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Family-oriented Priorities, Policies and Programmes in the Implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development as Reported in the Voluntary National Reviews of 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2019

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Executive summary

The 2030 Development Agenda sets out a universal plan of action to achieve sustainable development in a balanced manner and seeks to realize the human rights and well-being of all people. It calls for leaving no one behind and for ensuring that the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are met for all segments of society, at all ages, with a particular focus on the most vulnerable, including children, women, older persons and persons with disabilities, as well as vulnerable families.

In terms of family policy, the most relevant SDGs and Targets are SDG 1 (end poverty, targets 1.3 and 1.4), SDG 2 (end hunger and ensure food security, targets 2.1 and 2.2), SDG 3 (good health and well-being for all, targets 3.1, 3.2 and 3.7), SDG 4 (quality and inclusive education, targets 4.1 and 4.2), SDG 5 (gender equality, targets 5.3 and 5.4), SDG 11 (inclusive, safe and sustainable cities and communities, targets 11.3 and 11.7) and SDG 16 (peace, justice and strong institutions, targets 16.2, 16.3 and 16.9) These inter-related goals and targets depend on appropriate family policies for their achievement.

The Voluntary National Reviews (VNRs) are a central element of the follow-up and review mechanisms of the 2030 Agenda as set out in the 2015 Declaration. The framework is built around voluntary, participatory, country-led processes that track progress on the SDGs, with a focus on people furthest behind, including vulnerable individuals and families.

This report presents an analytical overview of the main trends in the 127 VNRs presented in 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2019 by 114 countries that submitted them in English and/or Spanish, (13 made it twice). It is based on the information provided about policies and priorities that contribute to families' well-being. A family impact lens and a comprehensive family perspective constitutes the analytical framework under which VNRs are reviewed to identify family-oriented policies that are part of SDG social policies and strategies.

Close to 90 per cent of countries' VNRs feature references to families in various ways. However, most references to families concentrate on them primarily as units of diagnosis or as targets, in the context of concerns and measurements over:

i) the proportions of poverty and hunger among vulnerable groups;
ii) reproductive health issues, such as satisfaction of family planning needs and adolescent pregnancy;
iii) different forms of gender and age-based violence (e. g., girl child and early marriage, female genital mutilation, violence against children and women;
and iv) concerns about gender inequalities in care and domestic work.

Although those concerns necessitate actions, family-oriented policies are lacking or lag in many national policies and SDG strategies. Only relatively few countries report on specific family policies as part of their development strategies, and a few countries embrace a holistic family view and family impact lens perspective to address families' needs as well.

It is crucial to ensure progress towards SDGs, to include families (from a holistic and impact lens perspective) in the design, implementation and monitoring process of SDGs. Families have been included in some countries to perform different roles: in consultation processes and feeding up policy-making, as engaged stakeholders in providing services, and as administrative means to implement programmes.

Regarding data collection and statistical indicators, much more needs to be done, as data for many target indicators are lacking, and disaggregated information by sex, age and other criteria is still a challenge for many countries. This is critical for identifying the needs, the challenges and their importance accurately, and for informing policy-making regarding families and SDG challenges. As families are affected by all SDGs, they may be powerful instruments for policy-making. Evidence of family SDG related targets could nurture a comprehensive understanding of its potential as a vehicle for achieving SDGs and improve families' well-being as well. The integrative nature of the 2030 Agenda calls for multisectoral and comprehensive actions and recognition of spill-overs and mutual effects between SDGs. Many VNR of countries show a trend towards assuming such approaches, but still a low proportion of them have undertaken a holistic and family lens approach to combat poverty, hunger, healthcare and education challenges, gender inequality and violence against children and women.

Introduction

The 2030 Agenda sets out a universal plan of action to achieve sustainable development in a balanced manner and seeks to realize the human rights and well-being of all people. It calls for leaving no one behind and for ensuring that the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are met for all segments of society, at all ages, including the most vulnerable – children, women, aged and persons with disabilities, and families in poverty. In terms of family policy in the context of the 2030 Developm6ent Agenda, the most relevant SDGs and Targets related to families and family policies are:

- **SDG 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere**

    o Target 1.3 Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable

    o Target 1.4 By 2010, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance.

- **SDG 2: Zero hunger**

- Target 2.1 By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round
- Target 2.2 By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons

- **SDG 3: Good health and wellbeing for all at all ages**

  - Target 3.1 By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 1000,000 live births

  - Target 3.2 By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least low as 25 per 1,000 live births

  - Target 3.7 By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes

- **SDG 4: Inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning opportunities for all**

  - Targets 4.1 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes

  - Target 4.2 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education

- **SDG 5: Gender equality and empowerment of all women and girls**

  - Targets 5.3 Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation

  - Target 5.4 Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate

- **SDG 11: Inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable cities and communities**

  - Target 11.3 By 2030, enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity por participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries

- Target 11.7 By 2030, provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities

- **SDG 16: Peace, justice and strong institutions**

  - Target 16.2 End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children (indicator: proportion of children aged 1-17 years who experienced any physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month)

  - Target 16.3 By 2030, promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all (indicators: proportion of victims of violence in the last 12 months; unsentenced detainees as a proportion of overall prison population)

  - Target 16.9 By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration

These inter-related goals and targets depend on appropriate family-oriented policies for their achievement. The Voluntary National Reviews (VNRs) is a central element of the follow-up and review mechanisms of the 2030 Agenda as set out in the 2015 Declaration. The framework is arranged around voluntary, participatory, country-led processes that track progress on the SDGs, with a focus on people furthest behind – including vulnerable individuals and families.

This Report presents an analytical overview of the main trends in the 127 VNRs presented in 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2019 by 114 countries that submitted them in English and/or Spanish, (13 made it twice[1], and 21 VNRs of 16 Member States were in Spanish[2]). It is based on the information provided about reported policies and priorities that contribute to families' well-being.

Leaving no one behind implies a complex framework of policies that relies on a significant group of institutions (at the supra-national, national and sub-national levels) and on a repertoire of stakeholders that address a wide spectrum of phenomena and challenges. Among them, families play a fundamental role. On the one hand, the importance of families lies in the fact that they constitute a connection between groups of individuals organized under different arrangements, localized in the micro-social level, with institutions at the macro-level in charge primarily of the design of policies. In other terms, the family is or could be a coordinative structure between governmental decisions and individuals organized in it. Within a certain sphere of action and of policy-making, none of them may be properly implemented without such coordination between micro and macrostructures.

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[1] Colombia (2016 and 2018), Egypt (2016 and 2018), Mexico (2016 and (2018), Philippines (2016 and 2019), Sierra Leone (2016 and 2019), Switzerland (2016 and 2018), Turkey (2016 and 2019), Azerbaijan (2017 and 2019), Chile (2017 and 2019), Indonesia ((2017 and 2019), Qatar (2017 and 2018), Togo (2017 and 2018) and Uruguay (2017 and 2018)

[2] Argentina (2016), Chile (2017, 2019), Colombia (2016, 2018), Costa Rica (2017), Dominican Republic (2018), Ecuador (2018), El Salvador (2017), Guatemala (2017, 2019), Honduras (2017), Mexico (2016, 2018), Panama (2017), Paraguay (2018), Peru (2017), Spain (2018), Uruguay (2017, 2018), Venezuela (2016)

Despite its importance, the role that the family plays in social policies is not always visible, including the areas important for the achievement of the SDGs. In part, this lack of visibility is precisely a result of the multiple roles that the family may play and intends to accomplish, as well as of the definitions of family policy. In general, explicit family policies may be distinguished from those defined as implicit family policies. Explicit family policies aim to protect, promote, and strengthen families. They focus attention on "the five explicit functions families perform: a) family formation, b) partner relationships, c) economic support, d) childrearing, and e) caregiving" (Bogenschneider, 2014:43). On the other hand, to address the visibility challenge, scholarship has built the family impact lens approach (Ooms, 1990; Bogenschneider, Little Ooms, Benning, Cadigan & Corbett, 2012; Bogenschneider, 2014; Strach, 2007). This approach serves to identify the main forms through which the family may be observed regarding social policies. Three forms have been identified by Bogenschneider (2014):

1. Implicit or with an indirect effect: when certain policies have an effect on the family without being its object, such as social security policies (e.g., health, education, pensions and public transport). Even though the family is not the direct object of the policy, it constitutes or should constitute an indirect reference object, both because it is affected by it and because such impact may have, in turn, an effect on such policy.

2. As an instrument of policy: when it is used to achieve the ends of policy (e. g., poverty, hunger, health, gender equality).

3. The family as an administrative actor: when families act as administrators of public policy by distributing benefits to members, or supervise different activities and demands, such as children's access to specific services or ensuring that children have healthcare check-ups. It plays this role also when it makes saving for retirement when applying for tax credits, among others. This administrative role is significant as it either reduces the costs of policies targeting families or not. Indeed, it has been claimed that families act as "shadow bureaucrats" (Bogenschneider, 2014). Along with this role, the family is a sphere of targeted benefits and beneficiaries, their members' adscription to it or the family status may determine the access to specific policies (e.g. student scholarships, single mothers with young children, low-income families).

Besides these three functions or roles played by the family, another one may be added that is crucial to the adequate performance of certain policies. The family may act as an interlocution or "co-designer" agent, as it does in certain policies aimed, for example, at reducing poverty, or in urban development policies.

This framework of policies, and the "impact lens approach" become complex because it allows for various combinations. A family may simultaneously accomplish administrative and interlocution roles or be the direct object of policy. While it is important to have in mind this framework, it must be highlighted that in the VNRs these distinctions are not made overtly, particularly those regarding implicit family policies. However, it should be emphasised that these overall policies are present in the design, implementation and policy reporting in the VNRs. Further efforts could lead us to differentiate them with more detail in order to broaden the areas of intervention, of assessment and of innovation regarding the development of SDGs. This report has been elaborated using this framework for the analysis.

SDG 1 End Poverty in All its Forms Everywhere

Ending poverty is the main goal of the 2030 Agenda, and its achievement will be crucial to make progress on all other SDGs. Family-oriented policies and programmes are important tools to achieve this goal. Family-oriented targets under SDG 1 that are of relevance here are: i) target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors to achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable by 2030; ii) target 1.4: Ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance.

Social protection systems

All 114 countries reviewed present different strategies, policies and programs aimed at combating poverty or offer some general remarks about it. However, not all of them present detailed information about their social protection systems and their connection to their social security systems. In the process of reviewing the 127 VNRs (13 countries reported twice), two interrelated trends could be observed when social protection and social security are considered:

i)   the first one refers to the level of integration of both the social protection system and the security system in a more comprehensive welfare system;

ii) the second regards a process of transition

It could be noticed that several countries are experiencing a transition from the former mainstream development approach based on economic growth and per capita income to a multidimensional perspective on sustainable development which affects how social protection and social security are organized and would be provided to promote the well-being of persons, families and societies. The first approach often led to the situation where social protection and social security were provided and conceived in a separate manner, which often resulted in the overlapping of programmes and beneficiaries, poor coordination among programmes and services, among other problems. Also, the emphasis on economic growth and per capita income disregarded social distribution of wealth which resulted, in the long term, in increasing levels of inequality, as has been recognized by several countries.

The second perspective assumes that poverty is the result of the effects of multiple factors and, therefore, social policy design and implementation must be multi-sectoral, comprehensive and include more and different criteria in order to promote not only economic welfare but also

social inclusion and subjective wellbeing. In the multidimensional understanding of sustainable development, one bedrock goal is the dignity of all individuals.

Family-oriented policies and programs in the context of SDG 1 are presented in the VNRs within this framework. The presentation of the results of this review is structured, considering three scenarios that reveal the situation of different countries within this framework. It is important to point out that this classification was built according to the information reported by countries, and therefore must be considered as general and provisional. The purpose of this classification is not to give a precise, clear-cut and exhaustive view but to create a framework of the transition that seems to be taking place among the countries. The classification also intends to underline the potential the family has as an asset when their policies and programs are within a more comprehensive framework.

The scenarios considered are:

i)   Scenario 1: countries report a sound, well-developed welfare system with universal or quasi-universal services delivered and a social protection system that includes most vulnerable groups; additionally, the provision of services and programmes incorporate a multidimensional and comprehensive approach, including family policies;

ii)   Scenario 2: a transition to a multidimensional approach of development can be observed; it is explicitly recognized and considered when measuring poverty, and it is included in the design, implementation and monitoring of programmes; there are efforts to develop a more extended social protection system and to integrate it into a broader social security and welfare system, but the anchoring in the traditional approach still persists; countries report family programmes as a means to tackle poverty;

iii)   Scenario 3: the multidimensional approach is less explicit but has achievements and strengths in the social security and protection systems which tend to follow a separate pattern, and no family programmes are reported. Some countries have developed programmes and services with more coverage to strengthen the provision of welfare, but in others, this process is more challenging.

Most countries have developed a national multidimensional poverty measure, which is orienting the design and implementation of policies. Several of them are undergoing reforms of their social security and social protection systems to improve coordination among programmes and sectors, providing support and services and eliminating inefficiencies in targeting beneficiaries.

In most of the countries reviewed, poverty has been concentrated in the following vulnerable groups: female-headed families with children, children, women, older persons, persons with disabilities and unemployed people, homeless, migrants and ethnic minorities. Poverty is also more prevalent in rural areas or in isolated regions.

Scenario 1

France (2016), Finland (2016), Germany (2016), Norway (2016), Switzerland (2016, 2018), Belgium (2017), Czech Republic (2017), Denmark (2017), Japan (2017), Netherlands (2017),

Sweden (2017), Australia (2018), Canada (2018), Ireland (2018), United Arab Emirates (2018), Iceland (2019), Liechtenstein (2019), New Zealand (2019), and United Kingdom (2019) can be included in the first scenario.

Overall, these countries have a well-developed welfare system where access to social security services is universal or quasi-universal for most of their population. They also have developed a strong protection system that provides social safety-nets and additional benefits to those vulnerable groups. Healthcare services, access to education are available to all. There are several social protection and safety-net programmes in different areas addressed to the most disadvantaged. Some promote and create capacities and skills for the labour market, improve access to employment through social and professional activation, occupational accident insurance, unemployment security, minimum legal wages, health insurance, access to free and quality education, provision of pensions and different types of allowances, and housing facilities. Also, there are several programs and services in different areas addressed to families and their members, especially children, women, older persons and persons with disabilities to support their wellbeing and their participation in the society. Most of these countries have implemented several measures to improve the conditions of families, improve their relationships (through parenting and early childhood development programmes and improving the balance between family and work responsibilities programmes, among others).

It is worth noticing that various countries in this group are part of the Nordic Council of Ministers, which is the official Inter-Governmental body for cooperation within the Nordic Region (Denmark, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, the Faroe Islands, Greenland and Aland Islands), and is integrating the implementation of SDGs by seeking to achieve inter-Nordic solutions with distinct, positive impacts on their citizens. These countries have developed different methods and indexes to measure sustainability and jointly with Switzerland, Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, France and the UK, ranked the highest in performance in most SDGs. As a result, having met many of the targets and SDGs, several of their policies have an international reach.

Finland (2016) is implementing a more comprehensive development policy, not only at the national level but also globally, that emphasises promoting rights and status of women and girls, including reproductive sexual health and rights. Germany (2016) has developed childcare facilities, the Elterngeld Plus and Partnerschaftsbonus parental benefits scheme to encourage fathers and mothers to share family commitments more equally, enabling both parents to take up gainful employment, as well as creating fixed-term, part-time working opportunities; it is implementing a protection scheme against poverty through a minimum level of protection: where it is not possible to earn an adequate income, it provides state support, including cash payments for families to help them bear child-related costs, protect them from poverty and enable children from low-income families equal access to education and participation in society; it is also implementing the Poverty-resistant Old Pension to ensure that the social welfare system remains "poverty-resistant" for future generations, and the Government plans first and foremost to strengthen company pensions schemes. In England (the United Kingdom, 2019), to target particularly disadvantaged children, around 150 local authorities are delivering the Troubled Families Programme to support families with multiple and overlapping disadvantages through dedicated and coordinated whole-of-family support. The second phase of the programme has been launched again to extend the coverage. For lone-parent families and combat child poverty, it provides free and subsidised childcare and provides universal early education entitlements.

Despite the fact that the welfare system is sound, these countries report having vulnerable groups who face poverty and have undergone or are making comprehensive reforms in their welfare systems to ensure a multidimensional and integrated perspective and include new criteria and values into their systems. Specifically, the most affected disadvantaged groups are women raising young children alone, children, low-income households, households with multiple children, older persons (especially women), persons with disabilities, indigenous groups (especially children and women in Norway, Australia, and New Zealand), migrants and asylum-seekers (especially Switzerland and Belgium 2017), unemployed and homeless people. One feature that distinguishes this group of countries is that the social protection programmes and other welfare benefits that have been developed to cover these groups assume a multidimensional, comprehensive and coordinated approach and these strengths have yielded positive results in reducing poverty. In Germany (2016), taxes, social transfers and services have reduced the risk of poverty by 74 per cent; in Ireland (2018), it was reduced by 51.6 per cent in 2015; in Czech Republic (2017), 20 per cent in that condition was taken out due to social transfers in 2014.

However, the goal of being "poverty resistant" – as Germany (2016) has proposed – involve overcoming important challenges. In France (2016), one out of seven persons are poor, and one out of five children are at risk of poverty; and in Belgium (2017), 21 per cent of household are in such condition. Therefore, even rich and developed countries, with sound welfare systems, still face some problems in tackling poverty. An important concern is that some vulnerable groups persistently have low-income. In this regard, Norway (2016) points out that the challenge to include them is due to the increase of the threshold of the high average income and the lag in the corresponding increase in the low-income threshold, that is, income increases more among the high socioeconomic groups than in the lower ones, resulting in wider income inequalities. Sweden (2017) reports that there are great economic differences among the high-income and low-income groups as well.

A similar problem is reported by Australia (2018) and Canada (2018). Australia highlights that while transient poverty is a problem, the experience of persistent poverty is of deeper concern, particularly where families experience intergenerational disadvantage, as poverty reproduces from one generation to the next one and this leads to long-term reliance on welfare. In Australia (2018), groups more likely to experience persistent poverty include lone parents, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, persons with disabilities, older women, and those with low educational attainment. To tackle this problem, countries in this group provide substantial financial funding to programmes targeting different vulnerable groups, and their design and implementation follow a multidimensional and multi-sectoral perspective. For example, in Australia (2018), The National Disability Insurance Scheme is a new way of providing support to children with a disability: health, childcare, education, child protection and legal systems work together to provide the supports and services necessary for children to thrive, achieve positive outcomes and become participants in the wider community. In Canada (2018), single senior low-income women, indigenous women, and one in three single mothers are likely to experience persistent poverty, which negatively affects their children's health and outcomes in school and often leads to lasting effects across generations. Canada has increased the Old Age Security pension and the Guaranteed Income Supplement, which have significantly reduced poverty among old age persons and supported single mothers with children. But even Iceland (2019), which has the highest income equality and the lowest poverty among European countries (8.8 per cent of the population were at risk of poverty), reports concerns regarding persistent poverty: in 2016, 25 per cent of single parents and 11 per cent of children were at risk of poverty, and one of the Government's 2020-2024 fiscal strategy to face this problem is

to strengthen funding and simplify the social security system to ensure better support for the lowest income groups (single mothers, children and persons with disabilities) and facilitate their social participation. Other measures implemented by other countries, such as Belgium (2017) is the engagement of community safety-nets: in the programme Exit Child Poverty, neighbourhood initiatives involving dialogue between youth workers, children's monitors, youngsters and their families living in poverty participate. Japan (2017) represents another example of how to address children's poverty through an integrated approach. The Government has reformed some programmes to improve outcomes. There are programmes to combat child poverty to support single-parent households and households with multiple children, based on the "Suku-Suku" support project implemented in 2015, where local centres provide services, promotes monitoring or supervision of children' activities by parents, and extends benefits for starting work. Recently, (New Zealand (2019) has implemented the Families Package programme, which includes a range of measures, such as tax-credit changes, to help low-income families with children.

Some countries report the inclusion of new and innovative values, criteria and dimensions that have been neglected in the previous vision of development, which emphasised individual income and economic growth as the main means to achieve welfare, development, and end poverty. Many countries (not only in this group of countries) have acknowledged the limits of such a model as inequality has increased significantly, and poverty remains a crucial problem worldwide. As a result, other criteria, values and perspectives are considered in the design of welfare policies. Three are emphasised explicitly by some countries: the first one refers to guaranteeing human rights. For instance, France (2016) has developed an important programme, The Rights Meetings, to help the vulnerable exercise their social rights by reducing the proportion of non-recipients or those eligible for the inclusion benefit scheme but didn't receive welfare benefits either due to the lack of information or a fear to be stigmatised. This programme has helped the Family Allowance Funds, aimed at women raising children alone, to acknowledge and access to it. The second refers to the entitlement to a minimum sociocultural standard (not only economic) that would enable an individual to live with dignity, proposed by Germany (2016); this idea is sustained by Switzerland (2017, 2018) with regards, for example, to treating asylum seekers in a credible, efficient and appropriate way in accordance with the rule of law. The idea is becoming so relevant that New Zealand (2019), for instance, is reforming its welfare system to restoring dignity to people so they can participate meaningfully with their families and communities. Scotland, in the United Kingdom (2019) is also implementing this new approach in its new social security system which is based on dignity, fairness and respect. The third one is related to happiness and subjective well-being, which has become an important aspect in current development perspectives, and it is measured through the happiness index and subjective well-being measures. For example, the United Arab Emirates (2018) has pointed out that happiness and well-being are not "fluffy" concepts and has set them as national priorities. This is reflected in the creation of a Minister of State for Happiness and Well-being and a National Program for Happiness and Positivity. The main initiatives under the pillar "Measuring Happiness and Well-being are the following: happiness meters have been installed in government customer service centres to measure customer happiness in real-time; the first National Survey for Happiness and Positivity was launched as a baseline measurement for happiness and positivity, over 16,000 individuals responded to the survey; the Happiness Policy Manual was launched which adds a happiness lens on the policy-making process through developing perspectives and policy tools to be applied when formulating new policy initiatives and revisiting existing ones. The Manual also includes a Happiness Impact Assessment Tool – a mandatory screening tool for any policy submitted to the Cabinet – to ensure that happiness is viewed holistically in policy-making. The Tool

assesses the expected impact of any policy on society's happiness based on six evaluation domains: economy, health, education, society and culture, government services and governance, and environment and infrastructure. These three criteria, values and perspectives are having deep consequences in the countries of this group and can be observed in different policies and programmes reported.

Scenario 2

In the group of countries included in this scenario, a transition to a multidimensional approach to development and provision of welfare benefits can be observed as it is explicitly recognized and considered when measuring poverty and it is included in the design, implementation and monitoring of programmes; there are efforts to develop a more extended social protection system and to integrate it into a broader welfare system, but the anchorage in the traditional approach still persists. Like those in the first scenario, countries in this one report family programmes as conducive to reducing poverty. They also report programmes from other fields, such as health or education, that have an impact on families; and they report programmes where the family acts as a structure of administration.

Explicit family policies are implemented by these countries as well, such as providing parenting skills training or childcare services. Ten countries are at an early stage of this transition, as they are either developing their national multidimensional poverty measures or their national agendas. Other countries have made reforms to their welfare systems and/or have already started the provision of programmes following this approach or improving some of the existent ones, including multi-sectoral attention to vulnerable groups.

Countries at an early stage of transition

Countries undergoing this early phase of transition are Belize (2017), Nepal (2017), Slovenia (2017), Tajikistan (2017), Zimbabwe (2017), Armenia (2018), Bhutan (2018), Croatia (2019), Italy (2019), Rwanda (2019), Serbia (2019) and Tonga (2019). These countries acknowledge the need to address poverty from a multidimensional approach and are at the initial stage of design and implementation of their national plans and social protection systems. Some of them are either in the elaboration multidimensional measures of poverty and have started to use them.

For example, Belize (2017) was finishing a draft to measure poverty based on a national multidimensional definition following the methodology of the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI). Rwanda (2019) and Nepal (2017) have developed a Multidimensional Poverty Index. Tajikistan (2017) and Tonga (2019) have developed their own, and the latter was finalizing a CCT Scheme targeted to those extremely poor. Other countries have developed further measures, such as the Child Multidimensional Index made by Bhutan (2018). Other countries were developing their strategies and frameworks, such as Croatia (2019), and Italy (2019), who were elaborating new strategies for combating poverty which include new indicators to early identify families and children at risk of poverty and were reforming their welfare systems. In Italy, the primary tool will be the Income for Inclusion, which prioritizes families with children in absolute poverty. Serbia (2019) is working on a draft of the new National Strategy for Social Protection 2019-2025 since it doesn't have an integrated anti-poverty and social inclusion strategy that would address the issue of child and youth poverty and social exclusion comprehensively. Slovenia (2017) has a well-developed social protection system as well, where access to public services is significant, but the system is unsustainable, and it is implementing changes to improve it. Armenia (2018) is developing

a plan to establish a set of measures considering the different SDGs and provide assistance and services in a more comprehensive and integrated way to address the multiple vulnerabilities of families and children. Zimbabwe (2017), launched in 2016 its National Social Protection Policy Framework to address poverty from a multi-sectoral perspective.

Countries in transition to a multidimensional approach, transition with CCT and family programmes

Several countries report expressly using a multidimensional approach to measuring poverty. Most of the 114 countries acknowledge the limits of basing development on income growth which was the bedrock of the previous perspective. They show concerns related to the inefficiencies and fragmentation of programmes and services, and to the absence or the fragile coordination between public sectors and institutions, which have resulted – among others - in having social security and social protection systems separated. Countries grouped in this section show being in the process of transition from the previous model to another, intended to develop more articulation and integration between the social security and the social protection systems when providing welfare. The transition process does not imply that all countries depart from the same point; that is, it is not an issue of the level of development and welfare achieved. Instead, it is the acknowledgement and ownership of a multidimensional perspective. For that reason, there are countries which face more disadvantages than others who have had more achievements tackling poverty. Another important characteristic of this group is the attention addressed to families (and its members) as targets of programmes, as an asset or a resource, or as an administrative agent in programmes aimed to tackle poverty.

