WHY GENDER EQUALITY MATTERS ACROSS ALL SDGS

AN EXCERPT OF
TURNING PROMISES INTO ACTION:
GENDER EQUALITY IN THE 2030 AGENDA
FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

UN WOMEN

This excerpt is from UN Women's global monitoring report *Turning Promises into Action: Gender Equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. It is chapter 3 of the report, which shows why gender equality matters for achieving all 17 SDGs. The report also sets an agenda for strengthening accountability for gender equality commitments at the global, regional and national level (chapter 1); features a systematic analysis of gender data gaps (chapter 2); an in-depth statistical picture of women and girls who experience multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination (chapter 4); and concrete policy guidance for achieving two strategic targets under SDG5: eradicating all forms of violence against women and girls (Chapter 5) and recognizing and valuing unpaid care and domestic work (Chapter 6).

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CONTENTS

KEY MESSAGES

1/ Gender-based discrimination—deeply rooted and present across all countries—threatens to undermine the transformative potential of the 2030 Agenda in real and measurable ways. This goal-by-goal review shows that gender inequalities remain pervasive in each and every dimension of sustainable development.

2/ Globally, women under age 40 are more likely to be poor than men. In 89 countries with available data, there are 4.4 million more women than men living on less than US$1.90 a day. Unequal access to and control over economic resources lie at the root of women's poverty. Gender inequalities in the labour market persist, largely due to occupational segregation and gender pay gaps.

3/ Despite recent progress, access to quality education is still not universal: 48.1 per cent of adolescent girls in sub-Saharan Africa remain out of school. Women continue to be under-represented in leadership positions, and in other areas, such as maternal mortality, child marriage and female genital mutilation (FGM), progress is unacceptably slow and uneven.

4/ Available evidence shows that a substantial share of women and girls experience violence, often at the hands of their intimate partners. In situations of unrest, instances of sexual and lethal violence increase and are commonly perpetrated not only by intimate partners but also by police and military personnel.

5/ Environmental degradation and natural disasters affect women disproportionately. Droughts, floods, pollution and deforestation all put a significant burden on women, who see their water collection time increased, firewood and fodder collection efforts thwarted and ability to provide for their families and cope with disasters disproportionately impacted.

6/ Unless appropriate action is taken to advance gender equality, the promise of the 2030 Agenda—of a better world, with universal respect for human rights and dignity and full realization of human potential—will go unrealized.

INTRODUCTION

Gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls is not only an explicit goal under the 2030 Agenda but also a driver of sustainable development in all its dimensions, from ending poverty and hunger, promoting prosperity and inclusive growth and building peaceful, just and inclusive societies to securing the protection of the planet and its natural resources. By contrast, where women and girls are denied rights and opportunities, progress will inevitably falter and the 2030 Agenda as a whole will be in jeopardy. The systematic mainstreaming of a gender perspective in the implementation and monitoring of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is therefore crucial.

Against this backdrop, this chapter reviews the state of gender equality across the 17 SDGs and explains how and why gender matters to all the goals. Rather than an exhaustive review of the 54 gender-specific indicators (see Chapter 2 and Annex 1), the chapter uses a spotlight approach, selecting one indicator per goal to illustrate progress, gaps and challenges to date. The only exception to this approach is SDG 5, which is comprehensively covered at the target level using corresponding indicators with available data. For each spotlight, pressing data gaps and measurement challenges are also highlighted.

In addition to official indicators, the chapter uses supplemental data and indicators for goals that lack meaningful gender-specific indicators or where data for such indicators are currently unavailable or inadequate. These supplemental indicators were selected based on an open consultation with civil society organizations and inputs from other international experts (see Box 3.1).

BOX 3.1

SELECTING SUPPLEMENTAL GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

In October 2016, UN Women launched a short web-based survey to gather ideas and suggestions for identifying thematically relevant gender-specific indicators, particularly for goals and targets where a gender-specific indicator was lacking in the SDG global monitoring framework (for example, Goals 14 and 15) or where the official gender-specific indicators are currently classified as Tier III (for example, Goal 11). Respondents, including international agencies and civil society organizations, submitted suggestions for additional indicators, along with information on their relevance and, where possible, data sources and how often the data are produced. The recommendations included, for instance, monitoring the "average weekly time spent by women and girls on water collection" for Goal 6 and the "share of women aged 15–49 whose BMI [body mass index] is less than 18.5 (underweight)" for Goal 2.

In other instances, existing gender-specific indicators can be supplemented with additional non-official ones to allow for a more meaningful assessment of progress. For example, "proportion of individuals who own a mobile phone, by sex" is the official indicator to monitor the use of enabling technology to promote women's empowerment (Target 5.b). However, UN Women's consultation revealed "access to Internet, by sex" as an additional, and in some cases more relevant, indicator for capturing the spirit of the target. Consequently, both have been included in the spotlight under Target 5.b.

In all, a total of 66 indicators were proposed through this consultation process. For the full list of gender-specific—official and supplemental—indicators included in the chapter (see Annex 1).

The SDGs have the potential to bring about positive change for women and girls, but further action is needed to accelerate progress, address current blind spots and prevent backsliding. The goal-by-goal assessment in this chapter also underscores the obstacles posed by gaps in data and gender statistics.

In addition to improving data collection and data quality, overcoming these obstacles will require serious analytical work that sharpens our understanding of how to capture, measure and monitor meaningful change for women and girls in new and emerging areas, such as the gender implications of climate change.

WHY GENDER EQUALITY MATTERS ACROSS THE SDGS

Women and girls are half of the world's population and as a result hold half of the world's human potential. When their lives are improved, the benefits reverberate across society. Access to decent work and regular income in the hands of women, for example, contribute not only to poverty reduction (SDG 1) but also support better education, health and nutrition outcomes for women and girls and those who depend on them (SDGs 2, 3 and 4).[1]

Similarly, eliminating all forms of violence against women and girls (Target 5.2) is not only an essential component of SDG 5 but also critical to ensuring healthy lives and well-being for people of all ages (SDG 3). Women subjected to sexual or physical intimate partner violence are 1.5 times as likely to become infected with HIV (Target 3.3).[2] They are also almost twice as likely to experience depression and alcohol use disorders (Target 3.5).[3] The health consequences of violence against women and girls extend to their children, who may witness the abuse and suffer long-term trauma that impacts their physical, emotional and social development.[4] Figure 3.1 illustrates broadly how gender equality is indispensable to the success of all the goals.

Yet, progress on gender equality has been highly uneven across the different dimensions of the 2030 Agenda. In some areas, such as girls' access to education, global improvement is undeniable yet insufficient, often leaving behind women and girls in the poorest households (SDG 4). In areas such as labour force participation (SDG 8) and innovation and knowledge creation (SDG 9), significant gender gaps remain and progress has been minimal. In other cases, such as maternal mortality (SDG 3), progress is too slow and uneven to achieve SDG Target 3.1 by 2030. Similarly, while progress has been made towards eliminating the practice of female genital mutilation (FGM) (SDG 5), this is not enough to keep up with population growth, meaning the number of women and girls undergoing FGM is likely to rise over the next 15 years.[5]

Unless progress on gender equality is accelerated, the global community will not only fail to achieve SDG 5, it will also forgo the catalytic effect that gender equality can have for the achievement of the 2030 Agenda more broadly. The review shows that across countries and regions, women and girls face tremendous structural barriers that impact all aspects of their lives. Eliminating gender-specific constraints, as well as other forms of discrimination with which they intersect, is hence critical.

FIGURE 3.1

GENDER EQUALITY IS KEY TO DELIVERING ON THE TRANSFORMATIVE VISION OF THE 2030 AGENDA

SDG 17
Mobilizing sufficient resources will be critical for meeting the gender equality commitments of the 2030 Agenda.

SDG 16
Women play a vital role in preventing conflict and forging and maintaining peace. By fully protecting women's rights, peaceful and inclusive societies will be within reach.

SDG 15
Women's specific knowledge of and dependence on forests makes them key contributors to forest conservation and regeneration.

SDG 14
Empowering women in local fisheries decision-making leads to better resource governance and conservation.

SDG 13
Gender equality is critical to mitigate climate impacts: Women's inclusion in climate discussions leads to improved outcomes of climate-related projects and policies

SDG 12
Unsustainable production and consumption patterns are gendered, with women suffering disproportionately from resource scarcity and natural disasters resulting from climate change.

SDG 11
Women have equal rights to the city, and their safety in public spaces is crucial for sustainable urbanization.

SDG 10
Gender equality is crucially linked with overall equality in society.
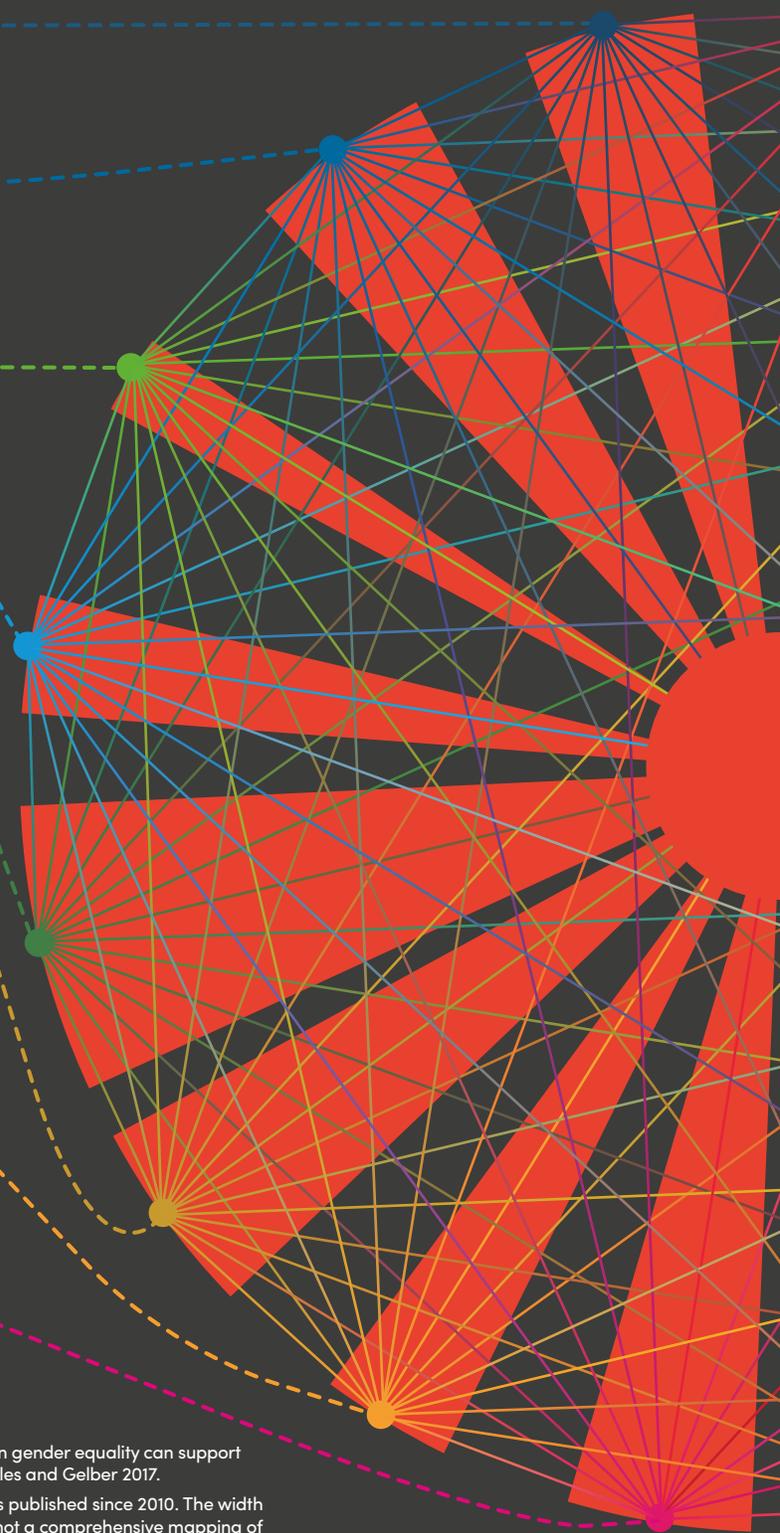
Source: The infographic is based on a review of existing knowledge on how progress on gender equality can support delivery of the transformative vision of the 2030 Agenda, compiled and distilled by Beales and Gelber 2017.

Notes: The infographic draws from over 600 English language publications and articles published since 2010. The width of the SDG 5 rays in the graphic correspond to the number of articles reviewed. While not a comprehensive mapping of all potential gender-relevant interactions, it aims to represent a starting point for further work towards a more complete understanding of the catalytic role gender equality plays in accelerating progress across the SDGs. Findings and summaries for each article, study and report reviewed are available upon request.

SDG 1

Research shows that more cash in the hands of women contributes not only to eliminating poverty but also to better education, nutrition and health outcomes for children and other members of the household.

SDG 2

Women play a critical role in food production, processing and distribution and are therefore essential to meeting the agricultural productivity and nutrition targets of Goal 2.

SDG 3

Gender equality in health is one of the most direct and potent ways to reduce health inequities overall and to achieve Goal 3.

SDG 4

Achieving equality in education will boost women's employment and empowerment, add to economic growth and contribute positively to child well-being and development.

SDG 5

Gender equality is central to the SDGs, and if it is not achieved, the implementation of all the goals will be compromised.

SDG 6

Women and girls play a central role in the provision, management and safeguarding of household water and sanitation. Addressing the water and sanitation needs of women benefits the health and well-being of entire communities.

SDG 7

As primary energy managers in households, women can play a powerful role in the successful transition to sustainable energy for all.

SDG 8

Women's access to decent work is an essential measure of inclusive and sustainable growth.

SDG 9

Increasing women's participation in technology, science and innovation is critical for meeting the global challenges ahead.

ALL 17 GOALS FROM A GENDER EQUALITY PERSPECTIVE

SDG 1

End poverty in all its forms everywhere

TARGETS

7

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

6

Unequal access to and control over economic resources lie at the root of women's poverty. Discriminatory legal frameworks and customary laws can place significant constraints on women's ability to earn an income by restricting their access to inheritance, land, property and credit as well as their mobility. But even where formal restrictions are removed, women face multiple barriers to their ability to move out of poverty. Labour market segmentation, gender wage gaps and unequal access to social protection remain a persistent source of economic disadvantage for women. Discriminatory social norms and women's disproportionate share of unpaid care work further hamper their ability to earn a living. As a result, women are less likely than men to have an income of their own, rendering them financially dependent on their partners and increasing their vulnerability to poverty.[6]

Spotlight on extreme poverty by sex

Globally, there are 122 women aged 25–34 for every 100 men of the same age group living in extreme poverty[7]

Until now there have been no credible global estimates of the number of people living in extreme poverty disaggregated by sex. In most cases, discussions related to this issue have been based either on outdated and widely discredited figures[8] or on popular yet faulty methods that confound gender analysis with household headship.[9] The difficulty of estimating monetary poverty by sex stems from the use of household level instruments to collect poverty data. These tools often lack information on intrahousehold dynamics, including individual-level consumption patterns and information on how resources are pooled and shared between household members.[10] In the absence of such information, assumptions are often made about intra-household distribution of resources (assuming these are shared equitably) that may or may not reflect true household level dynamics.

For this report, UN Women partnered with the World Bank to produce new analysis, using the recently developed Global Micro Database (GMD). Building on the work of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) on the femininity index,[11] the analysis for 89 countries looks at the prevalence of extreme poverty by sex, age and additional characteristics such as marital status and educational attainment and by differences in household composition (for example, mix of earners and non-earners by sex).[12] It shows that, at the global level, the percentage of women and girls living in poor households (i.e., the female poverty rate) is 12.8 per cent, compared to 12.3 per cent for men and boys.

This is equivalent to a total of 330 million poor women and girls compared to 325 million poor men and boys. When adjusted for the fact that men outnumber women in the population, the results indicate that women globally are 4 per cent more likely than men to live in extreme poverty, while the gender gap rises to 8 per cent in Central and Southern Asia.[13]

At the regional level, extreme poverty rates are higher among women than among men in Central and Southern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand) and sub-Saharan Africa. In Eastern and South-eastern Asia,

women are less likely to live in extreme poverty than men.[14] However, differences in extreme poverty rates by sex are small across regions and only statistically significant in Central and Southern Asia, where the rate is 15.8 per cent for women compared to 14.5 per cent for men.

Poverty rates are higher for children across the board compared to other age groups and decline relatively rapidly until the age of 24 (see Figure 3.2). The shift in trend after age 24 coincides with the period of biological reproduction and family formation, during which parents and caregivers may face increased expenses while also experiencing a squeeze on their time. This is particularly true for women who struggle to combine paid work and caring for children or other dependents. As a result, women are particularly vulnerable to poverty—and gender gaps are widest—during this phase of the life course. Globally, there are 122 women aged 25-34 for every 100 men of the same age group living in extreme poor households, and the figure rises to 132 women for every 100 men in Latin America and the Caribbean (see Figure 3.3). By age 55, the percentage of poor women is lower than that of poor men and thus they are no longer overly represented among the poor. Further research is needed to understand gender differences in poverty among older women and men, as these vary substantially across countries.

FIGURE 3.2

PROPORTION OF PEOPLE LIVING IN EXTREME POVERTY, BY SEX AND AGE, 2009-2013
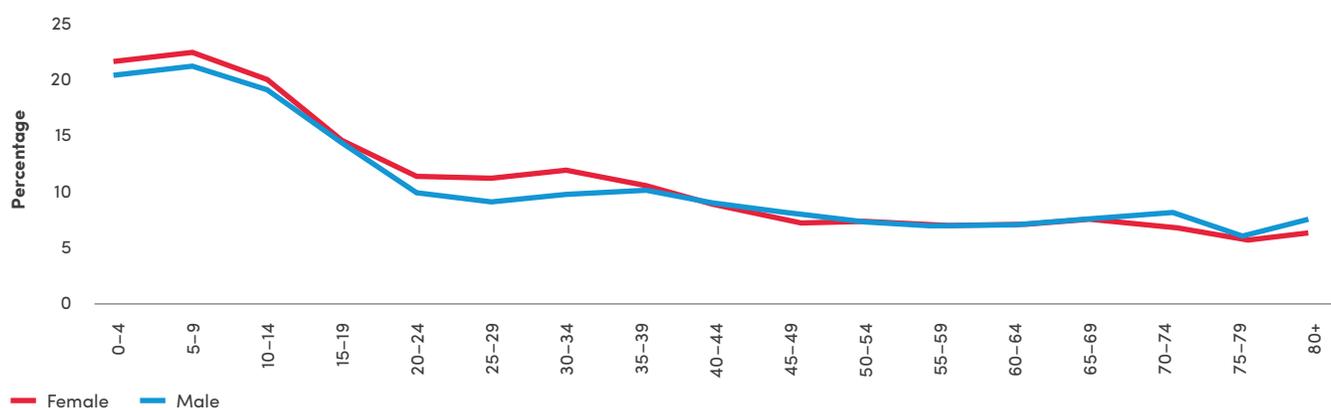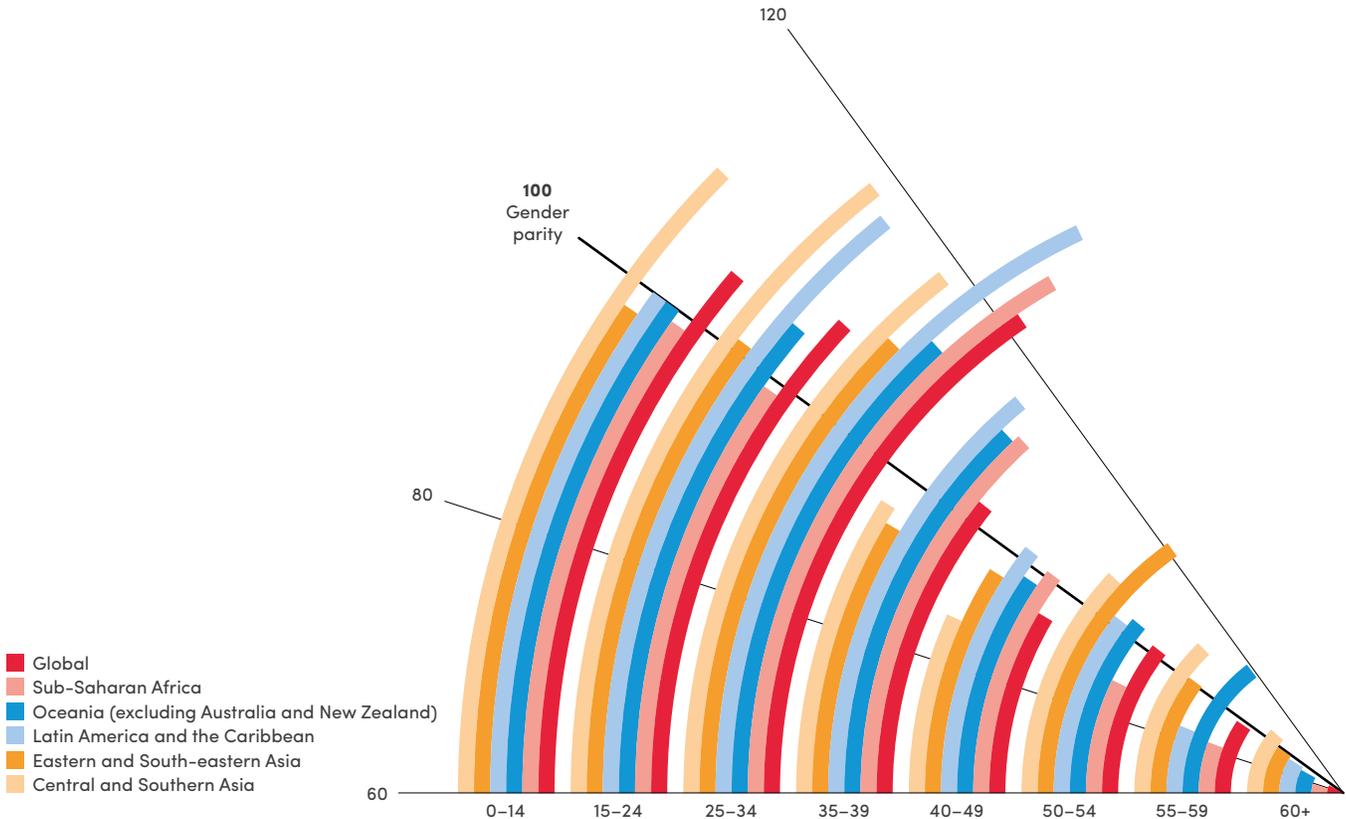

Source: World Bank calculations using Global Micro Database 2017, see UN Women and World Bank forthcoming.
Note: Data refer to the most recent available during the period specified for 89 developing countries.

