of the production of gender data and incorporate some questions to guide statisticians in this task, including: a) Which relevant disaggregations are necessary? b) Do the project categories and variables help identify diversity within the groups of women and men? As part of the dissemination and presentation of results, analysis of two or more variables is included in the presentation of tabulations. Likewise, in the presentation of results when intersectionality is considered, statisticians are encouraged to consider the gender variable across all other variables, for example, if the economic participation rate is presented by age, schooling, or marital status, each must also be presented by gender.

In line with this guidance, the National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI) has commissioned intersectionality-focused projects such as the National Survey on Sexual and Gender Diversity and the National Survey on Time Use. Mexico also has a National Catalogue of Indicators (CNI) which provides centralised access to a wide range of key indicators with their metadata and statistical series, and information can be broken down by gender and other factors. The Mexican government considers this information essential for the design, monitoring and evaluation of public policies of national scope, allowing authorities to make informed and evidence-based decisions.

Australia

Australia has published its Indigenous Data Governance Framework to support civil servants with the culturally appropriate collection and use of Indigenous data. It also aims to support Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples with meaningful access to relevant government-held data to support self-determination.

Canada

Canada requires civil servants to use Gender-Based Analysis Plus (GBA Plus), an analytical tool used to support the development of responsive and inclusive policies, programmes, and other initiatives. GBA Plus is a process for understanding who is impacted by an issue or opportunity; identifying how an initiative could be tailored to meet diverse needs of the people most impacted; and anticipating and mitigating any barriers to accessing or benefitting from the initiative. GBA Plus is an intersectional analysis that goes beyond biological (sex) and socio-cultural (gender) differences to consider other factors, such as age, disability, education, racial and ethnic background, economic status, geography (including rurality), language, religion and sexual orientation.

Canada has also published guidance materials associated with GBA Plus requirements, which build civil servants' capacity to collect and use intersectional data, including how to appropriately engage with diverse population groups as part of data collection. For example, guidance is provided on how to treat knowledge and confidential information provided by Indigenous communities. As part of their reporting on the state and progress of gender, diversity and inclusion in Canada, Statistics Canada regularly releases new analytical products and guidelines to increase knowledge of new concepts and measures relating to intersecting identity characteristics, including the release of a new statistical standard on sexual orientation.

Sweden

In 2024, Statistics Sweden published an online tool for how to best present statistics disaggregated by gender and other grounds of discrimination. The tutorial is primarily aimed at support agencies and other organisations who undertake intersectional data analysis as part of their work to implement gender mainstreaming.

Sources: Australian Government (2024). Framework for Governance of Indigenous Data: Practical guidance for the Australian Public Service. https://www.niaa.gov.au/sites/default/files/documents/2024-05/framework-governance-indigenous-data.pdf; INEGI (2015). Technical Manual to Incorporate the Gender Perspective in the Statistical Programs of the National Statistical and Geographic Information System. https://www.snieg.mx/Documentos/Normatividad/Vigente/manual_tec_incorp_persp_gen_prog_estad.pdf; OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions.

Chapter 4: Challenges related to increasing the use of gender-disaggregated and intersectional data across the policy cycle

104. Countries use high-quality, comprehensive gender data to measure progress, and shape policy priorities, design, implementation and evaluation. Policies are not always neutral; gender bias may be hiding in government decision-making, which risks exacerbating inequality and discrimination (OECD, 2023[35]).

105. Gender mainstreaming provides tools that help countries understand how gender bias may be present in policies, programmes, services and systems (OECD, 2023[35]). Gender budgeting, gender procurement, policy evaluation and gender impact assessment (GIA) can help policymakers determine whether a policy, programme or service has been designed or implemented in such a way that has a harmful gendered impact and what that impact is.

106. Gender data, including intersectional perspectives, are central components of the gender mainstreaming process. When gender data are not used or used very little, inefficient and ineffective policies that are insufficiently tailored to the needs of different community groups can be the result.

107. While previous chapters looked at the collection of gender and intersectional data, this chapter focuses on how specific policy sectors use these data across the policy cycle. It highlights challenges but also ways to expand their use, with sector-specific case studies from the environment and labour market policy areas.

108. Understanding gaps in the use of gender and intersectional data can help countries gauge where existing data may be of poor quality or irrelevant to policymakers' needs. This information can also support countries to improve adherence to gender data requirements, indicate where they may need to focus capacity-building efforts to address skills or knowledge gaps and ensure shared commitment to gender-responsive policymaking.

Clarifying data availability and emphasising the value of using gender data across the policymaking cycle

109. Across policy areas taking part in this survey, gender data are most often used at the policy prioritisation, problematisation and formulation stages, and primarily in dedicated gender policies and strategies. However, there remain gaps in the use of gender data at critical decision-making points.

110. There is limited understanding of the availability and value of using gender data across the policymaking cycle, particularly in the environment and trade policy areas.

111. This suggests the need for awareness raising and capacity building to ensure consistent integration of gender data. Capacity building and training programmes to raise awareness of the importance and existence of, and access to, gender data in the environment policy area are not common in respondent countries but they are a priority for Colombia, Spain and Mexico.

112. In the trade policy area, there is limited awareness of the availability of gender-differentiated data in respondent countries. At the officer, senior and ministerial levels, there is little interest in these data, and insufficient time and limited technical expertise to integrate them. There is little use of gender-differentiated data, particularly at the policy prioritisation and problematisation stages.

113. In the labour market policy area in many countries, key labour market indicators are already disaggregated by age group, level of education, rural or urban status, parenthood characteristics and migrant status. Intersectional data are still missing or outdated on disability status, race and ethnicity. Only a handful of OECD countries collect labour market data that intersect gender with race and ethnicity, and even where such data are collected, limited resources often result in irregular availability, analysis and publication.

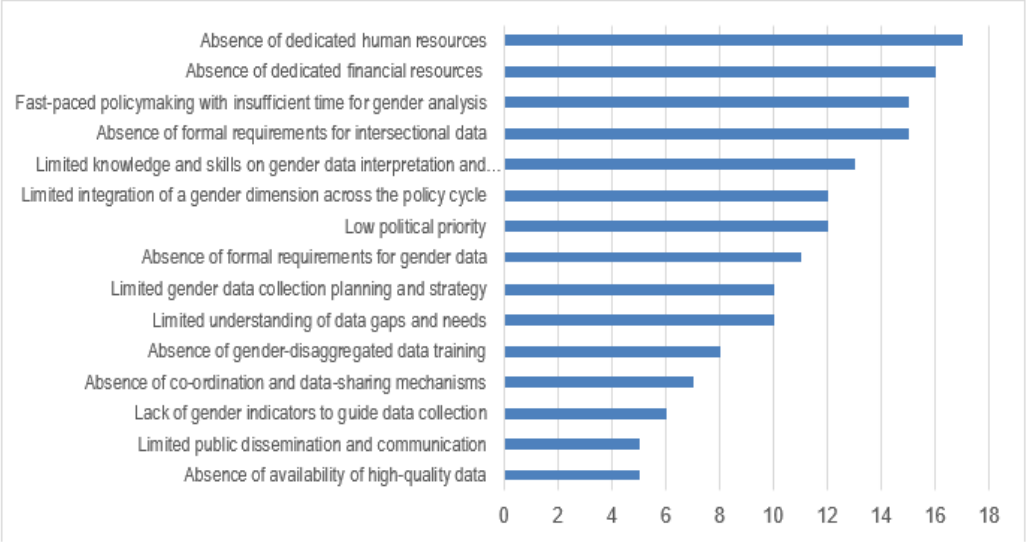
114. Policy recommendations on how to effectively address these challenges through gender data governance can be found in Chapters 5 and 6.

There remain significant barriers to the increased use of gender and intersectional data across respondent OECD countries

115. The absence of dedicated human and financial resources, fast-paced policymaking with insufficient time for gender analysis, absence of formal requirements for intersectional data and insufficient gender data interpretation and analysis capabilities all limit integration of a gender and intersectional dimension across the policy cycle (Figure 10).

116. There are not enough useful intersectional data insights to meet policy challenges. There is also limited understanding of the value of intersectional data and an absence of standard methodological guidance for analysing and interpreting intersectional data insights. Countries would benefit from the development of guidance materials on the production and analysis of intersectional data with practice examples tailored to different sectors and policy areas.

Figure 10. Challenges faced by central gender equality institutions and government as a whole in producing and using gender data



Note: This chart depicts country responses to the question "*Which of the following challenges has 1) your institution and 2) the government as a whole faced in producing and using gender data? Please rank each challenge from '0' (Not a challenge) to '5' (Significant challenge*)". The chart depicts the number of countries who reported challenges (includes challenges rated as 'significant challenge', 'important challenge' and 'challenging'), 23 countries responded to this question.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions.

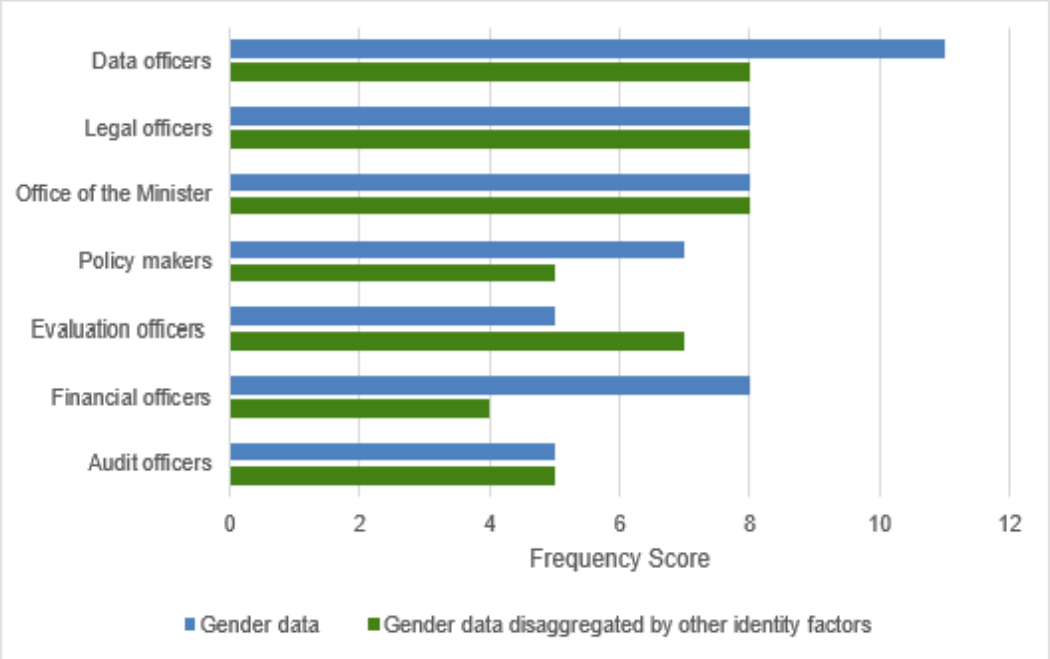
Spotlight on the use of gender data in the environment policy cycle: Policy officers are the least likely to use gender and intersectional data.

117. The primary users of gender data in the environment policy area are data officers, followed by legal and financial officers, and the office of the minister. Policymakers are among the least likely to use gender and intersectional data (Figure 11). Gender data in the environment policy area were also primarily employed in policies dedicated to gender equality rather than in a uniform way across all environmental policy areas. Together, this points to uncertainty about when gender data should be used and by whom. Barriers discussed earlier in the report, such as limited time and resources, may also contribute to this challenge.

118. Respondent countries also highlighted the need for more information about the value of expanded gender and intersectional data across environmental fields. Requirements to use gender data in policy design and consider the different gendered impacts of policy options may be needed. A case study highlighting the value and potential use of gender data as part of public transport policy formulation is set out in Box 5.

Figure 11. In the environmental policy area, data officers most frequently use gender and intersectional data

Frequency score of gender and intersectional data usage across units based on responding countries.



Note: Frequency score is given based on a multiplication of the number of countries by the level of use, where 'always' is given a score of 5, 'often' is given a score of 4, 'sometimes' is given a score of 3, 'rarely' is given a score of 2, 'don't know' is given a score of 1, and 'never' or 'not available' is given a score of 0. When countries reported multiple levels of frequency, depending on the responding authority, the highest score is selected for that country. Frequency of use may be affected by data availability across countries.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies.

Box 5. Case study: Combining gender and intersectional data insights on climate change and transport can shape environmental policy outcomes

Gendered differences in attitudes towards climate change and public transport

Infrastructure policy, including transportation networks, energy systems and public services, is critically important for global economic growth (OECD, 2023[36]). It also significantly influences citizens' health and well-being (OECD, 2023[36]). At the same time, the transport sector alone is responsible for 23% of global CO2 emissions (ITF, 2023[37]). Changing individual behaviours that negatively impact the environment is an important component of decarbonisation strategies (OECD, 2023[38]). Shifting to more sustainable choices and practices can have a significant impact on environmental and climate outcomes (ITF, 2019[39]).

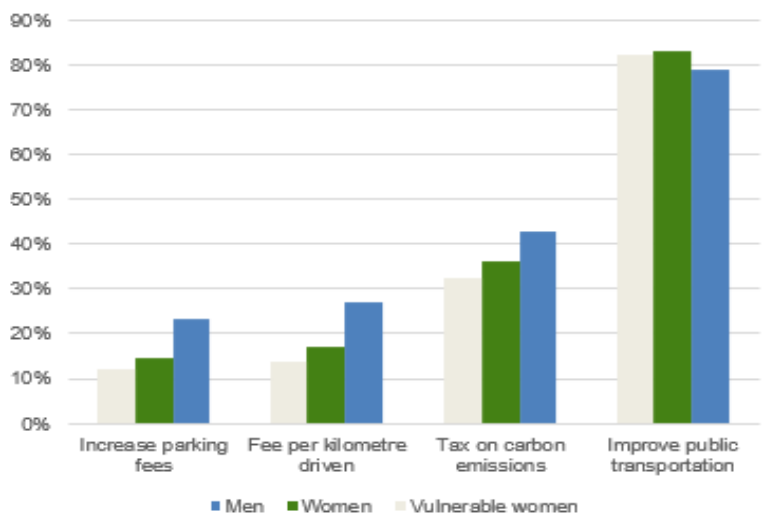
Analysing climate-change attitudes, travel patterns and choices through a gender and intersectional lens enables effective decarbonisation policies that cater to diverse needs, and foster sustainable and equitable outcomes. Gender differences in behaviour and preferences, influenced by physical, cognitive, financial, and emotional aspects, shape individual choices such as daily routines and transportation choices (OECD, 2024[12]). Men and women may have different transport-related needs as a result of various restrictions on mobility and resources, daily routines and time-availability, physiological needs and vulnerability to violence in public spaces.