Countries under this scenario are: in 2016, Colombia, Egypt, Republic of Korea; in 2017: Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Indonesia, Panama, Malaysia, Portugal and Uruguay. In 2018: Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Mexico, Poland, Singapore, Slovakia, Spain, Sri Lanka and Viet Nam. In 2019: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Iraq, Israel, Kazakhstan, Mauritius, Pakistan, Palau, Saint Lucia, South Africa, Turkey. Most countries report having poverty concentrated and being prevalent in specific vulnerable groups: children, youth, women, older persons - especially women – persons with disabilities, low-income families with young children – especially those female-headed or with three or more children, and minority ethnic groups.

Children's poverty and child development is a deep concern in most countries, and most of them have implemented several programmes, including a more comprehensive and multi-sectoral approach to tackle poverty and support early childhood development. For instance, Chile (2017) has made an essential improvement of the social protection system to reduce child poverty. It has extended and institutionalized the Subsystem of Integral Child Protection, Programmes, such as Chile Crece Contigo (Chile Grows Up With You), provides interventions in the areas of education, health, nutrition and child development from the gestational stage. This programme was upgraded in 2016 to cover children up to 9 years of age. Uruguay (2017), and Brazil (2017) have developed similar programmes. Uruguay Crece Contigo (Uruguay Growths Up With You), aimed at providing an environment and context favourable to child development and their families in early childhood; and Happy Children, which provides a comprehensive health and care services for child development. It aims at strengthening family and community ties. De Cero a Siempre (From Zero to Forever) programme in Colombia (2016) has similar features, as well as the Policy of Integral Child Attention in Panama (2017) and is implementing the National Child Protection Policy to improve the situation of children and the violence and ill-treatment they face. Singapore (2018) is implementing the KidsStart

Programme for early childhood development. Hungary (2018) has developed child support programs with considerable coverage: several new nursery schools and 250 early childhood institutions have been created; in 2016, there were 112 Sure Start Children's Houses (early childhood development support centres) in the most disadvantaged, service-deprived municipalities and in 2017, children received free or reduced-rate meals in schools.

One of the factors that increase child poverty is an adverse household and social environments, such as domestic violence, insecure and vulnerable neighbourhoods, or difficulties in access to social services in more isolated areas. Therefore, along with child poverty measures, various countries have developed family programmes to improve the conditions of female-headed families and families with young children. They are the poorest or at higher risk of poverty. For example, the Strategy Bridge to Development launched by Costa Rica (2017) in 2015 has the main focus to address family poverty through a multidimensional, multi-sectoral and holistic approach. It has set a family intervention that includes the development of a family plan, the follow-up with a co-manager, and the provision of cash transfers to enable families access to social services. With a similar view, Israel (2019) launched The Noshmim Le-Revaha programmes in 2015, and their objectives include: to decrease poverty, to improve family functioning and relations, to reduce dependency on social services, and to promote integration. It is a family intervention program, limited to 2 years, and based on the recognition that the family is the central axis in the process of change. The programme currently operates in 94 local authorities countrywide. To ensure access to basic services to the most impoverished families, Indonesia (2017) has expanded the coverage of the Family Hope Program (PKH) in 2016 to 6 million low income-families, including pregnant women, under-five and school-age children, older persons and persons with disabilities. This programme was improved, and recipient mothers learn the modules of parenting, health and nutrition, child protection, and family financial management. Families are provided with the Healthy Indonesia Card, which integrates different programmes, among others, this one. In Mauritius (2019), a public-private pilot holistic programme Lovebridge, works on education, employment-training, housing, food and nutrition, health and on individualized strategies and actions to help families to step out poverty. Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019) have funded programmes to support single parents of children with developmental difficulties and other socially vulnerable families, among them Roma minority families.

In addition to child development and parenting services, several grants, CT and CCT programmes are addressing improvement in families' income as a crucial aspect to fight against poverty, by providing family allowances or grants and access to other services, such as health, education and skills training. Most of them target families in extreme poverty. Colombia (2016), has implemented the programme Mas Familias en Acción (More Families in Action, which covers 19 per cent of households); Panama (2017) and Ecuador (2018) provide the Bono Familiar Alimentario (Family Food Grant) and the Bono de Desarrollo (Development Grant) respectively, to families in extreme poverty. In Brazil (2017), 24 per cent of households were covered in 2016 by the CCT programme Bolsa Familia (Family Grant Programme). Mexico (2018), Dominican Republic (2018) and Pakistan (2019) have also developed multi-sectoral strategies (CCT and CT) with targeted interventions for most impoverished families, through the Prospera (Prosper), Progresando con Solidaridad (Progressing with Solidarity) and the Benazir Income Support programmes respectively. Similar CCT programmes are developed by Egypt (2016, 2018), with the Takaful and the CT Karama (Dignity) programmes (aimed at older persons and persons with disabilities), by Greece (2018) with the Social Solidarity Income programme, and by Iraq (2019), through a pilot programme (supported by the World Bank and UNICEF in 2018). The later provides an allowance to families, on condition that

mothers, pregnant women and their children make health check-ups and children attend school. It includes a new electronic programme to follow-up on the families. Other countries support the increase of family income through minimum income schemes and different kinds of allowances: Cyprus (2017), has developed the Guaranteed Minimum Income Scheme (GMI), resulting from the reform of the welfare system undertaken by the government to support individuals and families with insufficient income and include more vulnerable groups; Lithuania (2018) provides family allowances to those poor families who raise children, and a monthly benefit is granted for each additional child; Kazakhstan (2019) has introduced a monthly guaranteed assistance for each child from low-income families; in Poland (2018) the Family 500 Plus Programme and other programmes provide benefits to parents and to the older persons or family members with a disability; Thailand (2017) provided in 2016 financial subsidy to more than 300,000 low-income families and a childcare subsidy to needy families with children aged 0-3 years; Spain (2018) created in 2014 a special fund to fight against child poverty through different programmes: The Family Protection Programme, Action on Childhood Poverty and Basic Social Services, and Support for Family and Children; and Portugal (2017) recently made a National Reform Program to improve social cohesion and reduce social inequality and has implemented programmes targeted to reduce child and youth poverty, and support families with more young children by reformulating the levels of income to access to family allowances.

Provision of care to family members is an important dimension to reduce poverty and has a significant impact on other SDGs, such as gender equality (SDG 5) and healthcare (SDG 3). Various countries of this group include the provision of care programmes. For example, the Republic of Korea (2016) has a particular focus on developing interventions for older persons, as this population has doubled its poverty rate by 2015. Different legislations were approved in 2014 to promote their wellbeing and has implemented programs targeted to this group, including the establishment of hospice care at home, the increase in the number of social workers for those with Alzheimer's disease, the growth of public care facilities and the increase of tailor-made public works for the elderly. Portugal (2017) has expanded the Rede Nacional de Cuidados Continuados (National Network of the Integrated Continued Care), aimed at older persons; and Lithuania (2018) has set out to expand social services and social protection programmes since they have had limited coverage. Hence, it is implementing an institutional care reform which will help to establish a system of integrated services. Currently, integrated assistance at home (social care and nursing) extended to all municipalities.

Some countries have developed programmes with an integral and broader reach, providing services and support to the whole family and strengthening the community. They take the family as a unit of intervention and as an asset or resource to overcome poverty and vulnerable conditions. The programme Cercanías in Uruguay (2017) aims at improving the efficiency of state actions considering the family as a unit of intervention. The LEAP Project – Helping the most deprived 'take the leap' out of poverty, in Malta (2018), has settled community centres, which are one-stop 'shops' offering multiple services, including professional advice and support in employment, access to training and child day care, social work, and community services. It has multi-disciplinary teams to help alleviate poverty and create an inclusive community. Slovakia (2018), due to the persistence of poverty within vulnerable groups (persons with disabilities, older persons, and Roma population) and intergenerational transfer of poverty, is making transformations to transit to a social-service provision at a community level. The Koudmein, in Saint Lucia (2019), is a holistic intervention programme designed to give psychosocial support to families living in extreme poverty and linked to other programmes. Family social workers support counsellors, and community officers maintain

regular visitations with indigent households over two years, building close relationships and becoming a conduit through which support is administered. Families commit to participating in all initiatives and programmes geared towards the improvement of their quality of life in areas of health, education, family dynamics, housing, work and income. Lithuania (2018) has enhanced social work with children and parents. In Hungary (2018), the domestic family support system encompasses programmes targeting the improvement of the material and housing circumstances of families, the labour market integration of parents with young children (Childcare Fee Extra program), and efforts to encourage people to have children (Family Home-Creation Allowance).

At a more general level, several countries have undertaken reforms and initiatives to strengthen their social protection systems and safety nets either by making amendments in their legislations; improving the administration and implementation of services and programmes (by reducing duplications and overlaps); creating safety net programs and extending the coverage of programmes and services. These reforms, initiatives and programmes implemented, and their coverage has an impact on family members' wellbeing and facilitate the inclusion of vulnerable groups. In this regard, members of families are included as beneficiaries in different services provided, such as health. For instance, Turkey (2019) made legal amendments to restructure the social protection system and consolidate the social security institutions, it has implemented the Universal Health Insurance, and it has extended the provision of social assistance and services targeting poor and vulnerable groups. In Cyprus (2017), as welfare benefits were considered to be fragmented and to improve efficiency, the Government has undertaken a major reform of its welfare and social protection system, and comprehensive social governance was decided through the creation of a single welfare benefits administration service. There are programmes aimed at reducing child poverty, provision of breakfast at schools, childcare and aid to the disabled and the elderly. Portugal (2017), recently made a National Reform Programme, which included the new Social Allowance for Inclusion programme for the homeless. Interventions in the education area aim at providing support (e. g., school materials, meals, transportation) to disadvantage children and youth to prevent violence and support school success. And it created an inter-ministerial Strategic Plan for Migrations 2015-2020 to address a new, complex and challenging migratory situation and support integration with different programs. Pakistan (2019), has implemented an overarching strategy through the Ehsaas program, launched in 2019, to improve targeting and coordination among the 36 federal and provincial agencies involved. It is one of the largest programmes intended to expand social protection and safety nets, jobs and livelihoods, human capital development, improve nutritional status and reduce stunting in poor communities and vulnerable groups.

Other countries report efforts to strengthen their social protection programmes by extending the coverage of vulnerable groups or existing programmes. For instance, despite its extensive social assistance system, South Africa (2019 increased its social protection floor and social services. It provides free education and healthcare, and grant safety nets; there are pension programmes for those over 65, child grants, primary healthcare, and orphans grants. In 2015, social grants were received by 72 per cent of all elderly persons and 92 per cent of those classified as poor; and child support grants cover approximately one-third of households with children (34 per cent) and 61 per cent of poor households with children. Greece (2018), has implemented a large number of social policy reforms in the areas of pensions, health and family allowances for extending the coverage. Mauritius (2019) provides universal free healthcare. Education is free from pre-primary to tertiary levels. And social protection schemes target people with low education, older persons, single-parent households, families with several

children, such as the Marshall Plan Against Poverty, a comprehensive CCT programme. Argentina (2017) has extended its social protection system. In 2016, 69.9 per cent of the population, 69 per cent of children, and 98 per cent of older persons were covered by any of the different social programmes and floors. It provides a floor of universal income, exemplified by different allowances addressed to families, temporary workers, and to each child whose parents are unemployed and are vulnerable. In Indonesia (2017), comprehensive social protection is provided through the National Social Security System (SJSN) and integrated social assistance. The SJSN was implemented through the National Health Insurance (JKN) by issuing the Healthy Indonesia Card (KIS). By the end of 2016, 66.4 per cent of the total population (171.9 million people) including 40 per cent of the lowest income people were covered. Malaysia (2017) had implemented nationwide multidimensional poverty eradication programmes which have yielded positive outcomes. Panama (2017) has expanded its social protection system through the Red de Oportunidades (Network of Opportunities), and Angel Guardián (Guardian Angel, for persons with severe disabilities). Poland (2018) provides support to dependent persons (children, elderly, and disabled persons and their families), to improve their standard and quality of life. For example, The Friendly Poland Accessibility Plus Programme aims to improve the quality and independence of all citizens, including, in particular, older persons and people with permanent or temporary limitations to mobility and perception. Latvia (2018) is improving the social protection system and welfare services. It is introducing a compulsory national health system, improving housing, public transport benefits, public school and kindergarten meals, social insurance and other assistance services for people with disabilities. The support to families with children has been significantly increased in the last years. Saint Lucia (2019) has some programmes, such as the Holistic Opportunities for Personal Development (HOPE) which is a major component of the Social Safety Net Initiative implemented by the Government. Lithuania (2018) has set as a task the development of social services and social protection programmes since they have had limited coverage. Family allowances are provided to those poor families who raise children, and a monthly benefit is granted for each additional child. Chile (2017) has extended the coverage of its social protection system as it provides universal access to healthcare and more access to other services. Dominican Republic (2018) has extended the coverage of the Family Health Insurance to 67 per cent of the population in 2015, and the Alimentación Escolar (School Meals) programme is provided to pre-primary, primary and secondary public schools. Singapore (2018) extended measures for social assistance through programmes promoting employment, sustained income growth, access to quality education, housing (public rental facilities) and healthcare. The Central Provident Fund is the bedrock of the social security system and assists in programmes such as the ComCare. It addresses low-income people to meet their basic needs; beneficiaries have access to other services such as Family Service Centres, Senior Activity Centres and other agencies for further social support. Social spending on social protection has increased, as well as coverage and support for the low-income and vulnerable groups. In Sri Lanka (2018), about 34 per cent of the population received benefits from social assistance programmes and social insurance programmes, including household members who are indirect beneficiaries. Nearly 45 per cent of the elderly population is covered by social protection. Policies on free education and universal free healthcare have ensured access to these services, particularly to the poor and vulnerable. Viet Nam (2018) has implemented social security policies nationwide with positive results. By 2017, a high proportion of people had social insurance; by 2015, all poor and social protection beneficiaries were provided with free insurance cards, and about 81 per cent of near-poor people had health insurance. Monthly social support is provided to beneficiaries in 60 provinces/cities. Mexico (2018) has developed different programmes to support indigenous groups, women, children and youth. In Malta (2018), the social protection system has contributed to reducing poverty

through Malta's National Strategic Policy for Poverty Reduction and Social Inclusion (2014-2024), launched in 2014, and focused on four main groups: children, older persons, unemployed persons and the working poor. Spain (2018) has a developed system of social security and social support with several policies and programs that cover a variety of vulnerable groups: old-age people, families, women, homeless people, persons with disabilities, and especially children and youth. As an upper-middle-income country, Kazakhstan (2019) has developed a well-provision system of social security promoting employment and business, increasing access to healthcare, education and basic services, and providing targeted assistance to the socially vulnerable population. It is improving assistance programs for further and better inclusion of the most needed. Also, as a socially-oriented state, considers other factors of family wellbeing in defining poverty and coverage is expanding. Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019) have made considerable efforts through The Decade of Roma Inclusion 2005-2015 programme, which provides education, housing, employment and healthcare services. Palau (2019) has developed a particular social protection system grounded on a cultural tradition and belief system. The ethic of "Caring and Sharing" constitutes the core of providing support to individuals, families and the community; and this is supplemented by direct government assistance to senior citizens, disabled and low-income households.

Scenario 3

There are countries where the transition to a multidimensional approach is less explicit in the VNRs. Countries focus on improvements in their social security and social protection systems through widening the coverage of their services and programmes, or through the implementation of CT and CCT programmes which cover significant vulnerable groups. Usually, they do not report explicit family policies and programmes or provide some family subsidies and the multidimensional and comprehensive approach can be appreciated only through the provision of CCT programmes which involve a multi-sectoral implementation. Most policies reported refer to the support of employment, health, education and other benefits and show a traditional separated model of social security and social protection. In this sense, the extension and the strengthening efforts towards social security and social protection systems have indirect or implicit effects on families and their members. Families are also included as beneficiaries of policies and as administrators of the resources they receive, through CT and CCT programmes. Countries that represent this model and have a significant coverage are Azerbaijan (2017), India (2017), Qatar (2017), Kingdom of Bahrain (2018), Saudi Arabia (2018), Kuwait (2019) and Republic of Tanzania (2019).

Kuwait (2019), Saudi Arabia (2018) and Qatar (2017) have nearly universal or extended healthcare and education, have developed policies to improve employment, and have enhanced or implemented safety nets and specific benefits to vulnerable groups. In Kuwait, the Bayt Al Zakat supports widows, older persons, low-income families, families of prisoners and orphans. A key programme in Saudi Arabia is the Citizen Account. And Qatar has made improvements towards the integration of the social protection system. Social security benefits increased substantially in 2014, and the number of beneficiaries has doubled between 2007 and 2015. The Kingdom of Bahrain (2018) has developed extended access to social security in education and healthcare as well, and social protection is also increasing in coverage. For instance, 65 per cent of the population benefitted from housing services. A package of social assistance programmes on social security and social assistance is provided to ensure minimum basic life requirements for citizens (including vulnerable groups, such as orphans, disabled persons, widows, the elderly, and prisoners' families), such as the Social Inclusion Income (SII). India (2017) improved the promotion of work and skill training, the universalization of healthcare

(to tackle maternal and child malnutrition) and access to education. It has expanded the social protection system through several programmes, such as the National Assistance, providing pension to old age people, widows and those with disabilities, life and personal accident insurance. The insurance schemes have reached 130 million people. In Azerbaijan (2017), 28 per cent of the population is covered by subsidies or CTs, although most of them are for pensions; it has created jobs, extended schools and healthcare facilities. Improvements have been made in people's wellbeing, and social protection of vulnerable population has been strengthened and covers broad categories them. The Republic of Tanzania (2019) has developed a CCT programme to tackle the intergenerational transmission of poverty among the extremely poor. In 2017, 70 per cent of extremely poor households received it. A total of 1.1 million households with 5.1 million direct beneficiaries are enrolled in the Productive Social Safety Net Programme and are receiving cash transfers.

Another group of countries represent a less pronounced transition to a multidimensional approach. As the previous group, the provision of CCT involves a comprehensive and multidimensional approach as they are implemented in a multi-sectoral manner. The difference is that, as they face higher levels of poverty or vulnerability, as well as significant challenges in consolidating social security and social protection systems, their coverage is limited. In addition, the provision of welfare in a separate form by the contributory and non-contributory systems is more pronounced. They report having less comprehensive or varied family programmes. Countries within this group are: in 2016, Estonia, Uganda and Venezuela; in 2017, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Botswana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Nigeria and Togo; in 2018, Albania, Bahamas, Jamaica, Lao PDR, Lebanon, Namibia, the State of Palestine and Sudan; and in 2019, Cambodia, Ghana and Mongolia.

In Uganda (2016), Kenya (2017) and Nigeria (2017) half or more than half of their population is in poverty, and therefore the provision of social protection faces many challenges. In Uganda, only around 3 per cent of the population has access to formal social security. All three countries have implemented measures and safety nets to reduce poverty and hunger through the provision of healthcare, education, pensions, compensation to workers, social care and different programmes, services and assistance to old age persons, orphans, vulnerable children, disabled persons and most vulnerable households. Namibia (2018) ranked amongst the top ten most unequal countries in the world, and despite it has implemented social safety nets, a substantial segment of the population remains extremely poor. There are still huge disparities in terms of who has access to sustainable income, productive assets, food, water, energy and other basic services. However, it has developed a comprehensive social protection system supporting older persons, orphans and vulnerable children, persons with disabilities, war veterans, school children, marginalized communities and populations affected by hunger. But the consolidation of the system – as in other countries in this group - faces challenges due to inefficiencies in targeting, registration of beneficiaries, and monitoring, which increase costs and limits scalability. In Togo (2017), despite the achievements made in reducing poverty, only 5 per cent of the adult population benefits from contributory social insurance scheme and 5 per cent of families with children receive family allowance; 13 per cent receive pension or retirement, and healthcare services cover 6 per cent. In the non-contributory system, different programmes provide assistance and services to the poor and the vulnerable. Bangladesh (2017) is introducing a Multidimensional Poverty Index. It is implementing a comprehensive National Social Security Strategy to consolidate all safety-net programmes to support the most needed citizens and improve the inclusion of migrant people. In 2016, 27 per cent of the population was covered with social safety nets. In Botswana (2017), 17 per cent of the population was attended by social protection floors, and there are some programmes to enhance social welfare

through economic empowerment of youth, women and disabled persons, mainly in rural areas. However, these programs face challenges, as some beneficiaries simultaneously benefit from different programmes.

Mongolia (2019) has made important achievements in poverty reduction, although one-third of the population lives below the national poverty line. In 2017, 88.9 per cent of children, 97.5 per cent of older per sons, and 44.7 per cent of the unemployed were covered by social protection floors. Afghanistan (2017) reports a high level of poverty (39 per cent) as well and implemented a major programme, The Citizen Charter Project, where the Community Development Councils create infrastructure and deliver social services to participating communities. Currently, The Safety Net and Social Protection cover the disabled, Martyred families, who lost members in terrorist attacks, pensioners, vulnerable families with young children. Being one of the ten top countries most vulnerable to climate change and high in poverty risk, Cambodia (2019) has initiated a wide-ranging environmental reform. It is developing a broad National Social Protection Policy Framework 2016-2025 (NSPPF), which provides access to free healthcare to around 16.3 per cent of the poor. It has established orphanages, facilities for disabled people, maternal and new-born centres, health services, free primary and secondary education, and different types of allowances (employment injury, disability).

Ethiopia (2017) has added more services and vulnerable groups and plans to broaden the system and to create safety net supports. An important goal to achieve is eliminating rent-seeking behaviours and ensuring the predominance of the development frame of mind. This is an important goal since this behaviour in government institutions implies that the officer benefits himself/herself (or those persons close to him/her). Using his/her position and influence in government institutions obtains public goods (e. g., budgets, programmes, public enterprises). This behaviour has had adverse effects on societies and hinders sustainable development. Albania (2018) has also included other specific vulnerable groups: Roma and Egyptian population, and persons with disabilities. Although reforms are underway, the current social protection system has limited impact and is financed and implemented mostly by NGOs voluntarily. The State of Palestine (2018) has some improvements as it has implemented some programmes with wide coverage. Ghana (2019) is implementing 11 social protection programs with a multi-sectoral approach in the areas of health, school feeding and materials, among others. To improve the social protection system, Sudan (2018) has implemented, among others, the Social Initiative programme, which provides an integrated package of services for 500,000 poorest families. Jamaica (2018) recognizes the need to have a multidimensional poverty index. However, it has implemented a health and education programme which has significant coverage of different vulnerable groups. Housing policies have yielded positive results, as 72 per cent of housing is considered to be of acceptable quality.

Other countries report their achievements and challenges of the social security and social protection systems considering the contributory and non-contributory support schemes. In Bahamas (2018) citizens benefit from both schemes. However, in 2016, the available social safety nets did not provide full coverage of those at or below the poverty line. In Lebanon (2018), workers in the formal economy have access to social services, such as health, pensions and retirement and maternity leave. The social protection scheme provides access to health services and other benefits to the elderly, disabled, unemployed, self-employed, the extreme poor, and to refugee immigrants. In Lao PDR (2018) programmes are fragmented, but the poor have become less poor. Access to social security remains limited to formal employed workers and workers in the informal economy remain socially unprotected. An important measure has

been the community radio volunteer broadcasters in rural provinces which have reached vulnerable groups (especially women and girls), increasing awareness and useful knowledge on issues such as agriculture, family relations, education, health, and nutrition. Estonia (2016) is changing the social insurance scheme and the welfare system to increase the coverage and inclusion of vulnerable groups. And in Venezuela (2016), social protection is provided through two programmes: Bases de Misiones Socialistas (Socialists Missions Bases) and the integral plan of attention Domingo de Misiones (Sunday's Missions), which provide health, education services and food in vulnerable areas or with difficult access.

Access to basic services, ownership and control over land

Access to basic services, as well as ownership and control over productive resources such as land, is crucial for families' well-being and for a better quality of life. The satisfaction of these needs provides a floor for ensuring achievements in other dimensions addressed by different SDGs, such as health, gender equality, education facilities, and starting family enterprises. Policies in this regard address the provision of the minimum material conditions for families and in general, the overall population to develop sustainably. Hence, families are assumed to be one of their targets.

There is limited information reported regarding target 1.4. Only a few countries provide some data. For instance, Colombia (2016), Egypt (2016), Uganda (2016), Uruguay (2017), Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019), Kazakhstan (2019), Pakistan (2019), and South Africa (2019), make general remarks about improving the provision of basic services, such as electricity, water and sanitation.

Some countries report more detailed information about access to basic services, showing the progress and challenges in covering those needs: in Bangladesh (2017), 80 per cent of households had access to electricity; in Belize (2017), 64.6 per cent have sanitation services; in Nigeria (2017) access to drinking water increased to 60 per cent, and improvements have been made in sanitation. Togo (2017) has provided water services, especially in rural areas where it has increased to 64.4 per cent, and 53 per cent in urban areas; sanitation services have been improved, but in rural areas remain unsatisfied, with 42.7 per cent of the population making open defecation. In Cabo Verde (2018), most of the population has access to basic services: 99 per cent have housing, 90 per cent have electricity, 64 per cent piped water and 80 per cent sanitation. However, poor people face insecurity in housing conditions. One out of five poor people, and 30 per cent of the population living in extreme poverty, lack access to electricity, especially in rural areas. 51 per cent of poor have access to water; only 55 per cent of poor households and 40 per cent of extremely poor have access to sanitation; 72 per cent of poor households have housing but in poor conditions. In Sri Lanka (2018), 99 per cent of households have electricity, 88.8 per cent have drinking water, and 91.7 per cent, sanitation. India (2017) is underway to universalize access to basic services. Some programmes provide drinking water to 77.5 per cent of the population and toilets to 63.7 per cent, and it is estimated that open defecation free will be reached by 2019. In Indonesia (2017), 96 per cent of the population had access to electricity, 62.9 per cent to clean water, and 54 per cent to sanitation. In Viet Nam (2018), 50 per cent have solid housing; and all have access to electricity, 93 per cent to water and 83 per cent to sanitation. In Ecuador (2018), 71 per cent have access to water and 66 per cent to sanitation.

Chile ((2017), Thailand (2017), Malaysia (2017), Bahrain (2018), Bhutan (2018) Kuwait (2019) report, on the other hand, providing universal or quasi-universal access to the basic services of electricity, drinking water and sanitation, although in rural areas access is more problematic.

