

TURNING PROMISES INTO ACTION:

GENDER EQUALITY IN THE 2030 AGENDA
FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT



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FOREWORDS



ANTÓNIO GUTERRES
SECRETARY-GENERAL
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The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development sets out a transformative vision for preserving our planet, promoting peace and ensuring that prosperity is shared by all. Human rights and gender equality are core principles of this bold agenda, underpinning our efforts to prevent conflict, overcome divisions and address the root causes of inequality, instability and injustice.

This report by UN Women, *Turning Promises into Action*, comes at a critical time. More than two years into the life of the 2030 Agenda, it calls for dramatic advances in statistics, financing and policies for gender equality, as well as more determined steps towards democratic governance and accountability. Based on robust data and expert analysis, the report takes stock of where we stand on key aspects of gender equality globally; tells us what is needed to monitor progress meaningfully; and provides wide-ranging recommendations for change.

The report leaves no doubt: Gender equality is fundamental to delivering on the promise of the 2030 Agenda. As long as women are economically and socially disempowered in the world of work and in their homes and communities, growth will not be inclusive and we will not succeed in ending poverty. The creation of inclusive and peaceful societies will also remain out of reach until women and girls are safe from all forms of violence and can shape the decisions that affect their lives.

It is therefore crucial to integrate a gender perspective into the implementation and monitoring of all the Sustainable Development Goals. With the targets and indicators, we already have the benchmarks for seeking out and tracking the women, men, girls and boys who are being left behind. Now, using the findings of this report, it is time to accelerate implementation with gender equality front and centre. Leveraging the capacities, skills, financing, technology and networks of all stakeholders will be essential.

Gender equality is a goal in its own right and a powerful force for upholding the main promise of the 2030 Agenda: to leave no one behind. I commend this volume to policymakers, researchers, civil society groups and others worldwide as a source of knowledge and a call to action. Let us work together towards a world of empowerment and dignity for all.

A handwritten signature in black ink, which appears to read 'António Guterres'. The signature is fluid and cursive, with a long horizontal stroke at the end. It is positioned to the right of the printed name.

António Guterres



PHUMZILE MLAMBO-NGCUKA

UNDER-SECRETARY-GENERAL AND
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The adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in 2015 was a global victory for gender equality. Not only did United Nations Member States commit to making sustainability, equality, peace and human progress a reality for all countries and all people; they also recognized that gender equality is central to this transformative vision as an important goal in itself and a catalyst for progress across the entire Agenda.

Our monitoring report points clearly towards what is needed to get to the goals by 2030. Progress for women and girls remains unacceptably slow. Despite advances in girls' enrolment in primary education, 15 million girls of primary-school age will never get the chance to learn to read or write compared to about 10 million boys. Violence against women and girls remains a global pandemic, with one in three women and girls experiencing physical and/or sexual violence in their lifetimes. Today, women hold 24 per cent of parliamentary seats globally – still only half way to parity – and the gender pay gap stands at 23 per cent.

Even where progress has been made, it has been highly uneven. Looking beyond national averages, our report uncovers yawning gaps between women and girls who, even within the same country, are living worlds apart. For example, in Nigeria, women and girls from the poorest households are nearly five times as likely to be married before the age of 18 as those from the richest households. In the United States of America, the share of black and Native American women who live in poverty is twice as high as the share of white women. To reach those currently being left out of progress we must take action on the multiple and intersecting inequalities that hold down women and girls in cycles of poverty.

Alarming, many hard-won gender equality achievements are under threat. Climate change and

environmental degradation are undermining the livelihoods of millions of women and men; economic slowdown, recession and austerity measures have exacerbated inequality; and millions are being forcibly displaced due to violent conflict and humanitarian catastrophes. A shift towards exclusionary and fear-based politics is deepening societal divisions, breeding conflict and instability, as well as renewed resistance to women's rights. The unprecedented expression of political will that culminated in the 2030 Agenda is meeting formidable push-back.

The full and equal realization of women's and girls' rights must remain the centre of implementation. We must move towards an integrated way of tackling different forms of inequality and deprivation, as mandated by the 2030 Agenda. Better gender data, statistics and analysis will be critical to show who we are helping and what is working and to hold stakeholders accountable for commitments made but not met.

Indispensable in this effort is a vibrant civil society with space to express itself. Across the world, women's movements have advocated for gender equality and women's rights, and systematically challenged broader structures from authoritarianism, militarism and violence to economic policies that perpetuate inequalities of many kinds. It is thanks to their mobilization that the gender equality commitments of the 2030 Agenda are so comprehensive. Their sustained involvement in implementation and monitoring will be critical to turn the transformative promise of the SDGs into progress for women and girls on the ground.

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Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACS	American Community Survey	FIES	Food Insecurity Experience Scale
ADB	Asian Development Bank	GDP	gross domestic product
ADEV	Association des Acteurs de Développement	GMD	Global Micro Database
AJWS	American Jewish World Service	GRB	gender-responsive budgeting
APWLD	Asia Pacific Forum on Women, Law and Development	HLP	High-level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Development Agenda
ARROW	Asia-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women	HLPF	High-level Political Forum
BMI	body mass index	IAEG-SDGs	Inter-Agency and Expert Group on the Sustainable Development Goals
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women	ICRW	International Centre for Research on Women
DFID	Department for International Development, UK	ICT	information and communications technology
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey	IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
ECEC	early childhood education and care	IDP	internally displaced person
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean	ILO	International Labour Organization
EFA/GMR	Education for All/Global Monitoring Report	IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations	IPV	intimate partner violence
FGM	female genital mutilation	IWHC	International Women's Health Coalition
		ITU	International Telecommunications Union

ITUC	International Trade Union Confederation	UN-Habitat	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
LFPR	labour force participation rate	UN HRC	United Nations Human Rights Council
LTC	long-term care	UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
MDG	Millennium Development Goal	UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
MMR	maternal mortality rate	UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
NGO	non-governmental organization	UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization
NHRI	national human rights institution	UNESCO-UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
NSO	national statistical office	UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
ODA	official development assistance	UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development	UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights	UNSD	United Nations Statistics Division
PPP	public-private partnership	UPR	Universal Periodic Review
RO	regional office	VAWG	violence against women and girls
SDA	Survey Documentation and Analysis	VAT	value added tax
SIAP	Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific	VNR	voluntary national review
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal	WG	Washington Group
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics	WHO	World Health Organization
UN CEDAW	United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women	WWHR	Women for Women's Human Rights
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs		
UN ECOSOC	United Nations Economic and Social Council		

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Adopted in September 2015, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development tackles a broad range of global challenges, aiming to eradicate poverty, reduce multiple and intersecting inequalities, address climate change, end conflict and sustain peace. Due to the relentless efforts of women's rights advocates from across the globe, the 2030 Agenda's commitment to gender equality is prominent, comprehensive and cross-cutting, building on the commitments and norms contained in the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). The 2030 Agenda makes clear that development will only be sustainable if its benefits accrue equally to both women and men; and women's rights will only become a reality if they are part of broader efforts to protect the planet and ensure that all people can live with respect and dignity.

What progress have we made for women and girls? What is needed to bridge the gaps between rhetoric and reality? More than two years into the implementation of the 2030 Agenda, this global monitoring report takes stock of ongoing trends and challenges based on available evidence and data. It looks at both the ends (goals and targets) and the means (policies and processes) that are needed to achieve gender equality and sustainable development. This approach of monitoring is intended to enable Member States and other stakeholders to track progress comprehensively and to assist women's rights advocates to demand accountability for gender equality commitments as implementation proceeds.

A challenging global context

The 2030 Agenda holds the potential to transform the lives of women and girls all over the world even though the challenges are daunting. The large-scale extraction of natural resources, climate change and

environmental degradation are advancing at an unprecedented pace, undermining the livelihoods of millions of women and men, particularly in the developing world. A volatile global economy and orthodox economic policies continue to deepen inequalities and push people further behind. Exclusionary and fear-based politics are deepening societal divisions and breeding conflict and instability; millions are being forcibly displaced due to violent conflicts and humanitarian catastrophes. Amid global socio-economic and political turmoil, not only is gender equality out of reach but women's rights are facing renewed resistance from different kinds of fundamentalism. Civic space is shrinking and women's human rights defenders are facing threats and persecution by both state and non-state actors.¹

Gender inequalities manifest themselves in every dimension of sustainable development (see pp. 20–21). When households cannot access sufficient food, women are often the first to go hungry. While girls are increasingly doing better in school and university than boys, this has not translated into gender equality in the labour market. The gender pay gap stands at 23 per cent globally and, without decisive action, it will take another 68 years to achieve equal pay. While women have made important inroads into political office across the world, their representation in national parliaments at 23.7 per cent is still far from parity, and women politicians and voters face threats and attacks, persistent sexual harassment and online abuse. One in five women and girls have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner within the last 12 months. Yet, 49 countries have no laws that specifically protect women from such violence. Despite their increasing presence in public life, women continue to do 2.6 times the unpaid care and domestic work that men do. Women and girls are also the main water and solid fuel collectors in households without access to an improved water source and clean energy in their

homes, with adverse implications for their health and safety (see *At a glance*, pp. 20–21).

Harnessing the transformative potential of the 2030 Agenda

This state of affairs presents a real test for the implementation of the 2030 Agenda. Yet, as Chapter 1 shows, the 2030 Agenda's focus on sustainability, equality, peace and human progress provides a powerful counter-narrative to current practices of extraction, exclusion and division. The SDGs are especially important now, both as a political agenda for global cooperation and as a specific, time-bound set of targets that underline the urgent need for concerted action. What will it take to harness their transformative potential and make them work for gender equality and women's rights?

Getting it right: Indivisibility, interlinkages and taking an integrated approach

The 2030 Agenda builds on previous commitments to respect, protect and fulfil women's human rights. It recognizes the indivisibility and interdependence of rights, the interlinkages between gender equality and the three dimensions of sustainable development, and the need for an integrated approach to implementation.

In the lives of women and girls, different dimensions of well-being and deprivation are deeply intertwined: A girl who is born into a poor household (Target 1.2) and forced into early marriage (Target 5.3), for example, is more likely to drop out of school (Target 4.1), give birth at an early age (Target 3.7), suffer complications during childbirth (Target 3.1) and experience violence (Target 5.2) than a girl from a higher-income household who marries at a later age. At the end of this chain of events, the girl who was born into poverty stands almost no chance of moving out of it.

During implementation, policymakers must aim to break this vicious cycle and respond to the interdependent experiences of exclusion and

deprivation by providing integrated responses: A woman who leaves an abusive relationship, for example, needs access to justice (Target 16.3) as well as a safe place to live (Target 11.1), medical care (Target 3.8) and a decent job (Target 8.5) so she can maintain an adequate standard of living for herself and any dependents she may have.

This means that while progress on SDG 5 will be critical, it cannot be the sole focus of gender-responsive implementation, monitoring and accountability. Progress on some fronts may be undermined by regression or stagnation on others; potential synergies may be lost without integrated, multisectoral strategies.² This is why women's rights advocates fought hard to achieve both a stand-alone goal on gender equality as well as integrating it across other goals and targets, drawing attention to the gender dimensions of poverty, hunger, health, education, water and sanitation, employment, climate change, environmental degradation, urbanization, conflict and peace, and financing for development. This report follows the same rationale, looking at progress, gaps and challenges for gender equality across the 2030 Agenda as a whole (see Chapter 3).

Leaving no one behind: Universality, solidarity and addressing intersecting inequalities

The universal nature of the 2030 Agenda responds to the common and interconnected challenges faced by all countries—developed and developing—while the commitment to leaving no one behind seeks to reach the most disadvantaged by building solidarity between them and those who are better-off. Improving the lives of those who are furthest behind is a matter of social justice, as well as being essential for creating inclusive societies and sustainable economies. Inequality hurts everyone: It is a threat to social and political stability, a drag on economic growth³ and a barrier to progress on poverty eradication and the realization of human rights more broadly.⁴

Global solidarity and cooperation in areas such as climate change, migration and financing for

development will be crucial to providing enabling conditions for successful national implementation. Illicit financial flows, the global arms trade and large-scale land dispossession by transnational actors, for example, contribute to pushing people further behind, with women and girls often particularly affected.⁵ Powerful global players—be they sovereign States, international financial institutions or transnational corporations—have a particularly critical responsibility to ensure their actions and omissions do not undermine gender equality and sustainable development.

Across countries, women and girls experience multiple inequalities and intersecting forms of discrimination, including based on their sex, age, class, ability, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity and migration status (see Chapter 4). Their rights and needs must be addressed and their meaningful participation in implementation ensured. At the same time, strategies to 'leave no one behind' should create solidarity through risk-sharing, redistribution and universal programmes⁶ and avoid contributing to social fragmentation and stigmatization. Narrowly targeted programmes can exacerbate tensions over resource allocation and contribute to the creation of harmful stereotypes and hierarchies of disadvantage and entitlement.⁷ Rather than substituting targeted programmes for universal ones, governments should ensure access for groups that have been historically excluded while building universal systems that are collectively financed and used by all social groups.⁸

Monitoring and accountability: The need for a revolution in data and democratic governance

To strengthen accountability, progress on the goals must be tracked, gaps identified and challenges in implementation highlighted. However, as Chapter 2 shows, the challenges for gender-responsive monitoring are daunting. Currently, only 10 out of 54 gender-related indicators, can reliably be monitored at the global level. Established methodologies exist for another 25 indicators but country coverage is insufficient to allow for global monitoring. The remaining 18 indicators still require some level of

conceptual elaboration and/or methodological development before they can be used. While this is a challenge for measuring change, at least in the short run, it also provides an opportunity for improving the availability and quality of gender statistics.

A revolution in democratic governance is also needed for women and girls to claim their rights and shape sustainable development. Spaces for public debate and democratic decision-making must be created to define national priorities, identify what is working well and where the gaps are, agree on pathways for transformative change and determine the roles and responsibilities of different actors. At the global level, open consultation throughout the post-2015 process engaged and mobilized people, countries and organizations to identify common priorities and navigate tensions. Women's rights organizations were extremely effective in building coalitions and alliances across different interest groups to put gender equality at the centre of the new agenda.⁹ Such participatory processes and strategic alliances are also needed to ensure effective and gender-responsive implementation, follow-up and review.

Accelerating gender-responsive implementation

The systematic monitoring of gender equality outcomes, policies and processes at the national, regional and global levels can contribute to catalysing action, translating global commitments into results and strengthening accountability for actions or omissions by different stakeholders. The report highlights three key strategies for keeping gender equality front and centre during implementation, follow-up and review and provides concrete recommendations.

Improving gender data, statistics and analysis

Despite increasing attention to gender statistics in recent decades, the report identifies pressing challenges that stand in the way of systematic, gender-responsive monitoring. These include the

uneven coverage of gender indicators across goals and targets; the absence of internationally agreed standards for data collection; and the uneven availability of gender statistics across countries and over time. To ensure the effective monitoring of progress for women and girls across all goals and targets, the report recommends to:

- Support the inclusion of gender-specific indicators across all 17 SDGs by 2020.
- Work towards the regular collection of data for gender-specific indicators, ensuring quality and comparability.
- Develop global, regional and national strategies for identifying groups that are being left behind.
- Promote and adhere to quality benchmarks, human rights standards and the fundamental principles of official statistics.
- Accelerate the development of global standards for gender-specific Tier III indicators.
- Strengthen commitment at the highest political level to an open, inclusive, transparent and gender-sensitive SDG monitoring process.

Prioritizing gender-responsive investments, policies and programmes

Delivering on the gender equality commitments of the 2030 Agenda requires mobilizing and allocating sufficient resources for policies and programmes that contribute to their achievement. As countries roll out their national implementation strategies, it is paramount that investments in these and other strategic areas are prioritized. It is also important that policies and programmes are aligned with the principles of the 2030 Agenda, including human rights principles such as equality, non-discrimination and universality. This report provides concrete examples of how this can be done, focusing on eliminating all forms of violence against women and girls (Chapter 5) and addressing unpaid care and domestic work (Chapter 6).

Overall, turning gender equality promises into progress will require action to:

- Develop equitable and progressive domestic resource mobilization strategies.
- Monitor budget allocations for gender equality policies and programmes.
- Create an enabling global environment for domestic resource mobilization by promoting solidarity and cooperation between countries of all income levels.
- Align policies and programmes with the principles of the 2030 Agenda.
- Scale up financial support for women's organizations to engage in policy advocacy.
- Define clear terms of engagement and criteria for public-private partnerships.
- Address multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination through policies and programmes.
- Promote meaningful participation and accountability in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programmes.

Strengthening accountability through gender-responsive processes and institutions

Gender-responsive processes and institutions are critical to turn the gender equality promises of the 2030 Agenda into action and to ensure that progress is monitored in a transparent and accountable way. States have committed to follow-up and review processes that are open, inclusive, participatory and transparent, as well as people-centred, gender-sensitive, respectful of human rights and focused on those who are furthest behind.¹⁰ To strengthen accountability for gender equality commitments at the global, regional and local levels, the report recommends to:

- Localize global gender equality commitments by integrating them into national development plans and related policies, legislation and frameworks.
- Ensure systematic monitoring of and reporting on gender equality commitments.
- Support women’s organizations and other civil society actors to monitor progress and hold governments to account for gender equality commitments.
- Use voluntary national reviews (VNRs) for the High-level Political Forum (HLPF) to create a shared vision of progress in gender equality and challenges that stand in the way.
- Strengthen the HLPF as a platform for peer review and meaningful dialogue.

A readers’ guide to the report

This first edition of the global monitoring report:

- Provides an overview of the follow-up and review process, showing how accountability for gender equality commitments can be strengthened at the global, regional and national levels.
- Explains the global indicators framework and the key statistical challenges for monitoring progress from a gender perspective.
- Reviews starting points and preliminary trends at the global and regional levels across a range of gender-specific indicators for all 17 SDGs.
- Proposes a survey-based strategy for identifying groups of women and girls who experience multiple forms of discrimination and deprivation in diverse national contexts.
- Offers concrete guidance on how to achieve and finance progress in two critical areas under SDG 5:

eliminating violence against women and girls; and recognizing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work.

Future editions will build on this framework by providing updates on global and regional progress on key indicators, extending policy guidance to other areas and analysing the dynamics of national implementation through in-depth country case studies. Over time, it is hoped that the reports will build a robust body of evidence on the impact of the 2030 Agenda on gender equality policies, processes and outcomes.

Chapter 1 discusses the challenges and prospects for achieving the SDGs. It explains the report’s monitoring framework and analyses potential mechanisms for enhancing accountability for gender equality in the follow-up and review process that has been established to track progress at the national, regional and global levels.

Chapter 2 provides an analysis of the global indicators framework from a gender perspective, identifying 54 official indicators directly relevant to monitoring outcomes for women and girls. In this chapter, readers will find a succinct discussion of the challenges that the global statistical community needs to address to effectively and comprehensively monitor progress on gender equality.

Chapter 3 provides a snapshot of gender equality across all the 17 SDGs, providing evidence of how gender equality matters for each and every one of them. It presents global and regional averages for gender-specific indicators that can serve as baselines for future reporting and highlights the interlinkages between SDG 5 and other goals and targets of the 2030 Agenda.

Chapter 4 provides powerful evidence of how multiple forms of discrimination—including those based on sex, age, class, ability, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender identity or migration status—can compound each other to create pockets of deprivation, often in stark contrast to the average trend in a given country.

Chapters 5 and 6 focus on two strategic areas under SDG 5: eliminating violence against women and girls (Target 5.2); and unpaid care and domestic work (Target 5.4). Both chapters provide powerful evidence for the interlinkages between these gender equality targets and other parts of the 2030 Agenda, underlining the need to break down policy silos and move towards integrated strategies for implementation. They also provide concrete examples of how policies and programmes can be aligned with the principles of the 2030 Agenda, including universality, human rights and leaving no one behind.

The two chapters are followed by a short section that provides guidance on how to determine the costs and finance the implementation of gender-responsive policies and programmes under the 2030 Agenda.

Each chapter includes a detailed list of recommendations as well as select monitoring questions that invite readers to reflect on progress, gaps and challenges in their own specific contexts.

The final section of the report, *Moving Forward*, is a summary of strategies for strengthening gender-responsive implementation, monitoring and accountability at the national, regional and global levels for achieving the Sustainable Development Goals.

For ease of reference, the chapters in the report are grouped and colour-coded in line with the strategies for gender-responsive implementation proposed by the report: processes and institutions (Chapter 1, green); data, statistics and analysis (Chapters 2, 3 and 4, blue); and investments, policies and programmes (Chapters 5 and 6, orange).

AT A GLANCE: GENDER EQUALITY IN THE 2030 AGENDA

1 NO POVERTY



Globally, there are 122 women aged 25-34 living in extreme poverty for every 100 men of the same age group.

9 INDUSTRY, INNOVATION AND INFRASTRUCTURE



Women represent 28.8% of researchers worldwide. Only about 1 in 5 countries have achieved gender parity in this area.

2 ZERO HUNGER



Women are up to 11 percentage points more likely than men to report food insecurity.

3 GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING



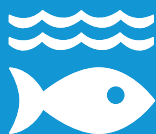
Globally, 303,000 women died from pregnancy-related causes in 2015. The rate of death is declining much too slowly to achieve Target 3.1.

10 REDUCED INEQUALITIES



Up to 30% of income inequality is due to inequality within households, including between women and men. Women are also more likely than men to live below 50% of the median income.

14 LIFE BELOW WATER



The contamination of freshwater and marine ecosystems negatively impacts women's and men's livelihoods, their health and the health of their children.

15 LIFE ON LAND



Between 2010 and 2015, the world lost 3.3 million hectares of forest areas. Poor rural women depend on common pool resources and are especially affected by their depletion.

6 CLEAN WATER AND SANITATION



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

5 GENDER EQUALITY



The 2030 Agenda promises to put an end to barriers that prevent women and girls from realizing their full potential. But significant challenges lie ahead:

5.1 In 18 countries, husbands can legally prevent their wives from working; in 39 countries, daughters and sons do not have equal inheritance rights; and 49 countries lack laws protecting women from domestic violence.

5.2 19% of women and girls aged 15 to 49 have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner in the past 12 months.

5.3 Globally, 750 million women and girls were married before the age of 18 and at least 200 million women and girls in 30 countries have undergone FGM.

¹ Shorthand versions of the official SDGs are used for ease of communication.

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

5.5 Women hold just 23.7% of parliamentary seats, an increase of 10 percentage points compared to 2000 – but still way below parity.

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

5.a Globally, women are just 13% of agricultural land holders.

5.b Women are less likely than men to own a mobile phone, and their internet usage is 5.9 percentage points lower than that of men.

5.c More than 100 countries have taken action to track budget allocations for gender equality.

7 AFFORDABLE AND CLEAN ENERGY



Indoor air pollution from using combustible fuels for household energy caused 4.3 million deaths in 2012, with women and girls accounting for 6 out of every 10 of these.

4 QUALITY EDUCATION



15 million girls of primary-school age will never get the chance to learn to read or write in primary school compared to 10 million boys.

11 SUSTAINABLE CITIES AND COMMUNITIES



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

12 RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION



Investment in public transportation yields large benefits for women, who tend to rely on public transport more than men do.

13 CLIMATE ACTION



Climate change has a disproportionate impact on women and children, who are 14 times as likely as men to die during a disaster.

16 PEACE, JUSTICE AND STRONG INSTITUTIONS



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 subjected during conflict to sexual violence and abducted, tortured and forced to leave their homes.

8 DECENT WORK AND ECONOMIC GROWTH



The global gender pay gap is 23%. Women's labour force participation rate is 63% while that of men is 94%.

17 PARTNERSHIPS FOR THE GOALS



In 2012, finances flowing out of developing countries were 2.5 times the amount of aid flowing in, and gender allocations paled in comparison.

CHAPTER 1

TURNING PROMISES INTO ACTION: PROSPECTS AND CHALLENGES

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KEY MESSAGES

1/ The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development offers an opportunity and roadmap to shift the world onto a more sustainable path, overcoming an unprecedented set of global challenges.

2/ Gender equality features as a prominent and cross-cutting feature of the 2030 Agenda and is key to realizing women's and girls' human rights and catalysing progress across all the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

3/ To harness the SDGs' transformative potential, implementation and monitoring must be grounded in human rights and the commitment to leave no one behind.

4/ Leaving no one behind is a matter of social justice and critical to creating inclusive societies and sustainable economic trajectories. To achieve this goal, universal policies and those focusing on the most marginalized must work in tandem.

5/ Delivering results at the national level depends on political mobilization, resource allocation and the implementation of gender-responsive policies and programmes.

6/ A robust monitoring and accountability framework is vital to track progress and hold States and other actors to their commitments under the 2030 Agenda, including both the ends (gender equality outcomes) and the means (gender-responsive processes, policies and programmes).

7/ The participatory and inclusive approach that led to the adoption of the 2030 Agenda should be maintained during implementation, follow-up and review. The sustained involvement of gender equality advocates will be critical to turn promises into progress for women and girls on the ground.

INTRODUCTION

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (2030 Agenda) is a landmark agreement negotiated and approved by the 193 Member States of the United Nations. Comprised of 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), 169 targets and 232 indicators, it aims to address the economic, social, environmental and political dimensions of sustainable development in a comprehensive and integrated way. Building on a long history of international human rights and gender equality commitments, its universal approach recognizes the common challenges faced by all countries—developed and developing alike—and reaffirms the responsibility of governments to address them. The 2030 Agenda is clear that achieving gender equality is not only an important goal in and of itself but also a catalyst for achieving a sustainable future for all.

While this bold vision has the potential to transform the lives of women and girls across the world, it is being implemented at a time of global uncertainty and multiple challenges. Climate change and environmental degradation are advancing at an unprecedented pace; the global economy remains volatile after nearly a decade of crisis; a shift towards exclusionary and fear-based politics is deepening societal divisions, breeding conflict and instability; and millions are being forcibly displaced due to conflict and humanitarian catastrophes. In the midst of global socio-economic and political turmoil, not only does the promise of gender equality remain unfulfilled but women's rights are also facing renewed resistance from different kinds of fundamentalisms.

This state of affairs presents a real test for the 2030 Agenda. At the same time, the mere fact that UN Member States have agreed to strive for a more equal world where development is based on

sustainability, peace and human progress provides reason to be cautiously optimistic. The SDGs are especially important now as both a political agenda for global cooperation and a specific, time-bound set of goals for all countries.

While the SDGs provide a framework for action, the capacity to use them to deliver results at the national level will depend on various factors, including political mobilization, the allocation of adequate resources and the implementation of effective policies and programmes. All of these need to be carefully monitored in order to ensure that global commitments become a reality for women and girls on the ground. Monitoring is about tracking progress and identifying gaps and challenges in implementation. At its best, gender-responsive monitoring delivers a robust, comprehensive and transparent assessment on where we stand on gender equality. This can support learning about what works and where course corrections may be needed. However, such positive outcomes are not guaranteed. They hinge on data, evidence and analysis being available and accessible to all and on these being used to inform open debate and democratic decision-making.

Against this background, this inaugural report establishes a framework to monitor the implementation of the SDGs from a gender perspective across multiple dimensions, including both the ends (gender equality outcomes across goals and targets) and the means (gender-responsive processes, policies and programmes). This introductory chapter looks at the prospects and challenges for delivering the gender equality commitments of the 2030 Agenda and outlines concrete strategies for strengthening monitoring and accountability at the national, regional and global levels.

A CHALLENGING CONTEXT

With the countdown to 2030 well underway, the implementation of the 2030 Agenda is up against an unprecedented set of economic, environmental, social and political challenges. After a decade of crisis, recession and subsequent austerity measures that have wreaked havoc on people's livelihoods, the global economy remains volatile and its prospects for long-term recovery uncertain. The global unemployment rate—standing at almost 200 million people in 2016—is expected to remain elevated in the coming years and unlikely to fall below pre-crisis rates in the medium term as the global labour force continues to grow.¹ Vulnerable forms of employment remain pervasive, particularly among women,² undermining the ambition to create decent work and sustainable routes out of poverty.

While many countries enacted fiscal stimulus plans in response to the 2007/2008 crisis, these have been followed by the near-universal prescription of fiscal consolidation.³ By 2011, a first wave of budget cuts had affected 113 countries globally. This was followed by a second major expenditure contraction starting in 2016. In 2018, 124 countries will be adjusting expenditures in terms of GDP and this number is expected to rise slightly in 2019 and 2020.⁴ This is a daunting scenario and at odds with the enormous injection of additional resources that the implementation of the 2030 Agenda is expected to require.

Aggressive fiscal consolidation has not only failed to produce the promised economic recovery,⁵ it has also caused social hardship and disrupted access to essential social services for many.⁶ Available evidence shows that women tend to bear the brunt of austerity measures.⁷ With less access to labour market earnings, land, credit and other assets, women

are more likely to rely on public services and social protection to meet their basic needs. The unequal sharing of family and household responsibilities means that when public services such as health, childcare, water and sanitation are cut back or become less affordable, it is usually women and girls who fill the ensuing gap, spending more time on unpaid care and domestic work (see Chapter 6). Finally, because women are more likely to be employed in the public sector, they are particularly affected by staff and wage cuts in this sector.

Women who are already disadvantaged are often hit hardest. In the United Kingdom, the Women's Budget Group has repeatedly denounced the regressive nature of fiscal consolidation, which is based on spending cuts rather than tax increases, and quantified the toll that budget cuts take on the most disadvantaged women and girls in the country. In 2017, the organization warned that black and Asian single mothers stood to lose about 15 and 17 per cent of their net income, respectively, as a result of planned freezes and cuts to in-work and out-of-work benefits.⁸

While inequality has been recognized as a key impediment to sustainable development, the trend towards the growing concentration of income and wealth has been difficult to reverse. Following a temporary interruption in the immediate aftermath of the crisis, the incomes of the richest 1 per cent of the world's population have started to grow again at a rate considerably faster than those of the rest of the population. It is estimated that in 2016 the richest 1 per cent of the population owned more than 50 per cent of global wealth—an increase from 44 per cent in 2009.⁹ According to the World Bank, inequality within countries is higher today than it was 25 years ago.¹⁰

The same model of growth that underpins economic volatility and rising inequalities is also premised on unsustainable consumption and production patterns, including the large-scale extraction of natural resources, that drive climate change and environmental degradation. The world is seeing increasing temperatures, rising sea levels, melting glaciers and the loss of biodiversity.¹¹ In recent years, these trends have triggered environmental stress and disasters such as floods, cyclones and droughts with devastating effects on the livelihoods and security of people around the world and taking a particularly high toll on women and girls in developing countries (see Chapter 3).

Slow economic recovery, social hardship and rising inequalities provide the breeding ground for growing social discontent. The International Labour Organization (ILO) Social Unrest Index, which measures citizens' discontent with the socio-economic situation in their countries, indicates that on average global social unrest increased between 2015 and 2016 and 8 out of 11 regions experienced increases in the measure of social discontent.¹² Manifestations of discontent vary but are apparent across countries and regions and have led to political instability, polarization and the resurgence of populist right-wing nationalisms of various stripes. In many cases, this has fuelled expressions of intolerance and sometimes violence, both of which tend to be directed at groups that already experience discrimination and marginalization, such as immigrants and ethnic or religious minorities.

While movements defending justice, tolerance and human rights exist almost everywhere, their actions are increasingly being met with state violence and restrictions. In many countries, democratic spaces for civil society participation are shrinking. During 2015, the global civil society alliance, CIVICUS,

documented serious violations of the freedoms of association, expression and peaceful assembly in 109 countries.¹³ Growing conservatism and extremism of all kinds also threaten the activities of civil society organizations, including those working on issues such as violence against women, environmental protection and reproductive and minority rights that the 2030 Agenda clearly recognizes as important.¹⁴

Conflict, violence and persecution, as well as hardship and poverty caused by economic, political and environmental crises, are forcing unprecedented numbers of people to leave their home countries or regions. Illicit financial flows and global militarization hinder peace-building efforts, take away much-needed resources from sustainable development and can lead to a cycle of instability (see *Creating fiscal space*, p. 245). Global military expenditure came to almost US\$1.7 trillion in 2016, an increase of 0.4 per cent in real terms from 2015.¹⁵

By the end of 2016, a total of 65.6 million people had been forcibly displaced, 300,000 more than in the preceding year.¹⁶ Although reliable sex- and age-disaggregated data are hard to collect in a refugee crisis, an estimated 49 per cent of refugees were women and girls.¹⁷ Gender norms and expectations, power relations, discrimination and inequality often shape their migration choices and experiences.¹⁸ In addition, women and girls who are forcibly displaced experience a heightened risk of domestic and sexual violence (see Chapter 5) and often lack access to adequate health and other services. This can have fatal consequences. Data show that 60 per cent of preventable maternal mortality deaths take place in settings of conflict, displacement and natural disasters.¹⁹

AN OPPORTUNITY TO SHIFT COURSE

While the challenges are daunting, there are reasons to be cautiously optimistic. With the 2030 Agenda, UN Member States agreed to focus on sustainability, equality, peace and human progress, providing a powerful counter-narrative to current practices of extraction, exclusion and division. The unprecedented levels of engagement and mobilization during the period that led to its adoption have ushered in a strong sense of ownership by not only governments, but also civil society and other stakeholders. More than 1 million people from across the world participated in open consultations and helped identify the themes and principles for this future vision, including respect for human rights, equality and non-discrimination, the right to participation, freedom from fear and all forms of violence, access to justice and respect for the environment.²⁰

Building on the lessons learnt from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (see Box 1.1), the open consultations sent a clear message: that the new development agenda would have to move beyond 'business as usual' and address sustainable development in a comprehensive and integrated manner. For women's rights advocates, one of the key lessons was that there was no magic key, such as girls' education, that would unlock the door to gender equality. Instead, gender inequality needs to be addressed across the three dimensions of sustainable development—economic, social and environmental—and their political underpinnings.

A COMPREHENSIVE SET OF GENDER EQUALITY COMMITMENTS

With its 17 goals, 169 targets and 232 indicators, the 2030 Agenda spearheads a comprehensive, integrated and universal vision of sustainable development that acknowledges the complexity of and structural obstacles to transformative social change. The comprehensive nature of the Agenda is particularly noteworthy given the significant push for a simplified set of goals for ease of communication and planning.²¹ The commitment to gender equality, too, is prominent and cross-cutting as well as firmly grounded in human rights.²² Heeding the call of gender equality advocates in governments, civil society and the UN System, it features a stand-alone goal on gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls (SDG 5) and recognizes gender equality as "a crucial contribution to progress across all the goals and targets".²³

DO YOU KNOW...

... if your country has incorporated SDG 5 into its gender equality strategies and policies?

BOX 1.1

LESSONS LEARNT FROM THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Throughout the four-year process that led to the adoption of the SDGs, policymakers, researchers, practitioners and civil society advocates analysed the achievements, gaps and blind spots of the MDG era in order to build a stronger set of global commitments for the future. The main lessons drawn by gender equality advocates included the following:²⁴

- A number of important achievements were registered during the MDG period (2000–2015), including a significant decline in the number of people living in extreme poverty and a reduction of gender disparities in primary, secondary and tertiary education.
- Progress was slower in other areas, including in maternal mortality; it was also highly uneven and neglected to address and measure inequalities based on income, race, ethnicity and geographical location.
- By measuring progress based on national averages, the MDG monitoring masked inequalities among social groups and failed to capture the fact that, in some countries, specific groups of women and girls were being left behind.
- The selection of targets and indicators was partly defined by the availability of data rather than by what was important and meaningful to measure.²⁵
- This approach (with a focus on simplicity and reliance on existing data) facilitated communication and measurement, but it also untethered the MDGs from the human rights agenda and ignored global and structural barriers to development by focusing on basic needs and numerical targets.
- In contrast to the broad and encompassing commitments to women's rights made at the international conferences of the 1990s, MDG 3 on gender equality effectively sidelined all but one (education) of the 12 critical areas of concern that had featured in the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action.
- Similarly, the broad vision of sexual and reproductive health set out at the International Conference on Population and Development in 1994 was reduced to a narrow focus on maternal health under MDG 5.²⁶
- During implementation, this narrow focus diverted attention and resources from areas that were priorities for women's organizations, such as violence, sexual and reproductive rights and economic inequality.²⁷
- Cast within a donor-recipient dynamic between developed and developing countries, the MDGs lacked a framework for monitoring implementation at the national level. Developing countries were not answerable for their MDG commitments and developed countries were not held accountable for their commitments around global partnership and official development assistance (ODA).
- These shortcomings stemmed partly from the relatively closed and technocratic process that led to the adoption of the MDGs, which also compromised a broader sense of national ownership.

This ‘twin track’ approach, which originates from the Beijing Platform for Action, was a strategic priority for women’s rights organizations, which formed broad-based coalitions, such as the Women’s Major Group and the Post-2015 Women’s Coalition, to influence the political negotiations.²⁸

While consensus was reached early on having a stand-alone goal on gender equality, its content and targets were subject to considerable debate. A key demand from women’s rights organizations was for the goal to explicitly address the structural barriers to gender equality.²⁹ As a result, the SDGs—and SDG 5 in particular—reflect commitments that seek to transform the underlying norms, structures and practices that hold women and girls back from enjoying their rights (see Chapter 3).

Many of the SDG 5 targets reflect the content of corresponding human rights standards and international agreements, including the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.

Although the extent to which gender is addressed across the other 16 SDGs varies (see Chapter 2), the 2030 Agenda clearly acknowledges the gender dimensions of poverty, hunger, health, education, water and sanitation, employment, safe cities, and peaceful and inclusive societies. While it has long been recognized as playing a catalytic role in achieving development outcomes, gender equality will be difficult to achieve without accelerating progress on goals and targets such as universal health coverage, access to social protection and clean water and sanitation. The transformative potential of the 2030 Agenda can only be harnessed through a universal and integrated approach to implementation, grounded in human rights and the commitment to leaving no one behind.

A FIRM GROUNDING IN HUMAN RIGHTS

The 2030 Agenda is firmly and unequivocally anchored in human rights (Table 1.1), framing the SDGs as goals that apply to every person everywhere rather than as a response to basic human need or charity. Staying true to this normative anchor will be critical to keeping the SDGs on task during implementation. A human rights-based approach to implementation is based on the universality, indivisibility and interdependence of rights. As a corollary, it can enable Member States and the global community to move towards truly integrated and systemic strategies that address the inter-linkages between goals.³⁰ From the perspective of gender-responsive implementation, monitoring and accountability, this means that while progress on SDG 5 will be critical, it cannot be the only focus. Progress on some fronts may be undermined by regression or stagnation on others, and potential synergies may be lost if siloed approaches to implementation take precedence over integrated, multisectoral strategies.³¹

In the lived experiences of women and girls, the enjoyment and denial of different rights are deeply intertwined. A woman who is denied her right to work and rights at work has a greater likelihood of living in poverty, social exclusion and poor health. A girl who is born into a poor household and is forced into an early marriage is unlikely to finish her education; faces higher chances of giving birth at an early age and of having complications during childbirth; and is more susceptible to experiencing violence than a girl who marries at a later age.

Against this backdrop, it is important that efforts to implement the SDGs are aligned with international human rights standards. From a gender perspective, this links the SDGs to CEDAW and other human rights treaties and the recommendations of the

TABLE 1.1

HUMAN RIGHTS IN THE 2030 AGENDA FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

[The SDGs] seek to realize the human rights of all and to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls (preamble).

We envisage a world of universal respect for human rights and human dignity, the rule of law, justice, equality and non-discrimination; of respect for race, ethnicity and cultural diversity; and of equal opportunity ... A world in which every woman and girl enjoys full gender equality and all legal, social and economic barriers to their empowerment have been removed (para. 8).

The new Agenda is guided by the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations, including full respect for international law. It is grounded in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights [and] international human rights treaties... (para. 10).

... we reaffirm our commitment to international law and emphasize that the Agenda is to be implemented in a manner that is consistent with the rights and obligations of States under international law (para. 18).

We emphasize the responsibilities of all States, in conformity with the Charter of the United Nations, to respect, protect and promote human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction of any kind as to race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth, disability or other status (para. 19).

corresponding bodies, which should guide both implementation and reporting. However, the extent to which human rights principles and standards will be integrated in policies and programmes to implement the SDGs is yet to be seen and should be carefully monitored, including through gender-responsive evaluation, as we will discuss further below.

UNIVERSALITY AND THE COMMITMENT TO LEAVE NO ONE BEHIND

Another hallmark of the 2030 Agenda is that it applies to all countries, all peoples and all segments of society while promising to address the rights and needs of the most disadvantaged groups as a matter of priority.

All countries, developed and developing, are responsible for the successful implementation of the goals and targets. Underpinning the idea of universality is the need for solidarity—between countries, movements and people—to achieve a more just, equal and sustainable future. The 2030 Agenda recognizes that challenges such as poverty, gender inequality and environmental degradation are as much a problem for developed as for developing countries. Some challenges, such as climate change or illicit financial flows, are also global in scope and can hence not be fully addressed by individual Member States. Instead, they require enhanced global cooperation and solidarity. In this regard, the principle of ‘common but differentiated responsibility’ is an important feature of the Agenda, recognizing as it does that countries that have disproportionately contributed to environmental degradation must take greater responsibility for protecting the planet.

Another dimension of universality, in line with the 2030 Agenda's grounding in human rights, is the commitment to make benefits and services available to all. This is illustrated, for example, in the targets on social protection (1.3), universal health coverage (3.8) and universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy (7.1). This commitment is complemented by the pledge to "leave no one behind" on the path to sustainable development. Grounded in the human rights principles of equality and non-discrimination, this commitment recognizes the multiple and intersecting inequalities that so often prevent the full and equal enjoyment of specific groups' rights in practice.

Across countries, the women and girls who are furthest behind are the ones who experience multiple forms of discrimination, including based on their sex, age, class, ability, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity or migration status (see Box 1.2 and Chapter 4). While intersectional analysis and action have been part of feminist scholarship and action for a long time, the emphasis on "leave no one behind" provides an opening for highlighting the diversity of women's experiences and challenging the power dynamics that deepen inequalities and push particular groups further behind.³² It is also essential for designing, implementing and monitoring policies and programmes that "reach the furthest behind first".³³

BOX 1.2

LEAVING NO ONE BEHIND: MULTIPLE AND INTERSECTING INEQUALITIES

The identities (perceived or inherent) of individuals and groups can increase their risks of discrimination and marginalization. Those left furthest behind in society are often women and girls who experience multiple forms of disadvantage based on gender and other inequalities.³⁴ As Chapter 4 shows, this can lead to clustered deprivations where women and girls may be simultaneously disadvantaged in their access to quality education, decent work, health and well-being. The notion that disadvantage is intensified for women and girls living at the intersection of inequalities and discrimination is not new to feminist scholars or human rights experts and advocates. The term 'intersectionality'—defined as "the interaction of multiple identities and experiences of exclusion and subordination"³⁵—was coined in the 1980s to capture the interaction of gender and race in shaping black women's experiences in the United States.³⁶

Intersecting inequalities exist everywhere, but the identities and experiences of those furthest behind differ widely across countries and regions. For example, a woman's caste in India can increase her exposure to mortality as a result of factors such as poor sanitation and inadequate water supply and health care: The average age of death for Dalit women is 14.6 years younger than for higher caste women.³⁷ In Latin America, labour earnings reflect disparities based on the gender, geography, race and ethnicity of working people, leaving indigenous women at the bottom of the earnings pyramid, even after controlling for education.³⁸ In Serbia, young Roma women attain two thirds of the education of their male counterparts despite that fact that, at the national level, young women average more education than men.³⁹ In Nigeria, average primary school attendance is 66 per cent among girls overall but only 12 per cent among poor Hausa girls from rural areas.⁴⁰

How to reach the most marginalized

Reaching the most marginalized is a matter of social justice, as well as being essential for creating inclusive societies and sustainable economic trajectories. Inequality hurts everyone, hampers progress on poverty reduction and the realization of human rights, threatens social and political stability and is a drag on economic growth. At the same time, it is vital that strategies to leave no one behind do not contribute to social fragmentation and stigmatization. Particularly in contexts of fiscal constraint and growing inequalities, an exclusive focus on the furthest behind through narrowly targeted programmes can exacerbate tensions over resource allocation and contribute to the creation of harmful stereotypes and hierarchies of disadvantage and entitlement.⁴¹ Instead, strategies to leave no one behind should aim to create a sense of solidarity through risk-sharing, redistribution and universal services.⁴² Where all citizens reap clear benefits from such services, their willingness to contribute to funding them through progressive taxation is also likely to increase.⁴³

At the same time, specific measures may be needed *within* universal policies and programmes to enable marginalized groups to access them. For example, Australia has introduced indigenous-specific primary health services that operate within the universal health system.⁴⁴ These services seek to address the specific barriers experienced by indigenous people, including geographical barriers for rural and remote communities, cultural barriers and racism. Many of the indigenous-specific services are delivered by community health organizations that are controlled by indigenous people with a view to ensuring that health services are culturally appropriate and meet their specific needs.⁴⁵

Rather than substituting one for the other, governments should ensure that universal policies

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...if your country has taken steps to identify and address the needs of women and girls who experience multiple forms of discrimination?

and policies focusing on the most marginalized work in tandem to increase access for groups that have been historically excluded while building universal systems that are collectively financed and used by all social groups.⁴⁶ Such systems are not built overnight. Where they exist, they often took decades to construct. Even poor countries can move towards such systems, however, by focusing on scalable solutions that benefit everyone but aim to reach the most marginalized as a matter of priority. This approach is sometimes referred to as progressive or incremental universalism. It means that policies and programmes aimed at reaching those who are furthest behind must be implemented in ways that lend themselves to the gradual incorporation of other, more powerful constituencies.⁴⁷ This makes universal policies more affordable, because fiscal resources for gradual inclusion can be liberated over several years, and contributes to their longer-term sustainability by widening their political support base.

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...if your country has taken steps to develop strategies to ensure that no woman or girl is being left behind during SDG implementation?

IMPLEMENTATION, MONITORING AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Turning promises into progress for women and girls hinges on the implementation of gender-responsive policies and programmes, robust monitoring and the creation of effective accountability mechanisms. The 2030 Agenda explicitly acknowledges that the starting points, challenges, priorities and means to address the goals differ across countries. As a corollary, the process of implementation, monitoring and accountability is envisioned as country-owned and country-led.

The emphasis on national ownership holds opportunities and challenges for gender-responsive implementation and monitoring. The breadth of the 2030 Agenda is such that some degree of prioritization will be inevitable. How will this prioritization happen? What is needed to ensure that gender equality commitments remain front and centre at the national level? And how will decision-makers be held to account for their actions and omissions?

This section sets out to answer these questions in two stages: First, it discusses the concept of accountability and how it is reflected in the follow-up and review process that has been put in place to monitor progress in the context of the 2030 Agenda. Second, it outlines a monitoring framework that focuses on both the ends (gender equality outcomes across goals and targets) and the means (gender-responsive processes, policies and programmes) as a way to strengthen accountability for gender equality commitments at the global, regional and national levels.

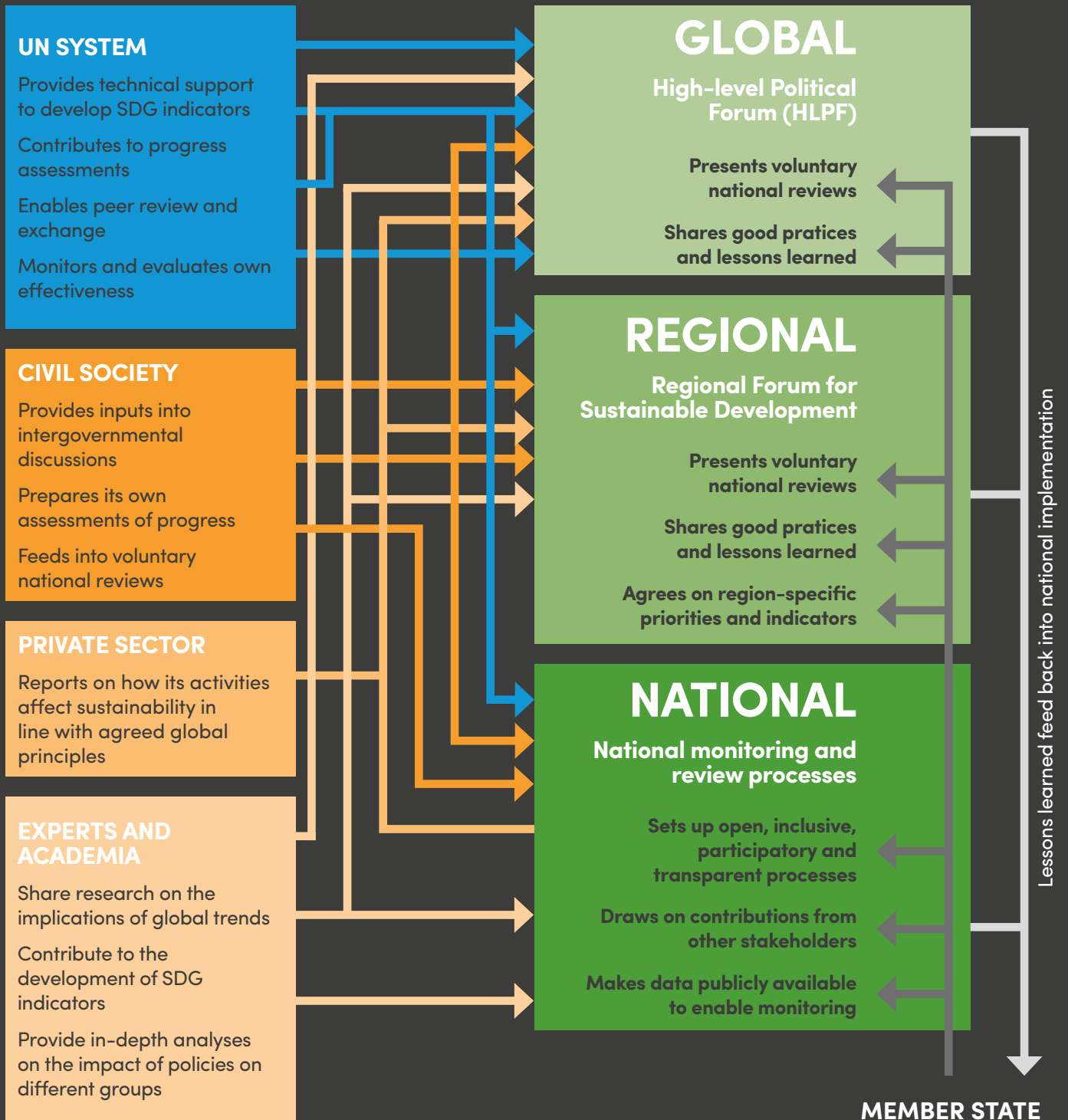
THE FOLLOW-UP AND REVIEW PROCESS: WHAT ROOM FOR ACCOUNTABILITY?

Accountability requires that those in a position of authority have clearly defined duties and performance standards (responsibility) and provide reasoned justifications for their actions and decisions (answerability). It also requires a mechanism to assess compliance with defined duties and standards and enforce sanctions and remedies where required (enforceability).⁴⁸

Under the 2030 Agenda, Member States have committed to “engaging in systematic follow-up and review of implementation”. The architecture that has been put in place for this process (see Figure 1.1) is explicitly aimed at promoting accountability to citizens, international cooperation, the exchange of best practices and mutual learning.⁴⁹

At the global level, the United Nations High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development (HLPF), under the auspices of the United Nations General Assembly and Economic and Social Council, is the main body in charge of tracking global progress on implementation, providing political leadership and guidance and addressing new and emerging issues. It meets annually and focuses on predetermined themes as well as a cluster of SDGs (SDG 17 is the only one that is reviewed at every meeting). The HLPF is open to different actors accessing information, submitting

FIGURE 1.1
FOLLOW UP AND REVIEW OF THE 2030 AGENDA



Note: This figure includes illustrative examples rather than an exhaustive set of processes, actors and activities that play a role in the follow-up and review process.

documents, intervening in sessions, making recommendations and organizing side events. This includes the nine Major Groups,⁵⁰ which were created at the UN Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 to formalize the participation of different stakeholders in the Commission on Sustainable Development (abolished in 2013). The Women’s Major Group—which aims to channel the inputs of women’s rights organizations into the policy space provided by the United Nations—participated actively in the post-2015 negotiations, and the facilitators created space for this participation.

Regional processes, facilitated by the UN Regional Commissions, provide another forum for peer learning through voluntary reviews, sharing of best practices and discussions on shared targets. Regional forums are usually held between March and May but do not follow a systematic approach. They tend to include regional intergovernmental forums focused on specific themes; agreement on regional specific priorities and indicators; and regional thematic and progress reports. Regional processes are also important for ensuring that global and regional agendas—such as the African Union’s Agenda 2063 or the European Union’s Consensus for Development—are aligned with the 2030 Agenda in order to avoid duplication or fragmentation in the pursuit of gender equality and sustainable development.

Voluntary national reviews (VNRs) are the main instruments for both tracking progress at the national level and reporting it at the regional and global levels. While governments are encouraged to conduct regular and inclusive reviews of

progress at the national and sub-national levels, there is no obligation or stipulated periodicity for doing so—though the UN Secretary-General has recommended that countries conduct two during the 15-year period of the SDGs. The UN System plays a role, as guided by governments, in supporting VNR preparations, including strengthening the capacity of national statistical offices (NSOs), data systems and evaluation bodies and facilitating the engagement of various stakeholders.

How the goal of accountability is to be achieved through this process remains an open question. As a non-binding political commitment, the 2030 Agenda lacks enforceability. The voluntary nature of follow-up and review further means that there are no clear avenues for governments to be held to account for their actions or omissions. The risk that the most challenging targets will be ignored and that implementation will be slow and selective is therefore high. With regards to gender equality, it is possible that governments may choose to neglect issues that are contentious or challenge underlying power relations. The inclusion of targets on sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights and unpaid care and domestic work, for example, was resisted during the post-2015 negotiations by some countries, which claimed that these issues had no relevance in their national contexts.⁵¹

There is also the question of who bears the responsibility for progress or failure. While it is governments that have the primary responsibility for implementation, there are a plethora of actors who play a role in implementation, including the United Nations, international financial institutions, the private sector and civil society. These actors cannot currently be held accountable in the same way as governments can. Private businesses, for example, are not signatories to international human rights standards or to international normative agreements such as the 2030 Agenda, the Addis Ababa Action Agenda or the Beijing Platform for Action. Moreover, the actions of

DO YOU KNOW...

... who is responsible for driving efforts to localize the 2030 Agenda in your country?

the private sector do not always align with the objectives of sustainable development and gender equality. Corporate investments in mining or agriculture, for example, have led to large-scale land dispossessions and the displacement of women in rural areas in South-East Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, undermining women's property rights and reducing food security.⁵² Similarly, millions of women experience dangerous and insecure working conditions along global value chains in many industries, including agriculture and manufacturing, which threaten their safety, health and well-being.⁵³

There have been a number of voluntary initiatives to encourage the private sector to align its action with international standards around human rights and gender equality. For example, the Women's Empowerment Principles (WEPs) explicitly recognize the responsibility of businesses for women's right to work and rights at work—including fair and equal treatment, occupational health and safety, training and professional development, and support for women-owned enterprises. While voluntary codes of conduct such as the WEPs provide important, gender-specific guidance to corporations that support gender equality, the need to move towards a global set of binding rules on business and human rights is increasingly recognized. In 2014, the Human Rights Council took a historic step in this direction by establishing an open-ended intergovernmental working group on transnational corporations and other business enterprises.⁵⁴ Country-level experience with effective regulations regarding transparency, legal protections, remedies and other measures shows that they can help the private sector meet its human rights obligations and maximize its contribution to sustainable development and gender equality.⁵⁵

Finally, there is a risk that monitoring efforts will be exclusively focused on the 'ends', i.e., the outcomes

as measured against the agreed indicator framework. While this is important, indicators by definition are only designed to indicate and can never give a full picture of progress (see Chapter 2). Looking at the 'means', including the processes and institutional arrangements as well as the policies and programmes that are put in place to advance gender equality under the 2030 Agenda, is therefore an equally important element of gender-responsive monitoring.

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

... if clear rules are in place for engaging the private sector in the financing and implementation of the 2030 Agenda?

Despite these challenges, there are elements that provide the basis for strengthening the responsibility and answerability aspects of accountability. The 2030 Agenda is clear that the follow-up and review processes should be open, inclusive, participatory and transparent as well as people-centred, gender-sensitive, respectful of human rights and focused on those who are furthest behind.⁵⁶ Moreover, the participatory and inclusive process of defining the SDGs set an encouraging precedent and created expectations for similarly inclusive approaches to implementation, follow-up and review. There are also lessons to be learned from the implementation of other global commitments, such as the MDGs, CEDAW, and the Beijing Platform for Action, as well as from existing mechanisms and processes at the national level.

GENDER-RESPONSIVE MONITORING: A MULTI-PRONGED APPROACH

Building on these principles and experiences, this section outlines three critical areas for gender-responsive monitoring that can be used to strengthen accountability for gender equality commitments at the global, regional and national levels:

- Gender-responsive data, statistics and analysis
- Gender-responsive processes and institutions
- Gender-responsive financing, policy analysis and evaluation

Gender-responsive data, statistics and analysis

Access to high quality data and analysis is essential to monitoring progress and holding decision-makers to account. A global indicator framework has been developed to monitor the SDGs and track implementation of the targets. Reporting on these indicators will feed into assessments on progress, gaps and challenges in implementation at the global and regional levels. However, as will be discussed in Chapter 2, there are several challenges that limit the extent to which the global indicator framework can provide a comprehensive picture of how the SDGs are advancing gender equality.

Regionally or nationally specific gender equality targets and indicators promote ownership beyond the global level and, if regularly monitored and reviewed, can advance accountability.⁵⁷ Engaging civil society and women's organizations is a practice that all statistical offices should adopt to ensure that gender equality is prioritized in the adoption of localized indicators and preparation of voluntary national reviews.

To complement official data collection and monitoring, there was a wide variety of citizen-led data initiatives

that strengthened the accountability of the MDGs at the national and global levels. Such initiatives held public officials and service providers to account through a variety of social accountability measures including tracking surveys, social audits, citizen report cards and participatory budgeting.⁵⁸ Similarly, women's organizations have used processes such as the five-yearly reviews of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action to issue civil society reports that monitor the implementation of global commitments by governments at the national, regional and global levels. The process of producing these reports often mobilizes women's organizations around common priorities and puts pressure on governments for policy change.

Women's organizations are already leading initiatives to hold governments to account in areas relevant to the SDGs by conducting surveys, analysing policies and recommending improvements. In Australia, for example, women's organizations working in the area of disability have conducted research and issued reports to strengthen the government's response to violence experienced by women with disabilities.⁵⁹

At the global level, a number of civil society initiatives hold governments to account on their gender equality commitments under the SDGs. One example is the Spotlight report series, which has analysed and assessed global trends and policy action in thematic areas across the SDGs through the perspectives of organizations working on women's rights, inequalities, environmental issues and human rights.⁶⁰

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

... if your government is engaging with women's rights organizations to define priorities and strategies for gender-responsive implementation?

Gender-responsive processes and institutions

Accountability is not only about achieving the goals and targets; it is also about the strategies that are put in place to get there. Monitoring whether the processes and institutions for implementation, follow-up and review are open, inclusive, transparent and gender-responsive is therefore critical.

While the HLPF has been defined as the key platform for accountability at the global level, actual provisions for accountability are relatively weak. The process of reporting is voluntary, and there is little space for questioning official accounts or demanding justifications for specific decisions, actions or omissions. However, the fact that civil society organizations and other stakeholders can participate in this process and issue their own reports analysing progress, gaps and challenges provides a potential avenue for strengthening answerability.

Almost twice as many countries (43) presented VNRs at the HLPF in 2017 as in 2016 (22). Out of these, 13 were from Asia-Pacific, 12 from Europe, 11 from Latin America and the Caribbean and 7 from Africa.⁶¹ Given that the 2017 HLPF included SDG 5 in its review, it is encouraging that the majority (34) of VNRs dedicated a separate section to this.⁶² Violence against women and girls was one of the main challenges raised in the reviews as well as women's low participation in decision-making. However, according to an analysis carried out by the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom (WILPF), only 10 States specifically addressed gender equality as a cross-cutting issue, 5 States recognized their extra-territorial obligations

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

... how gender has been considered across the agreed HLPF themes and the SDGs under review?

for realizing SDG 5, and 3 States presented a clear system of measuring SDG 5 progress.⁶³ Given that SDG 5 will not be under review in 2018 and 2019, it remains to be seen whether gender equality is effectively mainstreamed in the review of other goals.

In both years, civil society organizations used the HLPF as an opportunity to connect their regional and national levels work to global processes.⁶⁴ In 2017, there were almost 2,500 registered civil society participants,⁶⁵ including many representatives of women's rights organizations from around the globe, who provided their own assessments of progress and sought to engage in dialogue and hold governments to account. However, many have raised concerns over the limited space for meaningful participation in the official sessions, arguing that this undermines the rigour and credibility of the follow-up and review process.⁶⁶ There was a general sense, for example, that having three days allocated to the VNRs was too short and the format of the sessions too rigid to allow for meaningful dialogue and effective learning.

While several civil society coalitions produced exhaustive 'spotlight' or 'shadow' reports,⁶⁷ these were rarely considered or referenced by the official VNRs and were not available on the official HLPF website as is commonplace in human rights reporting and review—for example, under the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (UN CEDAW) and the Universal Periodic Review (UPR).⁶⁸ This is a lost opportunity to provide a global counterbalance to the closing of spaces for civil society participation in many national contexts referred to earlier in this chapter. Indeed, a number of surveys and evaluations of the 2016 and 2017 national review processes found that many civil society organizations were not involved in their country's VNR or even aware that it was being undertaken.⁶⁹ Complementary civil society assessments are particularly relevant in cases where the formal VNR provides little or no space for their engagement.

Allocating more time to the VNRs and providing more space for meaningful participation and reporting by civil society, including women's organizations and coalitions such as the Women's Major Group,

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

... whether women's organizations from your country have been able to participate in and influence the debate at the HLPF?

could enhance accountability for gender equality and strengthen the legitimacy of the follow-up and review process as a whole. While not perfect, the intergovernmental peer review mechanisms used during the UPR conducted by the Human Rights Council provides an example of a cooperative but more rigorous review of global commitments where Member States comment more extensively on each country's self-assessment and the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) prepares a summary of additional information provided by other relevant stakeholders, including civil society organizations and national human rights institutions.⁷⁰ Civil society can help assess the legitimacy of government narratives provided in the VNR and, together with academia, play a critical role in scrutinizing the effectiveness of the VNR process. The review of the HLPF's working methods in 2019 will provide a timely opportunity for strengthening its role as an accountability mechanism.

The regional follow-up and review forums also provide an important space for maintaining the focus on gender equality and strengthening gender-responsive implementation. Countries in a given region often share specific concerns and priorities and confront similar challenges. Regional entities can foster political commitment to and national ownership of gender equality commitments by linking the 2030 Agenda to regionally specific agreements. They can also encourage countries to review progress more regularly and learn from the successes and failures of regional peers.

A strong advocate of gender equality and women's rights, the Economic Commission for Latin America and

the Caribbean (ECLAC) has assisted Member States to negotiate an ambitious and comprehensive regional gender agenda over the past 40 years. The Regional Conferences on Women organized by ECLAC's Division of Gender Affairs have provided an important platform for discussing and reviewing progress among Member States with the active participation of the women's and feminist movements.⁷¹ The agreements that have been negotiated during these years provide a critical roadmap for the gender-responsive implementation of the 2030 Agenda in the region.

Governments also tend to appreciate regionally comparative perspectives, and the results of regional monitoring are more likely to be used in policymaking and sustained over time, not least because Member States are usually eager to compare their performance to that of neighbouring countries or regional peers. Evidence from the implementation of the MDGs suggests that regional networking, benchmarking and peer review can catalyse action by invoking reputational concerns and making progress appear more achievable. For example, Indonesia and Mexico came to prioritize MDG implementation at least in part out of the desire to position themselves as regional leaders.⁷² In Zambia, the realization that the country was lagging behind other African countries in making progress towards MDG 5 (reducing maternal mortality) helped mobilize top-level political support for prioritizing the issue.⁷³

At the national level, accountability can be strengthened by clearly defining who in government will be responsible for what regarding the implementation of the SDGs (responsibility) and how information on actions, progress, gaps and challenges will be made available for public scrutiny (answerability).⁷⁴ Incorporating the gender equality commitments of the 2030 Agenda into national development plans provides one avenue for localizing the responsibility for their achievement.

Many countries have gone ahead with establishing SDG-specific structures such as interministerial coordinating offices, committees and commissions to coordinate SDG implementation across government departments.⁷⁵ While positive examples

of gender mainstreaming exist (see Box 1.3), greater and more systematic efforts are needed to ensure that national priorities and the strategies to achieve them are collectively and democratically defined; that government reporting on progress and gaps is comprehensive and transparent; and that spaces for public scrutiny and debate exist. Such spaces can bring together a diversity of voices and perspectives to define priorities, establish the roles and responsibilities of different actors, identify what is working well and where the gaps are, decide where and how resources should be allocated and set expectations for reporting back on progress to key constituencies.

Some governments have engaged in broad consultations with civil society as part of efforts to localize and implement the SDGs, but this is far from the norm. Mexico held national consultations to identify challenges and actions for national implementation, while Samoa conducted a consultative process for a preliminary assessment of its development strategy compared with the 2030 Agenda.⁷⁶ The extent to which women's organizations were involved in these consultations is not evident. Yet, their involvement will be critical if gender equality is to remain a priority. In Ukraine, women's organizations actively engaged with the SDG process, highlighting the interlinkages between violence against women, stigma and HIV and AIDS based on quantitative and qualitative research they had conducted. This led to the inclusion of this issue in the 2017 national SDG baseline report.⁷⁷ Indonesia was one of a handful of countries presenting at the 2017 HLPF that reported a set of systematically established principles for ensuring an inclusive VNR preparation process, which included public campaigning, publishing schedules and documents and using accessible languages to ensure wide reach and transparency and to minimize information barriers.⁷⁸

Given the breadth of the SDGs, ensuring that gender equality is indeed cross-cutting will also require new forms of solidarity between women's movements and other groups so that women's rights are championed by interest groups across the whole 2030 Agenda rather than being the responsibility of women's organizations alone. Past experiences have shown that alliances between

women's organizations and other social movements contribute to the prioritization of gender equality concerns in broader policy discussions. For example, feminist engagement with trade unions has led them to prioritize issues such as paid parental leave, equal pay and violence against women.⁷⁹

Feminists working with government bureaucracies often act as an interface between civil society and governments, enabling the exchange of priorities and information.⁸⁰ In this sense, gender equality mechanisms could play a catalytic role in gender mainstreaming across goals and targets during implementation. Yet, there is little evidence that they are systematically included in the inter-ministerial structures that are set up to oversee the implementation of the SDGs. In addition, they are often poorly resourced and lack the mandate, clout, institutional location and capacity to hold other government departments to account.⁸¹

National parliaments can play a critical accountability role through their legislative, budgetary and oversight functions. For example, parliaments may adopt laws requesting that the processes for developing and reviewing national policies and plans are participatory and inclusive. Through reviewing proposed government expenditures, parliaments may assess whether adequate financial resources are allocated to achieving the SDGs. Dedicated gender equality mechanisms such as cross-party women's caucuses have been effective in enabling women politicians to support each other and allowing parliamentarians to work together on issues of common concern, develop strategies for change and create better links with civil society organizations.⁸²

National human rights institutions (NHRIs) also have a key role in promoting the integration of human rights in SDG implementation. NHRIs include human rights commissions, human rights institutes, ombudspersons and *defensorías*. As independent statutory institutions with the mandate to protect and promote human rights, these institutions are well positioned to advise on how governments can align their actions with human rights standards in the spirit of the 2030 Agenda.

BOX 1.3

GENDER-RESPONSIVE NATIONAL SDG PLANNING, COORDINATION AND REVIEW PROCESSES

Switzerland has adopted a Sustainable Development Strategy 2016–2019⁸³ based on the SDGs. The strategy was developed by the Federal Council with the participation of representatives of civil society, businesses, the scientific community and the cantonal and communal authorities together with representatives of the federal Government.

The Swiss strategy includes an Action Plan⁸⁴ divided into nine action areas, each covering a specific topic that is of central importance to the country's sustainable development. One of these priority topics specifically addresses gender equality (i.e., "Social cohesion and gender equality"). The Action Plan recognizes some gender equality challenges in achieving SDGs 5, 10 and 16, including ensuring equal pay, supporting the reconciliation of work and family life and encouraging women's participation in decision-making processes. It also recognizes the need to constantly monitor social problems such as domestic violence, forced marriage, physical, psychological and sexual violence and female genital mutilation (FGM).⁸⁵

In the Swiss strategy, gender equality is not only prioritized at the domestic level but also included as one of the critical areas where Switzerland is planning to contribute to the achievement of the SDGs at the global level.

In 2015, Egypt established a national committee to follow up on and coordinate the implementation of the SDGs. An inter-ministerial committee under the direct supervision of the Prime Minister, the national committee is comprised of several ministries as well as the National Council for Women and the National Council for Motherhood and Childhood. The committee is mandated to ensure proper alignment and integration between the SDGs and national sustainable development strategies and priorities.⁸⁶

Cuba has taken a gender mainstreaming approach to implementing the SDGs by focusing on increasing women's participation and leadership in environmental conservation, risk management and disaster prevention.⁸⁷

To facilitate gender-responsive accountability, many NHRIs have specific mandates or have adopted specific strategies. Some NHRIs have taken promising steps, such as appointing a specialized commissioner for sex discrimination (Australian Human Rights Commission) or adopting a gender integration framework (Canadian Human Rights Commission).⁸⁸ In some countries, specialized women's human rights commissions have been established (e.g. the Ombudsperson for Gender Equality of Egypt and the National Commission for Women in India). Some NHRIs have already addressed issues now included in SDG 5. These include work on unpaid care work by the Australian

Human Rights Commission,⁸⁹ on reproductive rights by the Danish Institute for Human Rights⁹⁰ and on violence against women by the Rwandan Human Rights Commission.⁹¹

Despite the potential of NHRIs to strengthen accountability for the SDGs, many of them face severe constraints due to their restricted mandates, lack of independence and limited technical capacity and financial and human resources. Moreover, many are intimidated by governments and their recommendations are ignored. Additionally, despite significant progress, NHRIs still do not systematically address gender equality across the board and many

focus primarily on civil and political rights and not enough on economic and social rights.

Gender-responsive financing, policy analysis and evaluation

Delivering on the promises of the 2030 Agenda, based on human rights and responsive to gender concerns, stands and falls with the capacity to mobilize and allocate sufficient resources for policies and programmes that contribute to their fulfilment. The prospects for financing the 2030 Agenda may seem daunting, but there is scope for increasing revenue and for channelling more resources towards investments that foster gender equality and sustainable development. Monitoring resource mobilization efforts and budget allocations for gender equality, including in ODA, is hence critical (see Chapter 3 and Creating fiscal space, p. 245). In addition, efforts to address global problems such as illicit financial flows, international tax competition and stifling debt payments should be closely followed. These are factors that put severe constraints on the ability of individual governments, particularly in developing countries, to finance their infrastructural needs, extend social protection, build up the scope and quality of their social services and repair their damaged environments.⁹²

While gender-responsive budgeting can be effective in tracking financial commitments to policies and programmes that promote gender equality, gender-responsive analysis and evaluation can play an important role in assessing the extent to which these policies and programmes are aligned with the principles of the 2030 Agenda—including human rights principles, such as equality, non-discrimination, universality and leaving no one behind. Chapter 5 and 6 provide concrete examples of how human rights principles can be used to analyse policy design and implementation in two areas that are fundamental for the advancement of women and girls: gender-based violence; and unpaid care and domestic work.

The 2030 Agenda clearly states that reviews of progress and challenges should be informed by country-led evaluations to ensure they are rigorous and evidence-based.⁹³ Evaluations that

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

... what kinds of processes and structures your country has established to conduct national reviews and how inclusive they are?

are rights-based and gender-responsive can offer important insights into whether and how policies and programmes delivered results and what needs to be done differently. They allow governments and other stakeholders to assess the degree to which gender and power relations that give rise to inequalities and discrimination change (or not) because of an intervention using a process that is inclusive, participatory and respectful of all stakeholders. The knowledge produced from such evaluations can be used to improve policies and programmes in pursuit of gender equality and lead to better outcomes for women and girls on the ground.

Strengthening national evaluation systems and capacity is hence crucial for effective and efficient SDG implementation. Various initiatives across regions are working to make evaluations more gender-responsive (see Box 1.4). In Latin America and the Caribbean, for example, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico and the city of Buenos Aires have engaged in programmes to strengthen their national evaluation systems by integrating a gender equality and human rights perspectives in the evaluation of public policies.

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

... if women's rights organizations are aware of and able to engage in national review processes?

At the global level, gender-responsive evaluation is serving as a conduit to strengthen accountability for gender equality in the implementation of the SDGs. The United Nations Evaluation Group (UNEG), the network on evaluation in the UN System, has ensured that human rights and gender equality are front and centre in its work. The global evaluation community

has also engaged in reinforcing nationally owned and driven evaluation systems with a gender-responsive lens. EvalGender+, a global partnership composed of 37 organizations, advocates for equity-focused and gender-responsive evaluation for the SDGs and has set in motion several initiatives focusing on evaluating the SDGs with a 'no one left behind' lens.

BOX 1.4

GENDER-RESPONSIVE EVALUATION GUIDELINES IN COLOMBIA AND ZIMBABWE

Colombia has been a strong advocate for gender-responsive evaluation and has started to integrate a gender lens into the evaluation of national policies and programmes. Following a series of workshops, the National Planning Department of Colombia (DNP-SINERGIA) developed a guidance document on how to do this. UN Women has been working closely with DNP-SINERGIA by providing technical support on two specific evaluations: the National Public Policy on Gender Equality (CONPES 161) and the National Policy on Risk Prevention, Protection and Guarantee of the Rights of Women Victims of Armed Conflict (CONPES 3784).

In Zimbabwe, too, UN Women is supporting the Government in operationalizing the National Monitoring and Evaluation Policy adopted in 2015. Guided by 10 principles, including transparency, accountability and gender equality, the policy has ushered in efforts to develop gender-responsive national evaluation guidelines to improve accountability in the implementation of gender equality commitments in the context of the 2030 Agenda. The guidelines will be developed with the active engagement of government ministries, evaluation experts and development partners.

CONCLUSION

In the face of multiple environmental, economic, social and political challenges, the 2030 Agenda provides an opportunity to shift development trajectories onto a more sustainable and equitable path. Its comprehensive commitment to gender equality and strong rooting in human rights are key features that have the potential to transform the lives of women and girls all over the world. The ultimate test of the 2030 Agenda, however, will be whether the SDGs are achieved by 2030. To make this happen, effective monitoring and accountability are critical. The fact that the 2030 Agenda is a non-

binding agreement and that its follow-up and review process is entirely voluntary means that there is no way of enforcing compliance with gender equality commitments. However, as this chapter has shown, there are a number of mechanisms for strengthening gender-responsive implementation, monitoring and accountability at the global, regional and national levels. From a monitoring perspective, this will require a focus on both the ends (gender equality outcomes across goals and targets) and the means to achieve them (gender-responsive processes, policies and programmes).

RECOMMENDATIONS

1/

Place gender equality at the centre of implementation

All relevant stakeholders should work together to guarantee that a gender perspective is applied throughout the process of prioritization and implementation. Women's rights organizations and gender equality advocates should be supported to influence these processes. At the global and regional levels, the UN System should encourage and support governments to report on gender equality commitments through technical cooperation and sharing of good practices.

2/

Take a human rights-based approach to implementation

A focus on the universality, indivisibility and interdependence of human rights will enable States as well as the UN System and other international organizations to move beyond siloed approaches to implementation towards integrated and systemic strategies that address the inter-linkages and harness the synergies between gender equality and other goals of the 2030 Agenda.

3/

Define clear responsibilities for gender-responsive implementation, monitoring and evaluation

States should work towards the localization of global gender equality commitments by integrating them into national development plans and related policies, legislation and frameworks. Responsibility and resources for the achievement of gender equality across goals and targets should be clearly defined and open to public scrutiny. National statistical offices, as well as national gender equality mechanisms, should be centrally involved in these processes and be properly resourced to fulfil their role.

4/

Design effective strategies for reaching the women and girls who are furthest behind

States should collaborate with researchers and women's rights organizations to identify particularly marginalized groups of women and girls and the barriers they face. Strategies for leaving no one behind should combine universal and targeted elements to increase access for those who have been historically excluded while building universal systems that are collectively financed and used by all social groups.

5/

Use the voluntary national reviews as a means for creating a shared vision of progress for gender equality and identifying challenges that stand in the way.

States should use the VNRs as well as other SDG-related review processes as an opportunity to conduct a joint assessment of progress, gaps and challenges, harnessing the knowledge and skills of all relevant stakeholders, including women's rights organizations. Holding broad-based consultations during the preparation of the VNR and making it available to the public before submission to the HLPF should be part of this process.

6/

Support citizen-led initiatives to monitor progress and hold governments accountable for gender equality commitments

Governments, the UN System and other international organizations should provide an enabling environment for civil society organizations and coalitions to conduct their own appraisals of progress at the global, regional and national levels, making sure that women's rights organizations play a leading role in their preparation.

7/

Strengthen the High-level Political Forum as a platform for peer review and meaningful dialogue

The United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and the General Assembly, with the support of the HLPF secretariat, should consider reviewing the HLPF's working methods with the intention of allocating more time to the VNRs and providing more space for participation and reporting by civil society, including women's rights organizations. The secretariat could also prepare a summary of civil society inputs and make it publicly available alongside the VNRs.

CHAPTER 2

MAKING WOMEN AND GIRLS VISIBLE: DATA FOR GENDER EQUALITY

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KEY MESSAGES

1/ With 54 gender-specific indicators, the global indicator framework for the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is more comprehensive and ambitious than that of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). But there are many challenges ahead.

2/ Overall, the indicator framework is gender-sensitive in 6 out of 17 goals (SDGs 1, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 16), gender-sparse in other critical areas (SDGs 2, 10, 11, 13 and 17) and gender-blind in the rest (SDGs 6, 7, 9, 12, 14 and 15).

3/ Gaps in gender data and the lack of trend data make it difficult to assess and monitor the direction and pace of progress for women and girls. Sufficient and regular data are currently only available for 10 of the 54 gender-specific indicators. Unless gender is mainstreamed into national statistical strategies and prioritized in regular data collection processes, gender data scarcity and gaps will persist.