FIGURE 3.3

FEMININITY INDEX BY AGE AND REGION, 2009-2013
Number of women in poverty for every 100 men in poverty

Source: World Bank calculations using Global Micro Database (GMD) 2017, see UN Women and World Bank forthcoming.

Notes: Data refer to the most recent available during the period specified for 89 developing countries. GMD does not include high-income countries (with the exception of Chile and Uruguay for Latin America and the Caribbean). Given low population coverage the figure does not include three of the SDG regions: Australia and New Zealand, Europe and Northern America, and Northern Africa and Western Asia. The femininity index is calculated as follows: Σ (female in poor households)/(Σ (male in poor households)/Σ(female in all households)/(Σ (male in all households). Values above 103 indicate that women and girls are overly represented among the poorest.

Measurement challenges

While the analysis above is suggestive of approaches that can be used to learn more about gender and poverty using existing data, individual level income and consumption data are needed to monitor extreme poverty by sex. Yet collecting these data can be complex and expensive. At present, most microdata from living standards surveys and other income-related measures are not publicly available or widely disseminated, making it difficult to assess income and consumption inequalities in many countries. Developing new methodologies and increasing data coverage to monitor many dimensions of SDG 1—some of which are currently Tier II or III— and making such data openly available is a pressing concern.

2 ZERO HUNGER

SDG 2

End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture

TARGETS
8

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS
1

Women play a critical role in food production, processing and distribution and are therefore essential to meeting the agricultural productivity and nutrition targets of Goal 2. Yet, inadequate access to productive resources, markets, training and technology as well as unequal gender relations often leave them trapped in domestic and subsistence-type activities in which they have little control over the proceeds of their labour, whether it be food or cash.[15] At the same time, unequal power relations at the household level render women more vulnerable to food insecurity. Particularly when crises hit or food prices rise, women and girls often become 'shock absorbers', consuming less nutritious food themselves in order to support their families and spending more time and energy to secure and process food for domestic consumption.[16]

Spotlight on food security

In nearly two thirds of countries, women are more likely than men to report food insecurity

An estimated 789 million people, 11 per cent of the world's population, are undernourished.[17] If trends persist, the goal of ending hunger by 2030 will be missed.[18]

Data collected by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)—using the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) in the context of the Voices of the Hungry project for 141 countries in 2014 and 2015—show that women are more likely to report food insecurity in nearly two thirds of the countries.[19] Across regions, the highest prevalence of food insecurity is in sub-Saharan Africa, where more than half of the population is food insecure at moderate or severe levels. However, food insecurity is also prevalent in the largest economies in the world. In the United Kingdom, for example, 10 per cent of women and 9 per cent of men reported food insecurity.

While women generally report greater food insecurity, the gender gaps vary significantly across countries (see Figure 3.4). Gender differences are greater than 3 percentage points and biased against women in nearly a quarter of the 141 countries sampled and against men in seven countries. In Albania, for instance, women were 4.4 percentage points less likely than men to say they struggled with regular access to food for themselves and their families. In Pakistan, however, food insecurity among women was a staggering 11 percentage points higher than that among men.

Food insecurity results in poor health and decreased nutrient intake.[20] This is a particular challenge for children as well as pregnant and lactating women,

FIGURE 3.4

GENDER GAP IN PREVALENCE OF FOOD INSECURITY, 2014-2015

Gender gap
(female–male)

–10   15

No data

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

* Dotted line represents approximately the Line of Control in Jammu and Kashmir agreed upon by India and Pakistan. The final status of Jammu and Kashmir has not yet been agreed upon by the parties.

**Final boundary between the Republic of Sudan and the Republic of South Sudan has not yet been determined.

Source: UN Women calculations based on data from the 2014–2015 FAO Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) survey. See UNSD 2017a.

Notes: The FIES measures the percentage of individuals in the national population who have experienced food insecurity at moderate or severe levels during the 12-month reference period. The analysis is based on data from 141 countries collected by FAO in the context of the Voices of the Hungry project. See FAO 2017a.[23]

who often suffer from anaemia as a result. A leading cause of maternal mortality, anaemia was estimated to affect 29 per cent of women aged 15–49 globally in 2011. The figure is higher for pregnant women (38 per cent).[21] Prevalence rates are also generally higher among rural women, women living in the poorest quintile and women with lower levels of education.[22]

Measurement challenges

Measuring food insecurity for women and men separately requires surveys with samples that are nationally representative and where the unit of analysis is the individual and not the household. However, there is a risk that SDG indicator 2.1.2 will be informed mostly by household level surveys. This may create problems in the availability of data for sex-disaggregated analysis and intra-household inequality assessments in some countries.[24]

3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING

SDG 3

Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

TARGETS

13

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

6

Biological differences between women and men—as well as socially determined differences in their rights, roles and responsibilities—undermine the health and well-being of women and girls. Lack of control over resources, gender-based violence, the burden of unpaid care and domestic work, longer working hours and unhealthy work conditions all impede on women's ability to lead healthy lives. Gender norms and biases shape how women's health needs are perceived by themselves and by others. At the health systems level, for example, identification and support for women who have been victims of violence is often inadequate (see Chapter 5). At the household level, gender power relations may mean that women lack the resources to seek medical care or must obtain consent from family members to do so.

Spotlight on maternal mortality

Maternal mortality has declined since 1990, but much too slowly to achieve Target 3.1 by 2030

Globally, about 303,000 women died from pregnancy-related causes in 2015, resulting in a maternal mortality ratio (MMR) of 216 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births.[25] At the regional level, sub-Saharan Africa has the highest MMR with 556 deaths per 100,000 live births and accounts for two thirds of all maternal deaths each year (see Figure 3.5). Globally, the lifetime estimated risk of a woman dying from a maternity-related cause is 1 in 4,900, but the ratio rises to 1 in 180 in developing countries and 1 in 54 in countries designated as fragile States, where health systems are often broken or overwhelmed.[26]

Maternal mortality ratios went down by 44 per cent between 1990 and 2015, a decline of 2.3 per cent per year. However, achieving SDG Target 3.1 by 2030 will require a decline of at least 7.5 per cent annually.[27] To highlight the scale of the challenge, the largest declines in the MMR between 1990 and 2015 were observed in Eastern Asia (2.9 per cent annually), but this is still less than half the annual reduction that is needed to achieve the target. The United States is an outlier to the general downward trend among developed countries. Deaths related to complications from pregnancy or childbirth increased there between 2000 and 2014 from 18.8 to 23.8 per 100,000. The rates of death are particularly high among African American women as well as among low-income women and women residing in rural areas regardless of their race or ethnicity.[28]

FIGURE 3.5

MATERNAL MORTALITY RATIO, DEATHS PER 100,000 LIVE BIRTHS, BY REGION, 1990-2015
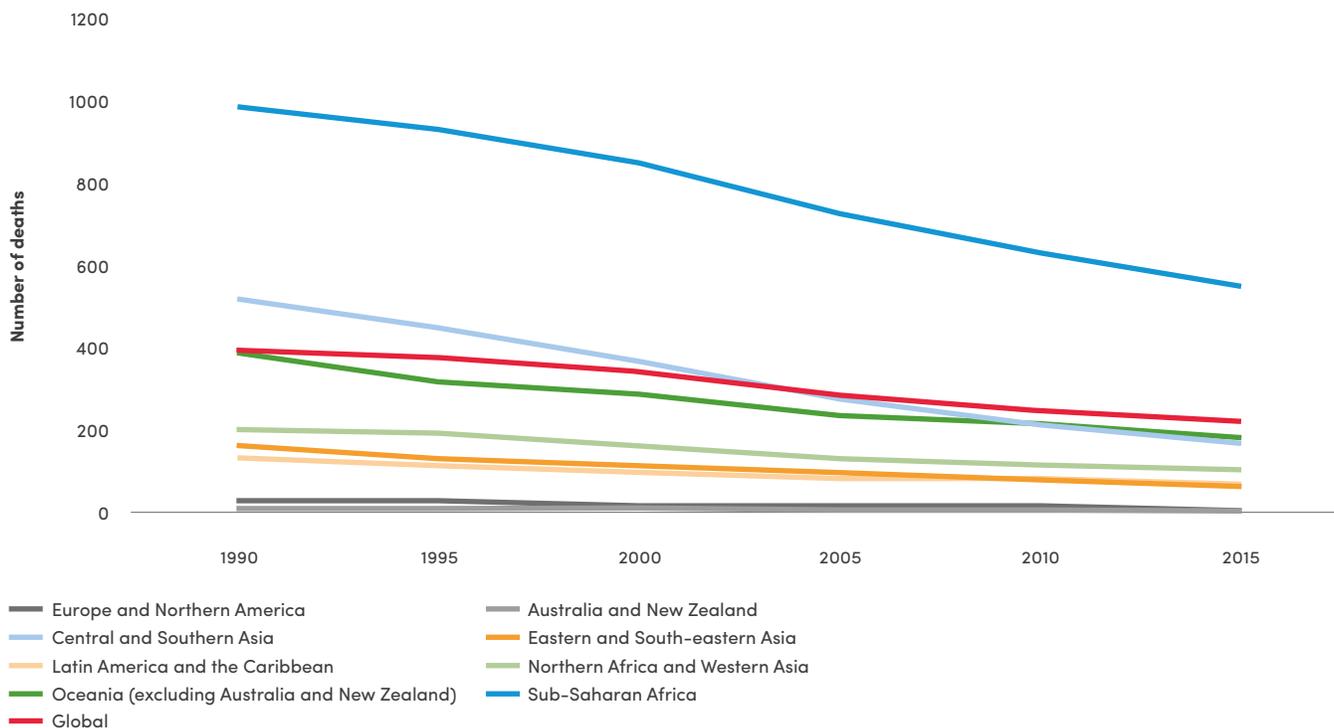
Source: Weighted averages calculated by UN Women using data from UNICEF 2017a.

Note: Based on data for 183 countries.

Most maternal deaths can be prevented if mothers receive adequate antenatal and post-natal care, if deliveries are attended by skilled health professionals and if women have adequate access to medical care for health conditions linked to elevated risk of obstetric complications, including those arising from unsafe abortions.[29] Expanding access to quality health care and ensuring universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights for women and girls is therefore essential for reducing maternal mortality rates.[30] Globally, deliveries attended by skilled health professionals are increasing, from 61 per cent in 2000 to 79 per cent in 2016.[31] But accelerated efforts are also needed in related areas such as family planning, including access to modern contraceptive methods, if Target 3.1 is to be achieved by 2030.

Measurement challenges

Currently, only about one third of all countries and territories have reliable data on maternal mortality.[32] For the remaining countries, the MMR relies on estimations. In many countries, national civil registration and vital statistics systems under-report the number of deaths (see Chapter 2, Box 2.8). This is especially the case in developing countries with underdeveloped health systems, but also a concern in developed countries.[33] Comprehensive registration of live births, as well as deaths and causes of death, is needed to improve the coverage and quality of maternal mortality estimates. Moreover, because maternal deaths are often a relatively rare event from a statistical point of view, large sample sizes are needed if household surveys are used.[34]

SDG 4

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

TARGETS

10

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

8

The increase in girls' school enrolment has been one of the most remarkable achievements of the past decades. Each additional year of post-primary education for girls has important multiplier effects, including by improving women's employment outcomes, decreasing the chance of early marriage and improving their health and well-being as well as that of future generations.[35] SDG 4 broadens the focus from equal access to primary education to cover the quality of education and opportunities for lifelong learning at all ages, with particular implications for women and girls. Across the globe, but particularly in developing countries, schools are grossly under-resourced, teacher training is limited, class sizes are excessive and textbooks and other resources are in short supply, with negative consequences for girls and boys alike.[36] At the same time, girls face specific challenges. Where adequate sanitation facilities are lacking, for example, concerns over safety and menstrual hygiene management may keep girls away from school or compromise their learning experience.[37]

## Spotlight on inequality in access to education

Despite recent progress, girls continue to face significant disadvantages in education: As many as 48.1 per cent remain out of school in some regions

Data from 2015 show that 90.3 per cent of girls of primary school age were enrolled in school that year, up from 82.2 per cent in 2000, compared to boys at 91.9 per cent in 2015 and 87.6 per cent in 2000. The gender gap has thus narrowed globally by 3.8 percentage points over the last 15 years.[38] At the same time, between 2000 and 2015, girls have made significant strides compared to boys, reducing the primary out-of-school rate—a key indicator of exclusion from education—from 17.8 per cent to 9.7 per cent compared to a reduction from 12.1 per cent to 8.1 per cent for boys (see Figure 3.6).[39] However, despite such progress, girls continue to face significant disadvantages in education: It is estimated that 15 million girls will never get the chance to learn to read or write in primary school compared to about 10 million boys.[40]

In secondary education, girls have nearly caught up with boys at the global level, with net enrolment rates rising from 53.1 to 64.8 per cent for girls compared to an increase from 57.7 to 65.3 per cent for boys between 2000 and 2015.[41] Nevertheless, in some regions adolescent girls are more likely than boys to be excluded from education (though in others boys risk being disadvantaged).[42] In sub-Saharan Africa and in Western Asia and Northern Africa, 48.1 per cent and 25.7 per cent of adolescent girls are out of school compared to 43.6 per cent and 21.7 per cent of boys, respectively.[43]

FIGURE 3.6

GLOBAL OUT-OF-SCHOOL RATE, PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL AGE, 2000-2015
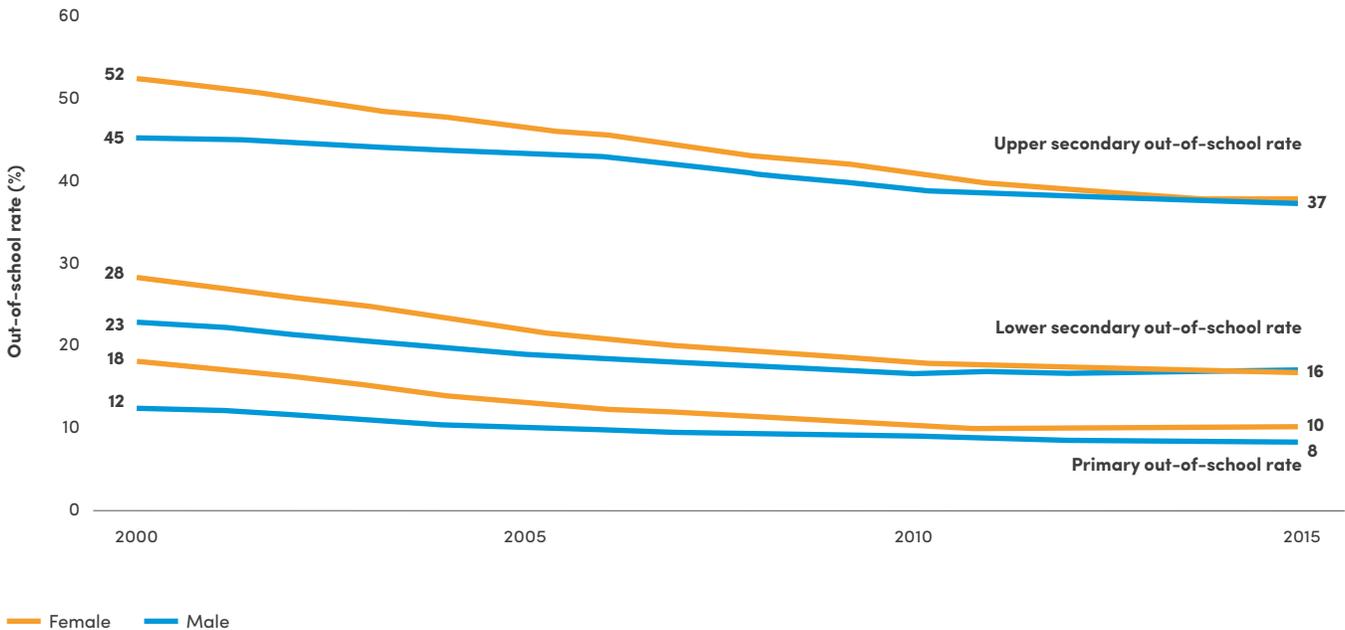
Source: UNESCO 2017a.

Note: For all age groups, the UIS uses the same definition of 'out of school': children (about 6 to 11 years), adolescents (about 12 to 14 years) and youth (about 15 to 17 years) of primary, lower secondary and upper secondary school age who are not enrolled in formal primary, secondary or post-secondary education.

Poverty plays a key role in driving exclusion from education. Analysis of illiteracy data among women and men aged 15–49 across 41 developing countries shows that women living in poor households are consistently most disadvantaged compared to all other groups, including poor men (see Figure 3.7). In the Plurinational State of Bolivia, the illiteracy rate is at or close to zero among women from rich households and among most men. Yet the corresponding figure among women in poor households is 23 per cent, meaning one in five poor women are illiterate. The figure goes up to 29 per cent for Bolivian women from the Quechua indigenous group. The high rates of illiteracy, among other factors, contribute to deprivations in other areas, including inferior employment opportunities.[44]

FIGURE 3.7

ILLITERACY RATE AMONG POPULATION AGED 15-49, BY SEX AND WEALTH QUINTILES, 2005-2016
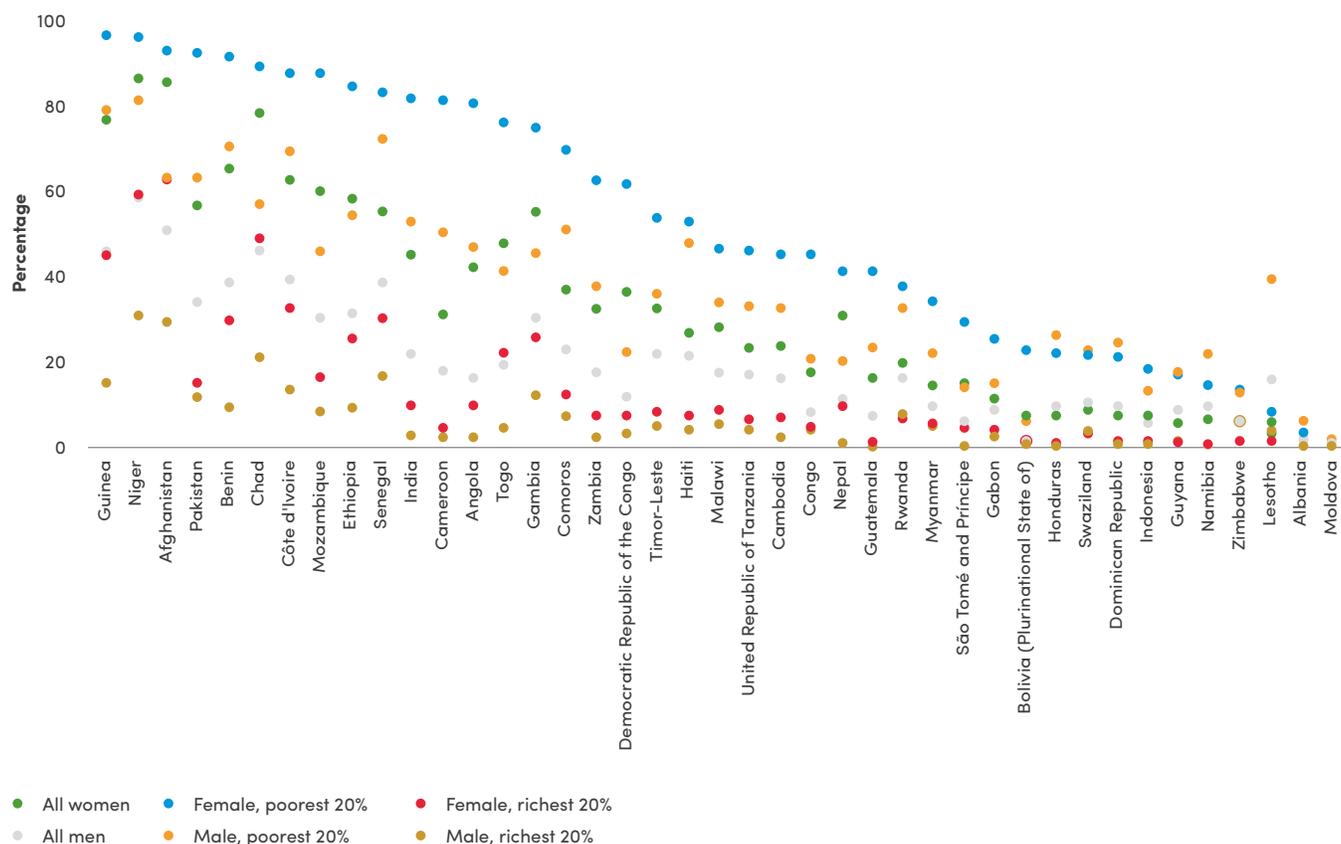
Source: UN Women calculations based on USAID 2017.

Notes: Data refer to the most recent available during the period specified for 41 countries. In the figure, richest 20% refers to households in the top 20 per cent of the wealth distribution and poorest 20% refers to households in the bottom 20 per cent of the wealth distribution.