Reports about improvements in the provision of tenure rights to land are also limited. In Chile (2017), 87 per cent had land rights secured. Viet Nam (2018) provides relatively equal access to assets, especially land. Bahamas (2018) offers concessionary rates for regularizing long-term occupation of Crown Land. It is making amendments to legislation in order to provide regularization and security in land ownership; Bhutan (2018) is making improvements in land reform, granting with land tenure and rights for more landless people or households dependent on shifting cultivation. Now, 71 per cent of household own land tenure-ship and rights. In Cabo Verde (2018), 39 per cent of poor households and 52 per cent in extreme poverty have tenure land for agriculture. In Brazil (2017), the Rural and Urban Land Regularization programme is aimed at recognizing informal occupations and guaranteeing property to families in vulnerable conditions; the regularization favours access to public infrastructures, such as sanitation, as well as credit. In the case of rural land regularization, the government aims to deliver 250,000 land titles to beneficiaries of the National Agrarian Reform Programme.

Regarding access to financial services, only a few countries report some information and progress. For example, Uruguay (2017), made legal amendments and approved the law of Financial Inclusion, which promotes savings, provides credit with favourable conditions, and a significant proportion of financial operations are made by electronic means. Payments, salaries, pensions and other benefits are provided through the electronic banking system. In Belize (2017) most households have access to the formal financial system through credit union accounts. In Sri Lanka (2018), 82.7 per cent of the adults have access to financial institutions. In Bangladesh (2017), the Central Bank offers banking facilities to millions who didn't have access to any formal financial services; currently, most people have access. It has also been supporting programmes of microcredit, such as One House One Farm, based on microcredits. Bhutan (2018) implemented a free micro-lending scheme at 4 per cent for non-formal economic activities in rural areas. Bahamas (2018) has eliminated the value-added tax (VAT) to electricity to the poor and other tax exemptions, and it is promoting the development of Micro, Small and Medium credits for poor to start businesses. Bahrain (2018) provides with financial assistance to vulnerable groups (poor families, disabled, unemployed, widows, divorcees, families of prisoners, displaced persons, elderly, and unmarried women), such as tax exemptions in electricity and water, and housing facilities. And Jamaica (2018) continued the implementation of programmes to promote access to economic resources, including regulating microfinance institutions and lending policies, land titling programmes to strengthen land ownership, and others concerning property ownership.

Family roles in social policies and the implementation of family-oriented policies to end poverty

In the relationship between family and poverty, three scenarios have been identified which consider the relationship between welfare systems, economic development and multidimensional perspective.

1. **From the analysis of policies under those three scenarios a first conclusion can be drawn: the relationship between poverty and family is not determined by the volume of programmes targeting families but by the way in which the families are**

included in policy design. The match between a strong institutional structure of rights with a multidimensional and comprehensive perspective includes the family under different lenses, that is, under different roles; and, hence, it is more soundly used as a resource in different dimensions. By contrast, when the family is included primarily as a target, it tends to correspond with a not holistic and multidimensional view on poverty and in reducing the lens under which the family may be included; that is, it tends to reduce the roles the family may perform in social policy. The fundamental difference is that the incorporation of the roles families' play in development along with a multidimensional view of poverty itself, not only optimizes or engenders more social resources but also reinforces different levels of coordination in social policy. In contrast, when family roles are reduced in contexts where a multidimensional and comprehensive perspective is not fully developed, the family tends to be overloaded upon in a scenario that lacks institutional conditions to prevent that over-reliance. This may lead to a vicious circle because the family, is also indispensable for the implementation of other policies. Therefore, breaking and overcoming this approach is required.

2. Another conclusion results, considering the above regarding whether countries design and implement family-oriented policies as part of their strategies and policies to reduce poverty. Although most countries of the first scenario (19 countries in total) do no report in detail their family-oriented policies and programmes, and they report low levels of poverty basically concentrated among vulnerable groups, they have implemented family-oriented policies as an important tool to combat poverty, and they result from the assumption of a multidimensional and comprehensive perspective in reducing it. Finland (2016), Germany (2016) and the United Kingdom (2019) are good examples of this trend. The implementation of family policies to tackle poverty is also linked or coordinated with other SDGs measures. The promotion of the rights of women and girls, providing childcare benefits and facilities so women can work, and have developed coordinated family programmes addressed to provide holistic or whole-of-family support. Countries report innovative policies regarding the sociocultural level. They promote cultural change through the dissemination of values, sociocultural standards and ethical stands based on human right, respect, dignity and subjective well-being. France (2016) provides a good example of this through the Rights Meetings programme. When disadvantaged single mothers knew, through the Rights Meetings programme, about their right to access to the Family Allowance Programme as beneficiaries, they acknowledged it and accessed to it.

The second scenario, integrated by 49 countries, shows a transition to a multidimensional approach but not all of them are developing sound family-oriented policies to eliminate poverty as part of their strategy. Some countries, such as Costa Rica (2017), Israel (2019), Chile (2017), Brazil (2017), Colombia (2016), Uruguay (2017), Indonesia (2017), Mauritius (2019), Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019), Malta (2018), Slovakia (2018), Saint Lucia (2019), Hungary (2018) and Lithuania (2018) have implemented more holistic or comprehensive family and community programmes to face poverty (e.g., programmes targeted to reduce poverty of children, women, families and vulnerable groups). They develop a follow-up or close work with targeted families, working with a co-manager or other encompassing measures to address their specific needs. Families are involved not only as beneficiaries of services but also as agents of development

to tackle poverty. They administer the resources among the members of the family; act as a coordinating and interlocutor agent with governmental authorities or professionals who participate in specific programmes and are thus involved in the process of policy implementation. Costa Rica (2017) and Israel (2016) are good examples among countries in this group on how the family is strongly involved as an axe in social policies aimed at reducing poverty. However, the 35 remaining countries do not address families comprehensively. Despite they have implemented child protection, CCT, CT programmes, or other policies which include vulnerable families and groups, these measures are still anchored primarily at targeting the individuals or members of families. They include them in the provision of other services, such as health and education; or providing them basically with economic support. They do not report using the potential families have to reduce poverty, as they do not work closely with or involve parents and families in a plan to overcome their precarious socioeconomic condition. In this sense, they assume a limited perspective of family-oriented policies as important tools to reduce poverty.

The third scenario, integrated by 27 countries, do not report sound family-oriented policies as tools to eliminate poverty or their policies and programmes have a limited perspective.

Considering the three scenarios, 33 countries are developing sound family related policies as part of their strategy to end poverty and have assumed a holistic family perspective; but most countries (62) do not.

SDG 2: End Hunger, Achieve Food Security and Improved Nutrition and Promote Sustainable Agriculture.

The absence of hunger and the eradication of nutritional distortions are imperatives for a sustainable society. Food security – with its different emphasis – is a key issue here. VNRs show how hunger, nutrition and food security are related in the countries' different perspectives and their current situation regarding those issues. Family relevant targets under SDG 2 are: i) target 2.1: end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious sufficient and food all year round; and ii) target 2.2 end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of girls adolescent, pregnant and lactating women and older persons.

General trends in hunger and nutrition and the role of the family

The intensity of the family's role in hunger's despondency is related to the levels of interventions that each country makes according to its strategies and resources. There are no exclusive or single-type interventions, but there are different nuances. For some countries standing on high floors of well-being and strong structural development, food security tends to be prioritized as an issue that integrates different factors of policy and agricultural and technological development. Internally, they see hunger as a problem-focused on vulnerable or disadvantaged groups and, therefore, as a public policy issue, efforts are aimed at strengthening cohesion by including these groups and targetting interventions at them.

It is at this level that the family plays a remarkable role. But also, this confirms that hunger is not just a matter of commercial or technological development; social policies matter. It is in this dimension that the family is emphasized relatively by another series of countries that are in less robust situations of general well-being. They emphasize hunger as a matter strictly related to high or considerable levels of poverty and to a framework where malnutrition, undernourishment, stunting, wasting, underweight and other related challenges, are more extended. Within this perspective, the main issue regarding food security is to address larger groups of the population who are experiencing such situations; and the family plays an important role in some countries, not only as a targeted beneficiary but more remarkably, as a resource to face it. In other words, in the first trend, countries' perspective of hunger and malnutrition is rather a matter of sustainability, looking forward to the future; big-scale agriculture production is more typical and it is grounded on innovative technologies and developments. In the second trend, due to hunger and malnutrition, food security and sustainability become matters of social survival. This perspective is more frequent in countries which face difficult socioeconomic conditions and their economy is agricultural-based and of small-scale. In these contexts, the family is a target of several policies, but most importantly, in some of them plays a stronger role as it becomes an asset and a mean for policy implementation.

The relationship between hunger and family is multidimensional. There is a close link between hunger, malnutrition (stunting, wasting and underweight) and health, in young children and women of reproductive age. One-dimensional support policies have effects – if not always direct – on other dimensions, and in that chain of connections, the family is a key reference. These chains have a complex relationship with food security or with the decline of insecurity: their co-presence with hunger or the record of considerable stunting rates is verified. Disparities between regions, institutional lack of coordination or between similar policies, the duplicity of programs, are just some of the factors affecting the successful implementation of policies. Although not always explicit, they claim the significant role of the family.

Families and Food Safety (2.1)

Few nations report having hunger as a challenge among their populations (e.g., Azerbaijan 2017, Cyprus 2017, Netherlands, 2017, Qatar 2017, and Sweden 2017). Others, such as Afghanistan (2017), Indonesia (2017), Malaysia (2017), Nepal (2017), Nigeria (2017), Zimbabwe (2017), Namibia (2018), Timor-Leste (2019) report having high levels of hunger (between 25 and 36 per cent). France (2016), Bangladesh (2017), Guatemala (2017), Jordan (2017), Panama (2017), Togo (2017), Lao PDR (2018), Mexico (2018) and Israel (2019) report levels ranging from 11 per cent to 20 per cent. And several countries do not report the rates of acccess the population has to a balanced and sufficient diet.

Not all expressly report food insecurity or hunger in relation to the family or its members. Among those who provide data or means of attention, a distinction can be appreciated between those who do so by a clear specification of programmes and their type and those who show concern for the subject but do not report detailed policies, due either to the type of strategies adopted or to the available resources. At the heart of this difference seems to be the association – in policy design – between a country's food security status, the nutrition rates, their effects on health and their extension across different social sectors. Most countries develop multiple or conjoined policies, but there are different nuances: in targeting financial supports, in the attention to nutrition, in food education, in food distribution, and in the coverage to specific vulnerable groups by status, nationality or race. They also have implemented several programmes to boost and improve agricultural output with the expectation that this will contribute to food security and ending hunger.

Poverty, Nutrition and Education. Without being limited to it, the reduction of food insecurity, through the attention to the population's malnutrition levels, particularly that of mothers and children, is a policy that is articulated with the need to tackle poverty at any level. Thus, the policy also has links with other SDGs, especially SDGs 1, 3 and 4). Several countries use this form of implementation as a means of optimizing financial resources or the use of institutional infrastructures; or as a means to address specific social groups. Viet Nam (2018), Lao PDR (2018), Venezuela (2016), Guyana (2019), Cabo Verde (2018) and others, have partially or mainly adopted this line of action. Timor-Leste (2019), where households spend 70 per cent of their income on food, assumes as a centre of its actions the link between nutrition and education; promotes in schools an understanding of the importance of nutrition during the gestational phase and childhood, and provides through school meals certain nutritious components in food. Guyana (2019) fights against anaemia among pregnant women. Botswana (2017) orient its targets to the care of children under five years of age. In this line, Bangladesh (2017) has adopted a multidimensional approach aimed at breaking the intergenerational transmission of health and nutritional problems. It is expected to have an impact on the awareness about child/women nutrition and food. Iron-folic acid supplementation is provided to pregnant women. Through the Plan of Action on Nutrition, Bhutan (2018) distributes three eggs per child per week in schools. Lao PDR (2018) is expanding the policy *First 1,000 Days* focused on nutrition from preconception to two years, and Indonesia (2017) is developing a similar policy through the National Movement of Accelerating Nutrition. In 2017, the government of Pakistan (2019) launched the first National Food Security Policy and defined the Pakistan Multi-Sectoral Nutrition Strategy 2018-25 (PMNS) and the Dietary Guidelines for Better Nutrition (PMNS) aimed at improving the nutrition of women and children. Rwanda (2019) has developed different initiatives to increase the nutrients in food for children under 5 years of age and improve nutrition, by the distribution of nutrient powder packages for the use of families, providing milk at schools, and by community kitchens where parents participate, hence involving the families. Nepal (2017) has implemented nutrition programmes as well.

Transfers or subsidies. Such actions are a regularly used tool to address food insecurity problems of disadvantaged groups and families. The National Food and Nutrition Security Plan in South Africa (2019) provides social grants and nutritional education in addition to supporting agriculture. Despite such efforts, 3 million households cannot purchase sufficient food; of these, 91 per cent are black African. Singapore (2018) has implemented the ComCare programme based on monthly cash transfers to low-income families and care for households in urgent-need. The policy is complemented by the delivery of food through institutions such

as the Family Service Centres and Welfare Organisations (VWOs). In France (2016), 12 per cent live in food insecurity because of lack of money to buy food. Thus, France has oriented its efforts to provide economic support to family farms through the 2014 Act on the Future of Agriculture, Food and Forestry; it provides for farmer training, sustainable seeds, and natural plant protection methods. It also has developed a successful "local food" promotion strategy limited to small circuits between producers and consumers. Due to this strategy, organic markets have doubled in 5 years. With 30 per cent of the funds of the National School Meal Program (PNAE), Brazil (2017) supports family farmers in the provision of food to more than 40 million students at the basic school level. Also, as most food insecurity in the country is rural, the Programme for Food Acquisition from Family Agriculture Production purchases products from family farming, remunerating food producers that supply social and welfare entities. In Liechtenstein (2019), family farms receive financial support of different types. Sierra Leone (2019) and Argentina (2017) have oriented their efforts towards targeted vulnerable groups. In Jamaica (2018), interventions include the development of nutrition-related policies, delivery of quality food and nutrition services, among others. National programmes geared towards food security among infants and young children include the Poor Relief Programme and the Programme of Advancement through Health and Education (PATH). The first one provides cash and in-kind benefits that support nutrition; through the school feeding programme, PATH beneficiaries have access to school meals. Egypt (2018) has implemented a points-based subsidy system that replaces the distribution of in-kind primary products (oil, sugar, rice), with 50 different products that are freely chosen by users of the programme. The programme reaches 67 million people. In India (2017), Food's security programmes cover more than 800 million people by providing affordable access to grains.

Food distribution. It is a policy supported by different countries, and in some cases, it is implemented with various types of NGOs partnerships. Mexico (2018) reports a reduction in the population suffering from food insecurity and the number of children with chronic malnutrition. For the latter, the development of programmes aimed at the formation of community kitchens has been a central strategy. Hungary (2018) does not report a significant challenge in terms of food insecurity, but since 2014 distributes food to children in need. The lack of food for children living in families at risk of poverty is a recognized problem in Croatia (2019); 10.7 per cent of its population does not reach a satisfactory diet. A programme providing meals in school for children in disadvantaged regions was created in 2014. Additionally, under the Social Welfare Act the most disadvantaged are entitled to free hot meals, provided by NGOs, social supermarkets and soup kitchens. Meals can be taken to people who live alone. Policies have been complemented by the reduction of taxes on the purchase of food. In Malta (2018), the Food Aid Programme distributes, from 2016, food packages to the most disadvantaged households, particularly those that include children. Egypt (2018), in partnership with the Food Bank, distributed food to vulnerable groups. In conjunction with other measures, several NGOs have emerged in the Bahamas (2018) focused on the recovery, storage and distribution to communities of surplus food, particularly from the hotel industry.

Vulnerable or not sufficiently included groups. These are groups that are below the standard of living for different reasons, in countries with sound structural development. Coverage to these populations combines various strategies, and the family can be a fundamental benchmark for policy-making and support. For instance, Spain (2018), New Zealand (2019) and Singapore (2018) would be in that situation. In Australia (2018), the Model of First 1000 Days, implemented by communities and researchers, focuses on reducing under-nutrition for the period from conception to a child's second birthday; it was designed for application to Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander families and includes nutritional improvement and

community intervention in the family environment, and it is based on a comprehensive primary health care with a case management style approach. The government of Canada (2018) supports a set of multi-faceted programmes that target vulnerable populations, especially children, communities integrating disadvantaged race groups, and indigenous peoples who experience higher levels of food insecurity. For instance, the Aboriginal Head Start in Urban and Northern Communities, the Aboriginal Head Start on Reserve Programme, the Community Action Programme for Children, promote healthy nutrition for children, their school readiness and parenting skills, social support and parental/family involvement. In Belgium (2017), 1 per cent of the population is unable to afford a quality meal per day, and this trend is increasing; they were assisted through food banks in 2016. Israel (2019) reports low levels of hunger but among single-parent families in the Arab population food insecurity is very high. Through the National Nutrition Security Project, severely at-risk families are financially supported for one year in the purchase of food, which could be extended, after assessment, for two years for families who suffer from chronic distress. In the framework of the project, hands-on workshops are held to empower families and supplement what they lack to the extent possible. A change of atmosphere and the provision of "quality time" to families may grant them the strength to get ahead in the future. Family workshops include study/learning days on topics such as the exercise of rights, family and individual support, and quality family dynamics. Another goal emerging from the workshops is the consolidation of support groups for families accompanying the nutrition assistance. The project began as a pilot in 24 cities and due to its success, it has been institutionalized and extended to other 12 cities in 2017. In England (United Kingdom, 2019), 8 percent of adults suffer from food insecurity due to the lack of money. The government of the United Kindom is supporting the most vulnerable to afford and have access to nutritious food and has developed three Healthy Food Schemes to help children receive good nutrition and are reducing health inequalities: a) the Healthy Start Food Vouchers encourage a healthy diet for pregnant women, families and young children from low-income households in England, Wales and, currently, Scotland; b) the School Fruit and Vegetables Scheme provides children aged four to six years old at state-funded primary schools in England with a portion of fresh fruit to children each day; and c) the Nursery Milk Scheme provides a reimbursement to childcare providers for a daily portion of milk to children and babies. through initiatives such as the Healthy Start scheme and school meals for disadvantaged pupils. In Wales (UK, 2019), the Welsh Food, *Fun/Bwyd a Hwyl,* and the Keep Wales Tidy programmes supports schools, located in highly depressed areas, providing breakfast, lunch, education about healthy eating and wider enrichment activities and skills to develop food growing.

Programmes aimed at boosting agriculture. Several countries have implemented policies geared towards improving agricultural production by different means. Some emphasize creating food production-consumption chains, where organic farming and families play an important role within the system. For instance, France (2016) promotes family farming that creates wealth and jobs and respects ecosystems and biodiversity. In addition, innovative local authorities and players are promoting the use of local food systems based on short circuits between producers and consumers, developing more responsible, climate-smart agriculture and organic markets. In Liechtenstein (2019), the proportion of organic farming is very high and is increasing. The government protects the incomes of farmers to ensure that agricultural production is sustainable in the long term; farmers are provided with subsidies services to animal protection, conservation of the environment and other benefits are available to them. Switzerland (2016) has developed the 10YFP Sustainable Food Systems programme aimed at promoting sustainability all along the food value chain, from farm to fork.

In other countries, where the emphasis is on strengthening the agricultural sector and chains of food production, the role of the family is less reported. For example, in Kazakhstan (2019), the challenge is to increase labour productivity in agriculture. To address this issue, the latest technologies and modern production methods are being introduced in the agricultural sector. Singapore (2018), has developed important innovations in boosting agriculture. The Sino Singapore Jilin Food Zone, in Jilin, China is the first commercially driven agriculture project between Singapore and China. It is envisioned as a world-class, integrated, and sustainable model food zone. It focuses on developing an integrated value chain from agribusiness R&D, animal and pasture input, production, processing and other supporting industries, logistics, and sale, and aims to provide a steady supply of safe and high-quality food. It has also developed vertical farming through the Sky Greens policy, which is the world's first low carbon, a hydraulic-driven vertical farm in urban settings and has produced a variety of leafy vegetables.

Some countries report, within their agricultural policy framework, a focus on providing aid and support to small-scale farmers, and vulnerable groups. For instance, India (2017), develops programmes for sustainable and adaptive agriculture, also for supporting small and marginal farmers that depend on rain-fed agriculture, they constitute 80 per cent of all Indian farmers. New Zealand (2019), seeks to double the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers, particularly indigenous peoples. The government of Lao PDR (2018) is prioritizing two strategies: Accelerating the Implementation of the Agricultural Development Strategy 2020, which supports the shift from subsistence to market-oriented agricultural production that is adapted to climate change and is focused on smallholder farmers; and other related measures that include increasing the capacity of farmers' associations, improving agricultural production infrastructure, upgrading technologies, and strengthening farmers' access to inputs and financial products, which will all help to add value to farmers' agricultural products. Cabo Verde (2018) is implementing programmes to increase agricultural production and fisheries in a sustainable way, improving the income of vulnerable populations. Other countries are aiming policies to boost the agricultural sector, such as Jordan (2017), Kenya (2017), Nepal (2017), Nigeria (2017), Togo (2017), Bhutan (2017), and the State of Palestine (2018). Viet Nam (2018) Sudan (2018) and Rwanda (2019) are developing their plans to restructure the agricultural sector.

In some countries, there is less emphasis on creating strong food production chains, and instead, they focus their efforts on combating poverty through agricultural programmes. The family plays a central role, and it is considered as an asset for implementation. For instance, in Brazil (2017), a set of public policies are focused on combating hunger and food insecurity, ranging from social protection policies - especially income transfer programs - to specific policies to foment agricultural production, through credit provision and public programs for procuring the production of family farming. Costa Rica (2017) has developed a programme to promote family agriculture with a sustainable production perspective, and other programmes to get land, microcredits, and for women. The policy of El Salvador (2017) highly lies on the Programme of Family Agriculture, and it promotes local markets. Guatemala (2017) is implementing the Programme of Family Agriculture to Strengthen Peasant Economy, aimed at indigenous, rural and peasant families highly vulnerable. And Thailand (2017), within the Framework on the Promotion of Sustainable Agriculture has implemented programmes such as Organic Farming Improvement Project; the New Theory Agriculture Project aimed at building capacities of the individual, their families and community to reduce expenditures and increase incomes, and the use of limited resources efficiently.

Forms of malnutrition, including achieving goals by 2025

Nutrition is a multidimensional phenomenon and involves spillovers and close links with other SDGs. Malnutrition is part of the poverty circle and of its intergenerational transmission, with severe consequences in health (e. g., stunting, wasting); and it hinders the development of personal and social capabilities, including productivity. Poor nutrition, without hunger, has important health consequences as well, and it is usually addressed through the same instruments available and used for policies targeting malnutrition or undernourishment, such as medical and monitoring care, assistance and nutritional education, interventions in schools and support programmes aimed at old aged people and children. Although they depend on specific conditions and contexts, somewhat comprehensive policies have been implemented, and the set of instruments use or involve the family, and its members, for its implementation.

Some countries, such as Cambodia (2019), Jamaica (2018), Lesotho (2019), Afghanistan (2017), Bangladesh (2017), Botswana (2017), Guatemala (2017), Malaysia (2017), Nepal (2017), Nigeria (2017), Panama (2017), Indonesia (2017), Zimbabwe (2017), Bahamas (2018), Bhutan (2018), Guyana (2019), and Namiba (2018), report severe or significant undernourishment challenges, with high proportions of stunting in children under-5 years of age. Most of them report also having, though at lower levels, problems of wasting and underweigtht in children at that range of age. Additionally to such children's health challenges, other countries experience increasing the proportion of children who suffer from overweight or obesity. Bangladesh (2017), Bostswana (2017), El Salvador (2017), Malaysia (2017), Thailand (2017), and Zimbabwe (2017) face both malnutrition types of problems, undernourishment and overnourished.

These countries are implementing different programmes and efforts to tackle it. Women, especially in single-parent families, and children represent the leading figures in this dramatic situation. Despite achieving a significant improvement in food quality in urban areas, in Indonesia (2019) the calorie intake has been reduced, and anaemia among women in fertility ages or pregnant has increased alarmingly (54.9 per cent in 2016); 33 per cent of children under five years of age suffer from stunting. At the same time, it is one of the 59 countries that joined the global initiative Scaling Up Nutrition. It has introduced the Fish Movement (GEMARIKAN) programme to promote its consumption and awareness of good nutritional education. The focus of their strategy is that education changes parental behaviour and eating patterns, which have an effect on children. It is guided by the idea that "The lower the education of mothers, the worse nutritional status of children". To combat the high mortality rates in mothers and children under five years of age, Afghanistan (2017) has developed the framework of the Nutrition Action Framework, and a multi-sectoral fashion policy has been designing within this framework, but the initiative is dormant due to resource and capacity constraints. Turkey (2019) boosts appropriate education through the Nutrition-Friendly Schools Programme. Latvia (2018) has financially supported the School Milk, Vegetable and Fruit programme and large, critical low-income households receive social assistance from local governments. Aid is supported by the Fund for European Aid the Most Deprived. Pakistan (2019) has launched its Multi-Sectoral Nutrition Strategy 2018-25 with an emphasis on women and children. Turkey (2019) and Timor-Leste (2019) promote breastfeeding. Ecuador (2018) promotes breastfeeding as well, during the first six months of life and this practice has increased due to the programme Mission Ternura; Local Health Committees of the Guardianes de la Vida (Life Safeguards) sensitize communities to collaborate with pregnant women, and the Neighborhood Physician Strategy involves home visits to care for vulnerable women and children under five years of age. Rwanda (2019) is building information to define priorities.

Lao PDR (2018) and Sri Lanka (2018) report serious difficulties in defining strategies, and in addressing undernourishment and its complexity, while Sudan (2018) is reserved in its positions.