4/ Investment in national statistical capacity is central to improving the coverage, quality and timeliness of data for monitoring gender equality and the SDGs. Without high-level commitment and political independence, statistical systems will be unable to play their critical role in the follow-up and review process.

5/ Beyond greater funding for gender statistics, the gender data revolution needs to address the deep-seated biases in concepts, definitions, classifications and methodologies to ensure that data actually represent the lived reality of women and girls in all their diversity.

6/ Innovations developed by merging traditional data with new data are promising and can help to accelerate progress in filling data gaps, but safeguards are needed to ensure quality and integrity are maintained and privacy is assured. Adherence to human rights standards is of utmost importance.

7/ Fostering collaboration between producers and users of gender data—including national statistical offices, women's rights organizations, independent researchers and other partners—can improve the quality and effectiveness of data by ensuring that they meet the needs of diverse stakeholders.

INTRODUCTION

As we move to year three of the implementation of the 2030 Agenda, it is crucial to comprehensively and accurately assess progress. The global indicator framework for the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is vital to this objective. Comprising 232 unique indicators, the framework provides a common set of measures through which progress towards the SDGs can be tracked and monitored. Selected through an inclusive, open and transparent consultative process, it is far more ambitious and comprehensive than that for its predecessor, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It includes 54 gender-specific indicators (see Figure 2.1) and covers areas such as unpaid care and domestic work and violence against women and girls that are new to global monitoring efforts.

The expanded scope and mainstreaming of gender-specific indicators across the SDGs is a big accomplishment, but large hurdles remain. While the global indicator framework is an important tool, it is only the tip of the iceberg of what is necessary. Below the surface is an urgent need to construct and improve statistical information at national and international levels. Areas traditionally underfunded and deprioritized, including gender statistics, are most in need of attention. As will be discussed in this chapter, monitoring the SDGs from a gender equality perspective is constrained by three main challenges: first, uneven coverage of gender-specific indicators, with some goals lacking indicators to capture gender equality outcomes; second, gaps in gender data, including data on women and girls experiencing multiple and intersecting inequalities (see Chapter 4); and third, quality and comparability of available data across countries and time.

As long as these challenges remain unaddressed, it will be impossible to assess the pace and quality of progress towards achieving the SDGs for women

and girls. Gender statistics are critical to monitor the gender impact of economic, social and environmental policies. Over the past 40 years, there have been vast improvements in the generation and use of gender statistics, including international standards and protocols for the collection of violence against women data as well as time-use data (see Chapters 5 and 6). Yet, despite these advances and the growing acknowledgement of the importance of gender statistics for designing policies and assessing progress towards gender equality, gaps remain and are extensive. An initial review and mapping of the SDG Indicators Global Database shows the availability of data necessary for global monitoring of the gender-specific indicators at a mere 26 per cent.¹ Data across time are even more limited: Only 17 per cent of the gender data needed to monitor change are currently available.² This means that for many gender-specific indicators, country-level data are largely not available and, when they are, it is only for one point in time and so progress cannot be assessed.

Against this backdrop, this chapter reviews the global indicators framework from a gender perspective, underlining the centrality of gender statistics for monitoring and accountability purposes. It argues for further gender mainstreaming throughout the framework—a point taken up with specific examples in Chapter 3, where existing evidence is used to bring to light the gender dimensions of all 17 goals. This chapter also argues for advancing data disaggregation to identify and monitor progress for groups that face multiple inequalities and deprivations—a theme that is further explored through in-depth case studies in Chapter 4. The chapter concludes with a call for greater investments in and support to national statistical systems as well as greater collaboration and partnerships between producers of official statistics and other producers and users of gender data.

A GENDER PERSPECTIVE ON THE GLOBAL INDICATOR FRAMEWORK

The Inter-Agency and Expert Group on the Sustainable Development Goals (IAEG-SDGs) is the inter-governmental body that was tasked by Member States with preparing a global indicator framework to monitor progress on the SDGs.³ It consists of 28 national statistical offices (NSOs) representing every region of the world, as well as ‘observers’ including United Nations (UN) agencies, UN Regional Commissions and civil society. In March 2016, following months of open discussion and consultation, the IAEG-SDGs completed its work on the indicator framework and presented its recommendations to the UN Statistical Commission for global monitoring of the 169 SDG targets.⁴ The General Assembly adopted the framework in resolution 71/313 on 6 July 2017.⁵ Over the 12 years remaining before 2030, the Expert Group will continue its work, providing technical support for the implementation of the approved indicator and monitoring framework.

The global indicator framework for the 2030 Agenda is a voluntary and country-led instrument. While minor refinements are still possible, this initial set of indicators is considered fixed until 2020, when a comprehensive review of the framework is planned. A second review will take place in 2025.⁶ Alongside country- and region-specific indicators, the framework will inevitably inform many of the information-gathering activities—including those related to the appraisal of progress, gaps and challenges—necessary to support ongoing

programme and policy work and accelerate progress in achieving the SDGs.⁷ However, as the following sections show, the monitoring of SDGs from a gender equality perspective is constrained by uneven indicator coverage, gender data gaps and poor data quality and comparability. Failure to address these challenges will mean key areas of the SDGs will not be monitored from a gender equality perspective.

UNEVEN COVERAGE OF GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS

Out of 232 indicators, 54 are gender-specific, meaning they are targeted at women and girls, explicitly call for disaggregation by sex or refer to gender equality as the underlying objective (see Box 2.1).⁸ Over one quarter of the gender-specific indicators (14) can be found in SDG 5. An

DO YOU KNOW...

...what gender-specific indicators are available and regularly produced in your country?

BOX 2.1

GENDER STATISTICS AND GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS IN THE SDGS

Gender statistics are those that “adequately reflect differences and inequalities in the situation of women and men in all areas of life”—differences that often arise from the gender biases embedded in society.⁹ They capture the diverse characteristics of women and men, inequalities between them and the specificities of different groups of women and girls (see Chapter 4), and they are essential for SDG monitoring and accountability.

Gender statistics include data collected, analysed and presented by sex and other characteristics as well as data that are not disaggregated by sex but reflect the specific needs, opportunities and contributions made by women and girls in society. Data on violence against women or on assistance of skilled birth attendant at delivery are examples of the latter. They require data collection methods that avoid gender biases and stereotypes that would inevitably distort the reality of the situation on the ground.

In this report, the term ‘gender-specific indicators’ is used to refer to indicators that explicitly call for disaggregation by sex and/or refer to gender equality as the underlying objective. For example, SDG indicator 5.c.1 captures the percentage of countries with systems to track public allocations that are directed towards policies and programmes that promote gender equality—the underlying objective is the promotion of gender equality. The term is also used for indicators where women and girls are specified within the indicator as the targeted population.

The term ‘gender data’ has been embraced by gender statistics advocates as a more accessible designation than the term ‘gender statistics’. While there is a clear distinction between ‘data’ and ‘statistics’, data being the information from which statistics are created, the term ‘gender data’ is increasingly accepted as a legitimate alternative. Both are used interchangeably in the report.

additional 40 gender-specific indicators can be found under other goals and targets of the 2030 Agenda. Together, these indicators monitor varying dimensions of gender equality but not all of them.

In some instances, indicators are gender-related, meaning they monitor areas that indirectly affect women and girls but do not easily lend themselves to a gender analysis of impact. For example, SDG indicator 6.1.1 (proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services), monitors change in access to an improved water source located on premises (within the dwelling, yard or plot). As women and girls are responsible for water collection in 8 out of 10 households with water off-premises, the indicator is gender-related.¹⁰ However, it does not highlight explicitly the impact on women and girls. A gender-specific indicator would, for example, capture average

time spent in water collection, disaggregated by sex, income, age and location, to identify the different gender roles and reflect the fundamental importance of access to water for reducing women’s unpaid domestic and care work burden.

Six of the 17 SDGs lack gender-specific indicators altogether. This is the case for the goals on water and sanitation, industry and innovation, sustainable consumption, energy and the environment (oceans and terrestrial ecosystems). Target 6.2 on access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene, for example, calls for “special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations”, but the indicator to monitor this target (proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services) does not explicitly monitor the specific

HAVE YOU CONSIDERED...

... what is needed for your national statistical system to measure progress on gender equality across all 17 SDGs?

needs of women and girls. This contrasts with SDG 4 on access to quality education and lifelong learning, for example, which tracks gender equality in 8 out of 11 indicators. Overall, the framework is gender-sensitive in six dimensions of the 2030 Agenda (SDGs 1, 3, 4, 5, 8 and 16), gender-sparse in other critical areas (SDGs 2, 10, 11, 13 and 17) and gender-blind in the rest (SDGs 6, 7, 9, 12, 14 and 15) (see Figure 2.1).

This asymmetry in the global indicator framework has at least three main causes. The first is the lack of readily available data and indicators that target women and girls and/or capture gender inequality.¹¹ The second is an ongoing failure to place gender at the centre of macro level processes, such as growth strategies and environmental and sustainability concerns.¹² A third factor has to do with the level of aggregation utilized to monitor progress for each of the goals. Aggregate indicators that focus on country-level analysis allow for comparison across countries but not across individuals within countries. For example, under SDG 13 on climate change, indicators related to forest area and its protection are essential, but indicators to monitor the human impact of depletion—including one that captures how women and men are affected by environmental degradation in different ways—are also important and necessary (see Chapter 3).

FAR-REACHING GENDER DATA GAPS

Monitoring progress on gender equality in the SDGs will require access to quality gender data that are

collected frequently and on a periodic basis. But an assessment of gender data availability suggests there is a long way to go before this standard is met. Many of the gender-specific indicators cover ‘emerging statistical areas’ where measurement methodology is not well developed—this is true for one third of the gender-specific indicators. For nearly half of the gender-specific indicators, the methodology is developed but country-level data are limited.

The IAEG-SDGs has developed a classification system that groups the SDG indicators based on methodological development and overall data availability into three tiers:

- **TIER I:** Indicator conceptually clear, established methodology and standards available, and data regularly produced by countries.
- **TIER II:** Indicator conceptually clear, established methodology and standards available, but data not regularly produced by countries.
- **TIER III:** Indicator for which there are no internationally established methodology or standards yet available.

Data availability challenges apply to the entire global monitoring framework. As of December 2017, the framework contains 93 indicators classified as Tier I, 66 as Tier II and 68 as Tier III. In addition, five other indicators are classified as multi-tier, with different components of the indicator classified into different tiers.¹³ International agencies identified for the purpose of global reporting as ‘custodians’ of different indicators have been tasked with developing internationally agreed methodologies for indicators in the Tier III category (see Box 2.2). Additionally, the IAEG-SDGs is currently liaising with custodian agencies to discuss available data sources and methodology to improve the availability and quality of country-level data related to Tier II indicators.

The large number of Tier II and Tier III indicators shows how much work the IAEG-SDGs still needs to undertake before all global indicators can be used to track progress. The lack of international standards

FIGURE 2.1

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ACROSS THE 17 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS



Note: In this report, the term 'gender-specific indicators' is used to refer to indicators that explicitly call for disaggregation by sex and/or refer to gender equality as the underlying objective. All indicators depicted here are 'gender-specific'. Official SDG indicator names have been condensed for the purposes of this depiction given space limitations. Shorthand names of goals are also used in this depiction. For full indicator names and descriptions, see Annex 1.

BOX 2.2

DEVELOPMENT OF SDG 5 TIER III INDICATOR METHODOLOGY

UN Women, as custodian agency for SDG 5 indicators, has developed a work plan in collaboration with governments, civil society and other partner agencies for Tier III indicators. The main steps in the work plan are:

- **Step 1:** Commissioning a discussion paper and/or preparing a draft methodological guide, drawing on international good practices, literature and existing standards.
- **Step 2:** Organizing a global workshop with national, regional and international experts to inform the methodological work or, for more advanced indicators, to validate the draft methodological guidelines. The workshop should be organized with participants from a variety of disciplines so input is provided from diverse vantage points.
- **Step 3:** Soliciting further input on the draft methodology and proposed data collection processes through national and regional consultations and refining the draft methodological guidelines, along with survey instruments or other data collection tools, based on the guidance and feedback received at the global workshop and the national and/or regional consultations.
- **Step 4:** Undertaking pilot data collection efforts where the survey instrument, data collection process and/or methodological guidelines are tested with countries. The preliminary/draft data collection process, survey instruments and/or methodological guidelines will subsequently be revised based on the experience with the pilot and inputs from country counterparts involved in the data collection process.
- **Step 5:** Synthesizing results into a final report, finalizing the methodological guidelines to facilitate country reporting and disseminating these for broad stakeholder endorsement.
- **Step 6:** Presenting the findings and proposed methodology to the IAEG-SDGs for endorsement.

At the 6th Meeting of the IAEG-SDGs in November 2017, five indicators under SDG 5 were reclassified from Tier III to Tier II based on completion of the methodological work—indicators 5.5.1(b) (proportion of women in local governments), 5.6.1 (proportion of women who make their own informed decisions regarding reproductive health), 5.a.1 (proportion of women with land ownership rights), 5.a.2 (proportion of countries where the legal framework guarantees women’s equal rights to land) and 5.c.1 (proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment)—and indicator 5.b.1 (proportion of people who own a mobile phone, by sex) was reclassified from Tier II to Tier I. However, two other SDG 5 indicators—5.3.1 (proportion of women aged 20–24 who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18) and 5.3.2 (proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age)—were downgraded from Tier I to Tier II due to lack of sufficient data coverage. For a full list of gender-specific indicators and their tier classifications (see Annex 1).

is a challenge as well for national statistical systems, which are developing their own SDG monitoring plans in parallel and need this information to properly align their efforts with global processes and ensure international data comparability.

As of December 2017, of the 54 gender-specific indicators included in the global monitoring framework, 17 (32 per cent) are Tier III, meaning that there is no internationally established methodology because they are new and/or were not part of global

monitoring efforts until now (see Figure 2.2). These indicators represent an opportunity to expand into new areas. Over time, they will enable monitoring across a more diverse set of dimensions. In the short term, however, the abundance of indicators classified as Tier III highlights the immense work ahead for the full implementation and monitoring of the SDGs, particularly from a gender perspective.

Another 24 of the gender-specific indicators (44 per cent) are Tier II, where international standards exist but data gaps remain in a significant number of countries.¹⁴ In some cases, the data needed are available but have not been provided to the international statistical system for global reporting. In other cases, the data are accessible but not comparable and thus not suitable for cross-country comparisons. Key areas of the 2030 Agenda, including Target 5.2 (eliminating violence against

women and girls), Target 5.4 (recognizing and valuing unpaid and domestic work) and Target 8.5 (equal pay for work of equal value), currently fall under this category, where agreed international standards exist, some data are available but comparability across countries with respect to definitions and methodology is a challenge.

Gaps in data at the country level have significant implications not only for national monitoring of progress on the SDGs but also for regional and global monitoring as these aggregates are ultimately derived from country-level data. Only 10 (19 per cent) of the 54 gender-specific indicators are produced with enough regularity to be classified as Tier I by the IAEG-SDGs. Only two indicators under SDG 5 are currently classified as Tier I (see Box 2.3). The remaining three gender-specific indicators (6 per cent) have components spanning multiple tiers (see Figure 2.2).

BOX 2.3

STATUS OF SDG 5 INDICATORS

Out of the 14 indicators selected to monitor SDG 5, only 2 are Tier I, meaning data are widely available and supported by internationally accepted standards for measurement.¹⁵ These are indicators 5.5.2 on women in managerial positions and 5.b.1 on individuals who own a mobile phone, by sex.

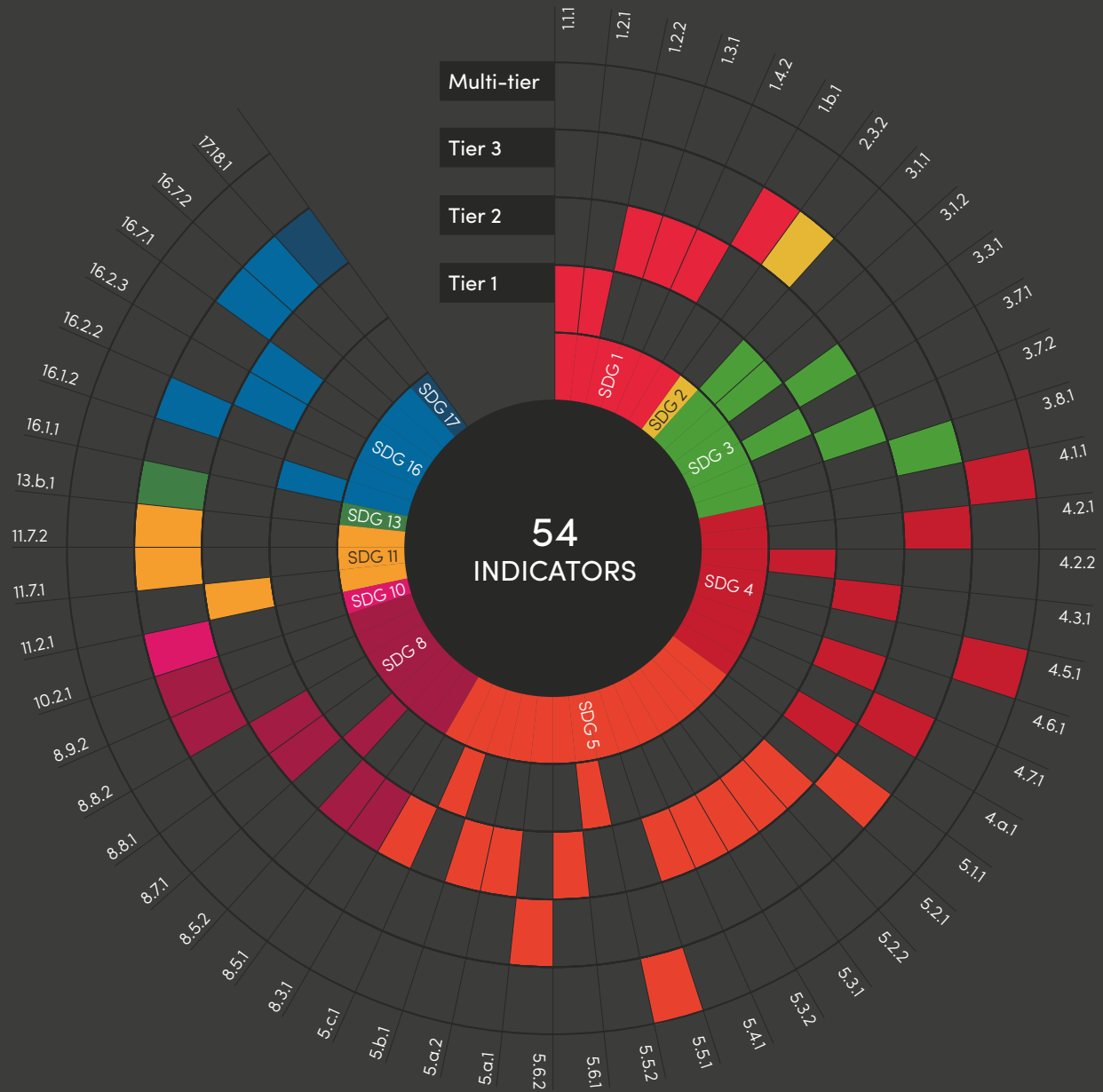
Out of the remaining 12 indicators, 9 are Tier II, meaning indicators for which data are only collected and available for a limited number of countries: 5.2.1 on intimate partner violence; 5.2.2 on non-partner sexual violence; 5.3.1 on child marriage; 5.3.2 on female genital mutilation; 5.4.1 on unpaid care and domestic work; 5.6.1 on women who make their own sexual and reproductive decisions; 5.a.1 on women's equal rights to land; 5.a.2 on legal frameworks that guarantee women's rights to land; and 5.c.1 on countries with systems to track budget allocations and expenditures for gender equality. For these indicators, global monitoring is difficult due to insufficient country coverage and, in some cases, lack of comparability.

Two of the indicators are Tier III, meaning indicators for which internationally agreed standards do not yet exist and most countries do not regularly collect data: indicator 5.1.1 on legal frameworks for equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex and 5.6.2 on laws and regulations that guarantee women access to reproductive health care, information and education. Indicator 5.5.1 on women in national parliaments and local governments is multi-tier: the national parliaments component is Tier I and the local governments component is Tier II.

The development of methodologies for Tier III indicators is vital for monitoring the implementation of SDG 5. Without increased coverage in data at the country level and expanded work at the global level to develop international standards, the vast majority of the targets under SDG 5 will not be monitored at the global level.

FIGURE 2.2

GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS BY TIER CLASSIFICATION



All indicators are classified by the IAEG-SDGs into three tiers based on their level of methodological development and the availability of data at the global level, as follows:

Tier 1

conceptually clear
established methodology and standards available
data regularly produced by countries

Tier 2

conceptually clear
established methodology and standards available
data not regularly produced by countries

Tier 3

conceptual work needed
no established methodology/standards, or these
are being developed/tested

Sources: UN Women calculations based on the UNSD 2017a; 2017c and tiering updates as of 14 December 2017 (see UNSD 2017d).

Note: In sum, 10 gender-specific indicators are classified as Tier I, 24 are Tier II, 17 are Tier III and 3 indicators (4.1.1, 4.5.1, and 5.5.1) are multi-tier.

Globally, less than one third of the data needed for monitoring the gender-specific indicators are currently available. At the regional level, Europe and Northern America and Latin America and the Caribbean have the greatest coverage, with both regions reporting 30 per cent of the data needed for global monitoring of gender-specific indicators available; Oceania has the least amount at 13 per cent (see Figure 2.3).¹⁶

The mismatch between data availability and data demand in the context of the SDGs is a shared concern for rich and poor countries alike—as one senior national statistician explained: “The SDGs have made us all data poor”. Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) are important sources for comparable statistics across developing countries on a wide range of areas related to population, health and nutrition. But similar instruments do not readily exist in developed countries. This does not mean that for these countries data cannot be extracted from other surveys, but more effort will be needed to harmonize the information across countries.

The timeliness and frequency of data are even bigger issues. Only 24 per cent of the data available for gender-specific indicators are from 2010 or later. Oceania is the region with the least amount of timely gender data, as only 9 per cent are from 2010 or later (see Figure 2.3). Globally, only 17 per cent of the gender-specific indicators with data have information for two or more points in time, allowing for trend analysis. This suggests that many of the gender-specific indicators rely on data collection mechanisms that were ad hoc or one-off exercises and not integrated into national statistical plans and strategies.

While data lags are common in official statistics, particularly in social statistics, the gaps in gender statistics go beyond time lags: They point to chronic underinvestment (see section on data challenges) and lack of political commitment.¹⁷ Unless data collection efforts are quickly expanded, routinely

updated and used to produce gender statistics, key gender dimensions of the 2030 Agenda will be unaccounted for and risk being forgotten.

As a guiding principle, the IAEG–SDGs agreed that indicators in the global monitoring framework should be disaggregated, where relevant, by “income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and geographic location, or other characteristics”.¹⁸ In addition, indicators should cover specific groups of the population and address other elements of disaggregation when specified in the target. For example, women and girls should be distinctly captured, especially when these groups are directly referenced in the SDGs and their targets.

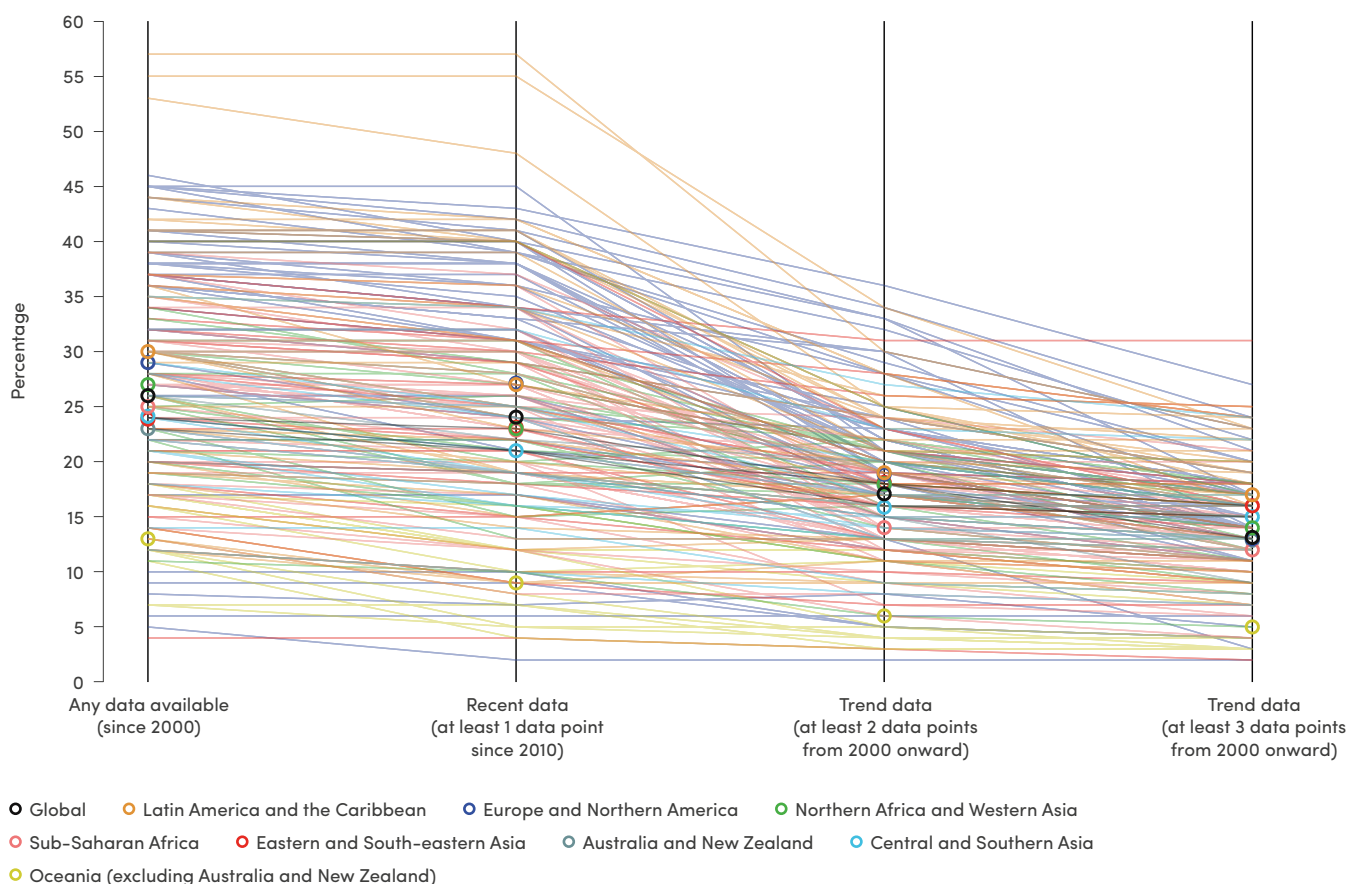
Despite this broad principle recognizing the need for disaggregation by sex and other characteristics, explicit references to women and girls and gender equality are not consistently made across the global monitoring framework. Another critical challenge is obtaining data that are disaggregated not only by sex and age (which itself is often lacking) but also by other dimensions, including race, ethnicity, migration status, disability, wealth or income and other characteristics. These data are essential to monitoring progress on the commitment to “leave no one behind” (see Chapter 4).

ISSUES WITH DATA QUALITY AND COMPARABILITY

Good quality statistics enable policymakers to make important decisions, to assess their country’s position relative to other countries and to anticipate or react to trends. If the underlying data and methods are flawed, the policy responses will be similarly flawed. Gender biases embedded in the concepts, definitions and classifications used, in the way questions are asked, in how the samples are designed and calculated for population surveys and in how data are collected have a negative impact on the quality of the data and reliability of the information they are meant to convey. Differences in sources, definitions,

FIGURE 2.3

AVAILABILITY OF DATA FOR THE 54 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS, BY COUNTRY, REGION AND GLOBALLY, 2000-2016



Source: UN Women calculations based on UNSD 2017a.

Note: Calculations in this figure are based on the assessment of data availability for all 54 gender-specific indicators and their sub-components across a total of 208 countries and areas/territories. Each line represents the percentage of gender-specific indicators with available data per country/area.

concepts, survey population samples and methods used also compromise the comparability of the data across countries and across time.

Yet, such flaws and biases remain pervasive, affecting the quality of gender statistics. Under-reporting of women in censuses, for example, is a well-documented occurrence in some countries. In South Asia, unmarried women are less likely to be

counted than other groups of women, and across the world female household headship is routinely under-reported.¹⁹ In Pakistan, enumerators for the 2017 census in Punjab province interacted with women in female-headed households “through small cracks in the door” because the women, due to cultural/religious values, could not come outside to engage with the mostly male enumerators. Others may not have opened the door at all and hence would

have gone uncounted. In Sindh province, monitors observed a reluctance by roughly 4 per cent of respondents to reveal the names of their female family members.²⁰

Who asks the question and how also matters a great deal. Labour force surveys that ask only about the respondent's 'primary economic activity' will leave out the contributions of women who perceive paid work as secondary to their unpaid care and domestic work. In Uganda, asking about secondary activity increased women's labour force participation from 78 per cent (when only primary activity was asked about) to 87 per cent.²¹ In Mali, despite comparability of labour force surveys in terms of questionnaires, female labour force participation rates fluctuated from 41 per cent in 2004 to 68 per cent in 2007 and 52 per cent in 2010. The absence of macroeconomic shocks during this period makes the variation difficult to explain and likely to be caused by operational differences in data collection.²²

Inadequate budgets, low human and technical capacities, lack of gender mainstreaming and inadequate concepts and methods are real challenges to the production of quality gender

statistics. Violence against women statistics are particularly sensitive in this regard. Careful consideration of survey and sample design, selection and training of enumerators, data collection methods and detailed protocols are needed to ensure the safety of both respondents and interviewers. Ethical guidelines must also be followed, including those that require enumerators to refer respondents in situations of risk to related services. From a data quality perspective, training of enumerators is key in bringing out bias or stereotypical views—as well as challenges around asking women about issues of an intimate and sensitive nature—that, if left unchecked, will adversely influence disclosures and jeopardize the reliability of the data.²³

International standards can be helpful in mitigating some of these risks, not only by promoting adherence to common definitions and a set of quality standards but also through the development of protocols that aim to reduce gender biases in data collection and data processing. The existing guidelines for the production of violence against women statistics are one such example.²⁴

DATA CHALLENGES AND THE GENDER DATA REVOLUTION

How can the above challenges be addressed? What is needed to ensure that countries and the global community are able to track progress on gender equality in a comprehensive and cross-cutting way across the 2030 Agenda?

The 2017 Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data calls for a “data revolution” whereby the volume, speed and types of data produced are expanded, including through increased support for statistical systems and greater engagement and partnerships between citizens, governments and the private sector.²⁵ A central tenet of the data revolution is that greater use, integration and dissemination of different sources of data will ultimately inform the formulation of better policies, empower people through better availability of reliable information and lead to better outcomes for people and the planet.

Solutions for better gender statistics need to be part of the data revolution. Data that accurately reflect the challenges faced by women in their daily lives, including in undervalued areas such as time spent on caring for family members, are woefully inadequate (see Chapter 3). In some cases, data on entire groups of women and girls are unavailable (see Chapter 4). Addressing these gaps requires strengthening conventional data collection capacities within national statistical systems,

harnessing the potential of non-conventional data sources and doing so through approaches that uphold and promote human rights standards.

MAINSTREAMING GENDER INTO DATA PRODUCTION

Unless gender is mainstreamed into national statistical strategies and prioritized in regular data collection processes, gender data scarcity and gaps will remain. This means that the provision of greater political, technical and financial support to producers of official statistics must be at the heart of the data revolution.

Official statistical information at the country level draws on three main sources: administrative records, household surveys and population censuses.

HAVE YOU CONSIDERED...

...how your institution or organization can help close gender data gaps?

BOX 2.4

CIVIL REGISTRATION SYSTEM IN THE MUNICIPAL CORPORATION OF DELHI, INDIA

The Municipal Corporation of Delhi (MCD) Health Department, covering an area with 14 million citizens, computerized birth and death registrations in 2003 with the specific aims of reducing errors, improving speed and efficiency, allowing more complete access to information and permitting real-time transparency.²⁶ The online fee-for-service system manages nearly 1,200 entries and generates nearly 3,000 birth and death certificates every day. Computerization of the system has improved data management and provided the enhanced ability to monitor births by sex and zone in the city. It has also reduced the risk of error by integrating the health and registration functions, so that information from the hospital or maternity homes is electronically transferred directly to the registrar's office.

Improvements to the system have continued over the years. In 2006, a tripartite partnership involving the MCD, the Office of Registrar General and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) was formed with the purpose of piloting and implementing a data integration system that would facilitate the provision of basic services to children. The pilot, covering 32 maternity homes, was aimed at creating a data bridge between information entered while registering births and immunization. The pilot was expanded in 2008 to cover the entire MCD area.

More recently, in 2013, the web-based Citizen Service Bureau (CSB) was updated with the objective of being a user-friendly one-stop portal, supporting all government and private hospitals/institutions to register births and deaths and support citizens to access different services, including the issuance of birth certificates.

Administrative records and registries can be a cost-effective source of data, including on vital registration and maternal mortality, but in developing countries the quality of these data and coverage of the population are often low.²⁷ Over two thirds of the countries with the highest mortality rates, accounting for more than 95 per cent of all maternal, newborn and child deaths, lack registries of births and deaths.²⁸ Building these systems requires long-term investment in civil registration and vital statistics (CRVS) systems. Where such investments are made, the result can be both better data and better service delivery, as the example in Box 2.4 illustrates.

Household surveys, often the primary source of social statistics, including on poverty, harmful practices, violence against women and sexual and

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...whether your national statistical system has adequate financial and human resources to produce gender statistics to monitor the SDGs?

reproductive health, are valuable but can be costly to implement and tend to be limited in the scope of information covered and the size of population sampled. In many countries, specialized surveys such as those on violence against women are a

one-off exercise, and where data are available they are not collected from women over 49 years of age, resulting in gaps in knowledge about violence experienced by older women (see Chapters 3 and 5). Similarly, data on time use are indispensable for monitoring Target 5.4. But while 84 countries have conducted time-use surveys, only 24 per cent of them have data from 2010 or after.²⁹

Population censuses are an essential source of country-level information. Given their universal coverage, they can be especially useful for analysing vulnerable and marginalized groups, and they are essential to design sampling frames for other population surveys. In many countries, census data are the only option for indicators that call for disaggregation by migration status, disability and race/ethnicity. Censuses, however, are generally only conducted every 10 years, and in some countries less frequently; thus, the timeliness of data remains an issue. Population censuses can also be highly political. The 2014 census in Myanmar, for example, was marred by controversy over what some perceived as intentional efforts to exclude and/or undercount the Rohingya people.³⁰ These data challenges are a serious concern that require, among other things, a commitment to data collection processes that are politically independent and adhere to human rights standards (see Box 2.7).

NSOs and other data producers, such as line ministries, are the main providers of country level statistics, including gender statistics, through the above sources. But many face significant practical as well as financial and political impediments, from irregular electricity supply to lack of computers and an inadequate number of staff. The staff that are available are often underpaid and, once trained, leave to work in higher paying jobs in the private sector or in international organizations. Furthermore, where data are impeding the production of gender statistics include a weak policy space, limited resources and a lack of coordination, particularly at the national level. A 2012 review of 126 countries indicated only 37 per cent had a coordinating body for gender statistics,

only 15 per cent had specific legislation requiring the national statistical system to conduct specialized gender-based surveys, and only 13 per cent had a regular dedicated budget for gender statistics.³¹

Apart from technical, regulatory and financial constraints, national statistical systems face legal and political restrictions that prevent the collection of certain types of data. In some countries, without a political directive, data collection efforts cannot expand to cover additional areas, such as gender statistics. Assessing these legal and political restrictions and removing impediments is a necessary precursor to making gender data available for SDG monitoring.

The call for investments in comprehensive and periodic statistics on the status of women, men, girls and boys, including data disaggregated by sex and other socio-economic characteristics, is not new. In 1995, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action made a strong call to “generate and disseminate gender-disaggregated data” that would inform policy planning and evaluation.³² Similarly, the United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (UN CEDAW), through its general recommendations, has made explicit calls for improving the production and use of gender statistics.³³

These normative advances have led to greater support for gender statistics. Many new tools, including manuals and guidelines for the production of gender statistics, are now available.³⁴ But wide gaps remain, including on basic statistics such as the

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...whether your country has a legal framework for data collection and dissemination that is in line with international human rights standards?

measurement of poverty by sex, the gender pay gap and the prevalence of violence against women—to name a few.

UN Women’s flagship programme, Making Every Woman and Girl Count, aims to address some of these gaps and bring about a radical shift in how gender statistics are created, used and promoted.

The programme seeks to address three interrelated challenges: the weak policy space and legal and financial environment to produce gender statistics at national level; the technical challenges within the national statistical system that limit the production of gender statistics; and the lack of access and limited capacity on the part of users to analyse data to inform policies (see Box 2.5).

BOX 2.5

MAKING EVERY WOMAN AND GIRL COUNT: SUPPORTING SDG MONITORING AND IMPLEMENTATION THROUGH THE PRODUCTION AND USE OF GENDER STATISTICS

Launched in 2016, Making Every Woman and Girl Count (MEWGC) aims to ensure that the challenges impeding the production and use of gender statistics to monitor the SDGs are addressed in an efficient, cost-effective manner.³⁵

As part of this five-year, US\$65 million programme, UN Women works with a range of partners to support countries to improve the production, accessibility and use of gender statistics. It focuses on three areas: (i) Putting in place an enabling environment for gender-responsive localization and effective monitoring of national and international policy commitments; (ii) Filling gender data gaps by ensuring that quality and comparable gender statistics are produced regularly; and (iii) Ensuring that data are accessible and used to inform policy and advocacy.

MEWGC provides a framework and roadmap for all relevant actors, including recipient countries, donors and implementing partners, to work together through:

- **Partnerships at the country level:** As a pilot initiative, between 2016 and 2021, UN Women works closely with the NSOs³⁶ of selected pathfinder countries to support efforts to localize the SDGs and adapt the gender-specific SDG indicators to national circumstances, to improve gender data production and to build the capacity of users so that they can analyse the data to inform policies, programmes, research and advocacy.
- **Regional technical support:** At the regional level, technical projects provide direct technical support to countries and then work closely with regional partners supporting country-led plans to localize and monitor the SDGs. Through regional cooperation, these projects will include advocacy activities for dismantling barriers to the regular production of gender statistics, promoting South-South cooperation and sharing best practices.
- **Global policy support:** Work at the global level focuses on improving the quality and comparability of data on key areas of the SDGs where UN Women has been designated as one of the responsible monitoring agencies and providing overall technical and policy guidance for monitoring gender-related SDGs.

POSSIBILITIES AND POTENTIAL PITFALLS OF NON-CONVENTIONAL DATA SOURCES

NSOs, traditionally wary of data produced outside the official statistical system, are nonetheless experimenting with new data, including unstructured and non-conventional forms, to service the growing demand for more real-time information. A project in Uganda, for example, is using satellite data to distinguish between different types of roofs as a proxy for poverty.³⁷ These new data sources are not only being added to the tools used by NSOs but are also being combined with traditional data sources to provide new insights.

At the same time, the data space is expanding exponentially, with many more actors big and small collecting vast amounts of 'big data' at an ever-expanding rate—often with limited oversight. 'Big

data' refers to extremely large data sets that are generated automatically as by-products of daily life activities, including social media and mobile phone usage, credit card transactions and GPS location trackers, to name a few. Other new forms of data, such as aerial photography coupled with image recognition, can be combined with big data to identify environmental changes, population movements or other patterns. The greater interoperability of different data sources, including through the development and use of new technologies, can afford some very real opportunities for addressing data gaps in key SDG-related areas (see Box 2.6), but there are also concerns about possible misuse of data.

The challenge for using big data to monitor the SDGs is how to harness the opportunities and benefits of these new data sources and data partners while also mitigating the risks. The expansion of big data has raised a number of concerns about government and corporate surveillance, privacy and data ownership.³⁸ The 'datafication' of people's everyday lives, whereby all forms of information are collected and transformed

BOX 2.6

GENDER AND URBAN MOBILITY: ADDRESSING UNEQUAL ACCESS TO TRANSPORTATION FOR WOMEN AND GIRLS

GovLab (NYU), UNICEF, DigitalGlobe, Universidad del Desarrollo, Telefónica Research and Development Center and the ISI Foundation have partnered to use big data to study the intersection of urban mobility and gender in Santiago, Chile.³⁹ Mobility, defined as whether or not people can reach a desired destination and how long this takes, is a basic human need. Access to transportation is also a prerequisite for human development and equal opportunities. By combining a wide range of data sets, including commercial sources of call detail records and high-resolution satellite data, the project seeks to answer key questions: Does gender play a role in the way people move in a megacity such as Santiago and, if so, how? Is there mobility inequality from a gender perspective? What can be done to make transport planning more gender-sensitive and inclusive? And how can the analytical lens used in this study inform similar research in other places and contexts? The collaboration is one of 10 projects, composed of 29 researchers from 20 different institutions across 8 countries, selected as part of Data2X's "Big Data for Gender Challenge", which seek to use and identify big data innovations to fill gender data gaps and improve understanding on key aspects of girls' and women's lives.

into computerized data to be sold and traded for profit, poses serious ethical questions.⁴⁰ Are the data collected through informed consent? How are the data being used and what are the potential harms to individuals or groups from their use or misuse? These are just some of the issues that, although not unique to big data, are heightened because of the scale and speed by which this type of data is being collected. A rights-based approach to data is essential to safeguard people from these risks (see Box 2.7).

Furthermore, while big data offer an opportunity to collect data quickly and cheaply, they cannot substitute for high-quality statistics produced by national statistical systems through registries, censuses and surveys, the primary goal of which is to provide data that inform decision-making around people's well-being—and which will help to

monitor the SDGs. In the meantime, producers of official statistics have an important role in upholding data collection standards that protect the rights of individuals and promoting the use of these standards in emerging forms of data collection. Their role is essential in a fast-changing data landscape, where opportunities and potential pitfalls are likely to multiply.

HAVE YOU CONSIDERED...

...the possibilities and potential pitfalls of using big data for closing gender data gaps in your country?

BOX 2.7

A RIGHTS-BASED APPROACH TO DATA

A rights-based approach to data means adherence to international human rights norms and principles in data collection and data dissemination processes, where the rights of individuals are paramount.⁴¹ The approach is guided by the following six principles: participation, disaggregation, self-identification, transparency, privacy and accountability.

- **Participation:** All data collection should include the free and active participation of relevant stakeholders, emphasizing marginalized population groups. A gender perspective should be utilized throughout the process, with equal participation of women and men. Efforts should be made to strengthen the capacity of participating target populations and groups to ensure they know the purpose of the exercise and to increase their statistical literacy and understanding of data collection processes.
- **Disaggregation:** Traditional data collection, analysis and dissemination based on national averages often mask disparities within societies. Focusing on the most marginalized and disadvantaged through disaggregation and collection methods that allow for the comparison of different population groups facilitates a clearer view of inequalities. Decisions regarding the collection of data on vulnerable or marginalized groups should be made in partnership with the group(s) involved.

- **Self-identification:** In keeping with the human rights principle of ‘do no harm’, data collection exercises should not create or reinforce discrimination, bias or stereotypes against population groups, and objections by these groups should be taken seriously by data producers. Questions regarding personal identity should allow for voluntary responses, and characteristics of people in relation to gender identity, sexual orientation, religious beliefs or ethnicity should be assigned only through self-identification.
- **Transparency:** Closely tied to participation and accountability, and sometimes known as the right to information, transparency is a critical part of freedom of expression and one of the fundamental principles of official statistics.⁴² To enable accessibility, interpretation and trust, metadata (data about the data) should be available and, where relevant, standardized across data collectors and collection instruments.
- **Privacy:** The growing desire for access to information must be balanced with the right to privacy, which is closely tied to personal identity issues and self-identification. The collection of data for statistical purposes must strictly ensure confidentiality, another one of the fundamental principles of official statistics, endorsed by the Statistical Commission at its forty-fourth session in 2013.⁴³ Published data should never allow for the identification of individual subjects, directly or indirectly, and techniques to ensure anonymity must be applied when necessary.
- **Accountability:** Accountability refers to both accountability in data collection and data collection for accountability. It is essential that disadvantaged population groups have access to collected data and collection methodologies. Using indicators to monitor progress towards benchmarks, improved data visualization and communication tools and systematic referencing of human rights standards all serve to strengthen accountability.

SUPPORTING PARTICIPATORY DATA COLLECTION, DATA LITERACY AND THE USE OF GENDER DATA

The explosion of data in and outside official statistics harbours the risk of increasing the asymmetry of information between citizens and data producers, including government and the private sector. Unchecked, it will likely result in a greater concentration of knowledge and power among the few—and a new layer of inequality in society. Therefore, a necessary component of the data revolution must be the greater accessibility of quality data in a transparent, open and inclusive manner. Mexico’s approach to improving data on maternal mortality provides a concrete example of how public scrutiny can lead to better evidence and better measures of progress (see Box 2.8).

Citizens can be effective data producers if engagement initiatives are set up. For instance, the Safecity initiative in India is a platform that crowdsources personal stories of sexual harassment and abuse in public spaces, including the specific geographic location of incidents, through cell phones and Internet communication. These data are aggregated as hot spots on a map indicating trends at a local level. Information on harassment incidents and their location is then made available to communities and local administrators to identify factors that cause this behaviour and inform strategies and policies aimed at finding solutions. The initiative has led to positive changes. For instance, the closure of public toilets in one neighbourhood in Delhi resulted in an uptick in assaults on women. Using this crowdsourced information, municipal authorities were able to link

BOX 2.8

IMPROVING DATA ON MATERNAL MORTALITY: MEXICO'S BÚSQUEDA INTENCIONADA Y RECLASIFICACIÓN DE MUERTES MATERNAS (BIRMM) INITIATIVE

Mexico's Búsqueda Intencionada y Reclasificación de Muertes Maternas (Purposeful Search and Reclassification of Maternal Deaths) initiative is designed to correct the misclassification of and improve the quality of information on maternal mortality. In 2001, there was growing evidence that maternal deaths were going unregistered, rendering estimates of maternal mortality inaccurate and unreliable.⁴⁴ To address the issue, a new procedure was put in place that not only opened access to the data (for greater public scrutiny) but was also purposefully designed for the intentional search, review and reclassification of maternal deaths. Previously calculated based solely on information from the registries of deaths and their causes, maternal mortality is now assessed through a holistic review of 84 variables from across the statistical systems, 69 of which are made available in an open data portal for further scrutiny by the public. The data are further analysed by physicians at the Ministry of Health to ensure accuracy.⁴⁵ In 2011, this process of comprehensive examination of maternal deaths resulted in a reclassification of 13 per cent of total deaths as maternal.⁴⁶ The approach has shifted the culture of information sharing and contributed to greater data quality and better measures of progress.

the increase in assaults to the closure, prompting the local authorities to reopen and maintain the toilets.⁴⁷

Data literacy, which relates to the ability to read, understand, create and communicate data, is key to greater citizen engagement. However, it is not widespread across society. Engagement and open access are important first steps, but concerted efforts are also needed to reach a broad spectrum of social groups. The civil society and private sector-led partnership, Equal Measures 2030, aims to ensure that women's movements and other rights advocates are equipped with easy-to-use data and evidence to guide efforts to reach the SDGs by 2030. Working in six focus countries—Colombia, El Salvador, India, Indonesia, Kenya and Senegal—the programme aims to support grassroots girls' and women's groups to identify key national and regional influencing opportunities, create and use data tracking and tools, and build capacity through data literacy curriculums geared for advocates that will help connect data and evidence with advocacy for action.⁴⁸

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...whether your country has a strategy for promoting engagement and open access to data for sustainable development?

Open and accessible data on progress on gender-specific indicators and the substantive involvement of civil society are key for accountability. Beyond opening up data to the public, greater effort is also needed at the stage when data plans are being developed. Involving gender equality advocates and women's rights organizations as well as other civil society groups in decisions about what data are collected, when and how, and which indicators are prioritized is essential for ensuring that the data collected and indicators selected reflect the concerns and priorities of the

DO YOU KNOW...

...if gender equality advocates and women's rights organizations are supported to participate in the development of statistical strategies for monitoring the SDGs in your country? Do they have a say in determining what data are collected?

people the garnered information is intended to serve. In the Philippines, for example, 11 multi-stakeholder consultations have taken place since 2012 across all major island groups, aimed at incorporating diverse voices in the mapping of SDG indicators for national monitoring.⁴⁹ In Uganda, 106 gender equality indicators have been identified for monitoring the SDGs and the National Development Strategy. The indicator selection process was carried out in consultation with academia, civil society, including women's rights organizations, and the private sector.⁵⁰

The High-level Group for Partnership, Coordination and Capacity-Building (HLG-PCCB) for statistics for the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was established in 2015 to provide strategic leadership for SDG monitoring and reporting.⁵¹ In its Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data, the group identifies six strategic areas, including the development and strengthening of partnerships between national and international statistical systems with academia, civil society, the private sector and other stakeholders involved in the production and use of data for sustainable development. Some of the concrete areas listed as key actions for the group moving forward are: promoting the systematic mainstreaming of a gender perspective in all phases of planning, production and usage of data and statistics; improving the transparency and access of official statistics to stakeholders; and creating frequent and periodic opportunities to consult with stakeholders.⁵² Established by the UN Statistical Commission, the country-led initiative is a promising signal of the approach governments intend to take in which the engagement of women's right organizations and gender advocates will be of paramount importance.

CONCLUSION

Lack of gender data and the absence of gender-specific indicators make it difficult to establish gender equality baselines. Trend data, which are essential for assessing the direction and pace of progress, are also lacking. Without timely and reliable information about gender equality and the status of women, it is impossible to know whether measures taken to address gender inequality have the desired effect and whether women and girls are benefiting from the broader measures taken to address the economic, social and environmental targets set out in the 2030 Agenda.

The SDGs and the call for a data revolution invite all stakeholders to join together to track progress, influence policy design and hold leaders accountable to the promises made. However, building diverse coalitions of producers and users of gender statistics is neither a simple nor a quick process but one that needs to be built over time, working at multiple levels and leveraging the knowledge and platform of already existing groups.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1/

Support the inclusion of gender-specific indicators across all 17 SDGs by 2020

The lack of gender-specific indicators in 6 of the 17 SDGs is a serious gap because areas without such an indicator run the real risk of neglecting gender. At the international level, the 2020 review of the global monitoring framework offers an opportunity to discuss the need for more gender-specific indicators across the framework. But gender data advocates can also play a role in shaping national and regional frameworks being developed now by calling for greater alignment with the global framework and greater inclusion of gender-specific indicators, particularly in goals that currently have none.

2/

Systematically disaggregate data on all relevant indicators across all goals and targets by sex and other characteristics

Besides including additional gender-specific indicators, a systematic disaggregation by sex of relevant indicators across all goals and targets is needed. These should also be disaggregated by age, as gender inequality is experienced differently by women and girls across the lifecycle, and by other salient socio-economic characteristics, including income, geographic location, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and other relevant characteristics (see Chapter 4).

3/

Make greater use of existing data to produce gender statistics on a regular basis

More effort is needed to map existing data sources, develop inventories of sex-disaggregated statistics and gender-specific indicators and utilize existing data to analyse the SDGs from a gender perspective. Monitoring SDG 1 on extreme poverty by sex, age and household composition (see Chapter 3) and re-tabulation and re-analysis of microdata to monitor outcomes of different groups of marginalized women (see Chapter 4) are just some examples of how existing data can be mined to provide greater information about the forms of inequality and disadvantage experienced by women and girls.

4/

Accelerate the methodological development of Tier III indicators

UN Women and other custodian agencies are working with other key stakeholders, including governments and civil society partners, to develop sound methodologies for Tier III indicators. Five indicators under SDG 5 have already been reclassified from Tier III to Tier II, and one has been reclassified from Tier II to Tier I. Success in moving forward will require continued engagement and support from countries. Greater involvement of NSOs is needed in the design and pilot phases to ensure the methodologies developed work effectively in different settings. The key will also be for countries to integrate these indicators into their national monitoring frameworks once they are developed.

5/

Invest in national statistical capacity

Investing in national statistical capacity, particularly in developing countries, is central to the monitoring of gender equality and the SDGs. An increase in the coverage, quality and frequency of data collection needs to be supported through greater technical and financial resources. This is most especially the case for gender statistics, which suffer from chronic underinvestment, particularly in already under-resourced statistical systems in many developing countries. Solutions for gender statistics need to be seen within the larger context of statistical capacity-building and integrated into support programmes.

6/

Establish safeguards that ensure the confidentiality, quality and integrity of data

The ultimate guarantor of public data, the state has an important role in ensuring data production adheres to quality benchmarks, human rights standards and other fundamental principles of official statistics. Innovations brought on by combining traditional data with new forms of data collection are promising and can help to accelerate progress in filling data gaps. But safeguards are needed to ensure quality and integrity are maintained and privacy is secured. Biases in measurement tools, both traditional and non-conventional, have real implications for the reliability of the data collected and need to be identified and addressed.

7/

Strengthen commitment at the highest political level to an open, inclusive, transparent and gender-sensitive SDG monitoring process

Commitments at the highest political level are needed for a follow-up and review process that is evidence-based, open, inclusive, transparent and gender-sensitive. Statistical systems need to be independent and empowered with enough agility to adapt quickly to changes in the data landscape. Women's rights organizations and other civil society groups also have an important role to play in this process, not only as data users and data producers but also as advocates for more and better gender data. Fostering collaboration with these and other groups will ensure that the data collected meet the needs of diverse stakeholders and help to realize the social benefits of achieving the SDGs.

CHAPTER 3

MONITORING GENDER EQUALITY IN THE 2030 AGENDA

CONTENTS

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INTRODUCTION	72	ALL 17 GOALS FROM A GENDER EQUALITY PERSPECTIVE	76

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.



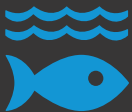
SDG 16

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.



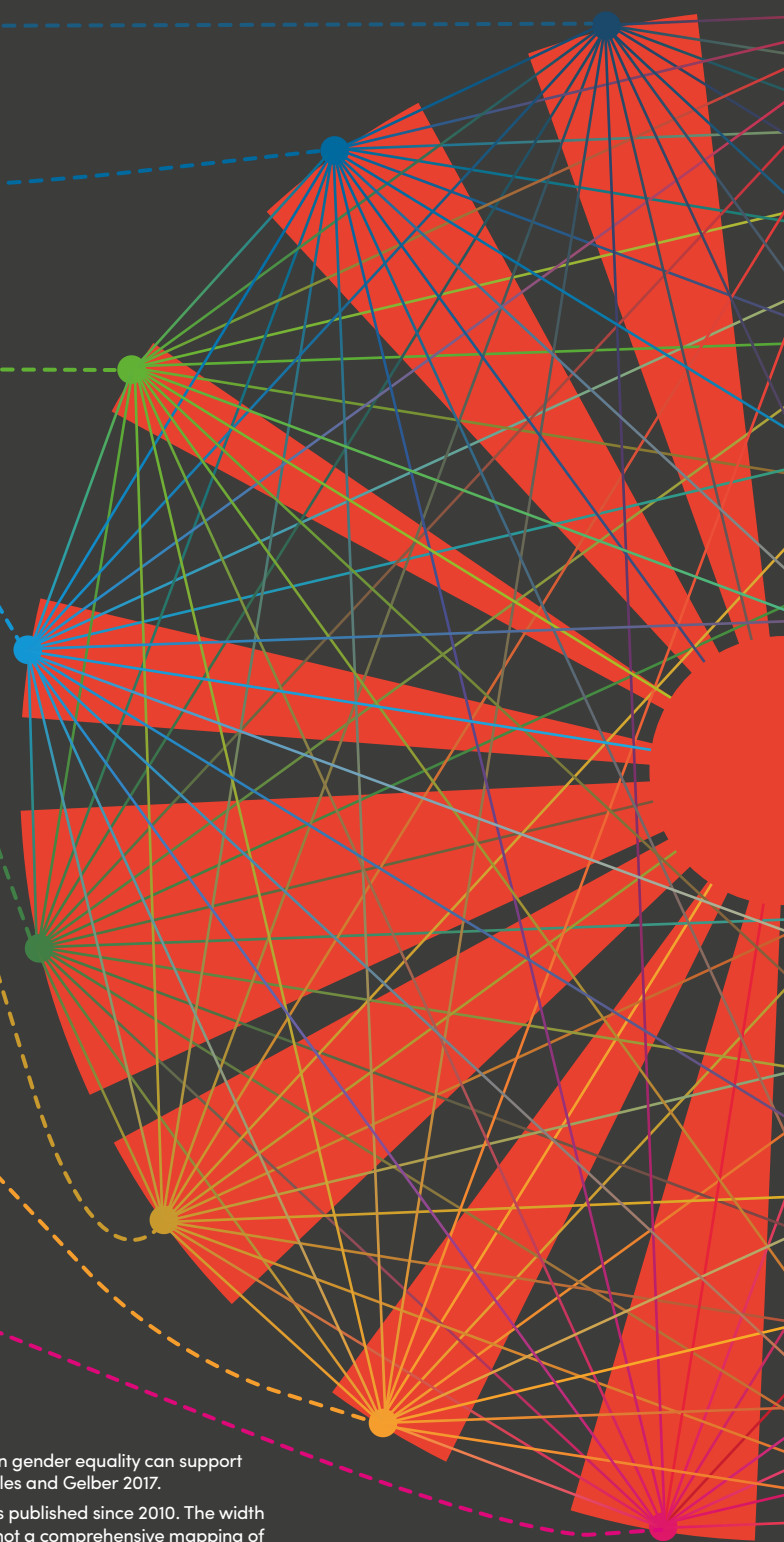
SDG 11

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



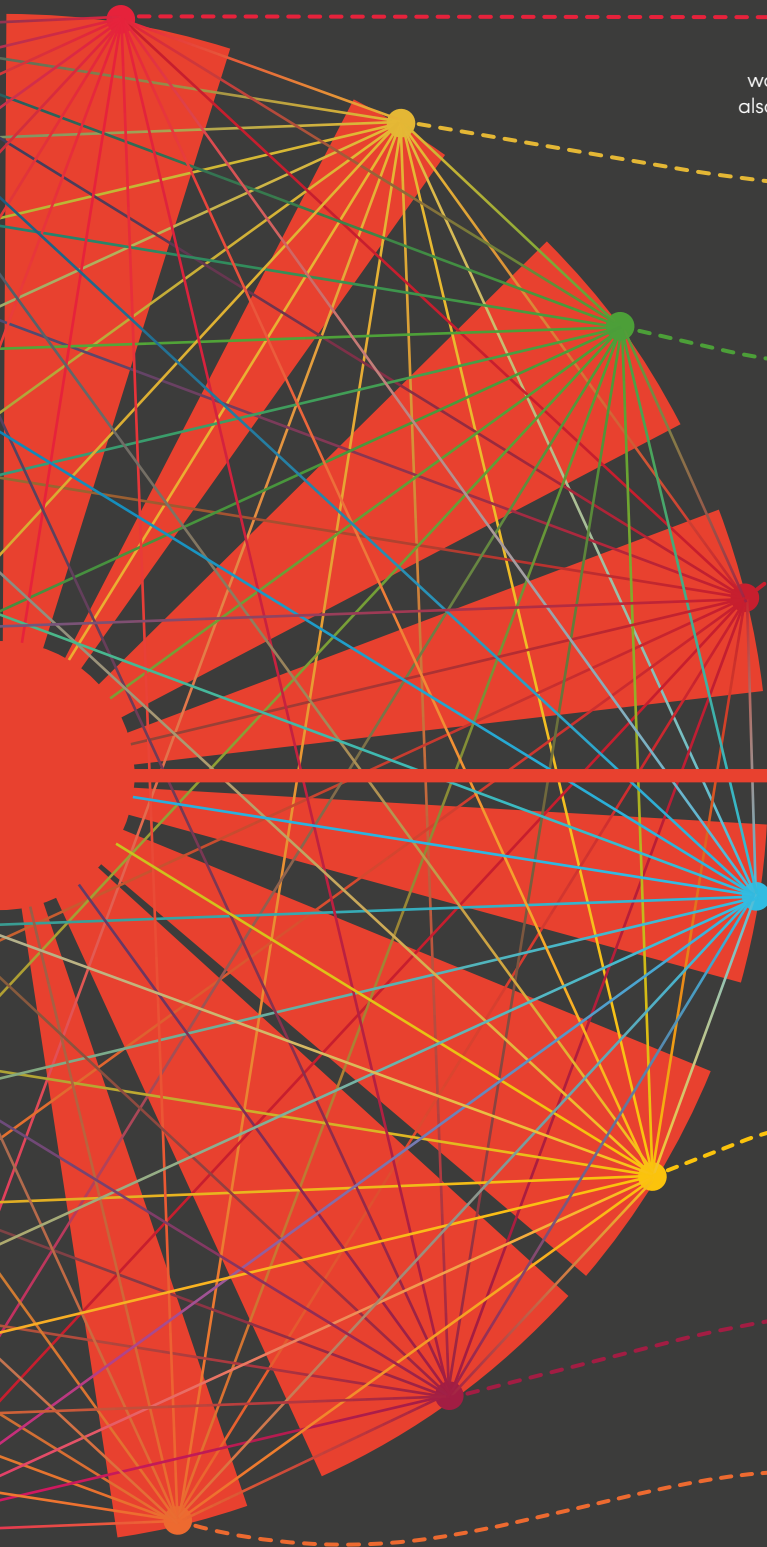
SDG 10

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 poverty⁷

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 figures⁸ 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

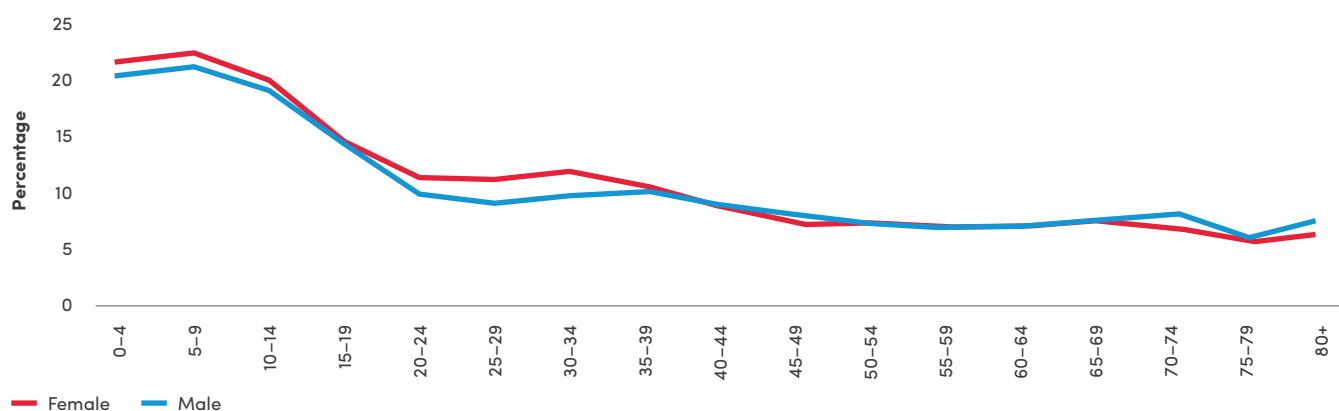
At the regional level, extreme poverty rates are higher among women than among men in Central and Southern Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand) and sub-Saharan Africa. In Eastern and South-eastern Asia,

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



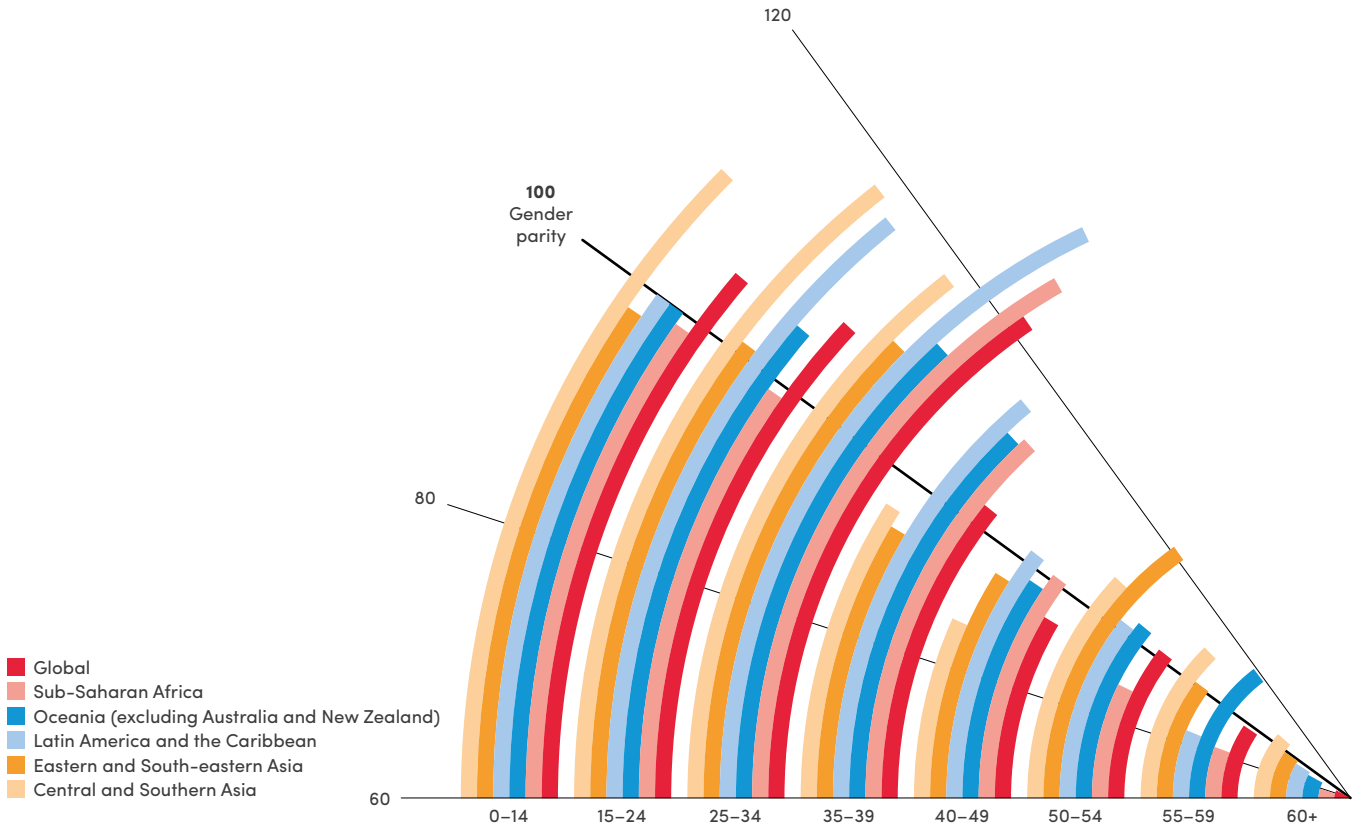
Source: World Bank calculations using Global Micro Database 2017, see UN Women and World Bank forthcoming.

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: $\frac{\sum (\text{female in poor households})}{\sum (\text{male in poor households})} / \frac{\sum (\text{female in all households})}{\sum (\text{male in all households})}$. 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.



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

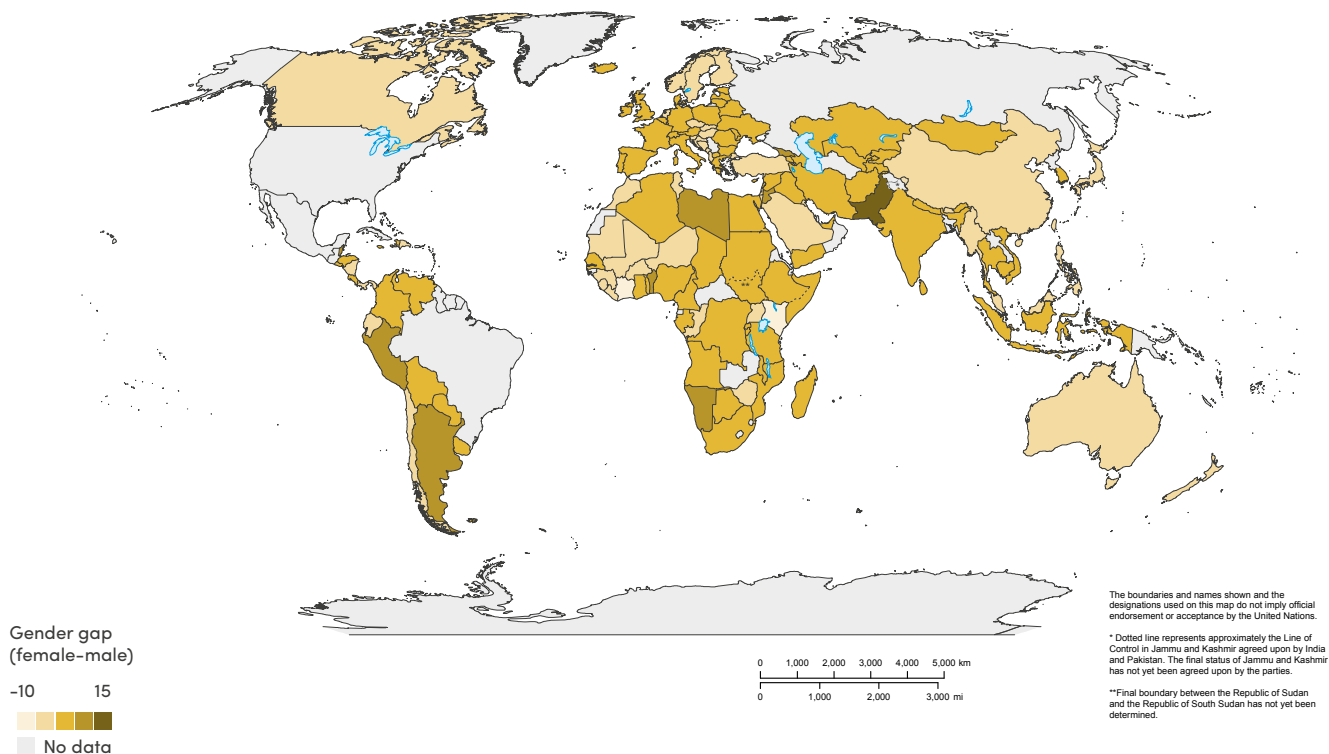
Data collected by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)—using the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) in the context of the Voices of the Hungry project for 141 countries in 2014 and 2015—show that women are more likely to report food insecurity in nearly two thirds of the countries.¹⁹ Across 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



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



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

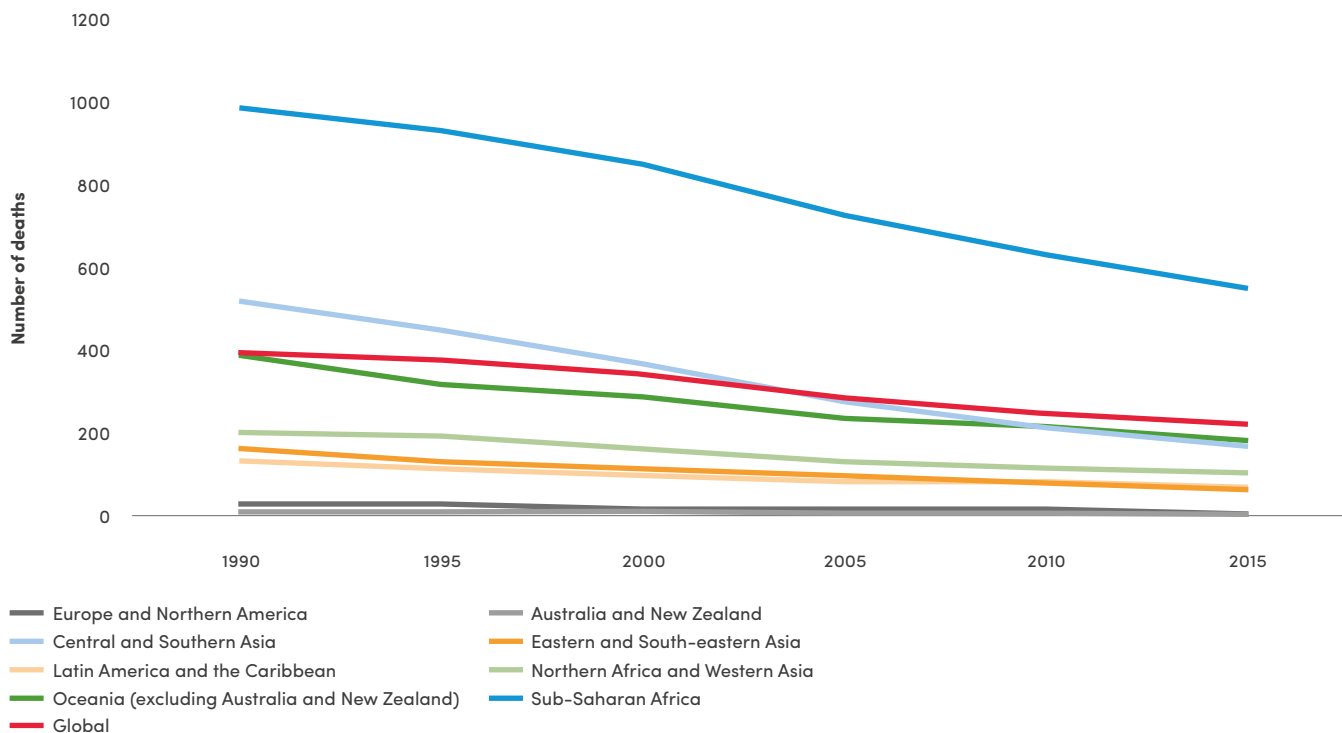
Maternal mortality has declined since 1990, but much too slowly to achieve Target 3.1 by 2030

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

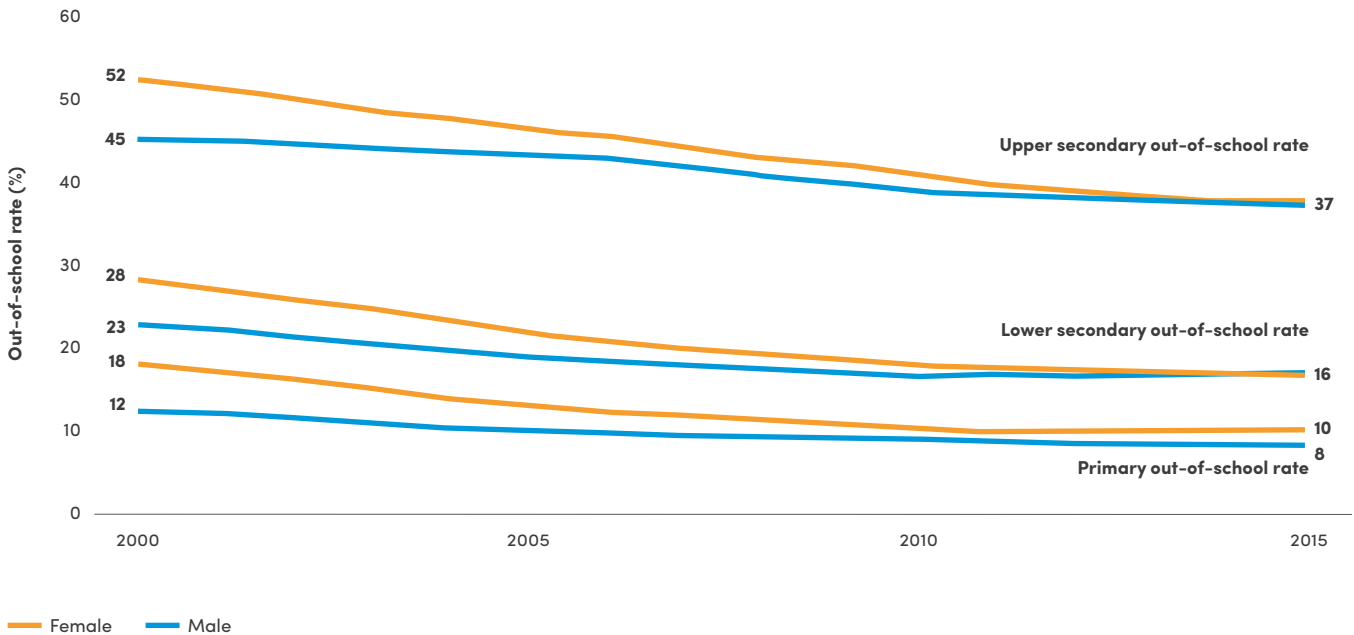
Despite recent progress, girls continue to face significant disadvantages in education: As many as 48.1 per cent remain out of school in some regions

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.