One way to cut carbon emissions is to reduce the number of people who drive cars and increase the number of people who use public transportation. To do this, policymakers may wish to probe who is using transit and how and what motivates increased public transit use. Indeed, examining the data reveals important connections between attitudes towards climate change and public transportation use. For example, the EPIC survey shows that women are more inclined to adopt sustainable and environmentally friendly practices (OECD, 2019[11]). Moreover, the survey demonstrates that women feel more strongly towards climate change issues than men. It also shows that women who may be more vulnerable to risks associated with climate change including those with low incomes, living in isolated or rural areas and with fewer remote working opportunities, are more likely to consider climate change to be very important (38%) compared to non-vulnerable men (35%) and vulnerable men (32%). Further, women's transport and mobility choices are more sustainable than those of men, with women adopting more sustainable consumption patterns. For example, 49% of women who may be more vulnerable to climate-change risks rely on environmentally friendly modes of transport for commuting, e.g. walking, carpooling, or cycling, compared to 41% of non-vulnerable men and 43% of non-vulnerable women.

Just as women and men have different travel behaviour and patterns, they also have different policy preferences that should be considered when designing effective policies. Women tend to support public transport and prefer less price-based measures. This trend is even more pronounced for women who may be vulnerable to risks associated with climate change. When asked what governmental actions respondents would support to reduce the environmental impacts of cars (Figure 12), women who may be more vulnerable to risks associated with climate change are less likely to prefer policies that increase price burdens, such as charging a fee per kilometre driven (14%), increasing parking fees (12%), and implementing a carbon tax (32%). Women prefer policies that support their mobility, e.g. improving public transportation (82%). Policies that raise the cost of driving can disproportionately affect women who rely on cars for mobility due to factors such as living in a rural area, having limited access to public transit, unsafe walking or limited cycling infrastructure.

Figure 12. Women who are vulnerable are less inclined to support policies that raise overall transport cost

Percentage of vulnerable women strongly agreeing or agreeing with policy measures



Note: This survey item asked respondents: "*What do you think about the following actions governments can take to reduce environmental impacts from cars?*". Respondents rated each policy measure on a 5-point scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.
Source: Prepared using data from the OECD (2022), Environmental Policies and Individual Behaviour Change Survey.

To avoid unintentionally designing transit systems that systematically neglect the needs of women and work against the overarching policy goal of increasing use of public transit, policymakers can incorporate gender and intersectional data at each stage of the policy design process. The International Transport Forum's (ITF's) Gender Analysis Toolkit for Transport Policies may assist policymakers with this process.

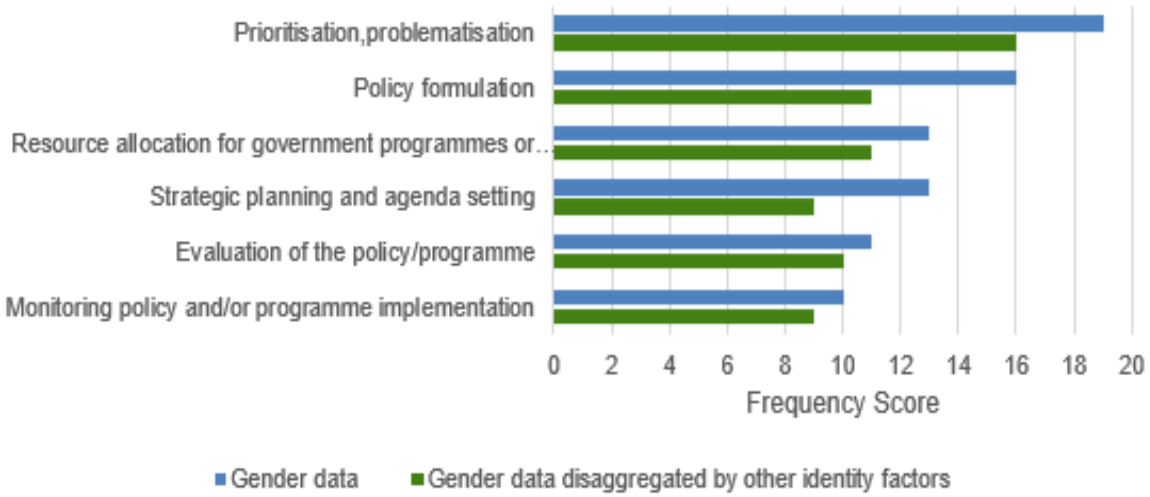
Notes: Analysis prepared by the OECD Secretariat using data from the OECD Environmental Policies and Individual Behaviour Change Survey (2022).
Sources: Fenstra, M., C. Laryea and A. Stojilovska (2024), Gender aspects of the rising cost of living and the impact of the energy crisis. European Union, https://doi.org/10.2861/148400; ITF (2023), ITF Transport Outlook 2023: Summary. OECD Publishing, Paris. https://www.itf-oecd.org/itf-transport-outlook-2023; ITF (2019), Transport Connectivity: A Gender Perspective. OECD Publishing, Paris; ITF (2021), Gender Analysis Toolkit for Transport Policies. https://gendertoolkit.itf-oecd.org/#:~:text=%E2%80%9CThe%20ITF%20Gender%20Analysis%20Toolkit,equality%20in%20the%20transport%20workforce.%E2%80%9D; OECD (2024), Harnessing the green and digital transitions for gender equality: Policy insights from the 2024 OECD Forum on Gender Equality (forthcoming); OECD (ed.) (2023), Built Environment through a Well-being Lens. OECD Publishing, Paris. https://doi.org/10.1787/1b5bebf4-en; OECD (2023), How Green is Household Behaviour?: Sustainable Choices in a Time of Interlocking Crises. OECD Studies on Environmental Policy and Household Behaviour. OECD Publishing, Paris. https://doi.org/10.1787/2bbbb663-en; OECD (2021), Gender and the Environment: Building Evidence and Policies to Achieve the SDGs. OECD Publishing, Paris. https://doi.org/10.1787/3d32ca39-en; OECD (2019), "Sustainable connectivity: Closing the gender gap in infrastructure". OECD Environment Policy Papers, No. 15. OECD Publishing, Paris. https://doi.org/10.1787/6350ba66-en. U.S Department of Transportation (2010), Public Transportation's Role in Responding to Climate Change; Sanchez de Madariaga, Ines (2013), 'Mobility of Care: Introducing New Concepts in Urban Transport" Fair Shared Cities: The Impact of Gender Planning In Europe https://www.transit.dot.gov/sites/fta.dot.gov/files/docs/PublicTransportationsRoleInRespondingToClimateChange2010.pdf.

119. In the environment policy area, respondent countries reported that gender data are most integrated into the policy cycle during policy prioritisation, problematisation and formulation (Figure 13). For example, Colombia uses gender data in the prioritisation processes of their green jobs office and in the formulation of their Gender and Climate Change Action Plan. Similarly, Costa Rica uses gender data for identifying gender-related issues resulting from climate-related disasters. However, gender data are least used in

monitoring policy and/or programme evaluation, which is unchanged from 2019 (OECD, 2020[40]). This underscores the need to incorporate gender indicators into environmental policy strategies. There needs to be greater methodological advice on how to integrate a gender lens into evaluation processes.

Figure 13. Gender data use in the environmental policy design cycle are most prominent during the stages of prioritisation/problematisation and policy formulation

Frequency score across 10 respondent countries.



Note: Frequency score is given based on a multiplication of the number of countries by the level of use, where 'always' is given a score of 5, 'often' is given a score of 4, 'sometimes' is given a score of 3, 'rarely' is given a score of 2, 'don't know' is given a score of 1, and 'never' or 'not available' is given a score of 0. 10 countries responded to this question. When countries reported multiple levels of availability, depending on the responding authority, the highest score of frequency is selected for that country.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies.

Part II: The enabling environment for mainstreaming gender considerations across data ecosystems

To address gaps in gender evidence availability, quality and use, some OECD countries have begun mainstreaming gender across their national statistical systems. While these efforts are positive, there remain significant gaps in action. A holistic and co-ordinated whole-of-government effort is required. The following chapters analyse how current practice could be improved by building gender data governance, including by developing gender data strategies and sector-specific methodological guidance as well as improved collaboration and co-ordination with gender data stakeholders.

Chapter 5: A strategic approach to gender evidence – planning, guidance and regulation

120. While gender data availability is increasing across OECD countries, it remains piecemeal, sometimes irrelevant for emerging policy challenges and inconsistently used across sectors in most policy areas participating in the questionnaire (see Chapters 2, 3 and 4). This compromises efforts to build a comprehensive picture of gender inequalities across different policy areas, and track national and international progress. Moreover, the availability and use of intersectional data is very limited across all policy areas (see Chapters 3 and 4). OECD countries also reported that the absence of dedicated collection instruments, dedicated resources, statistical standards and methodological guidance were key barriers to their increased collection and use (see Chapters 2, 3 and 4).

121. At the same time, new digital technologies have significant potential to expand and enhance the analysis and use of gender and intersectional data. However, advancements in data collection and analysis techniques have their own unique set of regulatory and methodological challenges, which have complicated their expanded use across the OECD. More broadly, the public sector often faces legacy challenges "ranging from outdated data infrastructure and data silos to skills gaps, regulatory barriers, limited leadership and accountability, and an organisational culture that is not prone to digital innovation and change" (OECD, 2019[41]).

122. Responding to these challenges requires the right enabling environment. This includes strategic gender data governance, covering cultural, policy, legal, regulatory, organisational and technical elements. Data governance in the context of this report refers to the guidelines, procedures, legal requirements, and strategies that regulate the collection, dissemination and use of gender data. It also requires countries to build institutional capacity to harness the opportunities for improving gender data use offered by the global digital transition.

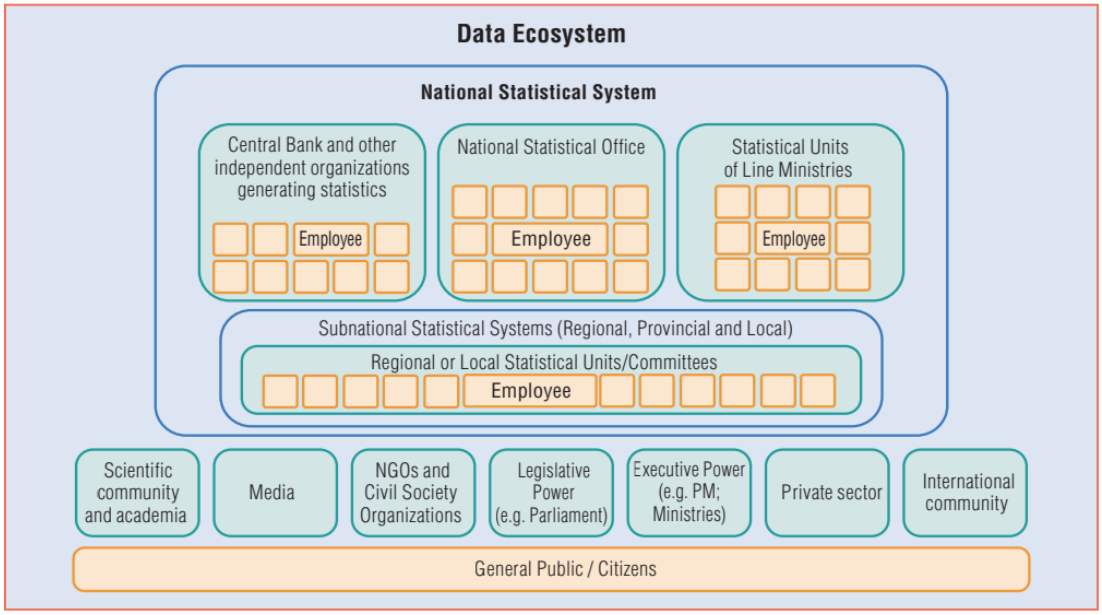
123. This chapter provides an analysis of OECD country practices aimed at mainstreaming a gender lens into data ecosystems across policy areas. It also analyses the ways in which the use of alternative data sources and collection methods can be responsibly enhanced to make further progress on gender equality goals. The elements presented in this chapter are guided by the OECD's data-driven public-sector framework (OECD, 2019[41]) in addition to OECD research and findings focused on good practice data collection.

A comprehensive and planned approach to mainstreaming gender across national statistical systems is needed

Gender data governance requires countries to integrate gender considerations across the data ecosystem

124. The production and use of gender data is a complex multi-level and multi-actor process (PARIS21, 2020[42]). Gender and intersectional data and evidence are spread across numerous government agencies and external sources (see Figure 14 for an overview of the central components of the data ecosystem). The challenge lies in ensuring that the appropriate data reach decision-makers when needed. To manage these complexities, OECD countries can adopt a gender data governance system. Gender data governance is a crucial aspect of mainstreaming gender considerations across the data ecosystem through its focus on improving transparency and accountability.

Figure 14. Overview of the data ecosystem



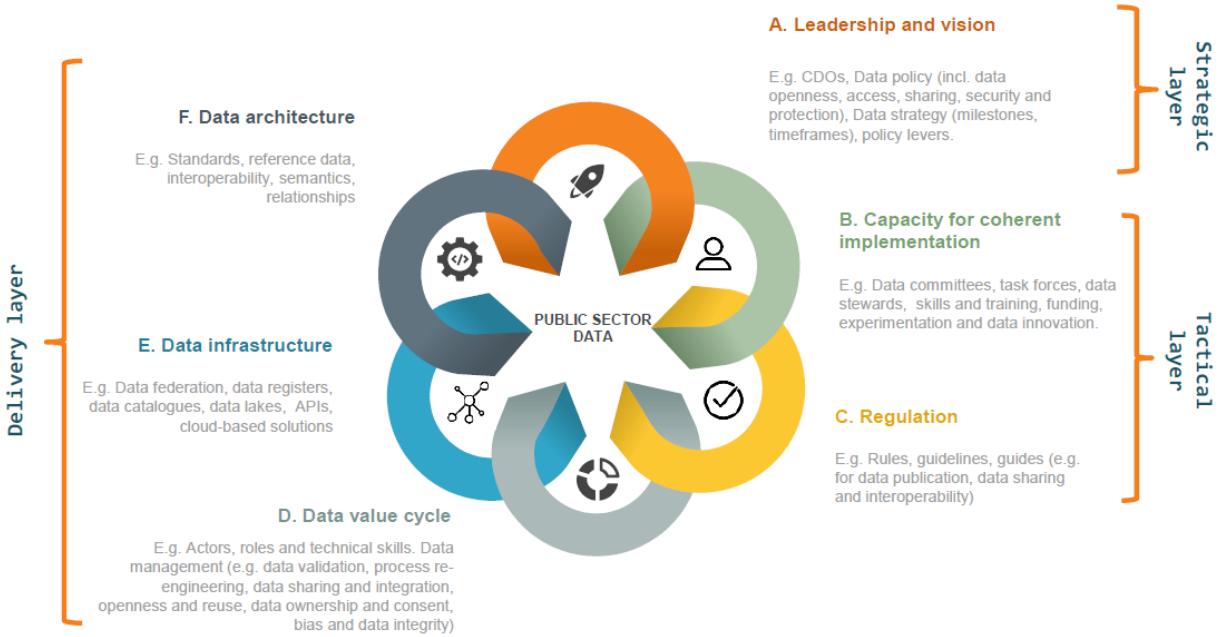
Source: PARIS21 (2018), Proposing a Framework for Statistical Capacity Development 4.0. https://paris21.org/sites/default/files/inline-files/CD4.0-Framework_final.pdf.