While overweight and obesity are phenomena associated with countries of sound structural development, they are not limited to these scenarios and occur in contexts with different economic and institutional capabilities. They don't seem to be concentrated in specific social or age groups, although they manifest more strongly in some of them. There is a significant prevalence of obesity and overweight among children under five years of age in several countries – including, for example, Costa Rica (2017), Slovenia (2017), Serbia (2019), Belgium (2017), Poland (2018) and Switzerland (2018). In Palau (2019), it reaches concerning ranges in the population, and its trend remains stable or increases among children or youth. With regards to the adult population, rates vary between 13 per cent and 44 per cent, as in Kuwait (2019). In Mongolia (2019), more than 46 per cent of mothers with children under five years of age are obese, and 49 per cent of men aged 19-49 per cent are overweight. Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019) report a sustained increase in overweight in children under five years of age, while in Poland, along with obesity, reaches 35 per cent. Spain (2018), on the other hand, reports concerns regarding adult population, where this problem is more frequent. Most countries do not register a specific policy or programmes to address these health problems, and some are defining it or announcing the intention to use public funds. They generally promote food education, the distribution of healthy lunches and breastfeeding.

Undernutrition and overnutrition may be both present in communities at the same time. In some cases, its co-presence corresponds to a higher prevalence of overweight and a concentration of undernourishment in children or the most disadvantaged groups in contexts of high or considerable food security. New Zealand (2019) represents an example of this situation. While the vast majority of its population has secure access to safe and nutritious food, obesity is a major health concern, particularly for Māori and Pacific peoples. The government is developing a population-based approach to obesity policy, and there is an ongoing focus on reducing obesity rates and increasing the quality of New Zealanders' diets, especially for the most vulnerable such as children, youth and ethnic groups. Other programmes are being implemented such as the Fruit in Schools initiative which provides fruit to students in primary and intermediate schools; and it has been successful, vastly improving health and education outcomes for students, as most school principals have noted. Kazakhastan (2019), reports a high standard of food security as well. However, there is an overweight rate of 54 per cent in the adult population, and about 19 per cent are obese; children's obesity is also a concern. The government has introduced uniform standards for school children's diet and schools since 2018: sweet and carbonated drinks have been banned, free or reduced-price meals are provided. In England (the United Kingdom 2019), 77 per cent of children aged 4-5 register a healthy weigh since 2006 and has implemented in 2016 the Childhood Obesity Plan and the UK-wide 2018 Soft Drinks Industry Levy, which have led to significant changes in the food and drinks industry and its products. There are also several programmes addressing obesity and overweigh, aimed to reduce the sugar levels and improve healthy eating habits in all the United Kingdom; and these have yielded positive outcomes.

In the second scenario, there are countries such as Ecuador (2018), which intends articulating policies to control obesity and overweight in children aged 5-11 (32 per cent). Lao PDR (2018) aims efforts to combat them as 21 per cent of children under-7 years of ages suffer from this condition. And Dominican Republic (2018) faces an increase relatively recent of overnutrition in adults. Ghana (2019) reports a relative success within the international programme Scaling

Up Nutrition and has implemented strategies towards improving nutrition according to the life cycle. Lesotho (2019) represents another example of this group.

Wasting in children under five years of age

According to the VNRs, wasting is associated with poverty, malnutrition of pregnant mothers, smoking, hygienic living conditions and safe water, nutritional education of families and different health problems. Their attention, therefore, also implies programmes linked to other areas regarding undernourishment, stunting and underweight, pointed out in the previous sections, and with other SDGs. Their presence registers considerable proportions (between 46 per cent and 11 per cent), even in countries that report achievements in their support systems, a decline in the trend, or an increase in food security, such as Pakistan (2019), Lao (2018); Bhutan (2018); Indonesia (2019); Sierra Leone (2016); Uganda (2016); Botswana (2017); Armenia (2018); Cambodia (2019); Namibia (2018); Jamaica (2018); Sri Lanka (2018); Vietnam (2018); Ghana (2019); Lesotho (2019); South Africa (2019); Guyana (2019); and Timor-Leste (2019). Other countries register 10-1 per cent proportions as, for instance, Saudi Arabia (2018); State of Palestine (2018); Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019); Palau (2019); Serbia (2019).

Family roles in social policies and the implementation of family-oriented policies to combat hunger and its related challenges

With regards to policies aiming at eliminating hunger, there are two scenarios represented by two groups of countries, which follow different strategies to achieve food security, and address their related challenges (stunting, wasting, underweight, undernourishment, overweight and obesity). They implement different family-oriented policies as part of their strategies.

1. **In the first scenario, countries with a well-developed welfare system and focused on big-scale agricultural production grounded in innovative technologies and developments, use family farming as a tool to end hunger among vulnerable groups and as part of the strategy of boosting agriculture to ensure food security. They see hunger as a problem focused on vulnerable or disadvantaged groups and, therefore, as a public policy issue, efforts are aimed at strengthening cohesion by including these groups and targetting interventions at them. It is at this level that the family plays a remarkable role. But also, this confirms that hunger is not just a matter of commercial or technological development, social policies matter. Families of vulnerable groups are included in social policy as governments in different countries boost family farming programmes. Through these programmes, families are targeted and receive financial support, training in agriculture and subsidise. Still, they are also administrators and means to strengthen agricultural production based on short circuits between producers and consumers, so that they contribute to the production of food, to its distribution and its commercialisation among family consumers. Family farms reinforce the chain connecting production-commercialisation-consumption of food. France (2016), Liechtenstein (2019), Switzerland (2016) and New Zealand (2019) represent a good example of family-oriented policies used as an important part of their agricultural strategy to end hunger and ensure food security. They report providing farmer training, sustainable seeds, boost small circuits of the provision**

of local foods between producers and consumers, besides other CT and subsidises to families.

The second scenario is represented by countries which face strong challenges resulting from hunger (e. g., stunting, wasting, undernourishment) and food insecurity and their reduction represents a significant challenge for social survival. Within this scenario, the main issue regarding food security is to address larger groups of the population who are experiencing such situations. And the family plays important roles in some countries, not only as a targeted beneficiary but more remarkably, as a resource or agents to ensure food security. Some countries implement family-oriented policies in different areas as part of their strategies to face such challenges. In the area of agriculture, many countries provide cash transfers and other subsidies targeted to vulnerable families. Still, family farming is the main family-oriented policy reported by eight countries to boost agriculture production, reduce hunger and poverty by increasing farmer families' income. Brazil (2017), India (2017), Lao PDR (2018), Cabo Verde (2018), Costa Rica (2017), El Salvador (2017), Guatemala (2017) and Thailand (2017) implement family farming programmes, providing microcredits for women and farmers, cash transfers, subsidises and social protection support to indigenous, rural and peasant families highly vulnerable.

Therefore, family farming programmes are being used in both scenarios by 12 developed and developing countries, as important tools to reduce hunger (by increasing the income of poor families and enhance agricultural production. As this policy has been successful, family farming should be promoted in other countries to achieve those ends.

2. On the other hand, in the area of education and health programmes, most countries which face malnutrition and its challenging outcomes (stunting, wasting, underweight, undernourishment, overweight and obesity) implement social policies to provide medical care, nutritional education in schools and school meals. But only a few of them implement family related policies as part of their strategy to tackle such challenges. Australia (2018), Canada (2018), Israel (2019) and Indonesia (2019) report implementing combined and holistic family and community interventions in health, in promoting children's school readiness, parenting skills and parental/family involvement addressed at ethnic and severely at-risk families as part of their strategies to reduce malnutrition and its outcomes. They are aimed at changing their nutritional behaviours that, in turn, will benefit their children. Countries also support the development of parenting skills which will have effects on different areas of child development. Families act in such policies as administrators and agents. In other programmes, such as providing food in schools or in community kitchens, parents are also involved strengthening community ties while providing such services. Countries report positive outcomes from these programmes.

As families are important actors in the socialisation and transmission of healthy patterns of nutrition, social policies that include families and parents as part of their policies to end hunger and promote healthy nutrition styles should be incorporated in other countries facing these challenges.

3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING

SDG 3. Ensure Healthy Lives and Promote Well-being for All at All Ages

Health for all and at all ages is a requirement for a society to be sustainable over time. As it implies a multidimensional approach, health is also grounded in family's and its members' well-being in multiple forms and at different stages in life. The conditions in which generations reproduce is a crucial meeting point between health and family. Family-related targets under SDG 3 of relevance are: i) target 3.1: reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births; ii) target 3.2: ending preventable deaths of new-borns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births; and iii) target 3.7: ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive healthcare services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes.

Decreasing tendencies in mortality rates

Not all countries provide in their VNRs precise and sufficient information about the targets. Despite this, all countries report trends towards lower mortality ratios in at least one of the three targets included. These trends unfold in a variety and diversified contextual framework, depending on the point of departure considered, the progress in its reduction or the fact of having achieved the desired goal for 2030 in any of the targets. Some trends may represent significant achievements, and still show critical situations. It is the case of Afghanistan (2017), which registers a Maternity Mortality Ratio (MMR) of 1200/100,000 live births; or Ghana (2019), which reports a Mortality Ratio for children Under-5 years of age (U5MR) of 55/1,000 live births; or Ethiopia (2017), which has reduced the MMR to 412/100,000 live births. Viet Nam (2018) notes that there are important challenges in reducing children's mortality ratios because even if these are declining, the process is very slow among ethnic minority groups where it is persistently high. Few countries, such as Egypt (2018), have reached the 2030 goal in more than one of the targets. This diversified declining trend includes the following countries. In 2016: Colombia, Montenegro and Uganda; in 2017: Bangladesh, El Salvador, India and Jordan; in 2018: Armenia, Bahamas, Ecuador, Greece, Hungary, Jamaica, Romania and Sudan; and in 2019: Lesotho, Palau, Saint Lucia, Serbia, Sierra Leone, Turkey and Vanuatu.

Current situation in countries: an overview of country profiles

As pointed out above, the intersection between family and health lies in the reproduction field and, in turn, this unfolds based on medical and clinical attention, on the one hand, and educational and preventive measures, on the other. Health systems tend to focus on the first

one, and other agents and institutions tend to address the second. In the first one, the emphasis is placed in sustaining life and preventing deaths, in the second it is set in providing a sociocultural framework to avoid undesired or unsafe pregnancies – and from a broad perspective, an unsustainable reproduction – and to empower women and youth, in their reproductive decisions. Within this framework attention towards specific problems and specific family members constitute family-oriented policies, or implicit family policies.

To define an overall perspective about the targets, three tables have been elaborated to show different profiles and take as a main classification point of reference the goals to be achieved by 2030 in the mortality targets considered in this report regarding SDG 3: in MMR, 70 maternal deaths per100,000 live births, 25 deaths in children under the age of five years old per 1,000 live births (U5MR); and 12 deaths in new-born children (in the first month of life) (NMR) or infants under one-year-old per 1,000 live births (IMR).

The classification uses values from 1 to 3 in the mortality targets, and each one represents in the tables a rank of proximity to the goals. The first profile (Table 1) includes those countries that have achieved those goals in at least two of the targets considered: in MMR would be those that achieved the 70/100,000 live births or less; in the U5MR, 25/1,000 or less; in IMR and NMR, 12/1,000 live births or less. In the table, these countries are classified with value number 1. The second profile (Table 2) represents countries that may have reached any of the goals but register at least two targets which fall within the rank of surpassing the threshold of any of the three goals negatively or doubled them negatively. The ranks are defined as follows: in MMR, 71-140/100,000 live births; in U5MR, 26-50/1,000 live births; and in NMR/IMR, 13-23/1,000 live births. In the table, countries that fall within these ranks are classified with number 2. The third profile (Table 3) groups countries that are in a critical situation. They fall within the rank of having registered deaths that more than doubled, tripled or more negatively any of these mortality goals. The ranks are defined as follows: in MMR, 141/100,000 live births or more; in U5MR, 51/1,000 live births or more; and in NMR/IMR, 25/1,000 live births or more. In the table, countries within these ranks are classified with number 3.

Additionally, the tables include those targets related to girls' and adolescents' pregnancy ratios between the ages 10-14 (APR 10-14) and 15-19 (APR 15-19), the use of contraceptive methods (UCM) and births attended by skilled medical personnel (SMP) in order to provide a view about the associations between the referenced mortality targets and the later. As there aren't specific goals to be achieved by 2030 for these targets, their classification is not based on specific criteria and the four ranks established are rather descriptive and indicative, with values from 1 to 4. For girl's/adolescent's pregnancy ratios ranks are based over 1,000 live births. As countries report very low pregnancy rates for those girls and adolescents between 10-14 ages, they were ranked as follows: up to 5, between 6 and 10; 11-20; and more than 20. On the other hand, countries report higher adolescent's pregnancy ratios between ages 15-19, and therefore different ranks were set: 0-25, 26-50, 51-75, and ratios of more than 75. For the targets related to the use of modern contraceptive methods (UCM) and births attended by skilled medical personnel (SMP) values from 1 to 4 have been used as well, but they are reversely ordered and represent percentages: those countries reporting 75 per cent or more (value 1 in the tables), between 74-50, 49-25, and 24-0 per cent. In all the targets reported, value 1 represents the best situation and values 3 and 4 the most challenging.

Profile 1: Countries that achieved at least 2 mortality targets' goals.

Country	MMR	U5MR	IMR/ NMR	APR 10-14	APR 15-19	UCM	SMP
Argentina 2017	1	1	1	1	3	1	1
Azerbaijan	1	1	1	----*	3	4	1
Chile	1	1	1	1	2	3	1
Jordan	1	1	2	1	1	----	1
Malaysia	1	1	1	----	1	2	1
Maldives	1	1	1	----	----	----	---
Thailand	1	1	1	----	3	1	1
Uruguay	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Bahrain 2018	1	1	----	----	----	----	1
Cabo Verde	---	1	1	----	----	----	1
Latvia	1	----	1	----	----	----	----
Lebanon	1	----	1	----	----	----	----
Malta	1	1	1	----	----	----	----
México	1	1	----	----	----	----	----
Singapore	1	1	1	----	----	----	----
United Arab Emirates	1	1	----	----	----	2	---
Croatia 2019	1	---	1	----	----	----	----
Israel	1	1	1	----	----	----	1
Kazakhstan	1	----	1	----	----	----	---
Kuwait	1	1	1	----	----	----	1
Mauritius	1	1	2	----	----	----	---
Mongolia	1	1	2	----	3	----	1
State of Palestine	1	1	2	----	----	2	1
Turkey	1	1	1	----	----	----	----

* ---- = no information provided in this target

Several countries are not included in Table 1, such as Canada (2018), Iceland (2019), Sweden (2017), Italy (2017), Spain (2018), the United Kingdom (2019), Japan (2017), Netherlands (2017) and Liechtenstein (2019) since they report the lack of relevant mortality challenges and have sound healthcare systems. When comparing this table with the following two, there seems to be a remarkable consistency between MMR reduction and the decline in the neonatal and infant mortality ratios (NMR/IMR). There also seems to be an association between the achievement of the mortality goals and the increase in the attendance of births by skilled medical personnel, although this one may not be a requirement in achieving the goals. In most countries included in the table, the area which appears to be more challenging or weak in terms of policy assistance or efficacy is girl's and adolescent's pregnancy and the limited use of modern contraceptive methods. The contrast between these targets and those related to mortality is considerable. It could be further argued that in not a few countries, despite having extended or solid healthcare systems, reproductive health education is not reaching the depth that this system would imply not only in medical or clinical terms.

Profile 2: Countries with 2 targets which negatively are beyond mortality goals or double them.

Country	MMR	U5MR	IMR/ NMR	APR 10-14	APR 15-19	UCM	SMP
Belize 2017	2	1	2	----*	3	----	---
Botswana	2	2	2	----	----	----	---
Guatemala	2	2	2	1	4	3	2
Panama	2	1	2	----	----	----	---
Bhutan 2018	2	---	2	----	----	----	---
Guyana 2019	2	---	2	----	----	----	1
Iraq	---	2*	2*	----	----	----	---
South Africa	---	2	2	----	----	----	---
Timor-Leste	2	2	----	----	3	----	2

* ---- = no information provided for this target

In this intermediate profile, presented in Table 2, can be appreciated, as well, the association between the MMR and NMR/IMR, although with higher values representing more challenges. There is also a correspondence with the level of birth attendance by SMP, which is reported as being insufficient or inadequate. Likewise, the mortality results, despite being high, are in a better situation than those related to girl's and adolescent's pregnancy rates and the extension of the use of modern contraceptive methods. The disparity between these targets show a concentration addressed to reducing mortality, and this may not be alien to the resources and the range of interventions used to address both. When reproductive health systems are not robust, child and adolescent pregnancy increase the recurrence of MMR.

The first significant data of the third profile, shown in Table 3, implies more critical situations, and it is represented by the high MMR, which is higher than those for children. Despite that, there is some consistency between both areas of attention, the severe and negative consistency of MMR is revealed on how the instruments and means to achieve those goals appear to be less efficient. In this profile, coexists a critical situation both, in the mortality targets and those related to reproductive health. Unlike the first profile, Table 3 represents a very challenging view in all the targets, especially in the use of modern contraceptive methods and adolescent pregnancy. Within this framework, the area related to birth attendance by skilled medical personnel shows an intermediate situation in various countries, and even some of them report similar coverage as those of the first profile. Certainly, this interpretation requires more additional considerations to be included to explain MMR.

Profile 3: Countries which negatively more than doubled, tripled or more at least one mortality target goals

Country	MMR	U5MR	IMR/ NMR	APR 10-14	APR 15-19	UCM	SMP
Afghanistan 2017	3	3	---	----	3	----	2
Ethiopia	3	3	---	3*	3*	----	2
Kenya	3	3	3	----	----	----	2
Nepal	3	2	3	----	----	3	2
Nigeria	---	3	3	----	----	----	2
Togo	3	----	----	----	----	4	---

Zimbabwe		3	3	3	-----	-----	----	---
Namibia	2018	3	3	2	---	3	2	1
Ghana	2019	3	3	3	----	----	3	1
Pakistan		3	3	3	2*	2*	3	2
Indonesia	2017, 2019	3	2	3	----	----	2	2

Healthcare system and reproductive health

Provision of healthcare may be understood as a family-related policy, and countries follow different strategies according to their different resources available, such as financial and institutional resources. Healthcare systems with universal or extended coverage, which likely include attention to reproductive health, are reported in several countries. For instance, universal and free healthcare services are reported by Colombia (2016), Venezuela (2016), Argentina (2017), Azerbaijan (2017), Belgium (2017), Costa Rica (2017), Albania (2018), Australia (2018), Bahrain (2018), Greece (2018), Malta (2018), Spain (2018), Switzerland (2018), Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019), Iceland (2019), Israel (2019), Poland (2018), and the United Kingdom (2019). Some countries report having challenges in their healthcare systems. For example, Belize (2017) notes difficulties in providing services in all the regions, lack of transport to reach healthcare facilities, inequalities, and lack of trust in the system efficiency; Canada (2018) and New Zealand (2019) report the disparity of service provision between indigenous and non-indigenous population; Viet Nam (2018) acknowledges that provision is limited to essential services which are fragile, and Mauritius (2019) and Kuwait (2019) report systems financially fragile. Some countries count on Compulsory Healthcare Insurance, with differential costs according to the age of beneficiaries, such as Netherlands (2017), Slovakia (2018) and Liechtenstein (2019); Latvia (2018) has introduced the compulsory healthcare insurance as well and requires monitoring to detect and include the most disadvantaged groups. Other countries have mixed healthcare systems, such as Chile (2017), Malaysia (2017), Bahamas (2018), and Singapore (2018).

Overall view of the family-related targets reported

Healthcare systems with universal or very extended coverage that explicitly include sexual and reproductive health services tend to reduce the possibilities of maternal and children's deaths. They also have a positive effect on reducing girls' and adolescents' pregnancy. But their positive effect does not reinforce other areas of healthcare. Although necessary, the systems are not likely to provide sufficient and qualified services, and efficiency in attention implies other factors or variables that put into question the potentiality of its effects.

Within the area of mortality consideration, maternal mortality seems likely to be the most delicate issue, although it is relatively in proportion to the behaviour of the children's deaths variable. Even more, there are influential factors which imply both: problems in quality or the professionalisation of personnel; administrative weaknesses and lack of coordination between medical agencies; regional, geographical and social disparities, and in addressing vulnerable groups and ethnic minorities, these are some of the factors that make access to healthcare services more difficult or limit their efficiency. Among others, Botswana (2017), Guatemala (2017), Panama (2017) and Ghana ((2019) are particularly affected by some of the conditions noted before. The MMR and NMR/IMR are also influenced by complications that would be predictably controllable: haemorrhages and infections during childbirth; breathing infections, child suffocation and perinatal complications, and unhealthy conditions. For instance,

Indonesia (2017, 2019), Afghanistan (2017), Belize (2017) and Mongolia (2019) have expressed their concern over one or various of these issues. Additionally, there is a large spectrum of transmission and contagion of illnesses, such as HIV/AIDS which has an extended presence in several African regions.

There are different strategies to tackle mortality rates. United Arab Emirates (2018) have instituted The Women and Childbirth Monitoring System, aimed at assessing each pregnancy stage. Ghana (2019) has provided open access to pregnant women without having the national healthcare card. Indonesia (2019) promotes the Child Health Sector Minimum Service Insurance. Pakistan (2019) has developed a rural ambulance network and the Basic Health Units. Malaysia (2017) created the Flying Doctors to reach remote areas with Non-Government-Organizations' (NGO) support. Egypt (2016, 2018) encourages the formation Corporative Social Responsibility with private organizations' partnerships; and Viet Nam (2018) has approved the Law on Medical Examination and Treatment.

Reproductive health, including girls'/adolescents' pregnancy, early marriage and the culture of using appropriate contraceptive methods is, in contrast, the area less attended in the field of family and health. It is likely that, due to different reasons, several countries were relying more on the strategy which emphasizes medical or clinical lens to address pregnant women at different ages. They assumed, as a complementary factor, attending girls'/adolescents' pregnancy or the widespread coverage of modern contraceptive methods. The issue is not only medical, and it involves other educational, cultural, and religious dimensions. In this sense, it could be argued that healthcare systems face limitations and require the inclusion of other factors and work on interventions grounded in the sociocultural dimension.

Although it is a complex phenomenon, a significant fact is that reproductive health poses a significant challenge in different countries – including, for instance, Botswana (2017), Bhutan (2018), Lesotho (2019), Mongolia (2019), Costa Rica (2017), Serbia (2019), Sierra Leone (2019) and Indonesia (2019). Latvia has overtly acknowledged that reproductive health issues haven't been appropriately conducted, and South Africa (2019) has reported that adolescents' deaths by due to pregnancy are increasing.

As in MMR, various strategies coexist. Azerbaijan has promoted the State Programme on Improvement of Maternal and Child Health, aimed at providing medical attention and preventive care to mothers and children, but it doesn't report a robust orientation towards reproductive health education and of a widespread culture of modern contraceptive methods use. The Human Rights Commission has called Parliament to adopt the bill On Reproduction Health to address the problem under modern standards. Botswana (2017) considers the need for implementing a Sexual and Reproductive Strategy, aimed at reducing AMR and provide attention to early pregnancy. El Salvador (2017) has boosted the Multisectoral National Strategy of Adolescent Pregnancy Protection; Malta (2018) has elaborated its own Maternal Sexual Health Strategy; Poland (2018) has developed a programme, aimed at protecting reproduction in order to better coordinate efforts towards pregnant women's attention. Costa Rica (2017) has implemented the National Strategy to Access to the Male and Female Condom through public institutions, and Jamaica (2018) is determined to extend the reproductive health strategy through the National Strategic Plan for Adolescents and Preadolescents.

Family roles in health policies and the implementation of family-oriented policies

Several countries report decreasing MMR and NMR/IMR, though in some of them remain high, especially regarding MMR. There are two central family-oriented policies aimed at reducing them. The first one is through the provision of medical and clinical attention. The second one is focused on educational and preventive measures in health reproductive aimed at reducing Adolescent's Pregnancy Rates (APR, among girls aged 10-14 and 15-19), increase the Use of Contraceptive Methods (UCM) among women aged 15-49, and increase the proportion of births attended by Skilled Medical Personnel (SMP). There are three scenarios where countries are grouped according to their level of achievements in both areas. As countries report lower MMR they also tend to report lower NMR/IMR; but the more challenging or weak area regards girls' and adolescents' pregnancy and the limited use of contraceptive methods. Besides the fact that most countries do not provide information about these targets when they do, it reveals concerning outcomes, with high APR and low levels UCM, compared to the achievements in the mortality targets. These trends tend to be more negative in the second and third scenarios.

1. Therefore, the first conclusion is that countries are implementing family-oriented policies to reduce MMR and NMR/IMR as part of their main strategy to improve health and wellbeing, but as they emphasise reducing mortality primarily through medical and clinical attention, they face limits and are insufficient to achieve these targets, especially regarding MMR. They do not include a more comprehensive perspective and are not coordinated with other family-oriented policies that could contribute to reducing mortality rates, such as those targeted to prevent adolescent's pregnancy and increase the use of contraceptive methods among women aged 15-49.

2. The second conclusion is that countries implement very few or weak family-oriented policies aimed at reducing APR and increasing the UCM among adolescents and women. As they are strictly related to gender-biased values, more policies at the sociocultural level must be implemented.

3. The previous conclusions relate with other two regarding the role of families in healthcare policies. The persistent high MMR in some countries should be an issue of important concern and puts into question the policy strategies followed so far by many countries, where the family seems to be seen almost exclusively from a medical and clinical viewpoint. Families are included in these healthcare policies primarily as targets, and this view seems to be part of the persistent challenge. On the other hand, much more needs to be done in the area of reproductive health policies as countries do not provide enough information. When they do, results are negative, specifically regarding adolescent pregnancy, using contraceptive methods and reproductive health education. Family policies targeted to this area do not seem to be yielding positive outcomes. The persistent high MMR confirms this. Countries report that a fundamental challenge to overcome adolescent pregnancy and the use of contraceptive methods is the prevailing sociocultural biased gender standards that hinder women and girls' empowerment.

4. Therefore, another important conclusion is that healthcare systems need to broaden their perspective so that women and girls are not attended almost exclusively under the medical and clinical lens but under other family impact lenses. In this regard, strategies and policies aimed at developing sociocultural

views, values and practices that reinforce women's and girls' reproductive health rights are necessary. Reproductive health strategies and policies must work, therefore, on coordinating the different institutions that are implementing reproductive health policies in order to develop more holistic views on how to address challenges such as MMR, adolescent pregnancy and use of contraceptive methods, while empowering and reinforcing reproductive health rights of women and girls. Such task implies assuming that reproductive health is a multidimensional phenomenon. And, as such, requires to go beyond the clinical and medical view, and include other aspects that have a strong impact on reproductive health policies, and that are grounded in the sociocultural level.