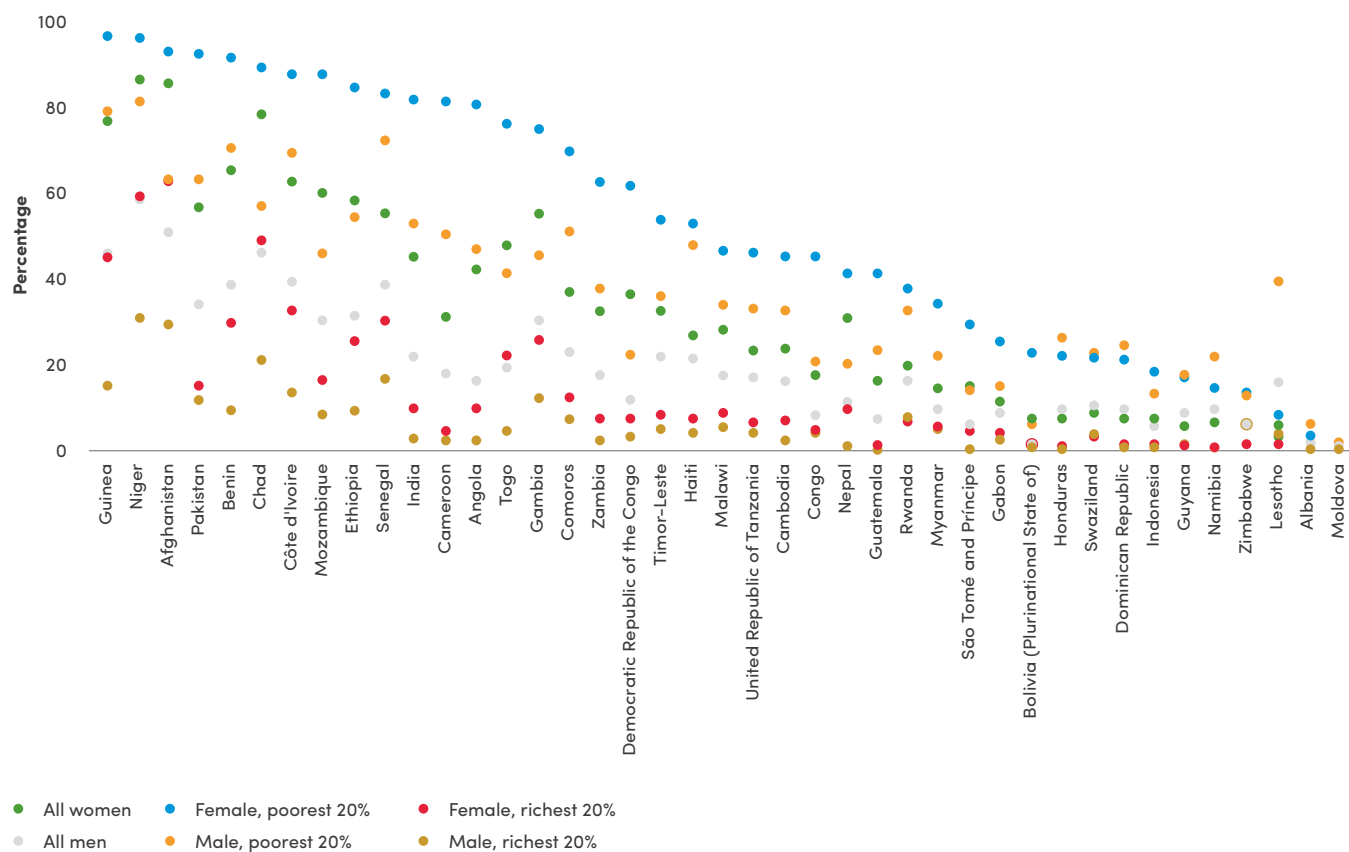
Note: For all age groups, the UIS uses the same definition of 'out of school': children (about 6 to 11 years), adolescents (about 12 to 14 years) and youth (about 15 to 17 years) of primary, lower secondary and upper secondary school age who are not enrolled in formal primary, secondary or post-secondary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



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

TARGET 5.1

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.

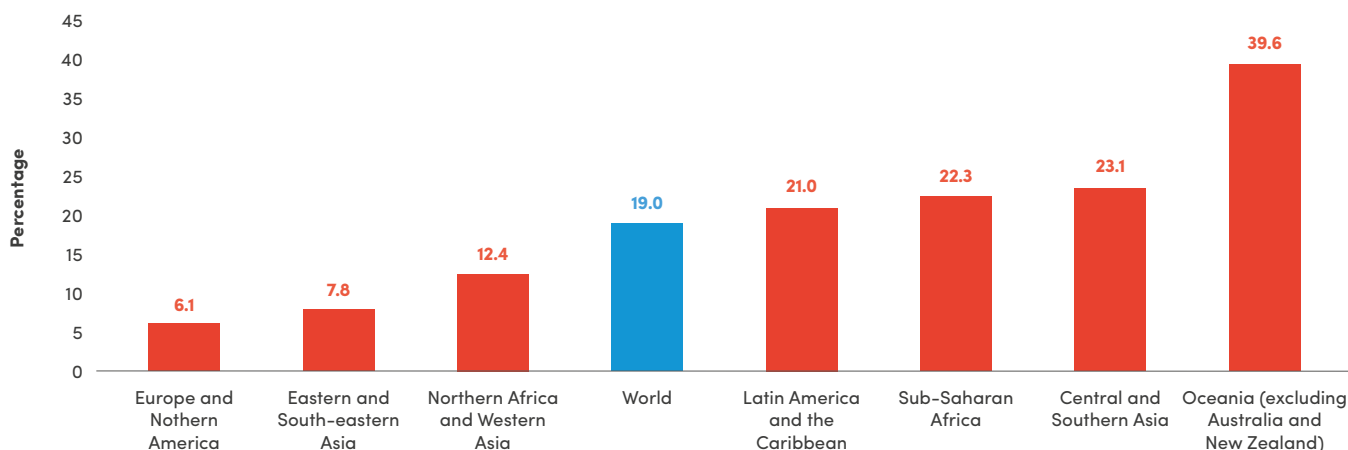
Spotlight on intimate partner violence

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.

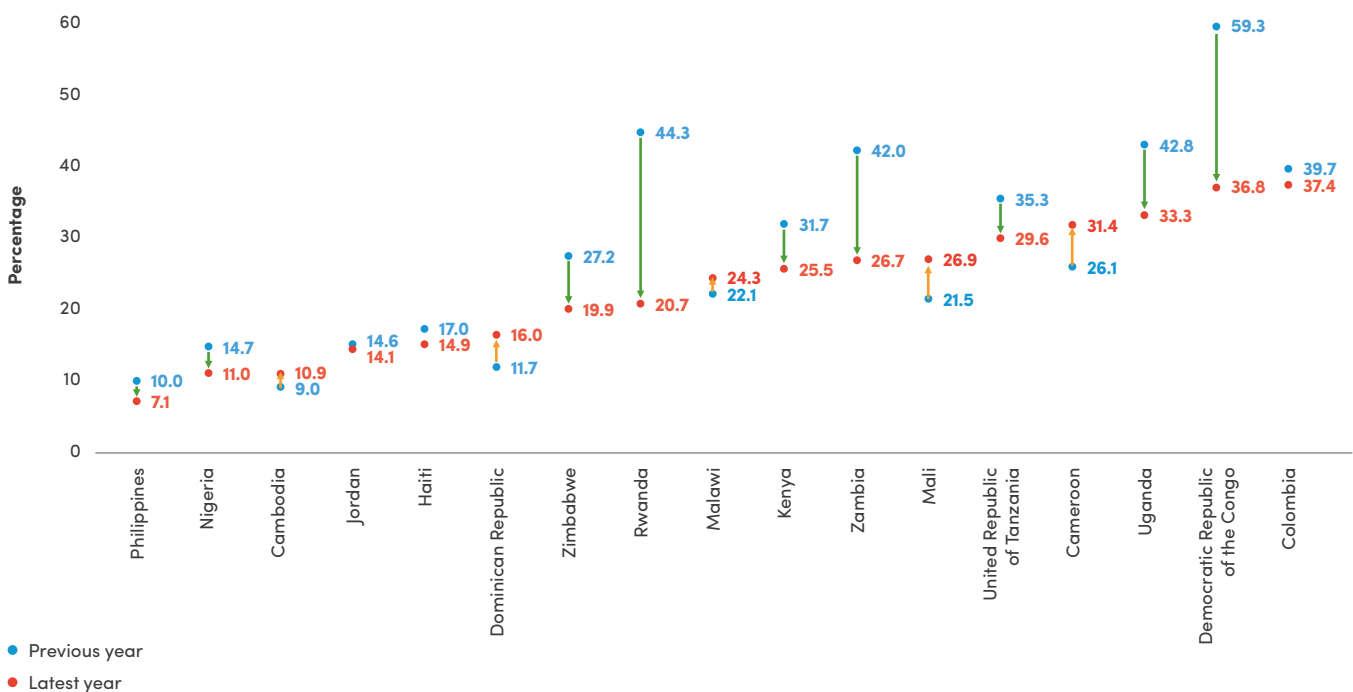
of intimate partner violence (IPV), with up to 40 per cent of women aged 15–49 reporting having experienced this. Women in the same age group living in Europe and Northern America had the lowest prevalence rate, estimated at 6 per cent (see Figure 3.8).

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)



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

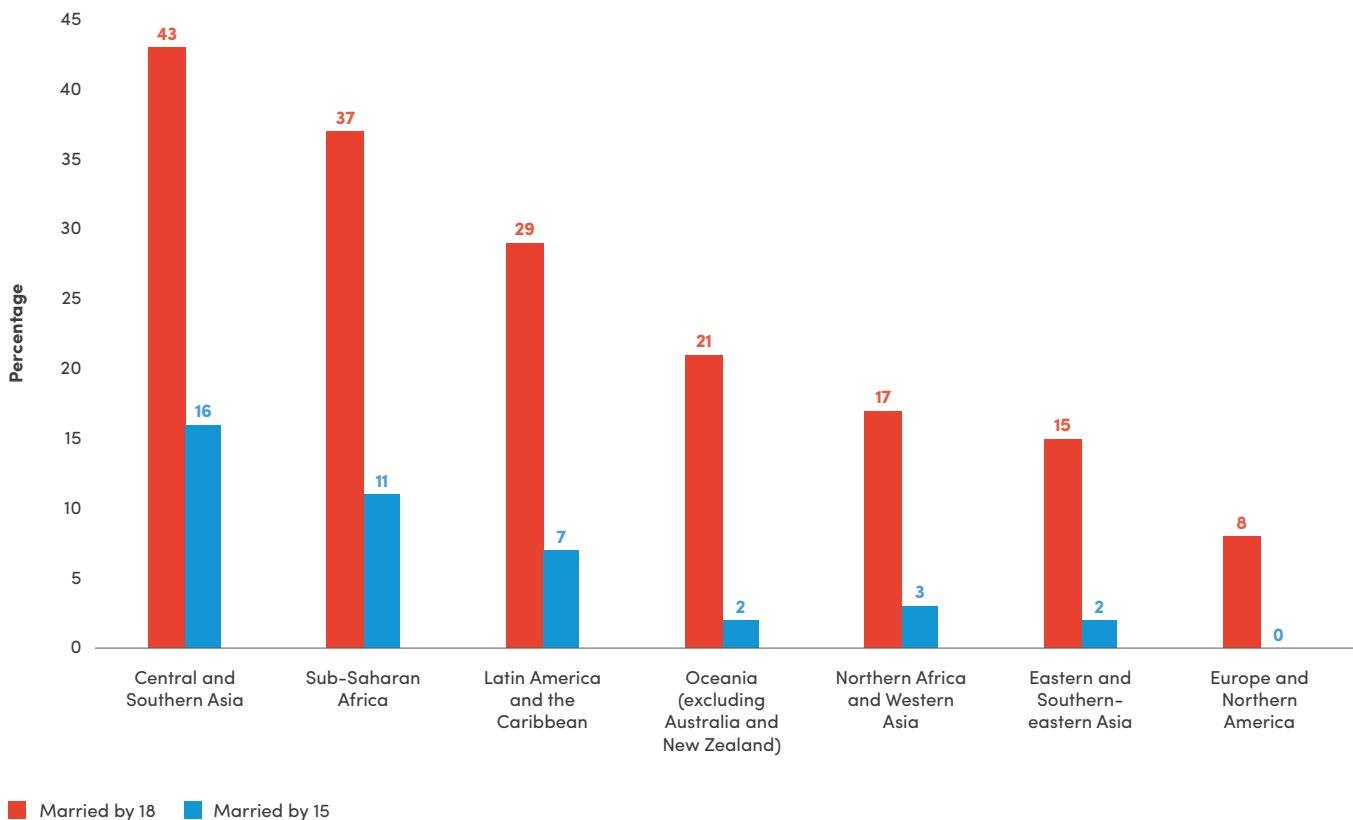
Every year, 15 million girls under the age of 18 are forced into marriage

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



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.

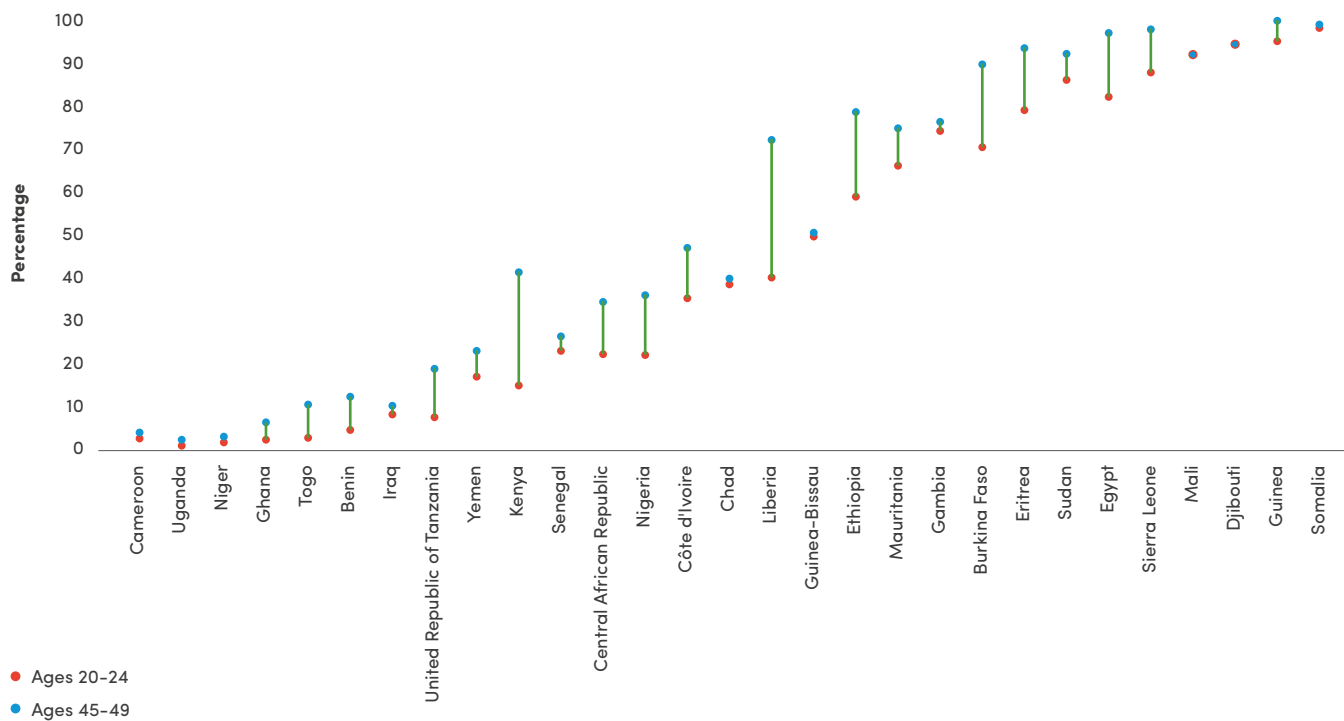
Rates of child marriage vary significantly across countries even within the same regions, likely as the result of a combination of factors including poverty, limited opportunities for girls and gender norms and traditions.⁵⁶ In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, rates vary from a high of 76 per cent in 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



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.

TARGET 5.4

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

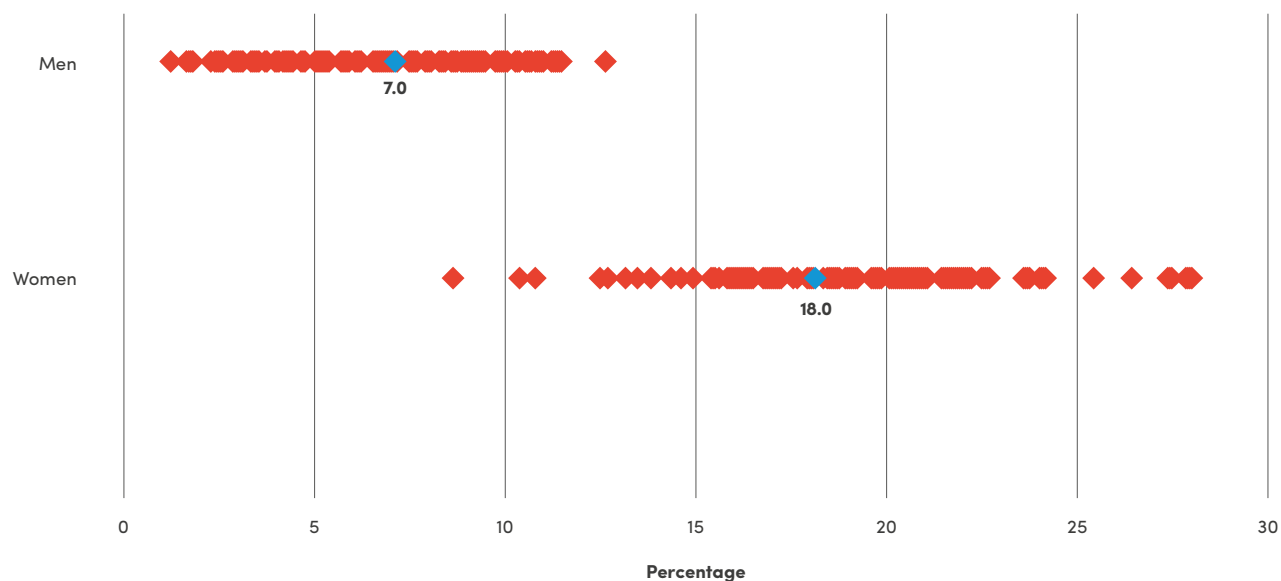
data are available, the evidence points to women with younger children doing more unpaid work, including care work, than those without children.⁶⁴ Differences among women also vary by other factors including household income, whether there is access to drinking water and fuel in the home, and policies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

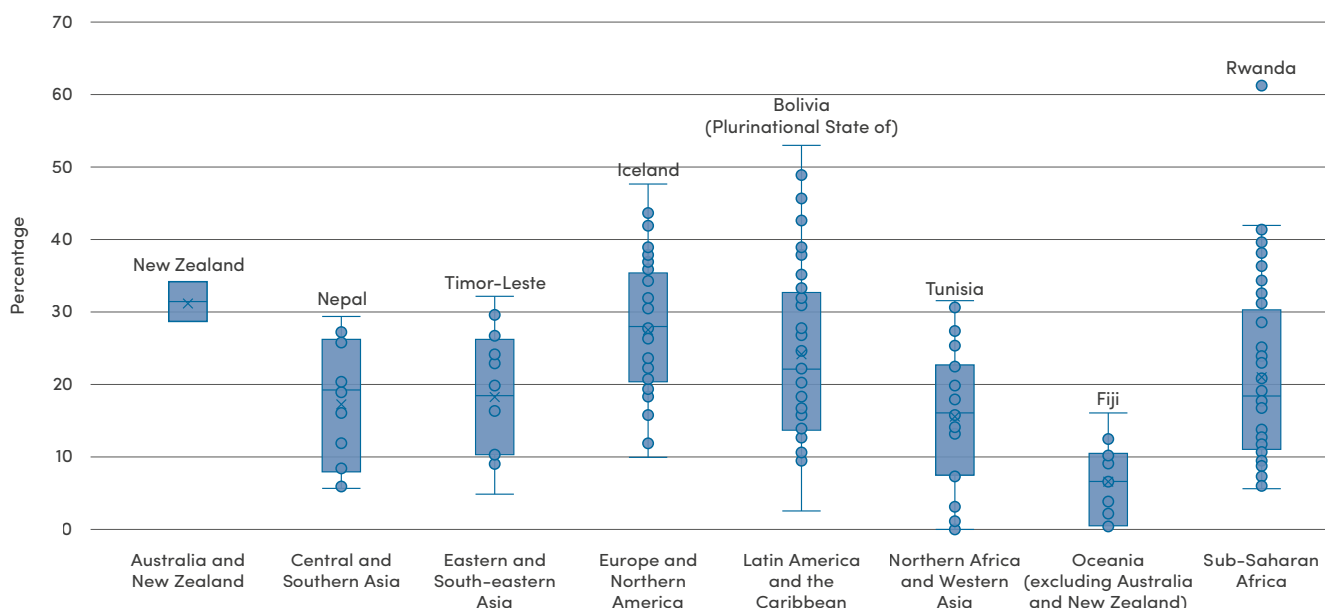
While there has been progress over the last decade, women continue to be under-represented in parliaments worldwide (see Figure 3.13). Globally, women hold 23.7 per cent of parliamentary seats, an increase of 10 percentage points since 2000.⁶⁸ At the country level, only in Rwanda (61 per cent) and the 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).

BOX 3.2

WOMEN IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT: UGANDA CASE STUDY

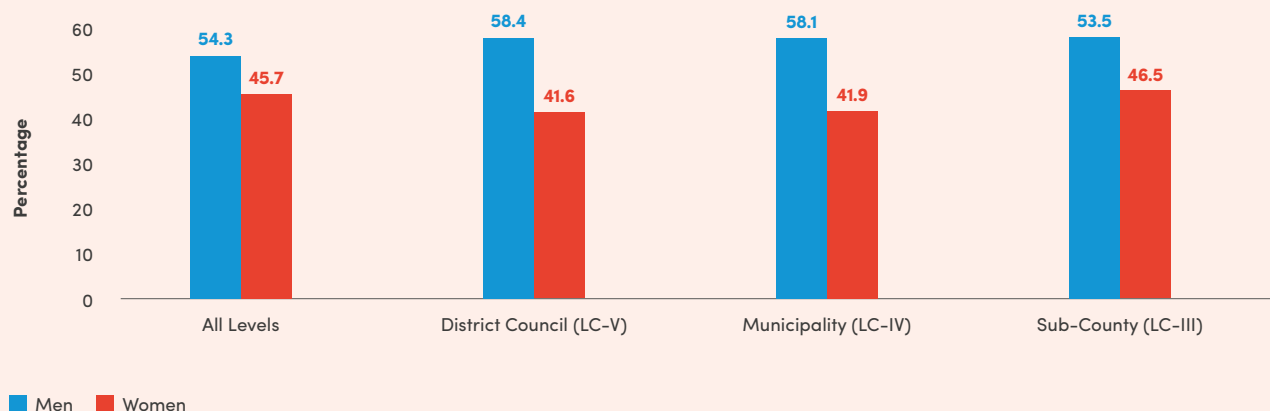
In response to data requirements for monitoring national progress towards the achievement of the SDGs and the goals in its National Development Plan (NDP II), the Government of Uganda recently adopted a set of National Priority Gender Equality Indicators. The process was coordinated by the Uganda Bureau 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

FIGURE 3.14

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.

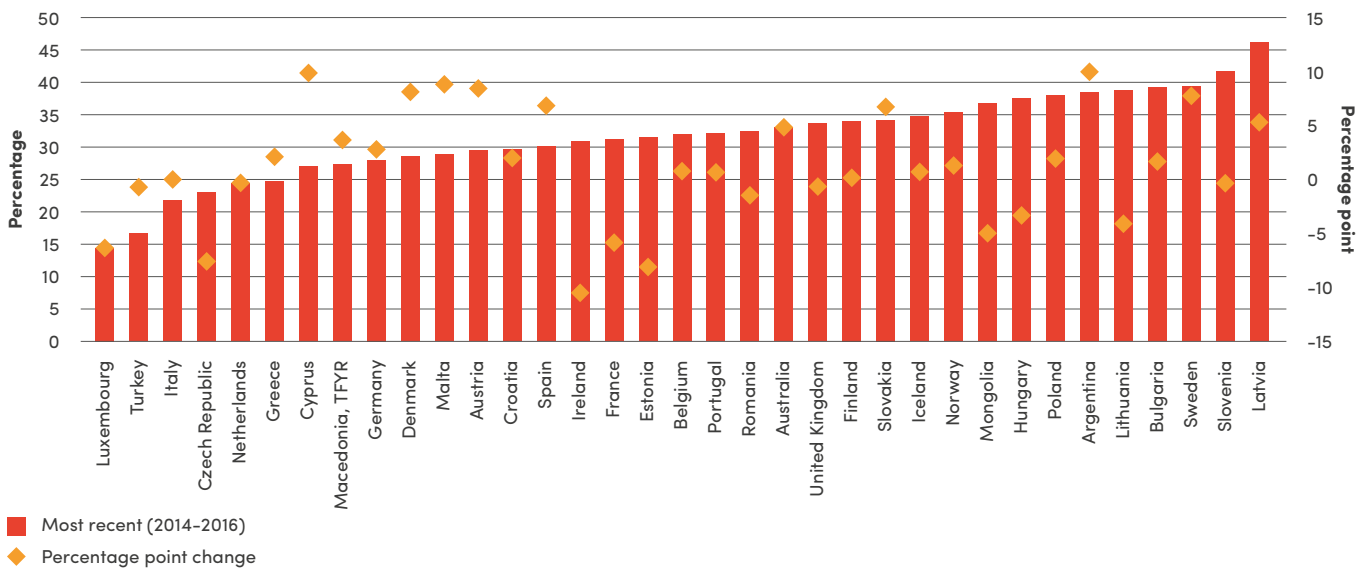
Spotlight on women in managerial positions

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

FIGURE 3.15

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



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

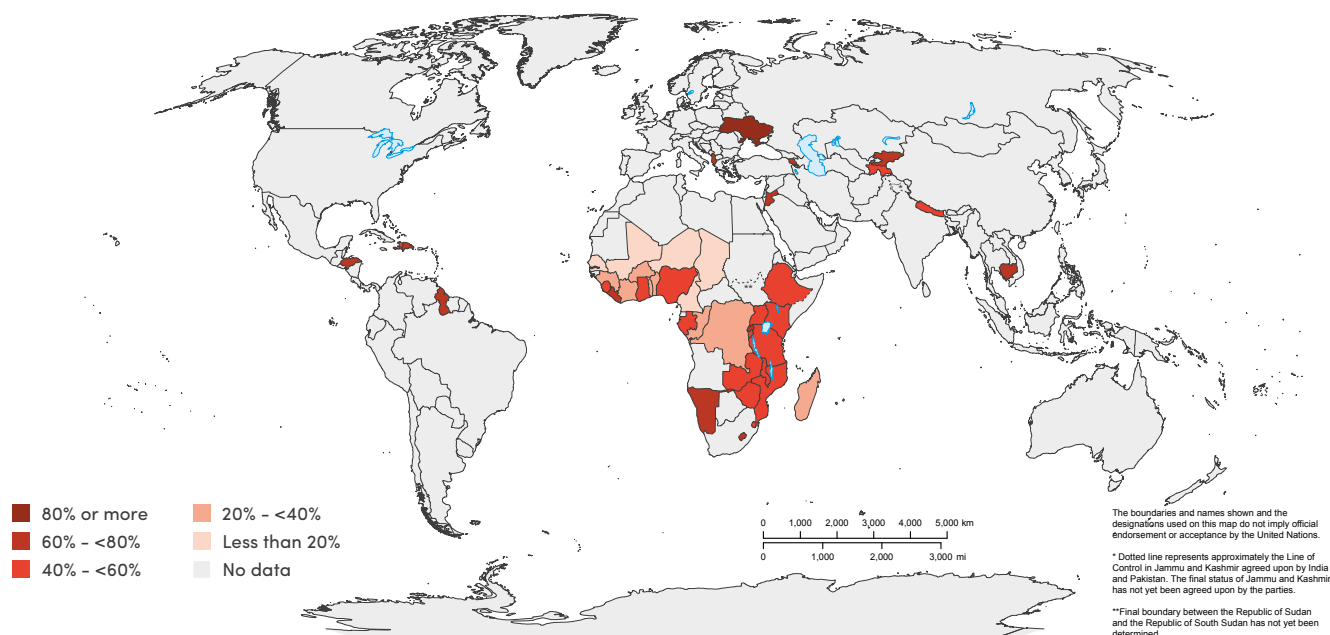
At present, there is no comprehensive global database on laws regarding sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights (see Chapter 2), but data on women's autonomy in decision-making regarding their sexual and reproductive health and rights are available for a subset of countries. Based on data 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



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

TARGET 5.a

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

TARGET 5.b

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 phone⁸¹—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.

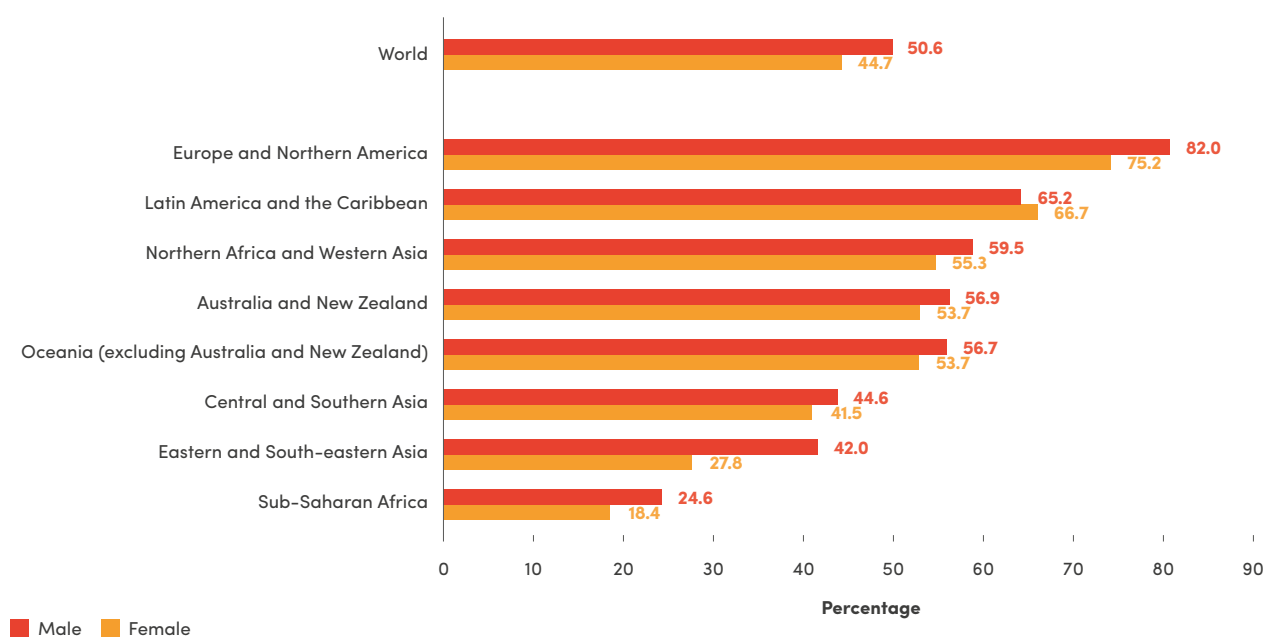
Women in developing countries also report feeling more independent and safer with a mobile phone, although harassment from strangers via mobile phones is a concern.⁸⁴

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



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-country⁸⁶ 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.



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 billions 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

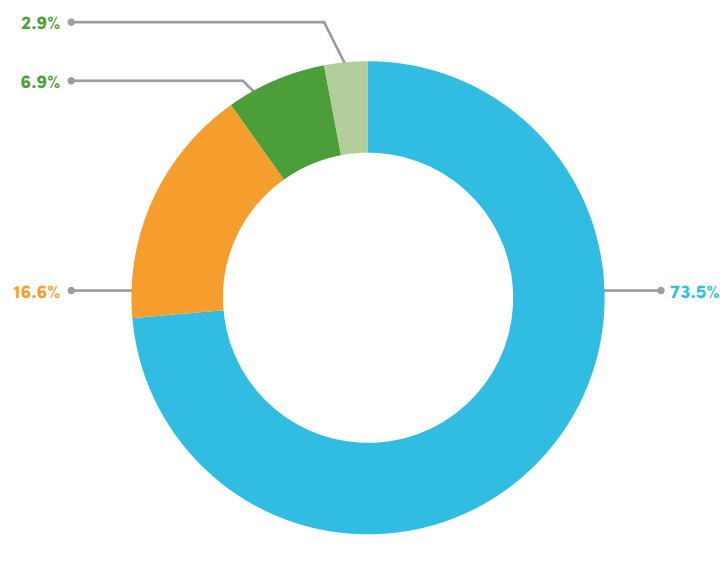
Measurement challenges

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



Source: WHO and UNICEF 2017b.

Note: Data refer to latest available 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

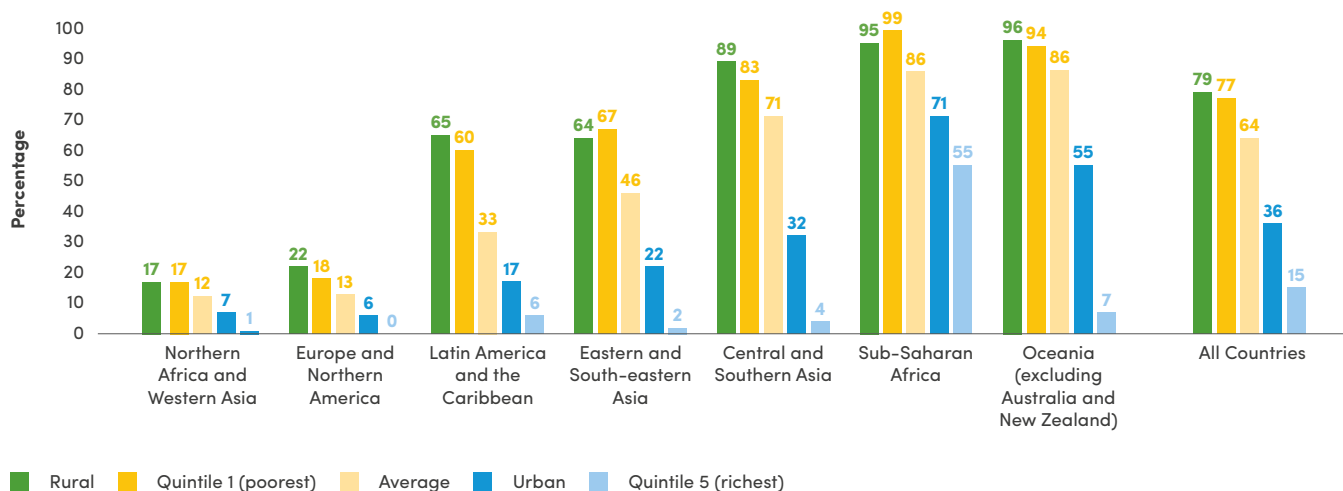
More than half of all households globally rely on solid fuels that put women's health and livelihoods at risk

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

FIGURE 3.19

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

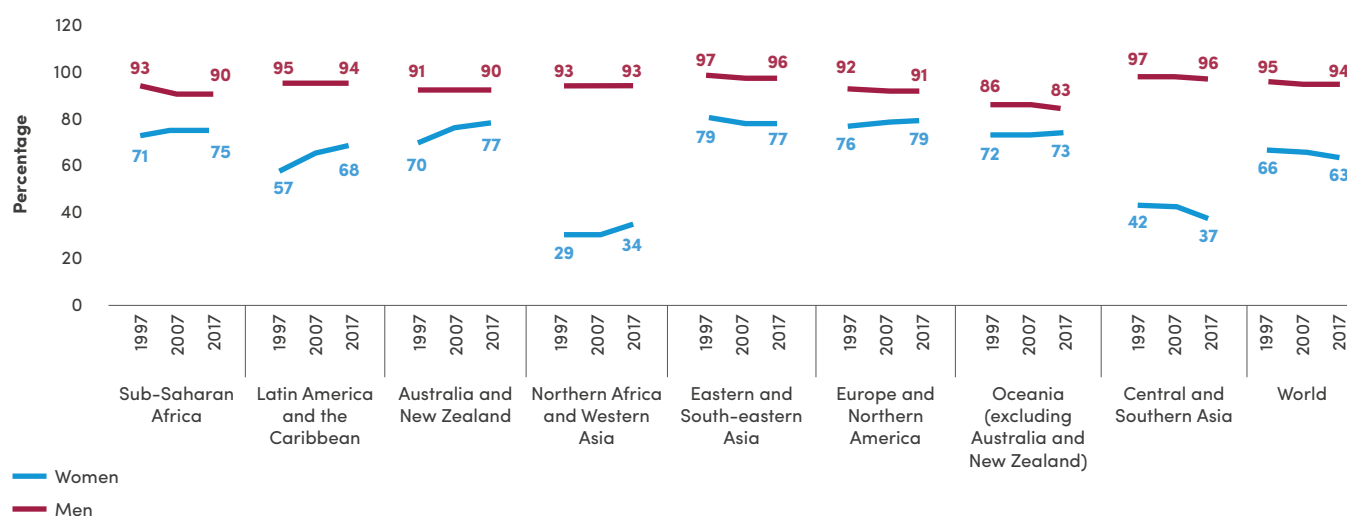
Globally, the labour force participation rate among prime working-age women (aged 25–54) stands at 63 per cent compared to 94 per cent among their male counterparts, with stark variations across regions

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

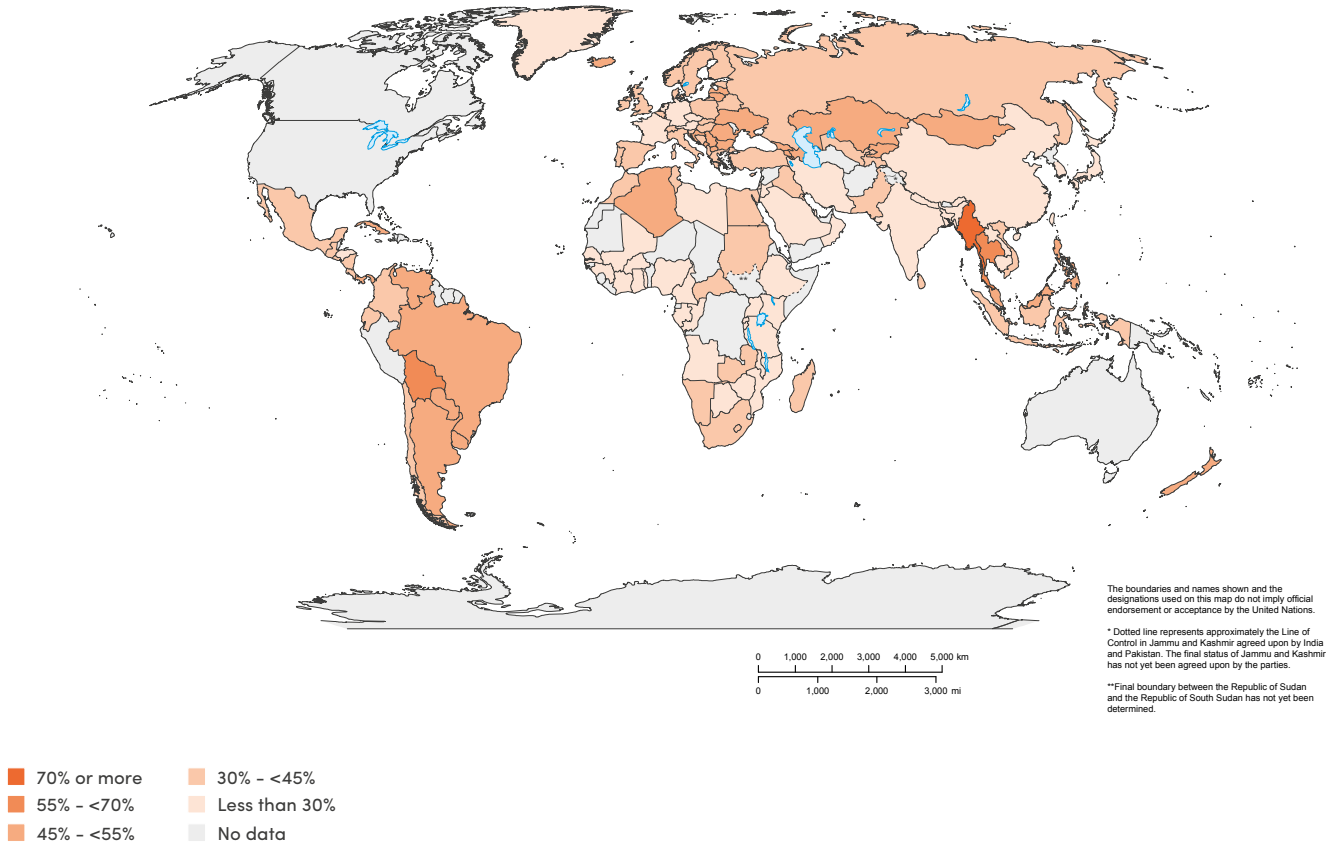
Globally, less than a third of all research positions are held by women

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.

FIGURE 3.21

SHARE OF FEMALE RESEARCHERS BY COUNTRY, 1999-2015



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



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.

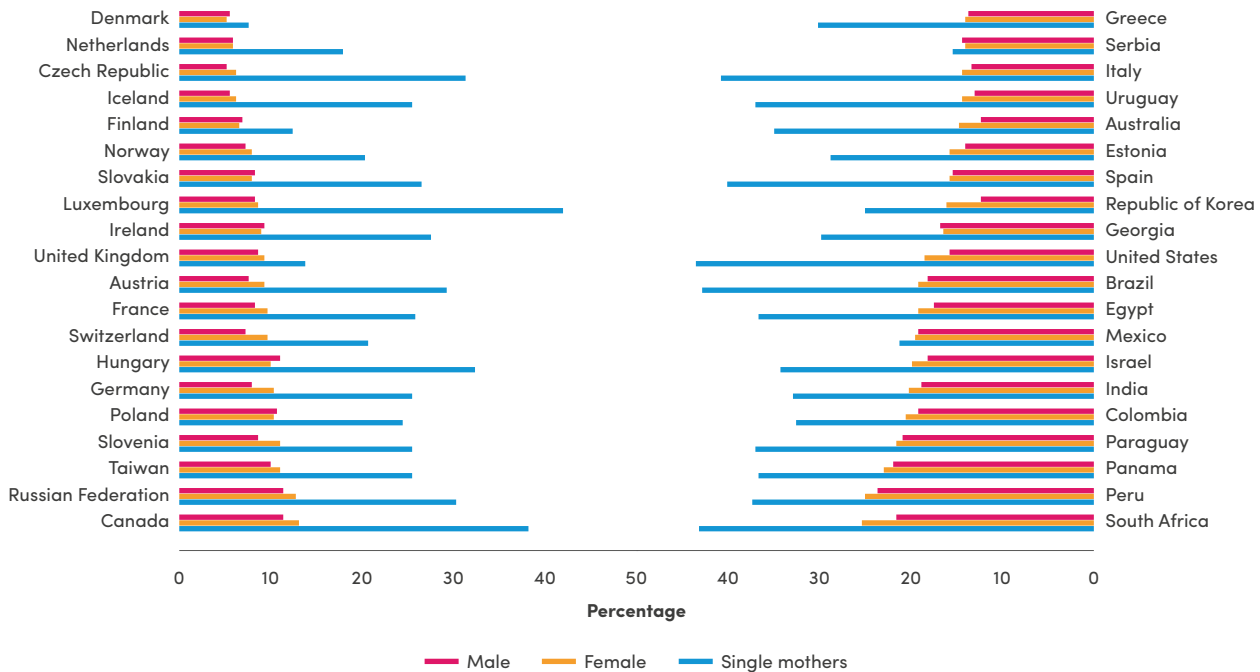
Figure 3.22 shows the differences by sex in the proportion of people living on less than 50 per cent of the median income for a select set of countries for which data are available. The largest gender differences are found in the Republic of Korea, South Africa and the United States. In all the countries 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.

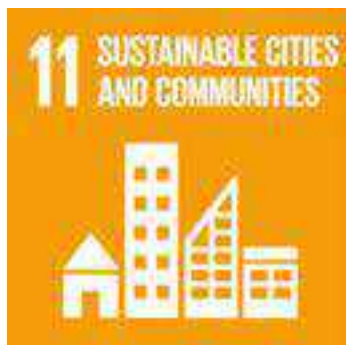
FIGURE 3.22

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.

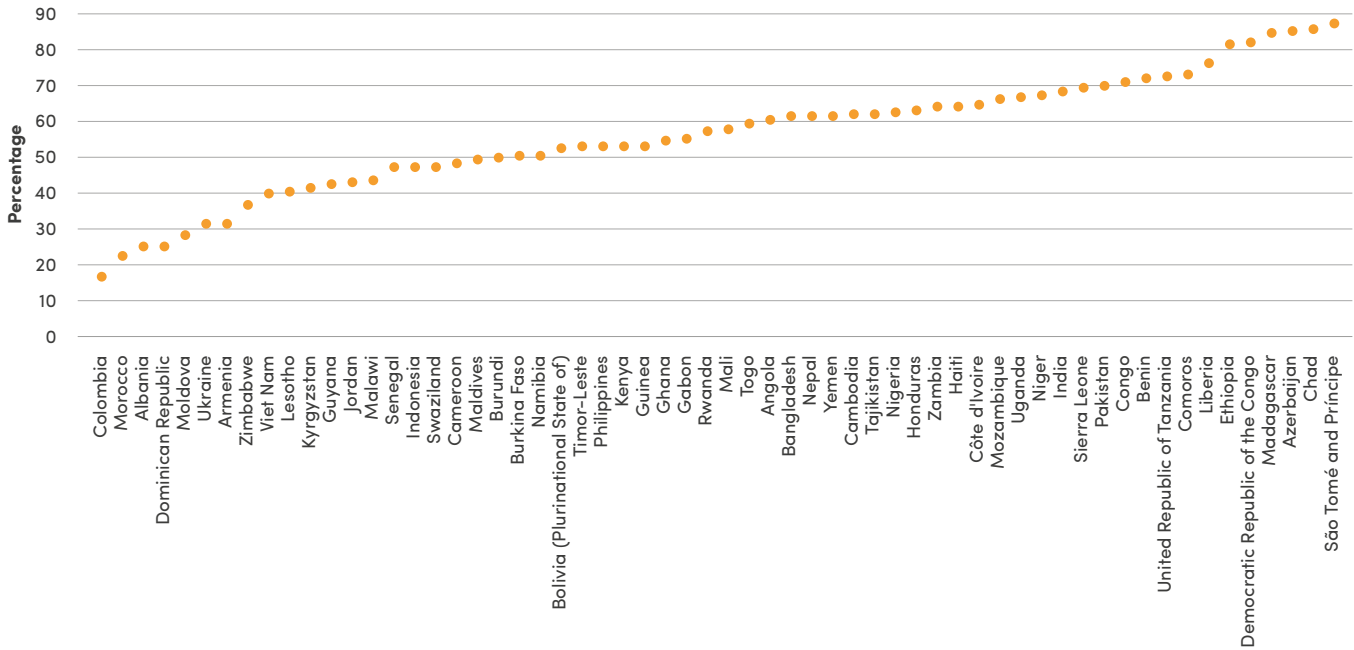
Spotlight on urban slums

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



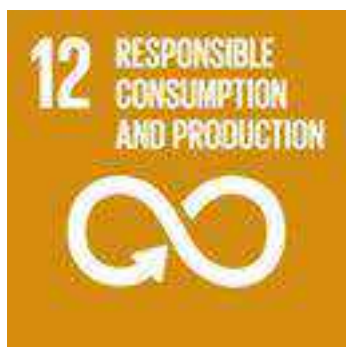
Sources: UN Women calculation based on microdata from DHS for 60 developing countries, latest available year.

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.



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

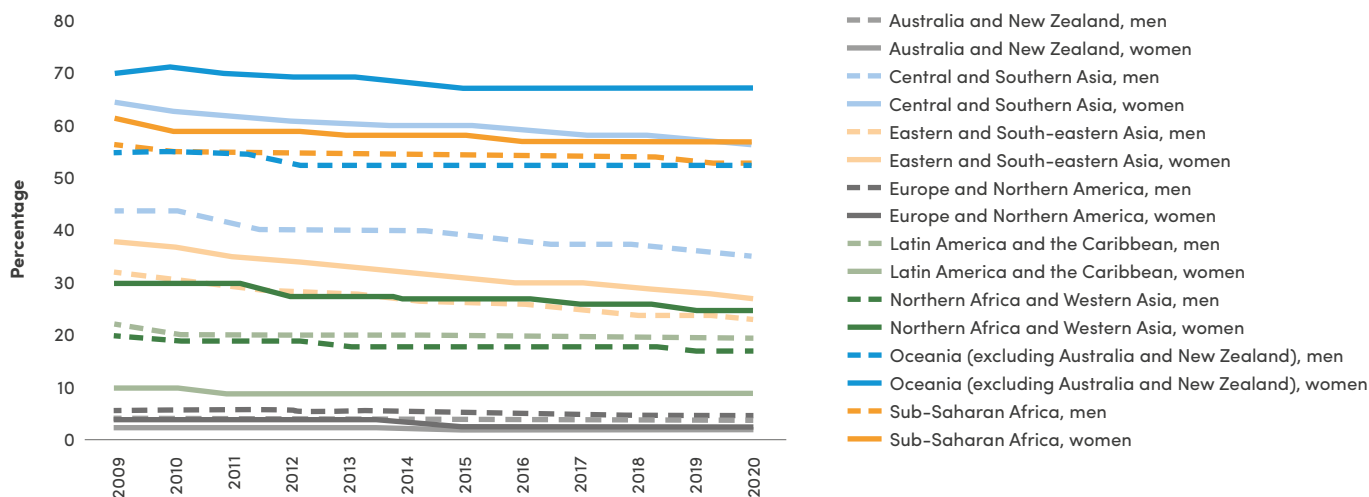
Poor women's livelihoods are compromised by shrinking agricultural yields

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 collection¹⁴⁵ (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

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

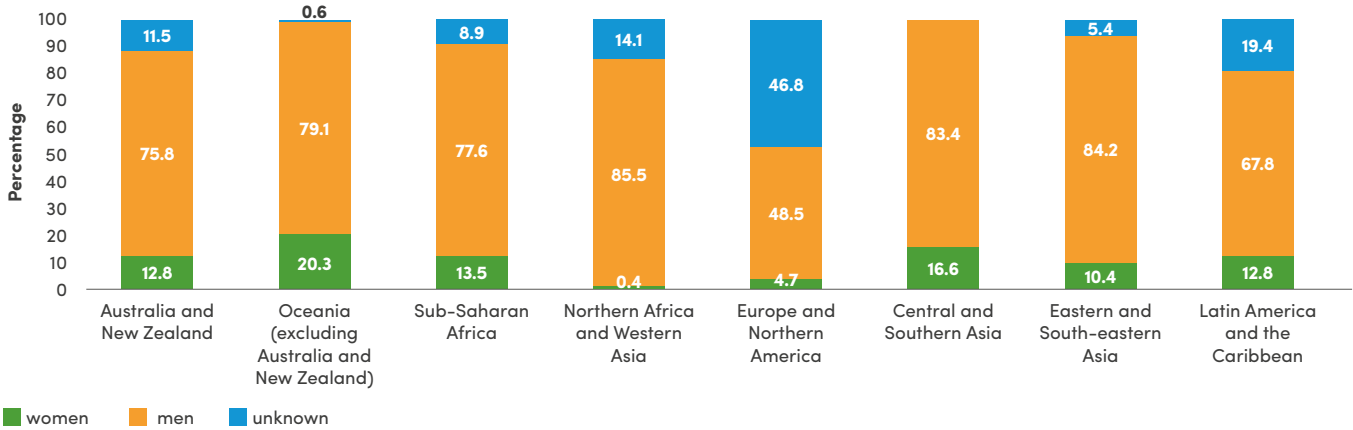
Widespread occupational segregation exists in the fishing and aquaculture industries. While men are mostly involved in fish and aquaculture harvesting (81 per cent of workers in 2014), women are overwhelmingly involved in secondary fields such as fish processing, marketing and fishing machinery maintenance (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.

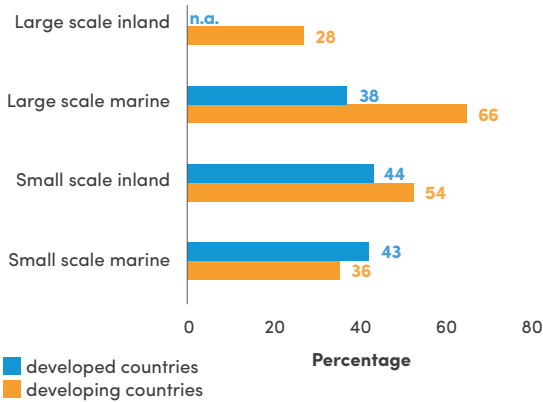
FIGURE 3.25

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

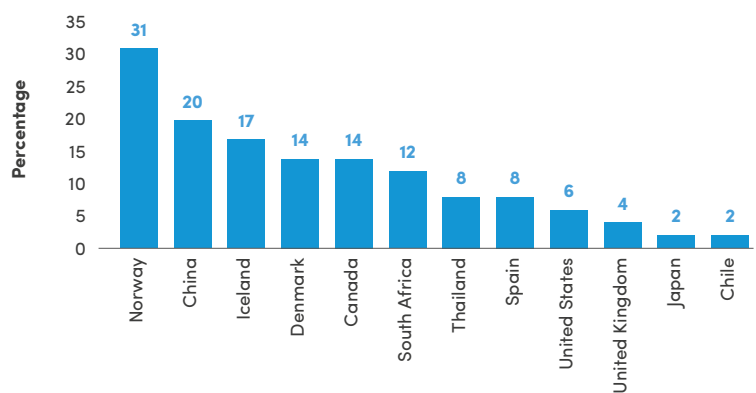
Proportion of people working in fisheries and aquaculture by sex, 2009–2015



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

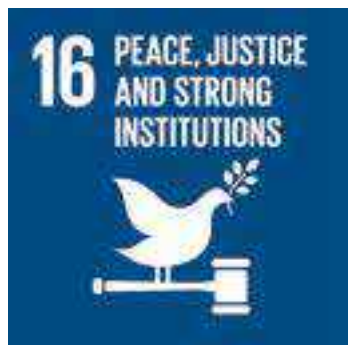
MAIN POTENTIAL BENEFITS, USE AND COSTS OF FOREST, BY SEX

 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

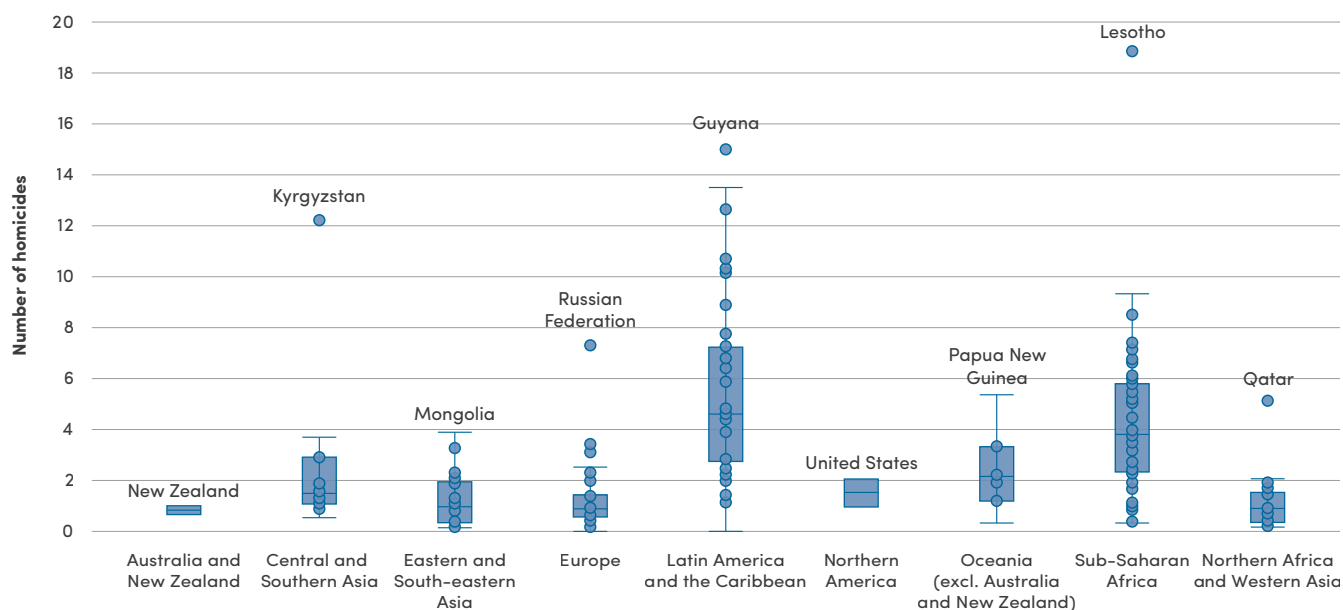
Female homicides, rape and other forms of violence against women are pervasive during and after conflict

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 available 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

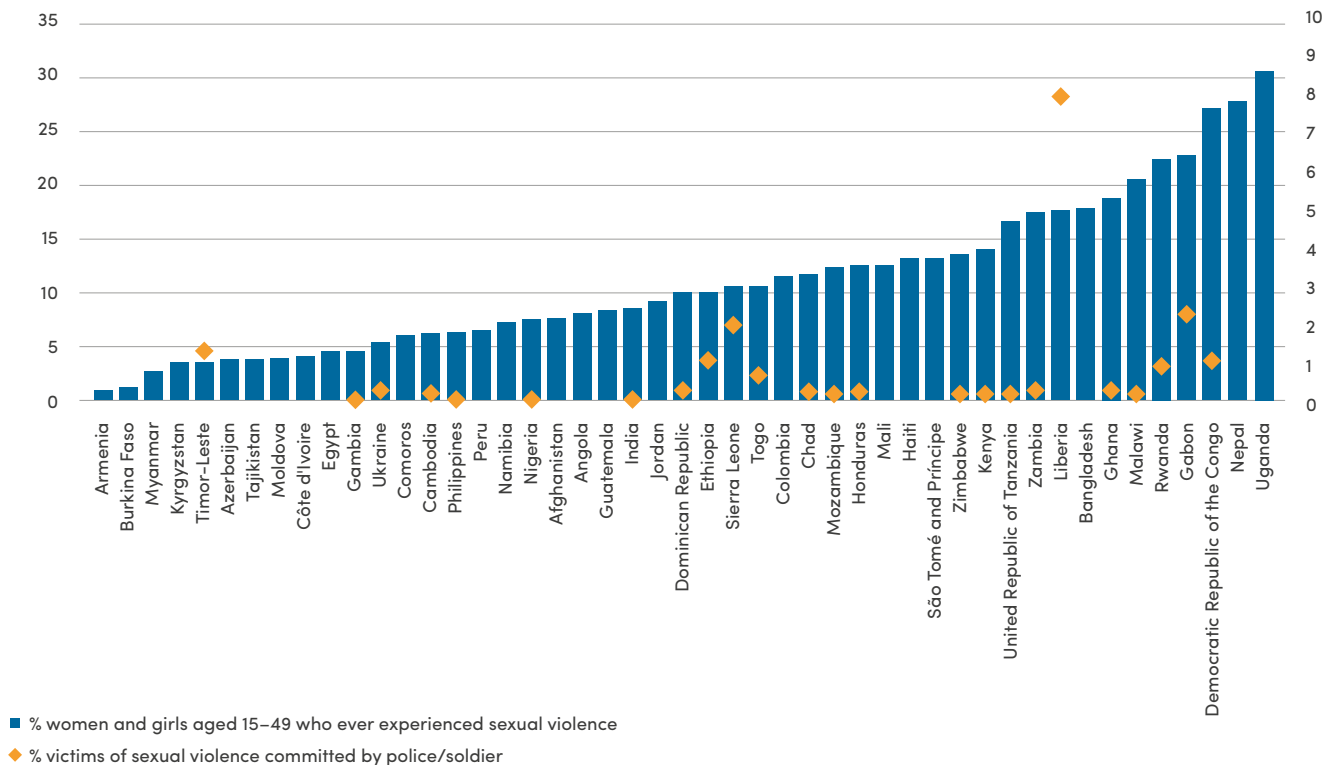
perpetrator, including the sex and relationship to the victim, as well as the cause of death continues to be a major challenge and is not done consistently. Enhancing crime and criminal justice data, as well as health registry data, to capture these dimensions is essential to obtain reliable homicide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



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

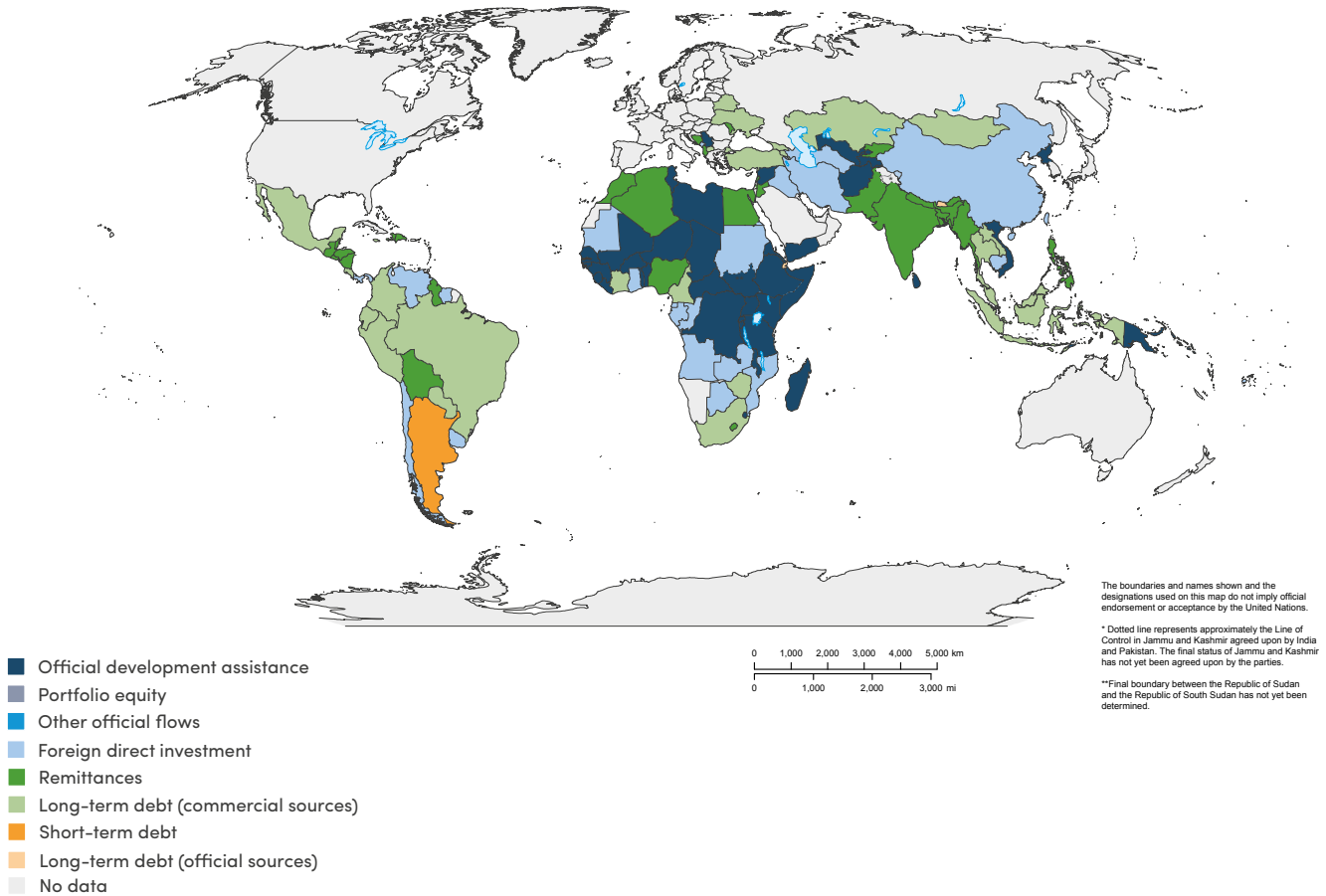
Target 17.3 calls for increased mobilization of financial resources for developing countries. Monitoring this target from a gender equality perspective requires assessing the extent to which financial resources from multiple sources are being mobilized to support developing countries and how much of 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



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).

CHAPTER 4

BEYOND THE AVERAGES: WHO IS BEING LEFT BEHIND?

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KEY MESSAGES

1/ Leaving no one behind means the benefits of sustainable development reach everyone. Currently, however, across countries, it is those women and girls who experience multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination who are often the furthest behind. They fare worse than all other groups in key dimensions of well-being.

2/ The factors that contribute to their disadvantage do not operate in isolation. Differences related to wealth, location and ethnicity, for example, combine to create deep pockets of deprivation across a range of SDGs—from access to education and health to clean water and decent work.

3/ Other forms of discrimination based on gender identity, migratory status and disability are also relevant. They transcend national borders and have been the topic of landmark human rights treaties and Human Rights Council resolutions, but data on women and girls that experience these forms of discrimination are often lacking.

4/ Support for the design of statistical strategies and targeted data collection instruments that adequately capture the realities of disadvantaged groups, including hidden or hard-to-reach groups—while ensuring ethical standards—is of utmost importance. This will make it possible to inform and develop policies and programmes that respond to their realities.

5/ The effort taken to define and describe inequalities across groups is a necessary first step towards challenging prevailing forms of power and inequality—which, if not addressed, will impede the universal achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals.

6/ Increased production, use and availability of high quality gender statistics is essential. But disaggregation by sex alone is insufficient. Identifying the furthest behind requires simultaneous disaggregation by multiple dimensions, including by income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migration status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant to national contexts.

INTRODUCTION

The commitment to “leave no one behind” is at the heart of the 2030 Agenda. It refers to the promise that, in implementing the Agenda, world leaders would endeavour to deliver a more just and equitable world for everyone, with the needs of the most disadvantaged addressed as a matter of priority. From a gender perspective, translating the 2030 Agenda into action will require ensuring that all women and girls enjoy equal rights and opportunities regardless of where they live and their age, class, ability, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity, migration or other status.

Currently, however, this is not the case anywhere in the world. Many women and girls face multiple forms of discrimination based on aspects of their identity that differentiate them from more advantaged population groups. These women and girls face specific disadvantages in accessing resources, services and opportunities. Yet, because progress is often measured in the aggregate, these disadvantages are not always visible in official statistics. The first step in putting the ‘leave no one behind’ principle into practice is therefore to identify who are the most marginalized and how they fare on key markers of well-being, particularly in comparison to other groups in society.

Against this backdrop, the analysis undertaken in this chapter focuses on identifying inequalities among women and girls in four countries: Colombia, Nigeria, Pakistan and the United States. Each case study looks at 10 SDG-related outcome areas (6 in the case of the United States). The results point to wide inequalities in women’s experience across and within countries and illustrate the interdependent nature of the SDGs. They show that women and girls who are

deprived in one dimension are often more likely to experience deprivations in other dimensions as well. The intensity of these deprivations is greatest among women facing multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination—it is they who are being left behind.

Replicating this type of analysis for other countries requires quality, timely and reliable micro-level data on the populations most at risk of being left behind. In addition, among other strategies, combining data from existing sources and using more sophisticated sampling techniques (including the purposive study of disadvantaged populations) can strengthen the evidence base on disadvantaged groups. Moreover, data and statistics on groups that remain largely invisible in official statistics—such as women and girls with disabilities, migrant, refugee and displaced women and girls and those with diverse gender identities—should be prioritized. Ethical standards, however, must be in place to protect such groups and individuals from possible harm, intentional or otherwise.¹

The root causes of group-based inequalities are complex: Determined by underlying structural factors, they are often entrenched in economic, social and political institutions in context-specific ways. Revealing and analysing these root causes is important, but beyond the scope of this chapter. Instead, it aims to demonstrate the wealth of information that is available in existing surveys, to encourage others to undertake similar exercises in their own national context and to use descriptive statistics to open up a national dialogue on the furthest behind: Who they are, where they live and what actions are needed to enable their enjoyment of rights.

INTERSECTING FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AND CLUSTERED DEPRIVATIONS

Whereas Chapter 3 captured differences between women and men and girls and boys, this chapter puts the spotlight on inequalities among different groups of women and girls. It shows how multiple forms of discrimination interact and often result in deprivations across multiple measures of well-being. Before presenting the results of the case study analysis, the following subsections briefly describe the two key concepts that guide the analysis: The first refers to intersecting forms of discrimination, and specifically the use of disaggregated data to reveal intersectional dynamics and their relation to well-being distribution in society; the second, which we call clustered deprivations, refers to the tendency, in some cases, for deprivations to converge to produce acutely disadvantaged groups.

Measuring discrimination directly is difficult for many reasons: for one, discrimination manifests itself in direct and indirect ways. It can take the form of discriminatory laws, which are relatively easy to identify, but can also manifest in more intangible ways, through stereotypes, biased social norms and unequal distributions of power, resources and opportunities. The result is often systematic inequalities in outcomes. Not all inequalities in outcomes are the result of

discrimination, but the presence of systematic inequality among groups is a strong indication of structural barriers that create unjust advantages and disadvantages across groups. Inequalities in outcomes—the focus of this chapter—is therefore a useful proxy for measuring the impact of discrimination.²

INTERSECTING FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION

In a world where inequalities of all kinds are on the rise, disaggregation by sex alone is insufficient for monitoring outcomes among women and girls. Other forms of structural inequality intersect and compound gender-based inequalities, leaving certain groups behind across a range of development indicators. Capturing this complexity requires looking at the inequalities among women. Being female, after all, is not synonymous with being poor. It is the intersection of gender with other forms of discrimination that pushes women and girls from poor and marginalized groups behind. Developing a methodological approach that captures the confluence of these mechanisms is important

because it makes these groups of women visible from a statistical standpoint. This is an important first step towards ensuring that they are recognized and that their realities are considered in the formulation of strategies for achieving gender equality and sustainable development.

There are many challenges, however, to operationalizing a methodological approach that captures the intersection of different forms of discrimination. Data limitations are one (see Chapter 2), and identifying which forms of discrimination are relevant in each context is another. Wealth and income-based discrimination (or class-based discrimination) are understood to be relevant across countries, but other forms of discrimination are more context-specific. Figure 4.1 illustrates some of the most pervasive forms of discrimination found across societies. When these intersect with gender-based discrimination (which, as Chapter 3 shows, is pervasive across countries), they produce potent forms of disadvantage that are difficult to overcome. For a robust statistical methodology to analyze how different dimensions of social inequality interact with each other, see Sen, Iyer and Mukherjee 2009. This methodology has contributed significantly to our analysis of intersectionality.

Discrimination based on family and marital status is one example of the type of discrimination women and girls may experience at different points in their lives (see Box 4.1). In Madagascar, Mali, Uganda and Zimbabwe, for example, some of the poorest households are those that are headed by widows. For many of these women, widowhood brings with it a loss of home and property due to lack of inheritance rights. It also exposes them to sexual violence, stigma, isolation

WHAT'S HIDDEN BEHIND NATIONAL AVERAGES?

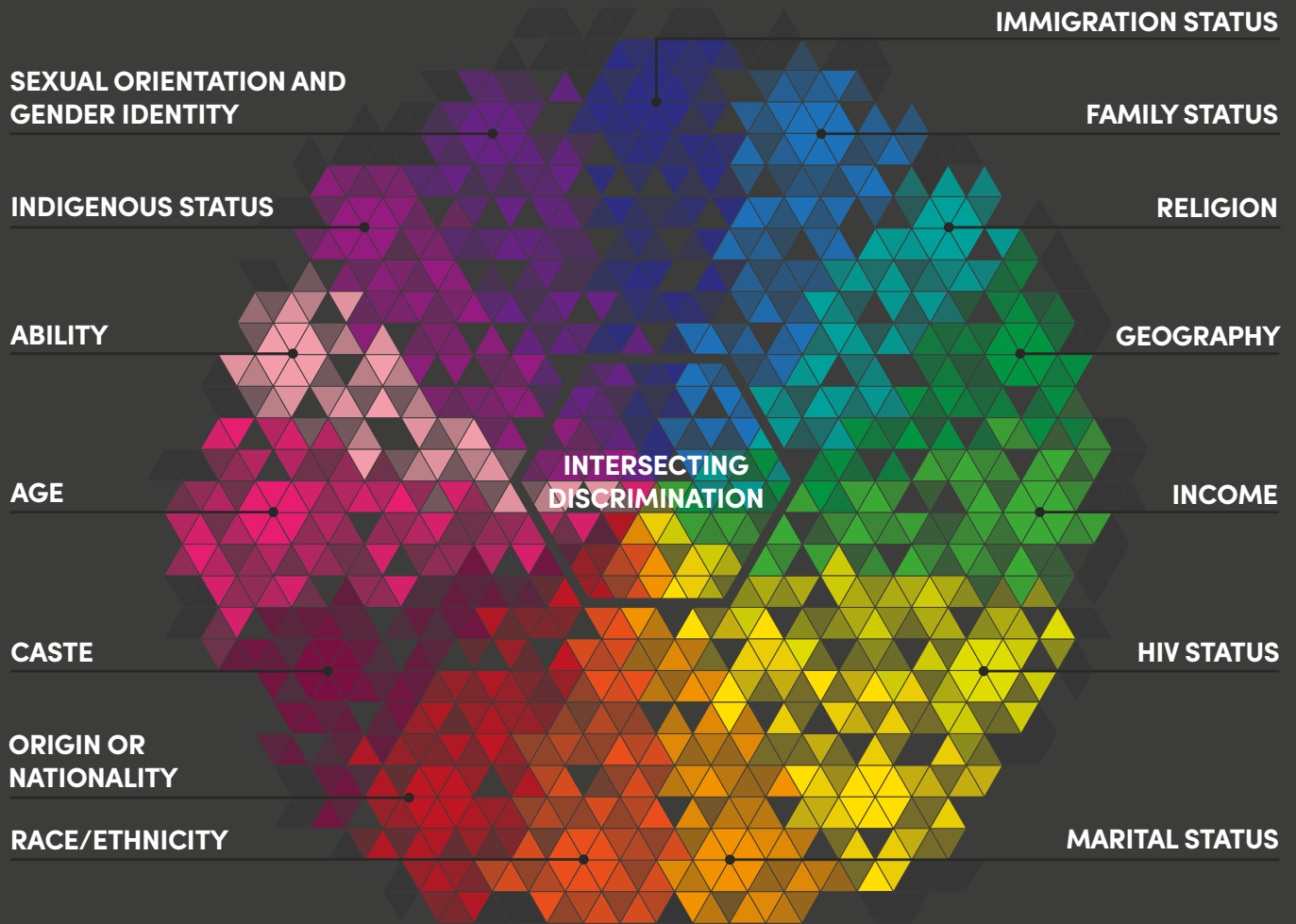
Means and medians are the statistics often used to measure the level of well-being of people across society. But these measures of central tendency, usually referred as the 'national average', conceal the large inequalities that often exist between different social groups, including different groups of women and girls. A 10 per cent reduction in maternal mortality, for example, may be shared equally across different groups of women and girls or it may hide substantial differences by ethnicity, wealth and other factors. In some cases, the aggregate figure conceals situations of no improvement or even worsening outcomes among certain population groups, most often those facing intersecting forms of discrimination.

from the community and exclusion from the use of communal assets.³ Inequality in access to resources and opportunities inevitably means their well-being outcomes will be drastically different not only from those of widowed men but also from other women not subjected to the distinct form of isolation and stigma that comes from the combination of being both a woman and a widow. Widowhood status matters in these contexts, but it may be less relevant for identifying the furthest behind in settings where gender-responsive forms of social protection are in place for older persons and where widowhood is not a basis for ostracizing women and girls.

FIGURE 4.1

COMMON FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION FACED BY WOMEN AND GIRLS

Gender-based discrimination will often intersect with other forms of discrimination to create acute forms of disadvantage



BOX 4.1

DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN BASED ON MARITAL AND FAMILY STATUS

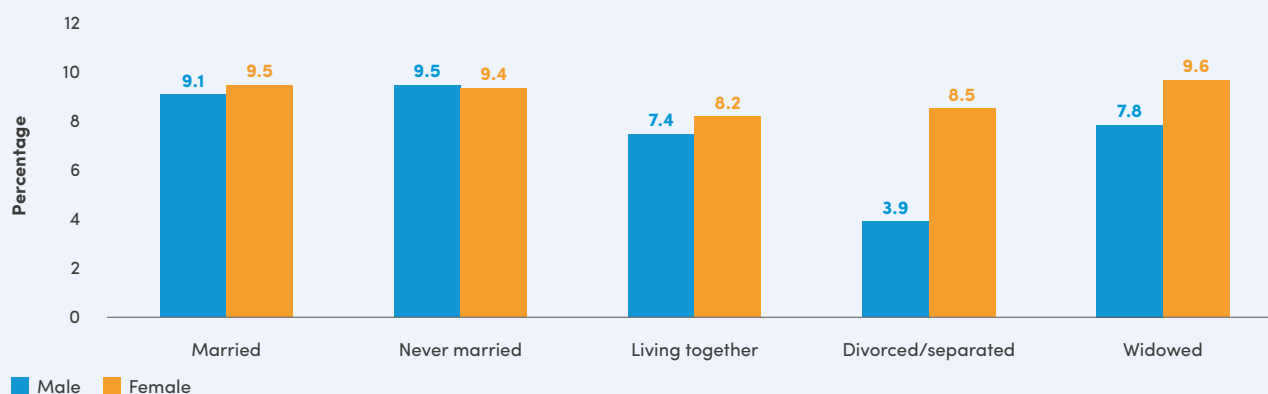
Discriminations based on marital and family status often converge. The discrimination and stigma faced by women based on their family status, including single motherhood, intensifies gender-based discrimination and puts them at greater disadvantage. Meanwhile, laws and customs often favour married people (over cohabitating couples, for example), conveying certain rights to women through their husbands only and perpetuating the notion that men have the sole responsibility to support and protect the family, thus leading to stigma toward divorced women and single mothers.

The effects of such stigma take both psychosocial and economic forms: Single mothers may be ostracized (at work and by society) and may have to bear the psychological burden and social stigma associated with raising children outside of marriage. Furthermore, laws governing post-marital dissolution tend to have underlying gender biases, such as those surrounding women's right to own property and gendered family roles, as well as unequal financial and non-financial responsibilities upon divorce.⁴ Similarly, inheritance laws in a significant number of countries fail to grant equal rights to women.⁵

While a causal link between discrimination and financial outcomes is difficult to demonstrate, data from developed and developing countries alike show that single-mother families and divorced women with children are over-represented among the poor.⁶ In Canada, Luxembourg and the United States, more than half of single women with young children live in poverty; the figure is less than a quarter for single men.⁷ Based on data for 89 developing countries, divorced women aged 15 and older are two times as likely to be poor than divorced men in that same age group (see Figure 4.2). Latin America and the Caribbean is the region with the largest share of divorced women among the female population in poverty, at 15.8 per cent.⁸

FIGURE 4.2

EXTREME POVERTY RATES AMONG WOMEN AND MEN (AGED 15+), BY MARITAL STATUS, 2009–2013



Source: UN Women and World Bank forthcoming.

Notes: Based on data collected in 2009 or later for 89 countries, covering an estimated 84 per cent of the population in the developing world.