125. Helpfully, most of what is required for improved gender data governance overlaps with what is required for robust statistical systems. The OECD considers that "good data governance can contribute to setting a common vision; enhancing coherent implementation and co-ordination; and strengthening the institutional, regulatory, capacity and technical foundations to better control and manage the data value cycle, i.e. collect, generate, store, secure, process, share and reuse data, as means to enhance trust and deliver value" (OECD, 2019[41]).

126. The OECD's model for data governance in the public sector (OECD, 2019[41]) is a good foundation for OECD countries to build stronger data governance mechanisms for gender-sensitive and intersectional data (Figure 15). It is organised into three core layers: strategic, tactical and delivery, and consists of six elements, namely:

1. *Leadership and vision*, which belong to the strategic layer and help define the expectations and vision for gender-sensitive and intersectional data;
2. *Capacity for coherent implementation* (tactical layer), since lack of such capacity is one of the core challenges in generating gender-sensitive and intersectional evidence;
3. *Regulation* (tactical layer), which helps navigate the complexities that accompany the collection, storage, use and sharing of sensitive personal data;
4. *Data value cycle* (delivery layer), which touches upon the range of factors in the data value cycle across different stages that would need to be adapted to gender-specific considerations (e.g. removing gender biases in the data value cycle);
5. *Data infrastructure* (delivery layer), which creates opportunities and limitations regarding the sources and methods that can be used to generate and use gender-sensitive/intersectional evidence; and
6. *Data architecture* (delivery layer), which relates to, for instance, interoperability and standardisation (e.g. at the semantic level, the conceptual understanding of gender-based violence or telework would need to be consistent to allow interoperability).

Figure 15. Data governance in the public sector: Six key elements



Source: OECD (2019), *The Path to Becoming a Data-Driven Public Sector*, OECD Digital Government Studies, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/059814a7-en.

127. A strong example of how good data governance can support mainstreaming a gender perspective across all aspects of the data ecosystem is the PARIS21 Assessing Data and Statistical Capacity Gaps for Better Gender Statistics: Framework and Implementation Guidelines (PARIS21 Framework) (PARIS21,

2020[42]). The PARIS21 Framework highlights how mainstreaming gender across national statistical systems requires strategy and leadership; the integration of gender into existing legal frameworks; co-operation between producers and users of data; and collaboration among National Statistical Offices (NSOs), international and regional actors, women's groups and academia, and capacity building for statisticians.

128. Institutional actors in the data ecosystem play an important role in the functioning of the system. For example, data producers influence the skills and capacities of policy officers, and facilitate gender-based analysis. Similarly, the production of new statistics is driven by data users such as policy officers who require relevant and timely data for policymaking and evaluation. The national statistical system is therefore responsible for producing gender data that are relevant to the issues and objectives highlighted in national indicators, policies, plans and by external stakeholders such as civil society. The interdependent nature of this relationship underscores the need for close co-ordination and collaboration between all actors within the gender data ecosystem.

129. Mainstreaming gender across the data ecosystem requires careful and strategic planning. A whole-of-government gender data strategy would prioritise the cross-cutting issue of gender equality, provide a framework to secure resources and bring together stakeholders around the production and use of gender data (PARIS21, 2024[43]). Meaningful policies and requirements that account for gender can be integrated into existing data governance strategies to improve and incentivise the use of gender data by civil servants, researchers and evaluators.

130. Additionally, political will and leadership from all actors and institutions involved in the production and use of gender data is the key driving force for gender data governance and improved gender data resourcing (UN, 2006[44]) (Data2X, 2024[45]). It is also important that these actors respond to user needs (see Chapter 6 for recommendations relating to stakeholder consultation and collaboration).

Whole-of-government gender data strategies are increasing among OECD countries

131. A country's strategic planning is key to achieving its gender equality goals (OECD, 2023[46]). Incorporating a medium- to long-term vision and goals for gender equality into national strategies and plans across different policy areas signals a country's objective of a gender-equal society. It is also a gauge of its leaders' commitment to that objective. An integrated and iterative national strategy for the production and use of gender evidence can support the achievement of such goals across policy areas and ensure progress is measured and sustained.

132. Some respondent OECD countries have recognised the strategic importance of having a gender data strategy or framework in place (see Box 6), and their numbers are increasing across the OECD. For example, 10 of 22 respondent OECD countries currently have gender data strategies or frameworks in place2. Alternatively, some countries have included plans for gender data as part of their national gender equality or gender-based violence strategies. A roadmap or action plan can facilitate the implementation of statistical laws and regulations, and help define clear objectives and timelines. However, in 2022, only a third of OECD countries (36%) reported having roadmaps or action plans for statistics laws and regulations.

Box 6. Examples of national gender data strategies across the OECD

Canada

To support governmental and societal efforts to address known inequalities, and promote fair and inclusive decision-making, Canada launched the Disaggregated Data Action Plan (DDAP) with CAD 172 million in funding over five years. A whole-of-government approach led by Statistics Canada, the DDAP aims to support more representative data collection methods, and increase and improve data on diverse populations including women, Indigenous peoples, visible minorities and people with disability. Where relevant and possible, disaggregation is extended to other groups (e.g. sexual orientation, children and youth, seniors, official language, immigrants, low-income Canadians).

Ireland

A National Equality Data Strategy is being developed to improve the collection, disaggregation and use of equality data in Ireland. The strategy is intended to improve the availability of equality data, including gender, and will improve the ability of public bodies to monitor the impact of policies and initiatives. It will provide a general approach for identifying and filling current gaps in equality data as well as develop standard practices in classification and standardisation.

Australia

As part of the Australian Public Service Commission's (APSC) Gender Equality Strategy, the Australian Public Service (APS) has committed to progressively building their capacity and capability to collect, analyse and publish (internally) gender-disaggregated data across all people-metrics, in addition to data disaggregated by other diversity and inclusion variables. The APSC has also committed to developing a strategic research plan to better understand gender dynamics in the APS workforce. Priority research projects identified in the research plan will leverage the socio-demographic data and workforce information held by the APSC, including through research partnerships with the academic community.

Sources: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions (unpublished); Australian Public Service Commission (2021). https://www.apsc.gov.au/publication/australian-public-service-gender-equality-strategy-2021-26/action-area-5-gender-data. Statistics Canada (2024). Disaggregated Data Action Plan. https://www.statcan.gc.ca/en/trust/modernization/disaggregated-data.

133. Developing a national gender data strategy can help countries remain agile in the face of emerging technologies, prioritise the most important actions, show political leadership and crystallise government's vision for a strong gender data ecosystem (see Box 7). More specifically, a gender data strategy can support government decision-making by, for example:

- enabling policymakers to pinpoint and plan for informational, data and regulation gaps from the outset of the policy problematisation and planning stage to ensure adequate gender data and evidence are available at each of the key decision-making points;
- providing a roadmap to analyse and prioritise relevant gender data production and use;
- establishing the key stakeholders to involve in gender data co-ordination mechanisms;
- supporting gender data resourcing and infrastructure requests in the short- to medium-term;
- shaping the development of robust, gender-sensitive measurement frameworks and indicators across policy areas.

Box 7. What can a gender data strategy include?

A gender data strategy can be integrated into existing data governance frameworks or be developed as a companion framework. Strategic gender data frameworks can unpack the different institutional, political and resourcing aspects of the enabling environment for gender data collection and use. For example, the framework can:

- identify national gender and intersectional data goals based on policy needs and national economic and social development strategies;
- identify key gender data collection and management stakeholders, roles and accountabilities (including government, media, academia etc.);
- establish a national gender data co-ordination mechanism (for example, a steering group) that brings together national statistics offices, central gender equality institutions and representatives from across policy areas and provides for consultation with stakeholders external to government;
- include a national gender data action plan that establishes a regular and iterative process for identifying policymakers' gender data needs and missing gender indicators, with the aim of developing a framework of target gender indicators that reflect priorities across policy areas;
- consider which new technologies could be harnessed to increase the availability of gender and intersectional data and how;
- identify regulatory and methodological gaps for prioritisation, with a focus on the use of new technologies for enhanced gender data collection and analysis;
- outline the technical skills and knowledge needed to support effective gender data production, protection and dissemination.

Many OECD countries have identified the roles and responsibilities of public entities in the production and use of data broadly – through either policy or regulatory instruments. However, the specific roles and responsibilities of public entities in the collection, storage, use and dissemination of gender data across government are rarely specified. Clarity as to the roles and responsibilities of individuals and organisations in the gender data ecosystem can lead to data collection that is relevant and useful to policymakers.

Note: For further information on the design and implementation of a gender data strategy, refer to (PARIS21, 2020[42]), Assessing Data and Statistical Capacity Gaps for Better Gender Statistics: Framework and Implementation Guidelines.
Sources: (Data 2X and Open Data Watch, 2022[47]), Transforming the Data Landscape: Solutions to close gender data gaps. (OECD, 2019[48]), The Path to Becoming a Data-Driven Public Sector. (PARIS21, 2023[29]), Counting on Gender Data: Findings from Gender Statistics Assessments in Nine Countries. (PARIS21, 2020[42]), Assessing Data and Statistical Capacity Gaps for Better Gender Statistics: Framework and Implementation Guidelines.

Integrating gender indicators into national plans, strategies, procurement and grants systems, and sector-specific strategies can improve gender data

134. OECD members have agreed that a stand-alone national gender equality strategy, combined with the integration of gender equality objectives, indicators and data within sector-specific strategies (for example, education, health, environment, etc.) and broader national strategies (for example, data, foresight, transport, disaster management, recovery and resilience, etc.), can help accelerate the implementation of gender equality objectives (OECD, 2015[49]).

135. OECD countries identified the review or development of national gender equality plans as well as the implementation of gender impact assessments (GIA) across government as key opportunities to identify and fill policymakers' gender data needs. To catalyse action and secure resourcing for gender data across all policy areas, countries would benefit from integrating gender indicators into broader national development plans as well as procurement and grants systems. For example, Iceland revised its national arts and culture grants system to support greater gender equality and gender data on arts and culture outcomes (see Box 8).

Box 8. Example of the integration of gender into a national grants system

Revision of Iceland's public grants system in the arts and culture space

In 2020, Iceland reviewed and revised its entire public grants system from the application and advertising stages through to selection and monitoring procedures to ensure equal access to funds irrespective of gender, and in particular, equal access for women and men to artist salaries and allocations from the Icelandic Film Fund.

The grants application process was revised in co-operation with Rannís – the Icelandic Centre for Research – so that more factors could be analysed by gender and considered as part of the grants evaluation and awarding process as well as generate more precise gendered data about allocations. The project has also involved ongoing co-operation with the Artists' Salary Board to ensure equal access to artist salary allocations. The new 2020 State film policy contains 22 provisions on improving women's participation in film-making and film studies. The policy calls for systematic actions to enhance the film-making infrastructure even further, with a view to creating competitive companies and excellent working environments on the basis of gender equality and sustainable values. The Ministry of Culture and Business Affairs has, in pursuance of the Gender Equality Action Programme 2020–2023, compiled and published the newly available data on the consumption of culture and how artist salaries are divided between genders and age groups. The Ministry will continue to work with this data with the objective of ensuring gender balance in public grants for artists.

Source: Government of Iceland (2021). Iceland's Ninth Periodic Report on the Implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

Legal frameworks and methodological guidance can help mainstream gender across national data ecosystems

Clear sector-specific methodological guidance supports gender data strategies and gender data requirements

136. Clear methodological guidance is necessary to operationalise gender data strategies and provide instructions on the implementation of gender data requirements such as GIA. While gender data requirements in some OECD countries have supported the increased collection of gender data, the requirements alone have not translated into increased use of gender data across government: some policy areas remain unaware of how to integrate gender data into their policy work (see Chapter 4).

137. Guidance that sets out a methodology for how to analyse, interpret, use and store gender and intersectional data can provide important clarity for civil servants responsible for implementing gender mainstreaming requirements. For example, methodological guidance for undertaking gender impact assessment across decision-making could provide advice on:

- possible gender data sources and the range of gender data available in different policy areas;

- how to undertake qualitative and quantitative gender and intersectional data analysis, and fill gender and intersectional data gaps;
- how to store gender data and ensure compliance with relevant legal, ethical and confidentiality frameworks.

138. Guidance may also cover how to use new technologies such as AI for gender data analysis. Providing sector-specific case studies and examples can enable different policy areas to see practical examples of the relevance of gender data in their policy area.

Sector-specific methodological guidance example: Trade policy in Canada

Many trade agreements are made with the intention of improving the economic well-being of a nation but rarely include any analysis of the differing impacts these agreements may have on women. To generate the descriptive evidence needed to design new policies, the Federal Government of Canada developed Gender-based Analysis Plus (GBA Plus), which is an analytical process that provides "a rigorous method for the assessment of systemic inequalities, as well as a means to assess how diverse groups of women, men, and gender diverse people experience polices, programs, and initiatives". Canada used this assessment to analyse 25 chapters of a trade agreement being negotiated with Mercosur (Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay) from a gender perspective to help inform and identify opportunities for adding new gender-responsive and inclusive trade provisions.