Measurement challenges

Most of the gender-specific indicators in SDG 4 are Tier II or Tier III, making comprehensive monitoring difficult. Challenges remain even in the case of Tier I education indicators, particularly to capture basic education outcomes (such as literacy or attainment) and percentages of children who are out of school.

Efforts to expand monitoring of these and related outcomes for children are currently underway but are costly, and certain populations may remain difficult to reach, particularly young girls in marginalized population groups. Moreover, enrolment rates and out-of-school numbers only give a partial picture of gender equality in education. Data on learning outcomes are also needed.

5 GENDER EQUALITY

SDG 5

Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

TARGETS

9

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

14

5.1

End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere

5.2

Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation

5.3

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

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

5.5

Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life

5.6

Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences

5.a

Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws

5.b

Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women

5.c

Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels

Note: For ease of communication, shorthand versions of the target names are used in the section that follows.

End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere

Removing discriminatory laws and putting in place legislation that promotes gender equality is a prerequisite to achieving equality between the sexes. Over the past 25 years, progress has been made through, for example, legislation prohibiting discrimination based on sex with respect to inheritance and citizenship, laws that guarantee equality within the family and laws that address domestic violence. However, while progress has been significant, discriminatory constitutional and legislative provisions remain in place in many countries, leaving women without protection or legal basis to claim their rights.

Spotlight on discriminatory laws against women

Discriminatory legislative provisions continue in many countries

Under international human rights law and agreements, notably the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, States have committed to eliminating discrimination against women and promoting gender equality, including in the area of legal frameworks.

The five-year review and appraisal of the Beijing Platform for Action (Beijing + 5) established 2005 as the target date for the repeal of laws that discriminate against women. This deadline has come and gone and still data from 2016 show that in 18 countries husbands can legally prevent their wives from working, in 39 countries daughters and sons do not have equal inheritance rights, laws protecting women from domestic violence are lacking in 49 countries and in 37 countries rape perpetrators are exempt from prosecution if they are married to or subsequently marry the victim.[45]

Indicator 5.1.1, currently under development, will monitor progress on the following four areas of law: (1) overarching legal frameworks, including constitutions, and public life; (2) violence against women; (3) employment and economic benefits; and (4) marriage and the family. The indicator will monitor not only the removal of discriminatory laws but also the putting in place of legal frameworks that promote, enforce and monitor gender equality, including policies/plans, enforcement and monitoring mechanisms and allocation of financial resources. Data from pilot surveys are expected in the first half of 2018.

Measurement challenges

The overarching and all-encompassing nature of the Target makes it difficult to measure using a single indicator. In fact, many indicators under Goal 5 as well as under other goals are relevant for monitoring the elimination of discrimination against women and girls. The indicator selected focuses on legal frameworks, which are a critical element for advancing gender equality. Legal frameworks are also wide ranging, and while there is interest in capturing issues such as intersectional discrimination or cyber harassment, it can prove difficult to measure such issues consistently across countries.

TARGET 5.2

Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls

Violence against women and girls is one of the most pervasive human rights abuses in the world today and takes place in all countries. It occurs in both public and private spaces, and in the majority of cases is perpetrated by someone the victim knows, most often an intimate partner. It can take many forms, including physical, sexual, psychological and economic. Other types of violence such as trafficking—and new manifestations such as cyber-shaming and bullying—are also prevalent across countries. The results are long-term physical, mental and emotional problems and even, in many cases, death. This violence also affects women's communities and families, including their children, and prevents women from fully

participating in society. Social acceptability and widespread impunity for perpetrators are among the main factors contributing to its persistence.

Spotlight on intimate partner violence

1 in 5 women and girls aged 15–49 reported experiencing physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner in the previous 12 months

Available comparable data from 87 countries show that 19 per cent of women and girls aged 15–49 have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner in the past 12 months. Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand) is the region with the highest 12-month prevalence

FIGURE 3.8

PROPORTION OF EVER-PARTNERED WOMEN AND GIRLS AGED 15–49 SUBJECTED TO PHYSICAL OR SEXUAL VIOLENCE BY A CURRENT OR FORMER INTIMATE PARTNER IN THE PREVIOUS 12 MONTHS, BY REGION, 2005–2016
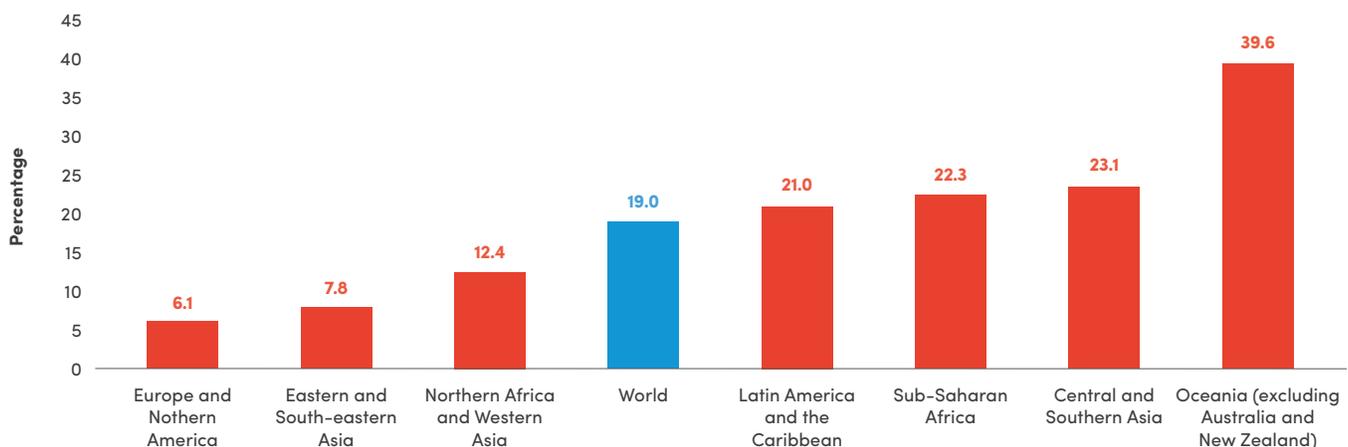
Source: UNSD 2017a.

Note: Data refer to the most recent available from Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and other national surveys for 87 countries during the period specified. Data coverage by region: Europe and Northern America: 29 countries, 50 per cent population coverage; Eastern and South-eastern Asia: 3 countries, 5 per cent population coverage; Northern Africa and Western Asia: 5 countries, 40 per cent population coverage; Latin America and the Caribbean: 10 countries, 24 per cent population coverage; sub-Saharan Africa: 27 countries, 66 per cent population coverage; Central and Southern Asia: 7 countries, 81 per cent population coverage; Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand): 6 countries, 11 per cent population coverage.

of intimate partner violence (IPV), with up to 40 per cent of women aged 15–49 reporting having experienced this. Women in the same age group living in Europe and Northern America had the lowest prevalence rate, estimated at 6 per cent (see Figure 3.8).

Trend data on violence against women and girls are not widely available. Surveys are often only available for one point in time or use different methodologies, hindering comparability over time between and within countries. Comparable data for 17 countries on

prevalence of physical or sexual IPV against women (aged 15–49) in the 12 months prior to the survey (see Figure 3.9) suggests prevalence is generally falling, especially in countries with the highest prevalence. In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, for example, there was a significant decrease from 59 per cent (2007) to 37 per cent (2013–2014). Despite the general downward trend, however, a statistically significant increase in IPV prevalence is observed in 5 of the 17 countries. For example, in the Dominican Republic, prevalence rose from 12 per cent in 2007 to 16 per cent in 2013.

FIGURE 3.9

PROPORTION OF EVER-PARTNERED WOMEN AND GIRLS AGED 15–49 SUBJECTED TO PHYSICAL AND/OR SEXUAL VIOLENCE BY A CURRENT OR FORMER INTIMATE PARTNER IN THE PREVIOUS 12 MONTHS, TREND ANALYSIS, VARIOUS YEARS (2004-2016)

● Previous year
● Latest year
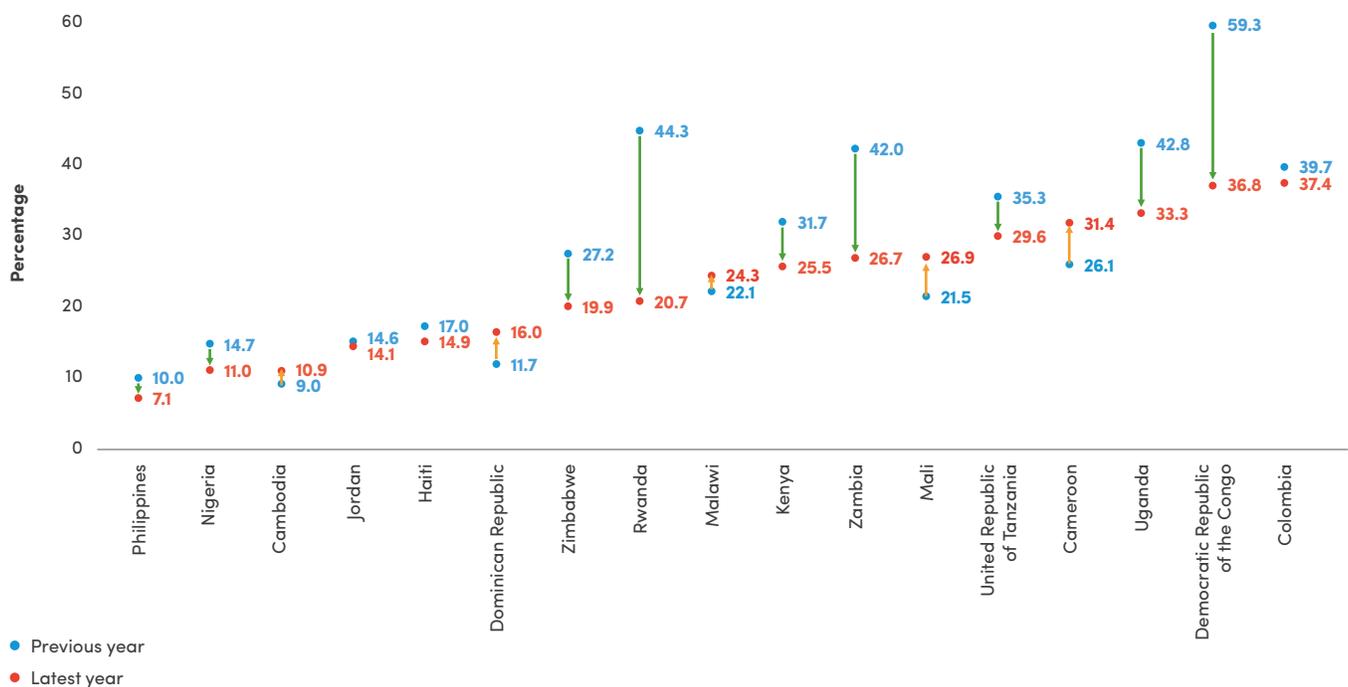
Source: UN Women calculations based on USAID 2017.

Note: Differences over time are statistically significant at the 10 per cent level across all countries except Colombia, Haiti and Jordan. Although the surveys are comparable across countries and over time, the sensitivity of the topic means reporting is highly influenced by the way the survey is implemented; changes in prevalence should therefore be interpreted with caution as they may or may not reflect real change in prevalence rates. Survey years by country are: Cambodia (2005 and 2014); Cameroon (2004 and 2011); Colombia (2005 and 2010); Democratic Republic of the Congo (2007 and 2013–14); Dominican Republic (2007 and 2013); Haiti (2005–06 and 2012); Jordan (2007 and 2012); Kenya (2008–09 and 2014); Malawi (2010 and 2015–16); Mali (2006 and 2012–13); Nigeria (2008 and 2013); Philippines (2008 and 2013); Rwanda (2010 and 2014–15); Uganda (2006 and 2011); United Republic of Tanzania (2010 and 2015–16); Zambia (2007 and 2013–14); and Zimbabwe (2010–11 and 2015).

While essential for monitoring progress over time, trend data on IPV can be difficult to interpret. Methodological issues, such as differences in the quality of interviewer trainings between surveys, may affect women's disclosure of IPV. Furthermore, policy and social changes towards non-tolerance of violence may also lead to greater recognition and disclosure of violence, increasing the level of reporting but not necessarily reflecting increased levels of violence.

Spotlight on adolescent girls and older women

Women and girls of all ages are vulnerable to violence

Based on comparable data from 50 countries, an estimated 15 million adolescent girls (aged 15–19) report experiencing forced sex in their lifetime.[46] Data from 28 countries also show that 9 in 10 adolescent girls who have experienced forced sex report being victimized by someone close or known to them.[47] In addition, adolescent girls and young women face the risk of violence in other settings such as in school or on university campuses. It is estimated that 246 million girls and boys globally have experienced school-related violence and one in four girls report never feeling safe using school latrines.[48] In a survey across 27 universities in the United States in 2015, 23 per cent of female undergraduate university students reported having experienced sexual assault or sexual misconduct.[49]

Data on violence against older women are scarce (many surveys interview only women aged 15–49), but they show that older women are more vulnerable than younger women to specific forms of violence, such as economic exploitation and neglect, and that the range of perpetrators expands to include other relatives, strangers, caregivers and neighbours.[50] A study conducted in five European countries found that 28 per cent of women aged 60 and above reported some form of abuse in the previous year, and the most common perpetrator of all types of violence (except neglect) was still a partner or a spouse (see Chapter 5).[51]

Measurement challenges

The sensitive nature of violence against women and girls poses a number of methodological and ethical challenges in the collection, analysis and dissemination of data. Addressing these challenges requires paying attention to the safety of both respondents and interviewers, providing support to women disclosing violence incidents and a carefully designed survey and data collection approach that includes comprehensive training of interviewers (see Chapter 2).

Despite greater availability of data, comparability across and between countries remains a challenge as many data collection efforts rely on different survey methodologies, different survey question formulations and diverse age groups. Greater efforts are also needed to gather age-disaggregated data—including expanding sample sizes and targeting questions to younger and older women—to inform the provision of adequate support services and the development of effective prevention strategies that reach women of all ages.

TARGET 5.3

Eliminate all harmful practices

Harmful practices such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation (FGM) are violations of human rights and have a host of negative consequences for girls. Early marriage is associated with a reduced chance of being educated and an increased likelihood of teenage pregnancy, which often results in complications during childbirth and high rates of maternal mortality for adolescent girls. FGM is an egregious violation of the bodily integrity of women and girls, motivated in part by stereotypes about sex and gender-based roles and attempts to control women's and girls' bodies and sexuality. In a 2016 report to the Human Rights Council, the Special Rapporteur on torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment reaffirmed that both child marriage and FGM, as well as other harmful practices such as 'honour crimes', constitute gender-based violence, ill-treatment and torture.[52]

Spotlight on child marriage

Every year, 15 million girls under the age of 18 are forced into marriage

According to 2017 figures, an estimated 750 million women and girls were married before the age of 18. Every year, 15 million girls under the age of 18 are forced into marriage. Unless progress on this target is accelerated, the figure will grow to 16.5 million in 2030 and to over 18 million in 2050.[53] Among regions with available data, Central and Southern Asia has the highest rates of child marriage, with 16 per cent of women currently aged 20–24 married before they turned 15 and 43 per cent before age 18, while Eastern and South-eastern Asia and Europe and Northern America have the lowest child marriage prevalence rates at 15 and 8 per cent, respectively.[54] Similarly, these regions also register the lowest rates of marriage before age 15, at 2 and 0 per cent, respectively (see Figure 3.10).[55]

FIGURE 3.10

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 20-24 WHO WERE FIRST MARRIED OR IN A UNION BEFORE AGE 15 AND 18, BY REGION, 2003-2016

Married by 18 — Married by 15
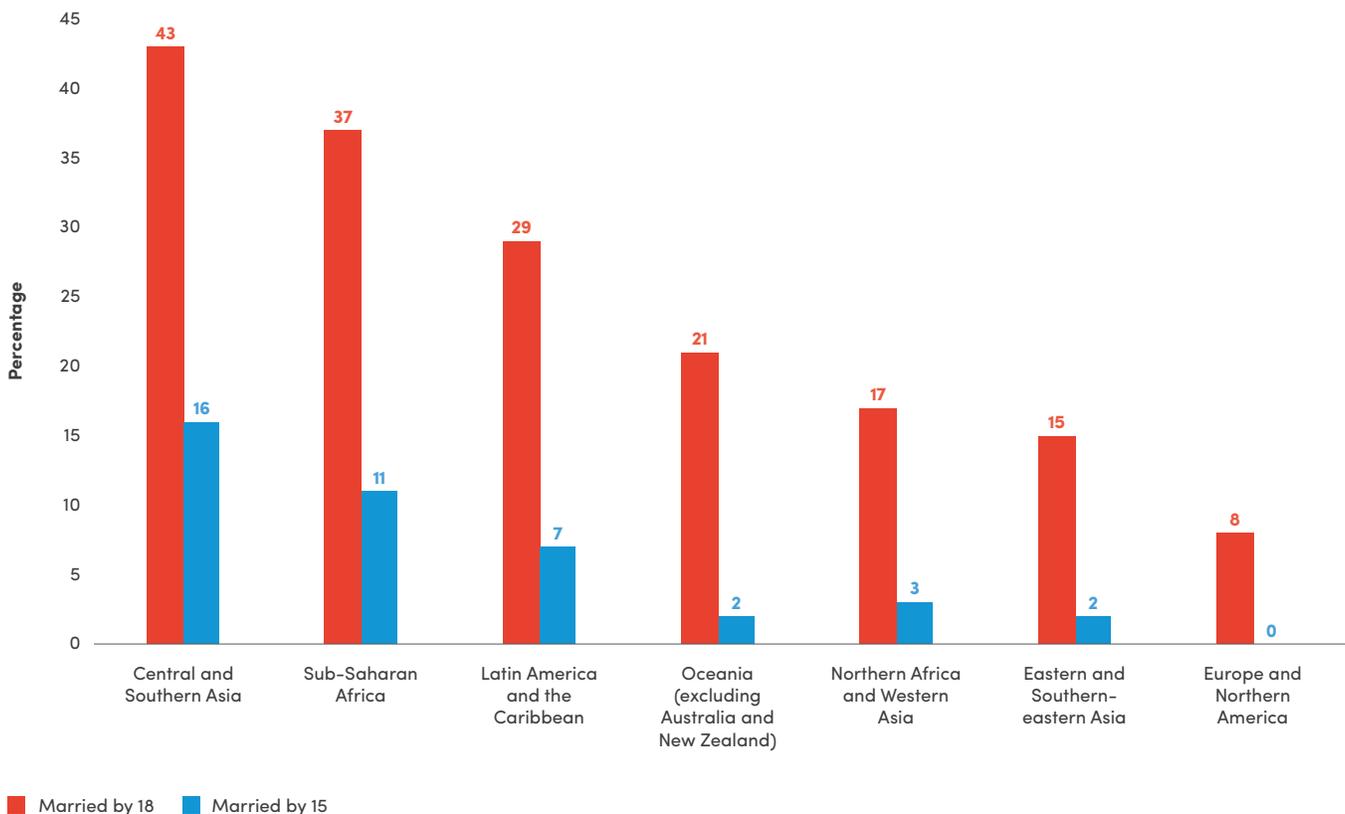
Source: UN Women calculation based on UNSD 2017a.

Note: Based on a sample of 120 countries. The figures cover around 65 per cent of the global population of women aged 20–24. In the case of Europe and Northern America and of Eastern and South-eastern Asia, data coverage is below 50 per cent of the regional population. The region Australia and New Zealand is excluded due to lack of data.

Rates of child marriage vary significantly across countries even within the same regions, likely as the result of a combination of factors including poverty, limited opportunities for girls and gender norms and traditions.[56] In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, rates vary from a high of 76 per cent in Niger to less than 10 per cent in Namibia, Rwanda and Swaziland.[57] Large variations can also be seen within countries, with rates varying substantially by income, location and other characteristics (see Chapter 4).

Trends also vary by country. While in some countries there is evidence of declining rates of child marriage, in others there has been a reversal, with higher rates among younger women as compared to older generations. In Indonesia and Ethiopia, for example, child marriage rates among women aged 20–24 are lower by 27 and 32 percentage points, respectively, compared to women aged 45–49.[58] This marks a significant improvement in one generation. Nevertheless, at 41 per cent, Ethiopia continues to be one of the countries with the highest prevalence of child marriage before age 18 in the world.[59] In Mali, the proportion of women married before age 15 increased by 6.6 percentage points and by 17.4 percentage points for women married before age 18 when comparing rates between women aged 20–24 and 45–49.