5. **The overall conclusion is that an imbalance between the two spheres of family-oriented policies persists which may imply that there aren't strong positive spill-overs and mutual reinforcements among them, reducing the overall efficacy of healthcare policies, particularly in developing countries.**

SDG 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Achieving education goals, either in formal or informal settings, is crucial for developing capabilities for many areas of life. It is not only a means to build different skills for the labour markets, but of great importance, it is also a means to develop different potentials, to create and enforce values and norms, to learn how to relate with others, to ourselves and our social and natural environment in a sustainable way.

As the family is also an institution where socialisation and learning play a central role in the formation of individuals, it is strictly linked to education, and measures targeting one of them may have spill-over effects on the other one. For example, education in values at schools such as respect and tolerance may have a positive impact on parent-child relationships, as well as emotional education in managing and processing emotions with parents, siblings and with members of their communities. Quality in education may provide some skills and capabilities in abstract thinking, reasoning, competence and organisation of information; it may also provide knowledge about societies and environment that promote inclusion and a better socially functioning children in their families and communities. Education in schools may also have spill-overs in other areas, such as preventing girl and adolescent pregnancy while school meals provision will likely contribute to the reduction of poverty and better nutrition. Therefore, education may play a fundamental role in supporting the socialisation that takes

place in the family and may contribute to the formation of children's full potential to be socially capable of functioning in societies respecting the ecological environment. Thus, educational policies may be seen through the family lens, having an impact as indirect or implicit policies. Family-related targets under SDG 4 that are of relevance are: i) target 4.1: ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes; ii) Target 4.2 By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education.

Free, equitable and quality of primary and secondary education

Target number 4.1 includes two levels in the provision of education: the first one regards extending the coverage, observed through enrolment and completion rates; and the second refers more properly to the quality provided, measured by proficiency levels in the areas of literacy and mathematics. While data regarding coverage is necessary, it provides only quantitative information about how the system is including more or fewer children in this service; instead, data regarding proficiency provides information regarding the outcomes in children's development of some capabilities, in the quality of education and its results. In this sense, educational policies may be considered as implicit family policies, especially those regarding improving the quality of education provided, as they are not targeted specifically to the family but have significant impacts on it. Therefore, while achieving an extended coverage in the provision of education is important, its quality and its outcomes may have a greater impact on families.

Achievements in extending coverage

In contrast to other goals, such as ending poverty and hunger, where - in addition to social security policies - specific policies and programmes are designed to tackle these challenges, education is provided mainly as part of a system instituted by governments. In this sense, extending the coverage of the different educational levels and improving its quality is one of the main goals. Countries report in their VNRs different achievements related to the coverage and quality of education provided through their systems. Several countries have met or are reaching the universal provision of elementary or primary school level reported by general or net enrolment and completion rates, and many of them report having high enrolment or completion rates in secondary education. These achievements in basic education coverage can be observed within a wide spectrum of countries' development. Some provide information only regarding primary education coverage, with enrolment rates above 90 per cent, such as Estonia (2016), Korea (2016), Norway (2016), Albania (2018), Bhutan (2017), Ecuador (2018), Namibia (2018), Slovakia (2018).

But several countries, which have achieved high or almost universal provision of primary education, report additionally significant achievements in coverage through enrolment and completion rates for secondary education higher than 80 per cent: Azerbaijan (2017), Botswana (2017), Cyprus (2017), Denmark (2017), Jordan (2017), Qatar (2017), Slovenia (2017), Sweden (2017), Australia (2017), Bahamas (2018), Bahrain (2018), Canada (2018), Ireland (2018), Jamaica (2018), Malta (2018), Saudi Arabia (2018), Singapore (2018), Sri Lanka (2018), Switzerland (2018), United Arab Emirates (2018), Croatia (2019), Kazakhstan (2019), Kuwait (2019), Liechtenstein (2019), Philippines (2019), Saint Lucia (2019), South Africa (2019), Turkey (2019), United Kingdom (2019), and Viet Nam (2019). Many countries point out that these achievements are due, among other things, to the universal and free policy in

providing primary or both primary and secondary education. In other cases, such as in Laos (2018) they result from implementing other policies, such as extending and transforming primary schools into complete schools, which provide the full range of classes in the primary cycle, enabling many more children to complete their primary education, and decreasing the disparities in primary enrolment.

Another group of countries face significant challenges to provide wide coverage of secondary or even primary education. For instance, some report enrolment rates between 70 per cent and less than 80 per cent in secondary education, and between 80 per cent and 90 per cent in the primary level, such as Lebanon (2018), Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019), Mauritius (2019), and Venezuela (2016). Other countries, instead, report primary education enrolment rates higher than 90 per cent, but secondary rates are lower, between 60 per cent and 68 per cent: Dominican Republic (2018), Sierra Leone (2019) and State of Palestine (2018), are in this situation. Other countries, such as Iraq (2019), Cabo Verde (2018), Sudan (2018), Cambodia (2019), Tanzania (2019), Lesotho (2019), and Timor-Leste (2019), report even lower enrolment rates in secondary education, ranging between 55 per cent and 43 per cent. Vanuatu (2019) and Rwanda (2019) face a serious challenge providing coverage of primary and secondary education: the first one registered a 64 per cent completion rate in the 6th year of primary education, and 30 per cent in the 13th year of secondary; the second, achieved only 28 per cent in primary enrolment rate, facing great challenges in completing this cycle. Uganda (2016) face the challenge of extending the coverage at this level, as well. Philippines (2016) face challenges in survival and completion rates in primary and secondary education, especially regarding boys.

Important challenges have been pointed out by various countries that hinder improvements in the extension of coverage. The most important ones are the high, and - in some countries - the increasing density of school groups, high drop-out rates, and the insufficient quality of the education being provided. Differences and disparities among ethnic and vulnerable groups hinder the extension of coverage and completion of primary and secondary education cycles, as well. These challenges are more prevalent among countries with low coverage, enrolment and completion rates of primary and secondary education. Gender parity or nearly equal has been a significant achievement reported by several countries, regardless of their level of development, at least in primary education, being in many cases more favourable regarding girls. Still, gender inequality remains a challenge in some countries at the secondary level.

Achievements in proficiency

Providing quality of education is an important challenge for most countries, not only those which face difficulties in extending education coverage. Quality of education can be appreciated, among other things, by the levels of proficiency achieved by primary and secondary students in literacy and mathematics. Several countries report information about this target, but there are important disparities among them. A group of them have significant achievements on this regard, reporting high levels of proficiency according to the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), the Progress International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) or the Trends in International Maths and Science Study (TIMMS) measurements and with gender equity in the performance of boys and girls. For instance, France (2016), Norway (2016), Belgium (2017), Denmark (2017), Ireland (2018), Slovenia (2017), Sweden (2017), Australia (2018), Canada (2018), Poland (2018), Slovakia (2018), Switzerland (2018), Singapore (2018), Azerbaijan (2019), Liechtenstein (2019), Chile (2019), and England and Wales in the United Kingdom (2019), report proportions of proficiency in literacy and mathematics at different grades in primary and secondary education higher than

70 per cent. Some of them report some gender differences in performance. Sweden (2017) for example, notices that boys perform poorer than girls, but the later experience mental ill-health at a greater extent than boys; in Chile (2019), girls perform better in mathematics at lower grades in primary, but boys do so in secondary. Other countries, such as Norway (2016), despite its usual high level in performance proficiency, it has been reduced due, among other things, to the increased number of immigrants and the difficulties to overcome their disparities in the educational system. Palau (2019) reports 96 per cent of students in grade 6th having achieved minimum competency levels in reading and numeracy, according to national measurements.

An important challenge some countries face is represented by language and cultural background differences for reaching performance proficiency, even though they may have a good level of it. In Iceland (2019), for example, PISA results showed that students' performance at the completion of compulsory school in 2019 was worse than in 2012. A reform was made in 2014 to reverse this trend, and measures are being implemented to improve reading skills and comprehension upon completion of compulsory school so that at least 90 per cent of students can read and understand what they read. Recent results indicate that attitudes towards the language are changing and that the competency of children and young people in Icelandic schools is deteriorating. Also, almost 20 per cent of youths leave school without completing upper secondary education, which is twice higher than the EU average. Some of the reasons are the challenges faced by students with an immigrant background. This shifting language attitude is a trend also observed by other countries, such as Norway (2016), Belgium (2017) and Sweden (2017), and programmes are being implemented in these countries to reinforce the local language. Other countries face similar challenges regarding the influence ethnic languages and culture place in achieving performance proficiency and education inclusion of those groups. For example, Lithuania's (2018) PISA results show that the achievements of 15-year-olds are below the EU average, and the relevant problems include lower learning outcomes among boys and the great impact of the social, economic and cultural context of students' achievements; New Zealand (2019) reports similar inequities among ethnic groups which have insufficient progress.

Another group of countries have significant challenges in achieving performance proficiency in reading and numeracy skills, with low proportions and higher gender inequities. For instance, Cyprus (2017) reported the largest low achievers of the European Union in the PISA tests for mathematics (43 per cent), science (42 per cent), and it was the third-largest in reading (36 per cent) in 2012; and results have further deteriorated in all tested areas. In South Africa (2019), 71 per cent of primary school children achieved a minimum proficiency in mathematics, but by the end of lower secondary school, only 10 per cent did. Uganda (2016) reported low proportions in children and young people of literacy (reading) and numeracy (maths) at P3 (56 per cent, 69 per cent), and at P6 (40 per cent, 41 per cent) in 2013. In Mexico (2018), 5 out of 10 students have not learned the necessary lessons in language and communication to a satisfactory degree, and this insufficiency rises to 6 out of 10 for mathematics; among indigenous groups proficiency proportions are lower than the general population. Saint Lucia (2019) registered in 4th grade 60 per cent in literacy and 50 per cent in mathematics. The national examinations at 3rd, 6th, 9th, and 12th grade levels in the Bahamas (2018) revealed widening performance gaps between private and public schools and between boys and girls. Private schools tend to perform better than public schools and girls perform better than boys. In Namibia (2018) the quality of education is often unsatisfactory, as 45 per cent of children grade 5th achieved proficiency in English, whilst 63 per cent of the same grade achieved proficiency in mathematics; pupils grade 7th fared even worse, with just 48 per cent and 41 per cent achieving proficiency in English and mathematics respectively; at secondary

school, there were unacceptably high rates of repetition, 30 per cent of grade 8th repeated it and more than one-third of all students by grade 10th drop-out. In Rwanda (2019) students in 2nd grade achieved 45 per cent level of competency in literacy and 32 per cent in numeracy, and in 5th grade, 44 per cent in literacy and 38 per cent in numeracy. In Ghana (2019), primary school pupils continue to be challenged in both English and mathematics, being worse in the later, with only 22 per cent in 4th grade and 25 per cent 6th grade achieving proficiency in mathematics, compared to 37 per cent and 38 per cent in those grades respectively regarding English. Less than half of pupils in both 4th and 6th achieved minimum competency in both subjects; girls perform better in English and boys in mathematics. Guyana (2019) has performed poorly as only 14 per cent of pupils in 6th grade achieved the minimum standard in mathematics and 60 per cent in English. Dominican Republic (2018) was one of the countries which obtained the poorest results in the PISA and other regional measurements. In Timor-Leste (2019), 66 per cent of children speak a different language at home from the language they use at school, and this has been a challenge for proficiency achievement in literacy and mathematics; another challenge refers to the high proportion of students whose ages do not correspond to that level: 44 per cent of children aged 13-15 still attend to primary education.

Policies and programmes

To improve enrolment

Most countries have implemented different policies and measures to improve enrolment, completion and quality of primary and secondary education. Some countries have focused on improving enrolment in basic education through providing free and equal education, different subsidies and assistance such as food meals and school materials and investing in better school facilities. For instance, the programme Educating Girls in Egypt (2016) is aimed to raise the number of girls enrolled in the different levels of education, and to decrease the number of drop-outs. Kenya (2017) and Sierra Leone (2017), Turkey (2017) and Tanzania (2017) have implemented free tuition fees, school materials, school meals, to basic education schools To address dropouts and promote enrolment, Lesotho (2019) provides school fee subsidies, two school meals in all primary schools, and girl's health reproduction education to prevent teenage pregnancy and child marriage to the poorest districts; it also implements zero tolerance for violence policies at school, including sexual violence to girls. Turkey (2017), additionally, provides free transportation for students living in remote areas.

To improve quality and proficiency

Lebanon (2018), Mexico (2018), Poland (2018), Romania (2018) Chile (2019), Guyana (2019), Iceland (2019), South Africa (2019) have undergone through educational reforms to improve the quality of education, particularly targeting policies and programmes to enhance proficiency in mathematics, literacy skills and other educational outcomes, improve the quality of teaching and learning opportunities in primary and secondary education. Bahamas (2018), for example, launched the project Investing in Students and Programmes for the Innovative Reform of Education, funded by the Inter-American Development Bank. Lebanon (2018) is institutionalising a plan which involves students, parents and teachers in the school improvements plans. Chile (2019) is implementing the programmes All to the Classroom (Todos al Aula), All Learning (Todos Aprenden), I Read First (Leo Primero), to reach universal provision of primary and secondary education and tackle dropout rates and improve reading skills. Mauritius (2019) is implementing a reform to ensure enrolment rates and quality of education in primary and secondary. It includes a holistic education programme and after

school sports and fitness along with the emotional development of children. In the Philippines (2019), the government entered into a partnership with the private sector and civil society to improve access and quality of education, through programmes offering tax incentives for the private sector.

Other countries address policies and programmes aimed at improving quality of education focusing on providing education in specialised schools and all-day schools, with a holistic perspective. The Central Schools in Bhutan (2018), for instance, includes a network of 600 schools with a small number of students, and they involve the engagement of parents. Egypt (2018) has launched the strategy for transforming education which includes a new generation of schools, the Nile Schools and the Egyptian-Japanese schools offered for basic education students. They inculcate values of respect and discipline, among other things, and are aimed at improving parenting skills. Greece (2018) and Lithuania (2018), on the other hand, have implemented all-day schools to ensure equality and quality of education, they allow organising children's involvement and education at school all day long. Lithuania provides, additionally, psychological assistance to ensure students' security and enhance their mental health, and psychological support and pedagogical assistance services will be provided at 700 schools.

Changes in curricula and new subjects

Several countries, besides having implemented reforms aimed at updating their curricula to improve proficiency achievements among primary and secondary students, report tuning them in with SDGs values and skills. In this sense, along with enhancing the achievement of proficiency skills in mathematics, literacy and other areas, some of them have included in their reforms the instilling of specific values and skills, such as civic education, ethics of responsibility, respect and tolerance, and emotional development and management. For instance, Singapore (2018) has as a priority the development in students of "soft skills" and has implemented the Character and Citizen Education to inculcate civic and citizenship values and attitudes; social and emotional competencies; and cross-cultural skills to character building. This approach also aims to reduce the current over-emphasis on academic grades and establish a balance with non-academic interests, by broadening the definition of success, introducing non-academic subjects such as physical education, arts and music. A similar trend is reported by Sri Lanka (2018) and the United Arab Emirates (2018). The later will incorporate in school curricula fundamental principles of global citizenship based on four themes: personality and values, personal ethics, the role of the individual and society, civic education and cultural education. The goal is to encourage students to acquire competencies such as empathy, tolerance, critical thinking, communication, respect diversity of cultures, and being engaged in the dialogue on global environment as well as social and economic issues. Iceland (2019) focuses its educational policy on providing education that enhances the principles of democracy and human rights, equality, health and welfare, sustainability and creativity. Croatia (2019) has implemented a curricular reform which will be introduced into all primary and secondary schools, and it is focused on seven cross topics, such as learning how to learn, personal and social development, health, and civic education and sustainable development. The emphasis of the reform is on promoting the autonomy of both teachers and students, fostering critical thinking, problem-solving and evaluation based on learning outcomes. Liechtenstein (2019) emphasises Education for Sustainable Development in the new curriculum at the primary and secondary level; teaching is skills-based, solution-oriented and situation-specific, with the focus on the application of knowledge. In the interest of holistic education, another priority in the new curriculum is the development of personal and social skills that are designed to enable children and young people to treat themselves and others in a responsible, respectful

and careful manner. With the disciplines of Nature, People, Society children look at norms and values, a culture of peace, non-violence, questions of faith and ethical issues, among others. Mauritius (2019), Mongolia (2019) and Palau (2019) include in their school curricula subjects that promote physical health, emotional development, climate change, and sustainable development to ensure holistic development.

Programmes that address language diversity and provide social inclusion

To provide quality and equal education to all children, other countries report implementing policies and programmes to address the challenges placed by the diversity of languages used by children belonging to ethnic groups or with an immigrant background. For example, Greece (2018) has developed a programme to promote the integration of refugee children into the Greek educational system, specifically into public primary and secondary schools. Concerned with changes in attitudes towards the language and the disparities in academic performance and dropouts, more prevalent among students with an immigrant background, Iceland (2019) is promoting Icelandic language and its role as the official language, through the publication of books and other multifaceted actions at all levels of education. It is also implementing the Action Plan on Immigrants' Issues, aimed at providing opportunities and to value and respect the knowledge and experience of immigrants. In order to ensure equal opportunities in education for children belonging to national minorities and ethnic groups and as a result of a decline in the number of pupils, Slovakia (2018) has placed a set of measures ensuring that primary schools with the language of instruction of a national minority are exempt from the rationalisation of the school network. Furthermore, pupils belonging to a national minority are entitled to receive transport subsidies to attend the nearest kindergarten and primary school with the language of instruction of their respective national minority. Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019) is reforming its educational system, and it is under consideration providing Roma population with their language in primary school. In Lesotho (2019), the Education Language Policy will enable inclusion of children from the language minority groups. As 66 per cent of children speak a different language at home, Timor-Leste (2019) is addressing such communication challenge through the Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education project, aimed at using children's language in primary schools. Viet Nam (2018) is addressing this challenge through the establishment of the system of ethnic minority boarding schools and semi-boarding schools, and New Zealand (2019) is including Maory and Pacific students by the provision of a specific curriculum to them at secondary schools. Other countries address inequality, though they are not focused on language. Belgium (2017) is implementing educational policies geared at social inclusiveness, and it is conducting major school reforms to foster intercultural understanding, tolerance and mutual respect in a society that is becoming increasingly multicultural and multi-ethnic. In Cyprus (2017) the programme School and Social Inclusion Actions aims to contribute alleviating inequalities in schools and to build core skills and key competences, among other things. And the United Kingdom (2019) has several programmes to include vulnerable groups in education.

Early childhood education.

Most countries acknowledge the fundamental role played by early childhood education and its effect for developing actual and future children's potentialities and skills, and they provide information in their VNRs about this target.

Reports on children's development in health, learning and psychosocial wellbeing

Several countries report the implementation of different measures and policies to provide early childhood education (ECE), but few report results indicating whether children are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychological wellbeing. The United Kingdom (2019) reports very high child development scores: 82 per cent of children aged 5 to 6-years old met the expected standard of phonics and coding. Nigeria (2017) provides specific information about this target: about 78 per cent of children under-5 years of age are developmentally on track in learning, 93 per cent are on health, and 64 per cent are on psychological wellbeing; there are slight differences by sex of children, being girls in a better condition. The program Home-Grown School Feeding has contributed to these results. Guyana (2019) has made progress in ECE reaching 58 per cent in literacy and 61 per cent in numeracy; measures such as the introduction of ECE resource kits, continuous surveillance and training programmes to teachers have contributed to these improvements. In Serbia (2019), among children aged 3 to 5 years old were on track in the three areas of development, but there are disparities between urban and rural areas. Coverage of these services to children of those ages is 50 per cent, access being lower in rural areas, and only 9 per cent of marginalised children and 6 per cent of Roma population have access. These disparities can further exacerbate lifelong inequity. Tanzania (2019) and Tonga (2019 are implementing programmes to improve primary school readiness and competences (the School Readiness Programme and the Pacific Early Age Reading and Learning, respectively). They have been successful, as enrolment, competences and readiness have increased. Tonga is also setting up community play-based centres for children below four years of age, and partnerships with faith-based organisations and village communities contribute to extending ECE. In Rwanda (2019), 6 out of 10 children under-5-years of age are developmentally on track in at least three of the four domains. In Ghana (2019), early childhood development of children under-5 years has worsened to 68 per cent in an index score in 2017.

Reports on preschool enrolment

Some countries report the provision of ECE and preschool education and provide information regarding enrolment rates or the extension of coverage, especially for children aged 3 to 5 years old. All of them report disparities between rural and urban areas, among minority groups and the most disadvantage groups and have developed policies, programmes and awareness campaigns about the importance of nurturing care for young children for their current and future development. Six countries provide information about preschool education with rates higher than 90 per cent. For instance, Canada (2017) has developed a national framework of ECE and care, which sets the collaboration at the federal, provincial and territorial governments in their provision. It is aimed at increasing the quality, accessibility, affordability, flexibility and inclusivity in early learning and child care, in particular for families that need childcare the most. One of the programmes towards these ends is Learn Canada 2020. Ireland (2018) participation in early childhood education was above the EU average and is approaching 100 per cent. The Action Plan focuses on addressing and prioritising the educational needs of children and young people from disadvantaged communities. Kazakhstan (2019) reports coverage of children aged 3-6 years old of 95 per cent, but ECE to children aged 1-3 years old is still low (31 per cent). However, to develop inclusive education, special preschool organisations, as well as special groups providing psychological, medical and pedagogical consultations, are being created. In 2018, an average of 20 per cent of kindergartens in the country had created the conditions for inclusive education. Jamaica (2018), Latvia (2018), and Hungary (2018) also reported enrolment rates of preschool education higher than 90 per cent. In addition, Jamaica has established the Early Childhood Commission, aimed at enforcing the

policies, standards and regulations; and Hungary has extended ECE to Roma population with 91 per cent of children attending to kindergarten. Albania (2018) and **Bahrain** (2018) report enrolment rates in kindergartens of 81 per cent and 82 per cent respectively. Portugal (2017) reports a high level of attendance at preschool education, but the private sector provides a large share; there are plans to extend it by the government.

Seven countries report very low preschool enrolment rates for children aged 3 to 5 years old or younger children, from 50 per cent or less. In Armenia (2018), Dominican Republic (2018), Timor-Leste (2019) and Turkey (2019), about half of 3 to 5-year-old children have attended preschool education. All of them have programmes targeted to increase attendance, among others, such as Turkey, which has set as obligatory for nurseries, day-care centres and children clubs operated by the private sector to allocate 3 per cent of their current capacities for disadvantaged and poor children. Bhutan (2018), Namibia (2018) and Iraq (2019) have the lowest preschool enrolment rates for children aged 3-5 years old, of 21 per cent, 13 per cent and 3 per cent respectively. Bhutan plans to extend its coverage through the establishment of ECE centres in every Chiwog. Estonia (2018) and Kenya (2017) provide ECE, and Greece (2018) has extended access to for refugees' children, though they do not report enrolment rates. Cabo Verde (2018), Jordan (2017) and Uganda (2016) are developing frameworks and programmes to provide preschool education to children.

Reports on pre-primary education

Other countries report preschool enrolment rates but additionally notice the provision of ECE in organised learning institutions one year before children entering primary school, being compulsory or not, and with a free public provision or not. Some of them have developed programmes which include the family or the parents as collaborative agents in ECE. For example, France (2016) has implemented within its ECE programmes, measures based on innovative and collaborative work with parents living in extreme poverty. Germany (2016) has promoted research in this field and has taken measures to improve equality of opportunity for children, the quality in day care, promotes language education, and provide parents with the support they need in the process of ECE. It is connected to an important initiative of enhancing the work-life balance by improving childcare services and encouraging fathers and mothers to share family responsibilities, allowing both parents of young children to work, through the Elterngeld Plus parental benefit scheme of parental leave. The United Kingdom (2019) has developed a wide set of policies and measures, delivering near-universal participation in organised education one year before the official primary school entry age, and also provides a universal entitlement for ECE services for children from 3 years of age, and children aged two years from disadvantaged families. It provides disadvantaged parents with tools and advice to support children's early language and reading at home to develop literacy and numeracy competencies and emotional development. It also provides family services, and families are involved in different ECE programmes. Switzerland (2018) has significantly expanded its early intervention family support services in recent decades, and the challenges faced include training enough specialist staff, improving the financial sustainability of childcare, setting up a national monitoring and reporting system and early language support. In New Zealand (2019) almost all children have participated in early childhood education (ECE), with providers including Maori immersion services, services run by parents, and others provided in private homes. Some measures implemented are aimed at reducing the cost barrier, such as funding 20 hours of ECE per week for 3 to 5-year-olds. Maori and Pacific children's participation rates are slightly lower than the national average. Lesotho (2019) reports a low pre-primary enrolment rate (40 per cent) of children aged five years old, coverage being lower in poorest

regions and those in the mountains. ECE enrolment (children aged 3-5) also stands low (30 per cent), and it is provided mainly by the private sector. However, government efforts and policies include a holistic perspective about child and family development. Its national policy is underpinned by respect for and involvement of parents, grandparents, adoptive parents and legal guardians in facilitating access and participation in ECE in their communities.

Some countries have made compulsory pre-primary or one year before entering primary education, at age 5, such as Cyprus (2017), Lithuania (2018), Malta (2018) and Romania (2018). Malta has reached free universal coverage of pre-primary children and among preschool children aged four years old; it also offers childcare services to children up to the preschool age of 3 years old, whose parents are in employment or education. Cyprus provides free pre-primary education and has established standards and monitoring for ECE day nurseries. But it has a low participation rate in early childhood education (89.6 per cent), as well as Romania (87 per cent), both compared to the European Union average (93.2 per cent). Lithuania also provides ECE and reports a 91 per cent of enrolment rate in pre-primary school. Lebanon (2018), Chile (2019) and Slovakia (2019) are planning to introduce compulsory pre-primary. Currently, Slovakia provides preschool education free of charge, and Chile and Lebanon report a 97 per cent and 80 per cent enrolment rate, respectively. United Arab Emirates (2018) has mandated pre-school education and all other forms of early childhood care, and it is one of its policy priorities. It is developing a legislative framework to define quality standards and ensure inspection of the services provided by nurseries; it has launched campaigns of awareness of the importance of ECE and care, implemented programmes that provide guidelines for better parenting, and it has developed educational materials and tools that empower parents. Liechtenstein (2019) public education begins for children with kindergarten at the age of 4; it is at parents' discretion whether their children attend kindergarten. However, the second year of kinder is obligatory for children whose mother tongue is not German.