The GBA Plus/Mercosur assessment used a combination of disaggregated quantitative and qualitative data from official statistical sources to analyse job and wage gains, income and labour force participation to create new gender-sensitive data to understand gender impacts, which shaped the position of Canadian negotiators. To ensure this was an iterative process, lead negotiators updated the assessment throughout rounds of negotiations, which in turn helped to develop new gender-sensitive provisions.

Source: International Institute for Sustainable Development (2021) Mainstreaming Gender in Trade Policy: Practice, evidence and ways forward https://www.iisd.org/system/files/2021-11/mainstreaming-gender-in-trade-policy.pdf; Government of Canada (2019) Summary of Initial GBA+ for Canada-Mercosur FTA Negotiations, https://www.international.gc.ca/trade-commerce/assets/pdfs/gba_plus_summary-acs_plus_resume_eng.pdf.

Greater use of new technologies for gender data requires additional legal and methodological frameworks and careful risk assessments

139. Governments are increasingly relying on data and the digital economy to support decision-making (OECD, 2021[50]). New means of data production and analytics such as generative artificial intelligence and machine learning can empower public sectors to streamline operations, improve citizen engagement as well as economic and social well-being (Lorenz, Perset and Berryhill, 2023[19]). Understanding social and economic changes resulting from the current transitions and megatrends – including the shift to remote working, the use and impact of AI, new job creation in green and digital etc. – requires new data sources and indicators.

140. However, digital innovations come with their own unique set of challenges, including the risk of gender bias and discrimination, technology-facilitated gender-based violence, misinformation, and disinformation and digital exclusion (Chen, 2023[17]) (Davis, 2020[18]) (Lorenz, Perset and Berryhill, 2023[19])

(OECD, 2024[15]) (UNWomen, 2024[20]). Policymakers need greater clarity as to which digital innovations can be used to collect, analyse and disseminate new gender and intersectional data. The OECD has found that self- and co-regulatory approaches for regulating digital technologies have, at times, led to inconsistent policy outcomes. Additional clarity regarding the role of public oversight and monitoring in technological governance is required to ensure adequate safe guards are in place (OECD, 2024[15]).

141. These challenges may explain why most central gender equality institutions participating in the questionnaire are not currently using non-traditional data sources or new technologies to improve gender and intersectional data availability. They are concerned about the authorising environment, privacy, ethics and quality (including reliability and consistency).3 Most respondent countries also noted challenges associated with technical and resourcing capacity to treat, handle and store such data. While technological innovation and new data sources have the potential to enhance policymaking capacities, the rapid pace of development means that regulation sometimes requires a shortened timeframe to be developed (OECD, 2024[16]). The OECD's Recommendation on Agile Regulatory Governance to Harness Innovation (OECD, 2021[51]) and Framework for Anticipatory Governance of Emerging Technologies (OECD, 2024[16]) provide important guidance for using and adapting regulation and governance to manage the digital transition. Embedding gender across the policy cycle through, for example, GIA, can help regulators and policymakers consider potential gender-differentiated impacts of new technologies and data sources as part of regulatory design, delivery and evaluation.

142. Recognising the significant potential for improved gender data, some policy areas across OECD countries have begun harnessing advanced technologies. For example, Costa Rica and Mexico have both implemented initiatives designed to increase the availability of gender data in the environmental policy area (see Box 9).

Box 9. Several OECD countries are harnessing new technologies to increase gender data availability in the environmental policymaking area

Costa Rica and Mexico are adopting innovative practices to increase gender data availability

Costa Rica

Through its Ministry of Environment and Energy (MINAE), Costa Rica launched the National Action Plan on Gender Equality in Climate Action, which emphasises the production and dissemination of information to address the absence of data on the gender-differentiated impacts of climate change. This initiative aims to fill these information gaps and anticipates future expansion in data collection methods and indicators. The National Geo-Environmental Information Center (CENIGA) is spearheading actions to enhance data on gender issues by including gender variables in methodological sheets and piloting gender-disaggregated water variables within the CTIE-Water framework. Although these gender-disaggregated variables are not part of the 2024 work plan, they are slated to be included starting in 2025. Additionally, the National Commission for Risk Prevention and Emergency Response (CNE) is automating data generation procedures using online forms and applications, facilitating real-time data collection. One application focused on gender issues and social inclusion in shelters is also in development, reflecting the country's commitment to integrating a gender lens into its data practices.

Mexico

Mexico has initiated several measures to integrate a gender lens into its environmental and water resource data at both national and international levels. Nationally, the Secretariat of Environment and Natural Resources (SEMARNAT) is at the forefront, promoting the use of advanced technologies and the digitalisation of gender data within the environmental policy area. The National Institute of Ecology

and Climate Change (INECC) is updating information on gender gaps across various administrative levels using data from the 2020 National Population Census and comparing it with data from previous censuses. This effort is important for tracking progress and identifying persistent disparities.

The Mexican Institute of Water Technology (IMTA) has also started to incorporate gender indicators in its data collection processes. This includes tracking the participation of men and women in research projects, implementation initiatives, and events. Such data collection aims to diversify data sources and improve understanding of gender dynamics within the sector. Moreover, the National Water Commission (CONAGUA) achieved certification in the Mexican Standard NMX R 025 SCFI 2015 for Labour Equality and Non-Discrimination, reaching the gold level in 2022. This certification process involves creating gender-disaggregated records, charts and documents in human resource management, thereby promoting gender equality in the workplace.

Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies (unpublished).

Establishing frameworks to govern the collection, use and storage of gender data using non-traditional data sources can provide much-needed authorisation and clarity.

143. While central gender equality institutions and environment policy areas participating in the questionnaire expressed interest in new technologies for increased gender data production and use, most ministries are not yet widely using new technologies. Currently, not all law and regulations explicitly specify which data, evaluation, research, and other analytical activities are permissible. For many public-sector organisations, the absence of an explicit authorisation, instrument or directive to collect and use sex- and/or gender-disaggregated data or to address gender bias in data collection methods may prevent policy areas from pursuing particular studies or approaches, or at the very least, slow down evidence-building activities due to lack of clarity.

144. Emerging technologies such as Big Data can offer significant opportunities for improving gender-sensitive policymaking (see Annex B). For example, Big Data from digital platforms, social media, and mobile phone usage can provide policymakers with real-time insights into gender-related behaviours, preferences, societal norms and trends, which can supplement traditional data sources. In addition, analysing digital footprints can provide swift insights into emerging issues and support governments to monitor the impact of policies on gender dynamics.

145. Some OECD countries are looking to link survey and administrative data – i.e. via a unique identifier across government agencies (OECD, 2024[52]) – to reduce respondent burden and enhance data integration and comprehensiveness. Data linkage has the potential to significantly reduce respondent burden and provide new ways of gaining insight into gendered experiences. For instance, if gender was not captured through a given exercise of data collection, there could be a way to link those records to another source that does. However, this introduces the possibility of linkage errors, especially where administrative datasets cannot be appropriately linked together. In order to maximise the benefits of data linkage techniques and reduce possible errors, it is essential to have clear data governance rules and regulations that allow for the interoperability of datasets.

146. The integration of gender considerations across data management frameworks can ensure that countries improve gender data availability while avoiding unintended harms (see Box 10). For example, open data offers the promise of increasing analytical insights. Relative to non-gender data, gender data are considered less open, often because of the lack of machine-readability or historical data (Data 2X and Open Data Watch, 2022[47]). As new privacy-enhancing and -preserving technologies become more viable, opening access to gender data is increasingly possible. However, countries will need to consider the gender equality impacts of deploying privacy-enhancing technologies to improve data access and ensure

clear regulation is in place. Countries can also integrate gender considerations into existing open-access policies. For example, countries could integrate gender considerations into the rules governing national and regional open-access data portals, such as the European Data Portal, to provide policymakers with clear policy instructions that support enhanced gender data sharing.

147. Respondent policy areas are aware of the range of potential methodological and quality challenges associated with the ethical collection and use of alternative data sources, including sampling biases, and recognise that careful consideration must be applied. Without adequate regulation and policy, data collection risks replicating societal inequalities and posing real harm (Data2X, 2019[53]). What may or may not be ethical can depend on many factors, including who is doing the collection and how. In this regard, OECD's Good Practice Principles for Data Ethics in the Public Sector provide a set of 10 principles to support governments in upholding ethics in the collection, management and use of data (OECD, 2020[54]). Policymakers can consider factors such as the context and collection environment, whose interests are being served by collecting and using the data, and who runs the risk of being harmed.

148. Some respondent OECD countries also noted challenges relating to data interpretation. Ensuring that policymakers and users of gender data have the necessary skills to interpret and use complex data effectively is essential for informed decision-making. Improved gender data literacy with a focus on building capacity to use new technologies is important as data accuracy, reliability and representativeness are essential to producing robust gender analysis and avoiding any misinterpretation of findings. Methods for building gender data literacy and capacity are discussed further in Chapter 6.

Box 10. Example of a data management framework

Australian Workplace Gender Equality Agency's (WGEA) Data Management Framework

The WGEA developed a framework to support data management through the stages of planning, collecting, processing, analysing, publishing and archiving of data. For the purposes of the framework, data governance refers to "a system of decision rights and accountabilities for information-related processes, executed according to agreed-upon models which describe who can take what actions, with what information and when, under what circumstances, using what methods." (The Data Governance Institute, 2024[55]).

The framework articulates the key responsibilities of WGEA staff in defined roles as they relate to data management. It provides a structure for evolution of the data management and governance process. It does so by identifying three areas of expertise:

1. *Governance and authority*, which provide the strategic intent and business goals of the organisation as well as the boundaries of the Agency's work. This also defines and promotes the Agency's data management activities and provides supporting resources for these activities.
2. *People,* in their roles as data stewards, data custodians and data users are involved in the day-to-day acquisition, storage, management and dissemination of the Agency's data.
3. *Systems,* in the form of policies and procedures, security, software, hardware and applications that support effective data management.

Source: Australian Workplace Gender Equality Agency (2020), Data Governance Framework.

Integrating a gender lens into data privacy and confidentiality frameworks can facilitate greater data sharing

149. While appropriate data privacy frameworks are critical to public trust in government, the global challenge at this stage is to ensure the right balance between free data flows, sharing and data protection (OECD, 2019[41]) to support gender data use in policymaking.

150. While the benefits of data include gathering gender and intersectional data that are used ethically and responsibly, legal frameworks need to be set that recognise and create mechanisms to protect from potential harms such as technology-facilitated gender-based violence resulting from data breaches (OECD, 2021[14]). This can be achieved through the integration of a gender-sensitive lens into data privacy and confidentiality frameworks, including those that govern non-traditional datasets. This helps determine what is considered sensitive data and what level of protection is needed.

151. Some respondent OECD countries have adopted regulatory mechanisms to ensure adequate privacy and ethics protection in the use of new technologies. They have, for example, established privacy principles and privacy regulators, and enhanced capacity for the community to raise privacy concerns, and some frameworks include gender considerations (see Box 11).

Box 11. Examples of data privacy infrastructure

Privacy-related regulatory mechanisms would benefit from the systematic integration of a gender lens to ensure they are contributing to the ethical production of gender data while also protecting populations that have been disproportionately impacted by digital harms associated with privacy breaches.

Victorian Information Commissioner

In the Australian state of Victoria, the Office of the Victorian Information Commissioner has issued guidance to support public-sector agencies to meet their obligations to collect, analyse and publish gender and intersectional data under the Gender Equality Act (2020) (Vic) while also meeting their obligations under data privacy regulations and principles. The guidance covers how agencies can minimise risks associated with collecting, treating and publishing personal, sensitive and health information from gender-disaggregated and intersectional data sources.

Spanish Data Protection Agency

The Spanish Data Protection Agency (AEPD) enforces national personal data protection laws. Among its responsibilities, the AEPD builds community awareness of data privacy and provides advice and support to members of the public, including on questions relating to technology-facilitated gender violence and harassment.

Australian National Data Commissioner

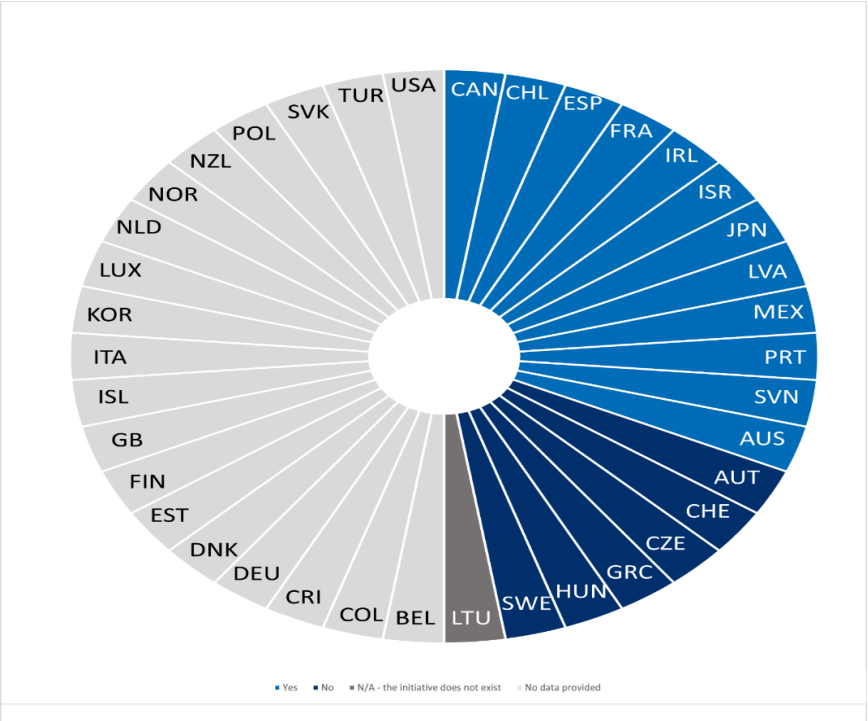
In Australia, the National Data Commissioner is responsible for overseeing the Data Availability and Transparency Act 2022 which establishes a new scheme for sharing Australian government data consistent with the Privacy Act 1988 and appropriate security safeguards. The National Data Commissioner provides education and training to support data sharing between federal and state bodies and universities. Australia also has a national regulator for privacy and freedom of information called the Office of the Australian Information Commissioner (OAIC). The OAIC publishes the Australian Privacy Principles (or APPs) which support the operationalisation of the privacy protection framework contained in the Privacy Act 1988.