FIGURE 3.11

PROPORTION OF WOMEN WHO HAVE UNDERGONE FGM BY AGE COHORT (20–24 AND 45-49), 2004-2016

● Ages 20–24
● Ages 45–49
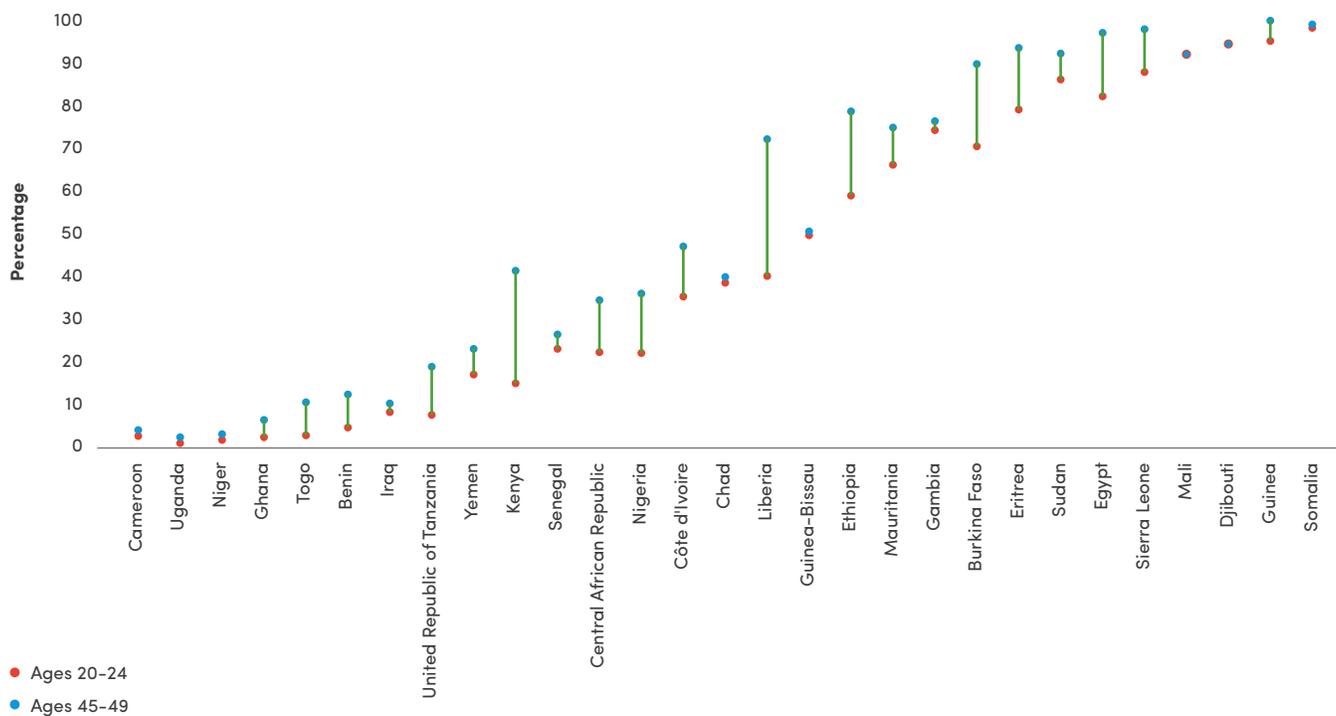
Sources: USAID 2017 and UNICEF 2017c

Note: Data refer to most recent available for 29 countries during reference period.

Spotlight on female genital mutilation

If trends continue, rates of FGM will increase over the next 15 years

It is estimated that at least 200 million women and girls in 30 countries have undergone FGM.[60] The data point to some improvements, most notably in Liberia, Kenya and Ethiopia, where the prevalence of FGM among women aged 20–24 is 20 percentage points or more lower than that of older women aged 45–49 (see Figure 3.11).[61] Despite lower rates among younger women aged 20–24, prevalence rates remain high. Currently, Djibouti, Guinea, Mali, Sierra Leone, Somalia and Sudan have the highest FGM prevalence rates in the world, at 85 per cent or greater among women aged 20–24. Unless progress is accelerated, the rate of decline will not keep up with population growth and the number of women and girls undergoing FGM will increase over the next 15 years.[62]

Interventions that tackle social norms and attitudes, in addition to laws that prohibit the practice, are essential for achieving the target of complete elimination of this harmful practice (see Box 5.7 in Chapter 5).

Measurement challenges

Household surveys are useful sources of child marriage information, but because cohabitation can be defined differently in different countries, some surveys cover only formal marriage while others cover a wider set of cohabitation forms, which presents limitations for trend analysis and for international comparability. Civil registration systems might be suitable sources of information in some countries, but informal forms of cohabitation risk being left out.

The sensitive nature of FGM poses challenges to the reliable collection and comparability of such data as families are reluctant to provide these details. In addition, prevalence levels among different groups and/or regions within countries are not always available, leaving only national prevalence rates that obscure differences.

Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work

Despite being foundational to all societies, unpaid care and domestic work is neither recognized as work nor valued. It involves the caring for and rearing of children; care of the sick, elderly or people with disabilities; and the day-to-day management of the household and domestic chores, all of which contribute to sustaining people on a daily basis and from one generation to the next. The unequal distribution of this kind of work—between women and men and between families and societies more broadly—acts as a powerful constraint on gender equality, with important ramifications for other goals and targets (see Chapter 6). Across the globe, women and girls perform the bulk of this work, leaving them with less time for education, income generation, political participation, rest and leisure.

Spotlight on unpaid care and domestic work

Women do 2.6 times the unpaid care and domestic work that men do

Data from 83 countries and areas show that women perform most of the domestic work, such as cooking and cleaning, and are the main caregivers of children and adults needing care. Women on average spend 18 per cent of their day on total unpaid care and domestic work, while men allocate 7 per cent of their day (see Figure 3.12).

Disaggregated by age, the time spent on unpaid care and domestic work is highest among women aged 25–44, compared to women aged 15–24 and 45–64.[63] This peak in the care burden for women coincides with the period during which they are most likely to have young children at home. Where

data are available, the evidence points to women with younger children doing more unpaid work, including care work, than those without children.[64] Differences among women also vary by other factors including household income, whether there is access to drinking water and fuel in the home, and policies related to childcare (see Chapter 6).

The expectation that care work is a women's responsibility starts at an early age. A study of 33 countries shows that girls aged 7–14 do more household work than boys the same age and perform other tasks, including care of younger siblings.[65] The division of labour into 'women's work' and 'men's work' continues for many women as they start their own families and reverberates into the workforce (SDG 8). Gender stereotypes influence the kind of work women do outside of the home, the conditions under which that work is offered and the payment they receive. It also impacts women's ability to engage in other aspects of public life, including political participation (Target 5.5).

FIGURE 3.12

PROPORTION OF TIME SPENT PER DAY ON UNPAID DOMESTIC AND CARE WORK, BY SEX, 2000–2016
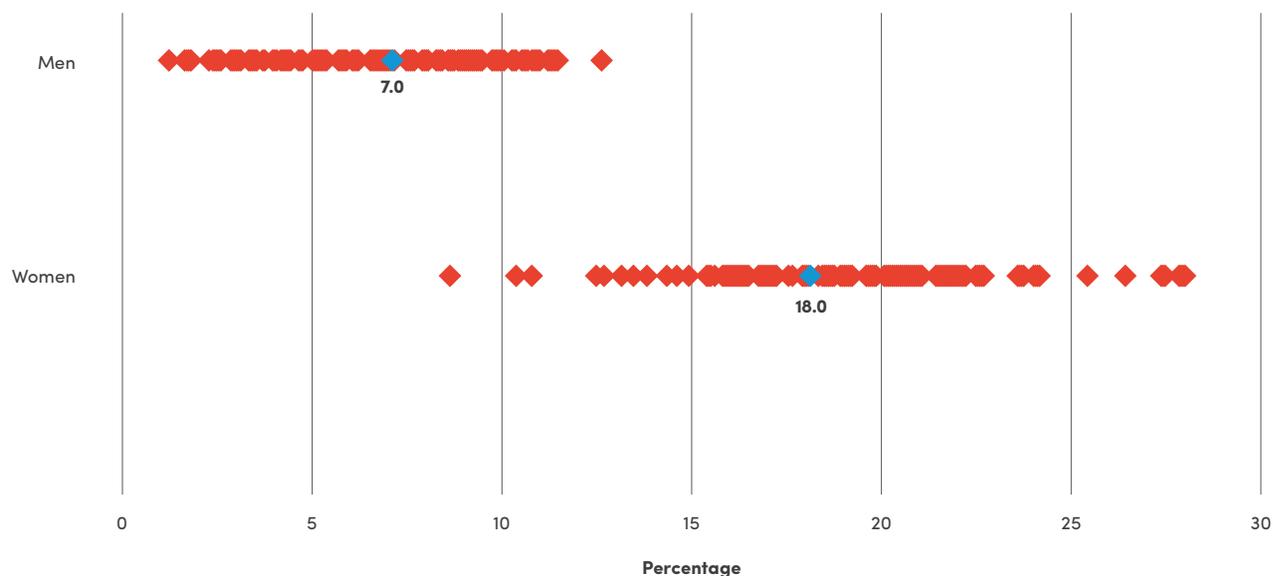
◆ National values

◆ Average values

Source: UNSD 2017a.
Note: Data refer to the most recent available for 83 countries. Average values are unweighted means.

Measurement challenges

Understanding time-use differences between women and men and within groups of women is the first step to reducing the more burdensome forms of care and redistributing caregiving more evenly between women and men and between families and communities. Time-use surveys, however, remain unavailable or ad-hoc in many countries, and few are carried out with regularity to allow for trend analysis. Moreover, caring for children, the elderly and the sick often overlaps with domestic work, making accurate person-to-person care statistics difficult to capture.

TARGET 5.5

Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership

Having a voice and participating in the processes and decisions that affect their lives is an essential aspect of women's and girls' freedoms. Women participate in politics and decision-making at all levels, in different functions and across all spheres of government, including as voters, candidates for national or local elections, members of parliament or local councils, Heads of State and/or Government and government ministers. But often their participation is on unequal terms, stymied by gender norms and expectations that restrict their access to leadership opportunities. This is a lost opportunity given that women's participation has been shown to have a positive impact on public spending patterns and service provision.[66] The same applies to the private sector, where women remain under-represented on corporate boards and in managerial positions despite evidence that shows that women's presence is associated with higher stock prices and profits.[67]

Spotlight on women's representation in national parliaments

Despite progress, women remain under-represented in parliaments worldwide

While there has been progress over the last decade, women continue to be under-represented in parliaments worldwide (see Figure 3.13). Globally, women hold 23.7 per cent of parliamentary seats, an increase of 10 percentage points since 2000.[68] At the country level, only in Rwanda (61 per cent) and the Plurinational State of Bolivia (53 per cent) do women occupy more seats in parliament than men.

The use of electoral gender quotas and other temporary special measures (TSMs) has raised the shares of women's representation in national decision-making bodies in many countries. In sub-Saharan Africa, quotas have been shown to increase women's representation in politics, while countries in the region with few quotas experienced considerable setbacks in 2016.[69] In Latin America, gender quotas, coupled with quotas targeting racial minorities, have increased the representation of traditionally marginalized groups.[70] Yet, despite the demonstrated impact, less than half of countries around the world have some form of legislated quota in place.

While quotas and other TSMs are effective at promoting women's political representation, periodic reviews are needed to ensure they do not inadvertently impose a ceiling on women's representation.

FIGURE 3.13

PROPORTION OF SEATS HELD BY WOMEN IN NATIONAL PARLIAMENTS, BY REGION, 2017
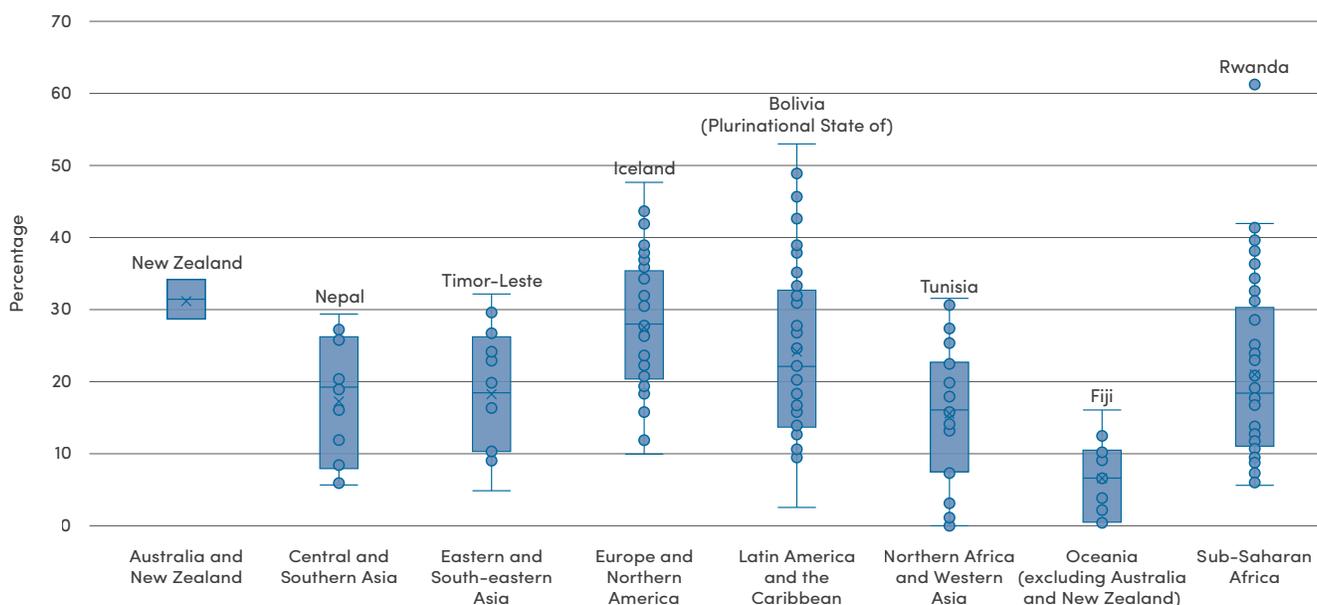
Source: UN Women calculations using data from IPU 2017a.

Note: Based on data for 193 countries. Situation as of 1 September 2017. Countries with the highest percentage in region shown.

Spotlight on women's representation in local governments

Limited data availability hampers accurate assessments of women's participation in local governments and their impact

While global statistics on women's representation in parliaments are widely available and reported, there are currently no comparable statistics to monitor their representation in local governments. Thus, there is no basic account of the numbers of women among the millions of members of local governments that are influencing the lives of local communities around the world. A significant barrier has been the use of different indicators to monitor women's representation in local governments across the different regions of the world.

As the responsible agency to monitor indicator 5.5.1, UN Women is leading global efforts to develop a single measure to be consistently used across all countries and regions. The proposed indicator 5.5.1b refers to women's representation in elected positions of legislative bodies of local government (complementing indicator 5.5.1a on women's representation in parliament). This is consistent with national legal frameworks identifying and regulating local government, and the necessary data can be produced at low cost based on electoral records.

Some countries have already included the indicator in their national development plans and started producing relevant data, as seen in the case of Uganda (see Box 3.2).

WOMEN IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT: UGANDA CASE STUDY

In response to data requirements for monitoring national progress towards the achievement of the SDGs and the goals in its National Development Plan (NDP II), the Government of Uganda recently adopted a set of National Priority Gender Equality Indicators. The process was coordinated by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS) and engaged relevant entities of the national statistical system, including ministries, departments and agencies.

Indicator 5.5.1b—proportion of seats held by women in local government—is one of the measures of leadership and political participation included. The latest information for the indicator in Uganda comes from electoral records of winners and losers in the 2016 local elections compiled by UBOS and the Ministry of Local Government. Data cover two types of seats: (a) directly contested and (b) reserved for affirmative action. The legal framework of the country provides for a 30 per cent gender quota allocated for deliberative bodies at each tier/level of local government. Quotas are also provided for other groups, including youth, older persons and people with disabilities.

The preliminary data show that, overall, women's representation in elected positions of deliberative bodies in local government (LCIII-V), at 46 per cent, is higher than their national share among parliamentarians (34 per cent). Women's participation is also shown to vary across tiers of government: They represent 42 per cent of district and municipality council posts and 47 per cent of sub-county council posts (see Figure 3.14). However, almost all the seats they hold are those that are part of the reserved quotas and only 1 per cent are directly contested seats. At the level of elected chairpersons, where no gender quota applies, women also represent just 1 per cent.[71]

PROPORTION OF SEATS HELD BY WOMEN AND MEN IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN UGANDA, BY TYPE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT, 2016
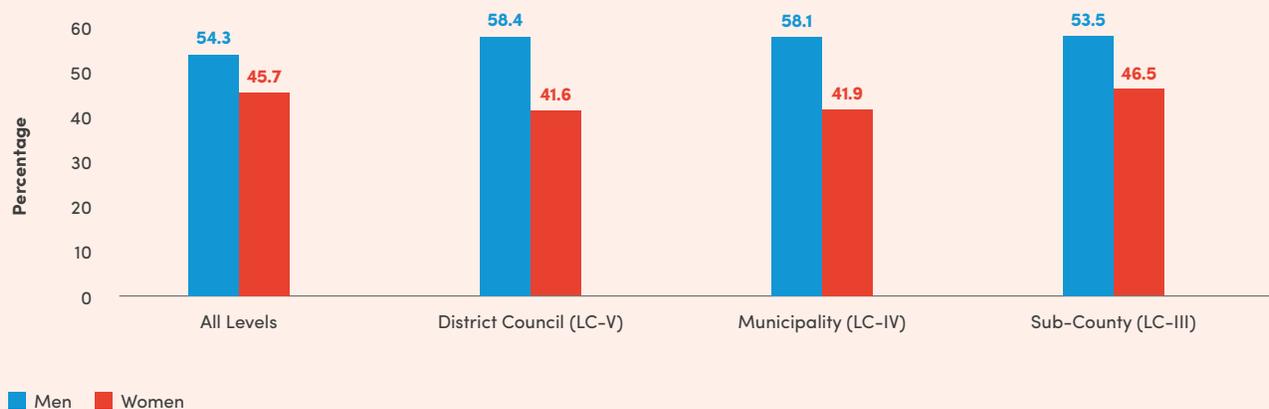
Source: UBOS, DFID UK, Ministry of Local Government and UN Women 2017.
Note: Data on LC-I and II are not available. The last election of these levels of government were held in 2001.

Measurement challenges

Data on women's representation in local government are often based on electoral records maintained by electoral management bodies (EMBs) or equivalent national entities tasked with organizing local elections. This administrative low-cost data source is useful but needs to be improved in some countries, including by integrating the individual characteristic of 'sex' into electoral records; conferring EMBs with a clear mandate and resources for the production of statistics; and through partnerships between EMBs and national statistical offices for the coordination of statistical production. In the few countries where electoral records are not electronic or not centralized, alternative sources of data may need to be explored and used, including administrative data maintained by line ministries and censuses/surveys of local government.

Spotlight on women in managerial positions

Women are under-represented in senior and middle management positions in all countries with available data

In terms of decision-making power within government, large enterprises and institutions, women are under-represented in senior management and middle management positions. Despite some progress, the proportion of women in senior and middle management remains below 50 per cent in all countries except the Dominican Republic, where it reached almost 53 per cent in 2015.[72] Globally, less than a third of senior and middle management positions are held by women.[73]

FEMALE SHARE OF EMPLOYMENT IN SENIOR AND MIDDLE MANAGEMENT (LEFT AXIS) AND PERCENTAGE POINT CHANGE (SINCE MID-2000s) (RIGHT AXIS), VARIOUS YEARS

- Most recent (2014–2016)
- Percentage point change
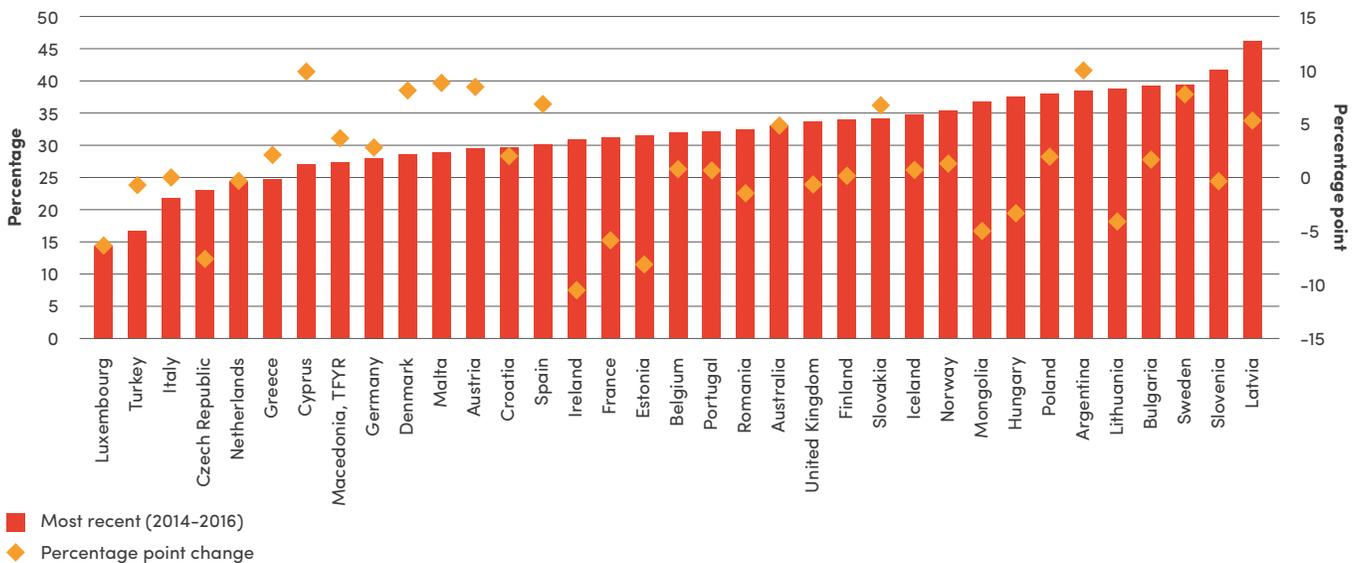
Source: UN Women calculations based on ILO 2017b.

Notes: Data refer to latest available in reference period. Percentage point change is calculated using a data point (2004–2006) and most recent data point (2014–2016), a 10-year difference between both data points, with the exception of Mongolia where the time difference is 8 years. Due to break in series, figures should be interpreted with caution. The figures indicate direction of trend but may not be reflective of true magnitude.

Due to break in statistical series (e.g., based on revisions to methodology), change in the female share of employment in senior and middle management is difficult to assess with certainty. Nevertheless, trend data, available for 35 countries, point to improvements in some countries but falling shares in others. Over the last decade, 11 countries have seen the proportion of women in senior and middle management increase by 7.4 percentage points on average. However, the proportion declined (by more than 3 percentage points) in 8 countries. In another 16 countries, the change in the share of women in managerial positions has not exceeded +/- 3 percentage points (see Figure 3.15).