Likewise, racial and gender inequality frequently co-produce acute forms of deprivation. In Latin America, black and indigenous women experience severe disadvantages in white and black male-dominated spaces, including unequal access to the labour market and substantial wage differentials.⁹ In the United States, race relations affect all aspects of life, including the way children learn and are treated in school. A 2014 report found black students were three times as likely as white students to be suspended and expelled from school. Black girls were more likely to be suspended than all other girls and most boys.¹⁰ Black, Latino, Native American and Alaska Native students were also more likely to attend schools with high concentrations of uncertified and unlicensed teachers and schools with fewer options for advanced courses, including high-level math and science.¹¹

Discrimination based on gender, national origin and migratory status is another common vector of exclusion and deprivation. Migrant women are often over-represented in low pay, low quality and unregulated employment such as domestic work, and they experience a heightened risk of gender-based violence (see also Chapter 6). Those with irregular legal status face an even more perilous situation, often excluded from accessing basic rights such as labour protections, social security, health care and protection from abuse and violence. A study of Sri Lankan women working in the Northern Africa and Western Asia region as domestic workers found 17 per cent had been sexually harassed and 5 per cent had been raped.¹² In Spain, migrant women facing discrimination in the labour market are forced

to take low-level positions and domestic work, despite their relatively high training and education level.¹³

The idea that deprivations are most acutely felt by women and girls who face multiple forms of discrimination is not new. A leading scholar in critical race theory, Kimberlé Crenshaw, explains it this way: “If you're standing in the path of multiple forms of exclusion, you're likely to get hit by both”¹⁴—meaning that those doubly disadvantaged based on their gender and race will face deprivations and inequalities that are a combined effect of the two and hence distinct from those who experience one form but not the other. It also means that not all members of a social group will face the same types of deprivations. Therefore, a focus on race without gender, for example, is inadequate because the specific deprivations experienced by women within a racial group will go unrecognized.

Moreover, not all experiences are alike. Frequently, different axes of advantage and disadvantage interact to produce complex social hierarchies. A study of health outcomes in Koppal district, Karnataka (India), for example, found that while poor women were consistently among the furthest behind in terms of access to health services, non-poor women were somewhere in the middle, with outcomes similar to poor men. These women's ability to leverage their economic status kept them out of the furthest behind category, but gender disadvantages meant their outcomes were not that much better than those of poor men, who themselves faced economic but not gender disadvantage.¹⁵

CLUSTERED DEPRIVATIONS

Women and girls at the intersection of different forms of discrimination tend to fare worse across multiple dimensions of well-being—in other words, they face multidimensional and clustered forms of deprivation. Poverty, for example, is a strong correlate of poor educational outcomes; it is also one of the main drivers of child marriage. These three forms of deprivation will often cluster and reinforce each other.

Analysis of 35 countries with sufficient data shows that women aged 20–24 from rich households are far less likely to marry (or cohabit) before the age of 18 and far more likely to complete their education than women living in poor households. Across the sample, early marriage rates are on average 24 percentage points higher among women in the poorest households compared to women in the richest households.¹⁶ Secondary school completion rates are 45 percentage points higher among richest than among poorest women. But beyond these gaps, wealth and child marriage compound to produce large inequalities in secondary completion rates. In Nigeria, for example, 96.2 per cent of women in the richest households who married at age 18 or older completed secondary education or higher. In contrast, less than 2 per cent of women in the poorest households who married before the age of 18 did so (see Figure 4.3).

A girl who is married before age 15 is also more likely to give birth to a child before she herself has reached adulthood, compromising her health, development and opportunities later in life. Based on data from 57 developing countries, the average age at first birth among girls who married before age 15 is 15.6, while the age among those who

married at age 15 or after is 18.9. In Tajikistan, girls who married before age 15 delivered their first child at the average age of 17 compared to age 21 for girls who married at 15 or older.

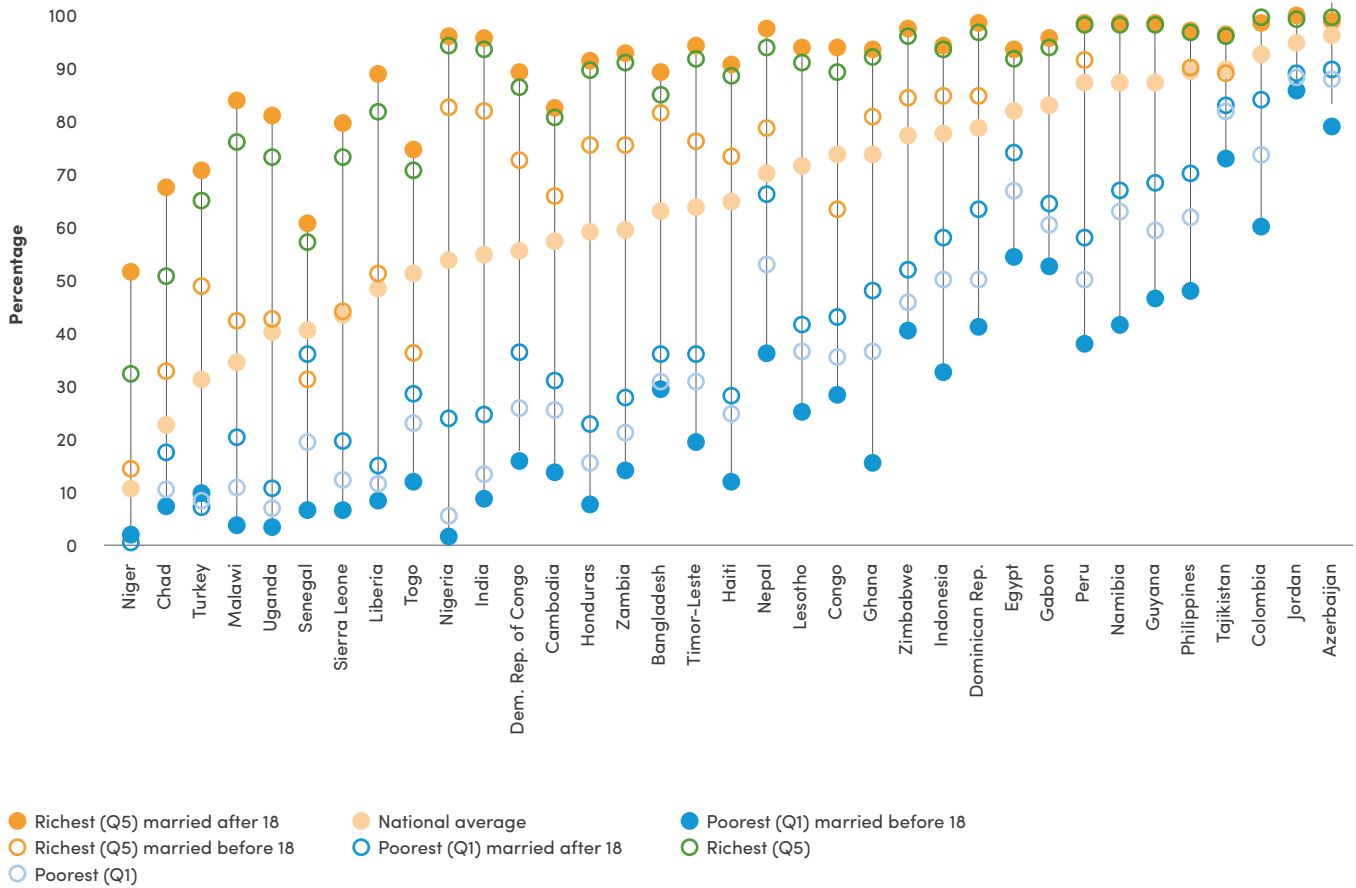
WHAT IS MEANT BY CLUSTERED DEPRIVATIONS?

Clustered deprivation refers to the tendency for deprivations to co-produce and 'cluster' together, such that deprivation in one area is often accompanied by deprivation in another. Poverty, for example, which is deprivation in access to resources needed to live a life with dignity, is often strongly correlated with many other forms of deprivation, including in regard to education, health and well-being.

The compounding effect of wealth and location also produces large inequalities. In India, for example, a young woman aged 20–24 from a poor, rural household is 5.1 times as likely as one from a rich urban household to marry before the age of 18, 21.8 times as likely to have never attended school, 5.8 times as likely to become an adolescent mother, 1.3 times as likely to have no access to money for her own use and 2.3 times as likely to report she has no say in how money is spent (see Figure 4.4). The likelihood of being poor is greater if she is landless and from a scheduled caste. Her low level of education and status in the social hierarchy will almost guarantee that if she works for pay, it will be under exploitative working conditions.¹⁷

FIGURE 4.3

COMPLETION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION OR HIGHER AMONG WOMEN AGED 20–24, BY WEALTH AND AGE AT FIRST MARRIAGE, 2003–2016



Source: UN Women calculations based on the latest round of Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS).

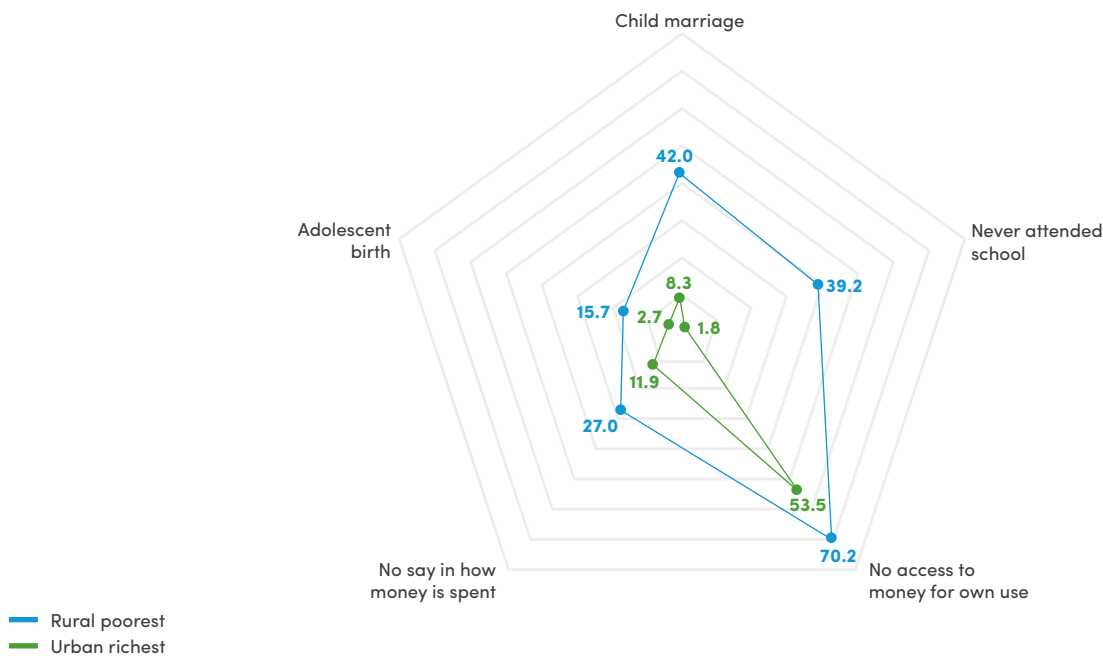
Notes: Based on data for 35 countries. In the case of Azerbaijan, Gabon, Guyana, Jordan, Lesotho and Namibia, the sample size for richest women married before 18 was less than 30 (not shown).

These examples illustrate how deprivations in one area are associated with deprivations in others. A woman who is married too young, burdened too early with caring responsibilities and deprived of education and access to a livelihood will face many other forms of deprivation. She will likely experience these deprivations more acutely if she is from a poor or marginalized group.

The tendency of deprivations to cluster implies a need to assess deprivations through a multidimensional lens, whereby women and girls facing intersecting forms of discrimination, traditionally invisible in aggregated statistics, are made visible and their experience brought to the fore. The next section presents an approach for doing this using household level survey data.

FIGURE 4.4

INEQUALITIES BETWEEN POOREST RURAL AND RICHEST URBAN INDIAN WOMEN, VARIOUS INDICATORS, PERCENTAGE, 2015-2016



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from the India National Family Health Survey (NFHS-4/DHS).

A FOUR-COUNTRY CASE STUDY ON THE FURTHEST BEHIND

THE APPROACH

This section uses four case studies to illustrate the possibilities for disaggregating and analysing existing data sets in ways that makes visible the inequality experienced by different groups of women. The case studies have been selected based

on data availability, timeliness of data and sample size (see Box 4.2 on data challenges), but also based on whether available surveys included variables that would facilitate multi-level disaggregation, including proxies for ethnicity, race, income and location.

BOX 4.2

DATA CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS IN IDENTIFYING THE FURTHEST BEHIND

Scarcity of data and limited sample sizes in existing datasets pose significant challenges for identifying and monitoring the status of those furthest behind. Data collection instruments are often designed to assess national outcomes, with sampling methodology that cannot accommodate extensive subgroup analysis. Disaggregating by two dimensions at a time—such as sex and location or sex and income—is largely possible, but more refined analysis of disadvantaged groups using multilevel disaggregation—for example, women from ethnic minorities living in poor households and rural areas—is not. Larger samples are needed to do this, but the increased costs of expanding sample sizes on surveys often deter national statistical systems from doing so. Other challenges include the quality of data (see Chapter 2) and their timeliness (censuses, for example, are an important data source but are typically only conducted once every 10 years, and often less frequently in some developing countries). Combining microdata from different sources, better utilizing administrative records, carrying out purposive sampling in survey design and using small area estimation techniques can help increase the availability of disaggregated data among target populations. These techniques are increasingly being used to supplement more traditional forms of analysis, but significant challenges remain.

The countries selected are: Colombia (South America), Nigeria (sub-Saharan Africa), Pakistan (Southern Asia) and the United States (Northern America). Data from DHS are used for Colombia, Nigeria and Pakistan.¹⁸ In the case of the United States, where DHS are not available, the American Community Survey (ACS) is used instead. Building on the gender gaps that were identified in Chapter 3, the case studies highlight inequalities between different groups of women and girls in 10 SDG-related outcome areas (6 in the case of the United States). An official SDG indicator or a proxy indicator is used to measure inequality across the areas. The indicators selected vary across countries in response to national specificities and data availability:

- **SDG 2** (ending hunger): The nutritional status of women aged 18–49 is measured using the body mass index (BMI), where being underweight is defined as having a BMI lower than 18.5 among non-pregnant adult women.¹⁹ The BMI is only available in the Nigeria and Pakistan datasets and thus only covered in these two case studies.
- **SDG 3** (health and well-being): Inequality in health and well-being related outcomes is measured using the following indicators: ‘proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel’ and ‘percentage of women and girls aged 15–49 who say that they have no say (alone or jointly) in their own health-care decisions’.²⁰ These indicators are available for three of the four case studies (Colombia, Nigeria and Pakistan). In the United States case study, ‘access to health insurance’ is used as a proxy for women’s ability to access critical health services. The Colombia case study explores health-related inequality using a third indicator: the proportion of women who delivered a child before reaching adulthood.²¹
- **SDG 4** (quality education):²² For Colombia, Nigeria and Pakistan, the proportion of women and girls with six or less years of education is used to illustrate differences in basic levels of schooling across groups.²³ This proportion is calculated among all women and girls in the sample – which covers those aged 15–49 in Nigeria and Pakistan and those aged 13–49 in Colombia. In the United States, where most people complete more than six years of education, completion of high school is used instead for women aged 18–49.²⁴
- **SDG 5** (gender equality): Many indicators are relevant (and captured in Chapter 3). In this section, child marriage rates before the age of 18 are analysed and compared across different groups of women aged 18–49.²⁵ Women’s experience and exposure to different forms of intimate partner violence is also explored in two of the four case studies: Colombia and Nigeria. Additionally, in the case of the United States, access to home Internet subscription is available and included in the data analysis as a proxy for SDG indicator 5.b.1.²⁶
- **SDGs 6 and 7** (clean water, sanitation and energy): Household access to basic water and sanitation services and use of clean energy for cooking are looked at for these goals.²⁷ Despite these being household-level indicators, they have important gender implications. Women and girls living in households that are deprived in these areas will face negative health effects and time constraints that limit their opportunities to access education, paid employment and leisure (see Chapter 6).²⁸
- **SDG 8** (decent work and economic growth): The DHS asks respondents aged 18–49 whether they were employed at the time of the survey. A similar proxy, capturing the share of women aged 18–49 not in employment, is used for the United States case study.
- **SDG 11** (sustainable cities and communities): The proportion of women and girls living in households where three or more people share a sleeping room is used as a proxy measure of overcrowding²⁹ to capture unsatisfied housing needs across groups and subgroups in Colombia, Nigeria and Pakistan. Overcrowding in the household is strongly correlated with adverse health effects, including the increased risk of contracting communicable diseases. The measure is available for the full dataset,

including women and girls aged 15–49 in Nigeria and Pakistan and women and girls aged 13–49 in the case of Colombia.

The results of this data analysis are displayed in the radar charts at the start of each case study. In addition, similar to Chapter 3, a spotlight approach has been followed to describe the results for select dimensions in each case study. Two to three SDG-related outcomes per country

are selected for the spotlights. The illustrative examples bring into sharp focus the inequalities in outcomes that exist across population groups. For each country, the sample is disaggregated by wealth quintiles to show the difference in outcomes by richest and poorest quintile and by location (urban and rural). Where data allow, differences based on the combination of wealth, location and additional dimensions—including religion, race and ethnicity—are analysed (see Box 4.3).³⁰

BOX 4.3

OVERVIEW OF THE SUBGROUPS COVERED IN THE CASE STUDIES

1. Women and girls across wealth quintiles. Wealth inequality and gender-related inequality often interact in ways that leave women and girls from the poorest households behind in key SDG-related areas, including access to education and health services. The wealth index, a composite measure of a household's cumulative living standard, is used as a proxy for economic status in three of the four case studies. In the United States, the total personal earned income is used.³¹ When the studies refer to the poorest quintile, reference is being made to women and girls living in households in the poorest 20 per cent of the wealth distribution. The richest quintile refers to the wealthiest 20 per cent of households.

2. Women and girls from geographically distinct areas. Geography can be a strong predictor of development outcomes: Living in rural areas characterized by high rates of poverty, remote areas with poor infrastructure, conflict zones and slums and informal settlements will often elevate the risk of disadvantage, including for women and girls, who are doubly disadvantaged by location and gender-based discrimination. All case studies capture differences between women and girls living in urban and rural areas.³² In the United States, location is disaggregated into three groups: urban (inner city), rural (non-metro area) and suburban (peripheral areas).

3. Women and girls from different racial and ethnic groups. Millions of people throughout the world are victims of discrimination based on race and ethnicity. For women and girls, the intersection of race/ethnicity and gender-based discrimination often results in greater risk of poverty and socio-economic disadvantage.³³ Often, ethnic disparities mirror geographic inequalities, particularly in countries that are spatially segregated across ethnic lines. All four case studies capture differences in outcomes between women and girls from different racial and/or ethnic backgrounds.

4. Women and girls belonging to hidden or hard-to-measure subgroups. The situation of some women and girls is inadequately captured by standard data collection instruments because samples are small or data collection is difficult. This is the case, for example, for women and girls from very small ethnic or religious minorities or from very secluded population groups with rare languages and traditions. Data are also lacking on women and girls on the move (internally displaced persons, refugees, migrants and nomadic populations), women and girls with disabilities and those with diverse gender identities (who are often not captured in official statistics). The case studies touch on some of these groups, but not all. Section 4.4 discusses some of the difficulties and constraints of measuring these groups' well-being outcomes.

Although some of the selected surveys enable further disaggregation, the information they provide is still limited to the questions asked and groups reached. All groups of women and girls are not captured, potentially leaving out some who may be subject to particular disadvantage. For example, three of the four case studies are based on DHS survey data, which cover questions on key SDG outcomes but only for women and girls aged 15–49.³⁴ The development outcomes of women and girls that fall outside of this age bracket are not reflected. In other cases, data on specific groups are captured—for example, women and girls from minority ethnic or religious groups—but the sample sizes are too small to calculate reliable estimates. The case studies presented are therefore illustrative but by no means exhaustive.

In addition to reviewing differential outcomes for specific indicators under a range of SDGs (see above), the case studies also assess the extent to which

deprivations in SDG-related areas cluster together.³⁵ In this portion of the analysis, only indicators that allow for the assessment of well-being at the individual level are used (see Box 4.4). Therefore, the focus narrows from 10 SDG-related dimensions to four. The United States case study is an exception: among the six available indicators, three are used for the multidimensional clustered deprivation analysis.

The results point to acute forms of deprivation among women and girls facing intersecting forms of discrimination. The motivation for this analysis is to illustrate how, across societies, there are groups of women and girls whose life chances are diminished across different dimensions.³⁶ Making a difference in their lives will require a better understanding of why and how different kinds of deprivations cluster, as well as a recognition of the systems of oppression that make certain groups of women and girls more susceptible to these acute forms of deprivation.

BOX 4.4

MULTIDIMENSIONAL CLUSTERED DEPRIVATION: WHAT DIMENSIONS ARE INCLUDED IN THE CLUSTER ANALYSIS?

For Colombia, Pakistan and Nigeria, the analysis focuses on women aged 18–49 facing simultaneous deprivation in the following areas: married before the age of 18, completed six years or less of education, not employed and lacking decision-making power regarding access to health-care services. Indicators related to deprivation at the household level, such as access to clean water, sanitation and fuel are excluded from this portion of the analysis. They are used instead to describe the living conditions of women experiencing deprivations across the four individual level dimensions.

Another three indicators are excluded from the cluster analysis because the information is not collected for all women in the sample: intimate partner violence (only married women are asked about IPV), BMI (not collected from pregnant women or those who are less than three months post-partum) and skilled attendance (denominator is births in last five years, not women). For the United States, the analysis focuses on women aged 18–49 facing simultaneous deprivation in the following three areas: education, employment and health care (proxied through lack of health insurance).

The analysis of clustered deprivations is restricted to women aged 18–49 because a common denominator is needed across indicators.³⁷ Certain indicators such as employment are not appropriate as a measure of deprivation for school-aged children, for instance, and thus girls younger than 18 are excluded. Data on women over 49 are not available in the DHS.

AN OVERVIEW

The case studies reveal large disparities within and between countries across a wide range of SDG-related outcomes. Striking differences exist between women and girls in richest urban households, compared to women and girls in poorest rural households. In some cases, disaggregation by wealth, location and ethnicity reveals even greater disparities.

CHILD MARRIAGE

In Colombia, the national child marriage rate is 23.7 per cent, but rates are as low as 9.2 per cent among those living in the richest urban households and as high as 49.9 per cent among Afro-Colombian women in the poorest rural households. The latter is slightly higher than the national average in Nigeria: 46.8 per cent. Rates of child marriage in Nigeria also vary widely. For example, although the national average indicates higher rates in Nigeria compared to Pakistan, Nigerians fare better among the urban richest: 16.5 compared to 23.9 per cent, respectively. Meanwhile, rates among the most disadvantaged in

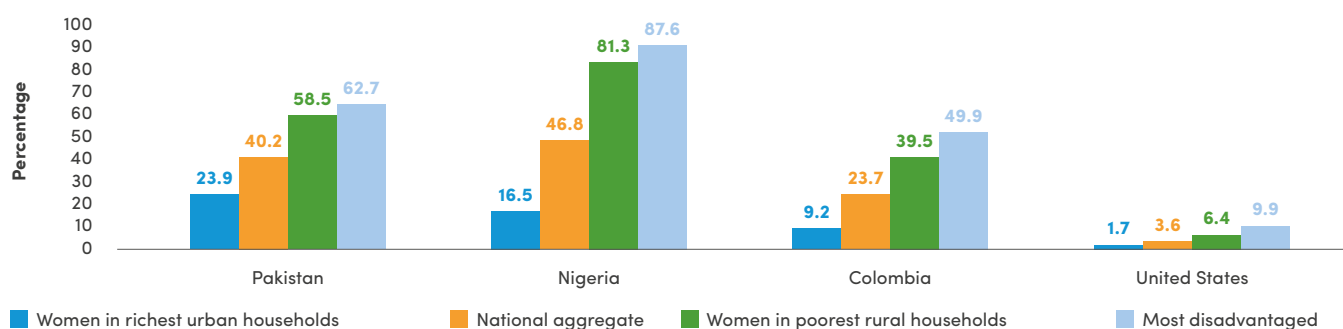
Nigeria are as high as 87.6 per cent. Similarly, in the United States, while rates overall are low, a significant divide exists between the rural poorest and urban richest. The highest rates of child marriage in the United States, however, are registered among Hispanic women in poorest households (see Figure 4.5).

MALNUTRITION

Similarly, national rates of undernourished women aged 18–49 hide important inequalities across and within countries. For instance, although Nigeria and Pakistan appear to have similar rates of undernourished women when comparing only the richest urban groups (4.2 and 4.0 per cent, respectively), outcomes differ dramatically when comparing some of the most disadvantaged groups: 18.9 per cent of Fulani women from the poorest rural households in Nigeria are underweight, compared to 40.6 per cent among the poorest rural women from the Sindhi ethnic group in Pakistan (see Figure 4.6).

FIGURE 4.5

CHILD MARRIAGE BY SUBGROUP: NATIONAL AGGREGATE, RURAL POOREST, URBAN RICHEST AND MOST DISADVANTAGED GROUP, 2012–2015

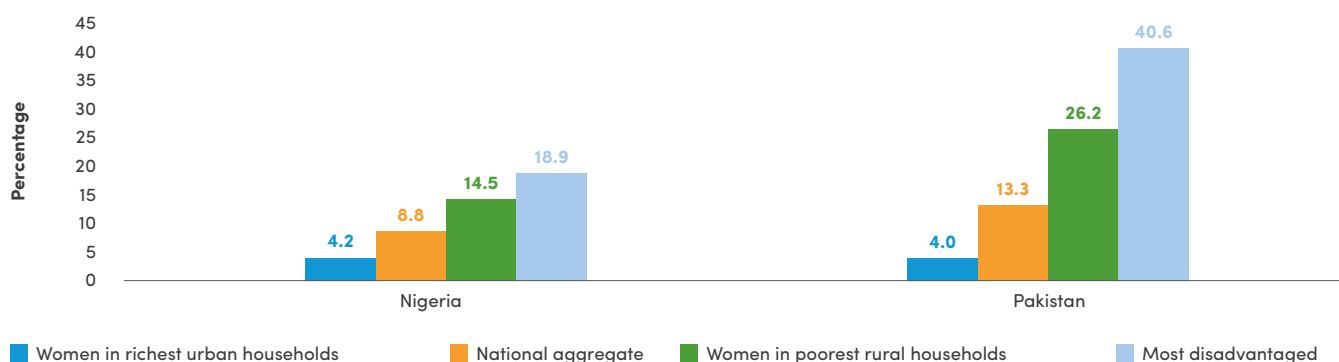


Source: UN Women calculations based on DHS (2012–2015) and ACS (2015) in the case of the United States.

Notes: 'Most disadvantaged' refers to groups with some of the highest rates of child marriage in the sample. In Colombia, this refers to Afro-Colombian women from the poorest rural households; in Nigeria, Hausa women from the poorest rural households; in Pakistan, women from the Saraiki and Sindhi ethnic group living in the poorest rural households and in the United States, Hispanic women in the bottom quintile of the income distribution. See specific case studies and Annex Table 3 for a full description of groups and subgroups included in the analysis.

FIGURE 4.6

LOW BMI BY SUBGROUP: NATIONAL AGGREGATE, RURAL POOREST, URBAN RICHEST AND MOST DISADVANTAGED GROUP, 2012-2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on latest available DHS survey (2012–2013).

Notes: ‘Most disadvantaged’ refers to groups with some of the highest rates of under-nutrition in the sample: In Nigeria, Fulani women from the poorest rural households; in Pakistan, women from the Sindhi ethnic group living in rural households. Colombia did not collect BMI information in its 2015 survey. See specific case studies and Annex Table 3 for a full description of groups and subgroups included in the analysis.

EDUCATION

Inequality in outcomes is observed across all indicators, but some of the largest within-country inequalities are observed in access to education. In Colombia, less than 5 per cent of women from the richest urban households are education-poor (defined as having only completed six or less years of education). This contrasts sharply with the rates for indigenous women and girls from the poorest rural households, of whom 61.4 per cent are education-poor. In Nigeria, 12.9 per cent of women in the richest urban households are education-poor compared to 99.4 per cent of Fulani women from the poorest rural households and 98.6 per cent of Hausa women from the poorest rural households. Similar disparity is observed in Pakistan, where 98.8 per cent of women from the poorest rural households are education-poor compared to 29.3 per cent of the richest urban dwellers.³⁹ Disparities in education are also staggering in the case of the United States. Among the urban richest, only 4.1 per cent did not complete high school, compared to a national average of 10.3 per cent. The rate is much higher among Hispanic

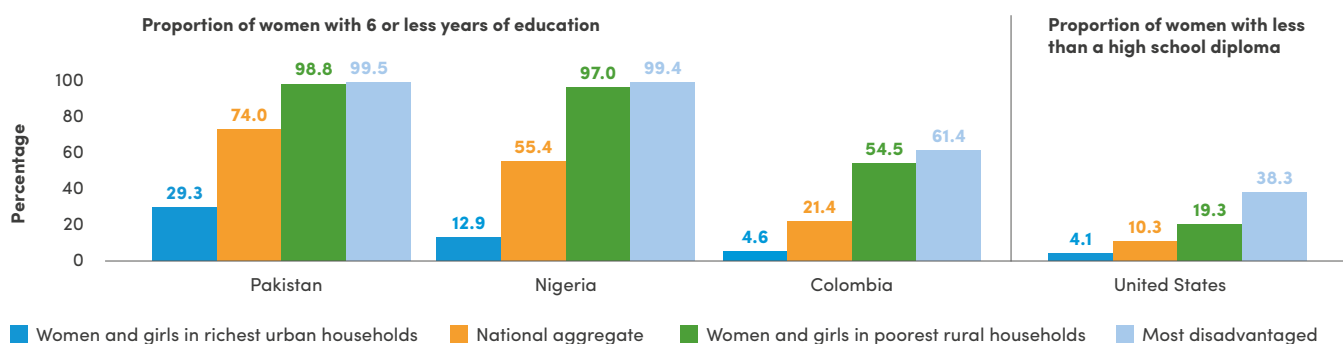
women in the poorest quintile at 38.3 per cent (see Figure 4.7), who are the most disadvantaged.

HEALTH CARE

Across the four case studies, women and girls from rural areas with high concentrations of poverty have lower access to health-care services (see Figure 4.8).³⁹ In Colombia, less than 1 per cent of the richest urban dwellers lack access to skilled attendance during childbirth. The rate increases to 14.5 per cent among women and girls from the poorest rural areas and to more than a third (33.4 per cent) among indigenous women and girls in the poorest rural areas. In Pakistan, the difference between the most advantaged and most disadvantaged groups is also large (13.4 and 70.2 per cent, respectively), but it is largest in Nigeria: While only 12.1 per cent of the richest urban women and girls lack access to a health professional at delivery, among women and girls in the poorest rural areas, the experience of delivery without the assistance of a professional health-care provider is near universal. Spatial and income inequality in access to health care are also

FIGURE 4.7

SELECT EDUCATION OUTCOMES: NATIONAL AGGREGATE, RURAL POOREST, URBAN RICHEST AND MOST DISADVANTAGED GROUP, 2012-2015

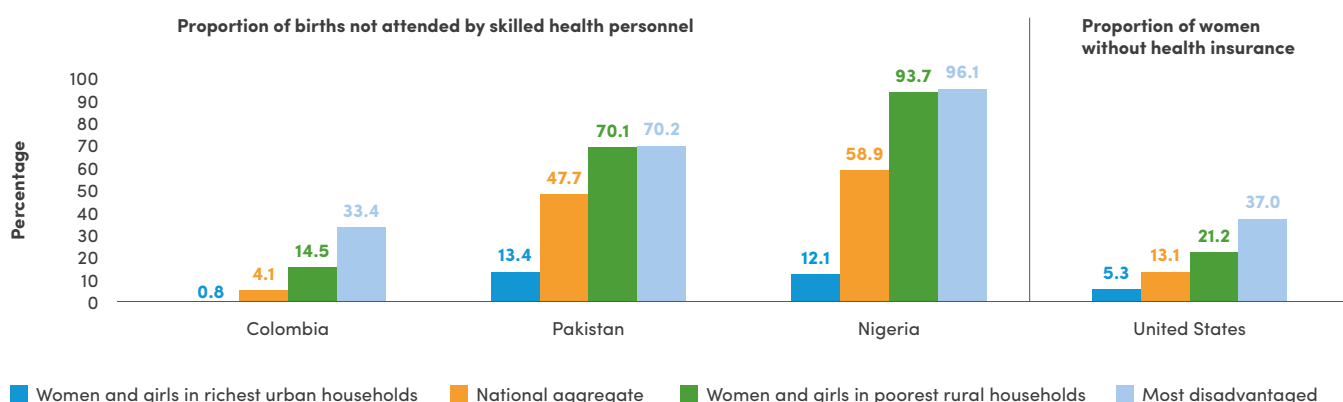


Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from DHS (2012–2015) and ACS (2015) in the case of the United States.

Notes: In Colombia, 'most disadvantaged' refers to Indigenous women and girls from the poorest rural households; in Nigeria, Fulani women and girls from the poorest rural households and in the United States, Hispanic women in the bottom quintile of the income distribution. In the case of Pakistan, 99.5 per cent of the poorest rural Pashtun women and girls have less than six years of education (highest values in the sample), however, Saraiki and Sindhi women and girls from the poorest rural households are equally deprived (i.e., the differences among these groups are not statistically significant at the 10 per cent level). See specific case study and Annex Table 3 for a full description of groups and subgroups included in the analysis.

FIGURE 4.8

SELECT HEALTH OUTCOMES: NATIONAL AGGREGATE, RURAL POOREST, URBAN RICHEST AND MOST DISADVANTAGED GROUP, 2012-2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on DHS (2012–2015) and ACS (2015) in the case of the United States.

Notes: In Colombia, 'most disadvantaged' refers to Indigenous women and girls from the poorest rural households; in Nigeria, Hausa and Fulani women and girls from the poorest rural households, irrespective of location and ethnicity; and in the United States, Hispanic women in the bottom quintile 20 per cent of the income distribution, with Native American/Alaska Native women close behind. See specific case study and Annex Table 3 for a full description of groups and subgroups included in the analysis.

apparent in the United States. Among the poorest, Hispanic and Native American/Alaska Native women are the most likely to lack health insurance. Native Americans, who in some parts of the country have up to a 20-year shorter life expectancy than the rest of the population, point to geography (distance to closest health-care centre) and lack of transportation—as well discrimination on the part of health-care providers and cost of services—as some of the key constraints impeding access to essential health-care services.⁴⁰

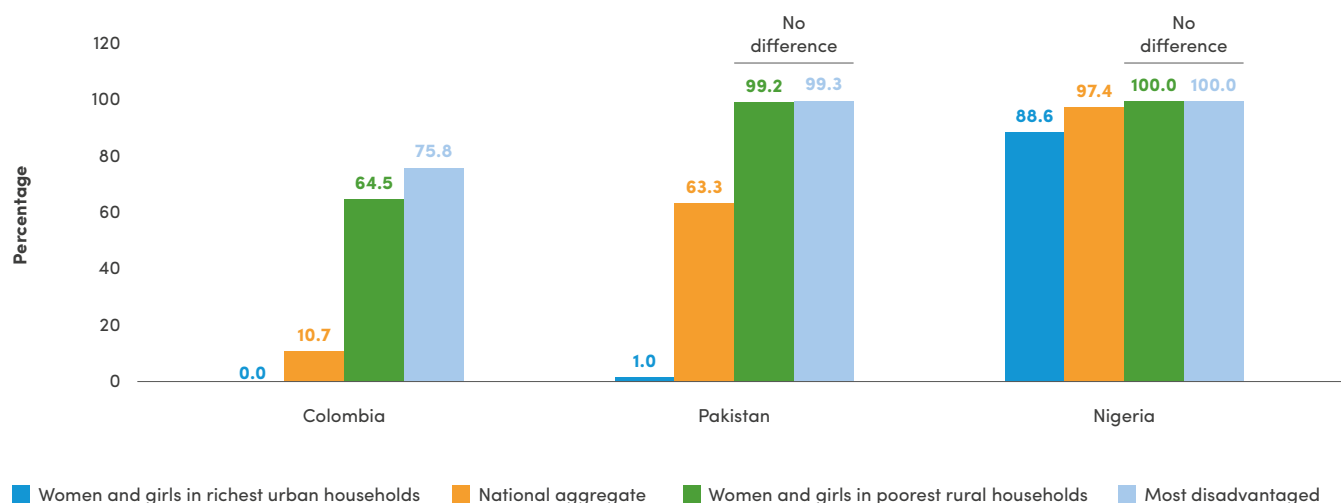
ACCESS TO BASIC WATER AND SANITATION SERVICES AND TO CLEAN COOKING FUEL

Access to basic household assets such as clean water, improved sanitation and clean fuel is also uneven

(see Figure 4.9). Across countries, it is the urban richest that register the highest access rates and the rural poorest that register the lowest. Disparities in household level dimensions are much larger in Colombia and Pakistan than they are in Nigeria. In Colombia, 75.8 per cent of indigenous women and girls in the poorest rural households lack access to clean cooking fuel, compared to 0 per cent of women and girls in the richest urban households.⁴¹ The same occurs in Pakistan between the most disadvantaged groups and the urban richest: More than 99 per cent of women and girls from the poorest rural households lack access to clean fuel, compared to 1 per cent of those in the richest urban households. In Nigeria, however, deprivation in access to basic services and infrastructure is high among rich and poor alike: 88.6 per cent of those in the richest urban households lack access to clean cooking fuel, compared to 100 per cent in the poorest rural households.

FIGURE 4.9

NO ACCESS TO CLEAN COOKING FUEL: NATIONAL AGGREGATE, RURAL POOREST, URBAN RICHEST AND MOST DISADVANTAGED GROUP, 2012–2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on latest available DHS (2012–2015).

Notes: In Colombia, 'most disadvantaged' refers to Indigenous women and girls from the poorest rural households; in Nigeria, the poorest rural households are the most deprived, irrespective of ethnicity; in Pakistan, women and girls from the poorest rural households register the highest deprivation rates (no difference by ethnicity among rural poorest). See specific case study and Annex Table 3 for a full description of groups and subgroups included in the analysis. "No difference" indicates that the test of 'difference in means' did not reveal a statistically significant difference at the 10 per cent level between groups. However, in some cases, the rural poorest are in fact the most deprived, i.e. most disadvantaged.

PAKISTAN: WEALTH, GEOGRAPHY AND ETHNICITY



Photo: UNICEF/Shehzad Noorani

BACKGROUND

Pakistan, with an estimated population of 207.7 million, is the sixth most populous country in the world.⁴² It is a country rich in language and ethnic diversity. Based on the latest population census round in 2017, the Punjabi population is estimated to comprise 44.2 per cent of the national total. The second largest group are the Pukhtuns (also known as Pashtuns) at 15.4 per cent, followed by Sindhis at 14.1 per cent, Saraikiat (or Saraiki) at 10.5 per cent, Urdu-speaking Muhajirs at 7.6 per cent, Balochis at 3.6 per cent and other smaller groups making up 4.7 per cent.⁴³

The 2012–2013 Pakistan DHS⁴⁴ collected a broad set of information on the status of women in the country. The question “what is your mother tongue?” was asked and serves as a proxy for capturing ethnicity. Together with wealth and location, the variable allows for a closer look at how outcomes vary across different groups of Pakistani women. This case study focuses on inequalities across the following five major groups, for which sufficient sample sizes were available to allow for multi-level disaggregation: Punjabi, Pashtun, Saraiki, Sindhi and Urdu-speakers (see Characteristics).

CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS CAPTURED IN THE PAKISTAN CASE STUDY

Sindhi

Largely concentrated in the poorest and poorer quintiles, live mostly in rural communities, with less than 25 per cent living in cities.

Saraiki

Live mostly in households in the bottom half of the wealth distribution in rural areas.

Punjabi

Largely in the top half of the wealth distribution; the majority are urban dwellers, but almost 40 per cent live in rural areas.

Pashtun

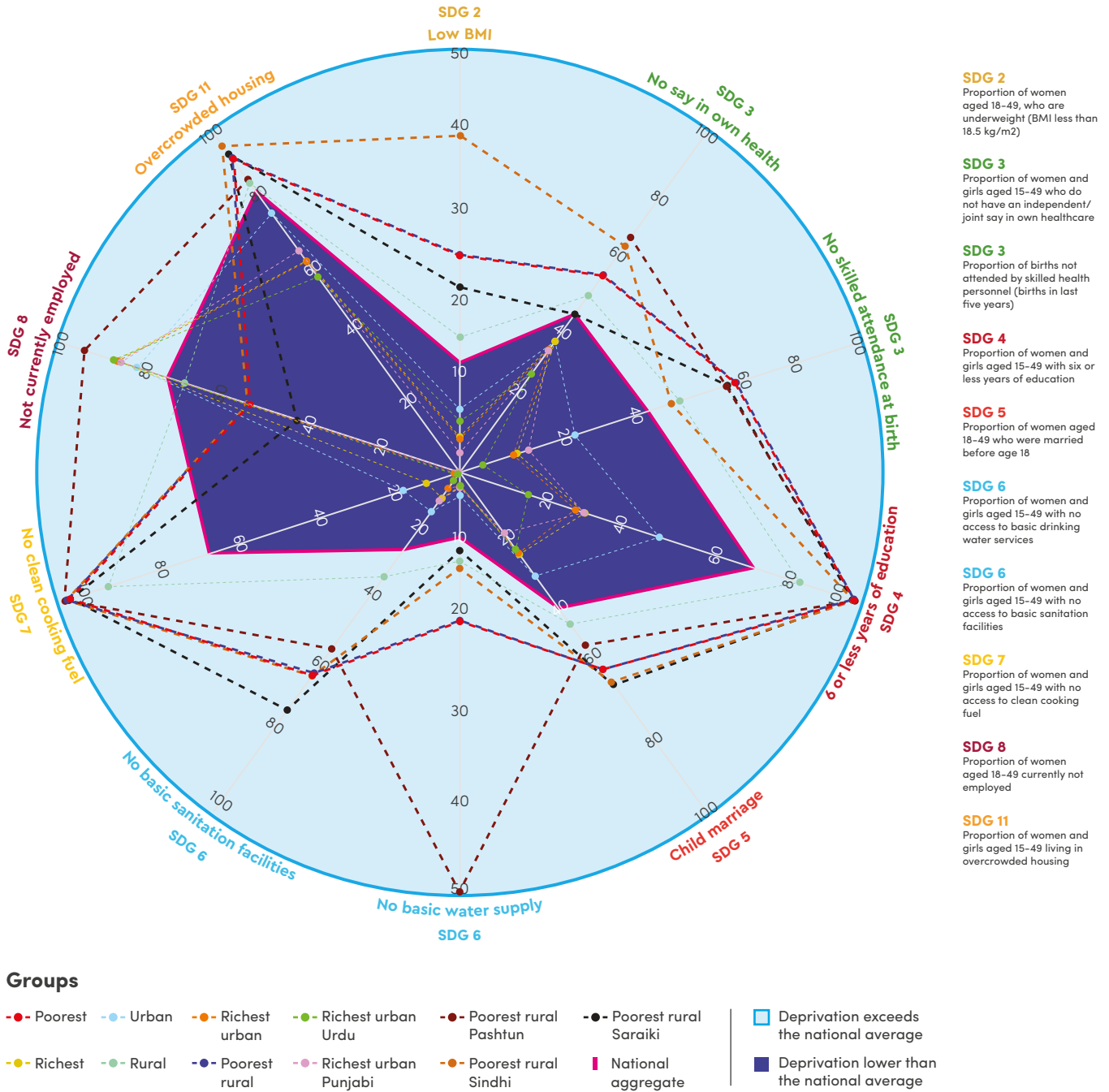
Distributed across all wealth quintiles, many of them in the middle and poorer groups, and live largely in rural areas.

Urdu-speaking

Live mostly in the richest households and largely in urban areas. In this section, the term ‘Urdu’ is used as shorthand to refer to women and girls for which Urdu is reported as the mother tongue.

FIGURE 4.10

INEQUALITIES IN SDG-RELATED OUTCOMES BETWEEN DIFFERENT GROUPS OF WOMEN AND GIRLS, PAKISTAN, 2012-2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NIPS and ICF International 2013.

Notes: Different scales are used across each of the 10 axes, each corresponding to the maximum and minimum values for each given indicator. Select groups are shown given space limitations; for full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3. Urdu is used as shorthand for Urdu-speaking, see Characteristics. No access to clean drinking water: Pashtuns reside mostly in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa region, where reliance on unprotected wells and springs is particularly high. The 2005 earthquake and 2010 floods have further raised concerns about water quality for residents of this region. These and other factors contribute to much higher rates of no access to clean drinking water for Pashtuns overall, but especially those from the poorest rural households.

IDENTIFYING THE FURTHEST BEHIND IN PAKISTAN

The data analysis points to large achievement gaps, with women from marginalized ethnic groups living in poor rural households faring worst across a variety of well-being and empowerment measures (see Figure 4.10).

Across nine out of 10 dimensions, women and girls from the poorest 20 per cent of households in rural areas fare worse than women and girls from the richest 20 per cent of households in urban areas. Disaggregation by ethnicity revealed further differences: In the case of malnutrition (proxied by a low BMI), Sindhi women from the poorest rural households fare far worse than any other group across all wealth quintiles and locations. However, the most disadvantaged ethnic group often varies across indicators, oscillating between the Sindhi, Saraiki and Pashtun. A closer look at those most

likely to be disadvantaged—that is, women in the poorest rural households—suggests that in 6 of the 10 dimensions studied, Sindhi and Saraiki women and girls fare the worst while Pashtun and Punjabi women tend to fare better. Exceptions can be observed in some areas, such as access to clean cooking fuel, where rural poorest were equally deprived irrespective of ethnicity.⁴⁵ Deprivation in access to employment is unique: Unlike the other nine dimensions explored, the richest are much more likely to lack employment as compared to the poorest, 86.8 and 53.3 per cent, respectively. While poverty pushes the poorest women into precarious, often informal and unpaid work, among the richest, significant barriers—including biased gender norms, discrimination in wages and limited job options—contribute to low labour force participation rates.⁴⁶

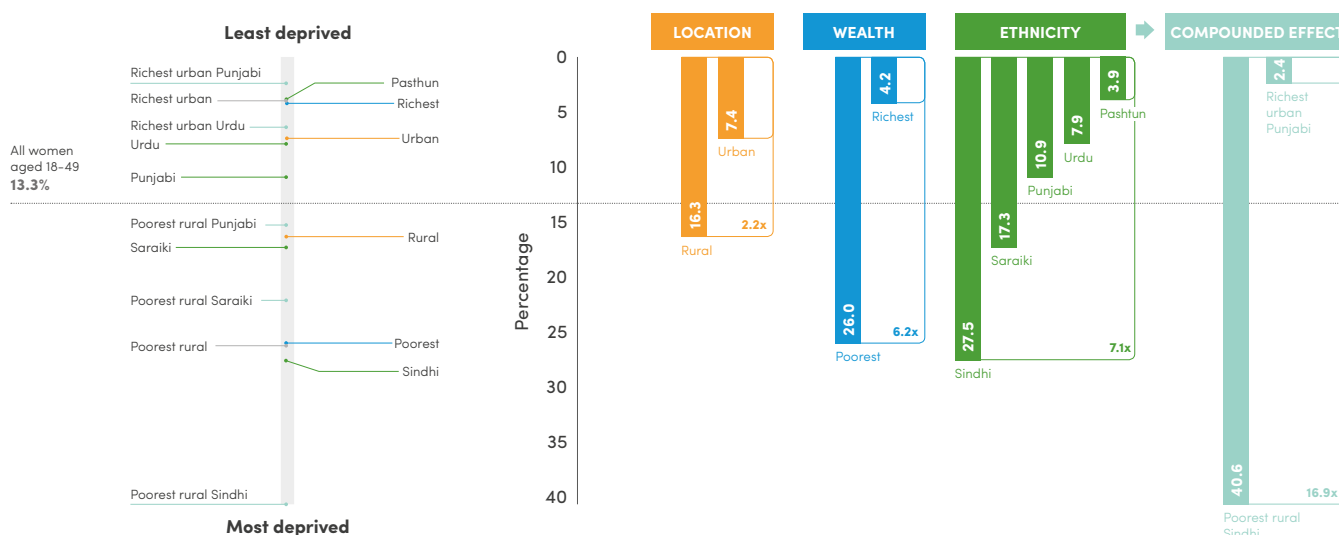
SPOTLIGHT ON NUTRITIONAL STATUS (SDG 2)

On average, 13.3 per cent of women aged 18–49 are undernourished (BMI <18.5); the rates differ substantially by location, wealth and ethnicity (see Figure 4.11)

- **Location effect:** Women in rural areas are 2.2 times as likely to be undernourished as those in urban areas: 16.3 per cent compared to 7.4 per cent, respectively.
 - **Wealth effect:** Women in the poorest households are 6.2 times as likely to be undernourished as those in the richest households: 26.0 per cent and 4.2 per cent, respectively.
 - **Ethnicity effect:** Rates are higher than the national average among Sindhi and Saraiki and lower than average among Punjabi, Pashtun and Urdu.
- Those with the highest rate (Sindhi) are 7.1 times as likely as those with the lowest rate (Pashtun) to be undernourished, with prevalence rates of 27.5 and 3.9 per cent, respectively.
- **The compounded effect:** Segments of the population that face disadvantage based on their ethnicity, wealth and location are some of the most deprived. As many as 40.6 per cent of Sindhi women living in the poorest rural households are undernourished. At the other end of the spectrum, the lowest rates of under-nutrition are registered among the richest urban Punjabi (2.4 per cent).

FIGURE 4.11

LOW BMI AMONG WOMEN AGED 18–49 IN PAKISTAN, BY LOCATION, WEALTH AND ETHNICITY, 2012–2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NIPS and ICF International 2013.

Notes: Women who are pregnant and those who are less than three months postpartum are not included in the above calculation of low BMI, see Approach section for further details. In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3. Urdu is used as shorthand for Urdu-speaking, see Characteristics.

SPOTLIGHT ON AGENCY IN HEALTH-CARE DECISIONS (SDG 3)

On average, 48.1 per cent of women and girls aged 15–49 have no say in decisions regarding their own health care, but rates vary significantly by location, wealth and ethnicity (see Figure 4.12)

- Location effect:** Women and girls in rural areas are 1.3 times as likely to report having no say in decisions regarding their own health care as those in urban areas: 52.5 per cent compared to 39.3 per cent, respectively.
- Wealth effect:** Women and girls in the poorest households are 1.5 times as likely to report having no say in decisions regarding their own health care as those in the richest households: 39.3 per cent compared to 58.5 per cent, respectively.
- Ethnicity effect:** The differences by ethnicity reveal the largest inequalities, with Pashtun and Sindhi women and girls most likely to report having no say (65.2 per cent and 62.5 per cent, respectively) and Urdu, Punjabi and Saraiki least likely (31.9, 40.4 and 44.0 per cent, respectively).
- The compounded effect:** The furthest behind are women and girls facing the compounded effect of intersecting forms of discrimination (ethnicity, wealth and location). Ethnicity in some cases exceeds wealth and location as a predicting factor for having no say in own health-care decisions. For example, rates of ‘no say’ among Pashtun women and girls are higher than the national average, irrespective of wealth and location: 69.5 per cent of those in the poorest rural households have no say in their own health care, compared to 65.2 per cent for Pashtun overall and 62.7 in the richest urban households. At the opposite end of the decision-making distribution, 29.3 per cent of Urdu women and girls living in the richest households in urban areas have no say in decisions regarding their own health care (compared to 31.9 per cent for Urdu overall).

FIGURE 4.12

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AND GIRLS AGED 15–49 IN PAKISTAN WHO REPORT NO SAY IN DECISIONS REGARDING THEIR OWN HEALTH CARE, BY LOCATION, WEALTH AND ETHNICITY, 2012–2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NIPS and ICF International 2013.

Notes: In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3. Among the most deprived groups, differences between Sindhi rural poorest and Pashtun rural poorest are not statistically significant. Similarly, differences between urban richest and rural poorest Punjabi are not statistically significant. Urdu is shorthand for Urdu-speaking, see Characteristics.

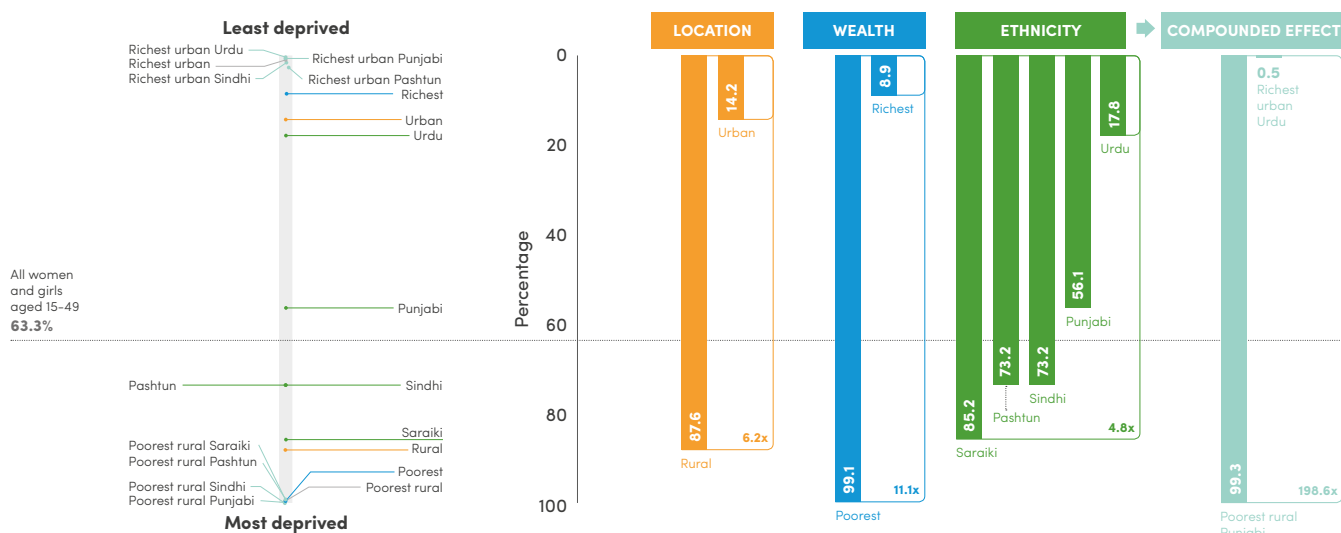
SPOTLIGHT ON INEQUALITY IN ACCESS TO CLEAN ENERGY (SDG 7)

Household-level deprivations are widespread in Pakistan: 63.3 per cent of all women and girls aged 15–49 lack access to clean cooking fuel (see Figure 4.13)

- Location effect:** Women and girls living in rural households are 6.2 times as likely as those living in urban households to lack access to clean cooking fuels. That is, while 87.6 per cent of women and girls in rural households lack access, 14.2 per cent of women and girls in urban households do.
- Wealth effect:** While 8.9 per cent of women and girls living in households in the richest quintile lack access to clean fuel, 99.1 per cent of the women and girls living in the poorest households do. Thus, the poorest are 11.1 times as likely as the richest to lack access to clean cooking fuels.
- Ethnicity effect:** Saraiki women and girls are the most deprived. While 85.2 per cent of them lack access, 17.8 per cent of Urdu women and girls do, making Saraiki women and girls almost 4.8 times as likely to be deprived from access to clean energy for cooking.
- Compounded effect:** Almost all Urdu women and girls living in urban households in the top wealth quintile use clean sources of energy for cooking. In contrast, almost all Punjabi women and girls living in rural areas and in the poorest households lack access to such fuels. The poorest rural Punjabi women and girls are almost 200 times as likely as the richest urban Urdu women and girls to lack access to clean fuels. Wealth, more so than location and ethnicity, is the key driving factor for the observed inequality in access.

FIGURE 4.13

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AND GIRLS AGED 15–49 IN HOUSEHOLDS IN PAKISTAN WITH NO ACCESS TO CLEAN COOKING FUEL, BY LOCATION, WEALTH AND ETHNICITY, 2012–2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NIPS and ICF International 2013.

Notes: In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3. Among the most deprived groups, differences between rural poorest, rural poorest Sindhi and rural poorest Punjabi are not statistically significant. Urdu is shorthand for Urdu-speaking, see Characteristics.

MULTIDIMENSIONAL CLUSTERED DEPRIVATION

Key findings

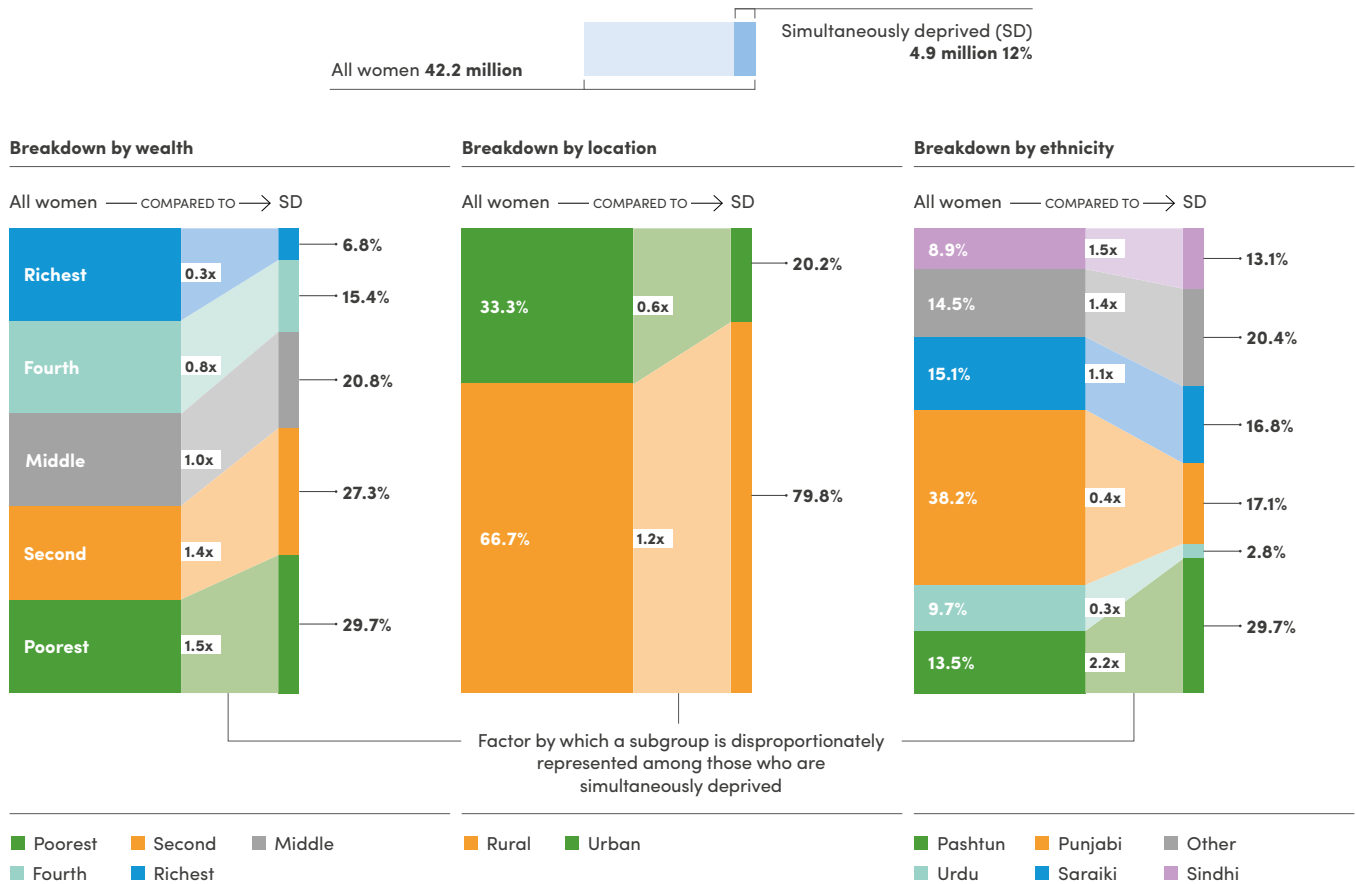
- In Pakistan, 12 per cent of all women aged 18–49 (or 4.9 million) are simultaneously deprived in four SDG-related dimensions (see Figure 4.14). These women were not only married before the age of 18 and education-poor, they also reported no agency in health-care decisions and said they were not working at the time of the survey.⁴⁷
- Women in this cluster mostly live in rural areas (79.8 per cent) and in households concentrated in the bottom 40 per cent of the wealth distribution (57.0 per cent). The vast majority

(79.8 per cent) lack access to clean cooking fuel in their homes. A quarter also lack access to improved sanitation services and 7 per cent reside more than 30 minutes (round trip) from the closest improved water source.

- Disaggregation by ethnicity shows Pashtun women to be overly represented among those facing clustered forms of deprivation. Sindhi and Saraiki are also overly represented, as is the ‘other’ ethnic category. However, ethnic groups in this ‘other’ category—including Balochi, Barauhi, Hindko, Shina and many more—are too small to be disaggregated separately.

FIGURE 4.14

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 18-49 IN PAKISTAN SIMULTANEOUSLY DEPRIVED IN FOUR SDG-RELATED DIMENSIONS, 2012-2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NIPS and ICF International 2013.

NIGERIA: WEALTH, GEOGRAPHY, RELIGION AND ETHNICITY



Photo: UNICEF/Andrew Esiebo

BACKGROUND

In Nigeria, a country made up of more than 250 ethnic groups, geography and ethno-religious identity are often interlinked.⁴⁸ The most populous nation in Africa, Nigeria is also a religiously diverse country: An estimated 49 per cent of Nigerians are Christian, 49 per cent are Muslim and the remaining 1.9 per cent identify as unaffiliated or belonging to a traditionalist religion.⁴⁹

Analysis of the 2013 Nigeria DHS⁵⁰ shows how the intersection of ethnicity, geography and poverty leaves certain groups of women and girls behind. Due to sample size limitations, only the four major ethnic groups could be considered (Hausa, Fulani, Igbo and Yoruba—see Characteristics). The findings point to large disparities between rich and poor, urban and rural and those facing intersecting forms of discrimination based on class, geography and ethno-religious identity.⁵¹

CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS CAPTURED IN THE NIGERIA CASE STUDY

Fulani

Largely concentrated in the poorest quintile, live mostly in rural and often nomadic communities and almost universally identify as Muslim.

Hausa

Live mostly in poorest and poorer households in rural areas, with some 30 per cent currently living in cities, and almost universally identify as Muslim.

Igbo

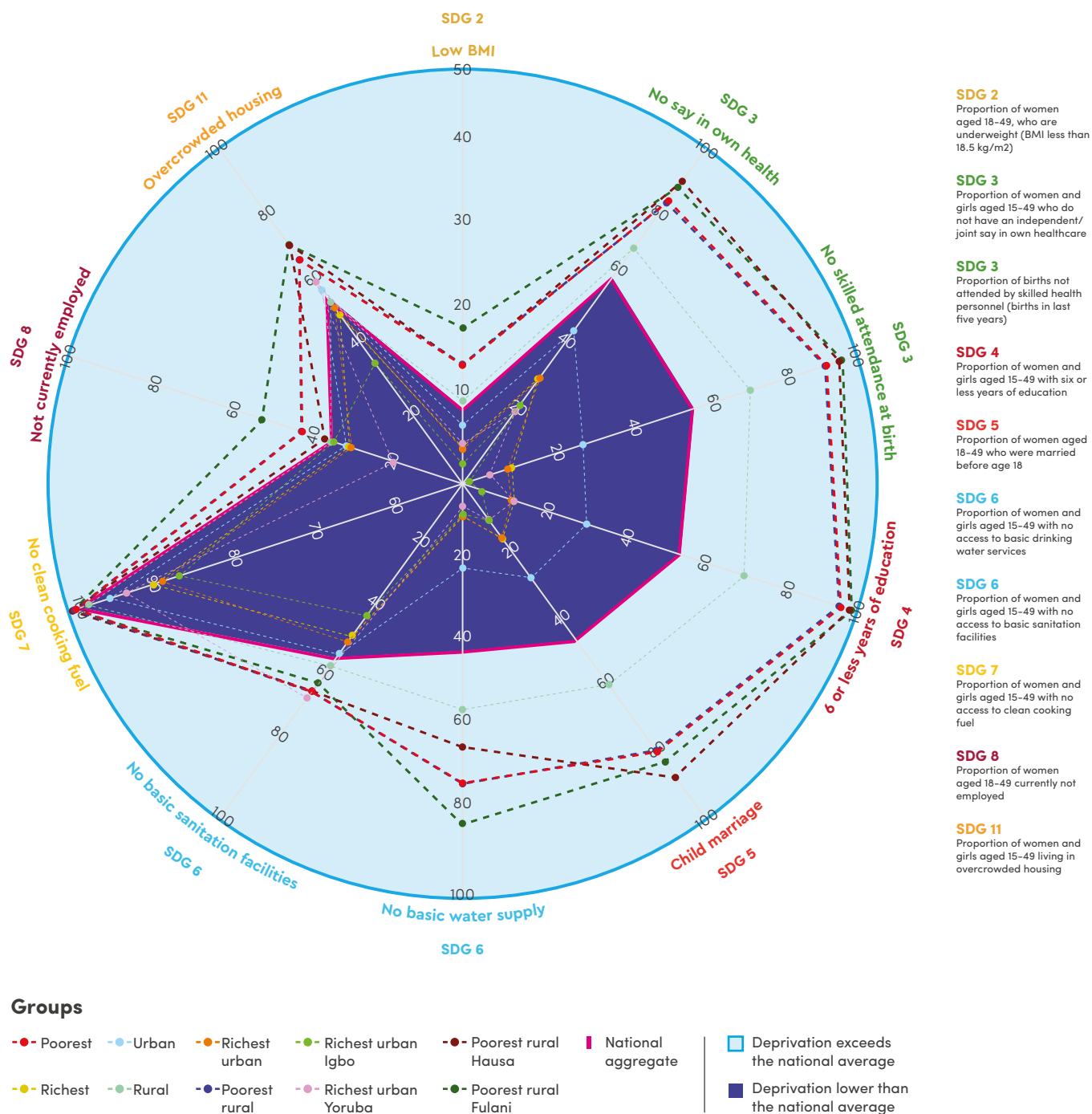
Largely in the top half of the wealth distribution and mostly urban dwellers, with some 20 per cent located in rural areas, and almost universally identify as Catholic or other type of Christian.

Yoruba

Live mostly in the richest households, largely in urban areas, and roughly half identify as Christians and half as Muslim.

FIGURE 4.15

INEQUALITIES IN SDG-RELATED OUTCOMES BETWEEN DIFFERENT GROUPS OF WOMEN AND GIRLS, NIGERIA, 2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from the 2013 Nigeria DHS (NPC, Federal Republic of Nigeria and ICF International 2014).

Notes: Different scales are used across each of the 10 axes, each corresponding to the maximum and minimum values for each given indicator. Select groups are shown given space limitations. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3.

IDENTIFYING THE FURTHEST BEHIND IN NIGERIA

Women and girls from the richest urban households are the most advantaged across all 10 dimensions considered compared to the rural poorest. Fulani women and girls from the poorest rural households rank at the very bottom (i.e., most deprived) in five dimensions—nutrition (proxied by low BMI), access to skilled birth attendant, education, employment and access to basic drinking water services—while Hausa women and girls from the poorest rural households

are the most deprived in another four: say in own health care, child marriage, access to basic sanitation services and living in overcrowded housing.⁵² For the remaining dimension (access to clean fuel), deprivation is widespread: 97 per cent of women and girls live in households that lack access to a clean source of cooking fuel; among the poorest rural women, the deprivation was universal (100 per cent) irrespective of ethnicity (see Figure 4.15).⁵³

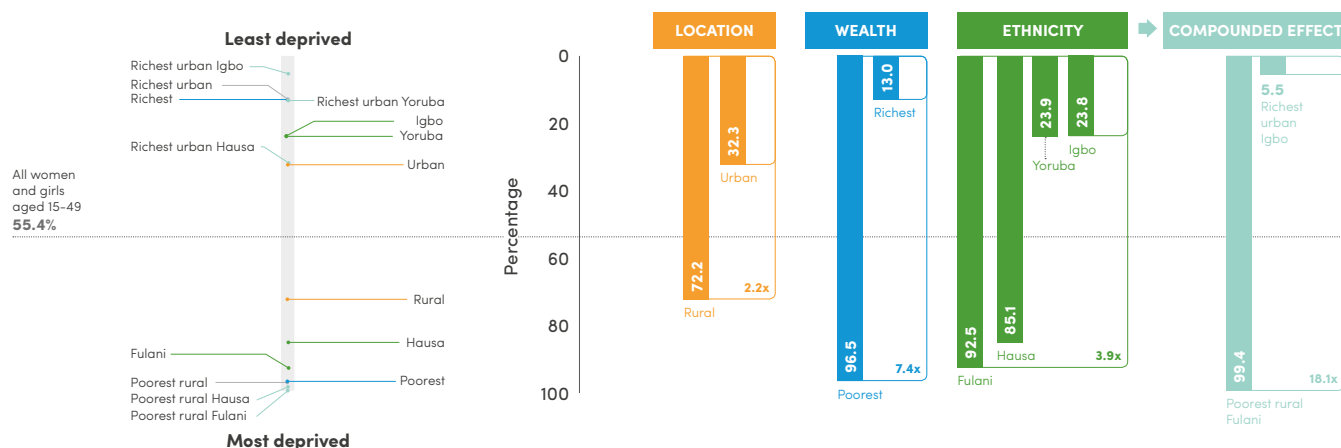
SPOTLIGHT ON ACCESS TO EDUCATION (SDG 4)

In Nigeria, 55.4 per cent of women and girls aged 15–49 are education-poor, meaning they have only completed six or less years of education (compared to 38.3 per cent of men and boys). Among women and girls, outcomes differ by location, ethnicity and wealth (see Figure 4.16)

- Location effect:** Women and girls in rural households are 2.2 times as likely to be education-poor as those in urban households: 32.3 per cent of women and girls in urban households say their highest educational attainment is six or less years, compared to 72.2 per cent of women and girls in rural households.
- Wealth effect:** Women and girls from the poorest households are 7.4 times as likely to be education-poor as those from the richest: 13.0 per cent of women and girls in the wealthiest households say their highest educational attainment is six or less years. In the poorest households, as many as 96.5 per cent of women and girls are education-poor.
- Ethnicity effect:** Igbo and Yoruba women and girls are the least likely groups to be education-poor (23.8 and 23.9 per cent, respectively), while Fulani, at 92.5 per cent, are 3.9 times as likely to complete only six years of education or less.⁵⁴
- The compounded effect:** Wealth is the main driving force, followed by ethnicity, which when compounded with location magnifies advantage and disadvantage in educational outcomes for Nigerian women. An astounding 99.4 per cent of Fulani women and girls living in the poorest rural households fail to complete more than six years of education, meaning they are 18.1 times as likely to be education-poor as Igbo women and girls living in the richest urban households, 5.5 per cent of whom are education-poor.

FIGURE 4.16

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AND GIRLS AGED 15–49 IN NIGERIA WITH ONLY SIX YEARS OF EDUCATION COMPLETED OR LESS, BY LOCATION, WEALTH AND ETHNICITY, 2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NPC, Federal Republic of Nigeria and ICF International 2014.

Note: In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3.

SPOTLIGHT ON EARLY MARRIAGE (SDG 5)

Countrywide, 46.8 per cent of Nigerian women aged 18–49 were married before the age of 18. Rates differ by ethnicity, location and wealth (see Figure 4.17)

- Location effect:** Women in rural households are 2.1 times as likely to be married before the age of 18 as those in urban households: 60.0 per cent of women in rural households were married as children, compared to 28.6 per cent of women in urban households.
- Wealth effect:** Wealth and ethnicity are highly linked in Nigeria (see *Characteristics*). The inequality by wealth alone (4.8 times) is therefore similar to that observed by ethnicity, as 16.6 per cent of women in the richest households marry before turning 18, compared to 80.1 per cent of women in the poorest households.
- Ethnicity effect:** Compared to the Igbo (18.5 per cent) and Yoruba (17.2 per cent), the Fulani and Hausa register the highest prevalence of child marriage at 79.7 and 78.2 per cent, respectively.⁵⁵ The group with the highest rates (Fulani) were 4.6 times as likely to marry before age 18 as the group with the lowest rates (Yoruba).
- Axes of advantages and disadvantages:** Hausa women generally have high rates of child marriage (78.2 per cent). However, the advantage of being from a rich urban household appears to mitigate the risk of child marriage. Hausa women living in the richest urban households are substantially less likely to marry early, at 48.2 per cent.
- The compounded effect:** Wealth and ethnicity, together with location, combine to significantly increase the risk of child marriage in Nigeria. Because the Yoruba are religiously diverse, the data could be additionally disaggregated by religion for this ethnic group. The results indicate that Christian Yoruba women in the richest urban households have the lowest rates of child marriage (9.3 per cent). In contrast, among women who are poor, identify as Hausa and live in rural areas the rate is 87.6 per cent—a rate 9.4 times as high as that of the group with the lowest rates of child marriage.⁵⁷

FIGURE 4.17

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 18–49 IN NIGERIA MARRIED BEFORE AGE 18, BY LOCATION, WEALTH AND ETHNICITY, 2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NPC, Federal Republic of Nigeria and ICF International 2014.

Note: In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3. Yoruba is the only ethnicity where population samples are large enough across different religions, and thus disaggregation by religion for the urban richest category shown.

IN FOCUS: VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN IN NIGERIA

In Nigeria, 16.1 per cent of women and girls aged 15–49 report having been victims of physical or sexual violence at least once in their lifetime at the hands of their current or most recent intimate partner. When emotional or psychological violence is also considered, the rate rises to 24.5 per cent.

Although violence permeates all population groups, large differences exist. Unlike many other indicators, however, it is not necessarily the women in the poorest rural households who fare worst: 10.1 per cent of women and girls in the poorest households report being victims of physical or sexual violence by a partner at least once, compared to 20.1 per cent in the middle wealth

quintile. Prevalence rates are slightly higher in urban than in rural settings and four times as high among the Igbo than the Hausa.⁵⁸

On average, 43.8 per cent of survivors of physical or sexual violence by an intimate partner seek help, mostly from family members (29.9 per cent), with only 2.4 per cent seeking help from formal institutions (police, lawyer, health professional or social worker). Yoruba and Igbo victims are likeliest to seek help (51.5 and 51.2 per cent, respectively), while Fulani and Hausa are significantly less likely (31.9 and 30.7 per cent, respectively). Women living in urban areas are also more likely to seek help than their rural counterparts (48.2 and 40.6 per cent, respectively).

Although intimate partners are key perpetrators in Nigeria, almost as many women experience violence by someone other than their current partner: 23 per cent of women have been victims of physical or sexual violence by a previous husband and 17.3 per cent by another relative (see Figure 4.18).

Igbo women and girls are the likeliest to report being the victim of violence at the hand of a relative: 25.2 per cent, while Hausa are the least likely, 5.1 per cent. Wealthier women and urban dwellers are also more likely to experience violence by family members and previous husbands.

FGM, another form of violence against women, is even more widespread in Nigeria. On average, 39.3 per cent of women have undergone the

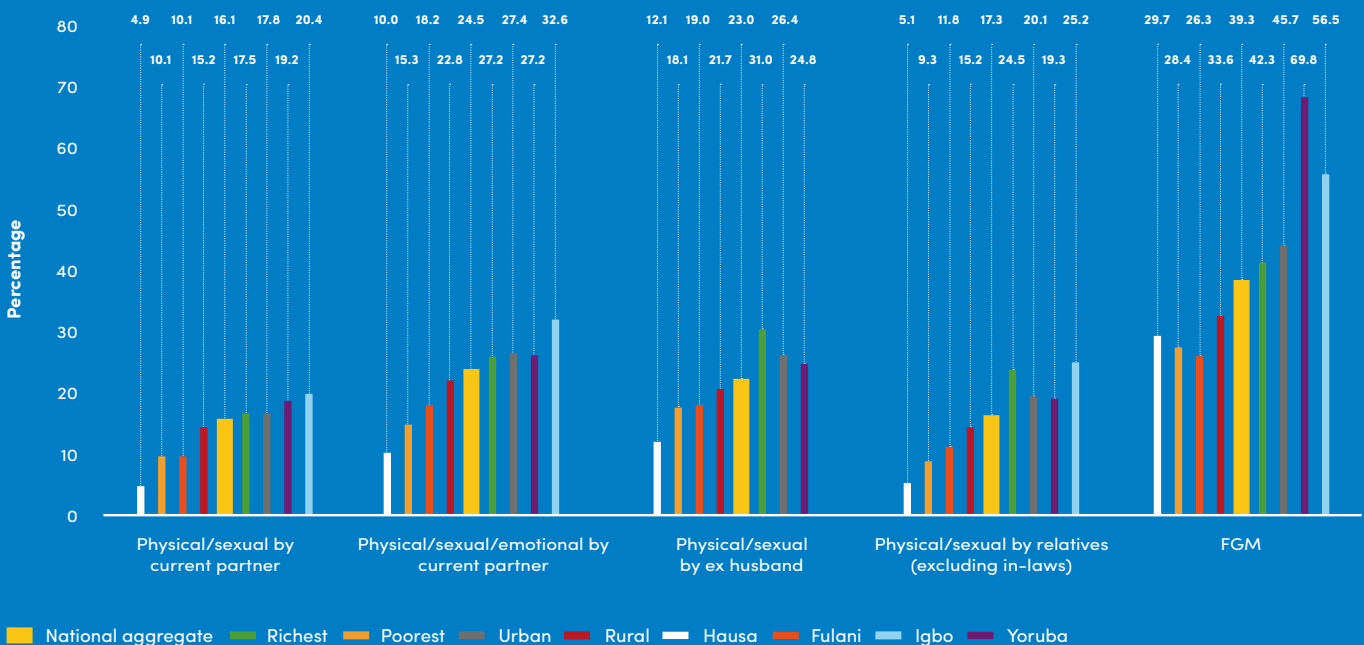
practice, with stark differences across wealth quintiles, locations and especially across ethnicities.

Women in the richest households and urban areas are more likely to be cut (42.3 and 45.7 per cent, respectively) than those in the poorest and rural households (28.4 and 33.6 per cent, respectively), while Yoruba women are 2.7 times as likely to undergo the practice as Fulani women (69.8 and 26.3 per cent, respectively).

The large majority (78.4 per cent) of all mutilations are performed by traditional circumcisers, putting women's reproductive health and lives at risk. Hausa women and girls are particularly at risk: Nearly all (95.2 per cent) are cut by traditional attendants.

FIGURE 4.18

PREVALENCE OF DIFFERENT TYPES OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS AGED 15–49 IN NIGERIA, 2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NPC, Federal Republic of Nigeria and ICF International 2014. Estimate for physical/sexual violence by ex-husband for Igbo women not shown, sample size (n<100).