Sources: Spanish Data Protection Agency (AEPD) (2024). https://www.aepd.es/areas-de-actuacion/recomendaciones/enlaces-interes Australian Government (2024). Data Commissioner. https://www.datacommissioner.gov.au/; Office of the Victorian Information Commissioner (OVIC) (2024). https://ovic.vic.gov.au/privacy/resources-for-organisations/gender-equality-act-2020-and-privacy/.

152. While this is promising, only 12 central gender equality institutions indicated that they have participated in the development of frameworks, legislation or strategies on data protection and privacy to support the production and use of gender data (Figure 16). Regular collaboration between national statistical offices, central gender equality institutions, other ministries as well as universities and researchers can ensure that data management frameworks, including those focusing on privacy protection, remain responsive to emerging gender-related challenges associated with the digital transition and the increased use of digital innovation by governments (see Chapter 6).

Figure 16. 12 OECD central gender equality institutions participated in the development of frameworks, legislation or strategies on data protection and privacy

Greater collaboration among central gender equality institutions, national statistical offices and other ministries can ensure a gender perspective is considered as part of the design and implementation of national data protection and privacy frameworks



Note: This chart depicts country responses to the question "*Please indicate whether your institution participates in any of the following initiatives with a view to improving the collection, availability, use, accessibility, co-ordination and reporting of gender data: Frameworks, legislation or strategies on data protection and privacy*". 19 countries responded to this question.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions (unpublished).

Chapter 6: Building strong co-ordination and collaboration mechanisms and enhancing capacities for gender data

153. Policymakers need skills and capabilities to integrate gender and intersectional data insights into their work. OECD projections suggest that over the next five years, the demand for skills related to computers, creative thinking, data analysis, and communication will grow the most of any required skill set (OECD, 2023[56]). At the same time, the production and use of relevant, high-quality gender data require a strong, interconnected and collaborative governance system. This requires countries to adopt open, iterative and collective data governance frameworks and tools that are grounded in meaningful stakeholder engagement (OECD, 2019[41]).

154. Mainstreaming gender into data governance systems requires regular collaboration with policymakers from all policy areas on their gender data needs and capabilities (PARIS21, 2024[43]). The agile and responsible regulation of new technologies that can enhance the use of gender data similarly requires a collaborative approach between regulators (OECD, 2024[16]). A joined-up approach can help identify existing requirements and gaps in institutional design for technology governance (OECD, 2024[16]).

155. Effective gender data governance also requires regular engagement and partnerships with actors outside of the public sector, spanning the private sector, international organisations and civil society. This includes service delivery providers, technology and communications industries, and women's organisations. Collaboration can also enable governments to take advantage of private-sector digital solutions to improve gender data infrastructure and capability, and promote gender and intersectional data sharing to address common policy challenges (PARIS21, 2020[42]) (OECD, 2021[57]) (OECD, 2019[41]).

156. A comprehensive approach to gender data governance takes advantage of existing collaboration mechanisms and shared tools that support the use and production of data (for example, open standards and algorithms) in and outside the public sector.

157. Yet, many countries are unaware of all the stakeholders who need to be involved in gender data governance. Furthermore, there needs to be the right enabling environment, with strategic planning, and appropriate legal and policy frameworks (see Chapter 5), capacity building and adequate resourcing.

158. This chapter focuses on three key ways to expand collection and use of gender-disaggregated data: stakeholder co-ordination, collaboration and capacity building. It begins by analysing how aware respondent OECD countries are of existing gender and intersectional data producers and users. It also highlights the need for greater gender equality in information and communication technologies (ICT) industries and adjacent fields to improve gender data governance. This chapter also analyses the co-ordination among technical and governmental actors in public, private, academia and civil society sectors, highlighting challenges and good practices. It concludes with analysis of the resourcing challenges and opportunities across the OECD.

Gender data stakeholder co-ordination across the OECD

Policy areas have many stakeholders that need to be involved in gender data work

159. Surveyed policy areas across OECD countries are increasingly aware of the broad range of gender data stakeholders[4] within their areas. In the environment policy area, several respondent countries reported an impressive variety of stakeholders (producers and users) involved in the production and use of gender and intersectional data in their policy area (see Table 5) with countries such as Colombia, Costa Rica, Mexico and Sweden having at least five identified gender data stakeholders.

160. Environment, trade and gender equality portfolio policy areas reported a diverse range of gender data stakeholders, the majority being public-sector or government agencies. Some countries reported few-to-no stakeholders outside of their own policy ministry, which suggests limited co-ordination or consultation mechanisms dedicated to gender data or line ministries may be excluded from existing gender data co-ordination or gender impact assessment efforts.

Table 5. Example of the large number of gender and intersectional data stakeholders (producers and users) in the environment policy area across four OECD countries

Including a wide variety of data users, policy areas and organisations in gender data governance is key to increasing their production and use across the policymaking cycle

Country	Data stakeholders
Colombia	Ministry of Environment and Sustainable Development Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development National Planning department National Administrative Department of Statistics National Land Agency
Costa Rica	National Institute of Statistics and Census (INEC) National Commission for Risk Prevention and Emergency Response (CNE) Emergency Operations Center (CNE) Institute of Aqueducts and Sewers (AyA) Meteorological Institute of Costa Rica (IMN) Costa Rican Institute of Electricity (ICE) Ministry of Health Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (MAG) FONAFIFO DIGECA National Women's Institute (INAMU) Ministry of Environment and Energy (MINAE)
Mexico	Environment Ministry National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI) National Institute of Women National Commission of Forestry (CONAFOR) National Agricultural Registry National Commission for the Prevention of Discrimination National Commission of Protected Natural Areas (CONANP) Federal Prosecutor for Environmental Protection National Centre for the Prevention of Disasters Secretariat of Environment and Natural Resources (SEMARNAT) National Commission of Water (CONAGUA) National Institute of Ecology and Climate Change (NECC) National Council of Population (CONAPO)
Sweden	National Food Agency

Country	Data stakeholders
	Public Health Agency Swedish agency for Marine and Water Management Swedish Environmental Protection Agency Statistics Sweden Swedish Board of Agriculture Swedish National Data Service (Swedish Agency for Marine and Water Management) Karolinska Institute Other research institutes, academia and evaluation experts

Note: Questionnaire responses were gathered between 23/01/2024 and 31/05/2024.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies (unpublished).

Collaboration on gender data is sometimes irregular and some policy areas are not involved in inter-ministerial co-ordination efforts

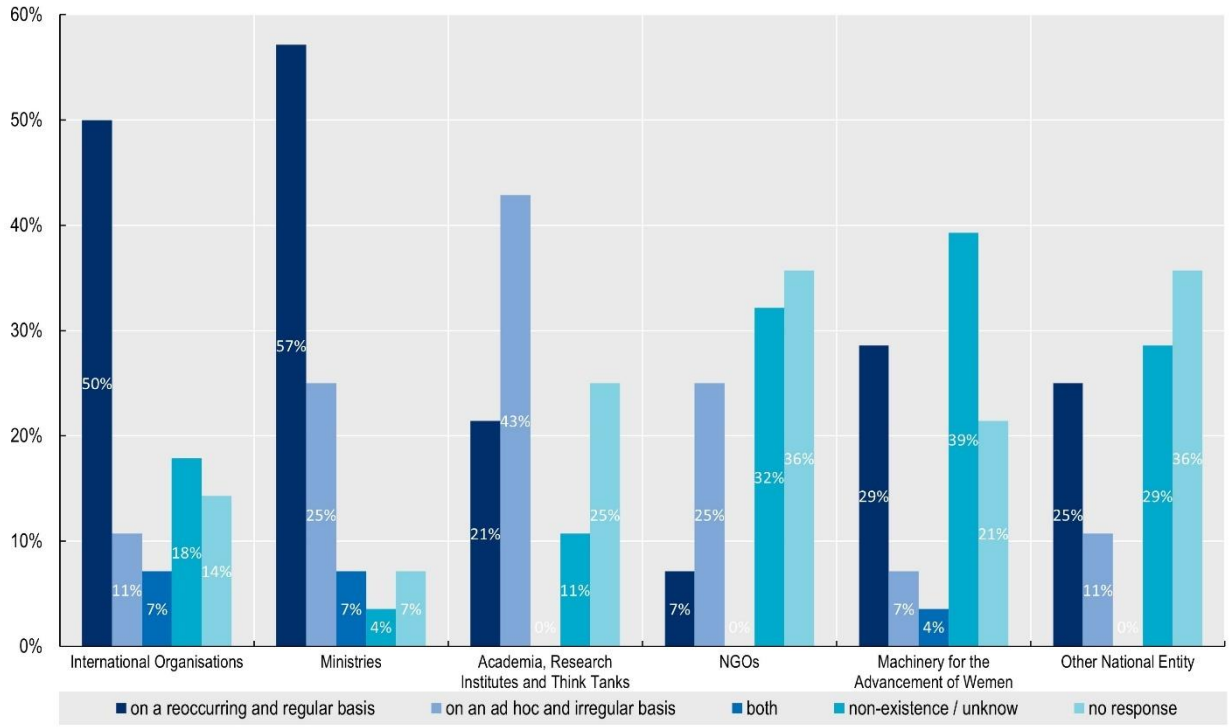
161. Consultation and collaboration with gender data stakeholders to identify their gender data needs, and technical and administrative barriers to their use is a critical aspect of good gender data governance. As data custodians, statistical officials are often best placed to resolve these barriers and challenges in partnership with central gender equality institutions who are able to provide technical and conceptual leadership. While this multi-actor process adds a layer of complexity to the production process, it can also facilitate peer-learning, promote the dissemination and use of gender data, improve prioritisation and deepen awareness of the gendered dimensions of statistical practice (Data2X, 2022[10]).

162. Presently, most respondent NSOs collaborate with at least one other national entity to produce gender data (see Figure 17). The most common partnerships are with relevant ministries (89%, 25 countries) and international organisations (68%, 19 countries) while collaborations with central gender equality institutions and other national entities are more unusual (39% and 36%, 11 and 10 countries, respectively). While engagements with relevant ministries and international organisations occur regularly (64%, 57%, 18 and 16 countries, respectively), engagements with central gender equality institutions and other national entities are less frequent (32% and 25%, 9 and 7 countries, respectively). Collaborations with academia, research institutes, and think tanks are also frequent (64%, 18 countries) but most often on an ad hoc basis (43%, 12 countries).

163. There is, therefore, a need to strengthen current engagements to ensure more regular collaboration, particularly with central gender equality institutions. Efforts could also focus on expanding collaboration to a wider set of stakeholders, including civil society, women's rights associations, other gender equality advocates and private-sector actors from the technology and telecommunications industries. Currently, fewer than a third of NSOs collaborate with non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (32%, 9 countries), mostly on an irregular basis (25%, 7 countries). However, engaging with the private sector to access and use privately held data, using confidentiality agreements and trust-building mechanisms, can support data sharing and the development of new gender data (OECD, 2022[58]).

Figure 17. Collaboration between the NSO and other entities for the production of gender data

% of OECD countries



Note: The chart shows responses from 28 OECD countries to the question: "*Does your NSO collaborate with other entities in the country for the production of gender statistics?*". In the chart legend, 'both' refers to 'on a recurring and regular basis' and 'on an ad hoc and irregular basis'.
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

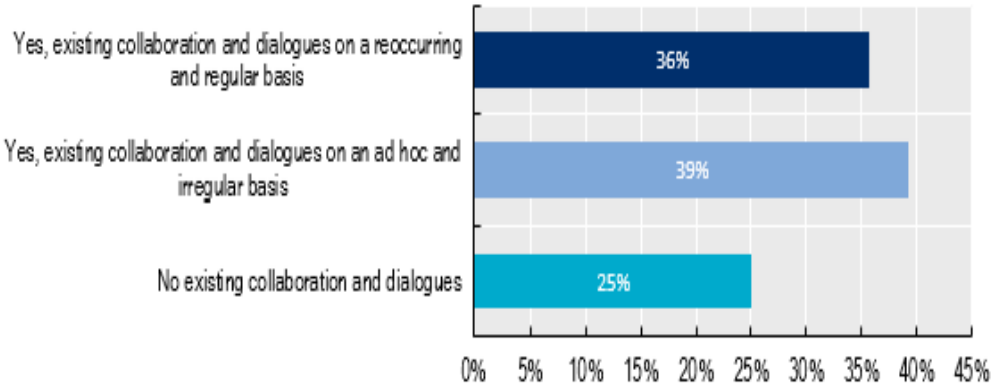
StatLink 2 https://stat.link/l3eyht

164. A continuous dialogue between producers and users of gender data illuminates users' informational needs and increases their awareness of available gender data (Data2X, 2019[53]) (PARIS21, 2020[42]). This clarifies demand. Many NSOs indicated that the demand for data in policy design and implementation (46%, 13 countries) and in research and analysis (36%, 10 countries) improves gender data.

165. Sustained dialogue and exchange between producers and users can formally take place in task forces, technical committees, and working groups. Over a third of NSOs consider that such formal co-ordination mechanisms improve gender data. However, while three in four NSOs reported having a formal co-ordination mechanism, only one-third (36%, 10 countries) reported collaboration and dialogues occurring regularly (Figure 18).

Figure 18. Collaboration and dialogue at the national level between users and producers of gender data

% of OECD countries



Note: The chart shows responses from 28 OECD countries to the question: "*Is there a task force, technical committee, or a similar working group at the national level for the collaboration and dialogues between users and producers of gender statistics to ensure data produced are fit for purpose and used?*".
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

Enhancing the role of central gender equality institutions in gender data co-ordination could improve gender data production and use

166. Most (21 out of 28) central gender equality institutions have been assigned a formal role in the collection and/or use of gender data across public administrations. However, as noted above, partnerships and engagements between central gender equality institutions and national statistics offices are uncommon. Effective co-ordination mechanisms require clear terms of reference and regular reporting to ensure accountability. While in some countries, central gender equality institutions share lead responsibility for ensuring high-quality gender data and facilitating co-ordination across government, they reported most often playing a consultation role, with the centre of government also playing a co-ordination role.

167. Central gender equality institutions would be well placed to take on more responsibility for ensuring gender data are relevant and useful for policy areas, where appropriate. This could be achieved through co-leading gender data co-ordination mechanisms, supporting needs assessments across line ministries and supporting the development of sector-specific methodological guidance on gender analysis and gender impact assessment.