Measurement challenges

Data on the proportion of women in managerial positions are only available for a limited number of countries, and lack of comparability of these estimates limits global reporting. Calculating this indicator requires the use of data on employment by sex and occupation, utilizing occupation taxonomies that adhere to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO).[74] Countries that do not use ISCO in their labour force surveys and other household surveys with employment modules might classify managerial positions differently. Disaggregating this indicator by economic activity and detailed occupational groups might provide significant insights about the glass ceiling in selected industries. However, these disaggregations might be limited by the size and specific design of sample frames in labour force surveys.

TARGET 5.6

Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights

Women and adolescent girls face many challenges and risks with respect to their sexual and

reproductive health and rights. These include legal barriers, such as restricted access to services based on age and marital status, as well as requirements for third-party authorization, meaning that women are forced to seek their husband's or parental consent before accessing services. In other instances, the quality and affordability of sexual and reproductive services, even when available, are significant barriers. Women also lack autonomy in decision-making—for example, in refusing sexual intercourse with husbands or partners, in contraceptive use and in own health-care choices.

Spotlight on sexual and reproductive health and rights

Only 52 per cent of women married or in a union freely make their own decisions about sexual relations, contraceptive use and health care

At present, there is no comprehensive global database on laws regarding sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights (see Chapter 2), but data on women's autonomy in decision-making regarding their sexual and reproductive health and rights are available for a subset of countries. Based on data from 45 countries, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa, only 52 per cent of women aged 15–49 there who are married or in union make their own informed decisions about sexual relations and the use of contraceptives and health services (Figure 3.16).

For adolescent girls, in addition to barriers to access, sexual and reproductive health and rights are also compromised by lack of comprehensive sexuality education and harmful practices. Complications related to childbirth and pregnancy are among the leading causes of death for girls aged 15–19.[75]

States have an obligation to provide accessible, quality and affordable sexual and reproductive

FIGURE 3.16

PROPORTION OF WOMEN 15-49 YEARS (MARRIED OR IN UNION) WHO MAKE THEIR OWN INFORMED DECISIONS REGARDING SEXUAL RELATIONS, CONTRACEPTIVE USE AND HEALTH CARE, 2007–2015

Legend:
- 80% or more
- 60% – <80%
- 40% – <60%
- 20% – <40%
- Less than 20%
- No data

0 1,000 2,000 3,000 4,000 5,000 km
0 1,000 2,000 3,000 mi

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

* Dotted line represents approximately the Line of Control in Jammu and Kashmir agreed upon by India and Pakistan. The final status of Jammu and Kashmir has not yet been agreed upon by the parties.

**Final boundary between the Republic of Sudan and the Republic of South Sudan has not yet been determined.

Source: UNSD 2017a.

Note: The figure reflects available data from 45 countries (covering 7 per cent of the world's population) over the reference period. Country coverage is insufficient to calculate average for all regions except sub-Saharan Africa.

health services. Yet, even when services are available, cost is often a hurdle that women find difficult to overcome. In a sample of 65 countries, cost was repeatedly identified as a factor that hampered women's ability to access health care. For example, this was the case for 11 per cent of women in Egypt and 86 per cent in São Tomé and Príncipe.[76]

Measurement challenges

Comparable data on women's agency in decisions concerning their sexual and reproductive health are only available for a subset of countries. This is because individual level surveys with targeted questions are necessary to compile this information but are not widely available. Another key limitation is that available surveys often cover only married women of reproductive age. Monitoring progress towards this target will require greater investments in data collection, including targeted survey questions

to women of different age groups, different marital statuses and various contraceptive use habits.[77]

Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources

Economic resources—including land and other forms of property, financial assets, inheritance and natural resources—provide individuals and households with the means to generate income. They also help to cope with shocks and volatilities and can be used as collateral to enable access to credit (including credit from the formal banking system). Greater gender equality in the distribution of economic resources has positive multiplier effects for the achievement of inclusive, equitable and sustainable economic growth

as well as for a range of key development outcomes, including poverty reduction, food security and the health and well-being of households, communities and countries. Equal access to and control over economic resources also provides women with greater bargaining power within the household and the capacity for economic independence.

Spotlight on women's equal rights to land

Data on women's rights and access to land point to deep gender inequalities

For the purposes of monitoring Target 5.a, two new indicators have been developed that focus on various aspects of ownership and control of land, including promotion of women's land rights within the legal framework. The focus on land reflects the recognition that it is a key economic resource inextricably linked to access to, use of and control over other economic and productive resources. It can be used as collateral to access financial resources and extension services or join producer organizations; and it can generate income directly if rented or sold. It is also a key input for agriculture production.

Data on women's role in the agricultural sector point to deep gender inequalities. Women are far less likely to be agricultural land holders: Their share ranges from 0.8 per cent in Saudi Arabia to 51 per cent in Cabo Verde, with an overall global share of 12.8 per cent.[78] Available evidence shows that, when women own land, their plots are generally smaller and of lower quality than men's and their rights to the land are less secure.[79]

Measurement challenges

Both land indicators monitoring Target 5.a (5.a.1 and 5.a.2) were recently reclassified as Tier II indicators. Indicator 5.a.1 builds on methodological work undertaken by the Evidence and Data for Gender Equality (EDGE) project, an initiative led by the United Nations Statistics Division (UNSD) and UN Women, and focuses on women's access to a 'bundle' of

rights comprising documented ownership, ability/ right to sell land and ability/right to bequeath land to other persons. Data collection has begun through pilot exercises, but data are not yet widely available. Indicator 5.a.2 covers equality in inheritance, control of property in marriage, women's representation in land institutions, governmental funding to support women's land ownership and the protection of women's rights in legally recognized customary systems. The sources of data for this indicator are national policies, primary law and secondary legislation. Data on both indicators will form part of regular global monitoring in the future, but progress in doing so will require strong engagement from countries to collect the data at the national level and report on progress.[80]

Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology

Advances in information and communications technology (ICT), including telecommunications, computers and the Internet, have transformed the world. But the benefits have not been evenly distributed. Large gender gaps exist in ICT access and use. Women are less likely than men to own a mobile phone[81]—the SDG indicator for this target—and are disadvantaged in other areas, including Internet access and broader engagement with the digital economy. The result is a growing digital divide between women and men and the deepening of broader gender inequality as women are left out of important spaces for knowledge creation, innovation and entrepreneurship.

Spotlight on women and ICTs

Women lag behind men in Internet access and mobile phone ownership

Access to the Internet is increasing exponentially.[82] The technology is being used to communicate and share information in school settings, in workplaces

and at home. But women are not being reached at the same pace as men. In 2017, the proportion of women using the Internet globally was 5.9 percentage points lower than men's (see Figure 3.17). Eastern and South-eastern Asia has the largest gender gap: Only 28 per cent of women had access to the Internet in comparison to 42 per cent of men. In Europe and Northern America, where Internet penetration is high for both women and men, usage among women (75 per cent) was lower than among men (82 per cent). Only in Latin America and the Caribbean region were women's usage rates higher than men's: 67 per cent compared to 65 per cent.[83]

Communication technologies are becoming more and more integrated, and in some markets smart mobile phones and tablets are outstripping other more stationary products. Mobile phones can contribute to important aspects of women's empowerment: They enable women to keep in touch with family and friends, facilitate financial transactions and save time coordinating and managing everyday activities.
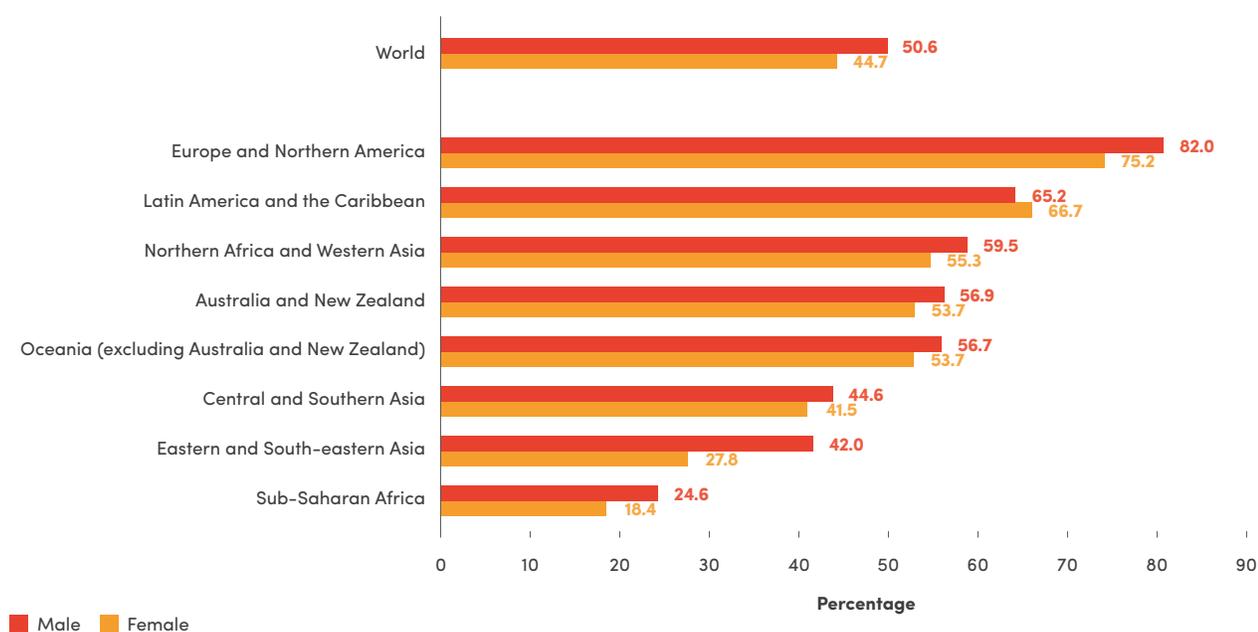
Women in developing countries also report feeling more independent and safer with a mobile phone, although harassment from strangers via mobile phones is a concern.[84]

Despite the potential benefits, an estimated 1.7 billion women in low- and middle-income countries do not own a mobile phone: Women are 14 per cent less likely than men to own one. Usage also differs by sex, with women less likely than men to use their mobile phones for messaging, data and mobile Internet, which limits the empowerment potential of the technology.[85]

Bridging the gender digital divide will hence require greater efforts not only to expand and equalize access to ICTs but also to ensure that women and girls can use them to expand their strategic life choices by gaining access to relevant information, communicating freely and without discrimination and organizing politically to claim their rights.

FIGURE 3.17

INTERNET PENETRATION RATE BY SEX AND REGION, 2017

Region	Male	Female
World	50.6	44.7
Europe and Northern America	82.0	75.2
Latin America and the Caribbean	65.2	66.7
Northern Africa and Western Asia	59.5	55.3
Australia and New Zealand	56.9	53.7
Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand)	56.7	53.7
Central and Southern Asia	44.6	41.5
Eastern and South-eastern Asia	42.0	27.8
Sub-Saharan Africa	24.6	18.4

■ Male   ■ Female

Source: ITU 2017a.

Note: Internet penetration rates refer to the number of women and men using the Internet, as a percentage of the respective total female and male population.

Measurement challenges

Registries are an important source of data on Internet availability at the household level. Internet providers consistently collect these data, but this information fails to provide details on Internet users and within-household inequalities in use. Individual level surveys are necessary to determine the amount of time spent on the Internet by each user and the differentiated purposes of Internet use by sex. Time-use surveys can help assess Internet use time by females and males but do not typically collect information on purpose.

TARGET 5.c

Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality

The 2030 Agenda commits to a significant increase in investments to close the gender gap. Costing and making available the requisite resources for gender equality policies and programmes — commonly referred to as gender-responsive budgeting — is central to implementing and achieving SDG 5 and all gender targets across the framework. While Target 5.c aims broadly to strengthen policies and legislation that promote gender equality and the empowerment of women, the associated indicator (indicator 5.c.1) specifically looks at government efforts to develop and implement systems to track gender equality resource allocations.

Tracking the resources allocated for gender equality enhances transparency and could ultimately drive greater accountability. It is an important first step towards closing the gap between policies and implementation (see also Creating fiscal space, p. 245).

Spotlight on tracking gender equality allocations

Developing an international standard for gender-responsive budgeting (GRB)

Inadequate financing hinders the implementation of gender-responsive laws and policies. One important step in addressing this policy–implementation gap is the development of comprehensive systems to track gender equality allocations.

Indicator 5.c.1 is the only indicator in the SDG monitoring framework that links national budgeting systems with implementation of legislation and policies for gender equality and women's empowerment.

It establishes an international standard for GRB. The indicator methodology has been refined based on evidence from extensive gender budgeting work carried out in more than 100 countries to ensure consistency and comparability of data across countries. A scoring system was developed to classify countries into one of three categories: 'fully meets requirements', 'approaches requirements' and 'does not meet requirements.'

Following a 15-country[86] pilot exercise, the refined indicator methodology was identified as clear and relevant by ministries of finance, national women's machineries and national statistical offices. The indicator was reclassified as Tier II by the IAEG–SDGs in November 2017.

Measurement challenges

A first measurement challenge is defining what constitutes a gender-responsive allocation. The multi-dimensional, cross-cutting nature of gender equality contributes to the complexity of defining these allocations. It is necessary to provide sufficient specificity while also ensuring the definition is broad enough to capture allocations across the whole of the budget. Additionally, the lack of sex-disaggregated data from all sectors can constrain systematic tracking of gender equality allocations and the ability to use these data to inform budgetary decisions. This measurement challenge is one that affects many countries and requires collaboration with statistical offices to address the gap.

CLEAN WATER AND SANITATION

6

SDG 6

Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

TARGETS

8

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

0

Safe drinking water and sanitation are essential for the full enjoyment of life and all human rights.[87] They are particularly important for women and girls, who are most often the primary users, providers and managers of water in their households. Where running water is unavailable at home, women and girls are the ones forced to travel long distances to meet household water needs.[88] Ill health caused by a lack of adequate water and sanitation increases the need to care for sick family members, a responsibility that falls primarily on women and girls. Women are also susceptible to greater health risks from certain water and sanitation-related diseases, such as trachoma, because of their caring role.[89] During labour and childbirth, a hygienic environment, including safe water and sanitation, is paramount for the survival and health of both mother and child.[90] The lack of adequate sanitation facilities may expose women and girls to illness, safety risks and violence at school, at work and in their communities—hampering their ability to learn, earn an income and move around freely.[91]

Spotlight on access to safe drinking water

Women and girls are responsible for water collection in 80 per cent of households without access to water on premises

Although billons have gained access to basic water and sanitation services since 2000, progress has been uneven and some of the gains are increasingly fragile as water stress intensifies due to climate change, unsustainable consumption and intensified agricultural activity and land degradation.[92] In 2015, 2.1 billion people lacked access to safely managed drinking water services (i.e., water that is accessible on premises, available when needed and free from contamination). In fact, it is estimated that only 71 per cent of the world's population uses safely managed services.[93] Oceania and sub-Saharan Africa have the highest proportion of people who rely on unsafe water sources, including surface water from rivers, streams or ponds as well as unprotected open wells.[94] Across the developing world, urban access to basic water is higher than rural access and high-income groups have significantly better access than low-income groups.[95] In Pakistan, for example, 41 per cent of urban households have access to safely managed drinking water compared to 32 per cent of rural households; large differences also exist across income and ethnic groups (see Chapter 4).[96]

When safe drinking water is not available on premises, the burden of water collection and treatment largely falls on women and girls, who are forced to allocate significant amounts of time and limit their engagement in other activities such as paid work and education (see Chapter 6). Survey data for 61 countries show that in 80 per cent of households without access to water

on premises, women and girls are responsible for water collection (see Figure 3.18). This is particularly true for the poorest households in rural areas. In Benin, for instance, the average time to reach a water source for those who do not have it on premises is 21.5 minutes, yet this time varies widely across households: In rural households it takes an average of 24 minutes, while in urban households it takes 16. Among the poorest households, the average time is 26.5 minutes, compared to 12.5 among the richest.[97]

Measurement challenges

Although data on the use of safely managed drinking water services are on the rise, gaps still exist and geographical disaggregation is not carried out

consistently. Improving administrative records on water quality and availability, for instance, is essential for monitoring whether water services are safely managed, but regulatory data typically only cover piped water systems in urban areas. To assess the safety of a wider range of sources, a growing number of household surveys are beginning to integrate direct testing of drinking water quality.[98] It is important that these surveys go beyond water quality assessments and include questions to assess the collection burden for households without water on premises. The consistent inclusion of questions pertaining to time spent on water collection, along with information on the household member who usually performs the task, could help improve the global picture of gender roles in water collection and treatment.[99]

FIGURE 3.18

DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLDS BY PERSON USUALLY RESPONSIBLE FOR WATER COLLECTION, 2017

2.9%
6.9%
16.6%
73.5%

Women　Girls
Men　Boys
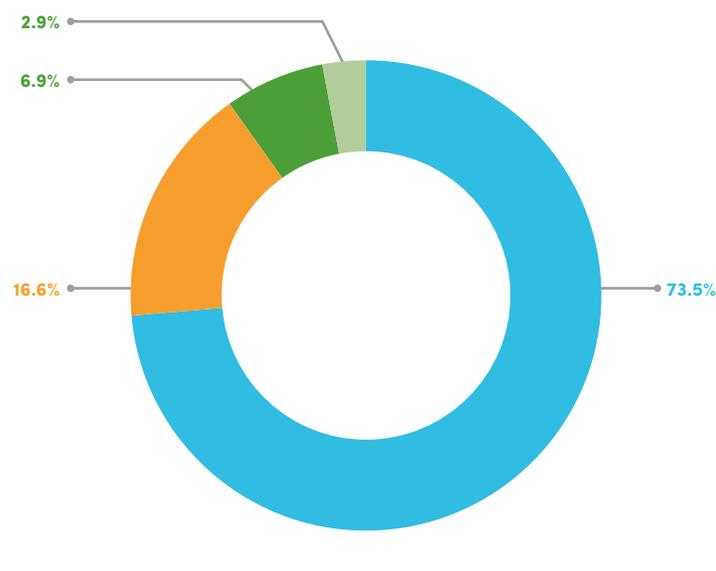
Source: WHO and UNICEF 2017b.
Note: Data refer to latest availlable DHS and MICS surveys in 61 countries, weighted by the population with water off premises.

SDG 7

Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all

TARGETS

5

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

0

Access to affordable and clean energy is crucial for combating climate change as well as for promoting poverty alleviation, sustainable growth, industrialization and access to water. Yet, 1.1 billion people worldwide lack access to electricity and more than 3 billion rely on combustible fuels such as coal, kerosene and biomass (wood, charcoal, agricultural residues and animal dung) as their primary source for cooking, lighting and other household energy needs.[100] Similar to the situation regarding water, women and girls are often forced to travel long distances in search of firewood where other energy sources are unavailable. They risk being subject to violence on the way and face long-term health problems related to the impact of indoor air pollution and the heavy load on their bodies.

## Spotlight on clean fuels for household energy

More than half of all households globally rely on solid fuels that put women's health and livelihoods at risk

Across 92 countries, 64 per cent of households rely on solid fuels, including wood, crop wastes, charcoal, coal or dung (see Figure 3.19).Often, these and other unclean fuels (including kerosene) are used with inefficient technologies such as open fires and leaky stoves that lead to high levels of household air pollution.[101] The use of solid fuels for cooking and heating is highest in sub-Saharan Africa and Oceania, where 85.7 per cent and 86.2 per cent of households, respectively, rely on it. Households in Northern Africa and Western Asia generally show the lowest reliance on solid fuels, at 12.4 per cent. As Figure 3.19 shows, wealth and rural-urban disparities are important across regions, with low-income and rural households relying on solid fuels to a much greater extent than high-income and urban households.

The health and environmental impacts of unclean fuels and inefficient technologies can be devastating for women and children, who usually spend more time in the home. In 2012, indoor air pollution caused 4.3 million premature deaths, with women and girls accounting for 6 out of every 10 of these. As a cause of non-communicable diseases such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, lung cancer and heart disease, indoor air pollution has become a major environmental health concern.[102]

PROPORTION OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH PRIMARY RELIANCE ON SOLID FUELS, BY REGION, LOCATION AND WEALTH QUINTILE, 2013–2016
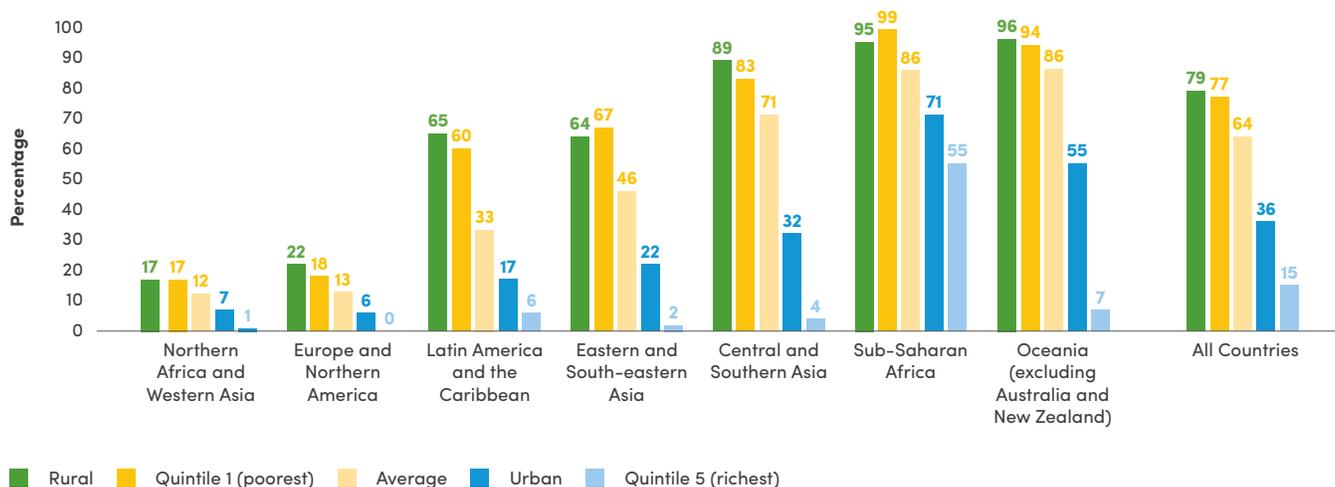

Source: UN Women calculations using data from WHO 2015b and UN Women calculations for countries where post-2013 microdata were available from DHS.