MULTIDIMENSIONAL CLUSTERED DEPRIVATION

Key findings

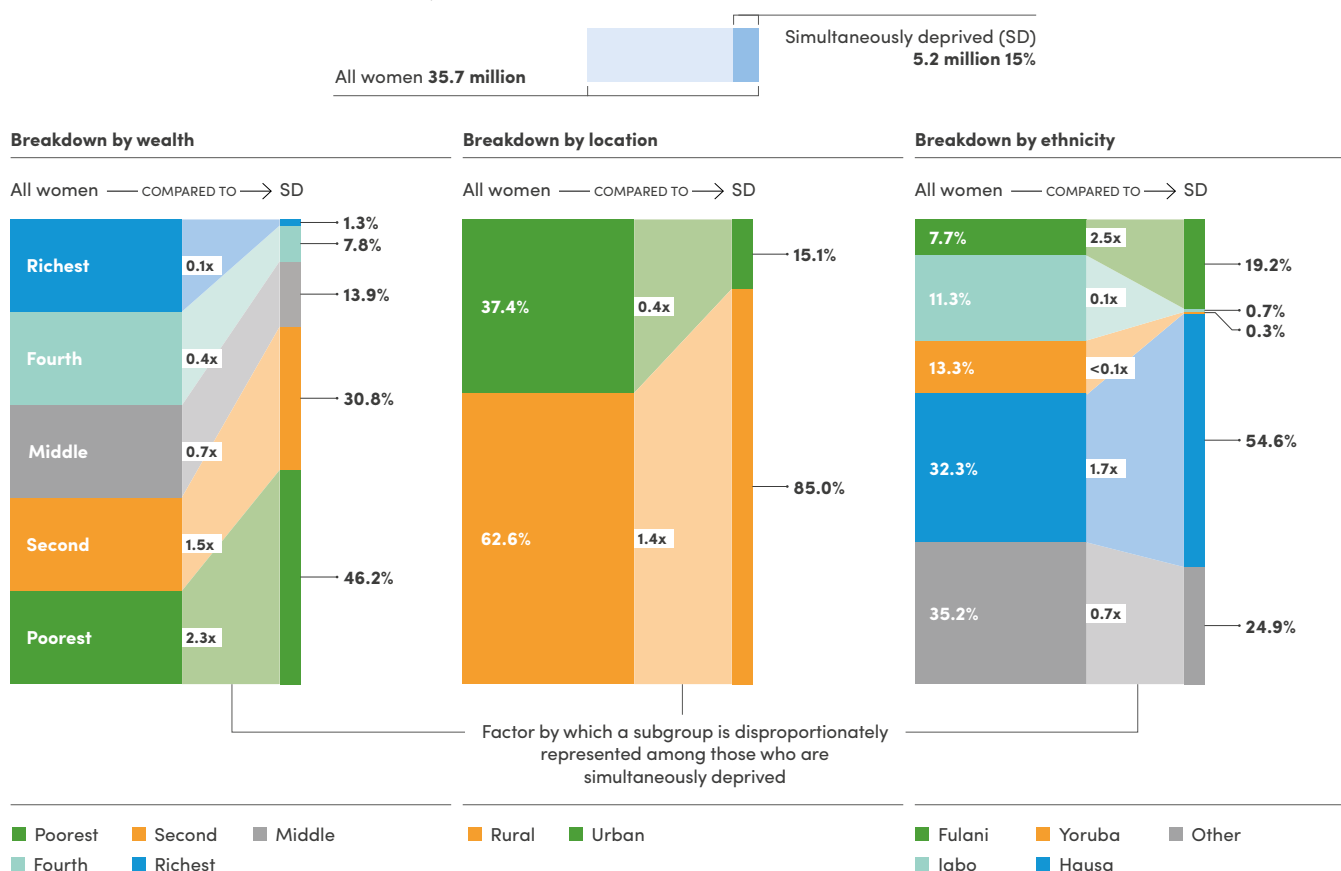
- In Nigeria, 15 per cent of all women aged 18–49 (or 5.2 million) are simultaneously deprived in four SDG-related dimensions.⁵⁹ These women were not only married before the age of 18 and education-poor, but they also reported no agency in health-care decisions and said they were not working at the time of the survey (see Figure 4.19).
- Nearly half (46.2 per cent) of those facing multidimensional deprivation live in the poorest households and 85.0 per cent reside in rural areas. Almost all (99.9 per cent) lack

access to clean cooking fuel in their homes, and 59.0 per cent lack access to basic water services, including 20 per cent who live more than 30 minutes (round trip) from the closest water source. Similarly, 50 per cent of these women also lack access to basic sanitation services.

- Hausa and Fulani women are disproportionately represented among those experiencing multidimensional deprivation, making up 54.6 and 19.2, respectively. This is much higher than their corresponding share within the country's population at 32.3 and 7.7 per cent, respectively.

FIGURE 4.19

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 18-49 IN NIGERIA SIMULTANEOUSLY DEPRIVED IN FOUR SDG-RELATED DIMENSIONS, 2013



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from NPC, Federal Republic of Nigeria and ICF International 2014.

COLOMBIA: WEALTH, GEOGRAPHY, ETHNICITY AND INTERNAL DISPLACEMENT



Photo: UN Women/Ryan Brown

BACKGROUND

The population of Colombia is an estimated 49.5 million, around 23 per cent of whom live in rural areas. According to the country's 2005 census, a large majority do not identify with any ethnic group (see Characteristics). However, marked differences in outcomes are evident between the majority group and those that identify with other ethnicities. Groups that make up less than 1 per cent of the total population, such as the Raizal, Palanquero and Rom, have been left out of the analysis due to sample size limitations.⁶⁰

A key challenge in Colombia, a country that has endured a protracted armed conflict for the past six decades, are the multiple sources of violence, including paramilitary and guerrilla groups, that hamper development efforts and have produced an estimated 7.4 million internally displaced people (IDP) since the conflict began.⁶¹

DHS have been implemented every five years in Colombia since 1990. Information on ethnicity is available and used to provide a more detailed analysis of inequalities among population groups. The most recent survey round has been used for this analysis and presents the demographic and health status of the Colombian people as captured in 2015.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS CAPTURED IN THE COLOMBIA CASE STUDY

Majority group

85 per cent of Colombian women do not identify with any racial minority, mostly live in urban areas and are spread across wealth quintiles, though slightly likelier to fall in the upper half of the wealth distribution.

Afro-Colombian

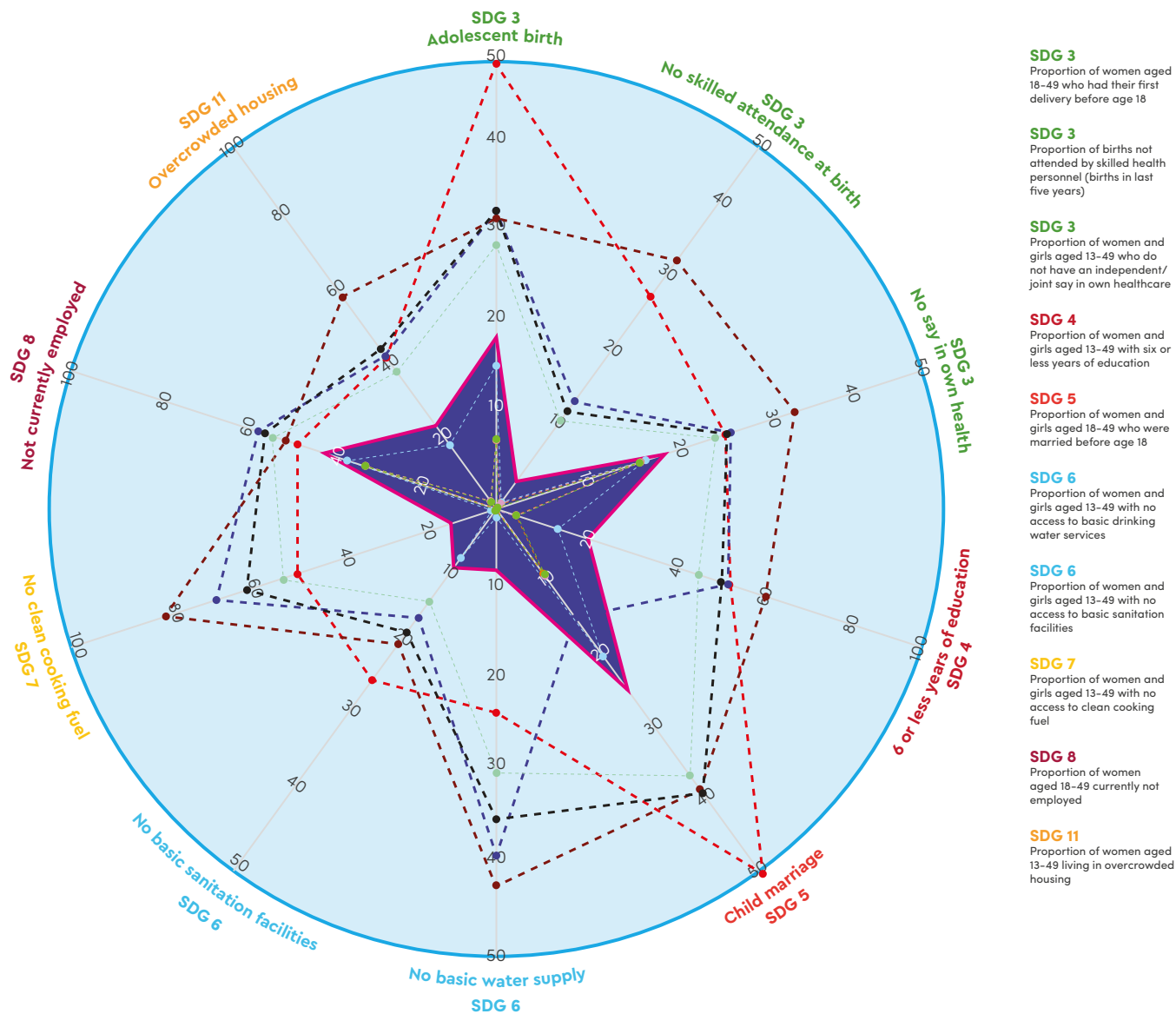
Make up slightly less than 9 per cent of the total population, mostly fall in the bottom half of the wealth distribution and, at 24 per cent of rural dwellers, are over-represented among the rural minority.

Indigenous

Less than 6 per cent of the total population and overwhelmingly concentrated in the poorest and poorer quintiles, with more than half living in rural areas. According to the 2005 census, there are at least 87 indigenous groups.

FIGURE 4.20

INEQUALITIES IN SDG-RELATED OUTCOMES BETWEEN DIFFERENT GROUPS OF WOMEN AND GIRLS, COLOMBIA, 2015



- SDG 3**
Proportion of women aged 16-49 who had their first delivery before age 18
- SDG 3**
Proportion of births not attended by skilled health personnel (births in last five years)
- SDG 3**
Proportion of women and girls aged 13-49 who do not have an independent/joint say in own healthcare
- SDG 4**
Proportion of women and girls aged 13-49 with six or less years of education
- SDG 5**
Proportion of women and girls aged 18-49 who were married before age 18
- SDG 6**
Proportion of women and girls aged 13-49 with no access to basic drinking water services
- SDG 6**
Proportion of women and girls aged 13-49 with no access to basic sanitation facilities
- SDG 7**
Proportion of women and girls aged 13-49 with no access to clean cooking fuel
- SDG 8**
Proportion of women aged 18-49 currently not employed
- SDG 11**
Proportion of women aged 13-49 living in overcrowded housing

Groups

- Poorest
 - Urban
 - Richest urban
 - Richest urban majority
 - Poorest rural Afro-Colombian
 - Richest
 - Rural
 - Poorest rural
 - Poorest rural indigenous
 - National aggregate
- Deprivation exceeds the national average
 - Deprivation lower than the national average

Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from Colombia's 2015 DHS (MINSALUD and Profamilia 2015).

Notes: Different scales are used across each of the 10 axes, each corresponding to the maximum and minimum values for each given indicator. Select groups are shown given space limitations. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3.

IDENTIFYING THE FURTHEST BEHIND IN COLOMBIA

Wealth and location are closely intertwined in Colombia: 99.7 per cent of women in the richest quintile live in urban settings, while 88.2 per cent of the poorest live in rural areas. Women and girls from the richest urban households fare far better than women and girls from the poorest rural households (see Figure 4.20). Among the rural poorest,

indigenous and Afro-Colombian women and girls lag far behind the non-ethnically affiliated majority across key dimensions such as child marriage, adolescent birth rates, skilled attendance at birth and education. Indigenous women and girls fare worst in access to household level assets, including improved drinking water, clean fuel and housing.⁶²

SPOTLIGHT ON ADOLESCENT BIRTH RATES AND ACCESS TO SKILLED BIRTH ATTENDANCE DURING CHILDBIRTH (SDG 3)

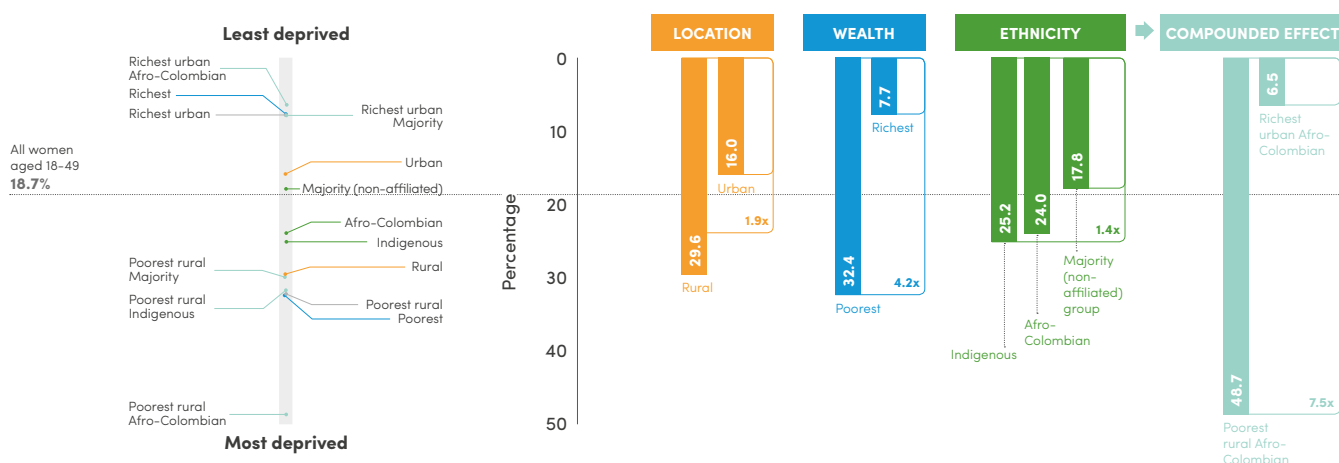
Adolescent birth rates

In 2015, 18.7 per cent of Colombian women aged 18–49 delivered their first child before the age of 18 (see Figure 4.21), a rate almost identical to that of 2010

- **Location effect:** Women in rural households are 1.9 times as likely to have delivered their first child before the age of 18 as those in urban households: 16.0 per cent and 29.6 per cent, respectively.
- **Wealth effect:** Women from the poorest households are 4.2 times as likely to have delivered their first child before the age of 18 as those from the richest households: 32.4 per cent and 7.7 per cent, respectively.
- **Ethnicity effect:** At 25.2 per cent, indigenous women are 1.4 times as likely to give birth to their first child before age 18 as women who did not identify with an ethnicity, 17.8 of whom delivered before reaching adulthood.⁶³
- **The compounded effect:** The compounded effect of advantages in wealth and location appears to outdo ethnicity-related disadvantage in delivering before age 18; as a result, groups of women of the same ethnicity appear at opposite ends of the adolescent birth distribution. For instance, the most likely group of women to deliver before adulthood are Afro-Colombian women living in the poorest rural households (48.7 per cent), who are 7.5 times as likely as Afro-Colombian from the richest urban households (6.5 per cent) to deliver before the age of 18.⁶⁴

FIGURE 4.21

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 18–49 IN COLOMBIA WHO DELIVERED THEIR FIRST CHILD BEFORE THE AGE OF 18, BY LOCATION, WEALTH AND ETHNICITY, 2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from MINSALUD and Profamilia 2015.

Note: In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3.

Skilled birth attendance during childbirth

The chances of delivery-related complications and maternal death decrease significantly when a skilled health professional is present at childbirth. In Colombia, only 4.1 per cent of all births are not attended by skilled health professionals, but this rate varies across groups (see Figure 4.22). Among women who give birth before the age of 18—when delivery-related complications are particularly likely—this rate rises to 7.3 per cent.

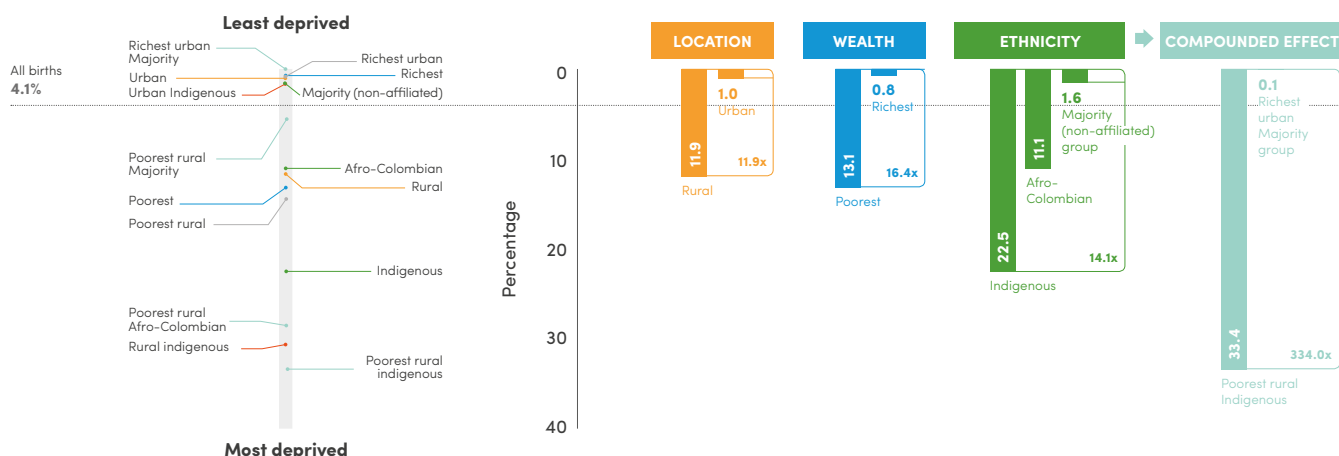
- Location effect:** Women living in rural areas are 11.9 times as likely as those in urban areas to lack skilled health attendance during delivery. Only 1.0 per cent of women and girls in urban areas delivered without help from a skilled health professional, compared to 11.9 per cent of rural women and girls.
- Wealth effect:** Colombia’s poorest women are 16.4 times as likely as the richest women to deliver without assistance from a health-care professional, with rates of 13.1 and 0.8 per cent, respectively.
- Ethnicity gap:** Less than 2 per cent of women and girls who do not identify with any ethnicity deliver without the help of a skilled health professional, compared to 22.5 per cent of indigenous women and girls, which makes the latter 14.1 times as likely to deliver without professional attendance.

Similarly, Afro-Colombian women are more likely than Majority group women on average to lack skilled attendance at birth.

- Axes of advantages and disadvantages:** Indigenous women are much more likely than any other group to lack access to professional attendance at childbirth. However, the advantage of being in an urban setting appears to mitigate the risk: only 1.7 per cent of those living in urban areas are unable to access skilled delivery care.
- Compounded effect:** 33.4 per cent of indigenous women living in the poorest rural households deliver without the assistance of a skilled health professional, compared to 0.1 per cent of women who do not identify with any ethnicity and live in the richest urban households, making the poorest rural indigenous women 334.0 times as likely to lack skilled delivery care.

FIGURE 4.22

PROPORTION OF BIRTHS IN COLOMBIA NOT ATTENDED BY SKILLED HEALTH PERSONNEL (BIRTHS IN LAST FIVE YEARS), BY LOCATION, WEALTH AND ETHNICITY, 2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from MINSALUD and Profamilia 2015.

Note: In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The exception is rural poorest Afro-Colombian, where the sample is slightly lower than 100. The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3.

IN FOCUS: SDG-RELATED OUTCOMES FOR INTERNALLY DISPLACED WOMEN AND GIRLS IN COLOMBIA

It is estimated that since 1985, 7.4 million people have been internally displaced in Colombia.⁶⁵ Land restitution to those formerly in agriculture has been slow, and only some who fled the countryside have managed to regularize their status and been successfully integrated into urban areas. In addition, the Venezuelan crisis produced an inflow of about 300,000 refugees from 2015 to 2017.

The 2015 DHS includes specific questions on reasons for changing place of residence, including whether the reason related to violence by insurgents or the ensuing conflict. A respondent's selection of displacement due to violence by paramilitary or guerrilla groups is used as a proxy for being an internally displaced person (IDP).

Afro-Colombian and indigenous women and girls are disproportionately likely to be displaced due to

violence at 20 and 10 per cent, respectively,⁶⁶ and are most deprived across several SDG dimensions. Child marriage rates, for example, are much higher (57.0 per cent) among Afro-Colombian IDP women and girls than among Afro-Colombian women overall (27.9 per cent). Gaps in age at first delivery are also significant: 81.6 per cent of indigenous IDP women and girls deliver their first child before turning 18, compared to 31.3 per cent of indigenous women and girls overall.⁶⁷

Moreover, IDP women and girls are almost twice as likely to be education-poor as non-IDPs (43.6 per cent and 22.3 per cent, respectively), especially those from the poorest households, where 58.2 per cent are education-poor. In comparison, 4.6 per cent of women and girls from the richest urban households are education-poor. In Colombia on average, 21.4 per cent of women and girls are education-poor.

Likely as a direct consequence of their situation of displacement, women IDPs are also far more likely than other women to live in overcrowded housing: 20 per cent live in a household where three or more adults share one sleeping room, compared to the national average of 12.8 per cent. The figure rises above 30 per cent for IDPs in the poorest and poorer households (i.e., the bottom 40 per cent of the wealth distribution) as well as for IDPs who identify as Afro-Colombian.

IDP status also influences a woman's chances of falling victim to sexual or physical violence by both an intimate partner and others: 42.8 per cent of IDP women and girls are victims of sexual or physical violence at the hands of their intimate partner, compared to 32.8 per cent among non-IDPs. Similarly, 19.2 per cent of IDP women and girls are victims of sexual violence by someone other than their intimate partner, compared to 6.6 per cent among non-IDPs.

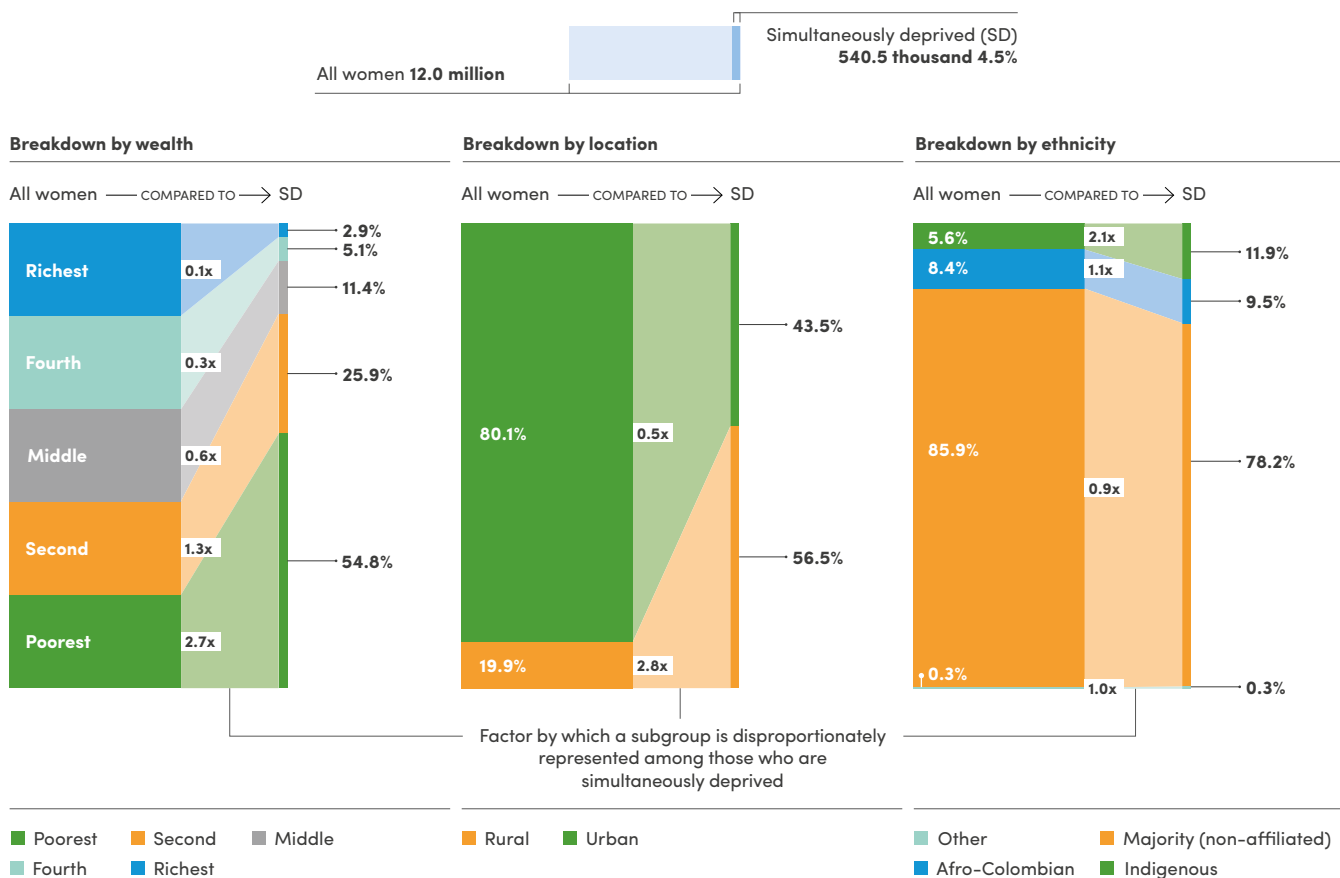
MULTIDIMENSIONAL CLUSTERED DEPRIVATION

Key findings

- Unlike Pakistan and Nigeria, few women in Colombia are simultaneously deprived across all four dimensions: Less than 1 per cent (0.6 per cent) of women aged 18–49 said they were not only married before the age of 18 and education-poor, but also lack agency in health-care decisions and were not working at the time of the survey.⁶⁸
- In part, this is because, unlike in the previous two case studies, relatively few women aged 18–49 in Colombia report no say in own health-care decisions: 9.1 per cent. This dimension is relevant in Colombia, but less so for women aged 18–49. The vast majority (61 per cent) who report no say in own health-care are in fact girls aged 13–17.⁶⁹
- The share of women experiencing multidimensional deprivation increases to 4.5 per cent of the population (or 540,500 women) when considering those who are deprived in the following three dimensions: married before the age of 18, did not complete more than six years of education and were not employed at the time of the survey (see Figure 4.23).
- More than half (54.8 per cent) of those facing multidimensional deprivation live in the poorest households and 56.5 per cent reside in rural areas. Almost a quarter (23.4 per cent) lack access to basic water services, 15.3 per cent lack access to basic sanitation services and 62.9 per cent have no access to clean cooking fuel in their homes.
- Women who identify as either indigenous or Afro-Colombian are over-represented among the simultaneously deprived.

FIGURE 4.23

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 18-49 IN COLOMBIA SIMULTANEOUSLY DEPRIVED IN THREE SDG-RELATED DIMENSIONS, 2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from MINSALUD and Profamilia 2015.

UNITED STATES: INCOME, LOCATION, RACE AND ETHNICITY



Photo: Spencer Platt/Getty Images

BACKGROUND

According to estimates by the U.S. Census Bureau from 2016, 61.3 per cent of the population in the United States identify as white, 13.3 per cent as black or African-American, 5.7 per cent as Asian, 1.3 per cent as Native American/Alaska Native and 0.2 per cent as Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander. Another 2.6 per cent of the population identify with two or more races.⁷⁰ Those that identify as Hispanic or Latino of any race make up 17.8 per cent of the population.⁷¹

While DHS are not conducted in the United States, extensive information on women's well-being—often disaggregated by income, race and ethnicity—is available through a variety of data sources, including the U.S. Census Bureau's American Community Survey (ACS).⁷² In this analysis, the 2015 round of the survey is used, and it reveals racial and ethnic divisions across a wide range of social and economic indicators. For the purpose of this analysis, women who ethnically identify as Hispanic, regardless of their race, are aggregated separately and therefore not included in the black, white, Asian and Native American/Alaska Native aggregations.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUPS CAPTURED IN THE UNITED STATES CASE STUDY

Native American or Alaska Native

Spread across all income quintiles but less likely to fall in the richest; live mostly in rural (non-metro) areas.

Black

Disproportionately more likely to fall in the bottom two quintiles of the income distribution, and significantly over-represented in metro areas/main cities.

Asian

Significantly over-represented in the richer/richest quintiles. While Chinese and Japanese live mostly in urban (metropolitan) areas, other Asians and Pacific Islanders are more likely to reside in peripheral 'suburban' areas.

Hispanic (any race)

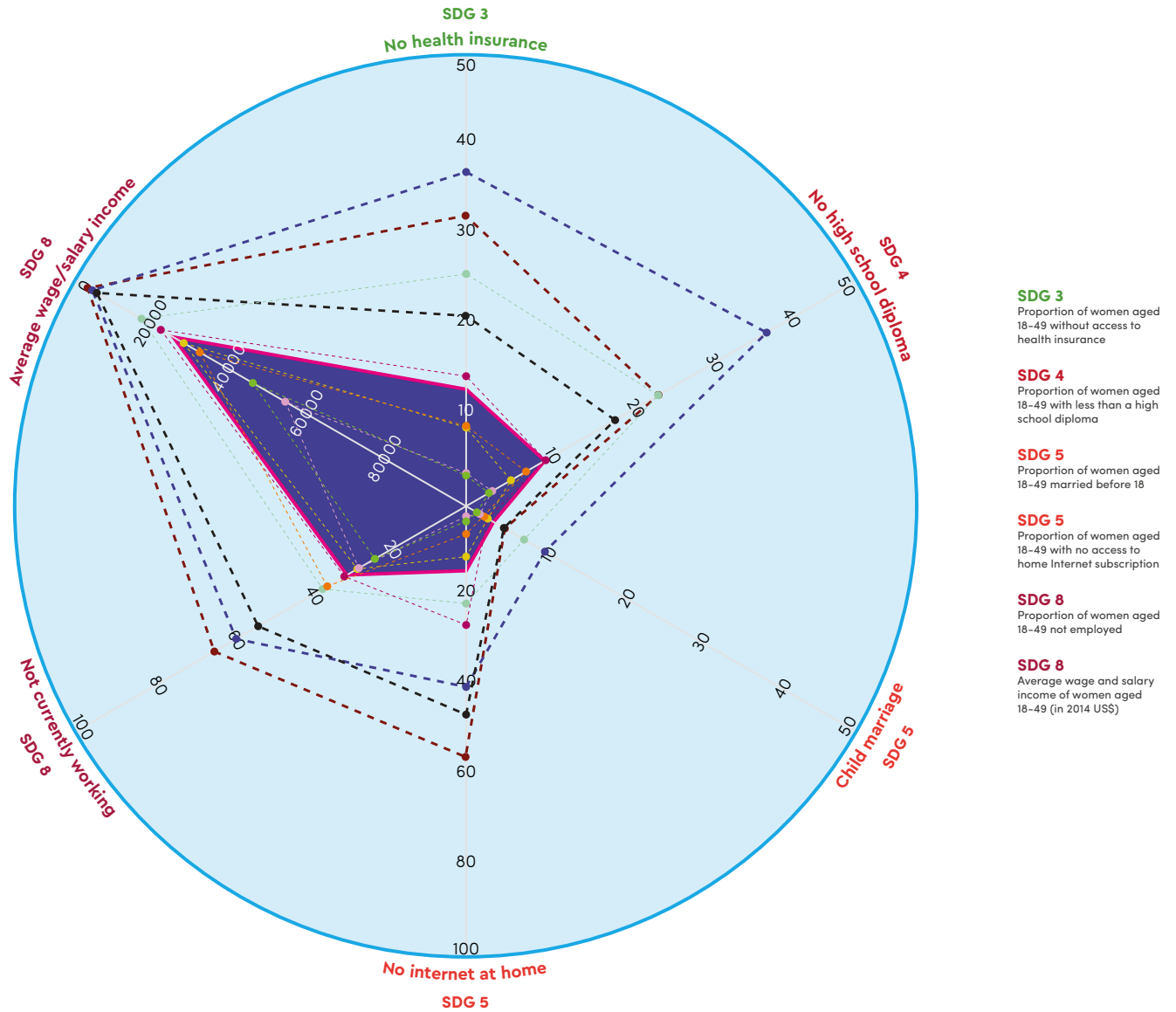
Present across all quintiles but largely located in the central part of the income distribution. Over-represented in main metro areas, but a significant share also lives in peripheral 'suburban' areas.

White

Over-represented in the top half of the income distribution. Live mostly in peripheral 'suburban' areas, but are also slightly over-represented in rural areas.

FIGURE 4.24

INEQUALITIES IN SDG-RELATED OUTCOMES BETWEEN DIFFERENT GROUPS OF WOMEN, UNITED STATES, 2015



Groups

- Asian
 - Black
 - Hispanic
 - White richest
 - Native American/Alaska Native poorest
 - White
 - Black poorest
 - Hispanic poorest
 - National aggregate
- Deprivation exceeds the national average
 Deprivation lower than the national average

Source: Based on UN Women calculations using the 2015 American Community Survey microdata (U.S. Census Bureau 2017).

Notes: Different scales are used across each of the 6 axes, each corresponding to the maximum and minimum values for each given indicator. The scale for average wage/salary income is inverted as a higher salary represents less deprivation. Select groups are shown given space limitations. For full group disaggregation, see Annex Table 3.

IDENTIFYING THE FURTHEST BEHIND IN THE UNITED STATES

In the United States, race/ethnicity and income are closely interlinked: Black, Hispanic and Native American/Alaska Native women aged 18–49 are far more likely to live in poverty than are white and Asian women. The rates of poverty are highest for black at 23.9 per cent, followed by Native American/Alaska Native (20.4 per cent) and Hispanic (15.6 per cent). The corresponding figure is 10 per cent for both Asian and white women. Across all six dimensions explored, white women aged 18–49 fared better than black, Native

American or Alaska Native and Hispanic women (see Figure 4.24). Among the poorest, Native American/Alaska Native and Hispanic women are the least likely to be employed.⁷³ Hispanic women are also most likely to have less than a high school diploma and be married before the age of 18. Ethnic and racial divisions are also evident among those in the top 20 per cent of the income distribution where, similarly, white and Asian women fare better than black, Hispanic and Native American/Alaska Native women.

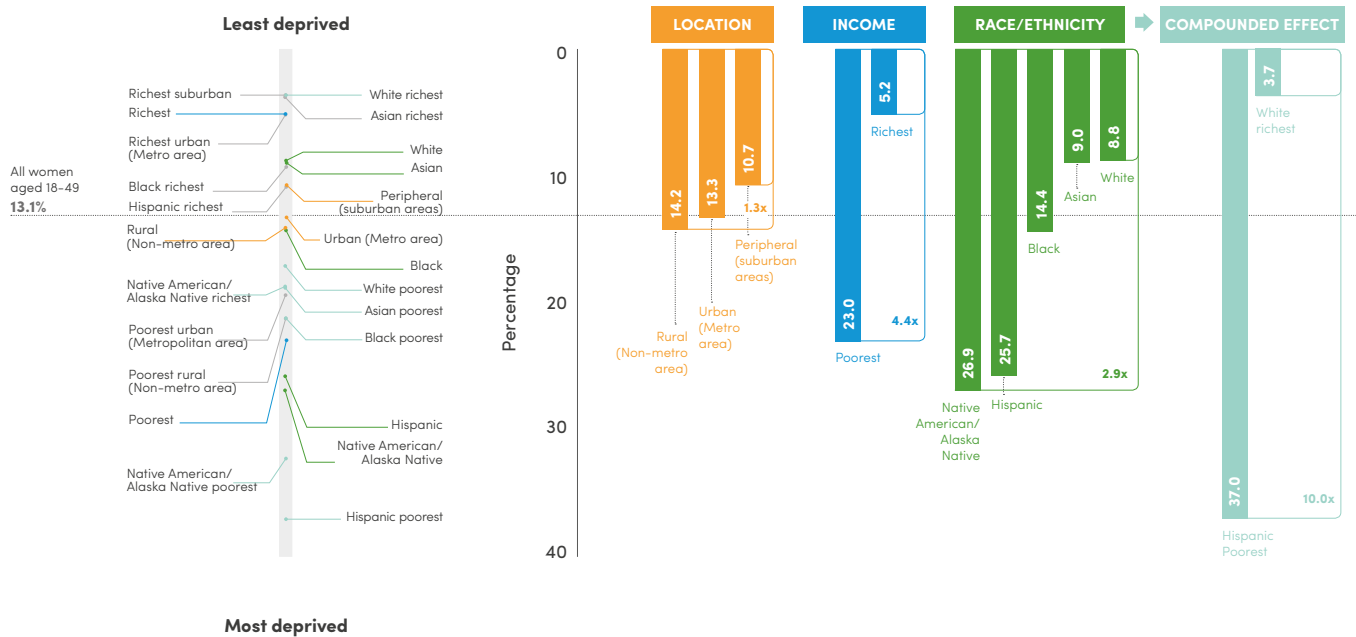
SPOTLIGHT ON ACCESS TO HEALTH INSURANCE (SDG 3)

Health insurance in the United States is critical for accessing health services, yet in 2015, roughly 13.1 per cent of American women aged 18–49 had no health insurance (see Figure 4.25)

- Location effect:** Because health insurance in the United States is largely attached to employment status and type of employment, women living away from urban centres—who are more likely to be self-employed, work for family members or not work at all—are the most likely to lack access to health insurance (14.2 per cent). These women are 1.3 times as likely as women living in urban suburbs to lack health insurance (10.7 per cent).
- Income effect:** Women in the bottom quintile are 4.4 times as likely as those in the top quintile to lack access to health insurance. That is, 23 per cent of women whose income falls in the bottom quintile lack insurance, compared to 5.2 per cent of those whose income falls in the top 20 per cent.
- Ethnicity effect:** At 8.8 per cent and 9.0 per cent, respectively, white and Asian women are substantially less likely than the average American woman to lack access to health insurance. Native American/Alaska Native women are 2.9 times as likely as white women to lack health insurance (26.9 per cent). Similarly, 25.7 per cent of Hispanic women lack health insurance. Black women fall in the middle of the distribution: 14.4 per cent are without health insurance.
- Compounded effect:** Employment status in the United States is highly correlated with accessing health insurance.⁷⁴ And because employment and income are also intrinsically related, wealth is a key predictor of whether or not a woman has access to health insurance. Race and ethnicity also matter substantially, and all these dimensions combine to create large access gaps: 37 per cent of Hispanic women in the poorest quintile lack access to health insurance, making them 10 times as likely to be deprived as white women in the richest quintile (3.7 per cent of whom lack insurance).

FIGURE 4.25

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 18–49 IN THE UNITED STATES WHO LACK HEALTH INSURANCE, BY LOCATION, INCOME AND RACE/ETHNICITY, 2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from U.S. Census Bureau 2017.

Note: In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation see Annex Table 3.

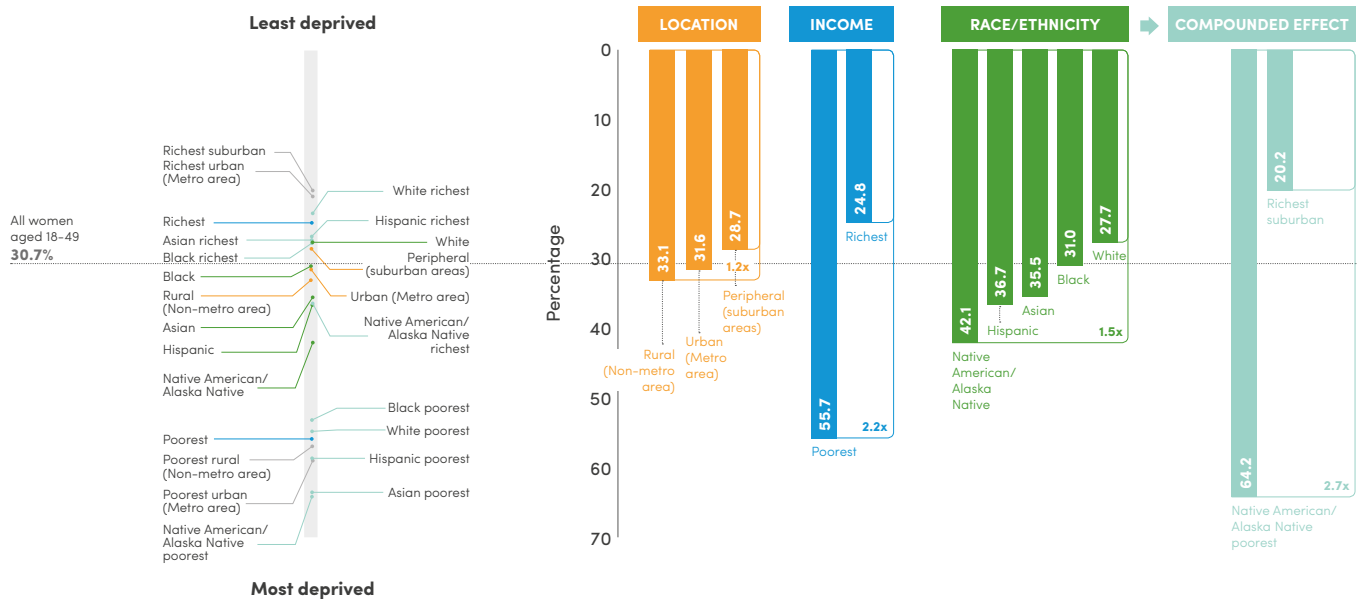
SPOTLIGHT ON ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT (SDG 8)

An estimated 30.7 per cent of US women aged 18–49 were not working at the time of survey (see Figure 4.26)⁷⁵

- Location effect:** The differences by location are not large, with 28.7 per cent of women in peripheral (suburban) areas not employed compared to 33.1 per cent of women in rural (non-metro) areas.⁷⁶
- Income effect:** Women in the bottom quintile of the income distribution were 2.2 times as likely as women in the top quintile to be not working at the time of the survey: 55.7 per cent and 24.8 per cent, respectively.
- Ethnicity effect:** At 42.1 per cent, Native American/Alaska Native women were 1.5 times as likely as white women (27.7 per cent) to be not working.
- Compounded effect:** Overall, all population groups in the poorest quintile are significantly deprived in this dimension regardless of ethnicity, as more than half of them were out of work. However, income and ethnicity combine to expand the deprivation gap. Native American/Alaska Native women in the poorest quintile are the most disadvantaged group: 64.2 per cent of them were not working at the time of survey. These women were 2.7 times as likely to be not working as white women in the richest quintile.

FIGURE 4.26

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 18–49 IN THE UNITED STATES WHO REPORT NOT WORKING AT THE TIME OF THE SURVEY, BY INCOME, LOCATION, RACE AND ETHNICITY, 2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from U.S. Census Bureau 2017.

Note: In the left-hand graph, all groups are shown and ranked from most to least deprived, only groups with insufficient sample size are not shown (n<100). The bar charts to the right present results for a selection of these. For full group disaggregation see Annex Table 3.

IN FOCUS: STATUS OF OLDER WOMEN (AGED 50 AND OVER) IN THE UNITED STATES

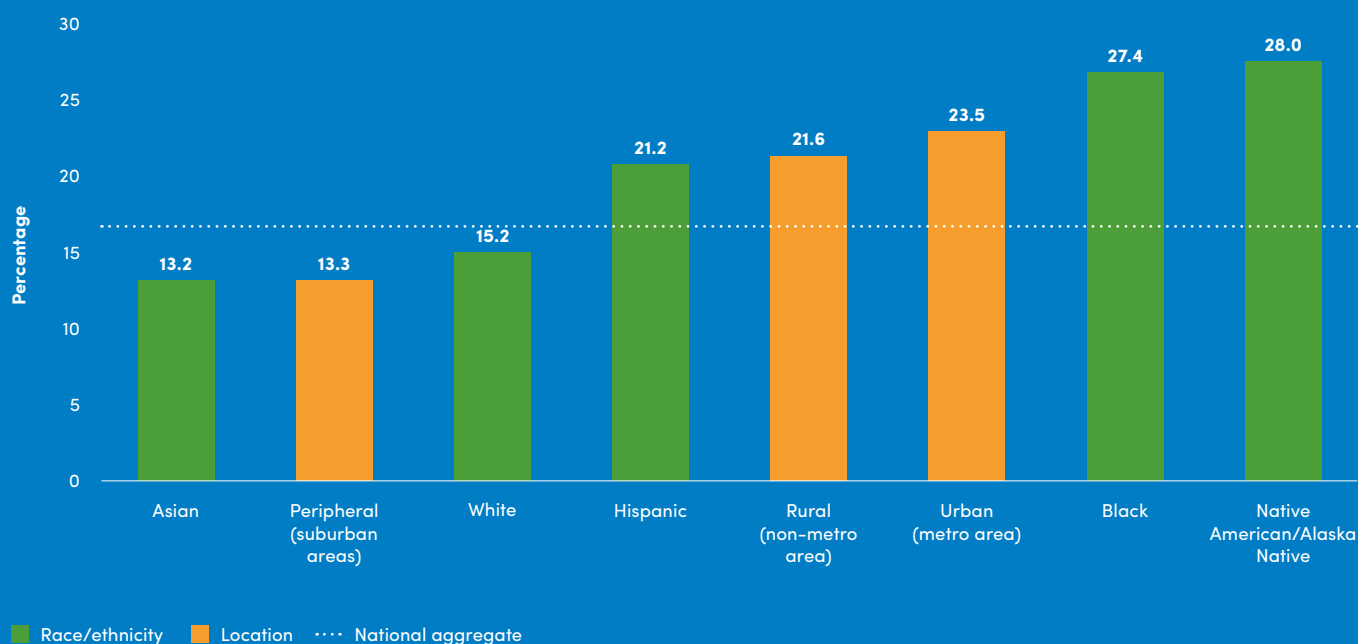
Unlike the DHS used for the other three case studies, the American Community Survey (ACS) includes women aged 50 and older in its sample and thus provides important insights on the specific challenges and forms of deprivation faced by older women in the country.

Both women and men in the United States see lower wages and higher poverty rates at older ages on average, but the gender gaps visible among those aged 18–49 prevail and even increase at older ages.

According to ACS data, 17.1 per cent of women and 12.3 per cent of men aged 50 and older lived in the poorest quintile in 2015, compared to 13.1 and 9.7 per cent, respectively, for the younger populations. Black and Native American/Alaska Native women are disproportionately represented among the poorest at 27.4 and 28 per cent, respectively. Poverty tends to be concentrated in urban centres, resulting in an estimated 23.5 per cent of inner city older women living in the poorest quintile, compared to 13.3 per cent of those living in suburban areas (see Figure 4.27).

FIGURE 4.27

PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN (AGED 50+) IN THE UNITED STATES LIVING IN THE POOREST QUINTILE, BY ETHNICITY AND BY LOCATION, 2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from U.S. Census Bureau 2017.

Older women’s over-representation in poverty is partly due to their overall lower educational outcomes, as only 27.3 per cent of women aged 50 and older completed a Bachelor’s Degree.⁷⁷ However, data suggest that female educational attainments are improving over time at all education levels: While 14.1 per cent of older women failed to obtain a High School Diploma, 10.3 per cent of women aged 18–49 did not obtain one. The largest improvement has taken place among Asian women in the poorest quintile, who have shifted from 40.6 to 13.9 per cent non-completion rates. Hispanic older women have the lowest educational attainments, but improvements there are also taking place: 41.4 per cent of them failed to complete high school, compared to 38.3 per cent of their younger counterparts.

In 2015, 33.9 per cent of women participated in the labour force past retirement age. This large participation rate is, in part, due to the low US pension replacement rates (the level of pensions in retirement relative to earnings when working), which, at 44.8 per cent for the average earner, are some of the lowest among developed countries.⁷⁸ Because replacement rates tend to be even lower for higher earners, the wealthier population groups engage in employment longer, often well into their 70s. For instance, almost 60 per cent of white, black and Native American/Alaska Native women from the richest quintiles aged 50 and above worked in 2014, compared to 17.5 per cent on average for women in the poorest quintile.

Detailed statistics on many other important socio-economic characteristics—such as exposure to violence, age at first delivery and decision-making power—are not included in the ACS survey.

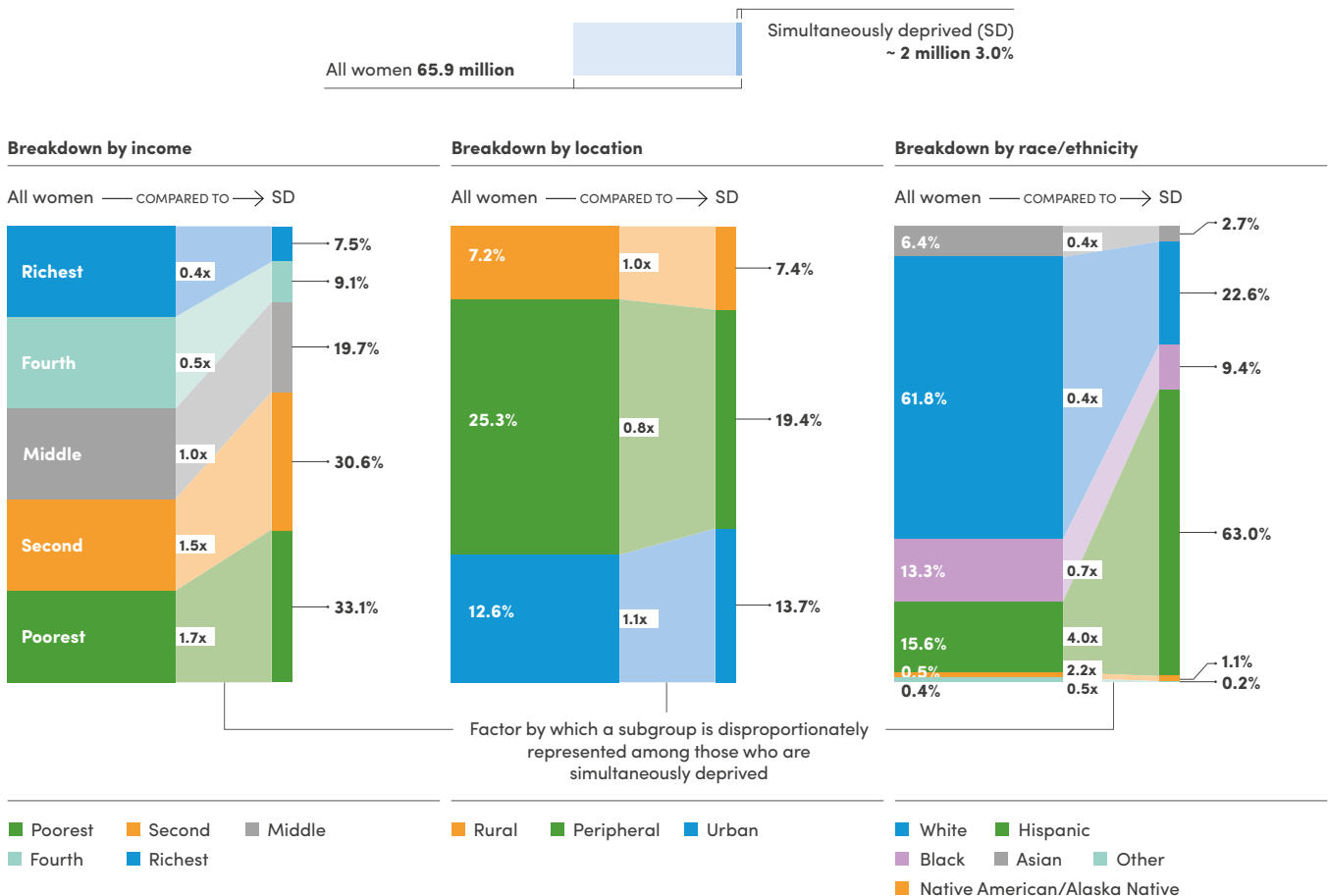
MULTIDIMENSIONAL CLUSTERED DEPRIVATION

Key findings

- In the United States, 3.0 per cent of all women aged 18–49 (or approximately 2 million) are simultaneously deprived in three SDG-related dimensions, facing not only education-related deprivation (no high school diploma), but also barriers to employment and health care (proxied through lack of health insurance) (see Figure 4.28).⁷⁹
- Nearly two thirds (63.7 per cent) of those facing multidimensional deprivation live in the bottom two quintiles of the income distribution.
- Hispanic and Native American/Alaska Native women are over-represented among those facing simultaneous deprivations in these three dimensions.⁸⁰

FIGURE 4.28

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AGED 18-49 IN THE UNITED STATES SIMULTANEOUSLY DEPRIVED IN THREE SDG-RELATED DIMENSIONS, 2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from U.S. Census Bureau 2017.

VULNERABLE AND HIDDEN POPULATIONS

The analysis in the previous section indicates that although characteristics of marginalization are country-specific, the phenomenon of exclusion and deprivation of minority and non-dominant groups is pervasive across countries. The interaction that is most relevant in a given context will depend on the most prevalent and entrenched forms of discrimination, which are often the legacy of structural power inequalities.

In addition to widespread spatial and class inequalities, forms of discrimination based on gender identity, migratory status and disability also transcend national borders and have been the topic of landmark human rights treaties and Human Rights Council resolutions. However, data about these population groups are largely missing and, even when available, are not systematically updated, posing a significant challenge for establishing baselines and measuring progress.

While household surveys are one of the primary sources of data for tracking progress towards achieving the SDGs, they do not adequately capture the socio-demographic characteristics of as many as 350 million people worldwide, including, for example, the homeless, people in institutions, nomadic populations, migrants and people living in areas hard to reach because of conflict or natural disaster.⁶¹ In many countries, little or no information is collected on persons with disabilities, on racial, ethnic and religious minorities⁶² or on gender identity. Even when these subgroups are included in surveys, the sampling might not be stratified and therefore is often unsuitable for capturing information about them and makes it challenging to draw robust conclusions on their characteristics.

Fulfilling the principle of leave no one behind will require expanding information on these and other vulnerable groups that have traditionally been invisible in official statistics. This section showcases current initiatives to develop methodologies and expand data coverage on three groups: women and girls with disabilities, migrant, refugee and internally displaced women, and women and girls discriminated against based on their gender identity.

WOMEN AND GIRLS WITH DISABILITIES

Monitoring the situation of women and girls with disabilities requires collecting data disaggregated by sex, disability status and other factors that intersect with gender-based and disability-based discrimination. Surveys and censuses have often been used to collect disability data, but asking meaningful and comparable questions across countries is challenging due to the lack of an international standard for defining and measuring disabilities.

Since 2001, the Washington Group (WG) on Disability Statistics has developed a set of questions to add to surveys and censuses to fill this gap and, if fully endorsed by countries, to serve as the international standard. The WG recommended that the following short set of questions be incorporated in national censuses:⁶³

1. Do you have difficulty seeing even if wearing glasses?

2. Do you have difficulty hearing even if using a hearing aid?
3. Do you have difficulty walking or climbing stairs?
4. Do you have difficulty remembering or concentrating?
5. Do you have difficulty with (self-care such as) washing all over or dressing?
6. Using your usual language, do you have difficulty communicating (for example, understanding or being understood by others)?

These questions identify functional difficulty in six domains: seeing, hearing, walking, concentrating/remembering, self-care and communicating (with the response categories: No difficulty; Some difficulty; A lot of difficulty; Cannot do at all). They are currently the most robust way to collect internationally comparable data on disability and, in recent years, have been adopted by statistical offices in over 65 countries for their household surveys and censuses.

However, many countries still use questions on impairments that only capture extremely severe disabilities or that use the term 'disability' without defining it.⁸⁴ Given the mix of questions about disability used in some countries and the total lack of disability data in others, it is impossible to compile a global profile of the situation of women and girls with disabilities that can be used to monitor the SDGs. More surveys and censuses need to adopt the WG questions.

Despite data limitations, some patterns have emerged. Two international studies using comparable data and consistent disability measures across countries have shown disability prevalence for adults is higher among women than men.⁸⁵ In 54 countries, the average disability prevalence has been estimated at 12 per cent among women compared to 8 per cent among men.⁸⁶ In 27 European countries,

disability prevalence is also systematically higher for women than men, with an increasing gender gap in older age groups.⁸⁷ However, the higher prevalence among women was not systematically found in another study of 33 countries using a variety of disability measures.⁸⁸ More research is needed using improved and fully comparable data to assess the gender gap in disability prevalence and identify the reasons for it. Several factors may make women more prone to disability, including lack of maternity care or access to health care, domestic violence, HIV and accumulated deprivation due to unequal intra-household resource distribution (e.g., of food, medical attention, time for leisure and rest, and so forth).⁸⁹

Women with disabilities are more deprived than women without disabilities in a variety of dimensions of well-being. There is also growing evidence that socio-economic disadvantage contributes to disabilities, with higher disability rates found among older women from lower socio-economic groups than among those from higher groups (see Chapter 6).

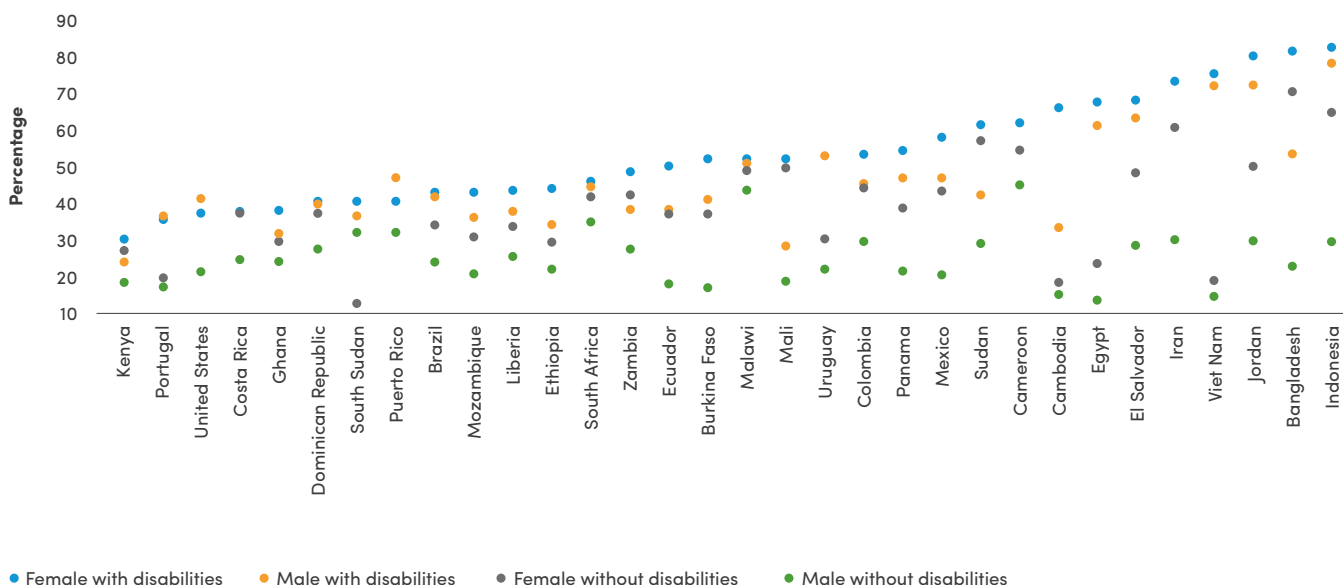
Women with disabilities are more likely to suffer from violence and sexual assault, including unique manifestations of violence, than women without disabilities. Available data show that women with disabilities also tend to have lower educational attainment, higher inactivity rates and a higher headcount of multidimensional poverty than women without disabilities.⁹⁰

As disability and gender are both associated with disadvantage, the disadvantages faced by women with disabilities are compounded. Additional factors such as age and race/ethnicity may put certain subgroups of women and girls with disabilities further at risk. This compounded disadvantage is illustrated by the not in education or employment (NEET) rates for female youth (see Figure 4.29), where women with disabilities tend to have the highest rates of being excluded.⁹¹

These results underscore the importance of considering and addressing (1) gender differences

FIGURE 4.29

PROPORTION OF POPULATION AGED 15–24 NOT IN EDUCATION OR EMPLOYMENT, 2005–2015



Source: UN Women calculations based on census data from IPUMS 2017.

Note: Latest available data was used for each of the countries where available censuses dated from 2005 or later. In the case of India, the 2004 Census is used. Most country samples explicitly state that only permanent conditions were considered disabilities. When multiple possible disabling conditions were reported, these were aggregated into a single summary variable indicating whether the person was disabled or not. Where samples provide several degrees of difficulty, disability status was assigned to those marked as "significant" or "severe" difficulty.

in disability prevention and inclusion strategies and (2) disadvantages due to disability when developing and implementing gender equality and women’s empowerment strategies. They also show the need for more census and survey data to be collected on an ongoing basis using internationally comparable disability measures, particularly the WG-recommended questions.⁹² Internationally comparable data will play a critical role in monitoring the SDGs for women and girls with disabilities and should guide the development of disability-inclusive and gender-inclusive policies and programmes and ongoing assessments of their impacts.

MIGRANTS, REFUGEES AND DISPLACED POPULATIONS

In 2015, 244 million people were living outside their country of origin, making up to 3.3 per cent of the world’s population. Estimates show that women represent almost half (48 per cent) of the total number of international migrants.⁹³ However, beyond these basic statistics, little data are available about the characteristics of the global migrant population and the multiplicity of deprivations they face. Literature indicates that many migrants move

illegally in search of safer lives and better jobs.⁹⁴ Once in the host country, they may be forced to put up with unsafe and unfair working conditions.⁹⁵ Available statistics, unfortunately, fail to capture this.

Challenges in compiling data on refugees, a hidden population in itself within migrants, are even greater. Estimates show that in 2016, 65.6 million people were forcibly displaced worldwide, 22.5 million of whom were refugees who were forced to leave their countries because of persecution, war or violence.⁹⁶ An estimated 50 per cent of all refugees, internally displaced or stateless people are women, but the characteristics of these women remain largely unknown.⁹⁷ Data on IDPs are also difficult to compile. In most situations, no registration system exists for IDP populations; where it does, it tends to be largely incomplete. However, in some cases surveys collect proxy information that can help identify IDP populations (see the In Focus section in the Colombia case study).

Traditionally, migration data have been collected using national population censuses and administrative data, such as registries of foreign workers and of foreigners living in the country, and admission/border statistics that capture people entering and leaving countries. Census data are often preferable to registry statistics because they allow for further analysis of the socio-demographic characteristics of migrants. However, the limited set of migration questions included in censuses (e.g., country and date of birth) provides only lifetime migration stocks, which are of limited interest for SDG analysis.⁹⁸ Recent improvements in census data, such as the inclusion of questions pertaining to place of residence in the last five years, along with the flexibility that censuses provide to disaggregate data according to sex and other factors simultaneously without sampling concerns, makes censuses more useful for producing migration statistics. However, the relatively low frequency of census data collection and the generally low response rates of immigrants with irregular status remain drawbacks.⁹⁹

An alternative way to assess the diverse forms of discrimination and subsequent deprivation that migrant populations, including IDPs, face is to

include migration modules in existing household surveys. However, to ensure survey data analysis produces robust conclusions for a phenomenon such as migration with a relatively rare statistical incidence, sample sizes and sampling approaches in these surveys will need to be adjusted. Labour Force Surveys, DHS, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) and Living Standard Measurement Surveys are all suitable candidates for the addition of these modules, with subsequent adjustment of sampling, as they could provide important social, economic and demographic insights on migrant women and men.

Given the fluidity of many refugee situations, traditional data collection instruments, including household surveys, might be inadequate for capturing the well-being of refugees. Refugees might move in and out of camps and between urban and rural areas and change their family status as families split apart and regroup. Thus, refugee data that go beyond total numbers and simple disaggregation are prone to become quickly outdated. Some receiving countries and international organizations implement periodic refugee surveys to assess some of the challenges faced by an incoming refugee population. These surveys provide insights on important areas such as reasons for displacement and specific needs but are by no means representative of the total refugee population.¹⁰⁰ Due to the fast-changing characteristics of refugee populations, refugee surveys should, to the extent possible, be repeated every six months.

INDIVIDUALS WITH DIVERSE GENDER IDENTITY

A person's gender identity may or may not correspond with their biological sex. The Human Rights Council defines gender identity as a deeply felt and experienced sense of one's own gender, whether female or male or something other.¹⁰¹ Among the Māori in New Zealand and the native populations in other Pacific nations, gender identity outside the traditional binary identities of female/male have been used throughout history.¹⁰² But in

many countries, those with diverse gender identities are exposed to egregious human rights violations, including violence and systemic discrimination. Official statistics on the inequalities experienced by this group of people are often lacking.

For comprehensive and effective monitoring of the SDGs, data on gender identity are needed and should be produced using sound concepts, definitions and statistical standards. These will provide the foundation for exchanging statistical data between countries and improving their

accessibility, interpretability and comparability. Currently, no international standard for collecting and measuring gender identity data exists, meaning there is a consequent lack of data about those who are vulnerable to inequality and discrimination because they associate or identify beyond the binary female/male. A number of countries, however, including Australia, Bangladesh, Canada, India, Nepal, New Zealand, Pakistan, the United Kingdom and the United States are currently developing and testing different approaches. The example of New Zealand is instructive (see Box 4.5).

BOX 4.5

DEVELOPING STANDARDS FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF GENDER IDENTITY

Statistics New Zealand has sought to remedy the information gap in the area of gender identity through the creation of a new statistical standard. This will assist in producing data on the specific health and social needs of gender-diverse individuals and on related human rights issues such as workplace discrimination, victimization and gender stereotyping. The standard is intended to provide a basis for the future development of an international statistical standard, which would facilitate information being collected and presented in a consistent way across countries. Considerable effort is being invested in identifying and defining the many and varied gender identity terms currently in use and to ensure inclusive language is utilized for the collection and analysis of gender identity data.

Some of the challenges associated with the development of a standard on gender identity include: making a clear distinction between gender identity and biological sex; noting that a person's gender identity may change over time and can be expressed in several ways and forms; and being mindful that not all people fit into one mutually exclusive category when describing their gender identity. Often, individuals will express different gender identities in different situations. In addition, data must be kept confidential.

The importance of having a statistical standard for gender identity, however, is clear: It assists in ensuring that policies and public services are responding to the diversity of the community and in identifying the specific needs of those who are gender-diverse.

CONCLUSION

The 2030 Agenda calls for the universal achievement of the SDGs whereby the well-being of everyone in society is assured, most especially that of the furthest behind. From a monitoring perspective, this means accounting for the progress of everyone without exception. Doing so will require going beyond national averages to assess the outcomes of different groups of women and girls who, because of entrenched forms of discrimination, are often the most disadvantaged in society.

As the case studies show, intersecting inequalities based on gender, ethnicity, geography and wealth result in a form of disadvantage that is acute and uniquely felt by women who stand at these intersections. The experience of these women will be different from that of other women and different from men who face similar group-based discrimination but not gender-based discrimination. Multi-level disaggregation of data brings out these inequalities and is hence critical for identifying the furthest behind.

At the same time, it is vital that strategies to 'leave no one behind', including those related to measurement, do not contribute to further social fragmentation, stigmatization and/or other forms of harm or abuse of vulnerable groups. From a statistical perspective, this means data are collected and used ethically, in accordance with international statistical and human rights

standards related to voluntary participation and self-identification, as well as protection of privacy, accountability and adherence to the principle of 'do no harm' (see Box 2.7 in Chapter 2).

The analytical procedures used in this chapter show that it is possible to surface the effect of multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination and identify groups of women and girls who experience clustered forms of deprivation. Doing so represents an important first step that combined with other sources of information, meaningful social dialogue and concerted policy action, has the potential to move the promise to leave no one behind from rhetoric to reality. From a statistical perspective, this will require significant investments in collecting, disaggregating and analysing data for groups of women and girls who may face multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination. From a policy point of view, such data can inform context-specific development strategies that are inclusive of all. As Chapter 1 has argued, such strategies should aim at increasing access for groups that have been historically excluded while building universal systems that create a sense of solidarity through risk-sharing, redistribution and universal service provision. Chapters 5 and 6 provide concrete examples of such strategies in two critical areas: eliminating violence against all women and girls and recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1/

Develop a national strategy that meets the data requirements for the globally defined SDG indicators and goes beyond the basic disaggregation categories to capture the characteristics of all relevant population groups

Leaving no one behind means addressing the needs of the most marginalized: those who are disadvantaged socially, politically, environmentally and/or economically. The minimum list of characteristics spelled out in the 2030 Agenda—sex, age, income, race, migratory status, disability and geographic location—are often vectors of discrimination, but other characteristics are also relevant and can be country-specific. An iterative, participatory and interactive process involving diverse groups of stakeholders is needed to identify what other forms of discrimination exist and should be monitored as part of a given country's leave no one behind strategy.

2/

Move beyond unidimensional disaggregation

As the case studies show, single level disaggregation analysis fails to adequately reflect the characteristics of those who are deprived across multiple dimensions. Identifying these population groups will require multidimensional data

disaggregation and targeted analysis. Descriptive statistics for each of the sub-groups should be accompanied by qualitative work to understand root causes and the 'why' for the inequalities observed. Only after assessing the full effects of multiple discrimination and clustered deprivation can policies be tailored to meet the needs of the target population.

3/

Identify data gaps, recognize data limitations and seize the opportunities that strengthened collaboration can bring

Data collection instruments used for official statistics are often designed to derive reliable estimates at the national and sub-national levels. For this reason, commonly used sampling techniques may be inadequate to assess the wellbeing of small groups (e.g., small ethnic groups) or for carrying out multi-level disaggregations. As a result, data for particularly at-risk population groups are often unavailable. Addressing the needs of the furthest behind will require identifying and resolving these data gaps and strengthening the capacity of data producers, both within the national statistical system and among others, including civil society (see Chapter 2).

4/

Invest in and support the technical capacity of national statistical systems

A necessary part of the call for a data revolution is a call for greater political, technical and financial support to producers of official statistics (see Chapter 2). Access to new techniques and methodologies is essential for expanding the capacity of countries to produce disaggregated statistics. Modernizing and integrating existing data platforms allows for better use of existing data sources and greater capacity to use data to inform a more holistic approach to tackling clustered deprivations.

5/

Disseminate and report analytical studies focused on inequalities

Countries have committed to identifying marginalized populations and to reporting baseline and progress statistics on these groups. This will allow comparisons of national averages and data on the most disadvantaged groups in society. Doing so on a regular basis and disseminating these findings widely is essential for ensuring these data and findings are used by advocates and policymakers to inform political discourse and bring about necessary change.

DELIVERING TRANSFORMATIVE CHANGE: THE ROLE OF GENDER-RESPONSIVE POLICIES

As elaborated on in the previous chapters, robust indicators and statistics are indispensable tools for monitoring progress towards the achievement of gender equality across the 2030 Agenda. The next two chapters, focused on policy action, begin from the premise that the 2030 Agenda is not only about enhancing data collection for monitoring purposes but also about putting effective policies in place that will foster palpable change in women's enjoyment of their rights. In fact, the two aims—monitoring and policy—are closely interlinked: The main purpose of data is not just to monitor progress but also to galvanize action and suggest effective policy pathways that will achieve the agreed upon goals and targets.

The policy chapters in this first edition of *Turning Promises into Action* focus on two strategic areas of gender equality: violence against women and girls (Chapter 5) and unpaid care and domestic work (Chapter 6). There are two main reasons for focusing on these areas.

The first reason is that, during discussions on the post-2015 agenda, women's rights advocates agreed that fundamental structural barriers to gender equality had been neglected by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the new agenda needed to prioritize addressing them. Two of the issues that appeared repeatedly on advocacy platforms were the elimination of all forms of violence against women and girls and the redistribution of unpaid care and domestic work.

As the data presented in Chapter 3 have shown, these two issues are not only of universal concern, resonating with both developing and developed countries, but also indivisible from many of the other goals and targets in the 2030 Agenda. The elimination of violence against women and girls (Target 5.2), for example, would both enhance the promotion of healthy lives (SDG 3) and contribute to the creation of peaceful and inclusive societies (SDG 16). In turn, women's access to economic resources and assets (Target 5.a) could reduce the

risk of violence, while the provision of safe public spaces and transport (SDG 11) could reduce sexual harassment. Likewise, redressing care deficits and inequalities is pivotal for achieving the eradication of poverty and hunger (SDGs 1 and 2), better health, well-being and learning outcomes (SDGs 3 and 4) as well as decent work for all women (SDG 8), while investments in public services and infrastructure (SDGs 6 and 7) would help reduce the drudgery of unpaid care and domestic work. Given the powerful synergies, it is not surprising that many governments, prodded by women's rights organization, have responded and taken action to address these issues.

The second reason to focus on these two issues is that their data challenges are at a 'tipping point'. There is broad agreement on the conceptual and methodological underpinnings for measuring violence against women and girls and time-use patterns, which are Tier II indicators. Prevalence data on violence against women, and time-use data on unpaid care and domestic work, are now available for a significant number of countries, including many developing countries (see Chapter 3). These data have been extremely useful in documenting pervasive gender inequality and triggering public debate and action.

And yet, global monitoring is hampered by the lack of such data for all countries and the fact that the data that do exist may not be comparable across countries. Moreover, these data are not always

sensitive to differences among women based on their race, ethnicity, age, ability, citizenship status, sexual orientation and gender identity and expression. Trend data, which are essential for assessing the direction and pace of progress, are also often missing. The implementation of the 2030 Agenda therefore presents an opportune moment to encourage more countries to undertake these surveys, and to do so more regularly, both for global monitoring and to spur policy advocacy.

An important and shared characteristic of these two areas is that they both require comprehensive and cross-sectoral policy responses. Legislative, policy and programmatic actions that work for all women are needed to catalyse change. So, the chapters offer concrete guidance on public action—laws, policies and programmes—in these two areas as well as criteria for monitoring whether their implementation is in line with the human rights principles that underpin the 2030 Agenda.

Each of the chapters presents the current global situation based on available evidence and data sources; key interventions known to be effective in addressing the issues; the factors and forces that trigger and shape public action; achievements to date; and remaining challenges. A key question the chapters ask is how laws, policies and programmes can be designed to benefit women who experience multiple forms of discrimination and follow the principle of "leave no one behind."

CHAPTER 5

ELIMINATING ALL FORMS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS

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KEY MESSAGES

1/ Violence against women and girls (VAWG) is of *universal* concern, a violation of human rights that occurs at alarming levels across all countries. It is rooted in unequal gender relations and is a pervasive form of discrimination that is manifested in multiple forms across both public and private spheres.

2/ Eliminating all forms of VAWG is critical for achieving gender equality as well as many of the other goals and targets in the 2030 Agenda. Laws, policies and programmes to eliminate VAWG need to focus on both responding to violence once it has occurred and preventing it from happening in the first place.

3/ Governments must ensure a comprehensive, coordinated and adequately resourced approach, with priority given to the safety and rights of women and particular attention to those most likely to be left behind.

4/ Public action must include: (i) enforcement and implementation of comprehensive laws and policies; (ii) high-quality, multisectoral services to support women who experience violence; (iii) long-term prevention

measures; and (iv) regular data collection on prevalence as well as on the nature and impact of laws, policies and programmes.

5/ Action to end VAWG must be accompanied by legislation, policies and programmes that promote gender equality and non-discrimination in all areas, including in poverty reduction and economic development, political participation and post-conflict reconstruction.

6/ Autonomous feminist organizing and advocacy in both national and transnational settings has been the key factor behind securing policy action on VAWG at global, regional and local levels, and therefore women's rights advocates should be engaged in and monitor public action to eliminate VAWG.

7/ Prevalence data on VAWG have been vital for raising public awareness and catalysing legislation, policy and programming to combat the problem. The fact that such data are neither universally available nor sufficiently disaggregated poses serious challenges for global monitoring.

INTRODUCTION

Violence against women and girls (VAWG) takes many different forms. It is a universal problem on a shocking scale: No region, country or social group is free from it.¹ In adopting the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action in 1993, and through subsequent intergovernmental agreements, governments have acknowledged that VAWG is “a manifestation of historically unequal power relations between men and women ... [it] is one of the crucial social mechanisms by which women are forced into a subordinate position”.² The strength of a feminist and human rights approach—clearly articulated in the General Recommendations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (UN CEDAW)³—is that it recognizes VAWG as a systematic form of discrimination against women rather than a series of unfortunate individual incidents or pathologies. Recognition of the systemic and structural nature of VAWG has gone hand in hand with defining state obligations to prevent and respond to it.⁴

There is a clear commitment in the 2030 Agenda to eliminate the different forms of violence that routinely undermine women’s and girls’ well-being and enjoyment of human rights (Targets 5.2, 5.3, 11.7, 16.1 and 16.2). Eliminating VAWG through policy action is crucial for achieving gender equality as well as broader commitments reflected in the 2030 Agenda. Eliminating intimate partner violence (IPV), for example, not only contributes to the promotion of healthy lives (Goal 3) but also supports women’s rights to work and income security (Goals 1 and 8). Likewise, the eradication of child, early and forced

marriage will not only enhance women’s sexual and reproductive health (Goal 3), but also ensure that girls complete primary and secondary education, a precondition for effective learning outcomes (Goal 4). Conversely, addressing many of the targets across the 2030 Agenda will contribute to the elimination of VAWG. For example, the promotion of safe and secure working environments (Target 8.8) and the provision of safe public spaces and transport (Targets 11.2 and 11.7) can reduce sexual harassment, while registering girls at birth and recording marriages (Target 16.9) can provide legal evidence to help prevent child, early and forced marriage.

DIVERSE FORMS, PREVALENCE RATES AND ROOT CAUSES

Violence against women and girls is defined as “any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life”.⁵ Understanding of the various forms of VAWG has grown (see Box 5.1), as well as the awareness that it occurs across different contexts—in times of conflict, post-conflict or so-called peace—and in diverse spheres: perpetrated by families, communities, States or a range of actors operating transnationally.⁶ Women who face multiple forms of discrimination due, for example, to their ethnic identity or sexual orientation can be particularly vulnerable to violence.