In other countries, although pre-primary education is not compulsory, high rates of enrolment both in preschool and pre-primary education are reported. For instance, Iceland (2019) reports very high enrolment rates in ECE: 97 per cent of 3 to 5-year-olds attended preschool, 95 per cent of 2-year-olds, and 47 per cent of 1-year-olds; it is provided mostly by local authorities, and the challenge has been to provide children with preschools directly after the conclusion of parental leave, or from the age of one year. Australia (2018), offers universal access to pre-primary education. In Slovenia (2017), 92 per cent of 5-year old children were enrolled in kindergartens, respectively. Mexico (2018) report 91 per cent of pre-primary enrolment rates, and most preschool children were enrolled in the National Education System. Poland (2018) report 81per cent of pre-primary and preschool enrolment rate, provides numerous facilities for running crèches and children's clubs and in some municipalities subsidises childcare at home as a public service. In Viet Nam (2018), the pre-primary enrolment rate for 5-year-old children was 98; preschool coverage is also high (92 per cent) for 3-5-year-old children, and it has increased to 27 per cent in children under-3 years of age. In South Africa (2019), almost 95 per cent of the country's children participate in organised learning in the year before the official primary school entry age; and completion of early childhood education (0-4 years) rose to 42 per cent due to the enhanced implementation of the Children's Act and School Act. Singapore (2018) has developed the Nurturing Early Learners programme, which provides a comprehensive range of resources targeted at 4 to 6-year-old children. For preschool education, it has established the Ministry of Education Kindergartens. In Ghana (2019), participation rate in pre-primary increased to 88 per cent, but ECE enrolment has decreased to 68 per cent. Palau (2019), reports an 83 per cent coverage of pre-primary attendance, and also provides pre-

primary education through ten community-based Head Start programme. Saint Lucia (2019) and Kuwait (2019) report 80 per cent enrolment rate in pre-primary; in Kuwait, it is free provided and it is not compulsory, and preschool enrolment rate among children under-5 years old reached 94 per cent.

A group of countries report enrolment rates in preschool and pre-primary school lower than 80 per cent. The government of Azerbaijan (2019) launched the state-funded pre-primary education at basic schools, and the enrolment rate of 5-year old children increased to 75 per cent. ECE has been implemented by the programme Involving Children Aged 3-5 in Community-Based Preschool Education, financially supported by UNICEF and EU, and covers 100 communities in capital Baku and 10 districts; legislations have been approved to rule preschools and their standards. Sri Lanka (2018), Qatar (2017), Vanuatu (2019) and Cambodia (2019), report a coverage ranging between 70 per cent and 75 per cent; and in the State of Palestine and Sri Lanka, preschool enrolment rates have increased to 56 per cent and to 50 per cent. Tanzania (2019), Lao (2018) and Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019) report rates of coverage between 60 per cent and 50 per cent. Rwanda (2019) has 3,210 nursery schools and registers a meagre (28 per cent) of pre-primary enrolment rate.

Family roles in education policies and the implementation of family-oriented policies

1. **The most relevant aspect in the relationship between education and family is that there is a consistent underutilisation of the family as a resource for education-related policies design and implementation. Overall, there is a lack of clarity about the link between family and education, which results in the absence of incorporating a family lens approach.**

2. **Quality in education is crucial for achieving sustainable development, and countries are implementing different measures to improve it. Few countries, though, report family-oriented policies integrated into their policy strategy to improve the quality of education. Regarding basic education, only Bhutan (2018), Egypt (2018) and Lebanon (2018) include in their school plans the engagement of parents, through improving parenting skills, to improve school proficiency and competence of their children.**

3. **Some countries, such as Singapore (2018), Sri Lanka (2018), United Arab Emirates (2018), Iceland (2019), Croatia (2019), Liechtenstein (2019), Mauritius (2019), Mongolia (2019), and Palau (2019) report changes in their curricula introducing new values, the developing of "soft skills" and promoting ethical stands based on civic culture and human rights, but they do not involve parents and the family to reinforce such values and attitudes. Despite these changes in curricula are an achievement, such countries underutilise social aspects and structures that could have impacts on the quality of education, such as the family. They do not consider the monitoring, accompanying and socialisation roles that the family could play as a vehicle to promote such values and stands in children which, in turn, may have broader positive effects in the society and the culture. Therefore, parents and families should be included as intergenerational transmission agents of such values and stands.**

4. **Most countries (56) have Early Childhood Education (ECE) programmes and pre-primary education and have expanded their coverage to include more children.**

However, most of them, as well as the campaigns implemented to sensitise the population about the importance of nurturing care for young children for their current and future development, do not involve parents and the family as part of their social policy strategy to improve the quality of education. Only a few countries (France 2016, Germany 2016, the United Kingdom 2019, Switzerland 2018, New Zealand 2019, Lesotho 2019, and the United Arab Emirates 2018) report family-oriented policies to empower parents and families. They include them as collaborative agents in providing ECE; and only three (Germany 2016, Iceland 2019, and the United Kingdom 2019) link the provision of ECE as a means to improve the family-work balance. As parents and families play a fundamental role in the socialisation of their children and their school performance, they should be included as central agents in educational policies addressed to improve school proficiency and performance in early and basic education programmes. If the family is not incorporated as a fundamental link in the chain of institutions providing education, the positive social impact of education may be reduced. Including the family in that dimension involves linking the educational achievements in intergenerational terms, particularly in ECE and basic education. The involvement of parents is crucial to achieving better results. Well educated parents should be seen as a resource to educate the next generation better.

SDG 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

Gender equality remains a central and widespread concern for most countries, as reported in 2016, 2017, 2018 and 2019 VNRs. All reporting Governments have or are in the process of incorporating issues related to gender equality at the legislative level by creating and/or amending laws addressing the prohibition of child marriage and female genital mutilation (FMG); different family issues, such as maternity, paternity or parental shared leave; discrimination and minimum wage, among others. Additionally, most countries reiterate the importance of implementing social and public policies aimed at furthering gender equality. In this section, the relevant SDG 5 targets 5.3 and 5.4 are presented. Target 5.3 refers to harmful practices, specifically FGM and child marriage; and 5.4 relates to the recognition and value of unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate.

Elimination of harmful practices towards women and girls.

Female Genital Mutilation

Countries that report the practice of FGM are Egypt (2016), Norway (2016), Ethiopia (2017), Kenya (2017), Nigeria (2017), Portugal (2017), Ireland (2018) and Sierra Leone (2019). In Sierra Leone (2019) and Egypt (2016), the practice is so widespread that almost all girls and women between the ages of 15 and 49 have undergone FGM. The latter highlights the efforts made by the National Population Council, in collaboration with international entities, such as UNICEF, UNFPA and UN Women, to change attitudes towards the FGM by empowering women and girls and encourage its abandonment. Egypt (2016) reports that there has been a significant change of FGM perceptions in the society as a result of the actions taken by the Government, civil society and UN partners. Due to these efforts, the number of girls between the age of 15 and 49 that underwent FMG in 2016 dropped significantly compared to 2015. Ethiopia (2017) has been repealing and replacing women-biased regulations by new rules and regulations benefiting women and points out that discriminatory perceptions are being removed progressively. Nigeria (2017) has implemented (at a federal level) a Massive Awareness Creation and Sensitisation on gender equality, and this has facilitated the implementation of programmes aimed at the elimination of child genital mutilation.

Ireland (2018), Portugal (2017) and Ethiopia (2017) underline the limitation of current efforts and policies addressing FGM. For example, despite the fact that Ireland (2018) made it a legal offence to remove or mutilate girls' genitals, the practice prevails. A report suggests that the number of girls at risk of FGM is significant (158 cases represent a low-risk scenario and 1,632 a high-risk scenario). Ongoing efforts concentrate on raising awareness and implementing appropriate referral and care pathways. In Portugal (2017), efforts have focused mainly on migrant communities and report the need for implementing a sound structure and introducing coordinated effects. The Third National Action Programme is implementing instruments such as prevention and awareness, integration and empowerment of women, training on FGM for members of the Children and Youth Protection Commissions, professionals in various areas, and police forces. It is proposed to take more definite action in at-risk communities of migrants since Portugal is among the countries at risk according to the World Health Organization. In this context, it is worth noticing the new format of awareness campaigns, which now include the distribution of leaflets in the main national airports for passengers travelling to countries where this practice occurs. In Belgium (2017), all French-speaking subnational governments jointly adopted a plan containing several measures focusing, among others, on FGM. It is important to note that FGM is a practice not grounded in European cultural traditions and its presence in these European countries is due to migration from mostly African countries. However, none of them mentions the immigrants' original countries. Also, Switzerland (2018) and Belgium (2017) stress their commitment to eradicating FGM internationally and through bilateral cooperation.

Countries' efforts towards eliminating FGM have concentrated on legislative changes which have not been sufficient as well as the other measures implemented noted above. Therefore, FGM remains a significant challenge.

Child Marriage

In relation to target 5.3 many countries have restricted their policies to the judicial framework by implementing laws setting or increasing the minimum age for marriage to eradicate or reduce the occurrence of child marriage. In Mexico (2018), 28 states (out of thirty-two) no longer have exceptions in their legislation allowing minors to get married. Zimbabwe (2017)

has made it illegal, from 2016, to contrive marriage before the age of 18. Similarly, Azerbaijan (2017) amended the minimum age for marriage to 18, equalling the minimum age for boys; as a result, child marriage dropped significantly.

A few other countries, including Chile (2017), Uruguay (2017) and Bahrain (2018), have increased the age of legal marriage to 16. Although this does not entirely comply with upholding children's rights, it represents a substantial improvement according to the Convention of the Rights of the Child. For example, Bahrain (2018) reports almost no marriages before the age of 15 and very low marriages before the age of 18. Chile´s (2017) results follow a similar trend: marriages before the age of 15 were eliminated.

Belize (2017) sets the legal age of marriage to 14 years old. However, "the cases of child marriage are among the Mestizo and Maya groups in the Cayo and Toledo districts, indicating that these practices are tied to cultural ideas". Similarly, in Serbia (2019), child marriage is low in the general population but pervasive among those living in Roma settlements. The Strategy for Social Inclusion of Roma Men and Women has defined measures to prevent early and forced marriages. Ghana (2019) reports a geographical concentration of child marriage, mainly in the Upper West, Northern and Volta regions. To curb this, the government has implemented a framework aimed at undertaking public sensitization through the use of popular Ghanaian personalities as goodwill ambassadors.

El Salvador (2017), Guatemala (2017), India (2017), Indonesia (2017), the State of Palestine (2018), Ghana (2019), Kuwait (2019), South Africa (2019), Timor-Leste (2019), Saint Lucia (2019) and Sierra Leone (2019) also report a decrease in the rates of child marriage. Out of these, India (2017) shows the most significant improvements, as the proportion of women aged 20-24 years who married before 18 years dropped to 26 per cent in 2016 from 47 per cent in 2006.

Early marriage is reported to be directly linked with child pregnancy - and thus represents an additional challenge to gender equality - in Azerbaijan (2017), Republica Dominicana (2018), Lao (2018), Iraq (2019) and Turkey (2019). Other countries including Bangladesh (2017), Nigeria (2017), Indonesia (2019), Serbia (2019) and Lesotho (2019) underline the detrimental effects that child marriage has for woman's education. In response, The Ministry of Women Affairs & Social Development in Nigeria (2017) has developed a National Strategic Plan (2016-2021) aimed at Ending Child Marriage in Nigeria and has also established child protection subgroups. So far, 92 cases have been revised. In Bangladesh (2017), efforts to improve women's access to education include providing financial help to female students. Nigeria (2019) stresses the negative impact that child marriage has on women's health as it increases contracting VVF, HIV and AIDS by young girls.

Child marriage is still a widespread practice, especially in the developing world. Bangladesh (2017) shows the highest number with over half of women aged 20-24 having their first marriage before the age of 18. Zimbabwe (2017), Dominican Republic (2018) and Sierra Leone (2019) are among the second-highest, with approximately one-third of women between 20-45 being married or in union before the age of 18. Egypt (2016) reports high numbers, but the exact amount is unknown. Uganda (2016), Afghanistan (2017), Ethiopia (2017) and Vietnam (2018) also mention the occurrence of child marriage.

Overall, child marriage eradication has been mainly addressed by most countries through changes in their legislative frameworks. They have yielded positive results in reducing child

marriage. Still, they seem to have reached a limit in their effectiveness as there are deep barriers at the sociocultural level, in the still prevailing traditional gender values. Hence, measures at this level could engender changes towards its eradication.

Unpaid care and domestic work

Gender imbalances in care and domestic work distribution

Data shows that on average women spend more time than men on unpaid care and domestic work in most countries. Only Switzerland (2016) and Iceland (2019) report a relatively equal distribution of domestic and caring responsibilities. In Europe, France (2016), Belgium (2017), Czech Republic (2017), Ireland (2018), Spain (2018) and Sweden (2017) highlight disproportional division of domestic and caring work. The time women spend in domestic and caring work is five times higher than for men in Ireland (2018) and twice in Spain (2018). In Belgium (2017) women spend on average 8.5 hours a week more than men in domestic labour. In response, Sweden's (2017) feminist policy dedicates one of its six targets to introducing equal distribution of unpaid care and housework.

On the other hand, although no data regarding the division of domestic labour among the genders is given, Liechtenstein (2019) presents positive results in overall satisfaction in this regard. A family policy working group has been established to address the political conditions needed for improving the compatibility of work and family life. As part of the policy, families with children of up to 12 years old were surveyed. The survey found that 90 per cent of those surveyed were satisfied or relatively satisfied with their workload (90 per cent of the women and 88 per cent of men).

When considering Latin American countries, in Mexico (2018), Chile (2017), Guatemala (2017), Dominican Republic (2018), Belize (2017), Uruguay (2017) and Argentina (2017) women spend significantly more time in caring and house unpaid work. In both Dominican Republic (2018) and Argentina (2017), women dedicate twice as much time than men to unpaid work. Additionally, Mexico (2918), Guatemala (2017), Dominican Republic (2018) and Belize (2017) stress the need to recognise and value unpaid work.

In the rest of the world, Bangladesh (2017), Bahrain (2018), Viet Nam (2018), Ghana (2019), the state of Palestine (2018), Afghanistan (2017), Rwanda (2019) Tajikistan (2017) and Zimbabwe (2017) show the same discrepancy in unpaid work done by women as compared to men. In Bangladesh (2017) and the state of Palestine (2018), this number is three times and four times higher for women, respectively. A study by ActionAid and MOLISA in Viet Nam (2018) shows that women on average spend five hours in unpaid care work, two hours more than men. In areas with low-quality public services, this number goes up to nine. Additionally, women in the northern mountainous region spend nearly 2 hours each day collecting fuel and water. In Palau (2019), there is no data regarding the gender division of labour within the household, but it is widely recognised that women carry multiple burdens with work, caregiving and customary responsibilities. Efforts to recognise unpaid and domestic work began with the Bureau of Planning and Budget Census of 2015, where persons engaged in domestic force were classified as "in the labour force".

Finally, New Zealand (2019) reports the same problem and underlines the lack of value, recognition and understanding given to unpaid domestic work. The government is working to better understand the contribution and value of unpaid work.

Work-family balance

Concerning target 5.4, a common problem mentioned by many countries is the low participation of women in the workforce. Countries that point out low levels of women's participation in the labour market are Uganda (2016), Turkey, (2016), Belize (2017), India (2017), Qatar (2017), Albania (2018) Saudi Arabia (2018), Mongolia (2019), Japan (2017), Uruguay (2017), Palau (2019) and Rwanda (2019). A few of these countries including, Japan (2017), Albania (2018), Uruguay (2017), Palau (2019) and Rwanda (2019), link women's disadvantages regarding work and career to their roles as caregivers and the elevated time dedicated to it. For instance, although in Singapore (2018) 72 per cent of women participate in the labour market, they often adopt the role of caregivers for their children and/or the older family members, in addition to undertaking household chores resulting in an overall decrease in their participation in the labour market. Similarly, Palau (2019), Uruguay (2017) and Rwanda (2019) noticed that lack of time, due to caring and domestic responsibilities, explains why women generally have a lower income than men. Rwanda (2019) emphasises the disadvantageous effects that lack of time has not only in women's economic autonomy but also in personal and professional development. Japan (2017), on the other hand, links men's lack of involvement in domestic work to lack of time due to their long work hours.

Within the many strategies and efforts exerted by countries to counter these results, four general approaches can be observed. Countries in the first approach focus on encouraging a better work-family balance for women and offer some social security measures - such as paid maternity leave- but have not yet implemented an infrastructure ready to support this conciliation, nor do they provide other relevant public services. For example, Bahrain (2018), Bhutan (2018), India (2017), Iraq (2019), Philippines (2019) and Mauritius (2019), all offer maternity leave. In addition, Bahrain (2018) offers flexible working hours but reports the limited results of these policies. The Philippines Telecommunicating Act encourages women's participation in the workforce by allowing them to telecommute; India (2017) protects women's wages during maternity leave; and Mauritius (2019) has amended the Employment Rights Act to allow payment of remuneration for mothers working less than twelve months service, previously only those with 12 months of service and above were entitled to remuneration.

Further examples of this approach include Palau (2019) and the United Arab Emirates (2018), which are both awaiting new legislative changes, reflecting a positive attitude towards valuing unpaid care work. Palau´s (2019) maternity leave legislation, is intended to provide universal maternity leave for all women and is awaiting action in parliament, and the United Arab Emirates Women's (2018) Gender Balance Council has proposed increasing full maternity leave to three months.

The second approach shows the recognition and value of unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies, mainly in the form of childcare services and maternity leave but does not necessarily encourage shared responsibility of unpaid work within the household and between partners. The Republic of Korea (2016), for instance, has imposed strong regulations to ensure maternity leave and the mandatory provision of childcare services by companies. In Japan (2017), a revised law concerning childcare and women's employment obliges employers to establish the necessary measures to provide childcare leave. Similarly, in 2018, Turkey (2019) made it obligatory to provide nursery and day-care services in the workplace. Additionally, tax exemptions were

accorded for the expenses of day-care and an amendment of the Labour Law in 2016 gave women the right to work part-time for some period after birth.

While the above efforts put the responsibility of providing childcare on the employers some other countries, including Argentina (2017), Costa Rica (2017), Malta (2018), Kazakhstan (2019) and Pakistan (2019), refer to the involvement of the state in the provision of childcare. Costa Rica (2017), for example, has created childcare provision centres for the poor and the indigenous population and has recently extended the centres to incorporate middle-class families. In Pakistan (2019), significant funds were allocated by the Punja and Sindh provinces for the establishment of day-care centres at the workplace. Malta (2018) implemented the Klab 3, which prioritises providing an educational and structured experience through childcare service, open from 7 am to 6 pm. Saudi Arabia (2018) provides affordable childcare to working women focusing on the family as the unit of society. In Malaysia (2017) various measures have been taken to encourage women's return to the workforce, including career comeback programmes, grants for establishing childcare centres at workplaces, increasing maternity leave and offering flexible work arrangements.

Other countries, including France (2016), Germany (2016), Norway (2016), Lithuania (2018), Poland (2018), Singapore (2018), Switzerland (2018), Croatia (2019), Iceland (2019), Australia (2018, Hungary (2018) and Canada (2018) highlight the efforts related to men's involvement in domestic and unpaid care work in the context of SDG 5, particularly in the form of paternity leave. In these countries, social protection policies and public services not only focus on providing paid maternity leave and childcare services but also encourage equal share in caring and domestic work responsibilities, thus constituting the third approach. For example, Australia (2018), Lithuania (2018) and Canada (2018) provide shared parental leave for both parents, as well as flexible working hours for women. The latter also reports significant investments in improving the quality, flexibility and access to childcare, especially for low-income families. However, as gender inequality still persists in Canada (2018), the government has proposed a new parental sharing benefit to promote equal distribution of family responsibility between spouses.

France (2016) and Hungary (2018), on the other hand, provide paternal and maternal leave but separately. In Hungary (2018), families are entitled to tax allowance based on the number of children they have, and childcare institutions have been established as part of the "Growing Chances" program, which aims to further the employment of Roma women (a disadvantaged group). Additionally, organisation of childcare is mandatory if the number of residents under the age of three in a settlement exceeds 50 or if five families need day-care services. The labour code of 2012 obliges employers to continue employing women part-time until the child reaches the age of three. Alternatively, women can return to their job once the child is six-months-old and continue to receive benefits.

Lithuania (2018) and Poland (2018) extended the right to parental leave to grandparents or/and close relatives. In the former, parental leave can be taken until the child turns three, and a maternity and paternity allowance can be paid until the child is two. If an allowance is chosen until a child reaches the age of one year, wages are compensated 100 per cent. Alternatively, compensation in the first and second years equals 70 per cent and 40 per cent of wages respectively. In addition, women can work part-time and simultaneously receive benefits. On the other hand, in 2017, the right of 3-year olds to pre-school education came into force in Poland (2018). Alongside, the TODDLER program was created for the development of

childcare facilities for children up to three years old. Significant budget has been dedicated to the program in the hopes of improving the quality and numbers of childcare facilities.

Singapore (2018) has exerted efforts to raise awareness of men's responsibilities as fathers and foster greater parental responsibility through the "Dads for Life" campaign. In 2017, legislation was amended to extend paid paternity leave to two weeks. All parents receive childcare and infant care subsidies, and there are measures in place to support young working couples by improving the accessibility and affordability of pre-school services. In 2018, a new Tripartite Standard was introduced by which employers are encouraged to provide additional unpaid leave for employees with dependents who have unexpected care needs, regardless of their gender. Companies are also encouraged to offer and support flexible work arrangements through the WorkProWork-Life initiative.

The Maternity and Paternal Benefits Act in Croatia (2019) increased the maximum amount of wage paid during parental leave for employed and self-employed parents to encourage both parents further to exercise their right to parental leave. Additionally, the Childcare Allowance Act expanded the circle of potential beneficiaries of childcare allowance as well as of pro-natal income by increasing the income limit per household. Fathers are equally entitled to take parental leave for up to four months, which improves the equal distribution of parental responsibility in the family.

Iceland (2019) imposes an obligation on employers to take the necessary measures to enable women and men to co-ordinate their working duties and responsibilities towards the family. The Act on Maternity/Paternity and Parental Leave aims to ensure that children spend time with both parents and emphasises the measures that employers must adopt to increase flexibility in the organisation of work and working. From 2008 onwards, the proportion of fathers availing themselves of all or part of their own or joint right to maternity paternity leave has been increasing.

Portugal (2017) mentions that the national Constitution attributes to the State, in the context of protection of the family, the fostering of conciliation between work and family life and enshrines maternity and paternity as outstanding social values. Germany (2016) and Norway (2016) both underline the importance of their generous parental leave schemes in encouraging work-family balance for women.

The last general trend encompasses countries that either have limited or lack parental leave but highlight intentions to foster the sharing of unpaid care and domestic work responsibilities and implement some policies and services aimed at reconciling work-family balance for women. Uruguay (2017), Jordan (2017), Malaysia (2017), Cyprus (2017), Latvia (2018) Liechtenstein (2019) and Qatar (2017) reflect this trend.

In Uruguay (2017), the National Citizen plan, running from 2016 to 2020, recognises the shared responsibility for childcare and encourages the father's involvement. The law allows for maternity (13 weeks) and paternity leave (10 days) with intentions to extend parental leave for up to six months to be used by either parent paid by the state and the employer. Similarly, Jordan (2017) has submitted a proposal to introduce paternity leave in the private sector (paternity live is currently active in the public sector).

Cyprus (2017) reports the imperative of implementing paternity leave for furthering women's participation in the workforce. Currently, maternity leave is 18 weeks, and childcare is

subsidised. Additionally, companies are encouraged to promote gender equality and implement equal treatment. Certificates are given to companies with good gender equality practices. Qatar (2017) has also established workplace nurseries and flexible job opportunities and encourages sharing the responsibility of childcare and household work via counselling services.

Liechtenstein's (2019) Chamber of Commerce and Industry is working with member companies to encourage companies to adopt flexible working hours and the provision of unpaid parental leave. A "day-care financing" working group has been set up to develop performance-based financing of day-care centres to enable low-income parents to work. Additionally, the private sector is also endeavouring to improve the compatibility of work and family life, with many companies supporting childcare through financial contributions or establishing their care centres.

Among the many challenges that countries encountered when implementing or passing policies related to target 5.4, a few are worth highlighting: the lack of budget, clashes with current values, lack of coordination and lack of data. Funding problems are reported by Uruguay (2017) and Zimbabwe (2017). In the former, the political entity dealing with gender equality is in the process of consolidating itself as an essential pillar of Uruguay's development, and as a consequence, it is finding it challenging to gather appropriate funding for implementing and following policies. Similarly, Zimbabwe's lack of funding has resulted in challenges when implementing policies.

Paraguay (2018) reports a lack of coordination in current policies and stresses the need to implement a normative framework with legal instruments. In Guyana (2019), lack of available data, its quality and timeliness remain a significant hurdle in programs and policies targeting gender-related issues.

Qatar (2017) and the state of Palestine (2018) find prevailing social values a significant issue when implementing policies and encouraging men's involvements in unpaid domestic work. Qatar (2017) points out that the difficulty of changing the cultural concepts instilled in its conservative society has hindered gender equality. The state of Palestine (2018) states that patriarchal values and weak implementation of the law prevent women from getting more involved in the workforce. A few other countries such as Malaysia (2017), Sri Lanka (2018), Belize (2017), Romania (2018), Jamaica (2018) and Tajikistan (2017) mention the existence of harmful cultural stereotypes regarding women's role in society, highlighting how child-caring responsibilities often disproportionally fall on mothers.

Iceland (2019) also references cultural stereotypes, but in a positive manner. This country is being recognised internationally as an example of progress in gender equality through legislation. The World Economic Forum Report published in 2018, states that gender equality is nowhere greater than in Iceland. The Gender Equality Act and its continued further amendments; the strong campaigns and enforcement of human rights regarding gender, and other policy measures have contributed to the promotion of gender equality at the sociocultural level. For instance, as the Act establishes the obligation on employers to take the necessary measures to enable women and men to coordinate their working duties and responsibilities to balance professional and family life, it has required measures by employers to increase flexibility in the organisation of work and working hours, so that both families' and businesses' needs are taken into account. Research has shown that the men's proportions of domestic work and the uptake of paternity leave have increased and that traditional gender perspectives appear

to have retreated. These cultural shifts represent a fundamental change towards an institutional approach that has enforced gender equality in a more comprehensive manner.