Note: Data refer to latest available in reference period for 92 countries. Regional aggregates are weighted based on the respective country population. Quintiles refers to wealth quintiles, where poorest are the bottom 20 per cent of households in the wealth distribution and richest are the top 20 per cent of households in the wealth distribution. Sufficient data was available only for Central and Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa region, i.e. 66 per cent of the population or 50 per cent of the countries in the region.

Besides the adverse health effects associated with indoor air pollution, the reliance on solid fuels means that women and girls spend a significant amount of time collecting fuel. Girls in households that use solid fuels for cooking spend 18 hours a week on average gathering fuel, compared to 5 hours a week in households using clean fuels. A recent study of 22 African countries estimates that women and girls spend an average of two hours each day just collecting fuel, an arduous task that puts them at risk of injury, animal attacks and physical and sexual violence and impinges on girls' education and leisure time (see Chapter 6).[103]

Measurement challenges

To fully support the transition from fossil fuels, biomass and other unclean fuels to modern and cleaner energy, more precise information is needed on the type, amount and purpose of fuels used in households. Data on the type of device or technology used in the home for the purpose of cooking, heating and lighting is also needed. At present, most of the data collected through household surveys focus on identifying the primary type of fuel or technology used for cooking and disregard information in cases where various types of fuels might be used for different purposes within the household, such as heating and lighting. Expanding the detail of related information that is collected through surveys can provide more accurate estimates of the health and environmental impacts of this practice. Consistent inclusion of additional survey questions on time spent collecting firewood and other types of fuels, as well as on the person in charge of collection, are necessary to ensure a gender perspective.
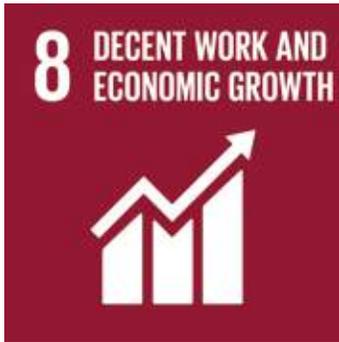
SDG 8

Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

TARGETS
12

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS
7

For economic growth to contribute to sustainable development, poverty eradication and the reduction of inequality within and among countries, it needs to be inclusive and compatible with the social and environmental dimensions of sustainable development. How the benefits of economic growth and the costs of economic crisis are distributed in society is critical, and employment is one of the key mechanisms through which this distribution takes place. Gender equality in employment and women's access to decent work are hence essential measures of inclusive growth.[104] A regular and independent source of income not only provides women with greater voice and agency in the household but has also been shown to increase investment in the well-being of other household members, particularly children, with benefits for long-term growth.[105] Yet, gender inequalities in the labour market remain pervasive, with women being not only less likely to participate but also more likely to be concentrated in insecure, unprotected or under-protected and poorly remunerated employment. Occupational segregation and gender pay gaps persist, stubbornly, everywhere.

## Spotlight on labour force participation

Globally, the labour force participation rate among prime working-age women (aged 25–54) stands at 63 per cent compared to 94 per cent among their male counterparts, with stark variations across regions

At 63 per cent, women's labour force participation rate (LFPR) is 31 percentage points lower than men's (94 per cent).[106] However, gender gaps in LFPR vary tremendously across regions and countries.[107] The widest gaps, of nearly 60 percentage points, are found in Northern Africa and Central, Southern and Western Asia, where female participation rates are also less than 40 per cent.

Over the last 20 years, the global gender gap in LFPR among prime working-age adults (aged 25–54) has remained relatively unchanged with the notable exception of Latin America and the Caribbean. Since the 1980s, more than 70 million women have entered the labour force in this region, resulting in an increase in their participation rate.[108] Data since 1997 show the LFPR of women aged 25–54 increased there from 57 per cent to 68 per cent. Modest increases in the female prime working-age LFPR have also taken place in sub-Saharan Africa and the gender gap has declined, but this has taken place against a backdrop of falling participation rates for men (see Figure 3.20). Central and Southern Asia is the only region where prime working-age women's LFPR has fallen consistently since

FIGURE 3.20

LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE AMONG POPULATION AGED 25-54, BY SEX AND REGION, 1997–2017
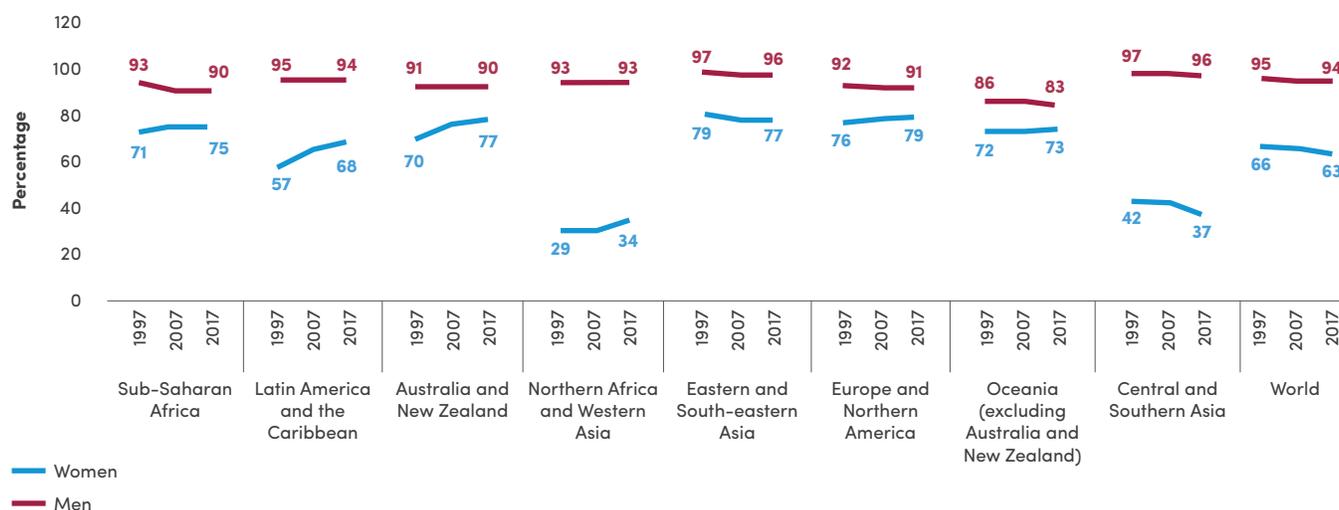
Source: Weighted averages calculated by UN Women using data from ILO 2017b.

Note: Data refer to latest available in reference period for 193 countries.

1997, from 42 per cent to 37 per cent, according to the latest 2017 estimates. Countries in the region recording the largest declines in LFPR of women aged 25–54 are Kyrgyzstan (14.7 percentage points), Bangladesh (10.3 percentage points) and India (8.1 percentage points).

Measurement challenges

Standard labour force surveys tend to undercount the extent of women's employment, which is more likely than men's to be seasonal, intermittent, informal and unpaid.[109] Women's paid work is also more likely to be undercounted because surveys often ask only about the respondent's primary work activity. Where paid work is perceived to be a secondary activity (i.e., secondary to women's unpaid care and domestic work), it will not be captured (see Chapter 2).

Spotlight on the gender pay gap

Women's work remains undervalued: The gender pay gap stands at 23 per cent globally

Globally, it is estimated that women earn 77 per cent of what men earn. While data from 37 countries show the gender pay gap is slowly decreasing, at current trends equal pay will not be achieved before the year 2086 without targeted action.[110] Since gender pay gaps can only be calculated reliably for those in wage employment, these figures understate the real extent of earnings differentials in many contexts, and notably in developing countries where informal self-employment is prevalent.

Gender-based occupational segregation—whereby women and men tend to be employed in different occupations (horizontal segregation) and at different

levels, grades or positions of seniority (vertical segregation)—is a key driver of the gender pay gap. However, women face pay disadvantages both at the bottom and at the top of the job ladder and across virtually all occupations.[111] Over the last two decades, there has been a slight decline in the extent of occupational segregation, with greater numbers of women moving into already mixed-gender sectors. At the same time, occupations that have traditionally been dominated by men have continued to offer fewer opportunities to women. Female-dominated occupations, which tend to be those with lower status and pay, have remained feminized or become even more so.[112]

Measurement challenges

The gender pay gap is calculated based on hourly wages and salaries of employees, thus covering only wage and salaried work and failing to account for self-employment (including own account workers and contributing family workers), which in many contexts represents a significant share of the employed population. Basing the calculation on hourly wages is intended to remove the effect of differences in working time of female and male workers and concentrate only on wage differences not explained by the number of hours worked. However, a study of data on the gender gap in working time could also be revealing and provide insights into the situation of women in the labour market. In this regard, other indicators such as the time-related underemployment rate and the share of involuntary part-time employment could be useful complementary measures. Additionally, the gender pay gap does not capture income differences between women and men resulting from uneven access to higher-paid employment—for example, the differences that arise from cultural and social biases that restrict and dictate the types of choices and opportunities available to women as compared to men.

SDG 9

Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

TARGETS

8

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

0

Infrastructure, industrialization and innovation are critical ingredients for achieving the kind of economic transformations that set countries on a path towards inclusive growth (see SDG 8). Structural change—such as the transition from agrarian to industrialized, service- or knowledge-based economies—is rarely gender-neutral.[113] Export-oriented industrialization strategies, for example, created new employment opportunities in manufacturing for women across Asia and Latin America. However, international competitiveness and technological change were heavily subsidized by women's low wages, and women workers were often displaced as industries upgraded technologically.[114] The expanding services sector in developing countries has opened up career opportunities in formal, skill-intensive employment for a minority of highly educated women, but the majority of women continue to be trapped in poorly paid and unprotected areas such as domestic service or street hawking.[115] Jobs in research and innovation that are driving the transformation towards the so-called 'knowledge economy' continue to be dominated by men.

Spotlight on the knowledge economy

Globally, less than a third of all research positions are held by women

Globally, women represent 28.8 per cent of researchers, but with wide variations across regions.[116] In developing countries, there are three times more men than women researchers, while in developed countries there are twice as many. At the regional level, there are wide variations, with high levels of representation observed in Australia and New Zealand (52 per cent) and Latin America and the Caribbean (47 per cent) and low levels in Eastern and South-eastern Asia, Central and Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, where women make up, on average, 25 per cent, 33 per cent and 31 per cent of researchers, respectively.

Figure 3.21 also suggests that there are wide variations across countries, with women registering the highest share of researchers in Thailand (56 per cent) and Venezuela (55 per cent) but only 10 per cent or less in countries such as Nepal and Togo. Only about one in five countries have achieved gender parity, whereby 45 to 55 per cent of researchers are women.

SHARE OF FEMALE RESEARCHERS BY COUNTRY, 1999–2015

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

* Dotted line represents approximately the Line of Control in Jammu and Kashmir agreed upon by India and Pakistan. The final status of Jammu and Kashmir has not yet been agreed upon by the parties.

**Final boundary between the Republic of Sudan and the Republic of South Sudan has not yet been determined.

0   1,000   2,000   3,000   4,000   5,000 km

0   1,000   2,000   3,000 mi

■ 70% or more   ■ 30% – <45%

■ 55% – <70%   ■ Less than 30%

■ 45% – <55%   ■ No data

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2017a.

Notes: Data refer to latest available from 143 countries. Data are based on headcounts (HC), except for Congo, India and Israel, which are based on full-time equivalents (FTE). Data for China are based on total research and development (R&D) personnel instead of researchers. Data for Brazil are based on estimations.

Measurement challenges

Data on the proportion of female researchers are often either unavailable, incomplete or out-dated, and monitoring trends accurately is challenging. Statistics to assess the reasons behind the lack of women researchers despite their high tertiary education completion rates compared to men are also seldom available. In response, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) is developing a series of new indicators through its STEM and Gender Advancement (SAGA) project, but these indicators are not yet widely available.[117]

10 REDUCED INEQUALITIES

SDG 10

Reduce inequality within and among countries

TARGETS

10

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

1

Growing evidence suggests that reducing inequality is not only an important goal in itself but also crucial for improving economic efficiency, productivity and environmental sustainability, all which will have gender implications.[118] Inequality between countries limits the capacity of, and reduces the policy space for, poorer countries to achieve their sustainable development objectives, including gender equality commitments. Addressing these inequities will require greater global cooperation, including on policies for inclusive growth and issues such as financing, trade agreements that support developing countries and planned and well-managed migration (see also Creating fiscal space, p. 245). At the national level, gender-responsive fiscal and social policies are needed to reduce income inequalities between women and men, which research shows is a key contributor to overall income inequality in society.

Spotlight on inequality within the household in developed countries

Across countries, women are more likely than men to live on less than 50 per cent of the median income

The latest available estimates of global inequality suggest little change in the distribution of income among the different countries in the world: Global inequality has fallen in recent years, but under-reporting of top incomes suggests the downward trend is at best marginal. The global Gini index stood at 70.5 per cent in 2008 but could be as high as almost 76 per cent when adjusted for the under-reporting.[119] It is estimated that between 1988 and 2008, 44 per cent of the global income went to the top 5 per cent, while the poorest saw little income gains in either relative or absolute terms. Global economic growth has contributed to a decline in poverty but has done so unevenly, with polarizing effects on the distribution of income within countries.[120] While the extent of global inequality between countries can be difficult to discern, the rise of inequality within countries is well documented. In Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, the average income of the richest 10 per cent of the population has grown over the last 25 years from seven to nine times the average income of the poorest 10 per cent, and income inequality is at its highest level for the last half century.[121] In developing countries, income inequality rose by 11 per cent between 1990 and 2010.[122]

Inequality within the household—for example, between women and men—is a strong contributing factor to the overall income inequality in society, accounting for up to 30 per cent according to a recent study.[123] Women generally earn less than men (see SDG 8), have access to fewer

assets and consequently have less wealth than men. Across countries, women are more likely than men to live below 50 per cent of the median income.

Figure 3.22 shows the differences by sex in the proportion of people living on less than 50 per cent of the median income for a select set of countries for which data are available. The largest gender differences are found in the Republic of Korea, South Africa and the United States. In all the countries in the sample, single-mother households are most likely to fall below the 50 per cent median income mark. The United States stands out with the highest proportion of single-mother households (44 per cent) falling below the 50 per cent median income mark (followed by Brazil and South Africa with 43 per cent and Luxembourg, Italy and Spain with 42, 41 and 40 per cent, respectively).

Measurement challenges

A clear implication of the analysis above—and as discussed more extensively in Chapter 4—is that, to tackle inequalities, a premium must be placed on data disaggregation by sub-groups of populations in order to identify the most deprived and devise policies that can reach them. Producing data for various sub-groups using multiple disaggregating variables at once requires using data sets that are representative of the population in these sub-groups. This can often be achieved through censuses, registry data or surveys with large enough and representative sample sizes. But the analysis of data is resource intensive and can be marred by political sensitivities.

FIGURE 3.22

PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE LIVING BELOW 50 PER CENT OF MEDIAN INCOME, BY SEX, 2007-2013
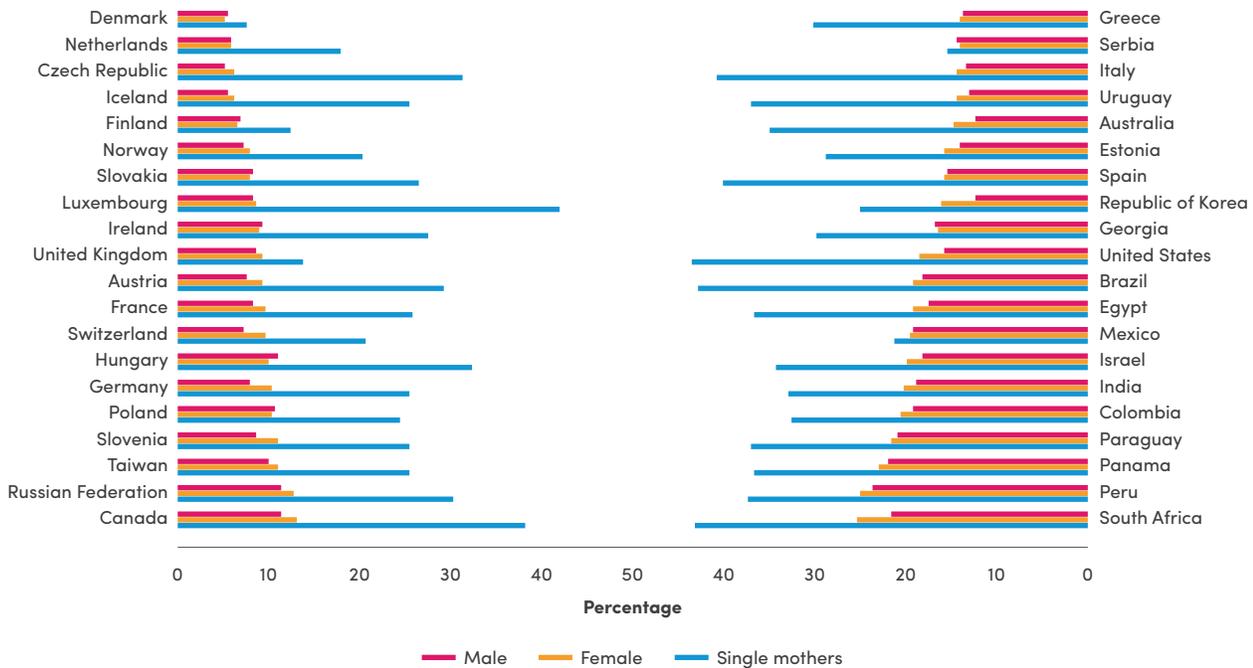
Source: Nieuwenhuis et al. Forthcoming.

Notes: Based on the most recent Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) datasets available for 42 countries. Data are from around 2013 (Wave IX) for 35 countries, around 2010 for 6 countries and 2007 in the case of 1 country (Dominican Republic). 'Single mother households' in this analysis refers to households with children below age 17 and no male adults (18+) residing in the household.

SDG 11

Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

TARGETS

10

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

3

At present, more than half of the world's population lives in urban settlements. Estimates suggest that by 2030, urban areas will house 60 per cent of all people, with one in every three living in cities of at least half a million inhabitants.[124] Many cities in the developing world have a predominantly or growing population of women, reflecting that rural–urban migration is gendered.[125] For women and girls, urbanization is often associated with greater access to education and employment opportunities, lower fertility rates and increased independence. Yet, women's equal 'right to the city'[126]—to use the benefits and opportunities that cities have to offer and to participate in their design and redesign on an equal basis with men—is still far from being realized, especially among lower-income women. This is evidenced, for example, by women's lack of personal safety when using public transport; the frequent discrimination they suffer as workers in public spaces;[127] their limited land and property ownership;[128] and the disproportionately detrimental consequences of the lack of services on their health and well-being. Women in urban slums suffer particular hardships.

Spotlight on urban slums

Women living in urban slums endure many hardships, with basic needs such as access to clean water and improved sanitation facilities often going unmet

In 2014, 23 per cent of the urban population lived in slums, down from 28 per cent in the year 2000. However, in sub-Saharan Africa, more than half (56 per cent) of urban dwellers continue to live in slum conditions.[129] In 67 per cent of the countries with available data, more than half of the female urban population aged 15–49 lives in slums (see Figure 3.23). That is, more than 50 per cent of urban women live in conditions where they lack at least one of the following: access to clean water, improved sanitation facilities, durable housing or sufficient living area. Many of these women endure not just one deprivation but have several of these four basic needs unmet. In 30 per cent of countries—most of them located in sub-Saharan Africa—more than 5 per cent of all women living in cities had three of these four basic needs unmet at once. In Chad, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Mozambique, São Tomé and Príncipe, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania, more than 10 per cent did. In Chad, the proportion of urban women who lacked access to three of the four amounted to a staggering 24.8 per cent.

FIGURE 3.23

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AND GIRLS AGED 15–49 LIVING IN SLUMS, 2003-2016
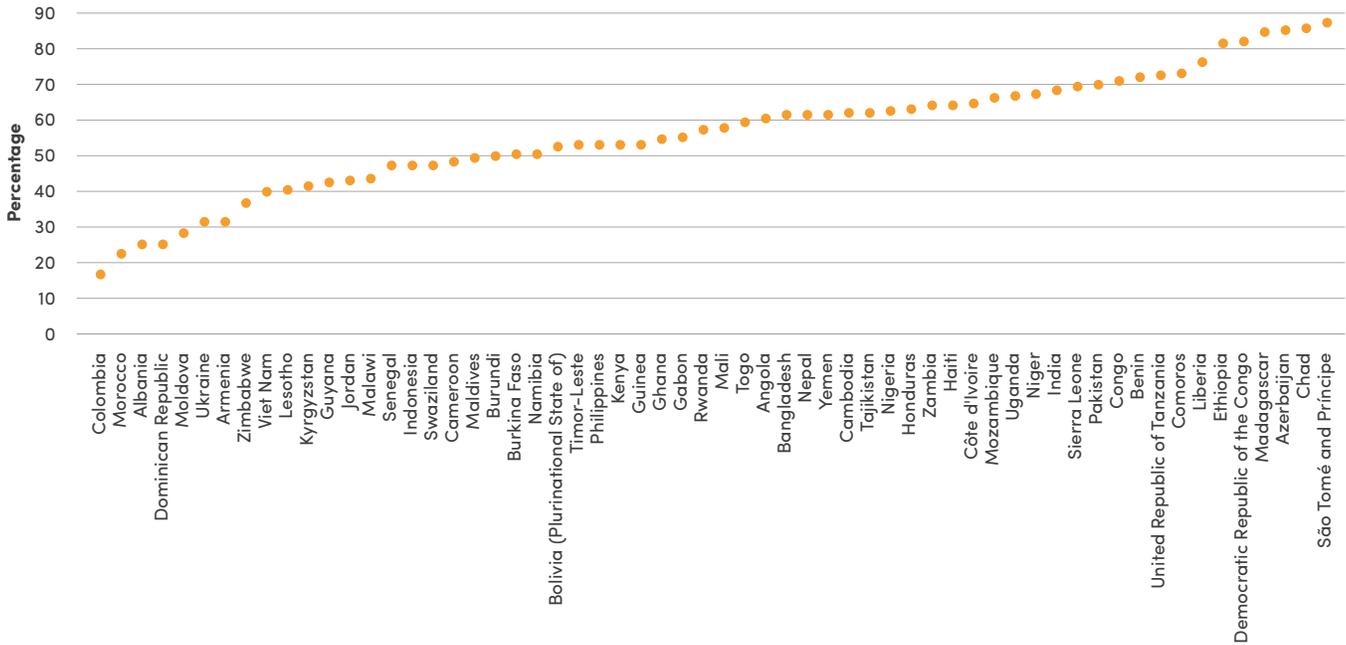
Sources: UN Women calculation based on microdata from DHS for 60 developing countries, latest available year.