National gender data co-ordination mechanisms such as inter-ministerial working groups are not widespread across OECD countries

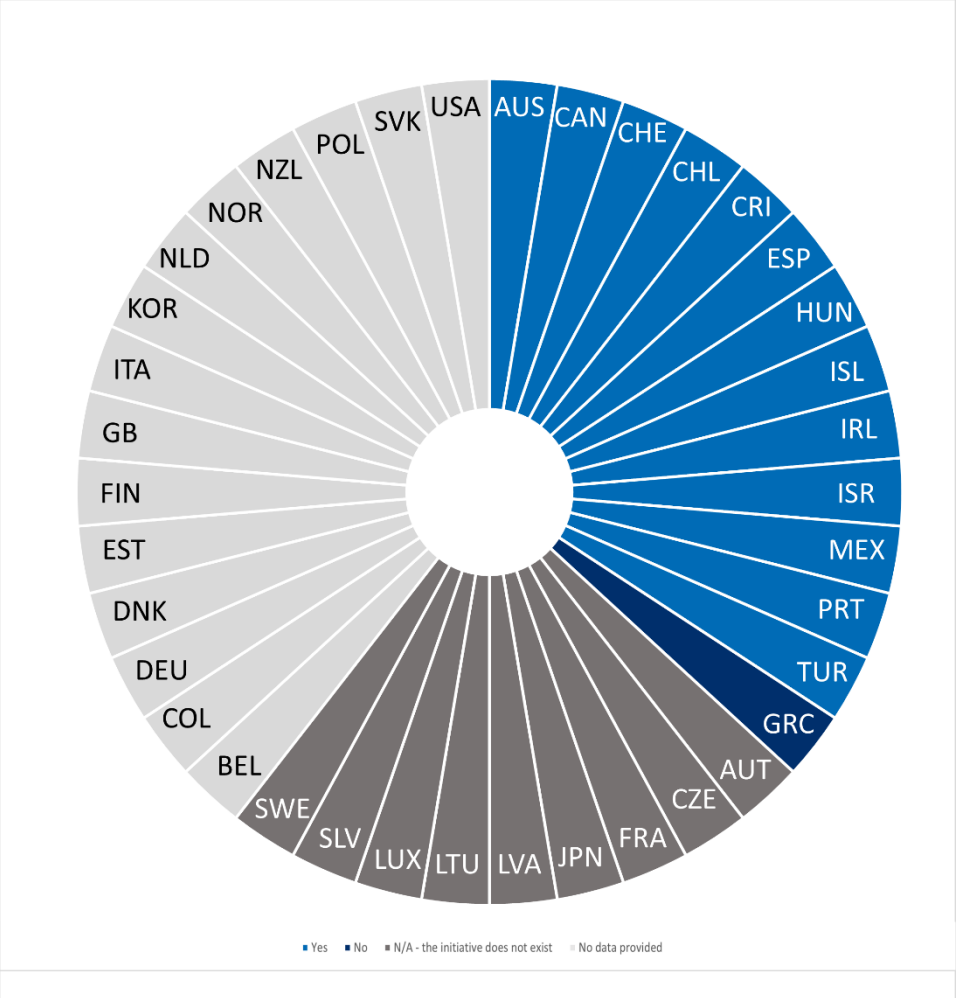
168. Across the policy areas surveyed, respondent countries recognised the importance of effective co-ordination mechanisms for high-quality gender and intersectional data, and considered the establishment of these mechanisms to be a priority. In particular, respondent countries noted that formal co-ordination mechanisms can support:

- inter-ministerial needs assessments, including establishing the nature of gender and intersectional data, regulation, policy and capacity gaps;
- the inclusion of gender and intersectional considerations as part of national digital strategies;
- increased linking of administrative datasets from across policy and service delivery agencies;
- capacity building across policy areas.

169. Gathering the perspectives of gender data users is critical to ensuring the data produced across policy areas are relevant to countries' policy priorities and support policy formulation on emerging issues. However, only 13 of 23 respondent central gender equality institutions reported having participated in inter-ministerial working groups on assessing gender data needs (Figure 19). Similarly, fewer than half (12) of central gender equality institutions reported having participated in inter-ministerial working groups on gender data sharing. Box 12 sets out examples of gender and intersectional data co-ordination mechanisms for assessing gender data needs, improving practice and/or sharing gender data from across the OECD.

Figure 19. 13 OECD central gender equality institutions participated in inter-ministerial working groups on assessing gender data needs

Understanding policymakers' gender data needs is central to improved production and use



Note: This chart depicts country responses to the question "*Please indicate whether your institution participates in any of the following initiatives with a view to improving the collection, availability, use, accessibility, co-ordination and reporting of gender data: Inter-ministerial working groups on assessing gender data needs*". 23 countries responded to this question.
Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions (unpublished).

Box 12. Leading practice gender and intersectional data co-ordination mechanisms for assessing gender data needs, improving practice and/or sharing gender data

Chile

In 2014, Chile established the Gender Statistics Subcommittee (SEG), which is co-ordinated by the National Statistics Institute (INE) and the Ministry of Women and Gender Equity (MMEG). Its objective is to co-ordinate, provide technical guidance, systematise, and promote the production and analysis of gender statistics. The SEG is permanent and seeks to contribute to a solid evidence base for the proper formulation of public policies for gender equality. The INE provides technical guidelines for the generation and development of gender indicators and participating ministries and services provide updated gender data and indicators.

Australia

In 2022, Australia established the Gender Data Steering Group, which is co-chaired by the Department of the Prime Minister and Cabinet (PM&C) and the Australian Bureau of Statistics and includes senior representatives from line agencies. The Steering Group drives collaboration across relevant government agencies on the collection, sharing and use of gender-disaggregated and intersectional data in order to maximise the impact of the government's major data holdings as an evidence base for gender equality policy. Through the Steering Group, PM&C manages a Gender Data Asset Register, which serves as a directory for government colleagues to see where gender data are located across the Australian government. The Gender Data Steering Group is developing a Gender Data Action Plan to identify concrete actions to strengthen the availability, awareness and analysis of gender-disaggregated data collected by government.

To achieve cross-government collaboration on data and digital transformation more broadly, Australia has also convened a Data and Digital Ministers Meeting consisting of all federal, state and territory, and New Zealand ministers responsible for data and/or digital technology.

Source: Australian Government (2024), Data and Digital Ministers Meeting. https://www.finance.gov.au/government/public-data/data-and-digital-ministers-meeting; OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions (unpublished).

Gender data governance requires inclusive and participatory consultation with stakeholders, including international organisations and civil society

170. International organisations and civil society have an important role to play in ensuring the quality and breadth of gender and intersectional data to enable adequate transparency and accountability of government actions.

171. In light of the sensitive nature of intersectional data, consultation with diverse communities and their representative organisations can improve definitional accuracy and increase participation in data collection exercises, promoting evidence-based and participatory decision-making.

172. Participation by representatives from national statistical agencies in regional and international fora and working groups on gender and equality data, such as the Subgroup on Equality data (European Commission), Task Force on Equality and Non-Discrimination Statistics (European Commission), or Praia Group Task Team on Non-Discrimination and Equality (UN), can help identify regulatory and gender data gaps. It can also support the development of harmonised statistical standards, which help monitor international gender equality commitments.

173. For example, several environment ministries indicated that their participation in international fora on gender data supported indicator and definitional harmonisation efforts at the regional and international levels, and shaped international standards on the integration of gender considerations into the development and use of new technologies such as AI (for an example of how Mexico is participating in gender indicator harmonisation efforts in environment policy, see Box 13).

Box 13. Example of international gender data and indicators harmonisation and monitoring efforts in the environmental policy area

Participating in international and regional fora can support countries to align their data collection with international standards to support global monitoring and improvement.

Mexico

Internationally, the National Commission of Water (CONAGUA) participates in UNESCO's World Water Assessment Programme (WWAP) through the Accelerating Gender Equality in Water initiative. This programme has evolved into the Multi-Stakeholder Coalition, which gathers various stakeholders to share information and actions on gender equality in water management. The coalition emphasises closing the gap between policy and implementation, prioritising gender-disaggregated data collection, combating harmful norms and stereotypes, and promoting women's leadership in water resource management. In support of this initiative, CONAGUA hosted a virtual event in 2024 to share its experiences in integrating gender perspectives into the Rules of Operation for its Federalized Programmes, such as the Drinking Water, Drainage and Treatment Programme (PROAGUA) and the Hydro-agricultural Infrastructure Support Programme.

Additionally, since 2019, the Mexican Institute for Water Technology (IMTA) has collaborated with the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights to develop Human Rights Indicators for Water and Sanitation (Chaves López, 2022[59]). This project involved various institutions, including the Ministry of the Interior, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, National Water Commission, National Institute of Statistics and Geography, National Institute of Ecology and Climate Change, National Autonomous University of Mexico, Oxfam, and Cántaro Azul. These indicators address gender equity in watershed councils, the recognition of human rights to water and sanitation in national laws for vulnerable populations and ensuring that land tenure rights enable enforceability for women (Chaves López, 2022[59]). These efforts reflect Mexico's comprehensive approach to integrating gender perspectives into environmental and water resource management at both national and international levels.

Source: Chaves Lopez (2022), *Indicadores de Derechos Humanos al Agua y al Saneamiento en México*, Instituto Mexicano de Tecnología del Agua, Indicadores de Derechos Humanos al Agua y al Saneamiento en México 2022 | Instituto Mexicano de Tecnología del Agua | Gobierno | gob.mx; OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies (unpublished).

Formalising public/private partnerships could support the deployment and governance of new technologies to enhance gender data

174. Formal public/private partnerships can address countries' concerns about challenges associated with using new technologies to enhance gender data collection and use. However, only four respondent central gender equality institutions (Iceland, Israel, Italy, Mexico) reported participating in public/private partnerships to support the collection, use and dissemination of gender data (see Box 14).

175. Establishing partnerships with subject-matter experts from public institutions, international organisations, academia and relevant private-sector bodies can promote dissemination and enhance

governments' technical capacity to govern and use new technologies, including by providing expert advice on the development of legal and methodological frameworks and gender-data strategies (Data 2X and Open Data Watch, 2022[47]) (PARIS21, 2020[42]).

176. Fostering collaborations with these actors at the policy problematisation, prioritisation and design stages can also support governments to manage shortfalls in capacity and ensure that gender data are innovative, relevant and in line with contemporary ethical and legal standards (Data2X, 2022[10]). Formalising these partnerships can also generate support sustainability across political election cycles (Data2X, 2022[10]).

Box 14. Example of public-private partnerships for gender data

Mexico

To support the Mexican System of National Accounts which enables analysis of economic activity, the National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI) has established important relationships with other data holders in the public sector, in particular the Bank of Mexico, the Ministry of Finance and Public Credit as well as other public and private entities. This has enabled the integration of data collection on unpaid household work into national accounting and has also supported the standardisation and presentation of data.

Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions (unpublished).

Supporting increased use of gender data across the OECD: Capacity building and dissemination

Efforts to mainstream gender across national statistical systems are not yet widespread

177. Centralising gender considerations as part of national statistical systems is a critical aspect of generating consistent, coherent and globally comparable gender statistics (UNSD, 2016[60]). As the main producers of gender data across countries, national statistical systems play a critical function in good gender data governance.

178. A core aspect of a national statistical system is data infrastructure, which enables the sound functioning of the data ecosystem (OECD, 2019[41]). Data infrastructure goes beyond the physical systems that store data to include data inventories, information about data quality, access, sharing and linkages with other data systems. Data infrastructure also includes the skilled workforce who technically analyse, translate, share, and apply data and information in the appropriate contexts (OECD, 2019[41]). Producing gender-sensitive evidence requires that all aspects of data infrastructure are designed and implemented with gender considerations in mind (UNSD, 2016[60]).

179. It is particularly important for the workforce responsible for designing, shaping and managing statistical infrastructure and policymakers across policy areas to receive training in gender data literacy (Data2X, 2019[53]) (Data2X, 2022[10]).

180. OECD countries have put in place dedicated gender data hubs and gender data audits (see Box 15). However, these practices are not yet widespread across OECD countries.

Box 15. Leading practice integration of gender considerations into national statistical systems

Canada

Canada has created a dedicated Centre for Gender, Diversity and Inclusion Statistics within Statistics Canada which addresses gaps in the availability of information by gender and other intersecting factors such as Indigeneity, geography and disability. The Centre manages the Gender, Diversity and Inclusion Statistics hub, a focal point for gender and intersectional data.

Statistics Canada also requires internal annual reporting wherein each statistical programme is required to detail their statistical programme's commitment to gender equality, institutional GBA Plus governance (see Box 2) and capacity. Each statistical programme reports a metric based on a set of key performance indicators. For example, numbers of training, outreach, consultations related to gender, diversity, and GBA Plus; number of GBA Plus-related statistical products (for example, catalogued products, such as data tables, research articles, studies, fact sheets, infographics, interactive dashboards, reference products, and minor and major releases), which are made available on Statistics Canada's website.

Ireland

In 2020, the Central Statistics Office of Ireland conducted a data audit of 107 data sources from 31 public bodies in co-operation with the Department of Public Expenditure and Reform. The audit aimed to ascertain the availability of public service data disaggregated by equality. In 2021, an additional focused equality data audit was conducted, covering all national data sources held by Tusla, Ireland's Child and Family Agency. This work was guided by the Equality Budgeting Expert Advisory Group representing key internal and external stakeholders and the audit findings were published alongside Ireland's 2021 Budget. The information is also published on the Central Statistics Office's webpage and will continue to be updated as new data is identified. In response to the data audit, the Central Statistics Office and the Department of Children, Equality, Disability, Integration and Youth are developing a National Equality Data Strategy (see Box 6).

Mexico

In 2022, the Mexican National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI) officially declared the National Time Use Survey to be Information of National Interest, which guarantees its continuity and mandatory use in the development and monitoring of public policies on the unpaid and paid work of citizens.

Additionally, in 2010, Mexico's INEGI established the Specialized Technical Committee on Information with a Gender Perspective (CTEIPG) to promote the incorporation of a gender perspective across the national statistics system, with the participation of INEGI units that serve as liaisons with the Specialized Technical Committees of the four National Information Subsystems. One of its specific responsibilities is to contribute to the development of technical standards, guidelines, methodologies, projects and processes that contribute to decision-making and the development of public policies for gender equality, among other relevant aspects of statistical work. Following this, Mexico developed guidelines to support the integration of a gender and intersectional perspective into the national statistics system. These were gazetted in 2015 and included in the regulations and technical manual of the National Statistical and Geographic Information System.