Family roles in gender policies and the implementation of family-oriented policies

1. **Several countries are implementing family-oriented policies as part of their strategies to promote gender equality and empower women and girls. Regarding Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) and child or early marriage, countries facing these challenges are implementing several legal measures and amendments. Although the improvements made to eliminate FGM through legislative regulations and sensitisation programmes and campaigns aimed at changing based gender attitudes and values, these have been insufficient as it is still persistent and reported by 8 countries, including some in Europe (Egypt 2016, Sierra Leone 2019, Ethiopia 2017, Kenya 2017, Nigeria 2017, Norway 2016, Portugal 2017, and Ireland 2018).**

2. **Family-oriented policies have been implemented to eliminate child and early marriage. Still, they have been focused on legislative measures and amendments, basically by increasing the minimum legal age for marriage. Although these legal regulations have reduced girls' contracting marriage before the age of 15, 27 countries report having child or early marriage as a challenge; also, three countries (Chile 2017, Uruguay 2017 and Bahrain 2018) have increased the legal marriage age for girls at the age of 16 which doesn't comply with upholding children's rights. Therefore, much more actions are needed to tackle this challenge.**

3. **The most effective and robust family-oriented policies implemented as part of policy strategies to promote gender equality are those in the field of balancing family life and family work among genders. Valuing unpaid care and promoting shared domestic work among genders, remains as a significant challenge in most countries as women spend much more time than men on unpaid care and domestic work. Only two countries, Iceland (2019) and Switzerland (2016), report a relatively equal gender distribution of domestic and caring responsibilities. On the other hand, many Member States provide insufficient information about the participation of women in the workforce or report low rates of it which tends to reinforce their traditional roles as caregivers and performing domestic work and the unequal share distribution among genders. But this unequal distribution is also prevalent among those women involved in the workforce. This has resulted in adverse outcomes for women as many of them lack economic autonomy and time for personal and professional development**

4. **Several countries have implemented family-oriented policies to support women and provide a better-shared balance between family and work life. Still, they show differences regarding their effectiveness in providing it through different measures. Four scenarios can be observed. In the first one, governments in 6 countries (Bahrain 2018, Bhutan 2018, India 2017, Iraq 2019, Philippines 2019 and Mauritius 2019) provide maternity leave but have not yet implemented an infrastructure to support this conciliation. In the second one, countries offer maternity leave and childcare services (either public or mandate private companies and businesses to provide them). Still, they do not necessarily**

encourage shared responsibility for unpaid care and domestic work among genders. In the third scenario, countries offer different family policies to promote better-shared responsibility. They provide not only maternity leave but also paternity leave. However, few countries such as Australia (2018), Iceland (2019), Lithuania (2018) and Canada (2018) provide a scheme of shared-parental leave for both men and women. They also report improvements in offering qualified and flexible childcare services, have established legal regulations to ensure the return of women to their jobs, keeping their benefits and rights. Lithuania (2018) and Poland (2018) have even extended the right to parental leave to grandparents and relatives. Some countries have introduced legal work regulations to increase flexibility in the organisation of work. They do so either by allowing women to work part-time while receiving benefits simultaneously or by allowing fathers and mothers to avail all or part of their joint right to maternity paternity leave. In the fourth scenario, countries either lack or have a limited time of parental leave, and some childcare services are provided.

Therefore, the best examples of sound family-oriented policies implemented to achieve gender equality are represented by countries in the third scenario, as they perform different measures and are more coordinated to promote shared responsibility and a better conciliation between family and work. They provide more facilities (flexible work, childcare facilities by different stakeholders, and shared parental leave) to alleviate women's burden work. At the same time, they may achieve more economic independence, develop a professional life, and empower themselves.

SDG 11: Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

The way cities are built may contribute to families and their members' wellbeing, as they provide material, social and cultural environments for building and maintaining social relationships; creating cultural goods; developing leisure activities and enjoy natural life in an inclusive and sustainable way. In this sense, they could be considered as implicit family policies as they may have effects on family life and wellbeing. But in order to determine if they may be considered as such, policies and programmes need to demonstrate their link with urban and human settlements development policies, either by being their targets, means of implementation or participants in the process of making and implementing policies. Family-oriented targets under SDG 11 that are of relevance are: i) target 11.3: enhance inclusive and

sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries (indicators: a ratio of land consumption rate to population growth rate; the proportion of cities with a direct participation structure of civil society in urban planning and management that operate regularly and democratically); ii) target 11.7: provide universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible, green and public spaces, in particular for women and children, older persons and persons with disabilities (indicators: average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities; and proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability, status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months).

Sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory human settlement planning and management.

One of the challenges that our contemporary societies face in building inclusive, resilient and sustainable cities is related to the imbalances resulting from the process followed by urbanization, including fragmentation and inefficient development. Most countries are confronted, among other things, with high population density in their cities while other areas become underpopulated. There are then strains in the provision of services and infrastructure or with limited access due to large distances, deforestation and devastation of natural resources, and an insufficient amount of open spaces and green areas, all of which have engendered strong inequalities and concerns about the limited quality of life offered.

In the VNRs, several countries report taking actions to address such challenges. For example, to reverse unbalanced urban regional development and the consequent migration to big cities, which increases density, Egypt (2018) is implementing a national urban development plan, where new cities are being developed to raise the percentage of inhabited areas. In a similar trend, Poland (2018) is activating the potential of medium-sized cities, which lose their social and economic functions; and Togo (2018) reports an increase of localities harbouring above 5,000 inhabitants with updated development plans from 31 per cent in 2015 to 37 per cent in 2017.

Saudi Arabia (2018) has implemented measures to improve the ratio of land consumption rate to population growth rates, such as the Future Saudi Cities Programme which seeks to attain a balanced urban development through the promotion of prosperous, productive, fair, socially, inclusive and environmentally sustainable cities, with sufficient and adequate infrastructure and high-level quality of life. The government of Guyana (2019) estimates that by 2020 the annual rate of urbanisation will grow to 0.91. Currently, 25 per cent of the population resides in urban areas; to prevent unbalanced urban growth, it is developing new towns. Building new cities and towns is a strategy followed by Kuwait (2019) as well. It is designing a new plan, with the cooperation of the private sector, to achieve a balance among the elements of urban development to absorb the expected population growth and distribute them homogeneously, within and outside the metropolitan area, maintaining natural and ecological resources in a balanced manner.

Cyprus (2017), and Hungary (2018) have developed policy incentives that encourage responsible land use through residential development within controlled boundaries. They are implemented alongside policies to discourage dispersion in areas other than those designated. Changes in landscapes and shaping environments are being made and monitored to improve sustainability in the cities and towns. Lithuania (2018) and Portugal (2017) have adopted the New Urban Agenda of the United Nations. They are reviewing the planning, financing,

development and management of cities. In Lithuania, the average population density in the big cities amounts to 39 people per hectare, which is higher than the minimum recommended value for a big city (30 residents/ha). Slovenia (2017), is preparing the Spatial Development Strategy, aimed at limiting the development of urban settlements, by privileging the development of internal areas rather than spreading new regions. Croatia (2019) and Albania (2018) are following a similar strategy, focusing on the revitalisation of development centres and upgrading urban areas and community spaces. Thailand (2017) is implementing a strategy for urban development, which includes an integrated urban policy and planning, efficient land management, and decentralisation. It has developed spatial plans in 6 regions, 18 sub-regions, and 73 provinces. Australia (2018) is using City Deals to balance population growth and use of land, which include the three levels of government to deliver long term outcomes for its large cities and regions. It focuses on transforming infrastructure, regulatory changes to stimulate growth, strategic urban and land use planning to improve access to jobs, housing and social outcomes. The creation of Western Parkland City is a 20-year plan to catalyse investment, development and job opportunities in the region and beyond, and improving community infrastructure and liveability.

Singapore (2019) has also implemented a long-term strategic land use plan that outlines broad strategies to guide development for the next 40 to 50 years. The House Development Board (HDB) towns have a full range of facilities to meet the various needs of residents, such as commercial spaces, schools, transport nodes, and parks. The new towns are centred on the fundamental philosophy of sustainability, to provide residents with a high quality of life and reduce commuting times. They are developed based on the Neighbourhood Principle, where several neighbourhoods are grouped around a town centre that provides essential services within close reach of the residents. The expansive green network of nature reserves, parks and park connectors, tree-lined roads and other natural areas built within and around HDB estates have improved the quality of living in public housing. Ireland (2018) launched a new national development plan for the next 20 or more years, directed at keeping a long-term balance between population growth and sustainable growth (in economic, social and environmental terms). It will enable people to live closer to their workplaces to reduce commuting time and transportation congestion; it will regenerate rural areas, delivering more compact growth, particularly within the existing fabric and footprint of the cities. A key focus is to improve citizen's quality of life through building better places to live in terms of design, amenities and public space and encouraging more active and sustainable lifestyles.

Switzerland (2018), Lebanon (2018), Qatar (2018), Bhutan (2018), Viet Nam (2018), Bahamas (2018), and Israel (2019) acknowledge the need to strengthen land use planning, as urban growth has produced significant challenges, such as pressure in the countryside, land, agricultural areas and biodiversity. In some of them, deforestation of some regions has made them vulnerable to natural disasters.

Countries, such as Denmark (2017), have developed a more balanced ratio between land consumption rate and the population growth rate, and do not consume land area at the same rate as the population growths. In Sweden (2017), urban areas use relatively more land per resident but have maintained a balance. Liechtenstein (2019) reports a low land use consumption, with only 11 per cent of its land represented by settlements areas; the per capita settlement area has not changed significantly since 1984. However, there is a plan underway to improve spatial activities and structure. Iceland (2019) is a very sparsely populated country, with around three people per square km, and 94 per cent of its population live in towns and cities; despite this ratio, the government is implementing measures to sustain improvements in

the balance between rural and urban areas. Sri Lanka (2018) has a low level of land use consumption as urbanization is slow, but the government is updating its national planning policy to ensure the sustainability of the cities.

Most of the countries noted above, and others report the involvement of different government sectors, levels, regional authorities, agents, research organisations, citizens, and private stakeholders in the processes of consultation, design and implementation of strategies, policies and programmes: Belgium (2017), Portugal (2017), Sweden (2017), Thailand (2017), Australia (2018), Hungary (2018), Lithuania (2018), Poland (2018), Sri Lanka (2018), Guyana (2019), Israel (2019), Kuwait (2019), and the United Kingdom (2019).

The UK (2019) represents a very good example reported in this regard, particularly in involving residents and families. In England, the Community Partnership Board brings together public and social sector representatives including Locality, Power to Change, and the National Council for Voluntary Organisations to ensure that communities are feeding into policy-making. Also, a survey made in 2017-2018 showed that 28 per cent of respondents agreed that they could influence decisions affecting their local area. Over half of the respondents said that they would like to be more involved in the choices local authorities make which affect their local area. The government is helping residents take control of planning and management in the places they live, as they have the knowledge and enthusiasm to shape, design and improve their neighbourhoods and more and more communities are stepping up to this. Through different government investments, residents are being given a bigger say over their communities' future. Residents will decide where new homes and green spaces and other facilities should go and how they should look and feel.

Another initiative is the Integrated Communities Strategy Green Paper, which sets out a vision and a plan for building stronger, closer communities where people – whatever their background – live, work, learn and socialise together. In Scotland, The Community Empowerment Act 2015 requires public sector organisations who deliver and resource local services to work together with local communities, so they can improve outcomes on themes they agree as priorities for their area. In Sweden (2017), legislation and other rules exist for urban planning, which requires consultation with civil society and residents in areas to be developed, altered or planned for the future. A new policy for the designed living environment, architecture, form, and designed is currently being prepared at the Government Offices. It aims to strengthen qualities in both urban and rural living arrangements. Australia (2018) is taking a collaborative approach to how they shape and manage their cities and has appointed a Minister for Urban Infrastructure and Cities and established a framework for partnership between all levels of government, the private sector, research organisations and the community to build more sustainable, resilient and liveable cities. The focus is on maintaining and improving the living conditions and productivity of the cities. However, in other countries, such as Viet Nam (2018), participatory settlement planning and management capacity are weak.

Universal access to safe, inclusive and accessible green and public spaces.

Several countries have acknowledged the importance of including in urban planning and design, the development of open spaces for public use to improve the quality of life and wellbeing. And most of them are implementing policies and measures in that direction through what has been called Green Policies. Guyana (2019) has outlined the Green State Development Strategy: Vision 2040; Lithuania (2018) has prepared guidelines for the planning of green infrastructure; Greece (2018) and Laos (2018) are implementing measures that ensure

accessibility of all citizens to green and public spaces. Many local authorities in New Zealand (2019) have their plans and strategies relating to public open space and how to make those spaces, safe, inclusive and accessible. Poland (2018) is committed to the European Union Urban Agenda, where 16 Polish cities are participants in the URBACT III projects, which help cities to develop, among other things, innovative and sustainable approaches that include the environmental dimension for improving the functioning and quality of urban life. Albania (2018) is implementing a programme to enhance and revitalize traditional public spaces or create new ones based on natural resources, such as parks and waterfronts. Hungary (2018), through its Green City Operative Programme and other programmes, provides a system of policy and technical requirements. It aims at promoting the sustainable renewal of a green infrastructural network of municipalities, and it enables them to establish registers (on trees, shrubs, etc.) to keep records within their green infrastructure network, as well as to monitor its status.

In Belgium (2017), the Flemish instrument for urban renewal – an annual call for projects – supports projects which address environmental sustainability, spatial quality and core compaction, family and child-friendliness, and green-blue features. Some cities such as Ghent, Brussels and Antwerp are establishing or enlarging pedestrian areas. In Switzerland (2018) and Sweden (2017), access to nearby areas is in general relatively good in cities. In Sweden, the proportion of the population in the 37 biggest cities with access to green areas within 200 metres of their home is 92 per cent. In the United Kingdom (2019), over 9 in 10 adults in Scotland report having a very or fairly good neighbourhood to live. In England, more parks are being created. In Scotland, despite the proportion of adults who live within a 5-minute walk of their local green or blue space area has decreased, the ratio is still high (64.7 per cent). In Australia (2018), cities rank highly internationally as places to live, work, and study; and there is easy access to the natural environment and green spaces, with opportunities to walk, cycle and enjoy the outdoors. The Sustainable Cities Index 2016 ranked Abu Dhabi and Dubai in the United Arab Emirates (2018) as the most sustainable cities in the Middle East; they and the other Emirates include in their urban development agendas providing open spaces to keep a high quality of life. Saudi Arabia (2018) reports a public share of open space for public use of 4 m^2 per person. Despite the land constraints, Singapore (2018) has set aside almost 10 per cent of the land for parks and nature conservation. More than 80 per cent of households live within 400 metres or a ten-minute walk to a park. It aims at expanding this to more than 90 per cent of households by 2030. In Qatar (2018) the need for green spaces and public, inclusive and recreational areas has increased due to high and rapid urban growth rate urban areas. The government has set a strategy to establish a green belt around Doha and its suburbs. Also, the open, well-prepared green spaces have grown at an annual growth rate of 4 per cent for the use of all segments of society, especially women, children, old age people and persons with disabilities.

Turkey (2019) established a regulation in which green area standard per capita in spatial plans was increased from 10 m^2 to 15 m^2, and an approach for more accessible green areas was adopted for the urban population. Different projects are being implemented and developed by public entities, especially on ensuring access to public services for children and persons with disabilities. Half of the cities in Israel (2019) have met the UN Habitat's recommended minimum of 15 per cent open space. Its main national policy for public spaces has been updated in 2018 and intends to allocate a minimum of 10 m^2 of public space per resident, and to ensure that at least 80 per cent of the public spaces in each municipality are to be green open spaces, such as parks, gardens and natural sites. Uruguay (2018) has dedicated 36 per cent of its

urbanised area to open public spaces. Kazakhstan (2019) is creating the conditions for the population to have basic accessibility to facilities and services based on the walking distance principle. Lebanon (2018) is designing a project on soft mobility, Liaisons Douces, to create different scales of public and green spaces, greening city streets and providing safe pedestrian and cycling tracks along main city axes. In Malta (2018) the Ulysses Grove site and Xewkija have been selected for conversion into an accessible and green public space, suitable for families and conducive to social inclusion, relaxation, and physical activity.

Some countries report that their environmental development showed a regression trend compared to their economic and social development, such as Korea (2016), which points out having a small proportion of green areas, such as parks. In other countries, such as Armenia (2018), green and public spaces are reduced and not inclusive nor accessible in urban areas, due to the fact that the urban planning and construction of buildings and infrastructure were based on Soviet standards. The government is planning to take actions on these issues. In the State of Palestine (2018), green areas remain minimal due to urban expansion, desertification and logging. The country's total green protected areas make only 7.6 per cent of the total land area. The government has developed a national plan to build more green areas. Togo (2018) has developed some open and green spaces in recent years. Bahamas (2018) reports the need to develop more green and public spaces, particularly in some cities and marginalised communities, as they not only incentivise community strengthening but provide an enabling environment to enhance the quality of life. To reduce the challenge of air pollution in urban areas, Bahrain (2018) has built parks, gardens, beaches, and walking tracks, along with the "beautification" of streets using plants.

Regarding cities' safety, very few countries provided information about this issue. Switzerland (2018) reports a high level of security. In Sweden (2017), the total proportion of the population subjected to violent crime does not include sexual offences in the combined figure for violent crime (includes assault, threats or mugging). The proportion of the population subjected to sexual offences amounted to 1.7 per cent in 2015. Men are subjected to assault, robbery and fraud to a greater extent, while women are more often subjected to sexual offences, threats and harassment. Australia (2018) is taking actions to make cities safer and more inclusive for girls and women. Plan International Australia has been working to improve the safety of towns, particularly for young women and girls. In Melbourne, partnering with CrowdSpot and Monash University's XYX Lab, girls and women were invited to pin an interactive public map "Free to Be" and describe their experience in that area. The feedback was shared with authorities such as the City of Melbourne, Metro Trains, and Victoria Police, to help create a safer city for young girls and women. This innovative Australian project has since been expanded to Sidney, as well as cities internationally including New Delhi, Kampala, Lima and Madrid. In Colombia (2018), 18 per cent of women reported unwanted touching; and the proportion of women who report being sexually harassed was twice of that one reported by men. The improvements in public transport, such as the establishment of air cables in informal settlements or shanty towns, has benefitted women as they report less amount of sexual harassment and aggression in public spaces.

Family roles in urban policies and the implementation of family-oriented policies

The way cities and towns are designed and built may be considered under the family impact lens. Implicit family policies may have effects on families' life and wellbeing. However, with some exceptions, this link between families and urban development is not

expressly acknowledged and reported in the policies and strategies implemented, nor is it included in general terms.

Countries are implementing different policies to improve urban and settlement developments and to provide more open and green spaces to enhance a sustainable quality of life in cities and towns. Many of them have implemented measures to reduce population density, create middle-size towns and cities, revitalize and upgrade urban areas, land use planning to improve access to jobs, housing and social services.

1. Family-oriented policies and programmes are lacking in most Member States as very few of them involve families in feeding policy-making, planning and management of their local areas. That is, with some exceptions, countries do not acknowledge the link between families and urban development and settlements. The United Kingdom (2019), Sweden (2017) and Australia (2018) represent good examples, as they are implementing legislation and programmes where residents decide where new homes and green spaces and other facilities should go and how they should look and feel.

2. Regarding the provision of green and open public spaces, 24 countries (Lithuania 2018, Guyana 2019, Greece 2018, Laos 2018, New Zealand 2019, Poland 2018, Albania 2018, Hungary 2018, Belgium 2017, Switzerland 2018, Sweden 2017, the United Kingdom 2019, Australia 2018, the United Arab Emirates 2018, Saudi Arabia 2018, Singapore 2018, Qatar 2018, Turkey 2019, Israel 2019, Uruguay 2018, Kazakhstan 2019, Lebanon 2018, Malta 2018, and Bahrain 2018) report implementing green policies and programmes to provide inclusive and accessible green and open public spaces.

3. Safety of cities is not addressed in the VNRs. Only four countries (Switzerland 2018, Sweden 2017, Australia 2018, and Colombia 2018) provide information about cities' safety and only Australia and Colombia report implementing measures to improve it.

4. Overall, family-oriented policies regarding this goal and targets are lacking, and more should be done to include families in urban policy-making.

SDG 16. Peace, justice and strong institutions

Living in a peaceful social environment with strong institutions and access to justice for all provide the foundations for a society to develop its capacities and potential and for individuals'

well-being. Families contribute to the achievement of SDG16 by protecting their children and by promoting and engaging in warm and nurturing relationships among their members. These types of relationships are likely to instil in children and in all family members values such as respect, trust and equality, as grounded elements when structuring relationships. Family-oriented targets of relevance under SDG 16 t are i) target 16.2: end abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children (indicator 16.2.1: the proportion of children aged 1-17 years who experienced any physical punishment and psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month; indicator 16.2.2: number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population by sex, age and form of exploitation; indicator 16.2.3: Proportion of young women and men aged 18-29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18); ii): target 16.9: provide legal identity for all, including birth registration

End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children

Physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers

Positive parenting is a crucial element for children to grow up feeling secure, close to their parents or caregivers and to be able to include themselves in social life. In this sense, parenting practices, such as physical punishment and psychological aggression, are harmful to children's development and well-being. Few countries reported specific information about this target in their VNRs: Peru (2017), Armenia (2018), Mexico (2018), Chile (2019), Ghana (2019), Iraq (2019), Vanuatu (2019) and Serbia (2019). Ghana (2019) reports a very high proportion (94 per cent) of children aged 1-14 years who are subject to physical punishment and psychological aggression by caregivers; Iraq (2019) reports that 80 per cent of children have experienced them both at home and at school; in Vanuatu (2019), 78 per cent of adults admitted to physically harming a child in their household and 35 per cent of people are aware of corporal punishment at school. Armenia (2018), Chile (2019) and Mexico (2018) report having high proportions ranging between 60 per cent and 70 per cent of mistreatment by their caregivers; in Peru (2017) the proportion is about 41 per cent. And in Serbia (2019) half of children aged 1-14 years have experienced aggressive behaviours from their parents or caregivers. In Sweden (2017), this figure is much lower (20 per cent). Different programmes and interventions that are being implemented in these countries, as in Ghana (2019), focus on improving parenting which includes the development of positive social social-emotional skills, programmes aimed at preventing violence by peers or partners. Within this framework of reducing domestic violence, and abusive or neglectful parenting, Vanuatu (2019) has implemented Me With Love and Care; Armenia (2018) has a Law on Prevention of Domestic Violence, Protection of Persons Subjected to Domestic Violence and Restoration of Family Solidarity; Mexico (2018) provides legal advice and support to women and their children through the Centre for Women's Justice; Serbia (2019) has implemented a new strategy to prevent domestic violence, which focuses on changing attitudes, values and behaviours towards violence against children, and to improve interventions and the institutional arrangements for supervising the implementation

Most countries do not provide specific information regarding the proportion of children who have experienced physical and/or psychological aggression. They refer to this within the broader challenge of domestic violence against women and children, along with other types of violence, such as children's sexual abuse, and other forms of violence. Some of them, such as Norway (2016), Australia (2018), and Germany (2016) emphasize the implementation of positive parenting programmes as the most important preventive strategy. It has yielded good results. Norway, for example, has launched the action plan A Good Childhood Lasts a Lifetime.

It has strengthened the family counselling service. Australia has implemented the Newpin Social Benefit Bond, which supports families to break cycles of neglect and abuse and provide safe, nurturing environments for children. It helps parents to build positive relationships with their children. Important legislation in Estonia (2016) has been settled. The Child Protection Act specifies that it is forbidden to neglecting and subjecting a child to mental, emotional, physical and/or sexual abuse. It includes humiliation, intimidation and physical punishment, and punishing a child in any other way which threatens its mental, emotional or physical health. Other countries, such as Cambodia (2019) notices the importance of positive parenting practises as a strategy to prevent ill-treatment from caregivers, but this attitude is not still disseminated, understood and encouraged in the population, especially among rural parents. The Break Silence campaign in Jamaica (2018) intends to promote increased reporting of child abuse by adults and has succeeded as it rose 18 per cent the number of cases reported; Dominican Republic (2018) reports a high incidence of physical and psychological abuse of children from parents and caregivers. Croatia (2019), Guyana (2019), Bahamas (2018), Israel (2019), Bhutan (2018), and Liechtenstein (2019) report having domestic violence towards women and children as a challenge. In Lithuania (2018) amendments to the Law of Fundamentals of Protection of the Rights of the Child have banned on all forms of violence against children. It includes physical punishment. In Palau (2019), the Ministry of Education has abolished corporal punishment in schools, but there is no legislation against corporal punishment in homes and the community, but gradually the public is embracing alternative means of discipline.

Family and domestic violence

Children often experience or are witness to family violence, and this tends to have deep consequences in their development and wellbeing. Some countries refer to this problem in general and do not provide specific information whether the violence is exerted through strict and harsh discipline towards children or results from violence from one member of the family towards other members. For instance, Laos (2018), Turkey (2019) and Mauritius (2019) are addressing this challenge providing temporary accommodation, support and counselling to women and their children experiencing violence in the family; the later through the Integrated Support Centre. They also have extended a hotline to report domestic violence. In Tonga (2019), more than half of the women who experienced physical partner violence reported that their children had witnessed it. Children aged 6 to 14 years old showed behavioural problems afterwards: 40 per cent had nightmares, 18 per cent bedwetting, and 37 per cent were being aggressive. Lesotho (2019) is concerned that adolescent girls and women, especially the poor and those living in rural areas, are vulnerable to sexual abuse and violence at home, at work and other spheres. It is implementing measures to combat it, based on the Domestic Violence Bill and other legislation.