BOX 5.1

KEY FORMS OF VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS IN DIVERSE SETTINGS

Violence against women and girls (VAWG) can take many different forms—including sexual, physical, psychological and economic—and be experienced in a range of settings. Different definitions have been developed, including for statistical purposes:⁷

- **Sexual violence:** Any conduct or behaviour that—by threat, intimidation, coercion or use of force—results in a woman or girl witnessing or participating in non-consensual sexual contact or behaviour that violates her bodily integrity and sexual autonomy.⁸
- **Physical violence:** Any conduct or behaviour that inflicts physical harm and offends the bodily integrity or health of women and girls.⁹
- **Psychological violence:** A range of behaviours that encompass any act of emotional abuse and controlling behaviour that causes “emotional damage, reduces self-worth or self-esteem, or aims at degrading or controlling a woman’s actions, behaviors, beliefs and decisions”.¹⁰
- **Economic violence:** Any conduct or behaviour whereby an individual denies their intimate partner access to financial resources, typically as a form of abuse or control or in order to isolate them or to impose other adverse consequences on their well-being.¹¹

How VAWG manifests itself depends on the social, cultural, political and economic context. Commonly identified forms include: intimate partner violence (IPV) and marital rape; sexual violence by non-partners; female infanticide; dowry-related violence; female genital mutilation (FGM); ‘honour’ killings; child, early and forced marriage; sexual harassment in public spaces; femicide; trafficking (as defined in the UN Protocol);¹² custodial violence; and violence against women in conflict settings. However, VAWG can change as contexts change, as the examples of Internet and mobile phone stalking illustrate. For example, evidence from the European Union suggests that 1 in 10 women report having experienced cyber-harassment since the age of 15 (including unwanted, offensive, sexually explicit emails or SMS messages or offensive advances on social networking sites); the risk is at its highest among young women aged between 18 and 29.¹³ There is also growing awareness of the gravity and increasing levels of violence against women in political life, whether as elected officials, candidates for political office or activists and organizers.¹⁴ Hence, no list of the different forms of VAWG can be exhaustive, and States must acknowledge its evolving nature and be responsive to its changing forms.¹⁵

Although different definitions and methodologies make it hard to compare cross-country data on prevalence rates, there is enough evidence to show that VAWG is serious and ubiquitous. For example, 19 per cent of women aged 15–49 worldwide have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner in the last 12 months (see Chapter 3).¹⁶ In Europe, VAWG is far more dangerous to women than terrorism or cancer.¹⁷ Some regions report particularly high lifetime physical and/or sexual IPV among ever-partnered women. A 2013 World Health Organization (WHO) study, for example, found particularly high rates in the African (36.6 per cent), Eastern Mediterranean (37.0 per cent) and South-East Asian (37.7 per cent) regions, while subsequent studies using the WHO methodology show Western Pacific to have even higher rates (between 60 and 68 per cent).¹⁸ Furthermore, as discussed in Chapter 3, almost half of female homicide victims are killed by their intimate partner or family members, compared to just 1 in 20 among male homicide victims.¹⁹

Women who have been physically or sexually abused by their partners report higher rates of serious health problems compared to women who have not been abused, including HIV incidence, depression and pregnancy-related problems including miscarriage.²⁰ When multiple forms of discrimination intersect based, for example, on class, race, geography or disability, the dangers for women can be greater still.²¹ However, the true extent of the violence is often not known due to constraints in VAWG surveys commonly conducted, especially sample sizes and designs that often do not allow estimates to be made of the magnitude of violence experienced by women from different social groups.

Certain settings and situations can exacerbate specific types of VAWG. Despite the potential benefits of migration, women and girls face heightened risk of abuse, extortion and gender-based violence along their migration journey, particularly at border crossings, as well as in countries of destination where

they may be subject to restrictive immigration controls and informal conditions of work.²² Trafficking, which tends to increase in the context of livelihood crises, legally restricted migration flows and women's low socio-economic status, puts women's and girls' rights in severe jeopardy.

During natural disasters and humanitarian crises and their aftermath, domestic and sexual violence tend to rise, as do early and forced marriages.²³ While it is difficult to obtain prevalence data on VAWG due to contextual and methodological challenges, evidence from qualitative research, anecdotal reports, humanitarian monitoring tools and service delivery statistics underscore the heightened risk of violence that women and girls face in humanitarian settings. In Pakistan, following the 2011 floods, more than half of surveyed communities reported that the privacy and safety of women and girls were major concerns.²⁴ In Kenya, Somali adolescent girls in the Dadaab refugee complex explained in a 2011 assessment that they were in many ways "under attack" from violence that included verbal, physical and sexual exploitation and abuse in relation to meeting their basic needs, as well as rape, including in public and by multiple perpetrators. Girls reported feeling particularly vulnerable to violence while fetching water or collecting firewood outside the camps.²⁵

Conflict-related sexual violence—including rape, forced sterilization and sexual slavery—is undoubtedly widespread but grossly under-reported.²⁶ Its scope and nature vary enormously between conflicts, making estimates on its overall extent problematic.²⁷ Reported rates from the Democratic Republic of the Congo range from 18 to 40 per cent.²⁸ In Liberia, 81.6 per cent of 1,216 randomly selected women and girls had been subjected to one or multiple violent sexual acts during and after the civil conflict.²⁹ In many settings there is little if any response by the state, whether in the form of investigation and prosecution or support

for the survivors. The culture of impunity often carries over from armed conflict into private homes, both during and after conflicts. Eliminating VAWG in conflict ultimately depends on efforts to transform the socio-economic and political underpinnings of gender inequality that constrain women's rights and underlie their vulnerability in conflict settings. Greater attention to the ways that gender sexual violence is associated with specific patterns of military organization and strategies is also needed.³⁰

While complex and context-specific factors underpin different forms of violence, the root causes are unequal gender power relations and discrimination against women and girls. The factors associated with IPV—the most prevalent form of VAWG—operate at multiple levels (individual, relational, community and societal). A common misconception is that individual-level factors, such as alcohol abuse and mental illness, cause men to be violent. However, these factors alone do not make someone perpetrate violence but rather interact with other elements to make the perpetration of violence more likely.³¹

An overwhelming number of studies have demonstrated that social norms and accepting attitudes of IPV are a significant predictor of such violence occurring. In other words, violence is more likely to be perpetrated when support for its use is normalized, such as when domestic violence is perceived as acceptable.³²

A number of other factors, including female education and women's access to an independent income or ownership of assets, appear to have a protective, yet inconsistent, relationship with the risk of IPV.³³ Several theories suggest that increasing a woman's access to education and resources enables her to exercise greater power within her relationship, be more valued by her partner and have more resources to leave a partnership that is violent or abusive.³⁴

Education can indeed have an empowering impact on women and lower the risk of their experiencing violence. However, a careful reading of the evidence suggests a more nuanced connection depending on the context. High educational attainment is associated with lower levels of IPV, but women with minimal schooling seem to have a lower risk of violence than those with slightly more schooling. Women with the least exposure to schooling are less likely to challenge their partner's authority and therefore less likely to experience violence. The protective effect of education only takes hold once women complete secondary schooling or enter university.³⁵

Similarly, with respect to economic status, women with long-term economic autonomy and power in the relationship tend to be at lower risk of violence. This is a salient finding. However, in many other situations, especially when their earnings are irregular, women may not have enough financial independence to challenge or leave abusive partners.³⁶ In some settings, changes in women's capacity to earn an income can even increase the risk of male violence, especially where men's 'breadwinner' identity is in question due to employment difficulties and/or where prevailing norms and values accept domestic violence.³⁷ Similarly, the impact of asset ownership on the risk of violence is context-specific. While research in Kerala, India³⁸ shows that women's ownership of immovable assets, such as land and housing, can provide a great degree of protection as well as an escape from abusive situations, the relationship between assets and IPV is not so clear-cut in other contexts such as Ecuador and Ghana.³⁹

The complex and context-specific drivers of VAWG suggest there is no single solution to its elimination. Rather, a comprehensive set of measures is required that simultaneously support women who have experienced violence and prevent violence before it happens.

TAKING ACTION

Today, violence against women and girls is widely seen as a human rights violation and public policy concern. The increase in public awareness and policy attention to VAWG over the last three to four decades has been forcefully driven by autonomous feminist organizations in both national and transnational settings.⁴⁰ Broad transformations—such as economic development, political democratization and changing societal attitudes about gender roles—do not in and of themselves bring the issue of VAWG to the fore. Women’s presence in high political office does not suffice, and mixed-sex organizations such as political parties or government bureaucracies may not recognize violence against women as a priority unless feminist organizations organize on their own to seek remedies.⁴¹ One of the most recent examples of successful feminist action is the ‘#Ni Una Menos’ (‘Not One Less’) movement, which spread from Argentina to other countries in Latin America drawing attention to the rampant rates of femicide in the region. By articulating the issues backed with evidence, women’s rights organizations have been able to catalyse the development of appropriate legislation, policy and services. They have also promoted international and regional agreements, conventions and declarations, which have in turn been used by local advocates to push for public action.

Four key areas of public action have emerged:

- The implementation and enforcement of comprehensive laws and policies
- Universal provision of high-quality multisectoral services to support survivors
- Preventative measures that address underlying factors and root causes of violence
- Regular data collection and analysis.

COMPREHENSIVE LAWS: A FOUNDATION FOR ERADICATING VAWG

The enactment and implementation of comprehensive legislation can be the first step towards eliminating VAWG. International normative frameworks, such as General Recommendation No. 35 of UN CEDAW (issued in 2017), call for comprehensive laws that not only criminalize all forms of VAWG and provide for the prosecution of perpetrators but also set out state obligations to prevent violence and empower and support survivors (see Box 5.2).⁴² The UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women has emphasized the importance of laws recognizing VAWG as a systematic violation of women’s human rights and, as a result, a form of “pervasive inequality and discrimination” linked to a “system of domination of men over women”, even though a woman’s risk of violence is highly dependent on other factors and not all men perpetrate violence against women.⁴³

BOX 5.2

MODEL FRAMEWORK FOR LEGISLATION ON VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS

Key elements of legislation:

- Acknowledge that VAWG is a form of systemic discrimination and a violation of women’s human rights that has no defence in custom, tradition or religion⁴⁴
- Design legislation to have a comprehensive scope, encompassing various areas of law—including civil, criminal, administrative and constitutional law—and addressing prevention, protection and support for survivors and the punishment and rehabilitation of perpetrators
- Protect all women equally, without discrimination between different groups, taking targeted measures where appropriate to ensure equal application
- Use a gender-responsive approach that acknowledges women’s and men’s different experiences of violence and prioritizes the rights of the survivors of violence
- Address the relationship between customary and/or religious law and the formal justice system and, in cases where these conflict, resolve matters with respect for the human rights of the survivor as a priority, in accordance with gender equality standards
- Amend or remove conflicting provisions in other areas of law (e.g., family or immigration law) that diminish a woman’s right to equality and due process to ensure a consistent legal framework
- Develop an accompanying national action plan or strategy to ensure coordinated implementation
- Mandate the provision of an adequate budget for implementation, including a general obligation on government and/or earmarked funding for specific activities
- Mandate training and capacity-building for public officials on VAWG, gender sensitivity, new legislation and related duties
- Designate specialized police and prosecutor units to strengthen fair and effective police responses
- Provide for the creation of specialized courts that are adequately resourced to strengthen judicial responses
- Require relevant ministers to develop regulations, protocols, guidelines and standards, in collaboration with applicable sectors, to ensure coordinated implementation
- Propose a deadline on activating legislative provisions to avoid delays between adoption and entry into force
- Provide for effective sanctions against relevant authorities who do not comply with its provisions.

Country examples:

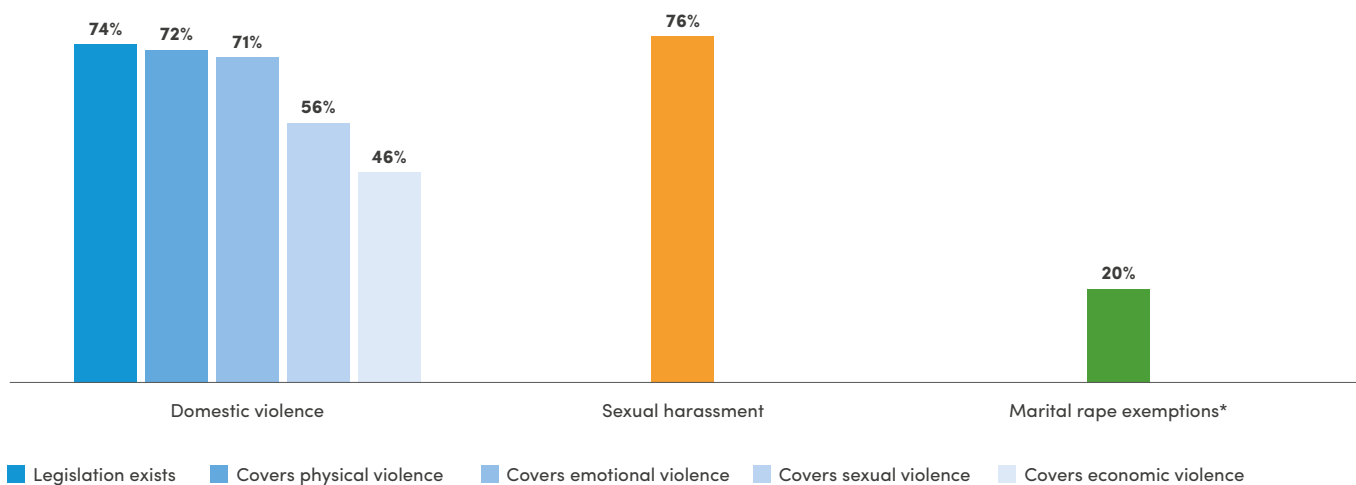
- The *Organic Act on Integrated Protection Measures against Gender Violence (2004)*⁴⁵ in Spain incorporates provisions on sensitization, prevention and detection of violence against women (VAW) and the rights of survivors of violence. It creates specific institutional mechanisms to address VAW, introduces regulations under criminal law and establishes judicial protection for survivors.
- The *General Law on Women's Access to a Life Free of Violence (reformed in 2009)*⁴⁶ in Mexico prioritizes the inclusion of measures and policies to address VAW in the National Development Plan and obliges the government to formulate and implement a national policy to prevent, address, sanction and eradicate VAW. It establishes obligations for the state and municipalities to take budgetary and administrative measures to ensure the rights of women to a life free of violence.
- The *Law Against Domestic Violence (LADV) (Law No.7/2010)*⁴⁷ in Timor-Leste defines domestic violence as a public crime and covers physical, psychological, sexual and economic violence. In addition to criminal provisions, LADV provides for a wide range of services for survivors of violence.

It is encouraging that over the past 25 years an increasing number of countries have introduced legislation to address VAWG. From close to zero⁴⁸ in the early 1990s, 74 per cent of countries in 2016 had legislation to address violence against women in intimate relationships.⁴⁹ Laws vary in how they define

domestic violence: 72 per cent of countries have laws that cover physical violence, 56 per cent cover sexual violence, 71 per cent cover emotional/psychological violence and 46 per cent cover economic violence⁵⁰ (see Figure 5.1).

FIGURE 5.1

PROPORTION OF COUNTRIES WITH LAWS ON DOMESTIC VIOLENCE, SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND THAT EXEMPT MARITAL RAPE



Source: World Bank 2017c.

* Rape perpetrators exempt from prosecution if they are married or subsequently marry the victim

Equally important is how domestic violence legislation covers different types of relationships: intimate, household and familial. Ideally, such legislation should cover both cohabiting and non-cohabiting marriages and partnerships (heterosexual and same-sex); dating, sibling and parent-child relationships; relationships between members of the extended family; and non-familial relationships, such as with domestic workers. Some countries have adopted a more expansive definition of family violence in their laws to encompass different forms of violence, including elder abuse and violence within extended families, kinship networks and communities. The *Law Against Domestic Violence* in Timor-Leste, for example, uses an expansive definition of the family that encompasses a wide range of intimate partner relationships, including relatives in the ascending or descending line of one or both spouses (as long as they are part of the household economy), as well as any person who carries out an activity continuously and with a subordinated status to the unit, such as a domestic worker.⁵¹

Although domestic violence is now widely recognized as a human rights violation, violence against women in public spaces, especially sexual harassment, remains a largely neglected issue, with few laws and policies in place to prevent and address it. Data in *Women, Business and Law* show that, by 2016, 76 per cent of countries had laws against sexual harassment, though they varied in

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...whether laws are in place and implemented in your country that name violence against women as a specific crime, define it as discrimination and are explicit that it has no defence in tradition, custom or religion?

coverage (see Figure 5.1).⁵² Most often included were workplaces, while schools and public places received far less attention. This is an important gap. Existing survey data point to the widespread prevalence of sexual violence both in schools and in public spaces. In Washington DC, 27 per cent of women transit riders surveyed experienced some form of sexual harassment. A study in Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea, showed that when accessing public transportation, over 90 per cent of women and girls have experienced some form of sexual violence. In Lima, Peru, 9 out of 10 women aged between 18 and 29 have experienced street harassment. In Bogota, Colombia and Mexico, 6 out of 10 women have experienced some form of aggression or sexual harassment on public transport.⁵³ In many contexts, women living in rural and peri-urban areas express the fear of being harassed, molested or raped while walking to and from sanitation sites or even while engaged in a sanitation practice.⁵⁴ Programmes to assess this situation are being developed (see Box 5.3).

There are deeply entrenched norms around male entitlement, and the assumption of women's full consent, to all sexual activity within marriage. By 2016, 20 per cent of countries still retained clauses exempting perpetrators of rape from prosecution when they are married to, or subsequently marry, the victim⁵⁵ (see Figure 5.1). The exemptions or reductions in sentencing granted to perpetrators of VAWG in certain circumstances, such as when a rapist marries his victim or in cases of so-called 'honour' crimes, are highly discriminatory and in conflict with human rights standards. Such discriminatory legal provisions should be reformed as an urgent priority. In several countries, including Jordan, Lebanon and Tunisia, public awareness campaigns and advocacy efforts by women's rights organizations and other stakeholders have led to the successful repeal of laws that allowed rapists to avoid criminal prosecution by marrying their victims.⁵⁶

As noted in Box 5.2, it is important that conflicting provisions in other areas of law, such as family or immigration law, are amended or removed to ensure a consistent legal framework.

BOX 5.3

BUILDING A COMPREHENSIVE SAFE CITY PROGRAMME IN CAIRO

UN Women has been addressing sexual harassment and other forms of sexual violence against women and girls in public spaces since 2011 through its Global Flagship Programme Initiative 'Safe Cities and Safe Public Spaces', which now includes nearly 30 cities worldwide.⁵⁷ Participating cities commit to: identify gender-responsive, locally relevant and locally owned interventions; develop and effectively implement comprehensive laws and policies to prevent and respond to sexual violence in public spaces; invest in the safety and economic viability of public spaces; and change attitudes and behaviours to promote women's and girls' rights to enjoy public spaces free from violence.

In Cairo, the programme brought together a coalition of more than 50 governmental and non-governmental partners in three informal settlements in Greater Cairo—Ezbet el Hagana, Mansheyet Naser and Imbaba—that could be assessed for impact. A mixed methods baseline study was completed in 2011, which generated the first set of data and agreed indicators for ongoing tracking of change. At the policy level, technical support was provided to amend an article in the Penal Code (306/2014) to define and criminalize sexual harassment for the first time in Egyptian law. Just days after the amendment was passed, women began reporting cases to the police, according to media accounts.⁵⁸ The Cairo Safe City Programme also worked to inform the development of a National Strategy to Combat Violence against Women, which came into effect in April 2015. Key priorities have been to build the capacity of staff of women's shelters and improve the physical urban environment. A family-friendly community space has been built in an area of the city previously considered unsafe by women, and activities have also included access to legal services for women who have experienced sexual and other forms of violence.

Mobilizing young women and men volunteers and community leaders has been key to foster local ownership and sustain community involvement in prevention. Discriminatory social norms are tackled through sports events and interactive community theatre on child abuse and VAWG, which have proved successful, including by engaging men and boys. To date, the programme has reached almost 30,000 community members. An end-line study to assess its effectiveness will be undertaken in 2019.

Family law provisions regarding women's rights in marriage, divorce and custody, among others, have a significant bearing on women's ability to exit violent and abusive relationships. Countries with family laws that exhibit higher degrees of gender inequality are associated with higher rates of violence against women.⁵⁹ Evidence

from a range of countries including Australia,⁶⁰ Brazil,⁶¹ Cambodia⁶² and South Africa⁶³ shows that the intent of VAWG legislation to protect women from violence can be undermined by other laws, including family laws, when 'reconciliation' and 'family harmony' are prioritized at the expense of women's safety. All areas of family laws, including

DO YOU KNOW...

...if all areas of law have been reformed to prioritize the safety of survivors, including family law and immigration law?

those related to divorce, custody, alimony and property, should therefore be reviewed to ensure that the safety of survivors is prioritized in situations of violence.

Another area of law that can undermine women's ability to exit violent relationships pertains to immigration. The fear of being deported or of losing custody of children as well as a lack of support can keep women with uncertain immigration status in abusive relationships.⁶⁴ In the United Kingdom, the women's rights advocacy organization Southall Black Sisters (SBS) has been running very effective campaigns since the mid-1990s to highlight the plight of women who are trapped in violent relationships due to their insecure immigration status. SBS was able to secure the repeal of a set of restrictive and discriminatory immigration rules, such as the 'one year rule' (OYR) and 'no recourse to public funds' (NRPF). The OYR meant that women who had entered the country on a marriage visa had to stay in the marriage for one year before they could apply for permanent residence, while the NRPF dictated that persons coming to the United Kingdom on a marriage visa must be financially supported by their spouses, or must support themselves by working, and did not qualify for financial assistance from the state (e.g., shelters, housing or legal assistance).⁶⁵ As recognized by the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of migrants, there is a need for 'firewalls' to separate immigration enforcement from access to public services.⁶⁶

Ensuring enforcement

Laws need to be implemented, enforced and independently adjudicated for rights to be protected and realized. For this to happen, legislation needs to be accompanied by a national action plan or strategy to ensure coordinated implementation, along with a mandated budget and training on VAWG for public officials. Yet various factors make it difficult for women who have experienced violence to claim and enjoy their formal rights. This is partly reflected in the high levels of under-reporting as well as attrition in the 'justice chain'—from the police investigation to prosecution and court stages.⁶⁷

A key challenge is that most women who experience violence do not seek help or support. A study of 42,000 women in 28 countries in the European Union found that only one third of survivors of IPV and one quarter of survivors of non-partner violence contacted either the police or support services following the most serious incidents.⁶⁸ Women's reluctance to seek help is in part due to discriminatory attitudes that normalize and excuse violence and to poor awareness of their rights, as well as the fear of retaliation, family or community pressure not to speak out and stigma attached to seeking help.

But there are also legal, policy and programmatic deficits that dissuade women from seeking help. These include police and justice systems that are inaccessible and unresponsive, especially to cases of domestic violence, and services such as help lines and shelters that are disconnected from legal and justice services. The constraints women encounter include institutional barriers such as the lack of access to legal services, high cost of litigation, discriminatory attitudes among service providers and geographical distances to courts, as well as social barriers such as fear of reprisal, language barriers and the need to pay bribes.⁷⁰ Research in Guatemala suggests that

BOX 5.4

FALLING THROUGH THE CRACKS: THE CASE OF INDIGENOUS WOMEN IN CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES

For indigenous women in Canada (also known as First Nations and Aboriginal peoples) and the United States (also known as Native Americans) who experience violence, justice is often inaccessible. Colonial history and the structure of the federal government have created complex situations where Native and Aboriginal women seeking justice fall between the sovereignty of tribal land and the authority of federal and state bodies.⁶⁹

In the United States, Native American and Alaska Native women experience higher rates of gender violence than any other group of women, and they are almost three times more likely to be raped. The *Violence Against Women Act* (1994) has been the United States' primary attempt to address violence against women. It aims to create safer home and public environments through measures such as increased penalties for sex crimes; grants and funds for law enforcement, shelters and crisis centres; and public awareness campaigns. While comprehensive, the Act fails to protect women on Native American land from the perpetrators of violence, 86 per cent of whom are non-Native American men, due to gaps between legal systems and jurisdictions. Tribal authorities lack the authority to arrest or prosecute non-Native American people, and state police do not have jurisdiction on tribal land. Federal authorities that do have dominion are generally under-resourced, ill-equipped and unresponsive.

Various piecemeal reforms since 2000 include allocating jurisdiction to tribal courts to enforce protection orders and earmarking funding for tailored service provision, but problems persist. The latest pending amendment extends special jurisdiction for prosecution of domestic violence crimes committed by non-Native Americans on Native American land. However, it overlooks random acts of sexual violence. Recent amendments to the Act still exclude Alaska, where in 2010 the population was nearly 15 per cent Alaska Native or Native American.

Canada faces a comparable crisis: First Nations, Inuit and Metis women face violence at three times the rate of non-Aboriginal women, an issue insufficiently addressed by the federal government and their self-governed communities. As in the United States, First Nations women fall through the cracks of jurisprudence. Federal laws pertaining to matrimonial property rights are not applicable on native lands, leaving victims of domestic violence with no option but to find safe places off their land. Despite some political and legal progress, First Nations women have little protection from or support following domestic violence from either their local or federal governments.

In both cases, informal practices and policies rooted in colonial history but maintained through current structures of federal authority impede formal legal reform. Tribal authorities on tribal lands continue to have limited sovereignty due to the persistence of colonial understandings that depreciate the status of Native American nations and historical perceptions of incompetence among Native American justice systems in interpreting and implementing federal law. In the United States, for example, the potential of bias influencing native judicial proceedings is given as an argument for limiting the reach of tribal governments, despite no evidence of this. These longstanding unresolved tensions have especially pronounced impacts on the personal safety of indigenous women.

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...if your country has developed a strategy for providing coordinated services that keep women safe, empower them to leave abusive relationships and help them recover from violence?

these constraints act as ‘tolls’ that women have to pay: “the toll of overcoming fear in a context where protection is lacking and the toll of time and effort in a legal system that is a labyrinth of bureaucracy and discrimination”.⁷¹ The toll there is particularly high for women who are poor and from indigenous communities.⁷² Evidence from the United States shows that in the case of women from racial and minority groups who live in communities that are intensely policed and criminalized, distrust of the police and justice system can be a further deterrent to seeking help.⁷³ Making legal systems more just and fair to marginalized populations, as well as more gender-responsive, is critical to encourage women to engage with them.

Multiple legal systems can also create barriers to women’s access to justice, especially where non-state legal systems such as religious or customary courts or community mechanisms for dispute resolution do not comply with human rights standards or recognize women’s right to a life free from violence.⁷⁴ Attitudes and social norms about gender, race and nation shape the implementation of formal measures in ways that produce disparate outcomes for different groups of women (see Box 5.4).

SUPPORTING SURVIVORS TO THRIVE: THE NEED FOR COORDINATED AND MULTISECTORAL SERVICES

Along with the need for the implementation and enforcement of comprehensive laws to address VAWG is the need for services that support and empower survivors to rebuild their lives.⁷⁵ The approach to service provision must be coordinated, multisectoral and legislated within a framework that specifies an essential set of services and their associated norms and standards.⁷⁶ Service provision should also include long-term support for women and their children—as well as girls who are subject to violence—by providing affordable housing, job training and employment opportunities to ensure their recovery and reintegration into society and prevent further re-victimization.⁷⁷

This framework can include training for and dedicated VAWG units among police, judges, health professionals and social workers and other professionals delivering services, as well as specialist counselling, health services, shelters and other housing, and legal assistance to help women leave abusive relationships. Coordinating mechanisms would ensure that different agencies work together with the aim of keeping women safe, rather than at cross-purposes where women can fall through the gaps.⁷⁸ Best practice services would be delivered within a rights-based approach that prioritizes the safety of survivors and holds perpetrators accountable within a fair and effective criminal justice system.⁷⁹ Such an approach is in contrast to services that blame and shame the victim and encourage reconciliation with violent partners or family members, or to systems that threaten draconian punishments for perpetrators as if punishment alone will end VAWG.

BOX 5.5

VIOLENCE AGAINST OLDER WOMEN

While global awareness of the extent of systemic neglect, abuse and violence against older women is growing,⁸⁰ the scale, severity and complexity of such violence is underestimated.⁸¹ Data on violence against women mostly come from Demographic Health Surveys (DHS), particularly in developing countries, and these focus on women of reproductive age, 15 to 49 years old.⁸² There are insufficient data overall from the Global South.

Age and gender discrimination over a woman's lifecycle mean that older women are more likely to be in poverty, ill health and with limited access to protective resources.⁸³ Isolation, cognitive decline and dementia, disability and care dependency, a prior history of interpersonal violence, situations of extreme poverty, humanitarian crises and sexual orientation and gender identity are all risk factors for physical and sexual violence perpetrated against older women, often with devastating consequences.⁸⁴ Older women are at a higher risk of specific forms of violence from different perpetrators, including male spouses and partners.⁸⁵ A WHO European Region⁸⁶ and the DAPHNE III European Union prevalence study⁸⁷ show that perpetrator categories include adult children and paid caregivers and that elder abuse generally occurs in the context of the exploitation of a trusting relationship.⁸⁸

Times of severe economic, humanitarian, community and family crisis often underlie the reports of violence and homicide perpetrated or instigated mainly by family members against older women. In 2014, the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) reported witchcraft accusations against older women in 41 African and Asian countries.⁸⁹ As abuse is often hidden within families, barriers to address the issue include shame, stigma and fear of speaking out.⁹⁰

Best practice strategies to combat abuse emphasize the promotion of the rights of older women, along with participation, dialogue and consultations with older women themselves within their communities and families; data inclusive of older ages; advice and help lines; support for carers; and putting in place legal protections.⁹¹ Actions to protect older women must be universal, specific and specialized,⁹² must promote international standard setting⁹³ and should be incorporated in response frameworks to ensure all at-risk older women are covered. UN DESA has suggested that different sorts of abuse could be categorized under the headings of 'neglect', 'physical', 'sexual', 'psychological', 'financial' and 'self-neglect'⁹⁴ to promote fuller understanding of the issue.

Furthermore, these measures must be accessible to *all* women. Thus, specific efforts are needed to address the concerns of groups who often face additional barriers in accessing services, such as adolescent girls and older women (see Box 5.5). In its General Recommendation No. 35, UN CEDAW recognizes that women who experience varying and intersecting

forms of discrimination, which have an aggravating negative impact, will need appropriate legal and policy responses.⁹⁵

Apart from sexual violence, which is most commonly perpetrated by persons close/known to them, including a current or former husband, partner

or boyfriend,⁹⁶ adolescent girls are also exposed to forms of violence that are specific to their age group. These include violence that happens in and around school, cyber-violence, bullying,⁹⁷ violence on university campuses⁹⁸ and, in some contexts, child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation.⁹⁹ Although under-reporting of violence is common among women of all ages, evidence from some countries shows that fear of retaliation, guilt, shame, lack of realization that certain experiences are acts of violence and lack of knowledge about their rights make it more probable that adolescent girls will keep their experiences of violence secret.

Parents, teachers and carers can play an important role in promoting gender-equitable relations between girls and boys, raising awareness about girls' rights and pointing to available support services. However, in many cases the perpetrator of such violence may be the parent, teacher or guardian themselves, which may contribute to adolescent girls' under-reporting and low access to support and services.¹⁰⁰ Furthermore, because of their age, adolescent girls are sometimes legally required to be accompanied by a guardian when accessing certain support services, which may compromise their confidentiality.¹⁰¹

Support services must therefore ensure that their providers are trained and have the capacity to

address the specific needs of adolescent girls in a gender-sensitive and age-appropriate manner; that medical exams, when required, are quick, minimally invasive and carry few reporting requirements; and that special measures are taken for adolescent girls in trials, such as waiting rooms or the use of technologies (i.e., screens or in-camera testimonies) to avoid contact with the perpetrator, and the girls are kept informed about the legal process and its outcomes.¹⁰² This should be accompanied by strategies to ensure adolescent girls have access to information about what constitutes violence, what their rights are and what services are available to them.¹⁰³

Providing specialized services with adequate funding and protecting them from austerity-induced cuts

Women's police stations and specialized domestic violence courts are among the institutional innovations made to improve women's access to services. Feminist and women's rights organizations often pioneered services for victims of violence before governments became involved in their delivery and provided full or partial funding. Today, in many countries, women's organizations—and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) more generally—continue to play an important role in the delivery of these services, often with some financial support from government welfare budgets at federal and/or state levels. In some countries, this is complemented with donor support. However, the chronic underfunding of VAWG services is a recurrent problem across many countries, translating to staff shortages, insufficient training and specialization to deal with VAWG, and weak cross-agency coordination—all critical elements to address for creating effective specialized services. Moreover, passing superficially good laws but not attending to the material conditions of violence (its risk factors and the economic and social needs of survivors), as well as the broader social circumstances of violence, has also become a distressing trend.

DO YOU KNOW...

...if public agencies in your country are provided with training or if special units of police, judges, health workers and other professionals have been created to effectively respond to violence against women and girls?

When there are cutbacks to national budgets due to financial crises, the impact on local services can be both dramatic and uneven. In the United Kingdom, for example, organizations with smaller budgets from local authorities experienced a more substantial cut than those with larger ones in 2011/2012. The cuts ran across a wide range of services including shelters; police and court services that involved specialized expertise; services designed for women from black, Asian and minority ethnic groups; and services working with male perpetrators of domestic violence.¹⁰⁴ The government's *Ending Violence against Women and Girls Strategy: 2016–2020* acknowledges the size of the problem and makes a welcome commitment to ensuring that “no victim is turned away from accessing critical support services delivered by refuges, rape support centres and female genital mutilation and forced marriage units”.¹⁰⁵ The UK Women's Budget Group's assessment, however, suggests that the levels of spending committed in the strategy do not match the investment required to meet demand and deliver on this promise. Furthermore, the proposed way to raise and distribute funds—through charging value-added tax on sanitary products and dispersing funds to women's organizations—creates “a dangerous slippage whereby women become responsible for funding their own safety”.¹⁰⁶

Extending the reach of services beyond major urban centres

Another perennial problem afflicting VAWG services is their limited reach. This is a limitation of specialized police or judicial institutions whose purpose is to improve women's access to justice. In Sierra Leone, for example, the Family Support Units (FSU) that were set up in 1999 to address the rise in domestic violence committed by ex-combatants remain few in number and severely under-resourced. With only 44 such units spread across the country, in many communities FSUs are simply not available and women have to report to police stations, which may also be distant. In addition to their limited coverage, even where the FSUs exist the officers who staff them

may be poorly trained in understanding domestic violence, there may be a lack of confidentiality and the units may be inadequately resourced to provide reliable services.¹⁰⁷

Women's police stations have had a long history in Latin America.¹⁰⁸ The first one (Delegacias Especiais de Atendimento a Mulher – DEAM) was a pioneering project set up in Sao Paulo, Brazil, in 1985. It is estimated that in 2016 there were more than 450 DEAMs in Brazil, bringing the total number of precincts and special courts to close to 500 throughout the country.¹⁰⁹ Nevertheless, the great majority of these are concentrated in the larger cities, leaving out smaller towns, rural areas and the hinterland. Also, the quality of services offered can be extremely uneven in terms of the types of assistance and types of crime that are within their jurisdiction. A 2009 survey conducted by OBSERVE found that most DEAMs fell short of providing specialized assistance to women due to a shortage of trained and qualified personnel.¹¹⁰

Improving service quality through gender and human rights training

Training from a women's rights perspective, in particular, has been identified as a key factor to ensure that women receive appropriate services. In the absence of such training, women's experiences of violence are easily trivialized and approaches that prioritize ‘mediation’ and ‘conciliation’ are favoured, with women's right to safety forfeited.¹¹¹

Nicaragua, a much poorer country than Brazil, has one of the most extensive networks of women's police stations in Latin America. The first one was established in 1993, and by 2015 there were over 135 stations throughout the country, operated by women and catering to both women and children.¹¹² Research suggests a relatively high degree of gender-responsiveness in how women's police stations handle cases. This is in part attributed to the close coordination between the police stations and non-state actors, especially women's rights

organizations.¹¹³ The women's movement has also been instrumental in connecting women's police stations with women's clinics and centres providing additional assistance, including forensic, psychological and legal services.

Strengthening mechanisms for coordination

With the wide range of actors and measures involved in responding to violence—from police, justice and public health officials to housing and income support—coordination mechanisms and their effective governance are key. For example, the effectiveness of women's police stations could be enhanced if they provided an accessible entry point to the justice system.¹¹⁴ Likewise, VAWG training for public health workers is key to improving the detection of cases of violence and abuse, while strengthened referral mechanisms between health centres, psychosocial support and legal aid can prevent women from falling through the cracks of disjointed systems. This is what the Government of Kiribati has attempted to do by integrating the issue of violence against women into sexual and reproductive health programming and locating such services close to referral hospitals and shelters.¹¹⁵ In the absence of such mechanisms, women can experience unnecessary delays, and their safety may be at risk due to services failing to communicate with each other in a timely manner. However, having a well-functioning and coordinated services sector largely hinges on the actual quality and usefulness of public health services—something that is missing in many countries.

Several countries have used training of health workers to provide integrated services for women in cases of sexual violence. South Africa's Thuthuzela Care Centres (TCC), first established in 2000, are an enduring state response to the country's notoriously high rates of sexual violence and rape. The TCCs are located in public hospitals to address the medical and social needs of sexual

DO YOU KNOW...

...if your country has a strategy in place to prevent violence before it occurs?

assault survivors. TCC health workers can provide health care including post-exposure prophylaxis and emergency contraception, psychosocial support and referrals to other relevant services. While the number of TCCs increased from around 25 in 2009/2010 to 51 in 2012/2013, the quality of services varies significantly.¹¹⁶ There are particular concerns about psychosocial support services being considered an afterthought in many facilities, with inadequate funding and limited physical space given to counsellors.

While in theory a 'one-stop centre' is intended to reduce disjointed services to survivors of violence, simply locating all agencies under one roof does not automatically result in those agencies working together. In fact, such arrangements can generate new tensions and conflicts where professional and workplace hierarchies are pronounced. This is further compounded if roles are blurred. NGOs working in government facilities are particularly at risk of being treated as junior partners. Addressing these challenges requires careful preparatory work with all parties to ensure that their roles and responsibilities are made clear and the skills and contribution of each party is given due recognition.¹¹⁷ Furthermore, the perennial problems of inaccessibility of centres and their fragile funding are not necessarily resolved by having one-stop centres. National legal frameworks must also be assessed to ensure that the comprehensive sexual and reproductive health services required to meaningfully address the needs of survivors of violence are legally available.

TURNING THE TIDE: WHAT WORKS IN PREVENTION?

While laws, policies and services have been a critical part of the response to VAWG, in recent years there has been growing recognition that this human rights violation will not be stopped in the long term through the criminal justice system or service provision alone. Prevention measures are needed that challenge the unequal gender power relations at the root of violence against women by shifting attitudes and social norms and by strengthening women's economic independence. Given that violence emerges from the interplay of multiple interacting factors, prevention measures must also be multipronged, engage a wide range of stakeholders and pay particular attention to marginalized and hard-to-reach populations. Work in this area is steadily growing, and useful evidence is emerging of interventions that demonstrate the potential to be effective.

While in most developed countries significant numbers of women, though not all, have access to services, social protection measures and paid employment, this is not the case in many developing countries. As already mentioned, it is important that countries progressively move towards the provision of long-term support to survivors of violence and their dependents by providing affordable housing, job training and employment opportunities to enhance women's financial autonomy and their capacity to leave abusive relationships and prevent re-victimization.¹¹⁸ A comprehensive approach to prevention must therefore enhance women's economic, social and political rights to expand their options.¹¹⁹ This is also a relevant issue for many women in developed countries who are poor and ascribed a

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...whether strategies are in place for reaching particularly vulnerable groups of women?

racial identity and whose experiences of violence are compounded by unemployment, underemployment and poverty. In such contexts, VAWG policies "cannot afford to address only the violence inflicted by the batterer; they must also confront the multilayered and routinized forms of domination that often converge in these women's lives, hindering their ability to create alternatives to the abusive relationships that brought them to the shelters in the first place".¹²⁰

The most critical element of any prevention strategy therefore is recognizing the relationship between gender inequality and violence against women, coupled with other forms of discrimination and inequality. Gender inequality provides the underlying social conditions for VAWG by entrenching norms and gender roles in economic, social and political spheres. For example, the fact that women are less likely to be represented in public decision-making roles sends a message about the value of women's voices and entrenches the idea of men having control and power over decisions and resources.¹²¹ As such, all prevention strategies should be placed in a broader gender equality framework that seeks to realize the full spectrum of women's and girls' human rights.

Reflecting the global consensus on the need for a comprehensive approach, a new initiative to end VAWG—entitled the Spotlight Initiative—was launched by the European Union and the United Nations in 2017.¹²² It recognizes that violence and harmful practices are complex phenomena, requiring interventions at multiple levels that mutually reinforce each other through a comprehensive approach (involving legislation and policies, with a focus on prevention, services and data). This initiative will leverage the experience and expertise of civil society organizations, the women's rights movement and the UN System as well as develop partnerships with other key stakeholders including governments and the private sector.

The need to address root causes also applies to cases of trafficking (which forms an important component of the Spotlight Initiative), whether for sexual or labour exploitation, where criminalization alone is proving to be inadequate in eradicating the practice (see Box 5.6).

BOX 5.6

TRAFFICKING: PROSECUTION, PROTECTION AND PREVENTION

The UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children (known as the Palermo Protocol) defines trafficking as “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability, or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.”¹²³

This definition includes the different human rights violations to which trafficked individuals are subject, including both sexual and labour exploitation. Although trafficking is often thought of as a cross-border phenomenon, the UN Protocol provides a framework that is inclusive of domestic trafficking, which exists on a significant scale in emerging economies such as Brazil, China, India and the Russian Federation. Such strengths notwithstanding, the illegal nature of trafficking, as well as the ambiguity of concepts such as ‘coercion’, ‘deception’ and ‘exploitation’, make it hard to assemble robust data. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) admits that reliable data on the extent of the problem are woefully inadequate.¹²⁴ Nevertheless, its reports provide some useful pointers:¹²⁵

- Victims are trafficked within countries, between neighbouring countries or even across continents
- When non-nationals are trafficked, trafficking flows tend to follow migratory patterns
- Sexual exploitation and forced labour are the most prominent reasons
- Women make up around half of all trafficked persons.

Over the last decade, the profile of trafficking victims has changed: Although most detected victims are still women, children and men are considered to make up a larger share compared to a decade ago (28 and 21 per cent, respectively, in 2014). In parallel, the share of victims who are trafficked for forced labour has also increased: close to 4 in 10 victims detected between 2012 and 2014 (63 per cent of them men).¹²⁶

By 2016, 158 countries had a statute(s) that criminalized most forms of trafficking in persons, relatively consistent with the UN definition.¹²⁷ Yet conviction rates remain abysmally low and impunity prevails. It is increasingly clear that efforts to criminalize trafficking without addressing its root causes are unlikely to make a significant dent in the problem. For example, instead of relying only on criminal law, experts see labour law as important in efforts to eradicate trafficking.¹²⁸

Insecure livelihoods, fragility and conflict, weak social protection systems and a pervasive denial of rights shape women’s survival strategies in a globalized economy. In such contexts, women’s labour tends towards sectors such as low-wage manufacturing, domestic work and sex work. The violation of women’s rights is thus both a cause and consequence of trafficking in women.¹²⁹ Restrictive migration laws and fear of deportation further rob women of meaningful choices, compelling them to resort to exploitative networks and practices. Without addressing the structural causes and engaging diverse frameworks including human rights and migration, international norms relating to the prohibition of trafficking risk being misused to stigmatize, target and punish those whom they are meant to support.¹³⁰ A comprehensive approach that addresses the underlying causes of trafficking and of women being trafficked would be in line with the Palermo Protocol’s 3Ps paradigm of prosecution, protection and prevention.

Most prevention interventions use more than one approach, and many target what are thought to be underlying risk factors of VAWG such as poverty, women's economic dependence on men and discriminatory norms for female and male behaviour.¹³¹ Some interventions seek to support women's economic independence (through microcredit, cash transfers and/or vocational and job training) to increase their power in a relationship. Others aim to change attitudes, beliefs and social norms (through awareness-raising and advocacy campaigns, community mobilization, media and communication efforts and group education), sometimes by working with men to change their attitudes and behaviour.

SASA! is a community mobilization intervention that was started by Raising Voices in Uganda.¹³² It seeks to change community attitudes, norms and behaviours that result in gender inequality, violence and increased HIV vulnerability for women. The project works systematically with a broad range of stakeholders in the community to promote a critical analysis and discussion of power inequalities. Findings from the SASA! evaluation found that in the past year, physical IPV experienced by women was significantly lower in intervention communities than in control communities, although there was no significant decrease in sexual IPV.¹³³

Other prevention strategies use community-based education programmes to address deeply rooted social norms that condone violence. Female genital mutilation (FGM) is a good example. To date, most efforts to address this complex issue have focused on criminal legislation.¹³⁴ Debates continue on whether punitive measures are an effective tool for cultural change and a powerful deterrent or, conversely, whether they push the practice underground, derail local efforts¹³⁵ and deter those in greatest need of social and legal support.¹³⁶ Regardless, the influence of laws on behaviour change is contingent on the parallel implementation of integrated community-led strategies that focus on the broader context.¹³⁷

Tailoring human rights-based programming principles to national and community contexts

and collaborating with community stakeholders in programme design, implementation and assessment has proven effective in facilitating changes in norms.¹³⁸ Since social norms are often upheld through expectations and pressure, collective abandonment whereby a whole community jointly decides to disengage from the practice and hold each other accountable is seen as an effective strategy. This requires community-based education in health and human rights, reinforced by discussion, reflection and consensus-building (see Box 5.7).

A wide range of prevention interventions seeks to work with men and boys—an approach that has attracted considerable interest from governments, donors and practitioners. The focus of many of the interventions has been to increase awareness and challenge attitudes, with the assumption that behavioural change will follow.

Yet decades of research have shown the relationship between attitudes and behaviour to be extremely complex. There are deep-seated structures and institutions that underpin violence.¹³⁹ Furthermore, awareness might be more readily raised among those least likely to be violent. The other problem with most of these interventions has been their generally short duration, while the more successful ones among them have benefited from relatively longer participant engagement to allow transformation in gender relations.¹⁴⁰

A misleading idea that has arisen in recent years is that work with men is somehow more effective or efficient than work with women on violence prevention and response. However, experience from many countries shows that violence prevention cannot be successfully undertaken without providing services for survivors. It should also be noted that “changing men may be best achieved in some circumstances by engaging and empowering women”, by changing their expectations of their partners, transforming inequitable gender relations and providing them with services and exit options.¹⁴¹

A key challenge in prevention is the piecemeal and short-term nature of interventions. Many

BOX 5.7

PREVENTING FGM IN SENEGAL THROUGH COMMUNITY-BASED EDUCATION

Tostan (‘breakthrough’) is an African-based international NGO that implements human rights-based, holistic, community-led education and informal and non-prescriptive dialogues rooted in local cultural traditions within communities. Although Tostan did not initially set out to end female genital mutilation (FGM), a key outcome of its Community Empowerment Program (CEP) is public inter-village declarations to abandon it. Over 5,000 Senegalese communities have done so since the programme’s inception in 1997, contributing to a substantial national decline in the practice.¹⁴²

The CEP comprises two phases: one year “to prepare the field for cultivation”, which draws on oral traditions to spur dialogue on community well-being issues and bottom-up democracy; then 18 months of literacy classes and management training “to plant the seed”. Framing human rights discourse in relation to local values opens the way to discussions on discrimination and women’s reproductive health with fresh insights. This, in turn, leads to broader reflections on gender relations, belief systems and local practices and to a deliberative process that culminates in collective commitment and public declaration to end FGM.¹⁴³

This process of positive social change has occurred unevenly.¹⁴⁴ But communities that continue to practise FGM increasingly see that their neighbours’ daughters are still socially valued and able to marry after their community’s rejection of the practice. The CEP supports communities to actively engage in learning and discussions with neighbouring villages to bring about change and fosters collaboration among NGOs, government agencies, community leaders and the media to sustain consensus among intra-marrying communities. So far, over 8,000 communities in eight African countries have abandoned FGM following implementation of the CEP.¹⁴⁵

prevention interventions in developing countries are donor-funded and frequently target relatively small groups of people. This raises questions about scalability, given that an issue as pervasive as VAWG requires large-scale solutions. Many useful evaluations of interventions are under way, and it is critical that investments in evaluations of prevention programmes are sustained and increased.¹⁴⁶

Key lessons from existing experiences with prevention

Several lessons emerge from existing work on the prevention of VAWG. First, prevention should not be seen as an alternative to responding to VAWG and service provision. In the context of limited donor funding and domestic fiscal constraints, there

is a risk that prevention activities are prioritized over services on the basis of the argument that prevention is more cost-effective.¹⁴⁷ And yet, “[p]revention can only occur if the system that responds to victims of violence is operating to ensure their safety”.¹⁴⁸

Second, prevention measures must be multipronged, sustained and engage a wide range of stakeholders—given the fact that violence emerges from the interplay of the multiple factors that underpin unequal gender relations and women’s subordination, including discriminatory social norms and attitudes and the denial of socio-economic as well as civil and political rights.

Third, coordination across sectors and departments of government is key, as is building and nurturing relationships and understanding

between government, civil society and communities.

Finally, a coordinated and effective strategy does not mean a single or ‘one size fits all’ approach. Efforts must be made to reflect the needs and

situations of different groups of women, ensuring inclusivity and relevance. Sometimes it is necessary to create interventions that target specific groups of women to address the particular risks they face and find solutions that are locally anchored and effective (see Box 5.8).

BOX 5.8

SEX WORKERS ORGANIZING TO PREVENT VIOLENCE

One example of a tailored approach is the implementation of social empowerment programmes for female sex workers, which showed a positive impact in reducing their risk of experiencing violence in South India.¹⁴⁹ Sex workers routinely face discrimination and extremely high risks of violence, particularly at the hands of the police and clients. In 2004, at least eight incidents of violence were reported per sex worker per year in India.¹⁵⁰ Sex workers in that country are also among those at highest risk of HIV as violence exposes them to lower levels of condom use and higher levels of sexually transmitted infections.

The Ashodaya Samithi initiative in Mysore (Karnataka) is an effective example of a sex worker-led response that works synergistically at multiple levels to provide safe spaces and crisis management and to advocate with various stakeholders.¹⁵¹ Community ownership and mobilization principles enable sex workers to progressively engage with key actors to tackle structural vulnerabilities and create enabling professional and personal conditions. Seemingly incongruous initial increases in IPV reported by the Ashodaya study seem to be due to increased willingness to report incidents as well as increased violence as a reaction to sex workers' growing empowerment. In addition, the sex worker collective has established a self-regulatory board to address trafficking. Community ownership and mobilization principles have been applied by sex worker communities in other parts of India, such as West Bengal, to confront the buying and selling of girls and women—and tricking them into forced sex work and child prostitution—while at the same time aiming to ensure that women who choose to do sex work are treated with respect.¹⁵²

A widely applicable ‘integrated empowerment framework’ was developed for a study of the Avahan programme, formerly called the Indian AIDS Initiative, in five districts in the southern state of Karnataka.¹⁵³ It found that effective community mobilization strategies facilitated empowerment among sex workers and that violence decreased by 84 per cent over five years, including that perpetrated by the police and clients.¹⁵⁴ Enabling sex workers to identify sources of vulnerability and ways to address them, such as managing client risk behaviours, and enhancing economic autonomy and the ability to access services can transform their risk environment, including the risk of HIV. Further correlations have been found between longevity of peer group membership, empowerment levels and declining experiences of police coercion.

MONITORING CHANGE: REGULAR DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The need for more and better VAWG prevalence data has already been emphasized in Chapter 2. Surveys to monitor the prevalence of different forms of VAWG should be repeated over time—and use comparable methodologies within and across countries—to allow an assessment of change at national, regional and global levels. Prevalence data can also be very powerful for advocacy purposes to alert decision-makers and the wider public about the problem and the need for urgent action. For data to be used, however, they should be owned by those who will be ultimately responsible for the design and implementation of that action. Prevalence surveys should therefore involve, from the onset of planning, all relevant partners, including relevant government sectors, civil society, women’s organizations (including those of marginalized women, academia) and others. This will also help ensure that the realities and experiences of violence among all groups of women from all ages are equally explored in such surveys. Surveys should be implemented in alignment with internationally agreed methodological, ethical and safety standards to ensure the data obtained are reliable and that they cause no further harm to women.¹⁵⁵

DO YOU KNOW...

...if regular prevalence surveys are conducted in your country? Is your government investing in systematic data generation on the nature, reach and impact of laws, policies and services?

In addition to outcome indicators on prevalence, there is also a need to capture policy efforts to eradicate VAWG. An effective response requires far better information about the kinds of policies in place and their implementation and impact, including women’s access to services and justice outcomes, in addition to information about the content of existing VAWG legislation. The monitoring of legislation and policies requires the establishment of global, regional and national databases and the setting up of administrative data systems in various sectors (e.g., health, justice, police). Furthermore, while for prevalence data there are globally agreed standards for data collection, there are no such standards for the establishment of administrative data systems.

How many countries, for example, have specialized courts or procedures for cases of domestic violence? Does existing legislation guarantee access to legal assistance? Are there dedicated police stations, specialized police staff or units to deal with violence against women? Does the legislation guarantee access to shelters or alternative accommodation? How many women are using shelters and is the demand being met? Is there a government-funded phone hotline for women survivors of violence to seek advice and support? Are there social services dedicated to assisting women survivors of violence, including financial and housing assistance and employment and vocational training? Are they being used, and across what geographic regions of a country? Can a survivor of domestic violence obtain a protection order? What proportion of reported cases are being prosecuted successfully? What services are available for men, and what are their recidivism rates? Are all women accessing services equally, or are there groups of women with greater barriers to accessing support and services? Do the women affected find the services and policies useful and dignity enhancing?

Having up-to-date information on the quality, extent and impact of laws and services is essential for practitioners, researchers and civil society organizations to monitor progress

DO YOU KNOW...

...whether there are processes to support women's rights organizations and survivors to participate in the design of laws, policies and programmes on violence against women and girls and in monitoring progress?

in policy implementation and hold decision-makers to account. It is also important to have robust monitoring and evaluation systems for programmes to be able to assess which interventions work and which are less effective. Another area of data collection in need of strengthening is around attitudes and norms in relation to VAWG. If collected over time, such data can provide insights into the effectiveness of prevention measures by assessing whether broader community attitudes towards VAWG are shifting, and what laws and practices have been important in changing these norms.

CONCLUSION

Given the pervasive scale and ubiquitous nature of VAWG, its elimination requires sustained, multipronged and large-scale solutions in line with the international norms and standards that have evolved over the past three decades. This chapter has drawn attention to four key areas of policy action: comprehensive legislation; the provision of multisectoral quality services; prevention measures to address the context-specific factors and root causes of violence; and efforts to advocate for policy action, inform policy and programming and monitor the effectiveness of interventions through data collection, analysis and programme evaluations.

Notable progress has been made in making VAWG visible as a public policy concern. In less than three decades, close to three quarters of all countries worldwide have put in place legislation to address the issue. Yet laws vary in their coverage of different forms of violence, more needs to be done to amend or remove conflicting provisions in other areas of law, and a quantum leap is required to ensure that laws are implemented and enforced in ways that are useful for women and girls. The provision of high-quality multisectoral services remains a challenge

in most countries. There are minimum standards in place for delivering best practice services, yet a set of pervasive limitations—from lack of funding, vulnerability to budget cuts and weak cross-sectoral coordination to staff shortages and insufficient training and specialization—continue to limit the reach, quality and effectiveness of services. As increasing attention is directed to preventing violence before it happens, it is imperative that prevention is not seen as an alternative to services and that comprehensive measures are taken to transform gender relations and expand women's options.

Autonomous organizing by women's rights advocates in both national and transnational spaces has been the critical factor that has catapulted VAWG onto the policy agenda. These organizations have also been at the forefront of legislative and policy innovation and practice and will need to continue to provide leadership and direction while forging relations with allies in government, civil society and communities. Supporting their efforts to monitor progress and hold governments accountable for the implementation of gender-responsive laws and policies is critical to turn the promises of the 2030 Agenda into action.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1/ **Adopt and implement comprehensive legislation to eliminate violence against women and girls (VAWG)**

Member States should ensure their legal frameworks define VAWG as discrimination against women and explicitly state that it has no defence in tradition, custom or religion. In parallel, conflicting provisions in all other areas of law (e.g., family laws, immigration laws) should be amended or removed so that the safety of survivors is prioritized in situations of violence.

2/ **Ensure that VAWG legislation is implemented, enforced and independently adjudicated**

Legislation needs to be accompanied by national action plans or strategies to ensure coordinated implementation, along with a mandated budget and training on VAWG for public officials. Member States should work towards making public agencies gender-responsive by providing specialized training for the police, judges, health workers and other professionals and/or creating special units with adequate funding to deal with VAWG.

3/ **Provide coordinated services for women and girls who experience violence, especially the most marginalized**

Service provision must be coordinated, multi-sectoral and legislated within a framework that specifies an essential set of services and associated norms and standards. Services must be designed to be accessible to women in all their diversity, and specialized expertise must be available to keep them safe, empower them to leave abusive relationships and

help them recover from violence and rebuild their lives. Long-term support for women and their children—as well as girls who are subject to violence—should also be provided, including through affordable housing, job training and employment opportunities to ensure their recovery and reintegration into society and prevent further re-victimization.

4/ **Put in place prevention measures that challenge the unequal gender power relations at the root of VAWG**

Member States should work to shift attitudes and social norms and strengthen women's economic independence by protecting and promoting women's rights to decent work, ownership of assets (land, housing) and social protection. All stakeholders should raise awareness of the scourge of VAWG, challenge norms that justify and excuse violence, and make information about women's rights and support systems widely available in order to support long-term prevention.

5/ **Invest in data on VAWG prevalence and policies**

Member States should conduct regular prevalence surveys on violence against women and girls in alignment with internationally agreed methodological, ethical and safety standards. National, regional and global standards, databases and administrative data systems in various sectors (e.g., health, justice, police) should be established to monitor legislative, policy and programmatic efforts to address VAWG.

CHAPTER 6

RECOGNIZING, REDUCING AND REDISTRIBUTING UNPAID CARE AND DOMESTIC WORK

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KEY MESSAGES

- 1/ Addressing existing care deficits and inequalities is central to the achievement of the 2030 Agenda. Failure to do so will hamper progress towards gender equality, poverty eradication and better health, well-being and learning outcomes as well as decent work and economic growth.
- 2/ Paid and unpaid forms of care are inextricably linked and are both undervalued. The rights of paid and unpaid caregivers—among whom women constitute the overwhelming majority—must hence be addressed in tandem.
- 3/ The intensity and nature of unpaid care and domestic work vary widely both across and within countries, reflecting the ways in which gender inequalities are compounded by other inequalities, including those based on geographical location, income, age and family status.
- 4/ Recognizing unpaid care and domestic work means raising its visibility in public debate and in policymaking and providing the time and resources needed for both women and men to be able to care for family members.
- 5/ Reducing the drudgery of unpaid care and domestic work is an urgent priority in low-income countries, where investments in physical infrastructure (e.g., piped water, sanitation and clean energy) are needed to free up women's and girls' time for other activities.
- 6/ Redistributing unpaid care and domestic work means providing alternatives to family care by making available services that offer accessible, affordable, quality care; providing adequate working conditions for paid care workers; and ensuring greater sharing of care responsibilities by men.
- 7/ Multipronged and context-specific approaches are needed to realize the rights of both caregivers and care receivers; redress the widely unequal capacities of families and households to provide care for their members, which reflect and, in turn, reinforce inequality among them; and ensure full accountability in policy design.

INTRODUCTION

Unpaid care and domestic work is a foundation of sustainable development. It sustains people on a day-to-day basis and from one generation to the next. Without it, individuals, families, societies and economies would not be able to survive and thrive. Yet everywhere, caregiving is devalued. As girls and women are the default providers of care,¹ this means they are less able to access income-generating work, escape poverty, be financially independent and accumulate savings, assets or retirement income for their later years. It also means less time for schooling and training, political participation, self-care, rest and leisure. This has profound implications for gender equality and women's and girls' enjoyment of their rights, as well as having wider ramifications for poverty, inequality and the achievement of sustainable development.² Furthermore, time and resource constraints among some groups that are both time-poor and income-poor translate into care deficits, especially for children, reproducing disadvantage from one generation to the next.

In 1995, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action highlighted the importance of addressing the unequal distribution of paid and unpaid work between women and men as an essential step towards achieving gender equality.³ Moreover, a number of international human rights treaties—including the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Convention on the Rights of the Child

and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities—establish legally binding obligations that ought to compel States to address the issue. The international human rights framework, as established by treaties such as these, is complemented by labour standards, in particular International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 156 on workers with family responsibilities, Convention No. 183 on maternity protection and Convention No. 189 concerning decent work for domestic workers.

These human rights obligations are now broadly reflected in the 2030 Agenda, especially in Target 5.4, which calls for a range of policies to recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work.⁴ Policy inaction and “the failure of States to adequately provide, fund, support and regulate care contradicts their human rights obligations, by creating and exacerbating inequalities and threatening women's rights enjoyment.”⁵ Addressing prevailing care deficits and inequalities is pivotal for achieving many other goals, especially the eradication of poverty and hunger (SDG 1 and 2), better health, well-being and learning outcomes (SDG 3 and 4), decent work and economic growth (SDG 8) and the reduction of inequalities (SDG 10). Public investment in infrastructure and care services not only frees up women's time and improves their employment prospects, it can also strengthen the capabilities of care recipients, generate decent job opportunities for both women and men through expanding social care, and chart an inclusive and low-carbon growth trajectory.⁶

CARE DEFICITS AND INEQUALITIES

Unpaid care and domestic work—the housework and interpersonal care that takes place in families and households on an unpaid basis—was until very recently not considered an ‘economic activity’, nor counted as part of gross domestic product (GDP) (see Box 6.1 on definitions). Given this invisibility, and the fact that the bulk of this work—75 per cent⁷—is undertaken by women, feminist economists and women’s rights advocates have led the call for unpaid care work to be “counted” in statistics, “accounted for” in representations of the economy and “taken into account” in policymaking.⁸

Time-use surveys are invaluable in making unpaid care and domestic work visible in statistics. Most large-scale attempts to measure unpaid work through time-use surveys first took place in developed countries in Europe and North America and in Australia. Over the last two decades, however, more developing countries have undertaken such surveys, and more research has gone into analysing the results for better policymaking.⁹ However, both the irregularity of these surveys and the disparate methodologies they employ are of concern, especially in developing countries.

BOX 6.1

DEFINITIONS OF UNPAID WORK, UNPAID CARE WORK AND PAID CARE WORK

The terms ‘unpaid work’, ‘unpaid care work’ and ‘paid care work’ are sometimes used interchangeably.¹⁰ This is wrong and misleading, even though there is some overlapping between them.

Unpaid work covers a broad spectrum of work that is not directly remunerated. It includes: (i) unpaid work on the household plot or in the family business; (ii) activities such as the collection of water and firewood; and (iii) cooking, cleaning and care of one’s child, elderly parent or friend. The first two items are counted as ‘economic activities’ and should, in theory, be included in calculations of gross domestic product (GDP). The third item was until recently not considered an ‘economic activity’, even though feminist economists have long contested its exclusion and used ‘satellite’ GDP accounts to measure it and make it visible.

Unpaid care work (item iii above) includes the direct care of persons (nurturance) for no explicit monetary reward. Direct care (e.g., bathing a child or accompanying an elderly parent or friend to the doctor) is often seen as separate from the other activities that provide the preconditions for caregiving, such as preparing meals, shopping and cleaning (i.e., domestic work). But such boundaries are arbitrary, especially since those who need intense care are often unable to perform such tasks themselves.

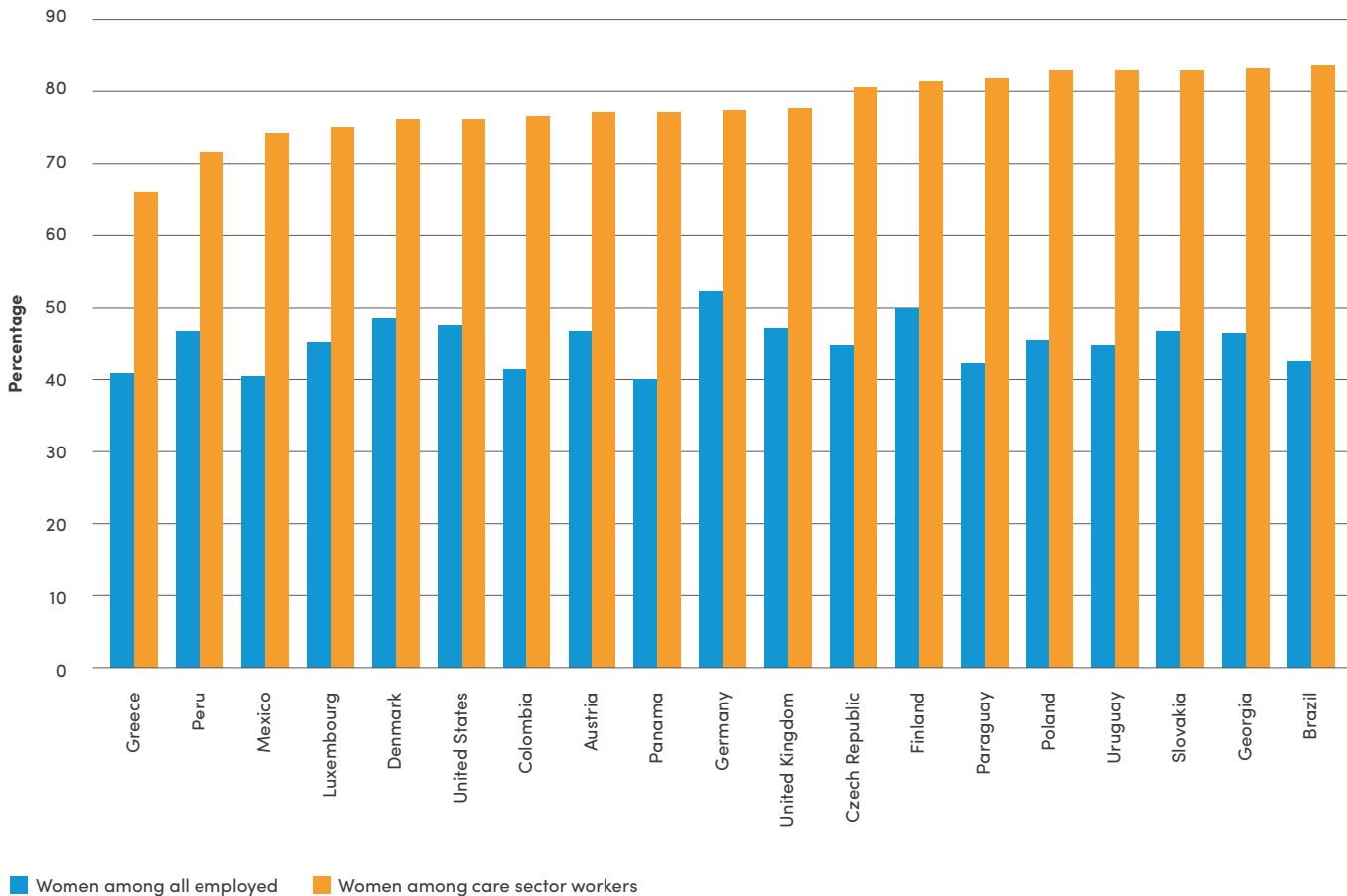
Paid care work¹¹ refers to occupations where workers provide direct face-to-face care or indirect forms of care that provide the preconditions for caregiving. It thus includes the work carried out by nurses, child-minders and elderly care assistants as well as domestic workers, cooks and cleaners, among others. Care workers perform their tasks in a variety of settings: public, market and not-for-profit as well as private homes.

The need for care most often exceeds the capacity of individuals and their intimate family members to meet it and may be allocated to other institutions where the delivery of care is by paid workers,¹² which could include migrant domestic workers who work within home settings, care assistants employed by nursing

homes and carers attending people living with HIV in hospices or community centres. Like unpaid care, the paid care workforce is heavily feminized (see Figure 6.1), and the work is often underpaid compared to non-care occupations involving comparable levels of skill, education and experience.¹³

FIGURE 6.1

PROPORTION OF WOMEN AMONG CARE SECTOR WORKERS AND AMONG THE EMPLOYED, 2012-2013



Source: Armenia and Duffy 2017, based on Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) data, 2012-2013 round.

While care continues to be widely seen as a family affair, it is hard to think of a country where other institutions are not involved in its delivery. Thus, the institutional framework for care includes not only the family but also the market, the state and the not-for-profit sector, constituting a 'care diamond'.¹⁴ An advantage of this broad formulation is that it highlights the interdependent relationship between the institutions where care is provided and the tensions that lie at the heart of any care system. Where public care services are being cut back—for example, through austerity measures—the need for care does not disappear. For those who can afford it, market-based services may provide a substitute. But families who cannot afford the charges will fall back on women's and girls' unpaid time—or leave care needs unattended.

In the 1990s, when cutbacks in public funding in Zimbabwe coincided with an astronomic rise in HIV infections, reduced access to public health-care facilities meant that poor families who could not afford to hire help had to rely on the unpaid care work of family members. In many such instances, girls were withdrawn from school to care for their sick and dying mothers in poor home environments, impacting negatively on their health, safety and education.¹⁵ A different scenario is unfolding in southern and eastern European countries such as Italy, Portugal, Romania and Spain, where there is little formal childcare provided by the state or market. Here, grandmothers are providing intensive levels of childcare daily, or at least 30 hours per week—especially in families that cannot afford to hire care, which is typically provided by migrant women. However, these grandmothers are the very women who are being encouraged by governments across Europe to stay in paid work for longer to finance pension and social security systems. Their vital but invisible role in providing childcare is likely to reduce their capacity to self-finance their own old age, especially as widows' pensions are withdrawn.¹⁶

GENDER INEQUALITIES IN UNPAID CARE AND DOMESTIC WORK

Gender inequality in the division of unpaid care and domestic work is ubiquitous, regardless of region, income level or cultural characteristics, with women spending more time than men on both unpaid domestic work and interpersonal care (see Chapter 3). However, gender disparities are particularly pronounced in developing countries. The ratio of women's to men's unpaid care and domestic work is as high as 14 times in rural Mali and 10 times in Cambodia, India and Pakistan. The gender disparities do not disappear in developed regions but are not as stark: In Western and Northern Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand, the ratio of female to male unpaid care and domestic work ranges between 1.2 to 2.3 times.¹⁷

The longer hours of unpaid care work undertaken by women compared to men are the opposite of the gender division of paid work, where men typically do longer hours than women, although the gap is narrowing. Evidence from developed countries suggests that the time men allocate to unpaid care and domestic work has increased, but not as much as the increase in the time women allocate to paid work. For this reason, even as women's average hours of paid work have risen, the gender gaps in unpaid work persist.¹⁸

It would be interesting to know whether the division of unpaid care work among same-sex couples is more egalitarian than opposite-sex couples, given that they do not have a clear 'gender script' in the way that heterosexual couples do. Systematic survey data are generally too scarce to allow proper exploration, but some countries are beginning to produce it (see Box 6.2).

BOX 6.2

DIVISION OF UNPAID DOMESTIC WORK: SAME-SEX AND OPPOSITE-SEX COUPLES IN AUSTRALIA

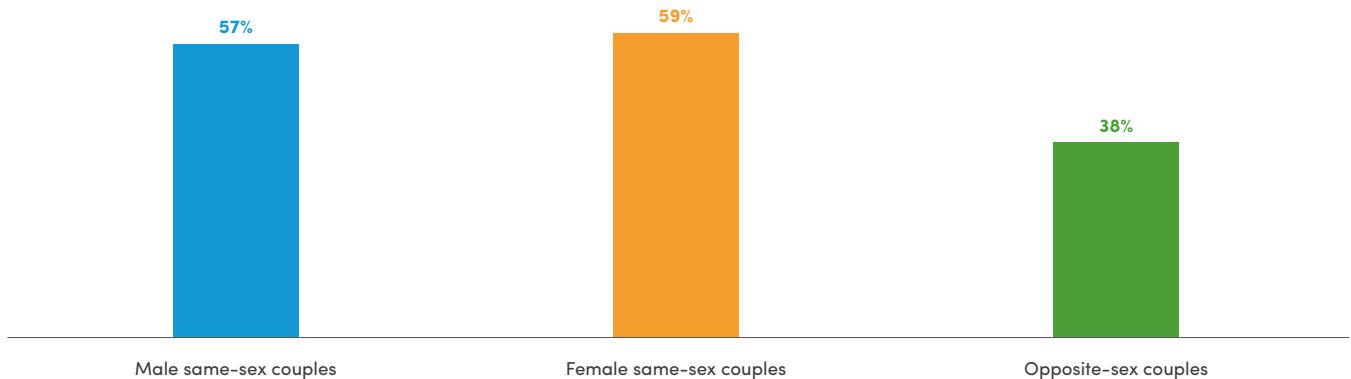
Are same-sex couples less likely to follow traditional gender roles in allocating domestic and care responsibilities? In Australia, unpaid domestic work such as housework, food preparation, laundry, gardening and home repairs were more equally shared between the partners in same-sex couples compared to opposite-sex couples (see Figure 6.2). So, 59 per cent of female same-sex couples and 57 per cent of male same-sex couples did about the same amount of unpaid domestic work. In opposite-sex couples, by contrast, a much smaller proportion, 38 per cent, divided unpaid domestic work equally, while women did more unpaid domestic work in 56 per cent of couples and men did more in the remaining 6 per cent.¹⁹

While same-sex couples have some characteristics that tend to correlate with a more egalitarian division of domestic work—higher levels of education, urban residence, professional occupations and fewer children (as shown in the Australian census results)—this cannot fully account for the difference. Egalitarian ideals and norms about the domestic division of labour are also likely to play a part, as in-depth qualitative and quantitative studies have shown.²⁰

However, some methodological issues need attention. As is the case with other sensitive topics, some underreporting of same-sex relationships is likely (‘false negatives’), especially by those who may feel less empowered to declare their sexual orientation and more concerned about being judged or rejected by society. In other words, those who are more educated, who work as professionals and managers and who earn higher incomes may be more willing to declare their status, creating a bias in the sample.

FIGURE 6.2

PERCENTAGE OF COUPLES IN AUSTRALIA WHERE BOTH PARTNERS DID ABOUT THE SAME AMOUNT OF UNPAID DOMESTIC WORK, 2011



Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics 2013.

INEQUALITIES AMONG WOMEN

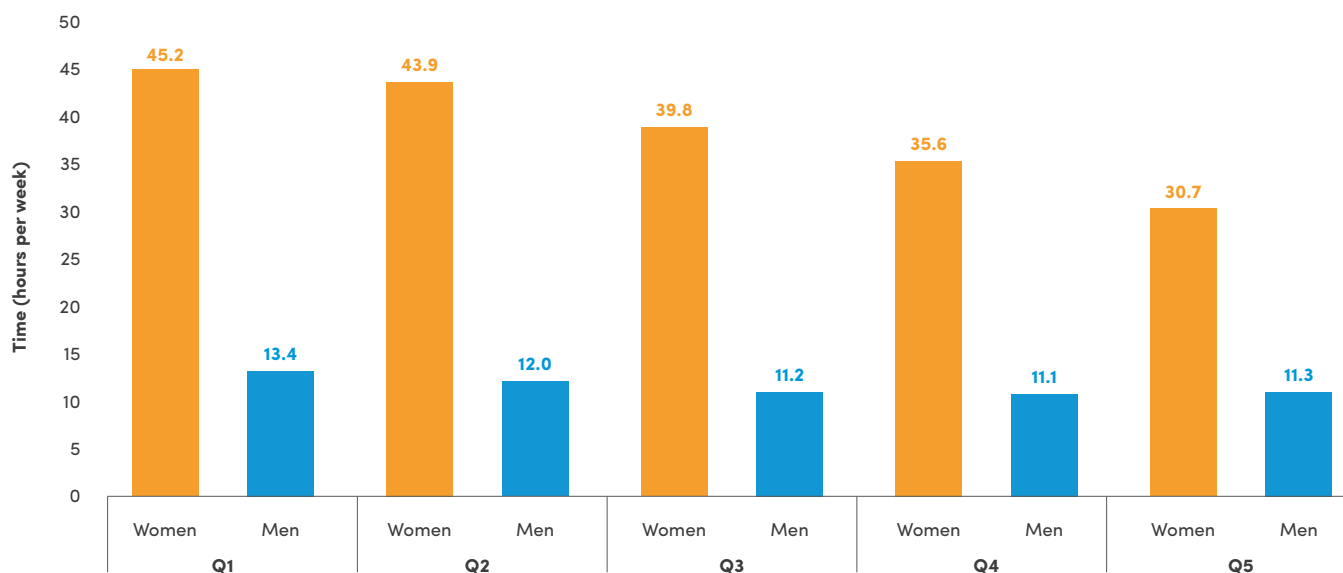
The intensity, content and context of unpaid work by women vary considerably not only across countries but also within them. In developing countries, the time that needs to be allocated to unpaid care and domestic work will differ substantially depending on the availability of basic infrastructure such as piped water, on-site sanitation and electricity, as well as access to time-saving appliances such as grinders and fuel-efficient cookstoves. In sub-Saharan Africa, where only 55 per cent of households are within 15 minutes of a water source, women and girls are the primary water carriers for their families, doing the hauling in over 70 per cent of households where water has to be fetched.²¹ In highly urbanized developed regions, by contrast, where basic services are more widely available, women's unpaid time

is allocated to tasks such as food preparation, shopping and caring for children and adults.²²

In addition to variations between countries, inequalities among women within the same country are significant. Time-use data from India, for example, show that women who live in poor households spend as much as 24 per cent of their work time on collecting firewood and water, and foraging for edible and non-edible items to be used as food and housing materials, while women in non-poor households allocate about one half of that time, 12 per cent, to such tasks.²³ Likewise, in Latin American countries, women in the poorest income groups (quintile 1) allocate more time to unpaid care and domestic work than those in the richest (quintile 5) (see Figure 6.3). Men's consistently low levels of time allocated to these tasks, regardless of household income, is also noteworthy.

FIGURE 6.3

TIME SPENT ON UNPAID CARE AND DOMESTIC WORK IN LATIN AMERICA, BY SEX AND INCOME QUINTILE, 2009–2014



Source: ECLAC undated.

Note: The simple (unweighted) regional average is based on latest available data points for a set of nine countries (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Peru and Uruguay).