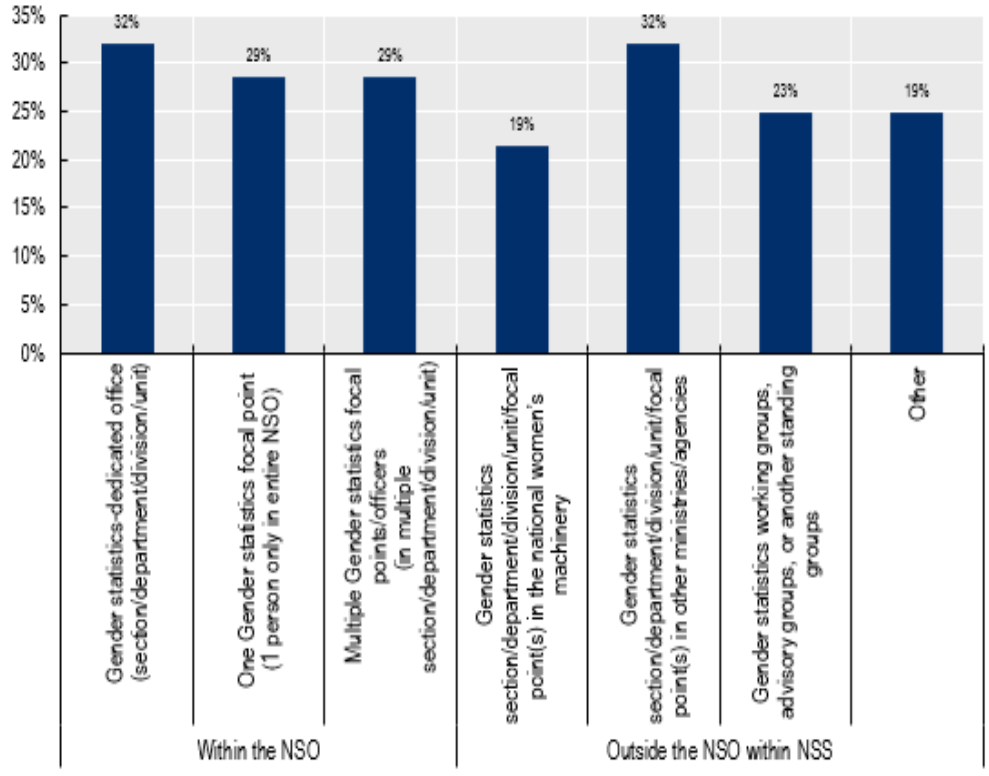
Source: Government of Ireland (2022), Minister O'Gorman announces the development of a National Equality Data Strategy https://www.gov.ie/en/press-release/5a7f4-minister-ogorman-announces-the-development-of-a-national-equality-data-strategy/
OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions (unpublished).

181. Gender statistics are integrated into national statistical systems in three main ways, suggesting that flexibility is needed to enhance gender-related data collection and analysis (Figure 20). In nearly a third of OECD countries (29%, 8 countries), a single gender focal point exists in the entire NSO while in another third of countries (32%, 9 countries) there is a dedicated office for gender data. That said, a single person or small unit cannot ensure that a gender perspective is integrated throughout the production, analysis, and dissemination of all data. Therefore, organisational support and co-operation by the entire NSO is crucial. In an alternative approach, 29% of countries (8 countries) adopted the establishment of multiple gender data focal points or officers distributed across various sections, departments, divisions and units of the NSO. This model may facilitate the mainstreaming of gender data across the national statistical system but requires close collaboration and co-ordination among the different actors.

182. As for other stakeholders within the national data ecosystem, gender focal points or dedicated structures (units, sections, divisions or departments) are available in one-quarter of central gender equality institutions and in one-third of relevant ministries and agencies (32%, 9 countries). For example, in the environmental policy area, a small number of OECD countries have established dedicated gender focal points (Box 16). This multi-focal model requires close collaboration among the different stakeholders in the national statistical system.

Figure 20. Gender statistics entity (gender focal point or technical unit) within the NSO and other institutions of the National Statistical System (NSS)

% of OECD countries



Note: The chart shows responses from 28 OECD countries to the question: "*Is there a gender statistics entity within the National Statistics Office (NSO) and/or any of the institutions of the national statistical system in your country?*".
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

StatLink 2 https://stat.link/owidlx

Box 16. Spotlight on leading practice gender focal points in the environmental policy area

Spain

To enhance mechanisms for the collection, availability, use and accessibility of gender data, each ministry of the Spanish government has its own Equality Unit as required by the Spanish Organic Law for Effective Equality of Women and Men (3/2007). This also forms part of Spain's Third Strategic Plan for Effective Equality between Women and Men (2022-2025), which includes measures aimed at improving the dissemination of gender indicators on ecological transition.

Mexico

In Mexico, the Presidency of the National Women's Institute (INMUJERES) and the Ministry of Public Administration have urgently called for the establishment of gender units within the federal public administration to mainstream a gender perspective and fulfil the National Programme for Equality between Women and Men (PROIGUALDAD 2020-2024). As a result of this initiative, a Gender and Liaison Unit was created at the National Forestry Commission (CONAFOR) and a Gender Directorate at the National Water Commission. These units are responsible for designing and producing activities to raise awareness of gender issues among public servants.

Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Environment Policies (unpublished).

Respondent OECD countries recognise that civil servants would benefit from dedicated gender data training

183. It is important to build technical capacity to analyse and apply the findings from relevant gender and intersectional indicators and data to policy design. Training that helps policy areas analyse and interpret gender data insights can also support civil servants to communicate key messages about the benefits of gender equality policies.

184. While more OECD countries are investing in building gender data skills, few countries prioritise this. As of 2024, nine central gender equality institutions reported having participated in training on gender data. This is an important gap – gender data training is an important means of complementing and operationalising methodological guidance to support consistent and accurate gender analysis across the OECD (see Chapter 6).

Some OECD countries are publishing gender data on online portals or dashboards to encourage increased use and dissemination

185. While requirements to collect and/or use gender data have had a positive impact on the collection of gender and intersectional data (see Chapter 3), these need to be paired with investments so that data can be readily accessed by policymakers and the public.

186. Statistical information is most useful if it is communicated in an accurate, relevant and accessible way. In addition to supporting evidence-based policymaking, publicly available gender data is critically important for transparency and accountability, and can support civil-society organisations and academia with their monitoring and research functions (McDougal et al., 2021[61]) (Data2X, 2022[10]). However, it is impossible to use data when it cannot be found, which is often the case with gender data. Not knowing what data exist, differences in who has permission to access what data, and insufficient documentation on the quality of the data available can all inhibit the use of gender data.

187. One commonly adopted measure to support the increased use of gender data in government decision-making is the development of online portals, dashboards and observatories (see Box 17). These tools allow for easy access to all gender statistics and data disaggregated by gender and intersectional factors. Three-quarters of NSOs (75%, 21 countries) reported producing gender statistics publications (see Figure 21) and most reported using online communication tools, such as web landing pages, data visualisation tools and data portals (61%, 61% and 64%; 17, 17 and 18 countries, respectively). However, these efforts could be improved to ensure all available gender data are accessible and interpreted by policymakers. This can support the production of better data – over one-third of NSOs indicated that dedicated communication tools and products drive improvement in gender data.

Box 17. Leading practice mechanisms for sharing and disseminating gender data

Chile

The Ministry of Women and Gender Equality is implementing a project for the creation of an Observatory of Equity and Gender. This observatory aims to be a platform that contains different indicators and statistics as well as studies and reports that involve knowledge and in-depth analysis of the reality of women and diversity in Chile, with an intersectional, intercultural, situated, territorial approach, among others.

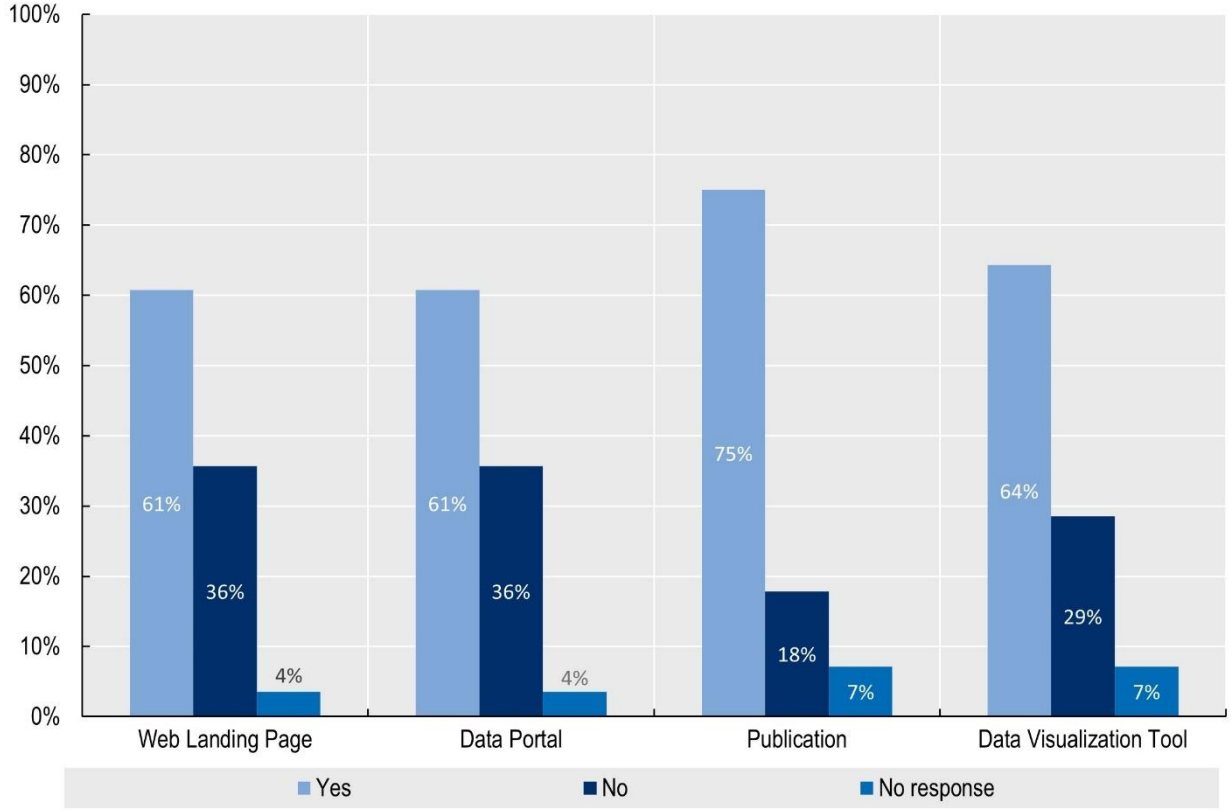
Mexico

Mexico has created dedicated spaces for information exchange to strengthen and standardise gender statistics. These efforts have given rise to events such as International Meetings on Gender Statistics (EIEG) and the International Meetings of Information Specialists on Time Use and Unpaid Work (RUT). These events, co-ordinated by the National Women's Institute (INMUJERES), INEGI, UN Women and the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, have significantly promoted international collaboration and the exchange of knowledge in the field of gender statistics.

Source: OECD (2024), Building government capacity for gender-sensitive data: Questionnaire for Policymakers in Central Gender Equality Institutions (unpublished).

Figure 21. Dissemination of gender statistics by National Statistics Offices (NSOs) across OECD countries

% of OECD countries



Note: The chart shows responses from 28 OECD countries to the question: "*Does the NSO have a dedicated web page(s), data portal(s), publication(s), or data visualisation tool(s) on gender statistics?*".
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

StatLink 2 https://stat.link/4dntx1

188. In addition to the dissemination tools adopted by NSOs, other entities across OECD countries have dedicated communication tools (web pages, data portals, publications and data visualisation tools) for gender statistics. This is the case for relevant ministries (57%, 16 countries), academia, research institutes and think tanks (50%, 14 countries), and other national entities (43%, 12 countries). These efforts – particularly by ministries – could be improved to support the integration of a gender lens across all policy areas. For example, a small number of countries are also increasing the availability of gender and intersectional statistics and data for policymakers through intra-government websites and data platforms displaying government-produced gender data (6 countries in 2024).

Gender data resourcing

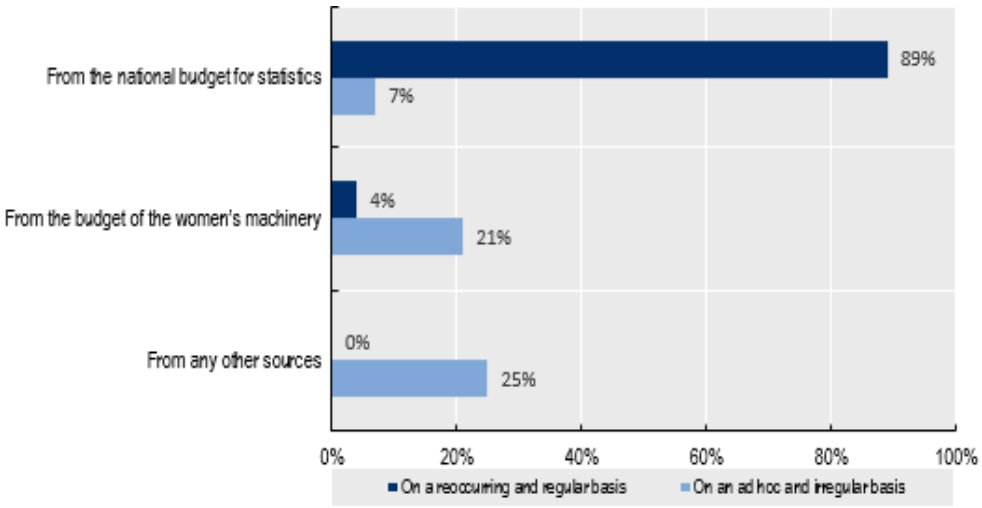
Adequate and ongoing funding and resourcing of gender data is critical for effective gender data production and use

189. Adequate funding is essential for building effective gender data infrastructure and making sure policymakers have the skills and knowledge to use it (Data2X, 2021[62]) (Data2X, 2022[10]). Central gender equality institutions reported that a top barrier to routinely producing, and using gender and intersectional data is the absence of dedicated human and financial resources (see Chapter 4). Limited resourcing to treat, handle and store gender data produced by new technologies was also identified as a significant barrier to their expanded use.