Other forms of violence towards children: sexual abuse, violence in schools, child labour

Children are exposed to other types of violence, such as sexual abuse, bullying at schools and child labour, among other forms of exploitation and abuse, and become vulnerable. Some countries, such as Dominican Republic (2018) and Ecuador (2018) have as a significant challenge sexual exploitation of girls and adolescents and sexual abuse towards children, and Ecuador has implemented the programme Mas Unidos Mas Protegidos (More United More Protected) to combat this challenge. In Albania (2018), 41 per cent and 6 per cent of children had been abused physically and sexually, respectively, at least once during their childhood. In Cabo Verde (2018) sexual abuse against children has increased about 7 per cent. In Uganda

(2016), 8.1 million children live under conditions of serious deprivation or danger. Children who experience abuse, violence or are exploited, abandoned, or severely neglected (in or out of families) also face significant threats to their survival and wellbeing. Although it has been reduced, the proportion still remains persistently high. Overall, in 2010, 38 per cent of children aged 0-17 years were vulnerable. Some of the reasons that expose children to vulnerabilities include malnutrition, HIV and AIDS, orphan-hood, child abuse, neglect violence, limited family and community involvement. The government has established the Uganda Child Helpline to increase reporting of cases of child abuse and has developed an Alternative Care Framework to promote family-based care for children and facilitate access to suitable alternative care options for children deprived of parental care. In Viet Nam (2018), violence against children is most commonly seen in children's families, schools, child care facilities and community. The government has implemented nationwide the Action Month for Children and the Enforcement of the Law on Children and Preventing as Well as Combating Violence against Children and Child Abuse, and a national hotline for children to report cases of violence. Iceland (2019) is developing a plan to tackle online/digital sexual violence against women and domestic violence, and the Children's House provides support and services to children who have been victims of sexual violence or other serious violence. Serbia (2019) has made amendments to the Criminal Code and has prescribed life sentence when sexual violence, such as rape, is perpetrated against a child. It has undertaken the campaign One in Five to prevent violence against children. Cyprus (2017) has introduced a national law in 2014 (the Prevention and Combating against Sexual Abuse and Sexual Exploitation of Children and Child Pornography Law), to protect children against these types of violence, and has created the Children's House, where victims are supported.

Children are also exposed to violence in schools, and this challenge is more prevalent in some countries than in others. Lesotho (2019) reports that children, especially girls, had experienced sexual violence mostly from class and school-mates, among other prevalent forms of violence; and this has had different adverse outcomes, such as girls missing school due to sexual violence in school. Among other measures, it has put in place the Children Protection and Welfare Act and the Ending Child Marriage Act to do away with the drivers of violence. In Iraq (2019) and Timor-Leste (2019), there is evidence of a wide range of severe violence against children ranging from physical to psychological violence in schools: about 84 per cent of students suffer from this type of violence. In Albania (2018), one in five children in school reports that they are subject to verbal bullying. To address this challenge, Ecuador (2018) has developed the programme National Prevention Against Violence in School System. Bhutan (2018) and Viet Nam (2018) acknowledge the challenge of violence in schools. The girl's in Viet Nam are at higher risk for violence and harassment, while boys are more likely to experience physical violence. Lithuania (2018) violence in schools has been prohibited, and the government has implemented, among other measures, training programmes for teachers to address school violence. Kazakhstan (2019) has extended the National Preventive Mechanism against Torture to include 216 children's institutions and transforming the approaches employed in special education schools.

Child labour is still a significant challenge in some countries. For instance, in Iraq (2019), child labour has been increasing, especially in rural areas up to 18 per cent. In Laos (2018) it is also prevalent in rural areas, and it is a significant challenge since about 15 per cent of children (17 per cent of girls and 13 per cent of boys) aged 5 to 17 years old were working. The government has set the minimum age at 14 years old to eliminate the worst forms of child labour, but its enforcement needs to be strengthened. In Armenia (2018), its prevalence was 8.7 per cent. Turkey (2019) has implemented the National Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour,

to prevent it, including the worst forms of it; and Sierra Leone (2019) is implementing the Decent Work Country Programme to facilitate the elimination of child labour.

Countries report some improvements regarding the role of the police and the criminal justice system. They are related to two areas: the role of the criminal justice system and the police in detecting and treating family violence; and the role of police and the justice system with children in conflict with authorities. Regarding the first area, some countries, such as Latvia (2018), has established a risk assessment to enable police to identify better and recognise different forms of domestic violence. The police officer and the victim of domestic violence jointly fill out the questionnaire to determine the risk of recurrence of violence, and the police then collaborate with other responsible institutions and the victim to deter another incident. There are training programmes regarding this issue. Lebanon (2018) has annulled an article of the penal code which mitigated the sentence of people who claim they killed or injured their wife, daughter, or other relative to protect the family "honour". Malta (2018) and Poland (2018) had adopted a bill and other measures aimed at addressing issues on domestic and gender-based violence. Many of these countries have implemented telephone lines to report it. In Croatia (2019) and Liechtenstein (2019), police awareness in detecting family violence has increased as well as the number of victims reporting it. Croatia is implementing the New Act on Protection Against Domestic Violence, which provides clearer definitions of domestic violence and its victims, while Liechtenstein is implementing numerous measures and its law contains comprehensive bans on gender-specific violence against girls and women and fosters prevention and law enforcement. In Tonga (2019), a Family Protection Legal Aid Centre has been established, which provides better access to justice for victims/survivors of family violence, and it has been successful.

Regarding the second area, Albania (2018), for instance, shows advances in the development of a Justice for Children Strategy (with high financial support) is a tracking system of children in conflict or contact with the law and preparation of by-laws for Child Protection. As marginalised groups, Roma and Egyptian children often begin work at a very early age to contribute to the survival of their families, they drop-out of school more often, and their social inclusion and access to the labour market has worsened. They face a range of types of violence and exploitation, as police have registered an increase of 20 per cent in crimes against them. To address these challenges, the government has created the law for the Protection of Children's Rights, the Criminal Justice for Children Code and the Children's Agenda 2010. In Iraq (2019), there is a large number of children in conflict with the law (more than 6,000). Singapore (2018) has refined its policies to protect children better, and there are programmes to rehabilitate children and youth below 16 years of age.

There are other countries where children experience very challenging, varied situations regarding violence. For example, Mexico (2018) reports a high number of homicides of children and adolescents (1,057). Four out of every ten sexual crimes are committed against a minor. Of the very high number of disappeared people in 2017, 18 per cent of them were represented by children adolescents, and six out of ten of them were girls or young women. Spain (2018) faces the challenge of women homicides and has established a National Pact against Gender Violence.

Victims of human trafficking

Several countries report having challenges to face human trafficking and other forms of exploitation, and most of them are enforcing legal measures and implementing programmes. The most prevalent forms of exploitation reported by countries related to trafficking are sexual and labour. Germany (2016) is translating international regulations into more specific terms, such as training professionals working in this field. Uganda (2016) has developed the Prevention of Trafficking in Persons Act; Bahamas (2018) has drafted a National Anti-trafficking in Persons Strategy. Hungary (2018) notices that labour and sexual exploitation comes primarily from children's homes and therefore, the police play an active role in the sensitization of the residents of children's homes as well as the professionals who are in daily contact with them. Cyprus (2017), Netherlands (2017), Portugal (2017), Thailand (2017), Ireland (2018), Jamaica (2018), Lao (2018), Lebanon (2018), Malta (2018), Mexico (2018), Singapore (2018), Spain (2018), Sri Lanka (2018), Sudan (2018), United Arab Emirates (2018), Viet Nam (2018), Bosnia and Herzegovina (2019), Chile (2019), Guyana (2019), Indonesia (2019), Iraq (2019), Israel (2019), Lesotho (2019), Liechtenstein (2019), Mauritius (2019), Palau (2019), and South Africa (2019) have developed national action plans and laws to prevent and combat human trafficking and sexual and labour exploitation. They provide psychological and legal assistance to the victims. In Jamaica (2018), in 2015, there was a 60 per cent increase in the number of reported cases of alleged trafficking involving children; in Guyana (2019), the number of victims also increased. Sri Lanka (2018) has reduced abducting/kidnapping, cruelty and sexual exploitation of children. Dominican Republic (2018) reports having a high prevalence of sexual exploitation of girls and adolescents. Israel (2019) has established a Child Protection Bureau, which is a unique civilian/police unit to enforce and prevent online violence and crime against children and youth. It deals with a variety of issues, including child prostitution, paedophilia, drug dealing, harassment, threats of suicide, bullying and shaming. Other motives of human trafficking are fictitious marriages to obtain residency status in some European country or forced labour. Such is the case of Latvia (2018) and Lithuania (2018), and the later also reports implementing laws to combat children's sexual abuse and exploitation and child pornography and has made amendments to the Criminal Code for that purpose.

Proportion of young women and men aged 18-29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18

Few countries reported specific information regarding the proportion of young women and men aged 18-29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18. When countries referred to this challenge, it is primarily reported under that one of domestic violence related to women. Armenia (2018) reports that women and girls aged 15 years and older have suffered physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner. In Australia (2018), one in three women experienced physical violence, and one in five has experienced sexual violence, and these are more prevalent among ethnic groups. In Sweden (2017), the proportion of women and men who have been subjected to sexual violence before the age of 18 was 37 per cent. It was higher for women (54 per cent) than for men (20 per cent). In Ireland (2018), the overall percentage of Irish women aged 15-74 who have experienced physical or sexual violence within the prior 12 months was in line with the EU average at 8 per cent; and the current campaign to prevent it is focused on sexual violence. Namibia (2018) registers a high rate of gender-based violence (GBV). In out of 16 cases of this kind, five concern to rape, one to murder by a partner, and the remainder to other forms of GBV. There are approximately 1,600 cases of rape every year, and in 1,000 of them, victims do not have access to justice, and only five rape cases result in conviction of the perpetrator. In the State of Palestine (2018), 37 per cent of women reported violence from their partners while 16 per cent of unmarried women

from a family member; 59 per cent of women experience psychological violence, 23 per cent physical and 10 per cent sexual violence; and 51 per cent of Gaza women are particularly at risk of violence. Due to the war with Israel, most Palestinian population, particularly children, experience psychological and physical violence. In Viet Nam (2018), 58 per cent of married women had suffered at least one of the three types of violence (physical, sexual and emotional) by their husbands. In Indonesia (2019), one out of three women aged 15 to 64 years old experienced violence during their lifetime, and around 10 per cent experienced it in the last 12 months. The government has made a different campaign against gender-based violence, it provides services to support victims, but they are very limited. New Zealand (2019) has amongst the highest reported rates of family and sexual violence in the developed world. One in three women experiences physical, emotional and sexual violence from a partner in their lifetime – twice the rate for men. Women are also more likely to be killed, and women from minority ethnic or vulnerable groups are more likely to experience violence and to be re-traumatised by the current system. The government is addressing this challenge through a new approach, the Joint Venture for Family Violence and Sexual Violence, which will aim to transform responses and prevent violence by working across multiple agencies. There are also different types of centres and refugees which provide support to victims of violence; also, a nationwide free telephone in New Guinea operates providing counselling and referral service.

In Peru (2017), Iraq (2019), Kuwait (2019), Palau (2019), Mongolia (2019), Rwanda (2019), Timor-Leste (2019), Saint Lucia (2019) and Tonga (2019) figures about GBV and sexual violence against women show that they remain as human rights challenges. In Peru (2017), two out of three women have experienced sexual violence from her intimate partner or another person. Tonga registers that 3 out of 4 women had experienced physical/sexual violence in their lives, 2 out of 3 experienced physical violence since they were 15 years of age and the main perpetrators were fathers and teachers. In Timor-Leste and Mongolia, during the last year, about one out of three and one out of four women, respectively, experienced physical, sexual and psychological violence. In Mongolia the number of women who have experienced domestic violence tripled between 2012 and 2016. In Timor-Leste, 35 per cent of women experienced in the last 12 months physical/sexual violence by their intimate partner. In Palau (2019), it was estimated that 8 per cent of women experienced physical or sexual violence in the last 12 months. Regarding youth gender violence, a survey found that 18 per cent of high school students reported forced sexual intercourse, 29 per cent sexual violence, and 26 per cent physical violence in dating relationship. South Africa (2019) faces an important challenge regarding this issue; a survey estimated that 138/100,000 women were raped in the previous year the survey was done; other surveys have found that one in five women older than 18 experienced physical violence. As the country ranks low at the international level in terms of the level of safety and security, it has broadened the coverage of sexual offences and related matters in the Criminal Law and has defined harsh penalties for offenders. It is also developing a draft law to prevent forced and child marriages.

Other countries report also having as a challenge sexual and other forms of domestic violence against women and their children, such as Hungary (2018). In Canada (2018), indigenous women and girls are disproportionately affected by all forms of violence; and investments are being made in community-based programs that promote and improve the physical and mental health and well-being of survivors of violence, including projects to reach vulnerable groups. Most countries have implemented national plans to reduce violence against women and their children.

Provision of legal identity

Proportion of children under five years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority, by age

Having a legal identity is a human right that provides protection not only in terms of access to a set of services as a citizen but also contributes to combating important challenges, such as human trafficking and sexual exploitation, since these crimes rely in part on unknown legal identity. Birth registration at a very early age becomes, therefore, a priority. Some countries have developed legislation to promote and ensure that children will have a legal identity. For instance, by law, in Estonia (2016), all childbirths must be registered in the first month of a child's life by a parent's application at the Vital Statistics Office. Lesotho (2019) has implemented similar legal frameworks to provide birth registration.

Several countries report having universal or nearly universal birth registration, such as Peru (2017), Sweden (2017), Thailand (2017), Uruguay (2017), Cabo Verde (2018), Jamaica (2018), Malta (2018), Iraq (2019), Kuwait (2019), Palau (2019). Bahrain (2018) provides a civil register and provides legal identities for every citizen and resident. Countries, such as Philippines (2019) report a 90 per cent of birth registration for children under 5 years of age and is implementing programmes and projects to provide easier registration, as mobile civil registration activities among ethnic groups, the most impoverished sectors and population living in remote areas. In the Dominican Republic (2018), about 12 per cent of children under five years of age do not have a legal identity, and this is more prevalent among the most deprived groups and provinces.

In other countries, the coverage of provision of birth certificates to children under-5 years of age is lower, but it has increased due to the development of legal frameworks or other measures that enforce it. For example, in Laos (2018), birth registration has increased to 73 per cent, and the government has set it as an important goal to protect children against human trafficking. Sharing the same concern of reducing human trafficking, Tonga (2019) has established the National Coordinating Committee for children, which provides documentary evidence and permanent record for people about their legal identity and prove civil status and family relations. Ghana (2019) has achieved 71 per cent of birth registration and has introduced the Mobile Birth, which uses ICT to register children 0-12 months old, to promote accelerated registration of children under five years. Uganda (2016) and Nigeria (2017) face significant challenges regarding birth registration as they report small proportions of it (30 per cent and 16 per cent respectively); to increase it Uganda has defined the Registration of Persons Act. In Viet Nam (2018), the percentage of under-five children with birth registration has continuously risen, although it remains low in the Mekong Delta and Central Highlands and among poorer households. Lebanon (2018) has implemented an important measure to extend the provision of legal identity to other groups, as it has approved the mechanism to register the new-born babies of displaced Syrians.

Family roles and the implementation of family-oriented policies aimed at achieving peace, justice and strong institutions.

1. **In the context of SDG16, violence prevention at the family level requires parenting education. Positive parenting is a crucial element for children to grow up feeling secure, close to their parents or caregivers and to be able to include themselves in social life. In this sense, harsh parenting exerted through physical punishment and psychological aggression, are harmful to children's development and wellbeing as**

it hinders the development of psychological, emotional and social skills and capabilities from performing well in the community and according to social and cultural standards. Negative parenting has an impact on children's immediate and long-term wellbeing, including learning negative ways of relating to others and using violence in solving conflicts. Only ten Member States (Peru 2017, Armenia 2018, Mexico 2018, Chile 2019, Ghana 2019, Iraq 2019, Vanuatu 2019, Serbia 2019, Sweden 2017, and the Dominican Republic 2018) report information about violence against children by their caregivers; and only three countries (Norway 2016, Australia 2018, Germany 2016) implement positive parenting programmes as main strategies to eradicate harmful parenting practices and as part of their approach to achieving targets under SDG 16. Harsh disciplining of children continues, and it can be appreciated through the high levels of violence exerted by parents and adults.

2. Equally concerning is that 15 countries report violence against children in the context of domestic violence (Jamaica 2018, Croatia 2019, Guyana 2019, Bahamas 2018, Israel 2019, Bhutan 2018, Liechtenstein 2019, Palau 2019, Laos 2018, Turkey 2019, Mauritius 2019, Tonga 2019, Lesotho 2019, Estonia 2016, and Lithuania 2018). But violence against children is not reported and typified as resulting from harsh parenting, that is, specific parenting practices and attitudes towards children from mothers, fathers or caregivers. This understanding of violence against children under the more vague and general term of domestic violence prevents to address it with specific and appropriate measures. And it can be confirmed as most actions taken to combat domestic violence are aimed to provide legislative and child protection measures, and victim's support of domestic violence; 13 countries (Estonia 2016, Vanuatu 2019, Armenia 2018, Mexico 2018, Serbia 2019, Laos 2018, Turkey 2019, Mauritius 2019, Lesotho 2019, Jamaica 2018, Estonia 2016, Armenia 2018, Lithuania 2018) report implementing that kind of measures, but not parenting programmes.

3. Nineteen countries (the Dominican Republic 2018, Ecuador 2018, Albania 2018, Cabo Verde 2018, Uganda 2016, Viet Nam 2018, Lesotho 2019, Iraq 2019, Laos 2018, Timor-Leste 2019, Albania 2018, Ecuador 2018, Bhutan 2018, Viet Nam 2018, Lithuania 2018, Kazakhstan 2019, Armenia 2018, Turkey 2019, Sierra Leone 2019) report other types of violence against children, such as sexual abuse, bullying and sexual abuse at schools and child labour. Eleven countries are implementing programmes and more strict legislation to tackle such challenges (Ecuador 2018, Uganda 2016, Viet Nam 2018, Iceland 2019, Serbia 2019, Cyprus 2017, Lithuania 2018, Kazakhstan 2019, Laos 2018, Turkey 2019, Sierra Leone 2019). Other countries (Latvia 2018, Lebanon 2018, Malta 2018, Poland 2018, Croatia 2019, Liechtenstein 2019, Tonga 2019, Albania 2018, Iraq 2019, Singapore 2018, Mexico 2018, Spain 2018) report improvements regarding the role of police and the criminal justice system. It does so either by detecting and treating family violence or detecting children in conflict with authorities or who are at risk to suffer violence. Most of them have implemented different actions (legislations, training programmes to police officers, telephone lines to report various types of violence and crimes against children, and other child and adolescent protection measures). Still much more should be done as these challenges, especially violence in schools, shows how children remain highly vulnerable and unprotected.

4. **Human trafficking, mainly under the forms of sexual and labour exploitation is another crucial concerning issue as 31 countries report having this challenge. Most of them have developed national action plans and laws to prevent and combat them and provide psychological and legal assistance to the victims. But most countries do not provide specific figures about the proportion of such challenges, and the policies reported are general.**

5. **Twenty-one countries (Armenia 2018, Australia 2018, Sweden 2017, Ireland 2018, Namibia 2018, the State of Palestine 2018, Viet Nam 2018, Indonesia 2019, New Zealand 2019, Peru 2017, Iraq 2019, Kuwait 2019, Palau 2019, Mongolia 2019, Rwanda 2019, Timor-Leste 2019, Saint Lucia 2019, Tonga 2019, South Africa 2019, Hungary 2018, Canada 2018) report facing the challenge of women having experienced sexual violence by age 18. But most Member States report it as a domestic violence issue and not as gender-based violence. Besides, many of them report their data jointly with other types of violence, such as physical or emotional. Most countries also do not provide information regarding men. This approach prevents building intervention schemes aimed at empowering women and men to build equal, close and positive partner relationships. Figures provided regarding violence against women show that their proportions remain very high and that they are very concerning human rights challenges. Sexual violence against women is practised primarily by partners, but it is also exerted in schools, and dating relationships. And in some countries, it is prevalent among ethnic groups. Most countries have implemented plans to reduce violence against women and children. Still, family policy regarding this goal and its targets lag behind and more actions must be undertaken and should be a priority.**

6. **Regarding target 16.9, providing legal identity to children through birth registration may be considered under the family lens. Not only because it ensures a human right of providing a legal identity to children but also because it is a means to prevent child human trafficking and exploitation, as many countries have reported. Most countries report significant achievements, and this represents a positive trend that should be sustained further in countries which still face challenges in this regard.**

Conclusions

The analysis of Voluntary National Reviews (VNRs) indicates that families may be key to ensure progress towards the SDGs by 2030, with close to 90 per cent of countries making specific references to families. In the order of importance, Governments consider family policies useful for the implementation of SDGs 16, 5, 3, 1, 4, 2 and 11.

Governments mostly refer to families as units of diagnosis or as targets in their efforts towards the achievement of SDGs above, but family-oriented policies are not considered an integral part of overall development efforts.

The potential of families and family-oriented policies to achieve SDGs remains to be fully addressed in overall socioeconomic policymaking.

SDG 1 (end poverty)

Out of the 95 Member States reporting on poverty, 33 are developing sound family-oriented policies to combat it. Some have implemented programmes that work closely with targeted families; others work with families as co-managers of programmes, and some involve parents in planning to overcome their precarious socioeconomic conditions or address their specific needs.

Families are regarded as active agents in development and are well supported in countries that have a robust institutional welfare system. In others, the institutional context is more challenging, and assistance to low-income families provided on ad hoc basis.

SDG 2 (zero hunger)

Some Member States with a well-developed welfare system, have promoted family farming as a tool to reinforce big chains of production-commercialisation-consumption of food to boost agriculture while integrating vulnerable families. Others facing major challenges as a result of hunger and food insecurity, primarily implement it to support vulnerable families.

Few Member States have developed educational and health efforts aimed at changing parental behaviours to improve children's nutrition.

SDG 3 (good health and wellbeing)

Although substantial progress is reported, several Member States address maternal, neonatal and infant mortality rates primarily through a medical and clinical lens, which has been acknowledged as necessary but insufficient to achieve SDG 3 targets.

Adolescent pregnancy and the use of contraceptive methods are either underreported or are a cause of concern. Due to prevalent gender-biased values, most countries fall behind in developing policies in these areas.

SDG 4 (quality education)

Early Childhood Education is offered in several countries, but only 11 have implemented programmes to empower parents as collaborative agents in improving the quality of education. They aim at developing parenting skills and engaging parents in school plans to enhance children's proficiency and competence. Some Member States have extended this to primary education.

Few Member States have introduced the development of values and 'soft skills', promoting ethical stands based on civic culture and human rights, but families, as intergenerational agents, are not involved in reinforcing them.

SDG 5 (gender equality)

Gender equality remains a widespread and central concern. All reporting Governments have or are in the process of incorporating gender equality issues at the legislative level. These measures represent most of the efforts undertaken, and several Member States have

acknowledged their limited reach to reduce gender inequality due to the deep sociocultural barriers grounded in prevailing traditional gender values.

The most effective family-oriented policies are within the field of family-work balance. 14 Member States provide different, coordinated and comprehensive parental leave schemes to promote a better-shared responsibility and conciliation between family and work. Some also provide flexible work, public or private childcare facilities, or shared parental or family relative's leave to alleviate women's work burden and promote their empowerment.

SDG 11 (sustainable cities and communities)

24 Member States reported progress concerning inclusive and accessible green and open public areas. However, only 3 involve families, through legislations or programmes, in feeding policymaking, planning and management of local areas, such as residents deciding where new homes, green spaces and other facilities should go and how they should 'look and feel'.

SDG 16 (peace, justice and strong institutions)

Although the information is insufficient, violence against children and women are reported as severe challenges by several countries. Strategies to combat it have been focused mainly on victim support and legislative measure. However, comprehensive, family-oriented policies are either lacking or fragile.

Parental violence against children is often reported as a result of domestic violence rather than harsh parenting practices. Hence, only Australia, Germany and Norway have implemented positive parenting programmes aimed at reducing it.

Member States acknowledge that sexual violence against women by age 18 is an issue of concern. It is exerted primarily by intimate partners. Similarly, it is primarily noted as an issue of domestic rather than gender-based violence. Therefore, the implementation of policies and programmes aimed at empowering women and building equal, close and positive partner relationship is hindered.

Recommendations

- **Intensify efforts to include a family impacts lens, a holistic view of families and the recognition of the positive potential of families as means in SDGs policy design, implementation and monitoring processes; and ensure that countries' VNRs capture families' contributions to the achievements of SDGs and related targets**

- **Intensify efforts to extend to other countries whole-of-family support programmes to address poverty**

- **Intensify efforts to extend and promote family farming, especially to developing countries to combat hunger and poverty**

- **Intensify efforts to strengthen the relationship and coordination between medical, nutritional attention and parenting programmes to ensure the transmission of healthy nutrition patterns; between medical attention and reproductive health**

policies; and between early childhood education and basic education policies and parenting programmes

- **Intensify and strengthen actions to change gender-based values, attitudes and practices that hinder achievements in other SDGs targets, such as women's and adolescents' reproductive health rights, free-will and at appropriate age marriage, ending female genital mutilation, promotion of equal shared care and domestic work, and ending physical, emotional and sexual violence against girls and women. Promote a human rights culture to ensure positive outcomes in those areas**

- **Intensify, strengthen and extend positive parenting programmes to all countries, as they are powerful intergenerational transmission instruments to end poverty, hunger, undernutrition, malnutrition and gender inequality; and are crucial means to assist children in improving their school readiness and school proficiency and performance in early childhood education and basic education level**

- **Intensify efforts to extend and strengthen various schemes of parental, grandparental and family-members leave, flexible work and childcare services, benefits for women when returning to work after having a child to promote better work-family balance**

- **Intensify the engagement of parents and families in the provision of some services, such as running community kitchens, supporting victims of violence, or as active agents in the community and local urban planning**

- **Promote and undertake engagement with families to seek their contribution on how to make social policies more effective and efficient leaving no family behind**

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- 2018 VNRs: Albania, Armenia, Australia, Bahamas, Bahrain, Bhutan, Cabo Verde, Canada, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Jamaica, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lebanon, Lithuania, Malta, Mexico, Namibia, Paraguay, Poland, Qatar, Romania, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Slovakia, Spain, Sri Lanka, State of Palestine, Sudan, Switzerland, Togo, United Arab Emirates, Uruguay, Viet Nam.
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