BOX 6.3

GENDER, MIGRATION AND CARE: GLOBAL CARE CHAINS

Over the past several decades, more and more women have entered the paid labour force.²⁴ Today, in almost every country, the service sector far outweighs manufacturing in terms of output and the number of people employed. While professional/managerial and service positions have opened up for women in wealthier countries, women in many developing countries have been restricted to low-paying or rapidly disappearing agricultural and industrial work, pushing many, regardless of their educational levels and professional training, to seek service-sector jobs in major urban centres and abroad.

Increasingly, this group has found employment as domestic workers and caregivers in rapidly growing cities and more affluent countries, where the rise in local or native-born women's entry into the labour force—coupled with ageing populations, limited state support and the low market valuation of care work—has created a growing demand for non-family caregivers. This demand is being filled by migrant care workers who have little choice but to work for substandard wages. Many of these women in turn delegate the care of their own children to female kin, especially their own mothers, or to hired domestic workers who may be migrants from poorer rural areas.

The globalization of care work now affects every corner of the world. While some of this is occurring between countries and regions with comparable levels of development, much of it is between countries with divergent levels of prosperity and opportunity—between South and North, to be sure (from Mexico to the United States, the Philippines to Canada and the Pacific Islands to Australia), but also South–South movements within developing regions, for example, from Nicaragua to Costa Rica, from the Philippines and Indonesia to Singapore and from Mozambique and Malawi to South Africa.

Migrant women workers are often already disadvantaged by their migrant status and racial identity. They are then more susceptible to the poor conditions that beset the low-wage economy of care and domestic work. Their precariousness is exacerbated by migration policies in their countries of destination, which have become more restrictive in order to favour 'skilled' workers. This has been accompanied by the contradictory dependence of richer countries on migrant care workers combined with populist and political nationalist and anti-immigration sentiment.

Yet the situation is not static. Domestic and care workers are increasingly organizing at all levels, and national and local laws and regulations are in flux. This advocacy has begun to shape discussions within international organizations, leading, most significantly, to the adoption at the International Labour Conference in 2011 of ILO Convention No. 189 concerning decent work for domestic workers. The impacts of this Convention at the national level are now beginning to be seen, with 24 countries having already ratified it and many more home to domestic worker organizations that are collaborating with national allies to promote ratification.

Several factors can explain the inequality among women, including less availability of infrastructure and domestic technology in poorer households, their larger household size and their weaker capacity to access domestic and care services. Indeed, it is very often women from low-income households, many of them migrants from rural areas or even transnational migrants from poorer countries and regions, who carry out paid domestic and care work in the homes of the more affluent (see Box 6.3).

Another factor that influences the amount of time women allocate to unpaid care and domestic work is the number of people in the household needing intensive forms of care. Caring for a person with dementia or other debilitating conditions and disabilities is extremely time-intensive, but it is not adequately reflected in time-use surveys because of the low frequency of such cases among the surveyed population.²⁵ The presence of young children can also make a significant difference. A six-country study of time use—in Argentina, India, Japan, Nicaragua, South Africa and United Republic of Tanzania—found that women’s unpaid care work was more intense in households with young children and that the amount of work decreased as the age of the youngest child increased.²⁶

Health shocks and environmental degradation can also intensify unpaid workloads. The impact of health crises in this regard was particularly acute in southern Africa, which had some of the highest HIV prevalence rates in the world and where many poorer and rural households had to care for their sick family members without running water, indoor sanitation facilities or electricity.²⁷ A different type of shock can arise from environmental degradation. The reduction in biodiversity and the degradation and/or enclosure of forests mean that women have to spend more time and energy collecting firewood and fodder for household subsistence. Research on India and Nepal suggests that women from landless and land-poor households are

particularly dependent on common property resources and hence more adversely affected by forest degradation.²⁸ Similar changes in time use are likely to result from the reduction in renewable water resources in most dry, sub-tropical regions.

GENDER, CARE AND POVERTY: MAKING THE CONNECTIONS

Women’s heavy and disproportionate responsibility for unpaid care constrains their income-earning capacity. This is evident in the way gender gaps in labour force participation increase as women enter their reproductive years.²⁹ Women’s reduced earning capacity, in turn, increases their financial dependence on husbands and partners while weakening their families’ ability to escape poverty.

In recent years, policy institutions have urged women to increase their labour force participation and backed this call with estimations of the positive impact of women’s employment on economic growth.³⁰ Growth projections like those produced by the McKinsey Global Institute, however, wrongly assume that women do not face time constraints; they ignore the significant amount of time women already allocate to unpaid care work (a ‘supply side’ constraint).³¹ Another assumption made is that there is sufficient demand for their labour, also problematic given the pervasive unemployment, underemployment and bouts of ‘jobless growth’ afflicting many economies.³²

Research on several countries has found many poor households would escape income poverty if adults living there who are not in the labour force (mostly female homemakers) obtained jobs in line with their labour market characteristics and under the prevailing labour market conditions. However, although some redistribution of unpaid care and domestic work within households would take place, this is so little that many of these newly employed

women would then move into time poverty, with reduced time available for caregiving.³³ This would have negative repercussions for the well-being of children and other family members.

Hence, for women's equal access to paid work to facilitate sustainable development—without jeopardizing human well-being—it has to be based on a comprehensive strategy that includes recognition of the critical importance of unpaid

care work, reduction of the drudgery associated with this work to increase its productivity and free up time, and redistribution of the work between women and men within families and between families and other institutions providing care.³⁴ A strategy for investing in care services could also create new jobs in the care sector and address the lack of employment opportunities that characterize many countries. The next section elaborates on this agenda with concrete policy examples.

TAKING ACTION

A comprehensive strategy for addressing care deficits and inequalities requires policies that reduce, redistribute and recognize unpaid care and domestic work.³⁵ It should be based on the understanding that caregiving is central to sustaining families, communities and societies and that all people are, at some point in their lives, in need of care and should have the right to receive it. It also acknowledges the collective responsibility to create conditions for care to be provided in ways that enhance the rights, capabilities and dignity of both caregivers (whether paid or unpaid) and care-receivers.

Reduction of the amount of time and drudgery associated with unpaid care and domestic work by increasing its productivity is of utmost urgency, particularly in most low-income countries where access to water, sanitation, energy and labour-saving technology is limited and uneven. This section on policies begins with a discussion of investments in such technology.

Redistribution requires policies that ensure that the provision of care is shared more equitably among families, states, markets and the not-for-profit sector, as well as between women and men within families. The middle section of the chapter looks at care services for preschool children (early childhood education and care) and older persons (long-term care) as examples of how this can be done.³⁶

Recognition does not mean paying 'wages for housework' as is sometimes assumed, though it may include other forms of compensation for time spent taking care of dependents (e.g., 'care credits' in pension systems). Not all unpaid care can, or should, be shifted out of families and 'replaced' by public or market-based services: Families need both the time and resources to provide adequate care for their members. The chapter's final section discusses paid maternity, paternity and parental leaves as ways to support family care; paid leave to care for adult family members (such as elderly parents) is also necessary but far less prevalent.

Well-designed and adequately funded leave policies should also encourage men to increase their engagement in the care of family members through specific incentives such as ‘daddy quotas’ entailing the redistribution of care within families.

The policies discussed in this chapter are illustrative of what can be done to address care deficits and inequalities—in line with the standards and principles espoused by the 2030 Agenda. Care needs, socio-economic structures, resource constraints and state capacities vary significantly across countries, even among those that may otherwise share some characteristics. Given this diversity, each country’s priorities and mix of policies will have to be defined through broad-based inclusive deliberations involving a wide range of stakeholders: government, civil society, employers and care service providers. Beyond more explicit care policies, it is also important to scrutinize how other policies (e.g., health, social protection, transport and trade) can support the rights of both care providers and recipients. One best practice is the National Integrated Care System of Uruguay, adopted in 2015, which was developed by an inter-institutional working group comprising different government ministries, civil society actors and care service providers and addresses the diverse care needs of preschool children, frail elderly persons and people with disabilities.³⁷

INVESTING IN INFRASTRUCTURE TO REDUCE THE DRUDGERY OF UNPAID CARE AND DOMESTIC WORK

Access to running water, safe and dignified sanitation services, cleaner cookstoves and efficient public transport create an enabling environment for caregiving, both at home and in institutional settings, including schools and health centres.

Without them, basic caregiving tasks—such as ensuring the personal hygiene of a bed-ridden relative, taking a child to school or to the doctor or preparing a meal—become time-consuming and challenging. Investments in physical infrastructure are important for women’s rights and gender equality while contributing to multiple goals of the 2030 Agenda by:

- Reducing the time women spend on collecting water and fuel and accompanying family members to school and health centres (Target 5.4)
- Reducing the time children, especially girls, spend on collecting water and fuel, and hence contributing to their educational outcomes (Target 4.1)
- Improving women’s well-being by enhancing their access to water and sanitation (Targets 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3)
- Freeing women’s time so they can access paid work and markets for their goods (Targets 8.3 and 8.5)

DO YOU KNOW...

...if there is a clear plan for making services and infrastructure accessible to all women and girls, especially those who live in rural, remote or poor urban communities?

Water and sanitation

Clean, safe drinking water is a precondition for caregiving, but fetching it is a particularly arduous and time-consuming task. As shown in Chapter 3 (Figure 3.18), the availability of water in homes is still far from universal in many developing countries, while the burden of fetching it falls disproportionately on women and girls. Detailed evidence from South Africa (see Figure 6.4) shows that, as one would expect, the time spent fetching water increases with the distance to the water source. While women are always more likely than men to fetch water, irrespective of the distance, men's contribution to water hauling is relatively greater when the water source is closer (less than 500 meters from the home compared to 500 meters or more). Hence, an additional benefit of improvements in infrastructure that bring water closer to homes is that it could also bring in more help from men.

Bringing water closer to homes

A study analysing household surveys in nine countries—four in sub-Saharan Africa (Madagascar, Malawi, Rwanda and Uganda), three in South Asia (India, Nepal and Pakistan) and two in the Middle East and North Africa (Morocco and Yemen)—found that a shorter distance to the water source had a positive impact on school enrolment rates for both girls and boys, though no discernible impact on women's time in the labour market.³⁸ This finding underlines an important point: What women are able to do with time that is made free depends on the broader socio-economic context and, importantly, on whether other policies are in place to support their economic opportunities.³⁹ Likewise, the gains in children's schooling are likely to be greater when there are also improvements in transport infrastructure and school facilities.

In recent years, investment in improved access to safe drinking water has become a higher priority for governments and donor agencies. This can be partly traced to Millennium Development Goal

7 (Target C), which aimed to halve by 2015 the proportion of population without sustainable access to safe drinking water and sanitation. While this target was met on a global level, several regions fell short, especially sub-Saharan Africa.⁴⁰ In rural regions of sub-Saharan Africa as well as South Asia, improved access to drinking water is reported to be mostly limited to a range of 'improved' categories other than piped water to a dwelling, plot or yard.⁴¹ These include protected wells and springs, collected rainwater, boreholes or public standpipes, which still require some time for collection and treatment (such as boiling) before domestic use.⁴² Given the gender inequalities in time use already noted, women and girls are likely to shoulder much of this work. It is therefore encouraging that SDG 6 of the 2030 Agenda refers to "safely managed water services", defined as those "located on the premises, available when needed and free from contamination".⁴³ In 2015, 71 per cent of the global population used a safely managed drinking water source, but the coverage rate was as low as 24 per cent in sub-Saharan Africa.⁴⁴

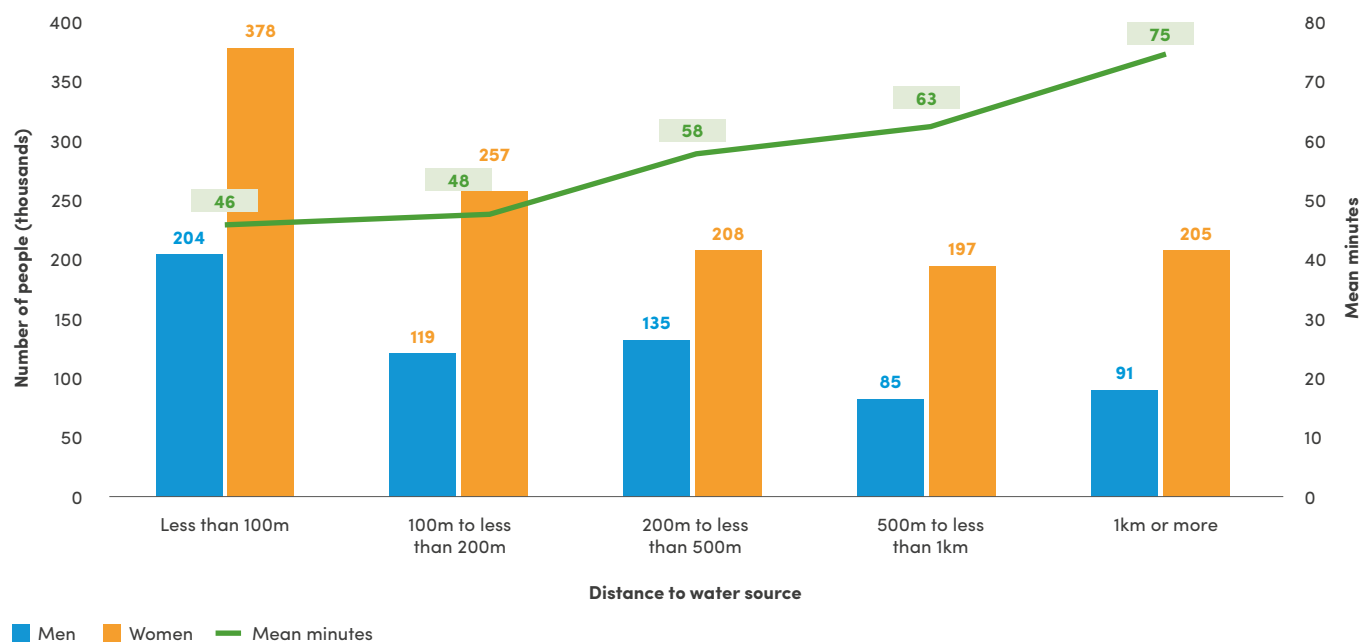
Sanitation has received less attention than water. Despite some progress, an estimated 2.4 billion people still do not have access to an improved latrine; of these, close to two thirds live in rural areas and more than one third use shared facilities, which the World Health Organization (WHO) and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) do not consider 'improved'.⁴⁵ South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa continue to have the lowest levels of coverage. Open defecation is a severe public health risk as well as an environmental hazard, causing widespread diarrhoeal disease and water pollution.

DO YOU KNOW...

...if your country measures the time spent on collecting water, fuel and firewood?

FIGURE 6.4

HOUSEHOLD WATER COLLECTORS IN SOUTH AFRICA BY SEX OF RESPONDENT AND DISTANCE TO WATER SOURCE, 2013



Source: Statistics South Africa 2013.

The impacts on women's time constraints are indirect but significant, as the care for sick family members invariably falls on them. Furthermore, basic sanitation that is clean, affordable to construct and maintain and safe to access is particularly important for women's and girls' well-being, privacy and dignity.⁴⁶

Extending coverage to underserved areas

Inequality persists in most regions in access to safe drinking water and sanitation between rural and urban areas and between wealth quintiles.⁴⁷ Within urban areas, those living in informal settlements and on urban peripheries are not well served.⁴⁸ Connecting underserved areas to infrastructure or providing alternative modes of access to safe drinking water should therefore be a priority.

Continuous and centralized piped water systems have the highest health benefits and lowest drudgery costs in relation to fetching water. They are technologically and financially viable for densely populated communities. However, they are also the most capital-intensive of all options for providing water,⁴⁹ and the question of how to finance investment in water provision is thus key. Water and sanitation infrastructure has long been considered a 'public good', given its multiple benefits for public health that go beyond individual users. If the public sector is not able to mobilize the necessary resources to meet the SDG targets, it is hoped that the private sector will step in to close the financing gap, either on its own or working with governments through private-public partnerships (PPPs). Recent experience with water privatization, however, raises serious questions about the role of the private sector (see Box 6.4).

BOX 6.4

PUBLIC-PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS IN THE WATER SECTOR: NEGLECT AND EXCLUSION

While water and sanitation are among the most needed infrastructure services, they are the least likely to be financed through private finance or public-private partnerships (PPPs).⁵⁰ PPP infrastructural investment has been concentrated in a relatively small number of middle- and high-income economies, such as Brazil and China, and in only a handful of sectors where profitability can be assured, most notably telecoms and energy. In fact, developing country governments continued to finance around 70 per cent of the investment in infrastructure during the 2000–2005 period, and closer to 90 per cent in the case of the lowest-income countries.⁵¹

In spite of a principal justification for PPPs being that they can efficiently close resource gaps, independent evaluations confirm that the performance of private sector finance has not been any more efficient than the public sector.⁵² More worrying, private sector involvement has meant even greater neglect and exclusion of rural and remote areas.⁵³ This is not surprising as the initial capital investment and set-up costs are likely to be very high in remote villages and informal settlements, while full cost-recovery through high charges is unlikely.

After a wave of water privatization initiatives in the 1990s, more than 180 cities and communities in 35 countries have taken back control of their water services in the past 15 years. Given that PPPs for water provision have been characterized by environmental risks and tariffs that put water beyond the reach of the poor, especially poor women, women were often at the forefront of court disputes over tariff hikes and protests for control to return to municipalities.⁵⁴

Improvements in water and sanitation have substantial benefits in terms of public health, environmental sustainability and women's time. This makes the sector a perfect candidate for public sector investment rather than private sector profitability. The state is the only actor willing and able to deliver at a sufficient scale in such contexts.⁵⁵ Even alternative community-based approaches, such as water harvesting and treadle pumps—which would still require unpaid work for water collection and treatment—are unlikely to be scaled up without state support.⁵⁶

Ensuring the affordability of the water supply

Regardless of public or private sector investment, connection and user charges can act as significant barriers for low-income households to access sufficient water supplies. Governments can adopt a range of measures, including subsidies, to ensure that water and sanitation services remain affordable and meet the needs of marginalized groups.

To improve access to a networked water supply, policy options, as exercised in a range of countries,

include the waiving or subsidization of both connection and supply charges as well as the regulation of tariffs. A fixed amount of water can be made available to all households at no charge, coupled with a stepped tariff for additional quantities (as in South Africa), bearing in mind that this could still underserve poorer households, which tend to be larger in size and may share a water connection. Alternatively, subsidies can be targeted to specific groups, based either on household income (as in Chile) or geographical location (Colombia).⁵⁷ Another possibility is to cross-subsidize different public services. In Ecuador, for example, a special tax was levied on telecommunications services, and the revenue was then transferred to the public water company and used to improve water and sanitation.⁵⁸

Those who are not part of networked water supplies and rely on communal or individual wells would not benefit from government subsidies to network users. Many of these alternatives are financed by households themselves rather than by governments. It is thus necessary to regulate and subsidize their water sources. Senegal, for example, has significantly extended access to water in low-income neighbourhoods by subsidizing the construction of public standpipes and their connection to the grid. However, keeping the price of water affordable has been challenging.⁵⁹ Nevertheless, it is possible: Kenya's overhaul of the water and sanitation sectors in the early 2000s put in place pro-poor tariff guidelines and alternative payment options for water kiosks to enhance affordability.⁶⁰

Strengthening transparency, accountability and participation

Ensuring that access to water is extended to underserved areas, remains affordable for the whole population and is provided to all groups without discrimination requires transparency and

participation in decision-making. This includes an open discussion about the involvement of the private sector, effective regulatory frameworks, and accountability mechanisms to redress grievances and human rights violations.⁶¹ These criteria should apply to public and private, profit and non-profit providers alike.

Manuals and guidelines for the design of water and sanitation infrastructure often urge those designing projects to consult with women and marginalized social groups, such as Dalits in India;⁶² involve them in community-based participatory mechanisms (such as water and sanitation user committees) and accountability drives (for example, village and ward citizens' forums and citizens report cards) to make their voices heard; and increase women's representation in management teams and the civil service.⁶³

These mechanisms to strengthen participation and accountability need to go hand in hand with broader policy interventions. Time-use statistics on unpaid care work should be used to inform public debate about resource allocation and national budgeting processes. In this way, investments in water and sanitation can be prioritized and the accessibility and affordability of services assured and sustained, especially for those who remain excluded from

DO YOU KNOW...

...if your government consults with different groups of women—especially the more marginalized—on the priorities, design and implementation of major infrastructure projects?

networked services. Meeting water and sanitation deficits is affordable: Research by Public Services International shows that countries with the highest levels of need for drinking water and sewage connections can deliver these services over a 10-year period with less than 1 per cent of GDP per year.⁶⁴

Cookstoves

Food preparation—which across countries is also overwhelmingly done by women—requires household energy. More than 3 billion people in the world must rely on solid fuels such as biomass (wood, charcoal, agricultural residues and animal dung) and coal as their primary source. More than three quarters of this population is rural. The share of households relying on solid fuels for their energy needs ranges from less than 25 per cent in some developing countries to 95 per cent in many sub-Saharan African countries, where it is closer to 100 per cent in many rural areas.⁶⁵ Dependence on solid fuels is much higher among the poorest quintiles compared to their richer counterparts.⁶⁶

In addition to the time it takes to process grains and prepare meals, collecting solid fuel imposes an even greater burden in terms of both time and energy on the women and children who invariably undertake the task. On average, a woman in Africa has to carry 20 kilograms of fuelwood five kilometres per day.⁶⁷

The use of solid fuels also has harmful health effects. They are often burned in inefficient open fires and basic stoves with inadequate ventilation that expose family members, especially women and children who spend longer hours indoors, to toxic smoke and physical burns. The cumulative effects are manifest in respiratory infections, lung inflammation and cancer, low birthweight, cardiovascular problems and cataracts. Indoor air pollution ranks third on the global burden of disease risk factors for all countries; deaths from it are already greater than those from malaria and tuberculosis.⁶⁸

And the practice has harmful effects on the environment too. When fuelwood is unsustainably

harvested, this contributes to forest degradation, deforestation and loss of biodiversity, even if deforestation has many other—and often greater—causes such as industrial logging, commercial charcoal production and large-scale conversion of land to agricultural and other uses.⁶⁹ The use of dirty solid fuels also contributes to harmful emissions of carbon dioxide and black carbon (soot), a forcing agent for global warming as well as a regional climate disruptor. In South Asia, it is estimated that half the emitted black carbon is from biomass-burning stoves and that this disrupts the monsoons and can potentially threaten water availability.⁷⁰

Given the many positive externalities associated with the reduced use of solid fuels, investing at scale in efficient cookstoves that use cleaner fuels—such as liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) or, better yet, renewable energy such as solar—is a strategy that is simultaneously gender-responsive and environmentally sustainable.

Engineers have been designing cookstoves to replace open fires since the 1950s, but efforts to promote both modern fuels and improved biomass stoves have seen only sporadic success.⁷¹ A notable exception was a government programme in China that brought more than 100 million cookstoves into people's homes.⁷² However, research suggests that the health benefits of cookstove interventions vary greatly, ranging from no effect to modest but lower than anticipated benefits.⁷³ For example, of the 28 million cookstoves that the Global Alliance for Clean Cookstoves has distributed, only 8.2 million—less than a third—meet the health guidelines for indoor emissions set by WHO.⁷⁴ The benefits for household income have been more positive, given that most improved stoves burn between 30 to 60 per cent less fuel than their unimproved counterparts. This is an important saving for poor rural households that spend nearly 10 per cent of their monthly income on energy.⁷⁵

Several factors should, over the next decade, offer ample opportunity for progress: accelerating technological innovation across the full spectrum of clean cooking technologies and sustainable energy

sources; increasing availability of financing for private, public and non-governmental organization (NGO) manufacturers and distributors, many of which form part of the Global Alliance for Clean Cookstoves; and the growing consensus among policymakers that clean cooking based on sustainable energy has multiple synergies with health, environmental goals and both income and time poverty. However, obstacles in reaching all who need improved stoves, especially low-income families in rural and peri-urban areas, remain significant.

Many households lack the ability to pay for the improved stoves, which also require access to a steady and cheap supply of fuel; the latter may be unavailable in rural areas or unaffordable. In sub-Saharan Africa, the high upfront costs of higher-end cooking appliances and the high on-going cost of modern fuel limit the size of the clean cooking market. Even for low-cost improved stoves, which are affordable for all except for the poorest households, affordability still serves as a brake on faster market development. The time burden on women and children may not be a sufficient disincentive for men who have a greater voice in major purchasing decisions.⁷⁶ Households that purchase fuel tend to rely on biomass fuel collection in parallel.

Even when potential users are aware of the health benefits of using improved stoves, their willingness to adopt them is often low due to inappropriate design, lack of trust in performance and durability, and concerns about the accessibility of fuel supply and getting support after purchase.⁷⁷ When new cookstoves have been adopted and used, there are reports of continued use of the traditional stoves for staple foods (because the taste of cooked food is perceived to change with improved stoves). This form of device ‘stacking’ makes it harder to see positive health or environmental outcomes. There are, however, innovative examples where NGOs have been able to involve women in the design of cookstoves, thereby enhancing their quality and uptake, as in the case of Nexleaf’s work in India.⁷⁸

As a recent World Bank report on sub-Saharan Africa concluded, “without public-sector leadership and significant subsidies”, high-quality biomass cookstove technologies and clean fuels will most likely “remain inaccessible to most rural African consumers ... for many years to come”.⁷⁹ Public sector investment in renewable energy is therefore key, as demonstrated by the case of India’s “solar mission” inaugurated in 2010, which seeks to produce and diffuse solar energy throughout the country. Solar energy is especially suited for remote rural areas without an electricity grid but where sunshine is plentiful and may be the optimal source of power for clean cooking.⁸⁰

Overall, the sizeable benefits associated with the basic provision of infrastructure makes it a prime candidate for public sector leadership and investment. Decades of policy experimentation around the world has shown that private finance will not be able to address the infrastructural needs of the large segments of underserved population that live in poor and remote rural areas or in poor urban communities and refugee camps. At the same time, by involving service users in planning and management and by establishing mechanisms for monitoring (Target 6.b), the capacity of the state, responsiveness to citizens and legitimacy can be built even in contexts where such capacity has been eroded through protracted crises and conflict.

EXPANDING QUALITY EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION AND CARE SERVICES

Investments in accessible, affordable and quality early childhood education and care (ECEC) can contribute to the achievement of several gender- and child-related goals and targets of the 2030 Agenda by:

- Reducing the time women spend on unpaid care by shifting some of it out of the family (Target 5.4)
- Enabling women to increase their access to employment⁸¹ (Target 8.5)

- Creating decent jobs (Target 8.3) with adequate wages, working conditions and training opportunities in the social services sector⁸²
- Improving children’s health and nutritional outcomes (Targets 2.2 and 3.2)
- Enhancing school readiness (Target 4.2), particularly among those from disadvantaged backgrounds,⁸³ thereby contributing to equal opportunity and reducing inequalities of outcome (Target 10.3).

To realize their potential, ECEC services need to be properly financed, regulated and delivered in ways that enable access by children from disadvantaged families, ensure the quality of services for all, respond to the needs of parents working in both the formal and informal economy and provide decent working conditions for paid childcare staff and early educators. Yet, the availability of services that live up to these standards is scarce.

In developing countries, in particular, ECEC coverage is often low and highly unequal. Data on pre-primary education—which in most countries starts at the age of 3—illustrate this point. While 87 per cent of children in developed countries were enrolled in pre-primary education in 2014, only 39 per cent were in developing countries.⁸⁴ Inequalities based on household income are also stark. Across a range of developing countries, children aged 3 to 5 in the richest households are almost six times more likely to attend an early childhood education programme than children from the same age group in the poorest households (see Figure 6.5).⁸⁵

Even in developed countries, where overall coverage is generally high, children under 3 from lower-income households are systematically less likely to have access to ECEC services than children of a comparable age from higher-income households. In France and Ireland, for example, participation rates of children 0 to 2 years old from low-income families are at 19 and 11 per cent, respectively, which is less than one quarter of the children from high-income families (81 and 55 per cent).⁸⁶ Depending on context, other markers of disadvantage can also come into play,

including ethnicity and migrant status. In countries such as Australia and New Zealand, indigenous families are less likely than non-indigenous ones to access ECEC services, while immigrant children lag behind non-immigrant children in Germany and Norway.⁸⁷ Children from disadvantaged groups are also more likely to be cared for in settings that are of lower quality.

How can these shortcomings be addressed? What can be done to boost overall coverage, enhance accessibility and affordability, reach the most disadvantaged and ensure quality care for all? Some countries—both developed and developing—are doing better than others on these fronts, providing useful lessons.⁸⁸

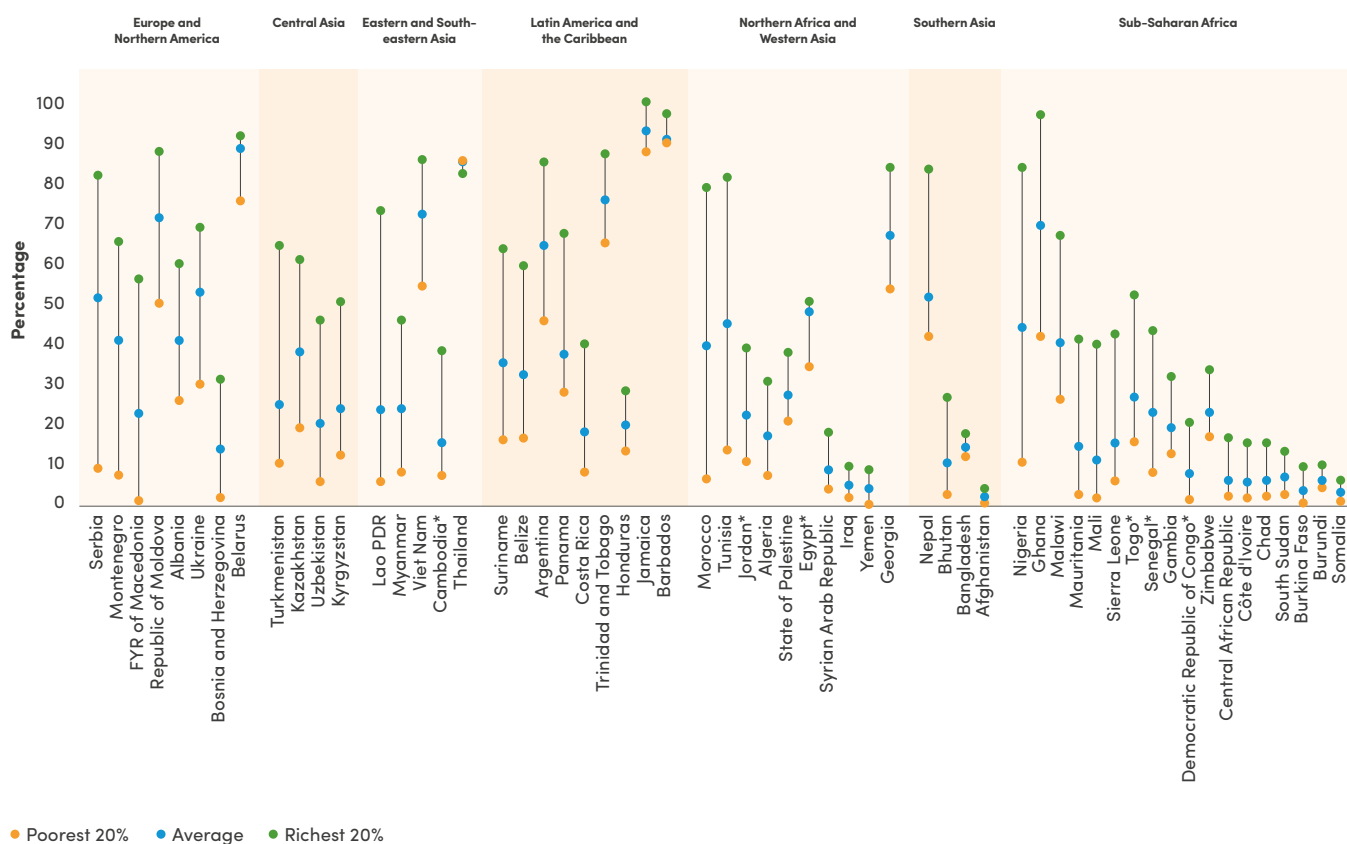
The case for public investment

Adequate public investment is paramount for universal access to early childhood education and care. High childcare fees have been shown to have negative consequences for both women and children. In Ireland, where families bear more than one half of the cost of childcare, there are considerable financial incentives for one parent—usually the mother—to leave the labour force, particularly after the birth of a second child.⁸⁹ In countries such as Ethiopia, Sierra Leone and many of the Arab States, where ECEC provision is left entirely to the private sector, coverage tends to be low and skewed towards better-off urban families, thus excluding children who stand to gain most from access to quality services.⁹⁰ Even where available public services are considered free in a formal sense, they can still be unaffordable for disadvantaged groups. In Ghana, a government freeze on public sector employment since 2015 has meant that public preschools have transferred some of the staff costs onto parents, forcing low-income parents to ‘ration’ children’s attendance in order to send them at all.⁹¹

Providing universal high-quality ECEC is expensive but should be viewed as a productive investment. ECEC’s immediate costs may well be exceeded by the significant medium- and longer-term benefits of increasing women’s labour supply, flexibility and productivity, increasing employment generation in

FIGURE 6.5

PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN AGED 3 TO 5 ATTENDING AN EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION PROGRAMME, SELECTED COUNTRIES, 2005-2014



Source: UNICEF global databases, 2016, based on DHS, MICS, other nationally representative surveys and censuses.

Note: Data correspond to the latest available year for each country (2005-2014).

* Data differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of a country.

the care sector and enhancing child development and school readiness.⁹² In low-income countries, estimates suggest that expanding pre-primary enrolment to 50 per cent would produce benefits of US\$15-34 billion, exceeding its cost by 8 to 18 times, depending on assumptions.⁹³ The section Creating fiscal space (p. 245) provides estimates of the fiscal and employment effects of public investment in the ECEC sector for two developing countries (South Africa and Uruguay).

Ensuring affordability

Evidence from developed countries suggests that free, broad-based services are more effective for boosting coverage and reaching disadvantaged groups than narrowly targeted programmes, even if the latter may be cheaper for governments. In the United States, for example, the Head Start programme, which only serves children below the poverty line, reaches less than 20 per cent of children

from the bottom two income quintiles.⁹⁴ In France and the United Kingdom, by contrast, the roll-out of free preschool programmes to all children over the age of 3 has resulted in near-universal to universal coverage.⁹⁵ Outreach to disadvantaged groups such as migrant and indigenous families may still be necessary—as the experiences of Australia,

Germany, New Zealand and Norway suggest—but should be seen as complementary to, rather than a substitute for, broad-based services available to all. This kind of ‘targeting within universalism’ is also relevant for many developing countries that have large numbers of migrant and transient populations (see Box 6.5).

BOX 6.5

REACHING THE CHILDREN OF DISADVANTAGED MIGRANT FAMILIES IN INDIA: MOBILE CRÈCHES

In its nearly 50-year life span, Mobile Crèches, a non-governmental and not-for-profit initiative, has come a long way, from providing childcare services to disadvantaged children of migrant communities at construction sites to being a pioneer in the field of high-quality early childhood education and care.⁹⁶ It is not easy to reach the vulnerable and transient rural migrant population at construction sites or the more settled migrant communities in slums. The window of opportunity to intervene is extremely short, as more than 60 per cent of children at construction sites move out of the area within three months and 85 per cent do so within six months; children come from diverse linguistic and religious backgrounds; many of the mothers work in vulnerable occupations such as rag-picking and domestic work with irregular hours; and many face the threat of eviction. By using a range of community mobilization techniques—including direct engagement with parents, focus group discussions, street plays, folk media and health camps—and providing services that are flexible in terms of location and timing, Mobile Crèches creates a common understanding of hygiene, feeding, childcare and schooling and builds trust to persuade parents to use the crèche facilities.

However, the scale of Mobile Crèches’ operations is its biggest limitation. Recognizing that it can only be a drop in the ocean, the organization has broadened its focus beyond the direct delivery of childcare services. With its long history of both providing and advocating for childcare, it seeks to inform government policy by developing systems for childcare provision, particularly in terms of what constitutes quality childcare. It assists in the training of childcare workers at government Anganwadi centres that provide childcare and nutrition services, and it engages in advocacy with both the government and employers so that the burden of childcare provision can shift to those who must bear responsibility for it and who are better able to provide affordable childcare services to scale.

Some developing countries have made remarkable progress in increasing ECEC services over the past decade and making access to them more equal. Public childcare services in Chile have been significantly expanded since 2006. Access is provided free of charge for children from households within the bottom 60 per cent of the population in terms of income. As a result coverage among children 5 years old and younger went up from 37 per cent in 2006 to 49 per cent in 2015 while the gap between children from the bottom and top income quintiles declined from 15 to 9 percentage points.⁹⁷ Ecuador expanded and strengthened free community-based ECEC services, achieving an increase in coverage among children 5 years and younger from less than 3 per cent in 2000 to over 22 per cent in 2015.⁹⁸

Adjusting services to the needs of working parents

Greater efforts are needed to adjust service delivery to the needs of working parents. In many countries, there is a split between pre-primary education, which pursues early learning objectives in a school-type environment from age 3 onwards (depending on country), and ECEC services for children of working parents, which are usually provided at an earlier age.⁹⁹ The latter, where available, are more likely to provide full-day and extended arrangements. In contrast, pre-primary education tends to operate on part-time schedules with long holidays, which creates problems for working parents and constrains women's employment options.

The need for childcare services that promote children's development while accommodating parents' long and irregular working hours emerged strongly from multi-country research with women in informal employment in Brazil, Ghana, India, South Africa and Thailand.¹⁰⁰ An integrated approach that is sensitive to the developmental needs of children while also responding to the requirements of families can be achieved through governments building on and improving existing services. In India, for example, some states such as Tamil Nadu have successfully used the infrastructure of the Integrated Child Development

Scheme (ICDS)—a massive national programme implemented since 1974 to improve child health and nutrition—to provide universal preschool and day-care services as an entitlement of children under 6.¹⁰¹

What role for the private sector?

In most countries, ECEC services are provided by a mix of public and non-profit or for-profit private institutions. In Norway, for example, for-profit providers play an important and largely positive role in ECEC service provision, but they do so under tight regulations for compliance to quality standards and the level of fees they can charge parents.¹⁰² In many other countries, such regulations are non-existent or weakly enforced, compromising quality and access for disadvantaged groups. For-profit providers may be reluctant to invest in poorer regions or neighbourhoods. For example, evidence from Ghana's preschool education system shows that while the private sector plays an important role in urban areas (where the capacity to pay is presumably higher), it is largely absent from rural areas.¹⁰³ In urban areas, private providers cater to different groups with services of variable quality and cost, ranging from private preschools targeted at families in high-income neighbourhoods to small backyard day-care centres in urban slums. There is little or no state regulation to ensure equitable access or minimum quality standards. This situation is likely to exacerbate rather than reduce inequalities between children from already unequal backgrounds.

SCALING UP RELIABLE LONG-TERM CARE SOLUTIONS FOR AGEING POPULATIONS

Adequate and dignified care provision for care-dependent older persons, also known as long-term care (LTC),¹⁰⁴ is becoming an urgent policy issue in all countries, both developed and developing. As in the case of ECEC services, investments in affordable, accessible and quality LTC systems can contribute to gender-equitable sustainable development by:

- Enabling the well-being and autonomy of older persons, among whom women are overrepresented (Target 3.4)
- Providing respite for unpaid caregivers, also predominantly women, by shifting some of the responsibility to care workers (Target 5.4)
- Giving unpaid caregivers the capacity to maintain their connection to the labour market (Target 8.5)
- Creating decent jobs (Target 8.3) in the social care sector by promoting adequate wages, working conditions and training opportunities for a predominantly female workforce that is often also disadvantaged in terms of ethnic, racial and migration status.¹⁰⁵

'Care dependency' arises when a person's functional ability has fallen to where they can no

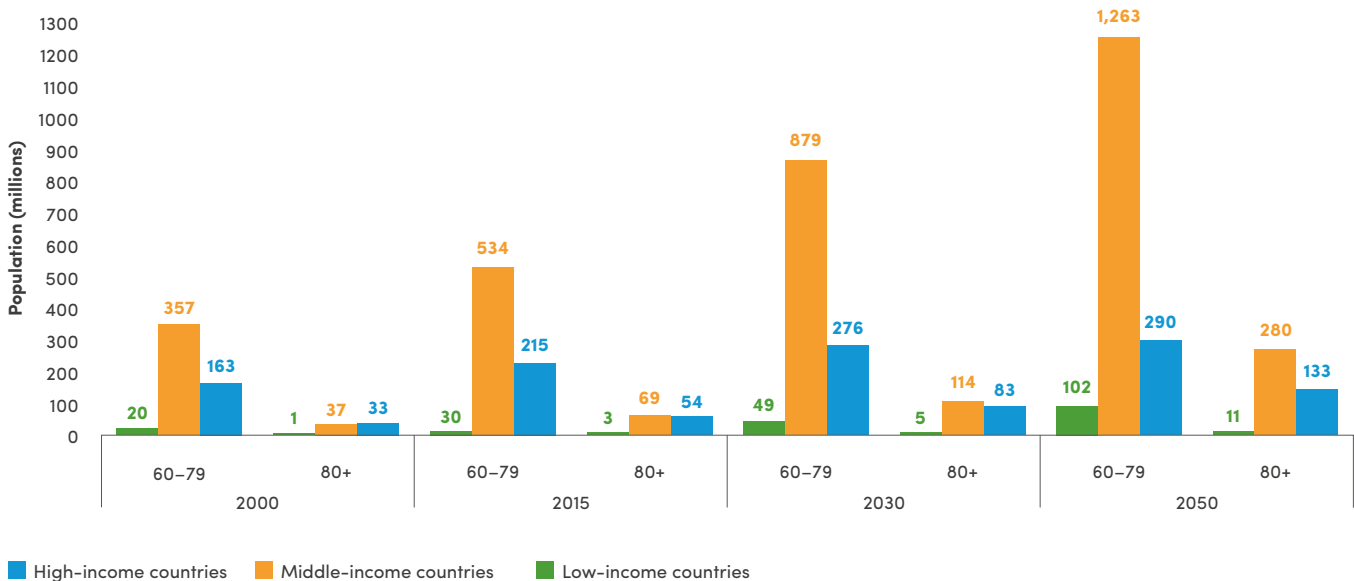
HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...whether population ageing and long-term care are on the policy agenda of your country?

longer undertake basic tasks of daily living, such as eating, bathing and using the toilet, without the assistance of others.¹⁰⁶ As seen in Figure 6.6, the number of people in the 60–79 and over 80 age brackets is already higher in low- and middle-income countries compared to high-income ones, and is set to become significantly more so over the next decades. Because functional ability declines with age, an ageing population will dramatically

FIGURE 6.6

POPULATION AGED 60–79 YEARS AND AGED 80 YEARS OR OVER BY INCOME GROUP, 2000–2050



Source: UN, UN DESA, Population Division 2017.

Note: For the purposes of this analysis, the classification of countries by income group is used instead of the geographic classification standard, see Annex 4.

DO YOU KNOW...

...if older persons who are frail can access non-familial care services?

increase the proportion and number of people needing long-term care—even though there is great diversity in health and functional ability among older people of similar age.¹⁰⁷

A lack of investment in LTC is likely to magnify existing inequalities. The diversity seen in older age, in terms of functional ability and the need for care, is not random.¹⁰⁸ People with the greatest care needs tend to be the ones with the fewest resources to address them: There is higher care dependence among those

with the lowest socio-economic status compared to those with higher status, and more care dependence among women than men of the same age.¹⁰⁹ A big part of these differences in functional ability, and consequent care dependence, is likely to be the result of the cumulative impact of health and social inequalities across the life course.¹¹⁰ Women account for the vast majority of people in need of LTC partly because women on average live longer than men. Also, some studies report a positive association between the female gender and disability, even after controlling for age and lifetime medical history.¹¹¹

Raising awareness about long-term care

Despite rapid population ageing, governments have been slow to acknowledge the importance of long-term care. Especially in middle- and lower-income

TABLE 6.1

CARE ARRANGEMENTS FOR OLDER PEOPLE IN CHINA, MEXICO, NIGERIA AND PERU

	Peru		Mexico		China		Nigeria
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Total
Caregiving context for dependent older people (sample size)	135	26	114	82	183	54	228
Principal caregiver characteristics							
Spouse	18.5%	26.9%	16.7%	15.9%	38.8%	38.9%	13.7%
Child or child-in-law	40%	50%	73.7%	65.8%	43.2%	59.3%	68%
Non-relative	25.2%	3.8%	3.6%	0.0%	16.4%	1.9%	1.4%
Female	85.9%	88.5%	83.3%	81.7%	67.2%	50%	63.2%
Care arrangements							
Principal caregiver has cut back on work to care	16.3%	23.1%	25.4%	36.6%	3.8%	48.1%	39.2%
Additional informal caregiver(s)	45.9%	57.7%	55.3%	58.5%	7.1%	22.2%	66.5%
Paid caregiver	33.3%	7.7%	3.5%	1.2%	45.4%	1.9%	2.1%

Source: Mayston et al. 2014: 379.

countries, much of the public debate on ageing has focused on the provision of income security for the elderly, a clearly important issue but not sufficient for addressing LTC needs. The low priority accorded to LTC is in part because policymakers may not be aware of the speed at which population ageing is taking place and the pressure this is exerting on unpaid caregivers, predominantly female spouses, daughters and daughters-in-law, as shown in Table 6.1.¹¹² In addition, there is a pervasive view that families are best placed to care for the older generation. In fact, many countries have put in place legal obligations for family members to provide LTC services to their relatives.¹¹³

Yet models of exclusive family care are clearly unsustainable. Domestic and transnational migration means generations are more likely to be spatially separated from each other, and adult children may not be able to care for their frail, elderly parents even if they want to. At the same time, women's increasing attachment to the labour force and the concomitant reliance of families on their earnings make it difficult for them to provide full-time care for ageing spouses or parents while also holding on to their jobs. It is not surprising, therefore, that significant numbers have to cut back on their paid work and/or rely on additional informal and paid caregivers.

Social norms and expectations are also changing. On the one hand, the frail elderly themselves sometimes express a preference for greater autonomy and not wanting to be a burden on their children. A recent China General Social Survey

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

..if the costs to unpaid family caregivers are taken into account in policy discussions regarding the costs of long-term care?

found that only 26.8 per cent of respondents expressed an interest in living with their children in their old age.¹¹⁴ On the other hand, it is increasingly recognized that unpaid family caregivers cannot be left on their own to do all the work, even in countries where intergenerational family relations are strong. East Asian countries such as Japan and the Republic of Korea, known for their strong Confucian values of filial piety, are a case in point. There, policy support for long-term care grew out of a recognition of the burden—termed ‘care hell’ (kaigo jigoku) by the Japanese media—that care for frail older persons was placing on unpaid family carers. Along with concerns about the costs to health services, due to unnecessary hospitalization in the absence of other support mechanisms,¹¹⁵ this led to the adoption of a long-term care insurance policy in 2000. This is a mandatory social insurance programme subsidized by the government that finances a range of LTC services.¹¹⁶ The Republic of Korea created a similar policy in 2008.

Distributing the costs of long-term care more equitably

Policy debates about long-term care in developed countries are often framed in terms of the growing costs of LTC service provision on taxpayers and the need to minimize its fiscal impact.¹¹⁷ This narrow framing raises questions about the kind of costs that are counted and who pays. Long-term care always has a cost: in fiscal terms (for governments and taxpayers), in ‘out of pocket’ expenses (for those needing care and their family members), in time and opportunity costs (for those who provide unpaid care) or in losses to well-being (for those needing care when adequate care is not provided).¹¹⁸ Policy inaction may save government budgets some money, but the costs accrue elsewhere.

Globally the most prevalent way of financing LTC is through out-of-pocket payment—that is, a direct private payment to LTC providers without any risk pooling or prepayment—which is only affordable for the more affluent.¹¹⁹ Also significant are the high opportunity costs that family members face (i.e., of

reduced time for paid work, rest and leisure and of emotionally demanding care management), which are excluded from official statistics.¹²⁰ As such, the critical policy question is how to distribute the costs of long-term care fairly between families and public institutions, between women and men and between generations.

Building integrated LTC systems

The functional capacities of care-dependent older persons are neither uniform nor static. They are best conceived as a continuum.¹²¹ Not all frail elderly persons need intensive institutional care. Various policy options exist (see Table 6.2), but these are often implemented in a fragmented and disjointed manner, focusing on one end of the continuum or the other.¹²² Integrated and gender-responsive LTC systems should pursue a number of key objectives, including promoting the well-being,

dignity and rights of care-dependent older people; the reduction and redistribution of the heavy responsibilities placed on unpaid family carers; improving the accessibility, affordability and quality of LTC services (whether public, private-for-profit or not-for-profit); and respecting the rights of paid LTC workers.

Supporting unpaid family caregivers

Families are clearly at the forefront of LTC provision, with much of the work falling on the shoulders of women and girls. While unpaid caregivers may find aspects of their work rewarding, growing evidence points to high levels of psychological, physical and socio-economic stress, especially in cases such as dementia where the dependent person has complex needs.¹²³ Research from Mexico and Peru shows that in some cases care tasks are delegated to less powerful family members, such as daughters-in-law and younger grandchildren, who usually do not have specific knowledge or training about meeting the care needs of older people.¹²⁴

Another key question is how to support unpaid family carers who may want to be engaged in care for their loved ones and to give them the respite they need. Information about older people's health conditions and basic training in caring skills have been shown to create a positive impact on unpaid caregivers across a range of developed countries.¹²⁵ Governments in developed countries have also offered payments to unpaid caregivers to support and compensate them, at least partially, for potential lost earnings.¹²⁶ Respite care is another, more hands-on form of support that allows unpaid caregivers to take a break from their tasks while someone else provides care to the person for whom they are responsible. This type of care mostly occurs in older people's homes, but it can also be provided at adult day centres or residential facilities. Overall, however, most existing interventions to support family caregivers are small-scale and receive limited resources. Such interventions should be rapidly scaled-up and viewed as a central component of a reconfigured care system.¹²⁷

TABLE 6.2

LONG-TERM CARE OPTIONS FOR OLDER PEOPLE

Intensive residential institutional care
Long-term hospitalization
Nursing homes
Less-intensive residential institutional care
Residential homes
Short stay or respite care
Sheltered housing
Non-residential institutional services
Day centres
Nurse and professional carer visits
Support for family care
Home help
Cash benefits for carers
Support groups for carers

Source: Based on Lloyd-Sherlock 2017.

Providing alternatives to unpaid family care

In some cases, care services are needed to effectively replace the role of unpaid family carers—for example, when adult children live away from the family or are unable to assume direct care responsibility. In the absence of such support, care needs may go unattended, or health and medical services may become, by default, long-term care providers through unnecessary hospitalization. Yet, information about formal LTC services—ranging from more and less intensive institutional care to short-term services, such as adult day-care—is scarce, particularly in developing countries. Typically, governments run a very small number of residential care homes, often targeting the very poor but excluding those with challenging conditions such as dementia. In the Indian state of Uttar Pradesh, for example, with 8 million people aged 60 years or over, the government’s LTC programme consists of two single-sex residential homes, with a combined capacity of no more than 100 people.¹²⁸

Regulating private long-term care provision

In developing countries, the main response to unmet LTC needs has been the rapid, though highly uneven, emergence of a plethora of private for-profit and not-for-profit providers catering to different social groups. These range from more formal registered homes aimed at higher-income groups to more informal unregistered care homes catering to poorer social groups and charging lower rates. In general, these new sectors are weakly regulated, if at all. This raises concerns about the quality of care and the potential exposure of older people to abuse.¹²⁹ Many other homes are run by NGOs or religious establishments, albeit with public subsidies.

Long-term care is increasingly being marketized in developed countries as well, by design rather than default. The introduction of economic competition into an area previously governed by the public sector is seen in many of these countries as an expedient

and cheaper way of providing long-term care and as a means of increasing individual choice for those who need it. However, cheaper care means someone is bearing the costs. In all countries, almost all long-term care is provided by women, and there is a sharp increase in the proportion of foreign-born LTC workers who make up anywhere between 20 per cent (in Sweden) to 70 per cent (in Italy) of the LTC workforce.¹³⁰ Care worker pay and conditions of work are very often below average standards, and particularly so in the case of migrant and overseas workers.¹³¹

There is therefore an urgent need to create and develop regulatory frameworks and standards for private LTC provision in order to raise quality standards, protect those in care, hold providers to account and empower service users and their predominantly women employees. Governments have a responsibility for ensuring that the LTC system works, even if they do not provide or fund all services.

PROVIDING TIME AND INCOME SECURITY THROUGH PAID FAMILY LEAVES

Leave policies are important for women’s rights and gender equality while contributing to multiple goals of the 2030 Agenda by:

- Protecting women’s health and well-being before and after childbirth (Target 3.1)
- Enhancing child health and well-being (Target 3.2)
- Providing income security to caregivers (Target 1.3) while recognizing and valuing the work that they do (Target 5.4)
- Maintaining or strengthening women’s attachment to the labour market rather than risking unemployment or inactivity (Target 8.5).

Paid family leave enables workers to take time off work to care for dependents without jeopardizing their job and income security. Maternity leave allows

DO YOU KNOW...

...what proportion of working women has access to paid maternity leave in your country?

mothers to recover from childbirth and provide care to young infants during the first weeks of their lives, while paternity leave enables fathers to support their partners in the weeks following the birth. Parental leave can be taken by mothers or fathers to care for small children in the period after maternity leave expires. In addition to maternity, paternity and parental leaves, some countries enable workers to take time off for other family contingencies, such as caring for a sick parent or spouse.

Evidence from selected developed countries suggests that leave policies can also be used to foster gender equality by incentivizing men to take more parental leave. In contexts where maternity leave benefits are available to most women, many developed countries have introduced parental leave as well as measures to proactively involve fathers. While mothers still take the large majority of parental leave in most of these countries, fathers' uptake has increased, particularly where specific incentives such as 'bonus months' or 'daddy quotas' are in place that reserve a non-transferable portion of the leave for fathers on a 'use-or-lose' basis.¹³² In Norway, for example, which pioneered the introduction of 'daddy quotas' in 1993, fathers have increased their uptake with every expansion of the portion reserved for them. In 2012, after the quotas were raised from 10 to 12 weeks, 21 per cent of fathers took the full amount compared to 0.6 per cent in 2011.¹³³

In most developing countries, however, even maternity leave is often unavailable except for a small group of formal sector employees. Globally, only 28 per cent of working women are effectively covered by cash benefits in the event of maternity.¹³⁴

In Africa and South Asia, less than 10 per cent of women workers are effectively protected with maternity leave cash benefits.¹³⁵ Widespread labour market informality is at the root of this exclusion.

In the absence of basic income security, women in the informal economy often keep working far too long into their pregnancy or start working too soon after childbirth.¹³⁶ Combined with the hazardous and physically straining working conditions of many jobs in the informal economy (e.g., street vending and domestic service), continuous work exposes them and their children to significant health risks. In line with ILO Recommendation No. 202 on Social Protection Floors, guaranteeing basic income security to these workers in the event of maternity should hence be a priority. Options for doing so exist, as outlined below.

Extending social insurance

Extending existing social insurance schemes to informal workers is one way to enable more women to access maternity benefits. Social insurance schemes usually only cover formal sector workers who contribute financially—along with contributions from their employer—to a common pool; different entitlements, such as maternity, health and old-age benefits are then financed through this mechanism. Countries such as Chile, Costa Rica and South Africa have effectively extended these schemes to informal wage workers (who have a defined employer), such as domestic and seasonal agricultural labourers.¹³⁷ Progress has been more limited for women in informal self-employment who do not have a defined employer or a regular salary and who generally have a weak capacity to make contributions. In the absence of significant state subsidies to substitute for employers' contributions, giving workers the option of voluntarily contributing to social insurance has not borne much success.

For example, in the Lao People's Democratic Republic, voluntary coverage was introduced in 2014 for a range of social security benefits, including a maternity cash benefit at 80 per cent of the reference wage for the duration of 105 days (for

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

...how your country ensures that vulnerable workers are covered by maternity benefits and leave policies that enable them to care for dependents?

single births) and 120 days (for multiple births). However, by 2015 it had enrolled only about 1,600 members from a national population of almost 2.5 million informal workers.¹³⁸ In Namibia, where self-employed workers can voluntarily enrol to gain access to maternity leave, sick leave and death benefits, 43 per cent of women workers continue to be excluded.¹³⁹ This shows that while voluntary affiliation may be an option for self-employed workers with some contributory capacity, the successful extension of leave and benefits to women in more precarious types of informal self-employment will require governments to fully or partially subsidize their contributions or combine contributory and non-contributory benefits.

Non-contributory maternity benefits

Introducing non-contributory maternity benefits—through cash transfers, for example—is another way that countries have chosen to support pregnant women or mothers of young children who have no access to formal (contributory) social security. According to the ILO, the cost of a universal maternity benefit paid for four months at 100 per cent of the national poverty line would not exceed 0.5 per cent of GDP in most low- and lower-middle-income

countries.¹⁴⁰ While most existing non-contributory schemes are limited in coverage and the level of income security provided, they could form the basis for working towards universal entitlement. In India, for example, the Indira Gandhi Matritva Sahyog Yojana programme was launched in 52 pilot districts in 2010, covering approximately 1.38 million pregnant women and lactating mothers. It compensated them for the loss of wages by a transfer worth 40 days of lost work under minimum wage conditions.¹⁴¹ The transfer was, however, restricted to women over the age of 19 and only covered the first two births. It was also conditional on women fulfilling certain maternal and child health requirements, including antenatal check-ups, immunizations for the child, counselling sessions and exclusive breastfeeding for six months.¹⁴² The expansion of the scheme has been slow and uneven, and there are concerns that, in the absence of universally available quality health services for pregnant and lactating women, the scheme's current conditions and restrictions will exclude the most marginalized women.¹⁴³

To achieve universal coverage of maternity benefits for all women workers, in line with the minimum standards laid out in ILO Convention No. 183 concerning maternity protection—that is, collectively financed benefits for at least 14 weeks at two thirds of the previous earnings—a combination of contributory and non-contributory mechanisms will be necessary.¹⁴⁴

HAVE YOU CHECKED...

... if your country provides shared parental or paternity leave along with incentives for take-up by fathers?

CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined a multipronged policy agenda to enable and transform care arrangements to achieve gender equality and realize the rights of both caregivers (unpaid and paid) and care receivers.

Policies to address care reflect strong synergies across the 2030 Agenda. From ensuring the availability of piped water and clean cookstoves to expanding the coverage of early childhood education and care and long-term care, the positive effects of care policies on gender equality, improved health and well-being, decent employment and environmental sustainability are palpable and extensive.

As this chapter has shown, there is a wealth of evidence to guide public action: tried-and-tested policy pathways that have overcome structural barriers, achieved universal scope including of groups that are hardest to reach, and been sustained over time, as well as sobering lessons of the tremendous costs of policy inaction.

It is possible and desirable to enact policies to reduce the drudgery of unpaid care and domestic work, to redistribute unpaid care and domestic work more equally within families and society, and to recognize the value of unpaid care and domestic work and thus provide the time and resources needed for both women and men to care for family members.

While ‘good practices’ can inform and guide, one size certainly does not fit all, and finding the right fit is not just a technical exercise. Deciding on a multipronged and yet integrated care strategy above all entails political choices that each country has to make through inclusive multi-stakeholder policy dialogues.

These national care conversations must be informed by evidence—drawing on time-use studies and other survey data as well as qualitative research—and make judicious use of simulations to estimate the fiscal costs and socio-economic and environmental impacts of different policy options.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1/

Produce realistic assessments of the costs and benefits of different care arrangements

Governments, researchers, civil society organizations and the UN System should work together to improve cost-benefit analyses of prevailing care arrangements with due consideration of 'invisible' social costs, including the costs faced by unpaid caregivers and care-dependent persons in the form of time and well-being.

2/

Conduct costing exercises of specific investments in the care sector

Governments, researchers, civil society and the UN System can contribute to creating a better sense of the costs of and returns on investments in infrastructure and services when simulations consider not only their net cost to the public purse but also their employment and fiscal impact (see *Creating Fiscal Space*, p. 245).

3/

Hold broad-based care dialogues at national and local levels

Given each country's specificities, governments should involve a wide range of stakeholders—policymakers, civil society, employers and care service providers—to assess care needs and deficits and formulate context-specific policy solutions.

4/

Strengthen the voice, agency and participation of caregivers and those who rely on them

Groups that represent the interests of caregivers, both paid and unpaid, and care-dependent persons must have a seat at the table when policies and programmes to address their needs are discussed and designed.

5/

Ensure the availability of timely and robust data on time use and services

Governments, donors and UN agencies should work together to ensure that such data are available and used to inform policy choices in critical areas—such as infrastructure, childcare, care for older persons and social protection—and monitor their implementation.

6/

Bring policies and programmes in line with the guiding principles of the 2030 Agenda

Governments, donors and the private sector must ensure that investments in physical infrastructure, care services and leave provisions are gender-responsive and in line with human rights standards. This includes meeting the criteria of accessibility, affordability and quality to ensure that no woman or girl is left behind. It also includes engaging potential service users in the design, delivery and use of services and putting in place mechanisms for complaints, course correction and redress.

CREATING FISCAL SPACE FOR GENDER EQUALITY INVESTMENTS

As we saw in the preceding chapters, essential services on which millions of women and girls depend—water and sanitation, early childhood education and care, and shelters, legal services, specialist counselling and health services for survivors of gender-based violence—are chronically underfunded or simply unavailable in many countries. As national SDG implementation strategies are rolled out, it is paramount that investments in these and other strategic areas are prioritized and that sufficient resources are raised and allocated to turn the promises of the 2030 Agenda into a lived reality for women and girls.

How can this be achieved? And what will it cost? Preliminary estimates based on eight aggregate sectors suggest that meeting the commitments of the 2030 Agenda will require significant investment of from US\$2 to \$3 trillion per year.¹ However, national planning for gender equality and sustainable development will require more detailed cost estimates for specific sectors, policies and programmes that are considered fundamental for achieving the SDGs for women and girls. More importantly, gender equality advocates will be repeatedly asked whether the changes they demand are affordable.

This short section explores how these questions might be answered. The first part looks at what it would cost to deliver quality early childhood education and

care (ECEC) services for all—an area that Chapter 6 established as strategic for advancing gender equality and sustainable development more broadly—drawing on data for two selected countries. Building on previous cost estimations for social protection floors carried out by the International Labour Organization (ILO), this exercise provides a methodology that can be replicated and applied by other countries. The second and third parts then discuss how governments can raise resources for these and other investments and how they can ensure that the resources are allocated in ways that benefit women and girls. They show that fiscal space exists and can be expanded in all countries, including the poorest, and highlight strategies for making budgets more gender-responsive.

WHAT WILL IT COST?

Determining what it will cost to deliver specific goods and services at scale, ensure adequate quality standards and effectively reach the most marginalized women and girls is vital for effective policymaking. Contrary to arguments that developing countries cannot afford to put in place basic social protection for all, for example, the ILO has shown that the progressive expansion of pensions, child allowances or maternity benefits to all is possible even for low-income countries.² The average cost of a universal

maternity benefit set at 100 per cent of the national poverty line and paid for a period of four months, for example, would not exceed 0.5 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP) in most of the 57 low- and lower middle-income countries with available data.³ The benefits for women's and children's health and survival, however, can be huge (see Chapter 6).

Estimating the costs of expanding early childhood education and care

As the previous chapter has shown, investments in robust ECEC systems also promise important economic and social returns and could contribute to progress across a range of goals and targets. However, cost estimations for childcare service expansion are relatively recent and considerably more complex than those for cash benefits.

Building on previous work carried out by the UK Women's Budget Group and the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC),⁴ UN Women commissioned calculations for two countries from two different regions to determine what it would cost to make ECEC services universally available and of high quality. The calculations for South Africa and Uruguay show that—depending on various parameters and the level of ambition—a gross annual investment of between 2.8 and 3.2 per cent of GDP in ECEC services would be needed to achieve universal coverage for children aged 0–5 years (see ECEC investment scenarios). This would also create enough jobs in the ECEC sector and beyond to raise women's employment rates by anywhere between 3.2 (less ambitious scenario in Uruguay) and 10.1 (more ambitious scenario in South Africa) percentage points. What is also worth highlighting is that between 36 per cent (South Africa) and 52 per cent (Uruguay) of the fiscal cost of ECEC investment can be recuperated through the tax and social security system.⁵

A step-by-step guide

For other countries to be able to replicate this exercise, this section describes the process through which policymakers and researchers can estimate the costs

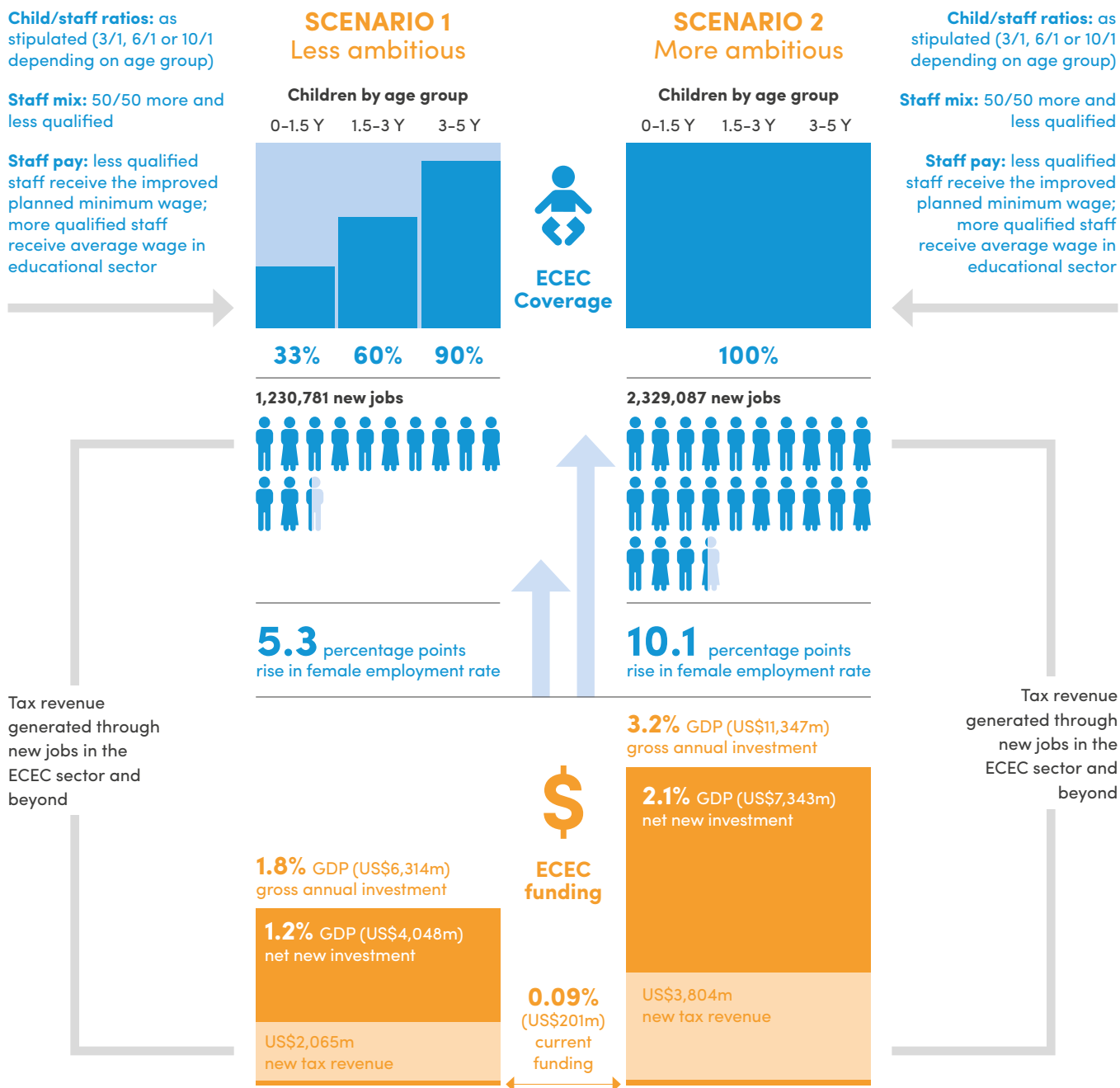
of expanding ECEC services, taking into account the specificities of each country's starting point, prevailing institutional arrangements and level of ambition.⁶

1. Defining the parameters and scenarios

- *What level of coverage do you want to achieve for children of different age groups?* Coverage targets will vary depending on prevailing enrolment rates for different age groups, level of ambition and resources available. In nearly all countries, coverage rates tend to be higher for the older age groups (e.g., 3–5 years) compared to younger groups (e.g., 0–2 years). For countries such as South Africa and Uruguay—where current enrolment rates stand at 19 and 39 per cent for 0–2-year-olds and 64 and 92 per cent for 3–5-year-olds, respectively—a less ambitious scenario could aim for 30 to 60 per cent coverage among the younger age group in South Africa and 33 to 66 per cent in Uruguay, and 90 to 100 per cent among the older age group, while a more ambitious scenario would aim at universal coverage for both age groups. Countries where current enrolment rates are much lower may start with less ambitious targets that can then be gradually raised as service expansion proceeds.
- *What level of qualification do you expect for your ECEC staff?* Staff qualifications have a bearing on the quality of care that is delivered as well as pay levels of staff. In nearly all countries, ECEC staff include both assistant practitioners, who tend to have lower levels of training (usually secondary school), and main teachers with higher credentials (post-secondary and university-level qualifications). In countries where high-quality childcare is widespread, the standard split between less and more qualified staff is roughly 50/50 for the older age group and 70/30 for the younger age group.
- *What kind of pay level do you envision for different types of ECEC workers?* Workers in the ECEC sector, as in other care-related occupations, are often subject to low pay relative to workers with equivalent qualifications and experience

ECEC INVESTMENT SCENARIOS: SOUTH AFRICA

Investing in early childhood education and care (ECEC) services pays off. In South Africa, a gross annual investment of 3.2% of GDP would not only result in universal coverage for all 0–5 year old children, but also create 2.3 million new jobs, raising female employment by 10.1 percentage points (Scenario 2). These new jobs would generate new tax and social security revenue of up to US\$3,804 million. A less ambitious scenario requiring only 1.8% of GDP could serve as a stepping stone towards universal coverage (Scenario 1).

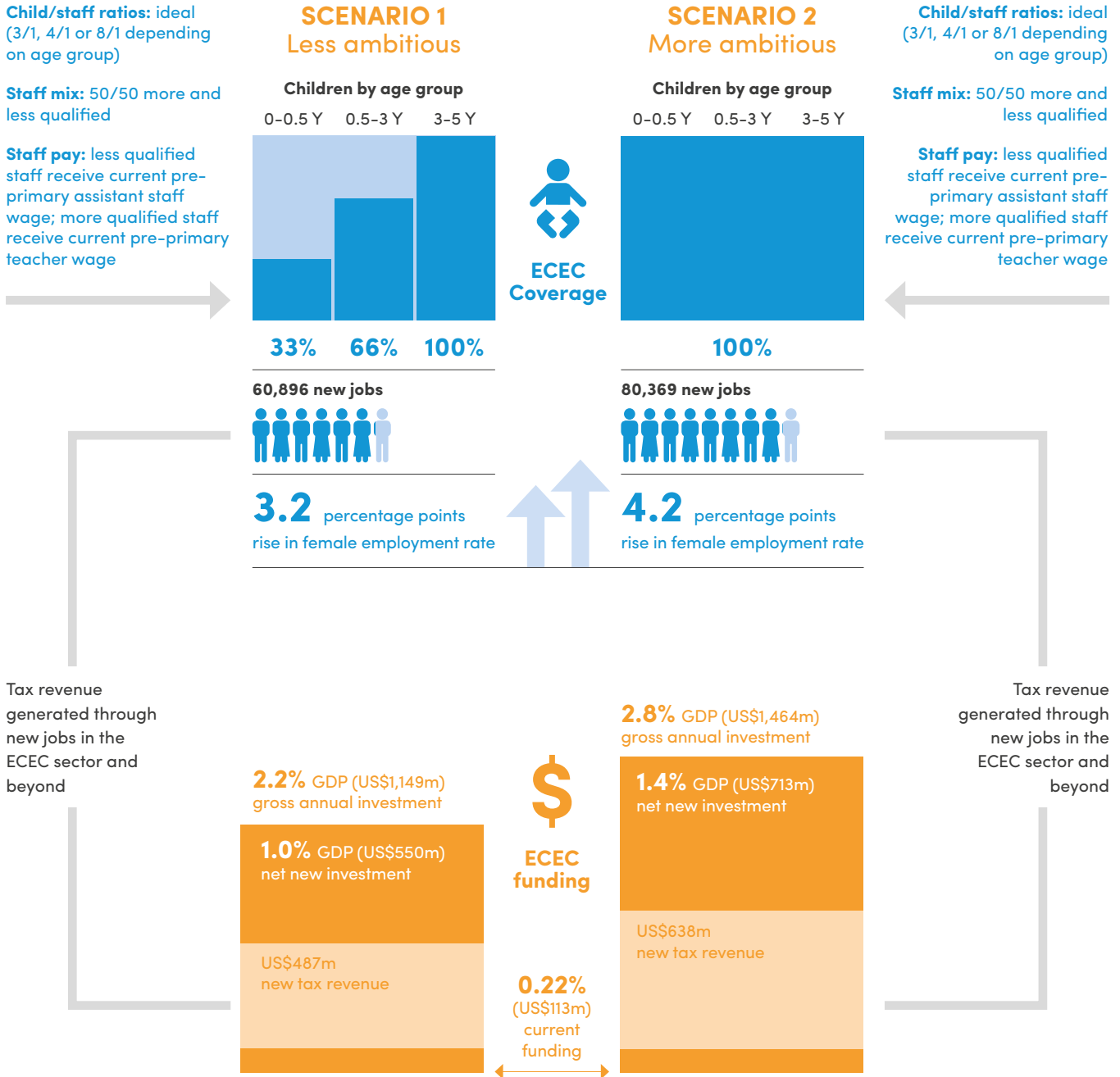


Source: De Henau 2017. The calculations for South Africa were prepared by Debbie Budlender.

Note: All amounts in US\$ are figures for 2017. The exchange rate used was USD 1 = ZAR 13.51. The scale used to visually display the number of jobs created is 1 for 100,000.

ECEC INVESTMENT SCENARIOS: URUGUAY

Investing in early childhood education and care (ECEC) services pays off. In Uruguay, a gross annual investment of 2.8% of GDP would not only result in universal ECEC coverage for all 0-5 year-old children, but also create more than 80,000 new jobs, raising female employment by 4.2 percentage points (Scenario 2). These new jobs would generate new tax and social security revenue of up to US\$638 million. A less ambitious scenario requiring only 2.2% of GDP could serve as a stepping stone towards universal coverage (Scenario 1).



Source: De Henau 2017. The calculations for Uruguay were prepared by Fernando Filgueira and Rafael Mantero.

Note: All amounts in US\$ are figures for 2017. The exchange rate used was USD 1 = UYU 28.71. The scale used to visually display the number of jobs created is 1 for 10,000.

in non-care occupations (the 'care penalty'). For investments in ECEC to provide quality care to children and create decent employment, it is imperative to guard against low pay and poor working conditions. Depending on the country context, wages for assistant practitioners can be set above the national minimum wage or equivalent to at least two thirds of the median wage, for example, and for the main teachers at the level of primary school teachers. Another possibility is to take current pay levels of more and less qualified childcare staff as a starting point. In all cases, however, the pay should be above the national minimum wage.

- *What child/staff ratio do you want to stipulate for different age groups?* Child/staff ratios have a significant impact on both the quality of care that is delivered and the working conditions (and stress levels) of staff. Many countries have stipulated norms and standards (N&S) for child/staff ratios, usually increasing with the age of the child (e.g., 5/1 for the 0–2 age group and 10/1 for the 3–5 age group). The N&S can be applied in both the less ambitious and more ambitious scenarios. If existing ratios are far higher than the N&S then intermediate ratios can be used for the former and the N&S for the latter.
- *What are the average overheads of a typical ECEC centre in your country?* Overheads refer to values of inputs that are not direct wage costs of staff (physical maintenance of building, food and other materials purchased, insurance, and so forth); these vary from country to country and can be fixed at the current level of a typical centre that is in operation.
- *How many hours will the centres be open per week?* It is important that the opening hours of ECEC centres correspond to the working hours of parents, including commuting time. Regulation of working hours (and pay) is thus critical in supporting work/life balance, rather than simply extending the hours of childcare centres. For the sake of simplicity, this simulation sets hours of operation at 40 to 45 hours per week.

2. Gathering the data

The data required for a simulation exercise include:

- Population of children by age group
- Official norms and standards on child/staff ratios or existing child/staff ratios (failing this, decide on adequate ratios using existing standards elsewhere)
- Average pay of less/more qualified staff or equivalent (e.g., primary school teacher)
- Weekly average working hours of childcare staff or equivalent (e.g., primary school teacher)
- Cost of running a facility (or assign an overhead based on existing systems elsewhere)
- Cost of building a facility (and interest rates if borrowed funds)
- Cost of training staff up to adequate childcare qualification
- Cost of employer's social security contributions and other social protection provisions

3. Estimating the employment effects

- *Direct employment:* ECEC jobs created (i.e., number of staff per facility multiplied by the number of facilities); employment effects can be differentiated by sex based on current level of sex segregation in the sector
- *Indirect employment:* jobs created in the supply chain linked to the ECEC sector; requires an input-output table to identify relevant sectors
- *Induced employment:* jobs created throughout the economy as new employees (both direct and indirect) spend their earnings

4. Estimating the fiscal effects

- Tax paid by new childcare staff (including social security contributions of both employees and employers)
- Tax (including social security contribution) paid by employees in other sectors
- Indirect (or expenditure) taxes paid
- Revenue from reduced spending on social security transfers (e.g., benefits that the new employees would no longer receive due to having a job or working more hours)

5. Calculating gross annual investment need, net funding gap and self-funding rate

- The gross annual investment of setting up and running the ECEC centres (a)
- The revenues from taxation (both direct and indirect), social security contributions and reduced spending on social security transfers (item 4 above) (b)
- Deducting item (b) from (a) would yield the net funding gap (c)
- Self-funding rate is the ratio: (b)/(a)

Exercises such as these, which take account of context-specific conditions and possibilities, can provide an important basis for policy design and implementation, including strategies for gradual expansion and inclusion, starting with the most vulnerable. They can also contribute to transparency and accountability by stating clearly what degree of coverage will be reached by when and with what quality standards, level of investments and returns. Cost estimations hence provide a clearer picture of the resources that are needed to achieve a specific policy goal or target. They do not, however, provide answers to the questions of how sufficient resources can be mobilized, an issue that will be discussed in the following section.