Notes: SDG indicator 11.1.1 classifies 'slum household' as households that meet at least one out of five listed criteria: (1) Lack of access to improved water source, (2) Lack of access to improved sanitation facilities, (3) Lack of sufficient living area, (4) Lack of housing durability and (5) Lack of security of tenure. These criteria utilize the international definition of 'slum households' as agreed by UN Habitat–United Nations Statistics Division–UN Cities. However, in practice, methodology for measuring security of tenure is not in place; thus slum status is assessed using the first four criteria only. Sample of women and girls aged 15–49 has been used for all countries except Viet Nam, which is based on data for women aged 18–49.

In countries where slum housing is particularly widespread among urban women,[130] the two most prevalent forms of unmet household needs are a lack of durable housing materials and lack of improved sanitation facilities, which impose significant risks and burdens on women, as they spend more time in the home and are thus more exposed to hygiene and health risks. Although not as pervasive as lack of sanitation and durable housing, the inaccessibility of clean water and the overcrowding experienced by many slum dwellers make families more vulnerable to illness and increase the time burden on women in charge of water collection and caring for the sick.

Measurement challenges

National and local specificities concerning the classification of poor and informal housing units make comparability of data across countries a challenge. Work is being carried out to enhance measurement via improved survey questionnaires, but the use of survey data has significant limitations for the accuracy of this indicator. This is because surveys leave out the homeless population and often under-sample hard-to-reach population groups such as those living in large, densely populated geographical areas, likely to be classified as slum dwellers. In addition, most surveys do not compile information on slum dwellers by sex.

12 RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION

SDG 12

Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns

TARGETS

11

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

0

Unsustainable production and consumption patterns are the key drivers behind the progressive depletion of natural resources and the rapid advance of climate change, which are taking a disproportionate toll on the livelihoods of women and girls, particularly in developing countries (see SDGs 13, 14 and 15). Discussions on SDG 12 focus mainly on overproduction and overconsumption. However, these take place in an increasingly unequal world where as many as 767 million people live on less than US$2 a day and struggle to cover basic consumption needs (see SDGs 1 and 2). Calls for reducing waste and curbing material consumption often focus on changing the spending and consumption decisions of individual consumers. While this is important, it is not sufficient. Governments and businesses have an essential role in promoting more sustainable production practices, halting overexploitation of natural resources and fostering innovations that support sustainability throughout the supply chain, all which will benefit women and girls in different ways.

Spotlight on consumption of private vehicles and on public transport as a more sustainable alternative

Travel 'choices' and their sustainability are shaped by gender and other inequalities

Around the world, people are consuming more goods and leaving greater material footprints. The material footprint of a country highlights the volume of primary materials required across the entire supply chain—domestic and foreign—to meet domestic consumption needs. Globally, per capita, this increased from 8 metric tons in 2000 to 10.1 metric tons in 2010.[131] It increased in almost all regions, but the material footprint per capita of developed regions far exceeds that of developing regions. In other words, much of the raw material extracted globally goes to serve the consumption needs and habits of individuals in developed regions.

Passenger cars, which are heavily consumed goods, leave large material and carbon footprints and are a major contributor to air pollution.[132] Moreover, driving is not only an unsustainable but also a highly unequal travel 'choice'. For example, while 85–89 per cent of households own a car in countries such as Italy, Germany and the United States, this is true for only 2–3 per cent of households in Bangladesh, Uganda and Viet Nam. Even in emerging economies such as Mexico and South Africa, only about a third of households own a car.[133] Within developing countries, too, travelling by car is a choice available mostly to a privileged minority. In Brazil, for example, two thirds of high-income households own a car compared to only one quarter of low-income households.[134]

While systematic sex-disaggregated data on modes of transport is lacking, existing evidence suggests that women are less likely to drive than men and more reliant on public transport.[135] Where reliable and affordable public transport options are lacking, the main mode of transport for poor people, and for women in particular, is walking. Data from Johannesburg—where race and income strongly correlate—show, for example, that white women and men drive cars for over 50 per cent of their trips. African and coloured women, in contrast, literally never have a car available to drive (although about 7 per cent of African men and over 20 per cent of coloured men do) and are dependent instead on walking (for just under 40 per cent of trips).[136]

This shows that travel choices are determined by income and made in the context of unequal power relations within and among households and countries.[137] Greater investments in gender-responsive public transportation systems and urban infrastructure (such as bike lanes and sufficient street lighting) are needed to reduce the reliance on private passenger vehicles and to provide women with reliable and safe travel choices.

Measurement challenges

Goal 12 has not been set up to look at over-consumption and production patterns from a gender perspective. Related processes, such as the 10-Year Framework of Programmes on Sustainable Consumption and Production Patterns, adopted in 2012 during the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio + 20), are also largely gender-blind.[138] This spotlight, however, shows the need for a gender perspective. Greater analytical work is needed to fully assess the implications of SDG 12 on gender equality.

SDG 13

Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts

TARGETS

5

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

1

Human-induced climate change is having a profound impact on the natural ecosystems on which all life depends. Significant changes in the temperature of land and water bodies are increasing the frequency and intensity of extreme weather events and natural disasters, including droughts, fires and floods. This has a disproportionately negative impact on women and children, who are 14 times as likely as men to die during a disaster.[139] Women's livelihoods are also impacted by the adverse effects of climate change, including through reduced crop and forest yields and acidification of the ocean, which negatively affects the harvesting of marine life. Globally, women are heavily engaged in agriculture (SDG 2), are largely in charge of foraging (SDG 7 and 15) and fetching water (SDG 6) and play an important role in small-scale fisheries and seafood marketing (SDG 14)—all areas facing disruption. Mitigating actions are urgently needed to protect the health and livelihoods of all people adversely impacted by climate change.

## Spotlight on climate change and agriculture

Poor women's livelihoods are compromised by shrinking agricultural yields

Those who are heavily dependent on local natural resources for their livelihood, such as poor women living in rural areas and indigenous populations, are disproportionately affected by climate change. Globally, one fourth of all economically active women are engaged in agriculture.[140] Especially in heavily agriculture-dependent Asia and Africa, the majority of employed women work in agriculture, and agriculture-related occupations represent a relatively larger share of women's employment than men's (see Figure 3.24).[141] Projections indicate that by 2050, climate change will have reduced the production of rice, wheat and maize by 15, 49 and 9 per cent, respectively, in South Asia and by 15, 36 and 7 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa, resulting in higher food prices and heightened food insecurity.[142] Reductions in crop yields will also affect food distribution within households, with potentially gender-unequal nutritional outcomes.[143] The time needed for food production, processing and preparation, to which women already contribute 60 to 70 per cent of their total labour time (see Chapter 6), is also likely to increase as a result of shrinking agricultural yields.[144]

Many female agricultural workers also face severe inequalities in their access to land, credit and essential inputs such as fertilizers, irrigation, technology, information and markets. Thus, climate change adaptation and mitigation practices requiring the use of technical advances on heat-resistant and water-conserving crop varieties are also less likely to reach them.

FIGURE 3.24

PROPORTION OF EMPLOYED POPULATION WORKING IN THE AGRICULTURAL SECTOR, BY SEX AND REGION, 2009–2020
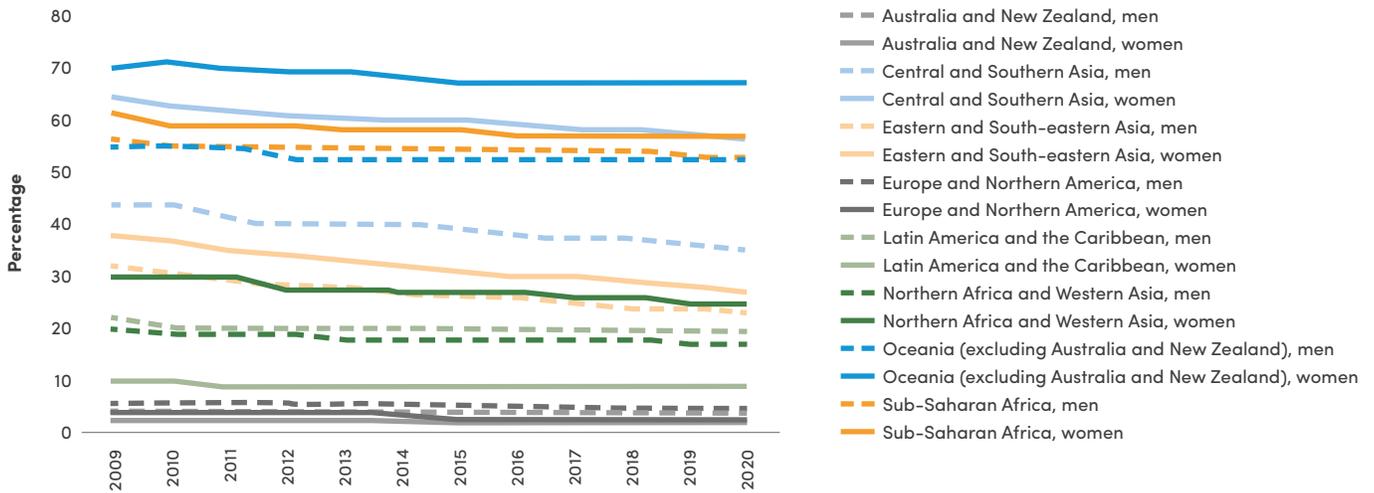
Source: Weighted averages calculated by UN Women using data from ILO 2017b.

Note: Data refer to estimates and projections for 183 countries.

Measurement challenges

Statistics on the gender effects of climate change and the management of natural resources on which women's livelihoods so heavily depend are largely missing. Enhanced sex-disaggregated data on asset ownership and the use of environmentally friendly technologies are of highest priority. Improved statistics on the frequency and intensity of firewood and fodder collection[145] (see SDG 15), along with figures on marine extraction and conservation (see SDG 14) are also necessary.[146]

Sex-disaggregated data are also needed to assess progress on other areas under SDG 13, including on deaths due to natural disasters and other indicators of gender relevance in disaster settings. Many disaster-related figures are derived from national disaster loss databases, which do not consistently register sex-disaggregated information.[147]

SDG 14

14 LIFE BELOW WATER

Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development

TARGETS

10

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

0

The sustainable management of oceans, seas and marine resources is essential for the protection of our planet and supports the livelihoods of an estimated 12 per cent of the world's population, or nearly 1 billion people. Oil spills, plastic waste, raw sewage, pollutants from industrial runoff and methylmercury from coal burning and mining are increasingly contaminating the world's oceans and inland waters. These pollutants impinge on women's and men's livelihoods and health as well as the health of their children. However, there is generally a lack of data and analysis of gender in relation to marine resources. In fact, none of the targets of SDG 14 address gender equality or the relation of marine resources to the livelihoods of women and men, including the role they can play in food security, employment and poverty reduction.

Spotlight on fishing and aquaculture

Fishing and aquaculture are critical for women's livelihoods, but occupational segregation looms large

Widespread occupational segregation exists in the fishing and aquaculture industries. While men are mostly involved in fish and aquaculture harvesting (81 per cent of workers in 2014), women are overwhelmingly involved in secondary fields such as fish processing, marketing and fishing machinery maintenance (90 per cent), which are often low paid or unpaid, and they face significant barriers to accessing financial resources and entrepreneurial support.[148] The degree of women's reliance on fishing and aquaculture, both inland and open water, varies widely across regions. For instance, 20.3 per cent of those involved in fisheries and aquaculture in Oceania are women, while the figure is 0.4 per cent in Northern African and Western Asia (see Figure 3.25). Women are a much greater share of those involved in onshore tasks, for example, in some regions, up to 60 per cent of those involved in seafood marketing and 72 per cent of those involved in aquaculture production are women.[149]

Lack of access to resources, including technology to keep fish fresh, means that women sustain large losses post-harvest.[150] Furthermore, management is overwhelmingly male-dominated (see Figure 3.25). In the maritime industry, which includes jobs from fishermen and brokers to marine administration and pollution mitigation specialists, women comprise only 2 per cent of the workforce and are largely absent from decision-making positions.[151] In 2016, only one of the top 100 seafood companies was run by a woman,[152] and 54 per cent of all seafood companies analysed had no women on the board.[153] Addressing the specific constraints faced by women engaged in fisheries and the fishing industry should be an integral component of strategies to achieve SDG 14. Evening out the power imbalances could also enable women to play a key role in marine conservation.
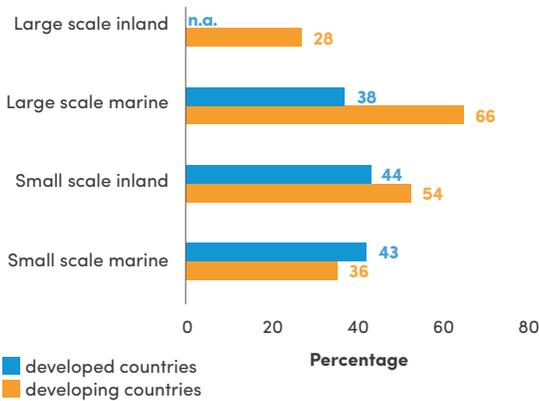
FIGURE 3.25

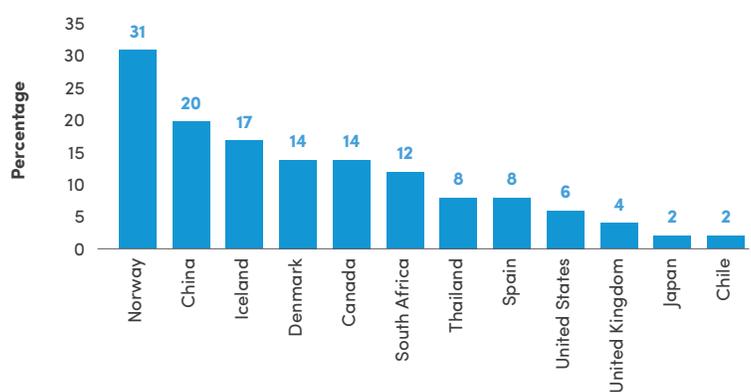## WOMEN IN FISHING, AQUACULTURE AND OTHER RELATED INDUSTRIES, VARIOUS YEARS

Proportion of people working in fisheries and aquaculture by sex, 2009–2015
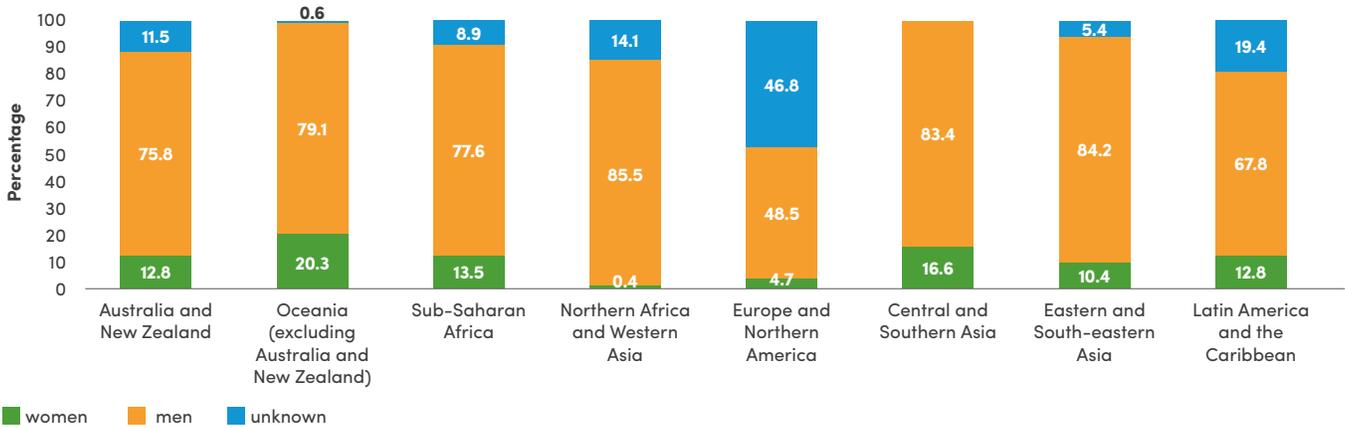
Proportion of people in fishing and post-harvest operations, 2012

Proportion of women holding director positions in the seafood industry, 2016

Source: World Bank et al. 2012, Table 3.3.

Note: The figure on fishing and post-harvest operations uses the classification of countries provided in the World Bank et al. 2012 source and therefore differs from the geographic classification standard, see Annex 4.

Measurement challenges

Greater investment in sex-disaggregated statistics, particularly record-keeping and registries, is needed to improve the understanding of women's contribution to marine resource management and to design policies that increase their participation in decision-making.[154] Statistics on the establishment and management of protected areas, fish stocks and marine resources overall are largely lacking but remain essential to monitor women's contribution to conservation efforts. Data should be consistently collected on the management methods utilized by women and men and the effectiveness of protection efforts, including 'green listing'.[155]

SDG 15

Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss

TARGETS

12

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

0

The worldwide depletion of forests is advancing at a staggering pace, to the detriment of the people who depend on them for their livelihoods. Although this will affect the livelihoods of both women and men, the impact will be different because of significant gender differences in the nature and extent of their dependence on forests for their livelihoods. Due to their roles in cooking, cattle care, supplementing household nutrition and related tasks, women and girls—particularly those from landless and land-poor households—use forests mainly for the collection of products such as firewood, fodder, food items and other non-timber products with a short-term use. Men, on the other hand, are more involved in logging timber to use for house construction, house repair or agricultural implements.[156]

Spotlight on the impact of deforestation

Women, particularly those from landless and land-poor households, are most affected by deforestation

It is estimated that 1.6 billion people around the world depend on forests for their livelihoods. Between 1990 and 2015, forest areas diminished from 31.7 per cent of the Earth's total landmass to 30.7 per cent, mostly due to the conversion of forest land into agriculture and infrastructure.[157] This amounts to a loss of 3.3 million hectares per year between 2010 and 2015 alone.[158]

Due to their lack of access to private land, poor rural women depend more than men on common pool resources such as forests and commons.[159] Their responsibility for meeting household food and fuel needs means that they are particularly affected by the depletion of forests (see Figure 3.26). A study in Malawi found deforestation was forcing elderly women to walk more than 10 kilometres a day to collect fuel wood. In Zambia, women spend on average 800 hours a year on the same task, and in the United Republic of Tanzania, they spend 300 hours a year.[160] The expropriation of land for commercial purposes, which has intensified in recent years, is exacerbating this problem (see Box 3.3).

BOX 3.3

IMPACT OF LAND GRABS ON FOREST-DEPENDENT POPULATIONS

The phenomenon of forcibly dispossessing people of their land, sometimes referred to as 'land grabbing', occurs everywhere, but the practice is most prevalent in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Land grabs in forest areas often result in conflict between local communities, the destruction of livelihoods and the introduction of industrial-scale monoculture along with pesticides. Land grabbing threatens forest biodiversity and has serious negative effects on forest-dependent populations—particularly women, who are heavily dependent on subsistence-oriented forest products. Recent figures estimate that 227 million hectares of land in developing countries were sold or leased to international investors between 2001 and 2011 alone.[161]

Since the 1980s, the expansion of oil palm plantations has been a major cause of land grabbing and deforestation in many South-East Asian countries. In Indonesia, the world's largest producer of palm oil, deforestation and dispossession of land for palm-oil production have had devastating impacts on women and their status in the home and in their communities.

In West Kalimantan province, recent deforestation for oil-palm production resulted in women losing their supply of vegetables and fruits for consumption, as well as raw materials used in craft production as sources of income.[162] Compensation policies for switching to oil-palm cultivation reversed property rights, as equality in land tenure (i.e., held jointly by spouses) was replaced by the men (as presumed 'family heads') receiving sole titles.

In the new plantations, women were often given labour-intensive, low-paid and hazardous work (such as spraying fertilizers), while men were given higher-paying jobs. Related intra-household income inequality escalated domestic conflict and increased women's exposure to domestic violence.

Women's specific knowledge and dependence on forests makes them key contributors to forest conservation. Research shows that the presence of a critical mass of women (between 25 and 33 per cent) in community forestry institutions has a positive impact on forest condition and regeneration and strengthens their political agency.[163]

Measurement challenges

Data on forest areas, biomass stock, protected forest areas and forest areas under management plans and management certification schemes are collected periodically by countries and submitted to the international statistical system. This information is important for assessing deforestation rates and the efficiency of conservation efforts, but it is insufficient to determine either the differentiated deforestation burden placed on women and men or the different impacts on conservation that women and men might have. Individual-level survey records can be used to analyse information and produce sex-disaggregated statistics on household fuel collection responsibilities, time use in foraging and forest management, forest-related employment trends and forest conservation activities. Demographic and Health Surveys, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, labour force surveys and time-use surveys all compile select information on some of these issues at the individual level, but information pertaining to conservation efforts is largely missing from data collection tools. Expanding survey questionnaires to include questions on this could provide significant insights into women's role in forest conservation.