190. Government funding for gender data is among the most sustainable funding sources (Data2X, 2021[62]) (Data2X, 2022[10]). Virtually all NSOs in respondent OECD countries reported relying on the national budget for statistics to finance their gender-related activities (27 out of 28 countries) (Figure 22). To ensure sufficient financial resources for gender data, NSOs may seek to diversify their sources of funding though financing from alternative sources often lacks long-term commitment. For instance, central gender equality institutions and other funders (such as international organisations or NGOs) provide only ad hoc financing and only for approximately one-fifth to one-quarter of NSOs in respondent OECD countries (21% and 25%, 6 and 7 countries, respectively).

Figure 22. Main sources of funding for gender statistics

% of OECD countries



Note: The chart shows responses from 28 OECD countries to the question: "*How are gender statistics in the NSO mainly funded?*". In this figure, "women's machinery" refers to Central Gender Equality Institutions.
Source: OECD calculations based on country responses to the 2022 UN Global Survey on Gender Statistics.

StatLink 2 https://stat.link/32lmkw

191. Over the period 2012 to 2019, resource allocation (human and financial) for gender statistics remained unchanged in nearly two-thirds of analysed OECD countries (64%, 18 countries) and increased for nearly a fifth (21%, 6 countries). The COVID-19 crisis led to an increased demand for gender data in areas most affected by the pandemic, such as mortality (50%, 14 countries), labour force statistics (43%, 12 countries), unpaid work, care work and time-use statistics, poverty and income statistics (32% each, 9

countries), and violence against women (29%, 8 countries). Despite this, this surge in demand has not been matched by additional resource allocation in most cases, and may result in deprioritisation of gender data production.

192. Given the cross-cutting nature of the gender data ecosystem and the importance of improved gender data production and use across policy areas, implementing the recommendations contained in this report will require ongoing and dedicated resourcing and collaboration from across policy areas.

Annex A. Methodology

193. This report, including case studies and good practices, was informed by data collected through various methods including circulation of questionnaires, desktop research and stakeholder interviews. Data for this report were sourced from the four sectors analysed: environment; employment, labour market and social affairs; gender equality; and trade policy areas, combined with information from National Statistical Offices. Questionnaires were circulated to central gender equality institutions and policymakers in environment policy and trade policy areas across OECD countries in the first quarter of 2024. The questionnaires focused on the following aspects of gender and intersectional data: primary sources and methods for data collection; quality (availability, relevance, accessibility and coherency); use within the policy cycle or by adjacent entities or ministries, and governance arrangements, with a focus on the challenges, priorities and opportunities in each of the specific policy areas, and across government broadly.

194. Results for National Statistical Offices (NSOs) were taken from the UN Global Review of Gender Statistics administered by the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD), in collaboration with the UN Regional Commissions and the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS) in 2022. The questionnaire included 17 questions covering aspects related to organisational settings and funding, legal and policy frameworks, available data sources, collaboration and communication, the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic as well as current opportunities and challenges in gender data. The questionnaire was completed by NSOs of surveyed countries, although they also consulted with other entities within the country's National Statistical System (NSS), central gender equality institutions, line ministries, and any other relevant offices or agencies involved in the production, analysis, and use of gender data at the national level. Results from a total of 107 countries were collected on the global level (for further information, see (UNSD, 2024[63])). For the purposes of this book, aggregate results from 28 OECD countries are shown to comply with the UN dissemination policy. Results for labour, employment and social affairs policy areas were based on existing questionnaire data and desktop research.

195. There are several noteworthy limitations to this report. It should be noted that response rates were relatively low and not all countries provided responses to all questions within each of the questionnaires administered by the OECD. In particular, several countries provided answers only to the general questions on gender mainstreaming policies and practices and/or some sectorial questions, noting that they were not in a position to provide full responses by the deadline. Some responses were complemented with additional information collected by the Secretariat through a bilateral follow-up with individual countries. Further, as shown in Table 6, in some cases, different countries responded to the questionnaires across environment, central gender equality institutions and trade policy areas, which is a notable limitation.

196. Table A A.1 outlines the data collection strategy across policy areas. In parallel, this work also drew on data and information previously collected by the OECD, notably during the Symposium on Strengthening Government Capacities for Gender-Sensitive Data and Evidence organised in 2022, as well as past questionnaires sent by the OECD to monitor the 2013 and 2015 OECD Gender Recommendations.

Table A A.1. Stakeholder consultation and evidence gathering

Stakeholders	Main data collection method	Respondent OECD countries
Policymakers in trade policy	New questionnaire circulated to the OECD Working Party of the Trade Committee in 2024	Colombia, Finland, Hungary, New Zealand, Portugal, Spain, United Kingdom
Policymakers in environment policy	New questionnaire circulated to the OECD Environment Policy Committee in 2024	Colombia, Costa Rica, Estonia, Germany, Luxembourg, Mexico, Norway, the Slovak Republic, Spain, and Sweden
Policymakers in labour, employment and social affairs	Using existing data sources from the OECD Employment, Labour and Social Affairs Committee	N/A
Central gender equality institutions	New questionnaire circulated to the Working Party on Gender Mainstreaming and Governance in 2024	Australia, Austria, Canada, Chile, Costa Rica, Czechia, Denmark, France, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Türkiye
National Statistics Offices	Country responses from the UN Global Review of Gender Statistics, conducted in 2022	Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Israel, Japan, Korea, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico, Norway, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, Türkiye, United Kingdom.

Annex B. What is Big Data?

197. Big Data refers to massive datasets that are too large or complex to be dealt with through traditional data processes, often collected by the private sector and generated at a high pace (Kitchen and McArdle, 2016[64]). As access to the Internet and smartphones increases, so does the ability to deploy rapid data collections.

198. However, social media is not the only source of Big Data. It can be generated from multiple sources such as financial transaction data, web traffic, and other passive digital sources. It includes data generated by individuals, including social media data or app usage, data generated through business processes (such as supply chain information and corporate administrative data), and sensor data (such as satellite images or weather data).

199. Big Data can be generated through multiple sources and methods, including social media data, data mining, crowdsourcing, and data linkage. This section highlights a few of the promising examples of these new opportunities as well some considerations for limitations.

200. Social Media Data: As access to the Internet and smartphones increases, so does the ability to deploy rapid data collections. One way this can be especially helpful is in disaster recovery efforts, where a rapidly deployed survey through social media can collect information on location and needs of people who may require aid or rescue. This can have a tremendous impact on ensuring that relief efforts accurately account for the needs of women, who are more likely to have caretaking responsibilities as well as irregular travel patterns.

201. Data Mining: Data mining refers to the process of analysing large datasets to find patterns and correlations to predict outcomes. Data mining can be especially helpful when seeking to identify trends that are the result of potential bias or discrimination. For example, if a policymaker suspected that there was discrimination in a housing market, data mining could provide a technique for analysing mortgage, lease and eviction datasets – provided they were of sufficient quality5. However, the results and predictions made on the basis of data mining must be carefully vetted for fitness of use, especially considering the historic and systemic gaps in gender representation in data.

202. Data mining can also be a cost-efficient way to learn about attitudes and social norms around women, women's education, or other sensitive topics that could uncover challenges in gender equity. Conducting analysis on social media posts, reactions to posts, and interactions with content, researchers can understand user attitudes about important topics. Such an analysis was done by researchers at Cadi Ayyad University on quantifying prevalent attitudes regarding violence against women, by mining YouTube data (Data2X, 2019[53]).

203. Crowdsourcing: Crowdsourcing involves obtaining data from a large group of people, submitted via the Internet. It is an important tool in gender equity when data relevant to women is not being collected by institutional actors. Crowdsourcing has become especially common when it comes to documenting gender-based violence. An example is HarassMap in Egypt, which maps reports of street harassment. Such data can be extremely valuable to women and policymakers, though like any dataset, its limitations should be noted. The collection is voluntary, so in addition to the self-selection bias, the data may not be geographically comprehensive.

204. *Data Triangulation*: Data triangulation, sometimes referred to as cross-examination, occurs when researchers use two or more methods for the verification of their findings. The idea of this approach is that multiple sources can help validate and contextualise results. This type of validation, made more financially feasible through abundance of alternative datasets, is especially promising for the creation of gender-sensitive evidence since, as previously covered, gender data may have gaps in coverage, complexity,and granularity, making it difficult to fully understand gender-based impacts through a single data source.

205. Data Linkage: Data linkage, or record linkage, integrates information from two or more independent sources. This is vital to many evidence-building projects and is at the core of the Only Once Principle (OOP) which was launched in the European Union in late 20236.

206. Data linkage has the potential to reduce respondent burden significantly and provide new ways of gaining insight into gendered experiences. For instance, if gender was not captured through a given exercise of data collection, there could be a way to link those records to another source that does. However, this does introduce the possibility of linkage errors, especially where administrative datasets cannot be appropriately linked together. In order to maximise the benefits of data linkage techniques and reduce possible errors it is essential to have clear data governance rules that allow the interoperability of datasets.

207. Privacy enhancing technologies to improve data access: Open data offers the promise of increasing analytical insights. Relative to non-gender data, gender data is reportedly less open, often because of the lack of machine-readability or historical data (Data 2X and Open Data Watch, 2022[47]). As new privacy-enhancing and -preserving technologies become more viable, opening access to gender data becomes increasingly possible.

Glossary

Administrative records: Official documents and records that are generated and maintained by government agencies, institutions, or organisations as part of their routine administrative and operational activities (ILO, 2024[65]).

Big data: For more information, refer to Annex B.

Centre of Government: The centre of government (CoG) can be defined as the highest-level support structure of the executive branch of government that generally supports the activities of the head of government. Across the OECD membership, CoG performs key co-ordination functions, primarily for cabinet meeting preparations, policy co-ordination and strategic management. In a broader sense, CoG extends beyond the bodies reporting directly to the head of government to also include bodies or agencies such as ministries of finance or planning that also often perform cross-cutting government functions at the national or central level (OECD, 2015[66]).

Central Gender Equality Institution: Central gender equality institutions usually have dual functions. Firstly, they hold policy responsibility for gender equality policy, including gender balance in leadership and inclusion, and some are also responsible for policy on gender-based violence. Secondly, they promote gender equality and help implement gender equality and mainstreaming programmes across government. They help ensure that the public sector fosters gender equality and mainstreaming across government policy and within society as a whole. They can be a separate ministry, paired with other portfolios within a single ministry, or located within the office of the head of government or state. Sometimes, gender equality councils or commissions function as autonomous bodies with an independent status or in consultation with the government (OECD, 2023[35]).

This report focuses on the role of central gender equality institutions as policymakers but also includes insights from their work across portfolios.

Gender data/evidence: Gender data/evidence is an umbrella term commonly used to describe any or all of the following a) Data that are collected and presented by gender as a primary and overall classification; b) Data that present gender-related needs, interests or concerns; c) Data that are based on concepts and definitions that adequately reflect the diversity of women and men, and capture all aspects of their lives; d) Data collection methods that take into account harmful gender stereotypes and/or consider the social and cultural factors that may introduce gender bias into data (Data2X, 2024[67]).

Gender data accessibility: Refers to the ease of obtaining available gender-disaggregated data in a specific policy area. It implies that such data are openly accessible and not restricted, allowing various stakeholders, including policymakers, researchers, advocacy groups and the public, to readily obtain and use this information for informed decision-making, analysis and advocacy.

Gender data availability: Data availability refers to whether gender-disaggregated data exist in a specific policy area and whether relevant authorities, organisations, or researchers have collected and published gender-disaggregated data that differentiate the impact, participation, or outcomes of policies in a specific policy area based on gender.

Gender data coherency: Refers to the consistency, compatibility, and harmonisation of gender-disaggregated data in a specific policy area across various sources, time periods and dimensions. It indicates that the data are structured and organised in a way that allows for meaningful analysis and comparisons.

Gender data interoperability: Interoperability in gender-disaggregated data refers to the seamless integration of information from diverse sources. It ensures that data on gender differences, collected by various entities using different formats, can be harmonised and analysed coherently. This harmonisation facilitates informed decision-making and policy development by providing a comprehensive understanding of gender-related patterns and disparities.

Gender data gaps: In the context of this report, gender data gaps refer to the broad set of challenges relating to gender statistics, including missing indicators, data quality and availability, and the gaps between policy demand for gender statistics, statistical production and the use of gender data in policymaking.

Gender data relevance: Refers to whether the existing gender-disaggregated data are able to answer relevant policy questions in a given policy area.

Intersectional data: Intersectional data refer to gender data that are also disaggregated by other factors (related to, for example, regionality, age, maternity, education, disability, sexuality).

Intersectionality is a framework that can help policymakers understand how different identity factors intersect and can impact how individuals experience government initiatives. For instance, the obstacles faced by women with disabilities in entering the job market differ from those encountered by women more generally. Intersectional data refer to multi-level disaggregated data capturing compounding socio-demographic variables, in addition to gender (Data2X, 2024[68]).

Population survey: A research method used to collect data and information about a specific population or group of people. These surveys are designed to gather insights into the characteristics, behaviours, opinions, and other relevant aspects of the individuals within that population. They are typically conducted using a sample of individuals from the broader population, as it is often impractical to survey every member of a population.

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Notes

[1] The OECD publishes a database of gender-disaggregated patent indicators (Patents – Technology Development) relating to green technologies, which provides information on one aspect of the role of women in green innovation (OECD, 2020[71]). Other gender-differentiated and intersectional data on environment includes mortality from air pollution (OECD, 2024[72]).
[2] This includes stand-alone gender data strategies as well as gender data strategies that have been integrated into national statistics strategies. For further information on what a national gender data strategy may look like, refer to Box 7.
[3] Analysis was derived from central gender equality institutions' responses to the following two questions: 1. What types of alternative data sources and data collection methods would support the increased availability and use of gender data by policymakers in your institution and by gender data users in other parts of government? What are the opportunities and associated risks? And 2. Please outline any current initiatives aimed at expanding alternative data sources and data collection methods for improved availability and use of gender data. Please also include any pilot or planned initiatives that your institution is planning to implement.
[4] Data stakeholders for the purposes of this work are considered those individuals and organisations involved in the collection, analysis, use, improvement, storage and dissemination of gender and intersectional data across government. Given the cross-cutting nature of gender equality, most line ministries can be considered stakeholders in the production and use of gender data. In addition to decision-makers who use gender data to inform their work. Data stakeholders can also include individuals who provide their information and organisations or services that collect information from citizens.
[5] Data must be evaluated for accuracy, completeness, reliability and relevance to see if it is suitable for the type of analysis or research conducted.
[6] From 2023, the Once-Only Principle will allow public administrations in Europe to reuse or share data and documents that people have already supplied in a transparent and secure way.