FIGURE 3.26

MAIN POTENTIAL BENEFITS, USE AND COSTS OF FOREST, BY SEX

MAINLY AFFECTING **WOMEN**	MAINLY AFFECTING **MEN**
BENEFITS DERIVED FROM USE OF FORESTS BY SEX	
Firewood supply	Small timber
Fodder supply	Housebuilding timber
NTFP*	Cash (if distributed) from sale of forest products
	Use of collective fund
COSTS OF FOREST CLOSURE AND DEGRADATION	
Firewood shortages	Membership fee
Fodder shortages	Patrolling time/ guard's pay
Increased time feeding animals	Fodder shortages (purchase)
Informal patrolling time	Loss of source for small timber
Erosion of some livelihoods	Erosion of some livelihoods
Fines if caught stealing firewood	
Enhanced (late entry) membership fee	

Source: Agarwal 2016b.

Note: This is a broad outline of the main direct costs and benefits. Not each of these applies to every community. There may also be some indirect costs and benefits. For instance, a greater supply of firewood indirectly benefits the whole family.
*NTFP = non-timber forest products

SDG 16

Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

TARGETS

12

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

6

Effective, accountable and inclusive institutions are critical for achieving gender equality and sustainable development by enabling women to access justice and other essential public services. Where governance institutions fail to play their role, corruption, organized crime, inequalities and social unrest tend to increase—often with detrimental consequences for women and girls. In developed and developing countries alike, law and justice institutions—such as the police, the courts and the judiciary—continue to fail millions of women and girls while tolerance and impunity for crimes against them remain widespread.[164] Women's under-representation in institutions of global, regional and national governance and their lack of power to shape these institutions contribute to perpetuating gender bias. Although the gender dimensions of conflict and the pivotal role women play in building and sustaining peace is increasingly being recognized, the opportunities to promote women's leadership, enhance their access to justice and build more peaceful and inclusive societies for all are not sufficiently harnessed.

## Spotlight on intentional female homicide

Female homicides, rape and other forms of violence against women are pervasive during and after conflict

Although the vast majority of global homicide victims are men, almost half of all women victims of intentional homicide in 2012—the latest year with available data—died at the hands of an intimate partner or family member, compared to 6 per cent of the murdered men: Almost 44,000 women were victims of intentional homicide by an intimate partner that year, compared to 20,000 men.[165] According to the latest available estimates,[166] the global female homicide rate stands at 2.3 per 100,000, although figures vary widely across and within regions. The largest regional average is registered in Latin America and the Caribbean, with the highest rates in countries in Central America. High rates of female homicide are also observed in sub-Saharan Africa, with conflict and post-conflict countries in the region showing some of the highest rates.

In times of conflict, rates of homicide and other forms of violent crime increase significantly. While men are more likely to be killed on the battlefield, women are disproportionately subjected to sexual violence, singled out for abduction, tortured and forced to leave their homes.[167] Targeted killings, rape and other forms of violence against women are often used as weapons of war. In conflict and post-conflict countries, the proportions of female homicide victims are usually larger than the regional averages. For instance, in Figure 3.27, the conflict or post-conflict States of

FIGURE 3.27

INTENTIONAL FEMALE HOMICIDES PER 100,000 POPULATION BY REGION, 2010
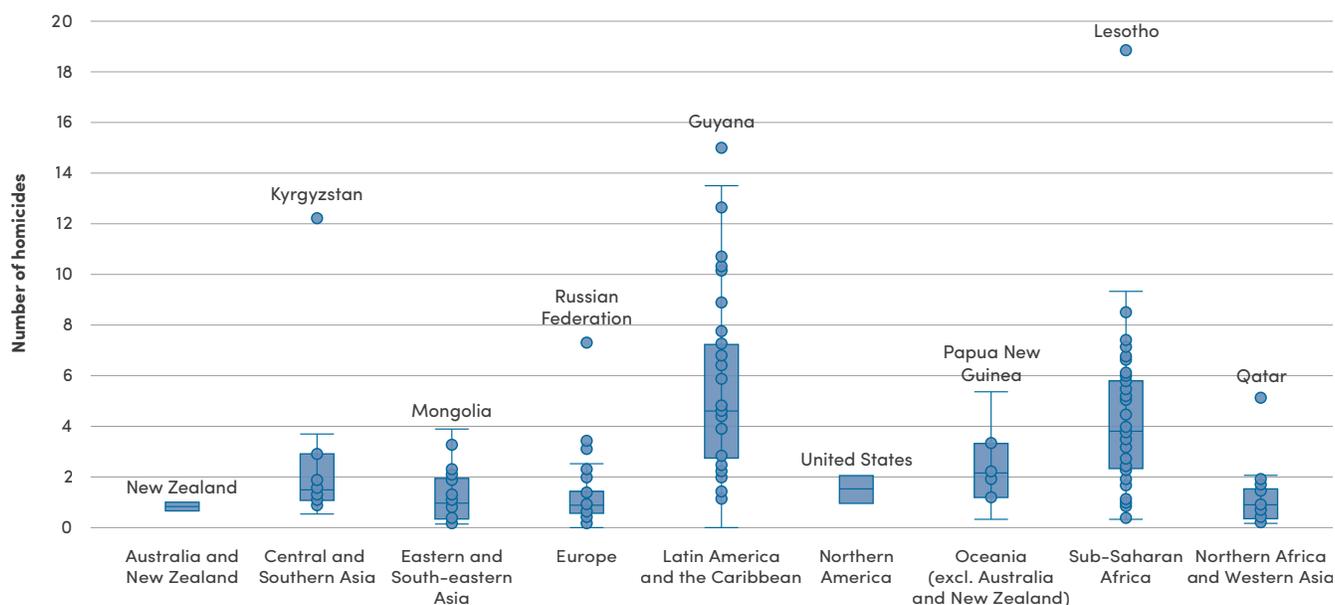
Source: UNODC undated.

Notes: Data refer to 2010 estimates for 185 countries. Share of female homicides is available for one year only (around 2010) and thus while more recent data are avaiable for total homicides, the 2010 estimates are used to calculate total number of female homicides. Europe and Northern America is disaggregated into its SDG sub-regions: Europe and Northern America separately.

Lesotho in sub-Saharan Africa, Papua New Guinea in Oceania and Kyrgyzstan in Central and Southern Asia are all at the top of their regional distributions.[168]

Many conflict and post-conflict countries (Democratic Republic of the Congo, Nepal and Uganda, among others) are also those with some of the highest sexual violence rates worldwide, as shown in Figure 3.28. The likelihood of sexual violence being committed by police or military personnel is also higher during and after conflict. In Liberia, for instance, where two civil wars have claimed the lives of thousands and forced many to

flee, the share of victims of sexual violence reporting having been assaulted by national security personnel surpasses 8 per cent, the largest among the countries with available data.

Measurement challenges

A key challenge with measuring homicide and violent deaths is that homicide data, often compiled in national registries from a combination of records from the criminal justice and health systems, might not be readily disaggregated by sex and by age.[169] Also, accurately recording data about the

perpetrator, including the sex and relationship to the victim, as well as the cause of death continues to be a major challenge and is not done consistently. Enhancing crime and criminal justice data, as well as health registry data, to capture these dimensions is essential to obtain reliable homicide statistics that reveal the magnitude of gender-related violent crime.

Similarly, sexual violence figures are often under-reported as women might fear retaliation and/or

social stigma. Improving data collection standards to assess all forms of violence and complementing registry data with survey estimates are essential measures to assess and address all forms of violence—including homicides, sexual violence and human trafficking—that undermine peaceful societies. Adequately monitoring trends in conflict settings is a particular challenge given that the deterioration of national statistical systems and public institutions in these contexts often impedes the uninterrupted compilation of reliable statistics.

FIGURE 3.28

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AND GIRLS AGED 15-49 VICTIMS OF SEXUAL VIOLENCE (LEFT AXIS) AND SHARE OF INCIDENTS PERPETRATED BY POLICE/MILITARY PERSONNEL (RIGHT AXIS), 2007-2016

■ % women and girls aged 15–49 who ever experienced sexual violence

◆ % victims of sexual violence committed by police/soldier
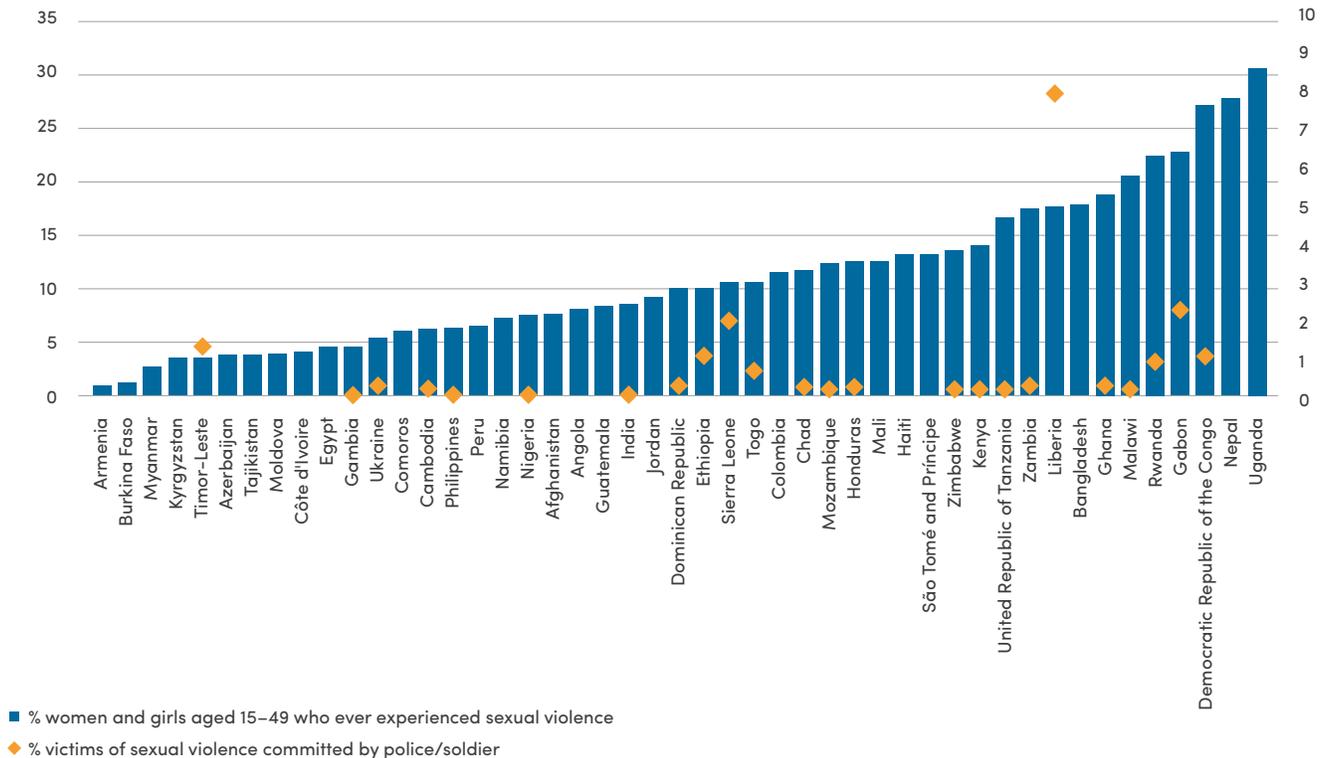
Source: UN Women calculations based on latest available DHS for 47 countries.

Note: Data on violence perpetrated by police/soldier only available for 24 countries.

SDG 17

Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development

TARGETS
19

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS
1

Achieving the SDGs for women and girls requires an enabling environment and a stronger commitment to partnership and cooperation. Integral to strengthening the 'means of implementation' are commitments focusing on the mobilization of adequate resources, fair and equitable trade and technological progress for sustainable development and capacity-building, delivered through partnerships based on accountability and solidarity, and adequate data to monitor implementation. All of these are important for gender equality as well. For instance, trade liberalization may negatively affect women's employment in contexts where they are over-represented in import-competing sectors, such as agricultural food crops. Budget cuts that reduce social spending may increase the demands on women's unpaid domestic work, while access to labour-saving technology may contribute to reducing the drudgery of such work.

Spotlight on the mobilization of resources for developing countries

In 2012, financial resources flowing out of developing countries were 2.5 times the amount of aid flowing in, and gender allocations paled in comparison to these outflows
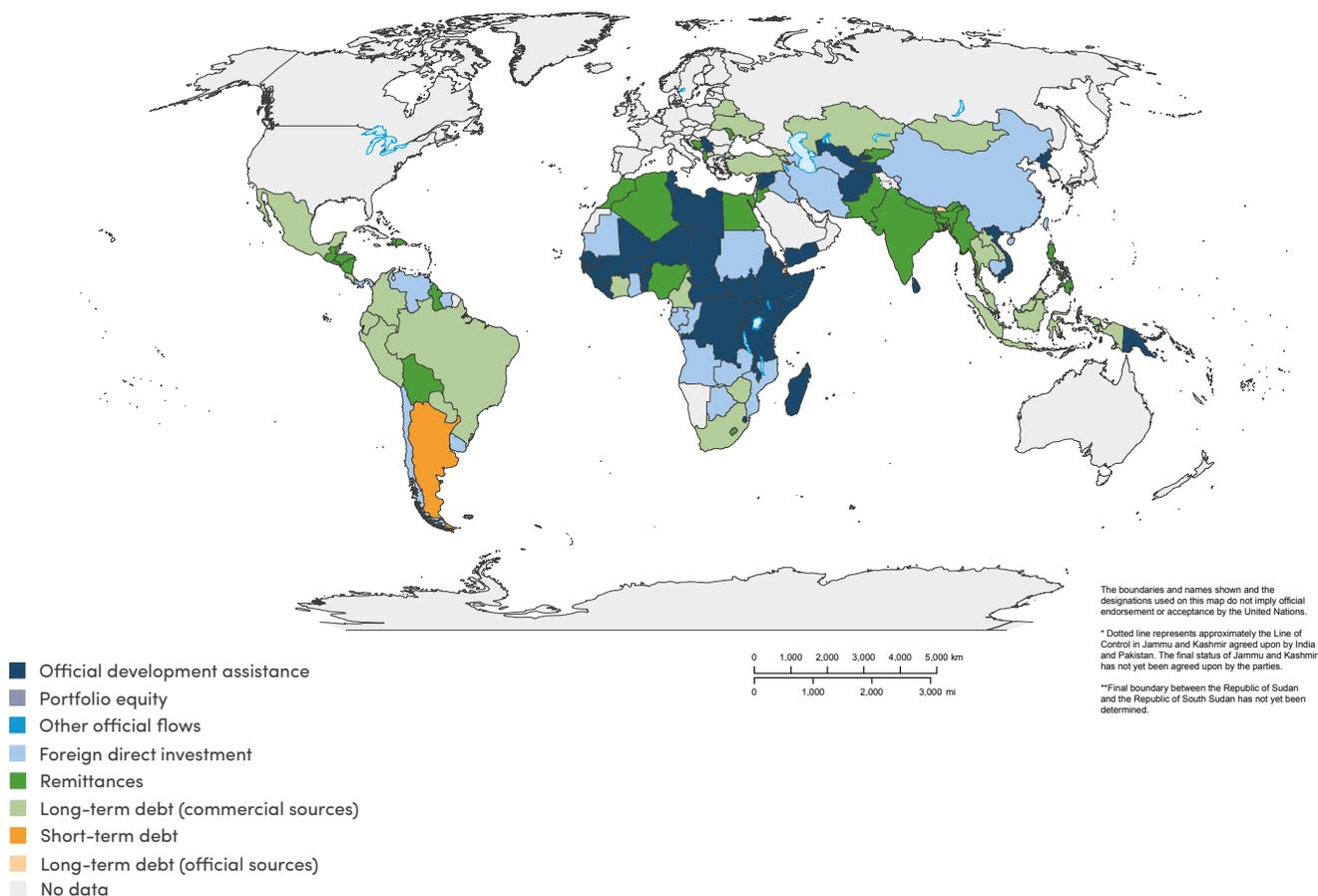
Target 17.3 calls for increased mobilization of financial resources for developing countries. Monitoring this target from a gender equality perspective requires assessing the extent to which financial resources from multiple sources are being mobilized to support developing countries and how much of these resources are designated for gender equality commitments. However, of all the resources coming into developing countries, overseas development aid (ODA) is the only one that can currently be tracked from a gender perspective.

Of the US$114 billion in ODA commitments coming into developing countries in 2014–2015, US$40.2 billion had a focus on gender equality.[170] The sectors that received the most for gender-related programming were government and civil society (18 per cent), education (10 per cent) and population and reproductive health (10 per cent). Much less was committed to gender equality in the economic and productive sectors—for example, only 2 per cent each were committed for business and banking.

While ODA remains an important source of aid to low-income countries, non-ODA flows have gained importance over the past years.[171] The map in Figure 3.29 shows diverse sources of financing coming in, but equally important is the amount that is simultaneously flowing out. In 2012, developing countries received US$1.3 trillion in aid, investment and income from abroad but US$3.3 trillion flowed out in the form of interest payments

FIGURE 3.29

LARGEST INTERNATIONAL RESOURCE INFLOWS, 2015

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

* Dotted line represents approximately the Line of Control in Jammu and Kashmir agreed upon by India and Pakistan. The final status of Jammu and Kashmir has not yet been agreed upon by the parties.

**Final boundary between the Republic of Sudan and the Republic of South Sudan has not yet been determined.

■ Official development assistance
■ Portfolio equity
■ Other official flows
■ Foreign direct investment
■ Remittances
■ Long-term debt (commercial sources)
■ Short-term debt
■ Long-term debt (official sources)
■ No data

Source: Development Initiatives 2017.

Notes: Based on data for 140 developing countries. Countries without data for two or more flows out of ODA, OOFs, FDI and remittances are excluded. For the following five countries, 2015 data is not available and therefore latest available year is used: Central African Republic (2000); Eritrea (2002); Libya (2014); Nauru (2009); and Somalia (2014). All data were calculated based on US$ units.

on foreign debt, foreign investment, repatriated income and capital flight.[172] It is estimated that 84 per cent of these net resource transfers are accounted for by unrecorded capital flight, including illicit outflows.[173] This loss in resources reduces the capacity of countries to transform their economies, protect their environments and invest in their people. Aid committed to gender equality, while important, is too limited to compensate for the loss in revenue that could otherwise have been invested in infrastructure and services that benefit women and girls (see also Chapter 6 and Creating fiscal space, p. 245).

Measurement challenges

More data are needed on the wide range of financial resources coming in and out of countries, the use of these resources to support sustainable development and the impact of these flows on women and girls. In addition, more efforts are needed at the global, regional and national levels to track mobilization of adequate resources for gender equality policies and programmes (see Target 5.c).

ENDNOTES

1. See, for example, Barrientos, A. and J. DeJong. 2006. "Reducing Child Poverty with Cash Transfers: A Sure Thing?" *Development Policy Review* 24 (5): 537–552.; Blumberg, R. L. 2005. "Women's Economic Empowerment as the 'Magic Potion' of Development?" Paper presented at the 100th Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association, Philadelphia, PA, August.; Kabeer, N. 2003. *Gender Mainstreaming in Poverty Eradication and the Millennium Development Goals: A Handbook for Policy-Makers and Other Stakeholders*. London: Commonwealth Secretariat.; Quisumbing, A.R. (Ed.). 2003. *Household Decisions, Gender, and Development: A Synthesis of Recent Research*. Washington, DC: International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI).; Kabeer N. and l. Natali. 2012. "Gender Equality and Economic Growth: Is There a Win-Win?" IDS Pathways Working Paper (mimeo). Institute of Development Studies, Brighton, UK.; Kabeer, N. et al. 2013. *Paid Work, Women's Empowerment and Inclusive Growth*. New York: UN Women.

2. Evidence of this association is available for some regions. See: WHO (World Health Organization), London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine and South African Medical Research Council. 2013. *Global and Regional Estimates of Violence against Women: Prevalence and Health Effects of Intimate Partner Violence and Non-Partner Sexual Violence*. Geneva: WHO.

3. Ibid.

4. WHO (World Health Organization). 1997. "Violence against Women; Health Consequences." Accessed 30 November 2017. http://www.who.int/gender/ violence/v8.pdf.

5. UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund). 2016a. *Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting: A Global Concern*. New York: UNICEF.

6. UN General Assembly 2013. "Report of the Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights." A/68/293.

7. Based on methodology first developed by ECLAC (2002/2003) to determine whether women were more vulnerable to poverty than men. See endnote 11 for description of methodology.

8. Arguably the most widely cited figure in the area of gender and poverty is that "women constitute 70 per cent of the world's poor". Remarkably, although this claim has been widely discredited, it continues to make the headlines more than 20 years after it was first 'invented'. See discussions in Chant, S. 2006. "Re-thinking the 'Feminization of Poverty' in Relation to Aggregate Gender Indices." *Journal of Human Development* 7 (2): 201–220.; Chant, S. 2008b. "'The 'Feminisation of Poverty' and the 'Feminisation' of Anti- Poverty Programmes: Room for Revision?" *Journal of Development Studies* 44 (2): 165–197.; Green, D. 2010. "Are Women Really 70% of the World's Poor? How Do We Know?" Oxfam 'From Poverty to Power' blog. Accessed 12 October 2017. https://oxfamblogs.org/fp2p/are-women-really-70-of-the-worlds-poor- how-do-we-know/.

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12. See: Nieuwenhuis, R., T. Munzi, J. Neugschwender, H. Omar and F. Palmisano. Forthcoming. "Gender Equality and Poverty Are Intrinsically Linked: A Contribution to the Continued Monitoring of Selected Sustainable Development Goals." Background paper for the Research and Data Section. UN Women, New York.

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14. Due to limited population coverage, regional aggregates are not available for all SDGs regions.

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