HOW CAN RESOURCES FOR GENDER EQUALITY BE MOBILIZED?

The viability of different resource mobilization strategies and instruments varies across countries and contexts.⁷ While higher-income countries may be able to attract significant amounts of private investment, lower-income countries will rely more heavily on official development assistance (ODA), international borrowing or remittances. In the current context of global austerity, the challenges seem almost insurmountable. But the resources available to governments for implementing the 2030 Agenda are not fixed. They are determined by tax policies, international cooperation, decisions over deficit spending and the management of debt, trade, monetary policy and financial regulation.⁸ In virtually

all countries, there is scope for increasing revenue from both domestic and external sources. Some of the possible pathways that can be further explored at the national level are outlined below.⁹

Reallocating public expenditures

Public expenditure reviews and gender-responsive budgeting can put available resources to better use. Budget items with large recurrent costs but small social impacts provide governments with an opportunity for reduction and redeployment. Costa Rica and Thailand, for example, reallocated military expenditure to finance the creation of universal health systems.¹⁰ This also means that even when overall budgets are contracting, there are ways of prioritizing pro-poor and gender-responsive expenditures.

Increasing tax revenues

Raising tax rates—on consumption, corporate profits, personal income, property and inheritance, imports or exports, natural resource extraction, etc.—and strengthening the efficiency of tax collection and compliance are the most common strategies to mobilize domestic resources. New taxes on financial transactions, air travel or tobacco have been introduced by a number of countries to raise fiscal revenue (as well as, in the last case, to change behaviour that is considered a health risk). Taxes on financial transactions, for example, raise a considerable amount of resources in the 40 countries where they are in place.¹¹ Estimates suggest that if such a tax was applied across major global financial centres, it could raise between US\$70 and \$661 billion a year while reducing financial speculation and the risk of financial crises.¹² Closing tax loopholes, increasing collection capacities and broadening the tax base, including by cracking down on corporate tax evasion, are important options. Corporate tax evasion has been estimated to result in annual revenue losses of US\$189 billion for developing countries.¹³

However, not all taxes are progressive. Consumption taxes such as value-added tax (VAT), for example, place a disproportionate financial burden on poorer

households, which tend to spend a larger proportion of their income on basic consumption goods than higher-income households do.¹⁴ Women may also face a disproportionate burden from VAT when they are responsible for purchasing basic household consumer goods. Low-income countries tend to collect a much higher share of revenue from VAT than from personal income taxes, leaving ample room for improving progressivity and/or reducing the negative impact of VAT on women and the poor.¹⁵ To lessen the regressive nature of indirect taxes, some countries exempt or zero-rate the VAT imposed on basic consumption items that are disproportionately consumed by the poor.¹⁶

Expanding social security coverage

Almost all advanced economies have taken advantage of social security contributions to create fiscal space. In the developing world, countries such as Argentina, Brazil, China, Costa Rica, Thailand and Tunisia have increased coverage and collection of social security contributions, often as part of their national development strategies. In some of these countries, this has gone hand in hand with incentives for formalization, creating a virtuous cycle: As the number of formal enterprises increases, so does the collection of taxes and social contributions.¹⁷

Using fiscal and foreign exchange reserves

In many countries, central bank and fiscal reserves as well as state revenues stored in sovereign wealth funds can be freed to fund policies for sustainable development. A number of countries are sitting atop abundant natural resource funds, for example, while social and gender equality indicators remain dismal.¹⁸ In addition, many countries have built up large stocks of foreign exchange reserves in an effort to protect themselves against economic and financial shocks in the face of a persistently volatile global economy or to stabilize their exchange rates in the context of export-led growth strategies. Most of these resources are currently invested in US Treasury bonds, which

are considered safe but provide extremely low yields. There is hence room for central banks in some developing countries to reassess their current risk portfolios. In addition, multilateral efforts are needed to curb the risk of recurrent financial crises through better regulation. This would reduce the need for holding reserves abroad and free up resources for much needed investments at home.

Borrowing or restructuring debt

Domestic and foreign borrowing, including in the form of concessional loans, can be used to fund social investments, particularly those with important future returns, such as education, health and childcare services.¹⁹ For highly indebted countries, a new deal on debt relief will be needed. The establishment of a democratic multilateral framework for the restructuring of sovereign debt has been proposed by the UN General Assembly²⁰ as an alternative to the fragmented, ad hoc and often inequitable approach that currently exists for restructuring debt.²¹

Leveraging aid and transfers

Keeping up aid commitments, as well as increasing and tracking donor allocations for gender equality across all goals and targets, can make important contributions to achieving the SDGs, particularly in low-income and conflict-affected countries that have limited capacity to attract other forms of external finance and to mobilize sufficient resources domestically.²² The gender equality policy marker introduced by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Development Assistance Committee (DAC) constitutes an important tool for tracking the extent to which aid is used in support of gender equality both globally and by individual donor countries (see Chapter 3, SDG 17). South-South transfers through bilateral aid by non-OECD DAC countries, regional integration and regional development banks also present an opportunity for developing countries to finance the implementation of the 2030 Agenda and should be monitored from a gender equality perspective.

Curtailing South–North transfers and eliminating illicit financial flows

As Chapter 3 has shown, financial resources flowing out of developing countries are 2.5 times greater than the amount of aid flowing in. Fighting tax evasion, tax avoidance and international tax competition, money laundering, bribery and other financial crimes is therefore key to recouping resources that are currently being lost, particularly for developing countries.²³ The consequences of cross-border tax abuse and international tax competition are particularly dire for low- and middle-income countries, which have a significantly lower tax base than most high-income countries. In Rwanda, for example, illicit outflows were estimated at 51.7 per cent of the Government's total tax revenues between 2008 and 2012.²⁴ Although international tax evasion and avoidance is usually committed by private individuals or corporations, state laws and policies can play an important role in enabling private actors to pay their fair share of taxes or avoid doing so. A recent review by the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (UN CEDAW) raised concerns about the effects of Switzerland's financial secrecy and corporate tax policies on the ability of developing countries to mobilize the maximum available resources for the fulfilment of women's rights.²⁵ There is a growing consensus that offshore tax havens pose a global problem in terms of facilitating money laundering and tax avoidance/evasion, contributing to unacceptably high levels of global wealth inequality, and hence require global solutions.²⁶

Revising the broader macroeconomic frameworks

Prevailing macroeconomic frameworks generally privilege short-term stabilization over longer-term goals related to employment generation and social development. There is growing agreement, however, that revising overly strict rules about deficit spending

and inflation control could free up additional resources for sustainable development without jeopardizing macroeconomic stability.²⁷

HOW CAN RESOURCES BE STEERED TOWARDS ACHIEVING GENDER EQUALITY GOALS?

Debates over resource mobilization cannot be separated from questions about how resources—both external and domestic—are spent. Mechanisms such as participatory budgeting, social audits and public hearings can enhance accountability by enabling civil society to use budget data and engage in the review process. Such practices can contribute to greater trust between the state and citizens, enhanced domestic resource mobilization and more equitable and effective use of scarce public funds.²⁸ Public spending decisions that are perceived as transparent and fair are also likely to enhance financial sustainability in the long term. Where citizens reap clear benefits from public services, for example, their willingness to contribute to funding them through taxation is also likely to increase.²⁹

Gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) is one way to analyse the distributive impact of public spending, taxation and public service delivery, focusing on the benefits to and burdens on women and girls. It may also include analysis of the impacts on women from different ethnic backgrounds, different income levels or with and without disabilities. GRB can also be used to assess government compliance with human rights obligations, such as those found in the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW),³⁰ and holds promise for tracking budgetary commitments to gender equality in the implementation of the 2030 Agenda.

Advocates of gender-responsive budgeting see it as a strategy for mainstreaming gender into fiscal policies and for holding governments to account for the impact of public spending decisions on gender

equality. A global review of GRB initiatives found that while buy-in and monitoring by ministries of finance is important for their effectiveness, other ministries must take the lead in identifying gender-related goals under their area of responsibility and in developing programmes and requesting budgets

to achieve these goals.³¹ This has been the case in Mexico and Uganda, where parliaments and civil society have also demonstrated strong engagement with GRB processes (see Alliances for effective gender-responsive budgeting in Mexico and Uganda).

IN FOCUS

ALLIANCES FOR EFFECTIVE GENDER-RESPONSIVE BUDGETING IN MEXICO AND UGANDA

Mexico and Uganda have been at the forefront of efforts to incorporate gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) into legislation and administrative processes in Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa, respectively. Broad-based alliances and institutional support across government ministries, parliaments and civil society have been important ingredients in their success.

In Mexico, civil society organizations have driven efforts since the mid-1990s to monitor budget allocations for gender equality; measures were formally adopted in the early 2000s. Since 2003, the Parliament, under the leadership of female MPs, and the Mexican women's machinery (INMUJERES) have worked to ensure that greater resources are devoted to policies and programmes that address women's needs. Starting in 2008, the Government earmarked and registered these resources in an annex to the federal budget as part of a broader earmarking strategy. The share of the budget allocated to achieving equality between women and men remains small, rising from 0.13 per cent to 0.67 per cent between 2004 and 2015. Yet ensuring that resources are expended where they are assigned is a considerable achievement. Compliance is monitored on a quarterly basis by the Ministry of Finance and INMUJERES.³² The earmarked resources are dedicated to programmes for women's health and economic empowerment, including childcare centres.

In Uganda, the Forum for Women in Democracy (FOWODE), a non-governmental organization established by a group of female MPs, spearheaded the first gender budget initiative in the late 1990s with a focus on education, health and agriculture.³³ In 2004/2005, the Government formally adopted GRB, identified a set of priority sectors—including education, health, water, sanitation, infrastructure, justice and agriculture—and asked the relevant ministries to develop programmes to address the unmet needs of women in these areas. Though progress remains slow, there have been a number of tangible achievements. The Ministry of Education, for example, increased budget allocations to monitor efforts to increase participation and retention of girls in school and was tasked with tracking the reasons girls drop out of school, which include pregnancy, marriage, violence and lack of sanitary and hygienic facilities.³⁴ And in 2014, the Parliament voted to remove the 18 per cent VAT on agricultural inputs and equipment from the national budget; this benefited farmers, most of whom are women.³⁵

MOVING FORWARD: STRATEGIES FOR ACTION

This report has made a strong case for maintaining gender equality front and centre during the implementation of the 2030 Agenda and for closely monitoring how governments work towards meeting their commitments. Progress needs to be meaningful if national governments and the international community want to maintain the enthusiasm inspired by the adoption of this collective vision for a sustainable future for all without discrimination. Systematic monitoring of outcomes, policies and processes can catalyse action and translate global commitments into national action and results for women and girls.

Previous chapters provided a detailed discussion of how to strengthen accountability (Chapter 1), improve gender statistics for effective monitoring (Chapter 2), assess progress, gaps and challenges from a gender perspective (Chapter 3) and identify those who are furthest behind (Chapter 4) as well as how to craft integrated responses to gender inequalities in two critical areas (Chapters 5 and 6). This final section distils the findings and recommendations of the report into three key strategies for delivering on the gender equality promises of the 2030 Agenda:

- Improving gender data, statistics and analysis to effectively monitor progress for women and girls across all goals and targets.
- Prioritizing gender-responsive financing, policies and programmes to align action with the principles, values and aspirations of the 2030 Agenda.

- Strengthening accountability through gender responsive processes and institutions to ensure an integrated approach to implementation, follow-up and review with gender equality at its core.

IMPROVING GENDER DATA, STATISTICS AND ANALYSIS

Despite increasing attention to gender statistics in recent decades, this report identifies pressing challenges that stand in the way of systematic, gender-responsive monitoring. These include the uneven coverage of gender indicators across goals and targets; the absence of internationally agreed standards for data collection; and the uneven availability of gender statistics across countries and over time. The absence of a robust body of global gender statistics is partly the consequence of weak, under-resourced statistical systems, particularly in developing countries. However, gaps in gender statistics—widespread in developed and developing countries alike—also arise from the longstanding failure to prioritize the collection of these data. Building support and capacity for gender statistics at all levels is hence an important priority. In addition, different stakeholders can ensure that available data are mined, analysed and reported to capture progress on gender equality in a comprehensive way, including for women and girls who face multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination. To ensure the effective monitoring of progress for all women and girls across all goals, the report recommends to:

- **Support the inclusion of gender-specific indicators across all 17 SDGs by 2020.** At the global level, the 2020 review of the global indicator framework offers an opportunity to discuss and include more gender-specific indicators across the framework, particularly under goals where these are currently lacking. Until then, Member States—through the IAEG-SDGs, supported by the UN System and in collaboration with researchers and civil society—should develop a concrete proposal for doing so, including through knowledge gathering in areas that require greater analytical development. In parallel, gender data advocates should target national and regional frameworks to ensure the comprehensive inclusion of gender-specific indicators across all the goals.
- **Work towards the regular collection of data for gender-specific indicators, ensuring quality and comparability.** Greater technical and financial resources for national statistical systems will be critical for achieving this. Gender statistics, in particular, suffer from chronic underinvestment and an ad hoc approach. Solutions for gender statistics need to be seen within the larger context of statistical capacity-building and integrated into support programmes. National statistical offices (NSOs), international organizations, researchers and women’s rights organizations should also work together to address the deep-seated biases in concepts, definitions, classifications and methodologies to ensure that data actually reflect the lived reality of women and girls in all their diversity.
- **Develop global, regional and national strategies for identifying groups who are being left behind.** Data should be systematically disaggregated by sex and other characteristics including age, class, ability, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity, migration status and others relevant in national contexts. NSOs should report disaggregated data in national reviews and put in place specific strategies to identify and expand data coverage for groups that are hard to measure and currently invisible in national statistics. The purposive study of vulnerable populations, through both qualitative and quantitative methods, is also needed, while ensuring that ethical standards –including strict confidentiality of data– are in place to protect such groups and individuals against discrimination.
- **Promote and adhere to quality benchmarks, human rights standards and the fundamental principles of official statistics.** As the ultimate guarantor of public data, the state has an important role in ensuring that data production adheres to these standards and principles. While innovations brought on by combining traditional data with new forms of data collection are promising and can help to accelerate progress in filling data gaps, safeguards are needed to ensure quality and integrity are maintained and confidentiality is secured.
- **Accelerate the development of global standards for gender-specific Tier III indicators.** UN Women and other custodian agencies, in consultation with key stakeholders including governments and civil society, should continue their efforts to develop sound methodologies for gender-specific indicators that are currently classified as Tier III. Greater involvement of NSOs is needed in the design and pilot phases to ensure methodologies developed work effectively in different settings. Member States should integrate these indicators into their national monitoring frameworks as soon as methodologies have been developed, piloted and agreed.
- **Strengthen commitment at the highest political level to an open, inclusive, transparent and gender-sensitive SDG monitoring process.** Statistical systems need to be independent and empowered to adapt quickly to changes in the data landscape. Researchers, academics, women’s rights organizations and other civil society groups also have an important role to play in this process, not only as data producers and users but also as advocates for more and better gender data. Collaboration between national statistical systems and these and other groups will help ensure that data meet the needs of diverse stakeholders.

PRIORITIZING GENDER-RESPONSIVE INVESTMENTS, POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES

Delivering on the gender equality commitments of the 2030 Agenda stands and falls with the capacity to mobilize and allocate sufficient resources for policies and programmes that contribute to their achievement. In many countries, essential services on which millions of women and girls depend—water and sanitation, early childhood education and care, and shelters, legal services, specialist counselling and health services for survivors of gender-based violence—are chronically under-funded, of poor quality or simply unavailable. As countries roll out their national implementation strategies, it is paramount that investments in these and other strategic areas are prioritized and that policies and programmes are aligned with the principles of the 2030 Agenda, including human rights principles such as equality, non-discrimination and universality. All stakeholders should measure their performance based on these principles and commit to making course corrections where their actions fail to produce the desired results. More specifically, the report recommends to:

- **Develop equitable and progressive domestic resource mobilization strategies.** The viability of different resource mobilization strategies varies across countries and contexts. While higher-income countries may be able to attract significant amounts of private investment, lower-income countries will rely more heavily on official development assistance (ODA), international borrowing or remittances. In all cases, however, options for increasing fiscal space for gender equality investments are available. Specific strategies should be discussed in an open and transparent manner, and their distributional consequences for women and men from different social groups should be assessed and clearly communicated.
- **Monitor budget allocations for gender equality policies and programmes.** Member States, donor agencies and international organizations should track financial
- commitments for promoting gender equality in both national budgets and international flows of ODA. Participatory and gender-responsive budgeting, social audits and public hearings are important tools for enhancing the transparency and accountability of spending decisions and assessing their gender impact.
- **Work together for an enabling global environment.** In light of the global partnership commitments and universal spirit of the 2030 Agenda, solidarity and cooperation between countries of all income levels must be strengthened to create an enabling global environment for its implementation. Member States must collaborate to combat illicit financial flows and international tax competition and review stifling debt payments, all of which currently hamper domestic resource mobilization efforts.
- **Align policies and programmes with the principles of the 2030 Agenda.** All stakeholders, including Member States, UN agencies and the private sector, should ensure that their actions to implement the SDGs are gender-responsive and contribute to the realization of the rights of all women and girls. Principles such as the availability, accessibility, quality and affordability of services should guide the formulation and implementation of policies and programmes and should be key criteria for monitoring and evaluating their effectiveness.
- **Scale up financial support for women's organizations to engage in policy advocacy at the global, regional and national levels.** Private and bilateral donors, as well as international organizations, can play an important role by increasing core and multi-year funding. The financial stability that comes with this funding enables women's organizations to respond flexibly to changes in context and facilitates the medium- and long-term advocacy, planning and programming that are needed to keep gender equality at the centre of implementation and monitoring.
- **Define clear terms of engagement and criteria for public-private partnerships at the global and national levels.** The role of business is critical for the 2030 Agenda to succeed. It can

drive economic growth and innovation, create decent jobs and help close the financing gap by paying its fair share of taxes. The effectiveness and accountability of private sector participation can be strengthened by setting out clear rules for engagement and by conducting regular human rights and gender impact assessments. This should be part of broader efforts to make private businesses—of all shapes and sizes—more responsive to gender equality and women’s rights, as laid out by the Women’s Empowerment Principles (WEPs).¹ In addition, the need to move towards a global set of binding rules on business and human rights is increasingly recognized.²

- **Address multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination through policies and programmes.** Redressing the entrenched disadvantages faced by particular groups of women and girls will be critical to achieve progress for all. As a matter of priority, policies that are found to deepen inequalities and contribute to pushing people further behind must be revised. Specific measures aimed at reducing inequalities and helping the furthest behind catch up must be put in place as part of broader strategies aimed at creating universal systems that are collectively financed and used by all social groups.
- **Promote meaningful participation in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programmes.** Democratic governance and decision-making processes must be facilitated, fostering the voices and visibility of women and girls, to ensure national priorities and strategies are defined by broader perspectives on what helps or hinders progress.

STRENGTHENING ACCOUNTABILITY THROUGH GENDER-RESPONSIVE PROCESSES AND INSTITUTIONS

The 2030 Agenda explicitly acknowledges that the starting points and challenges (and the means to address the latter) differ across countries. As a

corollary, the process of implementation, monitoring and accountability is envisioned as country-owned and country-led. As a non-binding political commitment, the 2030 Agenda lacks enforceability: There are no defined consequences if countries fail to make serious efforts to meet the goals and targets. States have, however, committed to follow-up and review processes that are open, inclusive, participatory and transparent as well as people-centred, gender-sensitive, respectful of human rights and focused on those who are furthest behind.³ To strengthen accountability for gender equality at the global, regional and local levels, the report recommends to:

- **Place gender equality at the centre of national implementation.** States should work towards the localization of global gender equality commitments by integrating them into national development plans and related policies, legislation and frameworks, including those for the production and use of gender statistics. Responsibility and resources for the achievement of gender equality goals and targets should be clearly defined and open to public scrutiny, including by parliaments, national human rights institutions and civil society. Women’s rights organizations and national women’s machineries should have a seat at the table and be supported to engage with and influence implementation processes.
- **Ensure the monitoring of and reporting on gender equality commitments.** Regionally and nationally specific targets and indicators on gender equality should be defined and reported on to deepen global commitments. At the global and regional levels, the UN System should encourage and support governments to report on these commitments through technical cooperation and sharing of good practices. Regular audits to assess whether a gender perspective is integrated into reporting by Member States, UN agencies and other stakeholders should be conducted as part of the formal follow-up and review process.
- **Support women’s organizations and other civil society actors to monitor progress and hold governments to account for gender equality commitments.** The UN System, international

non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and other international organizations should provide an enabling environment for researchers and civil society organizations to conduct their own appraisals of progress at the global, regional and national levels, making sure that feminist experts and women's rights organizations are able to play a leading role in their preparation. A conducive legal framework, including measures to protect spaces for civil society and ensure the safety of women human rights defenders, is also needed for women's organizations to play their critical role in monitoring and implementation.

- **Use voluntary national reviews (VNRs) for the High-level Political Forum (HLPF) as a means of creating a shared vision of progress in gender equality and challenges that stand in the way.** States should use the VNRs as well as other SDG-related review processes as an opportunity to conduct a joint assessment of progress, gaps and challenges, harnessing the knowledge and skills of all relevant stakeholders, including women's rights organizations such as the Women's Major Group. Holding broad-based consultations during the preparation of the VNR and making it available to the public before submission to the HLPF should be part of this process.
- **Strengthen the HLPF as a platform for peer review and meaningful dialogue.** For the HLPF to become a stronger forum for accountability at the global level, the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) and the General Assembly—with the support of the HLPF secretariat—should consider reviewing the HLPF's working methods with the intention of allocating more time to the VNRs and providing more space for participation and reporting by civil society, including women's rights organizations. The secretariat should also prepare a summary of civil society inputs, similar to that provided by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) for the Universal Periodic Review, and make it publicly available alongside the VNRs to enhance the transparency and quality of national reporting. The review of the HLPF's working methods in 2019 will provide a timely opportunity for strengthening its role as an accountability mechanism.

ANNEXES



NOTE ON THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

DATA SOURCES AND DEFINITION OF INDICATORS

Unless otherwise specified, data used in this report have been obtained from databases of international agencies with the mandate, resources and expertise to collect, harmonize and compile national data for cross-country comparison. These data have often been sourced from official statistics at the national level. National statistical systems have a leading role in the production of these official statistics. For a description of SDG indicator data, including national sources, definitions and methodologies, along with a list of international agencies tasked with compilation, see UNSD 2017.

DISCREPANCIES BETWEEN NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL DATA SOURCES

In some cases, national estimates differ from those published by international agencies and presented in the report. These discrepancies arise from four main factors: harmonization processes carried out at the international level to make data comparable across countries; updates/revision periods of international agencies not coinciding with release of data by national statistical systems; international agencies calculating estimates for missing data and, in some cases, applying modelling techniques for the calculation of estimates when multiple data sources are available. Efforts by national and international data producers to improve the coordination for data production aim eventually to eliminate these discrepancies.

REGIONAL GROUPINGS AND AGGREGATES

Regional groupings used in the report are based on the United Nations Statistics Division's geographic regional classification Standard Country or Area Codes for Statistical Use, commonly referred to as the M49 standard (see Annex 4 for further details). Where possible, population-weighted regional and world averages for indicators are presented in the report. Generally, an average is presented when data are available for at least 50 per cent of countries in a region and/or represent about two thirds of the region's population.

MULTIVARIATE REGRESSIONS USED IN CHAPTER 4

Chapter 4 draws on household survey data to identify the furthest behind. The motivation for this analysis is to illustrate how, across societies, there exist marginalized groups of women and girls whose life chances are diminished across a host of different dimensions. In addition to the descriptive statistics presented in the chapter, logit regressions were performed to test the significance of differences between groups. This portion of the analysis builds on methods developed by Sen, Iyer and Mukherjee 2009 and Sen and Iyer 2012. Summary tables of these results are available upon request. Where relevant, the results from differences in means (test of significance) are discussed in footnotes throughout the chapter.

ANNEX 1

Gender-specific SDG indicators and supplemental indicators used in the report

INDICATOR	DESCRIPTION	TIER ^a	GLOBAL AVAILABILITY OF GENDER DATA ^b			
			% of countries with data since 2000	% of countries with data since 2010 ^c	% of countries with two or more data points since 2000 ^d	
GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS IN THE GLOBAL MONITORING FRAMEWORK^e						
1	1.1.1	Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)	I	64.7	64.6	64.7
2	1.2.1	Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age	I	0.0 ^f	0.0 ^f	0.0 ^f
3	1.2.2	Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions	II	0.0	0.0	0.0
4	1.3.1	Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable	II	32.7	32.7	0.5
5	1.4.2	Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognized documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure	II	0.0	0.0	0.0
6	1.b.1	Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to sectors that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
7	2.3.2	Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
8	3.1.1	Maternal mortality ratio	I	86.1	86.1	0.5
9	3.1.2	Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	I	86.1	77.9	84.1
10	3.3.1	Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations	II	51.0	51.0	51.0
11	3.7.1	Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods	I	62.0	51.0	40.4
12	3.7.2	Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group	II	58.2	50.5	57.7
13	3.8.1	Coverage of essential health services (defined as the average coverage of essential services based on tracer interventions that include reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health, infectious diseases, non-communicable diseases and service capacity and access, among the general and the most disadvantaged population)	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
14	4.1.1	Proportion of children and young people (a) in grades 2/3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex	II/III	24.0	24.0	10.1
15	4.2.1	Proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex	III	29.3	28.8	0.0
16	4.2.2	Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex	I	73.1	67.8	68.8
17	4.3.1	Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex	II	14.4	13.9	12.5
18	4.5.1	Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status, indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated	I/II/III	29.6	27.0	19.3

INDICATOR	DESCRIPTION	TIER ^a	GLOBAL AVAILABILITY OF GENDER DATA ^b			
			% of countries with data since 2000	% of countries with data since 2010 ^c	% of countries with two or more data points since 2000 ^d	
19	4.6.1	Proportion of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex	II	12.0	12.0	Φ
20	4.7.1	Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in (a) national education policies; (b) curricula; (c) teacher education; and (d) student assessment	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
21	4.a.1	Proportion of schools with access to (a) electricity; (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes; (c) computers for pedagogical purposes; (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities; (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities (as per the WASH indicator definitions)	II	14.9	14.7	9.6
22	5.1.1	Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex	III	0.0 ^g	0.0 ^g	0.0 ^g
23	5.2.1	Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age	II	40.9	30.3	Φ
24	5.2.2	Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence	II	0.0	0.0	0.0
25	5.3.1	Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18	II	57.7	46.2	Φ
26	5.3.2	Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age	II	13.9	12.5	Φ
27	5.4.1	Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location	II	34.1	21.2	15.7
28	5.5.1	Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments	I/II	90.9	90.9	90.9
29	5.5.2	Proportion of women in managerial positions	I	47.6	40.6	40.1
30	5.6.1	Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care	II	21.6	18.8	1.9
31	5.6.2	Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
32	5.a.1	(a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure	II	0.0 ^h	0.0 ^h	0.0 ^h
33	5.a.2	Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control	II	0.0 ⁱ	0.0 ⁱ	0.0 ⁱ
34	5.b.1	Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex	I	2.4	2.4	Φ
35	5.c.1	Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment	II	0.0 ^j	0.0 ^j	0.0 ^j
36	8.3.1	Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex	II	19.7	19.2	12.5

INDICATOR		DESCRIPTION	TIER ^a	GLOBAL AVAILABILITY OF GENDER DATA ^b		
				% of countries with data since 2000	% of countries with data since 2010 ^c	% of countries with two or more data points since 2000 ^d
37	8.5.1	Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities	II	16.4	15.1	8.4
38	8.5.2	Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	I	75.8	65.4	63.5
39	8.7.1	Proportion and number of children aged 5–17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age	II	22.6	14.9	9.1
40	8.8.1	Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status	II	25.0	20.4	21.9
41	8.8.2	Level of national compliance with labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
42	8.9.2	Proportion of jobs in sustainable tourism industries out of total tourism jobs	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
43	10.2.1	Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	III	0.0 ^k	0.0 ^k	0.0 ^k
44	11.2.1	Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	II	0.0	0.0	0.0
45	11.7.1	Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
46	11.7.2	Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
47	13.b.1	Number of least developed countries and small island developing States that are receiving specialized support, and amount of support, including finance, technology and capacity-building, for mechanisms for raising capacities for effective climate change-related planning and management, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
48	16.1.1	Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age	I	44.2	44.2	41.3
49	16.1.2	Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
50	16.2.2	Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation	II	27.4	27.4	Φ
51	16.2.3	Proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18	II	16.8	13.0	Φ
52	16.7.1	Proportions of positions (by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local legislatures, public service, and judiciary) compared to national distributions	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
53	16.7.2	Proportion of population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive, by sex, age, disability and population group	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
54	17.18.1	Proportion of sustainable development indicators produced at the national level with full disaggregation when relevant to the target, in accordance with the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics	III	0.0	0.0	0.0
OTHER OFFICIAL SDG INDICATORS (DISAGGREGATION BY SEX ADDED)^l						
1	2.1.2	Prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity in the population, based on the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) (by sex) ^m	II	67.8	67.8	0.0

INDICATOR	DESCRIPTION	TIER ^a	GLOBAL AVAILABILITY OF GENDER DATA ^b			
			% of countries with data since 2000	% of countries with data since 2010 ^c	% of countries with two or more data points since 2000 ^d	
2	8.6.1	Proportion of youth (aged 15–24 years) not in education, employment or training (by sex) ^e	I	60.1	55.3	39.9
3	9.5.2	Researchers (in full-time equivalent) per million inhabitants (by sex)	I	66.8	54.8	P
4	11.1.1	Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing (by sex) ^e	I	28.4	21.6	r
SUPPLEMENTAL GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^g						
1	(Goal 2)	Prevalence of anaemia among women of reproductive age			NA	
2	(Goal 2)	Share of women aged 15–49 whose BMI is less than 18.5 (underweight)			NA	
3	(Goal 3)	Proportion of women who have an independent/joint say in own health care			NA	
4	(Goal 4)	Primary and secondary out-of-school rates, by sex			NA	
5	(Goal 4)	Illiteracy rates, by sex			NA	
6	(Goal 4)	Proportion of women with six or less years of education			NA	
7	(Goal 4)	Proportion of women with less than a high school diploma			NA	
8	(Goal 5)	Access to Internet, by sex			NA	
9	(Goal 5)	Proportion of women who ever experienced physical or sexual violence from an intimate partner			NA	
10	(Goal 6)	Proportion of households reliant on women and girls for primary water collection			NA	
11	(Goal 6)	Average weekly time spent by women and girls on water collection			NA	
12	(Goal 6)	Proportion of women with access to basic drinking water			NA	
13	(Goal 6)	Proportion of women with access to basic sanitation facilities			NA	
14	(Goal 7)	Average amount of time per day women and girls spend gathering fuel for household energy			NA	
15	(Goal 7)	Proportion of women with access to clean cooking fuel			NA	
16	(Goal 8)	Labour force participation rate, by sex			NA	
17	(Goal 11)	Proportion of women with unsatisfied housing need (overcrowding)			NA	
18	(Goal 12)	Consumption of private vehicles, by sex			NA	
19	(Goal 14)	Proportion of people working in fisheries and aquaculture, by sex			NA	
20	(Goal 14)	Proportion of women in fishing and post-harvest operations			NA	
21	(Goal 14)	Proportion of women holding director positions in the seafood industry			NA	
22	(Goal 15)	Main potential benefits, use and costs of forest, by sex			NA	
23	(Goal 17)	Proportion of total ODA that targets gender equality			NA	

Sources:

Columns 2–3: UNSD 2017a.

Column 4: IAEG–SDGs tier classifications as of December 2017. See UNSD 2017c.

Columns 5–7: UN Women calculations based on UNSD 2017a. For further information on indicator work plans, see IAEG–SDG discussions (<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/meetings>) and the SDG indicators metadata repository (<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/>).

Notes:

"Φ" indicates that availability of trend data could not be evaluated, as only one data collection round is reported within the SDG Global Indicators Database.

a. The IAEG–SDGs has developed a classification system that groups the SDG indicators based on methodological development and overall data availability into three tiers: Tier I for indicators that are conceptually clear and for which established methodology and standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries; Tier II for indicators that are conceptually clear and for which established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries; and Tier III for indicators for which there are no internationally agreed methodology and standards. Tier classifications in this table are based on decisions made during and following the 6th IAEG–SDG Meeting in November 2017.

b. Data availability based on the July 2017 revision of the SDG Indicators Global Database (UNSD 2017a). The assessment of data availability is for all 54 gender-specific indicators and their sub-components for the period 2000–2016, contingent on whether the criteria of disaggregation by sex is met. Where indicators contain sub-components or series, the assessment of data availability is evaluated separately by series or is based on whether data for at least one series are available disaggregated by sex.

c. This measure is intended to capture the timeliness of the data available, i.e., whether data are available at any point in time from 2010–2016.

d. This measure is intended to capture the ability to calculate trends based on existing data, i.e. whether two or more data points are available from 2000–2016.

e. In this report, the term 'gender-specific indicators' is used to refer to indicators that explicitly call for disaggregation by sex and/or refer to gender equality as the underlying objective and for indicators where women and girls are specified within the indicator as the targeted population. This yields a list of 54 gender-specific indicators. Although less restrictive criteria—where all indicators that are relevant for women and girls (and can be disaggregated by sex) are included in the count—would yield a greater listing of gender-specific indicators, an explicit reference is preferred. This is because, while the IAEG–SDGs calls for all indicators where relevant to be disaggregated by sex and other characteristics, not all indicators spell out the relevant disaggregations. This inconsistency may result in the disaggregation element being missed in data provided for indicators that are not explicit.

f. Data disaggregated by sex are not available for this indicator within the SDG Indicators Global Database. However, for the purposes of this report, UN Women partnered with the World Bank to create new analysis using the recently developed Global Micro Database (GMD). The analysis for 89 countries looks at the percentage of women and girls living in poor households and has been used in the SDG 1 spotlight (see Chapter 3).

g. 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.

h. Although there are no available data for indicator 5.a.1 within the SDG Indicators Global Database, pilot data collection has begun in seven countries (Georgia, Maldives, Mexico, Mongolia, Philippines, Uganda and South Africa) through exercises conducted jointly by UNSD, UN Women and the World Bank; the lessons learned from these pilots have informed the finalization of the methodology for this indicator.

i. During summer 2017, FAO undertook a 10-country exercise to pilot the methodology for collecting data on this indicator. The participating countries were: Albania, Colombia, Guatemala, Indonesia, Kenya, Nepal, Oman, Serbia, Uganda and United Republic of Tanzania. Countries are expected to report on this indicator every two years starting from 2018.

j. Although there are no available data for this indicator within the SDG Indicators Global Database, pilot data collection has begun in 15 countries. The pilot countries are: Albania, Austria, Bangladesh, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Jordan, Macedonia, Mali, Mexico, Morocco, Nepal, Republic of Korea, Timor-Leste and Uganda. The indicator was recently reclassified in November 2017 from Tier III to Tier II.

k. Although there are no available data for indicator 10.2.1 within the SDG Indicators Global Database, this report uses most recent available data from the Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) Cross-National Data Center, Luxembourg (see Chapter 3).

l. UN Women has undertaken analysis to disaggregate by sex indicators that do not explicitly call for it but for which disaggregated data are available.

m. Assessment of data availability by sex is based on 2014–2015 surveys undertaken by FAO and Gallup World Poll. See metadata for indicator 2.1.2: UNSD 2017i and FAO 2017d.

n. In addition, UN Women conducted analysis using the latest available census data (IPUMS 2017) to disaggregate indicator 8.6.1 by sex and disability status. These data are available for 32 countries (see Chapter 4).

p. Because disaggregation by sex is not required for this indicator, these data are not available within the SDG Indicators Global Database. However, UNESCO—the data custodian for indicator 9.5.2—disseminates trend data for this indicator by sex.

q. Data disaggregated by sex for this indicator are not available within the SDG Indicators Global Database. For the purposes of this report, UN Women conducted analysis using the latest available data from Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) for 60 countries (see Chapter 3 spotlight on urban slums).

r. UN Women disaggregated this indicator by sex for the purposes of this report. Data for only the last available year was calculated and therefore assessment of trend data is unavailable.

s. The report 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).

ANNEX 2

Availability of data for gender-specific indicators, by country/area^a

Countries and Areas	GOAL 1 6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		GOAL 2 1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR ^b	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND				
Australia	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
New Zealand	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN ASIA				
Afghanistan	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Bangladesh	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Bhutan	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
India	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Kazakhstan	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Kyrgyzstan	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Maldives	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Nepal	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Pakistan	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Sri Lanka	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Tajikistan	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Turkmenistan	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Uzbekistan	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
EASTERN AND SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA				
Brunei Darussalam	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Cambodia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
China	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
China, Macao SAR	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Hong Kong, China	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Indonesia	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Japan	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Malaysia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Mongolia	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Myanmar	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Philippines	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Republic of Korea	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Singapore	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Thailand	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Timor-Leste	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Viet Nam	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 1		GOAL 2	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR ^a	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
EUROPE AND NORTHERN AMERICA				
Albania	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Andorra	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Austria	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Belarus	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Belgium	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Bulgaria	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Canada	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Croatia	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Czech Republic	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Denmark	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Estonia	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Finland	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
France	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Germany	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Gibraltar	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Greece	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Guernsey	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Holy See	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Hungary	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Iceland	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Ireland	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Italy	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Jersey	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Latvia	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Liechtenstein	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Lithuania	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Luxembourg	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Malta	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Monaco	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Montenegro	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Netherlands	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Norway	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Poland	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Portugal	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Republic of Moldova	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Romania	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Russian Federation	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Saint Pierre and Miquelon	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
San Marino	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 1		GOAL 2	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR ^a	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Serbia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Slovakia	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Slovenia	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Spain	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Svalbard and Jan Mayen Islands	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Sweden	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Switzerland	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Ukraine	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
United Kingdom	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
United States	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN				
Antigua and Barbuda	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Argentina	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Bahamas	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Barbados	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Belize	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Brazil	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Chile	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Colombia	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Costa Rica	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Cuba	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Dominica	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Dominican Republic	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Ecuador	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
El Salvador	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Grenada	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Guatemala	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Guyana	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Haiti	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Honduras	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Jamaica	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Mexico	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Nicaragua	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Panama	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Paraguay	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Peru	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Saint Barthélemy	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Saint Lucia	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 1		GOAL 2	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR ^a	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Saint Martin (French part)	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Suriname	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Trinidad and Tobago	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Uruguay	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
NORTHERN AFRICA AND WESTERN ASIA				
Algeria	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Armenia	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Azerbaijan	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Bahrain	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Cyprus	1.3.1	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Egypt	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Georgia	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Iraq	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Israel	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Jordan	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Kuwait	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Lebanon	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Libya	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Morocco	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Oman	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Qatar	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Saudi Arabia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
State of Palestine	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Sudan	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Syrian Arab Republic	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Tunisia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Turkey	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
United Arab Emirates	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Yemen	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
OCEANIA				
Fiji	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Kiribati	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Marshall Islands	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Micronesia (Federated States of)	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Nauru	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Palau	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Papua New Guinea	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Samoa	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Solomon Islands	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 1		GOAL 2	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR ^a	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Tonga	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Tuvalu	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
United States minor outlying islands	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Vanuatu	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA				
Angola	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Benin	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Botswana	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
British Indian Ocean Territory	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Burkina Faso	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Burundi	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Cabo Verde	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Cameroon	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Central African Republic	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Chad	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Comoros	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Congo	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Côte d'Ivoire	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Djibouti	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Equatorial Guinea	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Eritrea	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Ethiopia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
French Southern and Antarctic Territories	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Gabon	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Gambia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Ghana	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Guinea	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Guinea-Bissau	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Kenya	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Lesotho	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Liberia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Madagascar	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Malawi	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Mali	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Mauritania	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Mauritius	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Mozambique	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Namibia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Niger	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Nigeria	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 1		GOAL 2	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR ^a	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Rwanda	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Saint Helena	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
São Tomé and Príncipe	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Senegal	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Seychelles	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Sierra Leone	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Somalia	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
South Africa	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
South Sudan	-	1.1.1, 1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Swaziland	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	-	2.1.2, 2.3.2
Togo	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Uganda	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
United Republic of Tanzania	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Zambia	1.1.1, 1.3.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2
Zimbabwe	1.1.1	1.2.1, 1.2.2, 1.3.1, 1.4.2, 1.b.1	2.1.2 ^c	2.3.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 3		GOAL 4	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND				
Australia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
New Zealand	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN ASIA				
Afghanistan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Bangladesh	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Bhutan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
India	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Kazakhstan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Kyrgyzstan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Maldives	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Nepal	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 3		GOAL 4	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		8 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Pakistan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Sri Lanka	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Tajikistan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Turkmenistan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Uzbekistan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
EASTERN AND SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA				
Brunei Darussalam	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Cambodia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
China	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
China, Macao SAR	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Hong Kong, China	3.7.2	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Indonesia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Japan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Lao People's Democratic Republic	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Malaysia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Mongolia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Myanmar	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Philippines	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Republic of Korea	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Singapore	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Thailand	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Timor-Leste	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Viet Nam	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
EUROPE AND NORTHERN AMERICA				
Albania	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Andorra	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Austria	3.1.1, 3.1.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.7.1, 4.a.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 3		GOAL 4	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		8 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Belarus	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Belgium	3.1.1	3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Bulgaria	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Canada	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Croatia	3.1.1, 3.1.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Czech Republic	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Denmark	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Estonia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Finland	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
France	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Germany	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Gibraltar	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Greece	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
Guernsey	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Holy See	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Hungary	3.1.1, 3.1.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
Iceland	3.1.1, 3.7.2	3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Ireland	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Italy	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Jersey	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Latvia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
Liechtenstein	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Lithuania	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Luxembourg	3.1.1, 3.1.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
Malta	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
Monaco	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Montenegro	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Netherlands	3.1.1, 3.7.2	3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Norway	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Poland	3.1.1, 3.1.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Portugal	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
Republic of Moldova	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Romania	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 3		GOAL 4	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		8 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Russian Federation	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Saint Pierre and Miquelon	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
San Marino	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Serbia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Slovakia	3.1.1, 3.1.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Slovenia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
Spain	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Svalbard and Jan Mayen Islands	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Sweden	3.1.1, 3.7.2	3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Switzerland	3.1.1	3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Ukraine	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.5.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
United Kingdom	3.1.1, 3.7.2	3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.5.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
United States	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2,	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN				
Antigua and Barbuda	3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Argentina	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Bahamas	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Barbados	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Belize	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Brazil	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Chile	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Colombia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Costa Rica	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Cuba	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Dominica	3.1.2	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Dominican Republic	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Ecuador	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
El Salvador	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 3		GOAL 4	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		8 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Grenada	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Guatemala	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Guyana	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Haiti	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Honduras	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Jamaica	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Mexico	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Nicaragua	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Panama	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Paraguay	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Peru	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Saint Barthélemy	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Saint Kitts and Nevis	3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Saint Lucia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Saint Martin (French part)	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Suriname	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Trinidad and Tobago	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Uruguay	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1	3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
NORTHERN AFRICA AND WESTERN ASIA				
Algeria	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Armenia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Azerbaijan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Bahrain	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Cyprus	3.1.1, 3.1.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1, 4.6.1
Egypt	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Georgia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Iraq	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 3		GOAL 4	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		8 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Israel	3.1.1, 3.7.2	3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Jordan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Kuwait	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.5.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Lebanon	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.2	3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Libya	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Morocco	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Oman	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Qatar	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Saudi Arabia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
State of Palestine	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Sudan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Syrian Arab Republic	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Tunisia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Turkey	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
United Arab Emirates	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Yemen	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
OCEANIA				
Fiji	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Kiribati	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Marshall Islands	3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Micronesia (Federated States of)	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Nauru	3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Palau	3.1.2	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Papua New Guinea	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Samoa	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Solomon Islands	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Tonga	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Tuvalu	3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 3		GOAL 4	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		8 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
United States minor outlying islands	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Vanuatu	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA				
Angola	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Benin	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Botswana	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
British Indian Ocean Territory	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Burkina Faso	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Burundi	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Cabo Verde	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Cameroon	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Central African Republic	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Chad	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Comoros	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Congo	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Côte d'Ivoire	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Democratic Republic of the Congo	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Djibouti	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1	3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Equatorial Guinea	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Eritrea	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Ethiopia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
French Southern and Antarctic Territories	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Gabon	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Gambia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Ghana	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.6.1	4.3.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Guinea	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Guinea-Bissau	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1	3.3.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Kenya	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Lesotho	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Liberia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 3		GOAL 4	
	6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		8 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Madagascar	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Malawi	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.5.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Mali	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Mauritania	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Mauritius	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Mozambique	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Namibia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Niger	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Nigeria	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.5.1	4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Rwanda	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Saint Helena	-	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	-	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.5.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
São Tomé and Príncipe	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Senegal	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.3.1, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Seychelles	3.1.2	3.1.1, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Sierra Leone	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.1.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Somalia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1	3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
South Africa	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
South Sudan	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Swaziland	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Togo	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1	3.7.2, 3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Uganda	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.2.1, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
United Republic of Tanzania	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1, 4.a.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1
Zambia	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.5.1	4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1
Zimbabwe	3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.3.1, 3.7.1, 3.7.2	3.8.1	4.1.1, 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.5.1	4.3.1, 4.6.1, 4.7.1, 4.a.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND				
Australia	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
New Zealand	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN ASIA				
Afghanistan	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Bangladesh	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Bhutan	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
India	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Kazakhstan	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Kyrgyzstan	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Maldives	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Nepal	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.a.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Pakistan	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Sri Lanka	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Tajikistan	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Turkmenistan	5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Uzbekistan	5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
EASTERN AND SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA				
Brunei Darussalam	5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Cambodia	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
China	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
China, Macao SAR	5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Hong Kong, China	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Indonesia	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.a.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Japan	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Malaysia	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Mongolia	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Myanmar	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Philippines	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Republic of Korea	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Singapore	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Thailand	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Timor-Leste	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Viet Nam	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
EUROPE AND NORTHERN AMERICA				
Albania	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.a.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Andorra	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Austria	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Belarus	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Belgium	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Bulgaria	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Canada	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Croatia	5.2.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Czech Republic	5.2.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Denmark	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Estonia	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Finland	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
France	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Germany	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Gibraltar	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Greece	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Guernsey	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Holy See	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Hungary	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Iceland	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Ireland	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Italy	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Jersey	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Latvia	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Liechtenstein	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Lithuania	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Luxembourg	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Malta	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Monaco	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Montenegro	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Netherlands	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Norway	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Poland	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Portugal	5.2.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Republic of Moldova	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Romania	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Russian Federation	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Saint Pierre and Miquelon	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
San Marino	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Serbia	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.a.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Slovakia	5.2.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Slovenia	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Spain	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Svalbard and Jan Mayen Islands	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Sweden	5.2.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Switzerland	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Ukraine	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
United Kingdom	5.4.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
United States	5.4.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN				
Antigua and Barbuda	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Argentina	5.4.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.8.1	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Bahamas	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Barbados	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Belize	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.5.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Brazil	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Chile	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.5.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Colombia	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Costa Rica	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Cuba	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Dominica	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Dominican Republic	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.8.2, 8.9.2
Ecuador	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
El Salvador	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.5.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Grenada	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Guatemala	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.a.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Guyana	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Haiti	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Honduras	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Jamaica	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Mexico	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Nicaragua	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Panama	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Paraguay	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Peru	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Saint Barthélemy	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Saint Lucia	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Saint Martin (French part)	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Suriname	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Trinidad and Tobago	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Uruguay	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
NORTHERN AFRICA AND WESTERN ASIA				
Algeria	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Armenia	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Azerbaijan	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.7.1, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Bahrain	5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Cyprus	5.2.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Egypt	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Georgia	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Iraq	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Israel	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Jordan	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Kuwait	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Lebanon	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Libya	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Morocco	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Oman	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.a.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Qatar	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Saudi Arabia	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
State of Palestine	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Sudan	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Syrian Arab Republic	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Tunisia	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Turkey	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
United Arab Emirates	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Yemen	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
OCEANIA				
Fiji	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Kiribati	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Marshall Islands	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Micronesia (Federated States of)	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Nauru	5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Palau	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Papua New Guinea	5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Samoa	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Solomon Islands	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Tonga	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Tuvalu	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
United States minor outlying islands	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Vanuatu	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA				
Angola	5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Benin	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Botswana	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
British Indian Ocean Territory	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Burkina Faso	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Burundi	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1, 5.b.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.c.1	8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Cabo Verde	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Cameroon	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Central African Republic	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Chad	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Comoros	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Congo	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Côte d'Ivoire	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Democratic Republic of the Congo	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Djibouti	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1	8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Equatorial Guinea	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Eritrea	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Ethiopia	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
French Southern and Antarctic Territories	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Gabon	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Gambia	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Ghana	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Guinea	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Guinea-Bissau	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Kenya	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1, 5.a.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Lesotho	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Liberia	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Madagascar	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Malawi	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Mali	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Mauritania	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 5		GOAL 8	
	14 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		7 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^d	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Mauritius	5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Mozambique	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Namibia	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2	8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Niger	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Nigeria	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Rwanda	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Saint Helena	-	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
São Tomé and Príncipe	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Senegal	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Seychelles	5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Sierra Leone	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Somalia	5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	-	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
South Africa	5.3.1, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.3.1, 8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e	8.5.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
South Sudan	5.3.1, 5.5.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Swaziland	5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Togo	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.5.2, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Uganda	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
United Republic of Tanzania	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Zambia	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.6.1 ^e , 8.7.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.8.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2
Zimbabwe	5.2.1, 5.3.1, 5.5.1, 5.5.2, 5.6.1	5.1.1, 5.2.2, 5.3.2, 5.4.1, 5.6.2, 5.a.1, 5.a.2, 5.b.1, 5.c.1	8.5.2, 8.8.1	8.3.1, 8.5.1, 8.6.1, 8.7.1, 8.8.2, 8.9.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 10		GOAL 11	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		3 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ⁹	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND				
Australia	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
New Zealand	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN ASIA				
Afghanistan	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Bangladesh	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Bhutan	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
India	10.2.1 ^f	-	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Kazakhstan	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Kyrgyzstan	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Maldives	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Nepal	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Pakistan	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Sri Lanka	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Tajikistan	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Turkmenistan	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Uzbekistan	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
EASTERN AND SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA				
Brunei Darussalam	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Cambodia	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
China	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
China, Macao SAR	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Hong Kong, China	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Indonesia	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Japan	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Lao People's Democratic Republic	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Malaysia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Mongolia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Myanmar	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Philippines	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Republic of Korea	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Singapore	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Thailand	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Timor-Leste	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Viet Nam	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
EUROPE AND NORTHERN AMERICA				
Albania	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Andorra	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Austria	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Belarus	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 10		GOAL 11	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		3 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ⁹	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Belgium	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Bulgaria	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Canada	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Croatia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Czech Republic	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Denmark	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Estonia	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Finland	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
France	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Germany	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Gibraltar	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Greece	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Guernsey	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Holy See	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Hungary	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Iceland	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Ireland	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Italy	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Jersey	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Latvia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Liechtenstein	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Lithuania	-	10.2.1	-	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Luxembourg	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Malta	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Monaco	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Montenegro	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Netherlands	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Norway	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Poland	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Portugal	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Republic of Moldova	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Romania	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Russian Federation	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Saint Pierre and Miquelon	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
San Marino	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Serbia	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Slovakia	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Slovenia	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Spain	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Svalbard and Jan Mayen Islands	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Sweden	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 10		GOAL 11	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		3 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^a	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Switzerland	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Ukraine	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
United Kingdom	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
United States	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN				
Antigua and Barbuda	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Argentina	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Bahamas	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Barbados	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Belize	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Brazil	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Chile	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Colombia	10.2.1 ^f	-	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Costa Rica	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Cuba	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Dominica	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Dominican Republic	10.2.1 ^f	-	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Ecuador	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
El Salvador	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Grenada	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Guatemala	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Guyana	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Haiti	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Honduras	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Jamaica	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Mexico	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Nicaragua	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Panama	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Paraguay	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Peru	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Saint Barthélemy	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Saint Kitts and Nevis	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Saint Lucia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Saint Martin (French part)	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Suriname	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Trinidad and Tobago	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Uruguay	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 10		GOAL 11	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		3 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ⁹	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
NORTHERN AFRICA AND WESTERN ASIA				
Algeria	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Armenia	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Azerbaijan	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Bahrain	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Cyprus	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Egypt	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Georgia	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Iraq	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Israel	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Jordan	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Kuwait	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Lebanon	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Libya	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Morocco	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Oman	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Qatar	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Saudi Arabia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
State of Palestine	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Sudan	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Syrian Arab Republic	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Tunisia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Turkey	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
United Arab Emirates	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Yemen	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
OCEANIA				
Fiji	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Kiribati	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Marshall Islands	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Micronesia (Federated States of)	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Nauru	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Palau	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Papua New Guinea	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Samoa	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Solomon Islands	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Tonga	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Tuvalu	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
United States minor outlying islands	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Vanuatu	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA				
Angola	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Benin	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 10		GOAL 11	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		3 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^g	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
Botswana	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
British Indian Ocean Territory	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Burkina Faso	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Burundi	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Cabo Verde	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Cameroon	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Central African Republic	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Chad	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Comoros	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Congo	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Côte d'Ivoire	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Democratic Republic of the Congo	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Djibouti	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Equatorial Guinea	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Eritrea	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Ethiopia	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
French Southern and Antarctic Territories	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Gabon	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Gambia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Ghana	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Guinea	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Guinea-Bissau	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Kenya	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Lesotho	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Liberia	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Madagascar	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Malawi	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Mali	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Mauritania	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Mauritius	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Mozambique	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Namibia	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Niger	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Nigeria	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Rwanda	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Saint Helena	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
São Tomé and Príncipe	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Senegal	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Seychelles	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Sierra Leone	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^h	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Somalia	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
South Africa	10.2.1 ^f	-	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 10		GOAL 11	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		3 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS ^a	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
South Sudan	-	10.2.1	-	11.1.1, 11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Swaziland	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^b	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Togo	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^b	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Uganda	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^b	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
United Republic of Tanzania	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^b	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Zambia	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^b	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2
Zimbabwe	-	10.2.1	11.1.1 ^b	11.2.1, 11.7.1, 11.7.2

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/ not reported
AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND						
Australia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
New Zealand	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN ASIA						
Afghanistan	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Bangladesh	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Bhutan	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
India	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Kazakhstan	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Kyrgyzstan	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Maldives	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Nepal	-	13.b.1	16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Pakistan	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Sri Lanka	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Tajikistan	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Turkmenistan	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Uzbekistan	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported
EASTERN AND SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA						
Brunei Darussalam	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Cambodia	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
China	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
China, Macao SAR	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Hong Kong, China	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Indonesia	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Japan	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Lao People's Democratic Republic	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Malaysia	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Mongolia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Myanmar	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Philippines	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Republic of Korea	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Singapore	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Thailand	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Timor-Leste	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Viet Nam	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
EUROPE AND NORTHERN AMERICA						
Albania	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Andorra	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Austria	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Belarus	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Belgium	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Bulgaria	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported
Canada	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Croatia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Czech Republic	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Denmark	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Estonia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Finland	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
France	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Germany	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Gibraltar	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Greece	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Guernsey	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Holy See	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Hungary	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Iceland	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Ireland	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Italy	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Jersey	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Latvia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Liechtenstein	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Lithuania	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Luxembourg	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Malta	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Monaco	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Montenegro	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Netherlands	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Norway	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported
Poland	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Portugal	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Republic of Moldova	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Romania	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Russian Federation	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Saint Pierre and Miquelon	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
San Marino	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Serbia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Slovakia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Slovenia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Spain	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Svalbard and Jan Mayen Islands	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Sweden	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Switzerland	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Ukraine	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
United Kingdom	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
United States	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN						
Antigua and Barbuda	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Argentina	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Bahamas	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Barbados	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Belize	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Brazil	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported
Chile	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Colombia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Costa Rica	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Cuba	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Dominica	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Dominican Republic	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Ecuador	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
El Salvador	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Grenada	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Guatemala	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Guyana	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Haiti	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Honduras	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Jamaica	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Mexico	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Nicaragua	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Panama	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Paraguay	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Peru	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Saint Barthélemy	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Saint Kitts and Nevis	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Saint Lucia	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Saint Martin (French part)	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Suriname	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Trinidad and Tobago	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported
Uruguay	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
NORTHERN AFRICA AND WESTERN ASIA						
Algeria	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Armenia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Azerbaijan	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Bahrain	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Cyprus	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Egypt	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Georgia	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Iraq	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Israel	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Jordan	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Kuwait	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Lebanon	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Libya	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Morocco	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Oman	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Qatar	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Saudi Arabia	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
State of Palestine	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Sudan	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Syrian Arab Republic	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Tunisia	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Turkey	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
United Arab Emirates	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported
Yemen	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
OCEANIA						
Fiji	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Kiribati	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Marshall Islands	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Micronesia (Federated States of)	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Nauru	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Palau	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Papua New Guinea	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Samoa	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Solomon Islands	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Tonga	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Tuvalu	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
United States minor outlying islands	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Vanuatu	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA						
Angola	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Benin	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Botswana	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
British Indian Ocean Territory	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Burkina Faso	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Burundi	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Cabo Verde	-	13.b.1	16.1.1	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Cameroon	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Central African Republic	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Chad	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported
Comoros	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Congo	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Côte d'Ivoire	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Democratic Republic of the Congo	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Djibouti	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Equatorial Guinea	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Eritrea	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Ethiopia	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
French Southern and Antarctic Territories	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Gabon	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Gambia	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Ghana	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Guinea	-	13.b.1	16.2.2	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Guinea-Bissau	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Kenya	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Lesotho	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Liberia	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Madagascar	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Malawi	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Mali	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Mauritania	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Mauritius	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2	16.1.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Mozambique	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Namibia	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Niger	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Countries and Areas	GOAL 13		GOAL 16		GOAL 17	
	1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR		6 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATORS		1 GENDER-SPECIFIC INDICATOR	
	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported	Data collected and reported	Data not available/not reported
Nigeria	-	13.b.1	16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Rwanda	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Saint Helena	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
São Tomé and Príncipe	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Senegal	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Seychelles	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Sierra Leone	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Somalia	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
South Africa	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
South Sudan	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Swaziland	-	13.b.1	-	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.2.3, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Togo	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Uganda	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.2, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
United Republic of Tanzania	-	13.b.1	16.1.1, 16.2.3	16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Zambia	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1
Zimbabwe	-	13.b.1	16.2.3	16.1.1, 16.1.2, 16.2.2, 16.7.1, 16.7.2	-	17.18.1

Source:

UN Women evaluations based on UNSD 2017a.

Notes:

a. Assessment of available and missing indicator data is based on whether a country has reported data for any point from 2000–2016.

b. While only one gender-specific indicator for Goal 2 is available within the SDG Global Indicators Database, indicator 2.1.2 is presented in this table based on data made available by FAO and Gallup World Poll. See metadata for indicator 2.1.2: UNSD 2017i and FAO 2017d.

c. Although sex-disaggregated data for indicator 2.1.2 are not required in the global monitoring framework, these data have been made available based on data collection rounds in 2014 and 2015 undertaken by FAO and Gallup World Poll. (see Note b for source).

d. The SDG Global Indicators Database contains seven gender-specific indicators, but an eighth—indicator 8.6.1—is presented in this table because data disaggregated by sex is available within the SDG repository, even though disaggregation is not required for this indicator.

e. Sex-disaggregated data for indicator 8.6.1 are not available in the SDG Global Indicators Database, as disaggregation by sex is not required for this indicator in the global monitoring framework. It is nonetheless included in this table based on sex-disaggregated data collected by UNESCO.

f. Although there are no sex-disaggregated data for indicator 10.2.1 available within the SDG Indicators Global Database, these data are available for 42 countries based on the most recent Luxembourg Income Study (LIS) datasets (see Chapter 4, Box 4.1).

g. The SDG Global Indicators Database contains three gender-specific indicators, but a fourth—indicator 11.1.1—is presented in this table based on UN Women analysis using latest available data from Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) for 60 countries (see Chapter 3 spotlight on urban slums).

h. Although sex-disaggregated data for indicator 11.1.1 are not required for this indicator in the global monitoring framework, UN Women has conducted analysis using latest available data from Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) for 60 countries (see Chapter 3 spotlight on urban slums).

ANNEX 3

Pakistan case study: SDG-related outcome areas by wealth, location and ethnicity, 2012–2013

OFFICIAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL (NON-OFFICIAL) GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS										
PAKISTAN	SDG 2	SDG 3	SDG 3	SDG 4	SDG 5	SDG 6	SDG 6	SDG 7	SDG 8	SDG 11
	Proportion of women aged 18–49, who are underweight (BMI less than 18.5 kg/m ²) ^a	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 who do not have an independent/joint say in own healthcare ^b	Proportion of births not attended by skilled health personnel (births in last five years) ^c	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with six or less years of education ^d	Proportion of women aged 18–49 who were married before age 18 ^e	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to basic drinking water services ^f	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to basic sanitation facilities ^g	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to clean cooking fuel ^h	Proportion of women aged 18–49 currently not employed ⁱ	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 living in overcrowded housing ^j
WEALTH QUINTILES										
Poorest	26.0	58.5	70.2	98.7	58.3	17.8	60.1	99.1	53.3	93.2
Richest	4.2	39.3	14.4	31.2	24.1	1.7	6.7	8.9	86.8	62.3
LOCATION										
Rural	16.3	52.5	55.4	85.6	44.8	10.7	30.8	87.6	69.6	86.1
Urban	7.4	39.3	28.8	50.8	30.9	2.8	12.3	14.2	81.3	76.3
ETHNICITY										
Pashtun	3.9	65.2	50.2	86.0	49.0	23.6	17.9	73.2	94.7	84.5
Punjabi	10.9	40.4	41.4	68.1	28.9	2.3	21.8	56.1	72.9	82.3
Saraiki	17.3	44.0	54.0	86.2	51.9	5.0	36.4	85.2	58.7	85.5
Sindhi	27.5	62.5	48.3	88.6	52.7	10.1	37.9	73.2	63.5	89.9
Urdu	7.9	31.9	25.0	35.7	25.6	2.0	10.1	17.8	85.7	72.9
COMPOUNDED GROUP (2-DIMENSION)										
Urban richest	4.0	36.2	13.4	29.3	23.9	1.6	4.8	1.0	86.3	62.2
Rural poorest	26.2	58.6	70.1	98.8	58.5	17.5	59.5	99.2	53.1	93.1
COMPOUNDED GROUP (3-DIMENSION)										
Urban richest Punjabi	2.4	36.4	17.1	31.1	17.9	1.8	8.2	0.6	85.8	65.5
Urban richest Pashtun	–	62.7	19.8	52.5	40.5	2.2	2.1	2.8	94.7	60.9
Urban richest Saraiki	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	65.6
Urban richest Sindhi	–	45.5	–	37.5	28.6	0.3	2.5	1.7	87.2	62.4
Urban richest Urdu	6.4	29.3	5.9	16.9	22.4	1.6	2.4	0.5	87.5	58.2
Rural poorest Punjabi	15.2	34.8	65.9	97.9	41.8	1.5	–	99.3	40.8	96.1
Rural poorest Pashtun	–	69.5	67.0	99.5	51.1	50.5	52.8	98.8	94.2	86.7
Rural poorest Saraiki	22.1	46.5	67.8	98.6	62.7	9.2	70.3	98.8	41.2	94.3
Rural poorest Sindhi	40.6	67.2	53.4	99.3	62.1	11.4	59.9	99.3	53.6	96.3
Rural poorest Urdu	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
National aggregate	13.3	48.1	47.7	74.0	40.2	8.1	23.1	63.3	73.5	82.7

Source:

UN Women calculations based on microdata from the Pakistan DHS 2012–2013 (NIPS and ICF International 2013).

Notes:

"-" denotes that the sample size was <100 and estimates were not calculated. For brevity, this appendix presents only the top and bottom wealth quintiles and select compounded groups.

- a. The body mass index (BMI) is an index of weight-for-height that is commonly used to classify adults as underweight, overweight or obese. It is defined as the weight in kilograms divided by the square of the height in metres (kg/m²). See WHO 2018. BMI less than 18.5kg/m² is used here as a proxy for malnutrition, a relevant outcome area for SDG 2. As the threshold is not applicable for women who are pregnant or less than three months post-partum, they are excluded from this analysis. Low BMI is not an official SDG indicator. For a full list of other supplemental and official SDG 2 indicators included in the report, see Annex 1.
- b. The question regarding having a say in own health-care decisions is asked of currently married or cohabitating women and girls aged 15–49 only. It is included as a relevant proxy for SDG 3 because it captures lack of autonomy, a well-being measure with strong implications for women's access to critical health services.
- c. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel is measured among women who had children in the five years preceding the survey. See metadata for SDG indicator 3.12 here: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-03-01-02.pdf>
- d. The indicator 'six or less years of education' is used to assess inequality in access to basic education. This is not an official SDG indicator. For a full list of other supplemental and official SDG 3 indicators included in the report, see Annex 1.
- e. The official SDG indicator on child marriage focuses on women aged 20–24; however, restricting the sample to this age group for multi-level disaggregation analysis would yield an insufficient sample size and therefore the full DHS sample is used. Due to difference in treatment of missing values, the figures presented may vary slightly from DHS reported estimates.
- f. 'No access to basic drinking water services' is defined as being more than 30 minutes away from the nearest improved water source. For new definitions of improved water source, see WHO and UNICEF 2017b.
- g. 'No access to basic sanitation facilities' is defined as having no access to an improved sanitation facility that is not shared with other households. For definition of 'Improved' sanitation facilities, see metadata for SDG indicator 6.2.1 here: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-06-02-01.pdf>.
- h. 'Clean cooking fuel' refers to fuels that meet emission rate targets and are aligned with the normative World Health Organization (WHO) guidance for indoor air quality, see metadata for SDG indicator 7.1.2 here: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-07-01-02.pdf>.
- i. The indicator 'not employed' refers to respondents aged 18–49 who reported they were not currently employed at the time of the survey. School-aged children 15–17 are excluded from this portion of the analysis.
- j. 'Overcrowding' is defined as three or more people sharing a room designated for sleeping, see UNSD 2017a (SDG indicator 11.1.1).

Nigeria case study: SDG-related outcome areas by wealth, location and ethnicity, 2013

OFFICIAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL (NON-OFFICIAL) GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS										
NIGERIA	SDG 2	SDG 3	SDG 3	SDG 4	SDG 5	SDG 6	SDG 6	SDG 7	SDG 8	SDG 11
	Proportion of women aged 18–49, who are underweight (BMI less than 18.5 kg/m ²) ^a	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 who do not have an independent/joint say in own health care ^b	Proportion of births not attended by skilled health personnel (births in last five years) ^c	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with six or less years of education ^d	Proportion of women aged 18–49 who were married before age 18 ^e	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to basic drinking water services ^f	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to basic sanitation facilities ^g	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to clean cooking fuel ^h	Proportion of women aged 18–49 currently not employed ⁱ	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 living in overcrowded housing ^j
WEALTH QUINTILES										
Poorest	14.3	84.5	92.5	96.5	80.1	72.6	61.5	100.0	41.0	66.6
Richest	4.2	32.1	13.0	13.0	16.6	8.1	45.1	89.0	28.6	50.7
LOCATION										
Rural	10.2	70.1	74.0	72.2	60.0	54.6	54.7	99.5	34.2	54.3
Urban	7.0	45.6	31.2	32.3	28.6	20.2	51.3	94.6	29.8	57.5
ETHNICITY										
Fulani	18.5	86.3	88.2	92.5	79.7	70.2	48.0	99.4	50.7	61.2
Hausa	12.8	86.9	86.6	85.1	78.2	49.7	46.5	99.5	37.7	65.0
Igbo	5.2	33.0	13.3	23.8	18.5	30.0	47.4	94.7	28.7	49.7
Yoruba	6.5	24.6	11.3	23.9	17.2	13.2	69.0	95.8	17.2	59.7
COMPOUNDED GROUP (2-DIMENSION)										
Urban richest	4.2	31.7	12.1	12.9	16.5	7.7	47.0	88.6	28.5	52.2
Rural poorest	14.5	84.9	93.7	97.0	81.3	72.6	61.4	100.0	41.9	66.5
COMPOUNDED GROUP (3-DIMENSION)										
Urban richest Fulani	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22.9
Urban richest Hausa	7.5	83.7	47.3	31.9	48.2	29.8	17.3	93.1	47.3	48.9
Urban richest Igbo	2.8	23.7	2.2	5.5	10.9	6.8	39.3	85.5	32.3	35.6
Urban richest Yoruba	4.8	22.4	7.5	13.0	11.1	5.3	63.2	92.4	17.7	60.2
Rural poorest Fulani	18.9	87.9	96.1	99.4	83.5	81.9	59.0	100.0	50.4	62.8
Rural poorest Hausa	14.2	90.4	95.4	98.6	87.6	63.6	62.0	100.0	34.5	70.6
Rural poorest Igbo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rural poorest Yoruba	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
YORUBA ONLY (COMPOUNDED GROUP 4-DIMENSIONS)										
Urban richest Christian/Catholic Yoruba	4.4	19.4	5.8	10.2	9.3	4.2	56.2	90.2	19.9	54.4
Urban richest Muslim Yoruba	5.4	26.2	9.1	19.8	13.8	6.3	75.9	95.8	14.4	68.0

OFFICIAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL (NON-OFFICIAL) GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS										
	SDG 2	SDG 3	SDG 3	SDG 4	SDG 5	SDG 6	SDG 6	SDG 7	SDG 8	SDG 11
NIGERIA	Proportion of women aged 18–49, who are underweight (BMI less than 18.5 kg/m ²) ^a	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 who do not have an independent/joint say in own health care ^b	Proportion of births not attended by skilled health personnel (births in last five years) ^c	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with six or less years of education ^d	Proportion of women aged 18–49 who were married before age 18 ^e	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to basic drinking water services ^f	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to basic sanitation facilities ^g	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 with no access to clean cooking fuel ^h	Proportion of women aged 18–49 currently not employed ⁱ	Proportion of women and girls aged 15–49 living in overcrowded housing ^j
Rural poorest Christian/Catholic Yoruba	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Rural poorest Muslim Yoruba	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
National aggregate	8.8	61.2	58.9	55.4	46.8	40.2	53.0	97.4	32.3	56.0

Source:

UN Women calculations based on microdata from the Nigeria DHS 2013 (NPC, Federal Republic of Nigeria and ICF International 2014).

Notes:

"-" denotes that the sample size was <100 and estimates were not calculated. For brevity, this appendix presents only the top and bottom wealth quintiles and select compounded groups.

a. The body mass index (BMI) is an index of weight-for-height that is commonly used to classify adults as underweight, overweight or obese. It is defined as the weight in kilograms divided by the square of the height in metres (kg/m²). See WHO 2018. BMI less than 18.5kg/m² is used here as a proxy for malnutrition, a relevant outcome area for SDG 2. As the threshold is not applicable for women who are pregnant or less than three months post-partum, they are excluded from this analysis. Low BMI is not an official SDG indicator. For a full list of other supplemental and official SDG 2 indicators included in the report, see Annex 1.

b. The question regarding having a say in own health-care decisions is asked of currently married or cohabiting women and girls aged 15–49 only. It is included as a relevant proxy for SDG 3 because it captures lack of autonomy, a well-being measure with strong implications for women's access to critical health services.

c. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel is measured among women who had children in the five years preceding the survey. See metadata for SDG indicator 3.12 here: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-03-01-02.pdf>.

d. The indicator 'six or less years of education' is used to assess inequality in access to basic education. This is not an official SDG indicator. For a full list of other supplemental and official SDG 3 indicators included in the report, see Annex 1.

e. The official SDG indicator on child marriage focuses on women aged 20–24; however, restricting the sample to this age group for multi-level disaggregation analysis would yield an insufficient sample size and therefore the full DHS sample is used. Due to difference in treatment of missing values, the figures presented may vary slightly from DHS reported estimates.

f. 'No access to basic drinking water services' is defined as being more than 30 minutes away from the nearest improved water source. For new definitions of improved water source, see WHO and UNICEF 2017b.

g. 'No access to basic sanitation facilities' is defined as having no access to an improved sanitation facility that is not shared with other households. For the definition of 'improved' sanitation facilities, see metadata for SDG indicator 6.2.1 here: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-06-02-01.pdf>.

h. 'Clean cooking fuel' refers to fuel that meets emission rate targets and is aligned with the normative World Health Organization (WHO) guidance for indoor air quality. See metadata for SDG indicator 7.1.2 here: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-07-01-02.pdf>.

i. The indicator 'not employed' refers to respondents aged 18–49 who reported they were not currently employed at the time of the survey. School-aged children 15–17 years are excluded from this portion of the analysis.

j. 'Overcrowding' is defined as three or more people sharing a room designated for sleeping. See UNSD 2017a (SDG indicator 11.1.1). Accessed 8 January 2018.

Colombia case study: SDG-related outcome areas by wealth, geography, location and ethnicity, 2015

OFFICIAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL (NON-OFFICIAL) GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS											
COLOMBIA	SDG 3	SDG 3	SDG 3	SDG 4	SDG 5	SDG 5	SDG 6	SDG 6	SDG 7	SDG 8	SDG 11
	Proportion of women aged 18–49 who had their first delivery before age 18 ^a	Proportion of births not attended by skilled health personnel (births in last five years) ^b	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 who do not have an independent/joint say in own health care ^c	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 with six or less years of education ^d	Proportion of women and girls aged 18–49 who were married before age 18 ^e	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 who ever experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner ^f	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 with no access to basic drinking water services ^g	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 with no access to basic sanitation facilities ^h	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 with no access to clean cooking fuel ⁱ	Proportion of women aged 18–49 currently not employed ^j	Proportion of women aged 13–49 living in overcrowded housing ^k
WEALTH QUINTILES											
Poorest	32.4	13.1	26.9	52.8	39.3	31.6	34.7	16.7	58.7	54.5	44.0
Richest	7.7	0.8	16.8	4.7	9.2	26.5	0.1	0.1	0.0	30.9	2.3
GEOGRAPHY											
Atlantica	21.1	4.8	23.4	23.4	29.3	29.3	9.4	8.7	15.9	48.3	38.0
Bogota	13.4	1.0	14.3	10.9	17.1	34.9	0.0	7.3	0.0	27.6	11.5
Central	18.6	2.7	18.7	23.0	22.6	31.7	7.9	5.9	10.1	41.5	18.5
Pacifica	20.2	9.7	19.2	25.0	23.8	37.0	6.1	10.3	12.0	38.1	18.0
Oriental	18.7	1.3	19.3	22.4	23.4	34.6	8.5	7.6	14.1	33.6	20.5
Orinoquia	28.1	10.7	20.2	27.7	35.1	36.8	12.8	7.9	13.1	40.6	23.8
IDP STATUS											
IDP	38.6	-	-	43.6	44.2	42.8	4.9	14.5	10.6	35.3	33.0
Non-IDP	22.8	-	-	22.3	29.7	32.8	6.5	10.3	8.7	43.0	22.3
LOCATION											
Rural	29.6	11.9	25.2	47.6	36.8	30.9	29.6	12.5	48.9	51.4	37.3
Urban	16.0	1.0	17.6	14.5	20.4	33.9	0.8	6.8	0.7	35.3	17.7
ETHNICITY											
Afro-Colombian	24.0	11.1	19.2	23.4	27.9	39.6	5.8	12.8	9.0	39.4	28.0
Indigenous	25.2	22.5	27.3	42.6	30.7	31.6	21.5	13.2	40.1	42.0	44.4
Majority group	17.8	1.6	18.6	19.8	22.8	32.7	5.9	7.0	9.0	38.2	19.8
COMPOUNDED GROUP (2-DIMENSION)											
Urban richest	7.8	0.8	16.9	4.6	9.2	26.6	0.0	0.1	0.0	30.9	2.1
Rural poorest	32.2	14.5	27.1	54.5	39.5	30.8	38.1	14.5	64.5	54.8	41.9
COMPOUNDED GROUP (3-DIMENSION)											
Urban richest Afro-Colombian	6.5	-	14.6	5.8	10.1	30.4	0.0	0.5	0.0	31.9	4.4
Urban richest Indigenous	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.1
Urban richest majority group	7.8	0.1	16.8	4.4	9.1	26.3	0.0	0.1	0.0	30.9	2.0
Rural poorest Afro-Colombian	48.7	28.6	26.4	53.4	49.9	42.9	22.4	23.2	45.7	46.1	41.1

OFFICIAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL (NON-OFFICIAL) GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS											
	SDG 3	SDG 3	SDG 3	SDG 4	SDG 5	SDG 5	SDG 6	SDG 6	SDG 7	SDG 8	SDG 11
COLOMBIA	Proportion of women aged 18–49 who had their first delivery before age 18 ^a	Proportion of births not attended by skilled health personnel (births in last five years) ^b	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 who do not have an independent/joint say in own health care ^c	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 with six or less years of education ^d	Proportion of women and girls aged 18–49 who were married before age 18 ^e	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 who ever experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner ^f	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 with no access to basic drinking water services ^g	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 with no access to basic sanitation facilities ^h	Proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 with no access to clean cooking fuel ⁱ	Proportion of women aged 18–49 currently not employed ^j	Proportion of women aged 13–49 living in overcrowded housing ^k
Rural poorest indigenous	31.8	33.4	34.3	61.4	38.8	31.1	41.4	18.2	75.8	48.9	57.6
Rural poorest majority group	30.0	5.7	25.5	52.9	38.3	29.0	39.6	13.0	64.4	57.5	38.0
National aggregate	18.7	4.1	19.2	21.4	23.7	33.3	6.8	7.8	10.7	38.5	22.0

Source:

UN Women calculations based on microdata from the Colombia DHS 2015 (MINSALUD and Profamilia 2015).

Notes:

"-" denotes that the sample size was <100 and estimates were not calculated or data can only be obtained by merging multiple survey files and estimates are not consistent across individual and merged files. For brevity, this appendix presents only the top and bottom wealth quintile and select compounded groups.

- This refers to women aged 18–49 who reported having had a child before the age of 18. Note that this indicator differs from the official SDG indicator 3.7.2 (adolescent birth rate), which focuses on women and girls who delivered a child between ages 10–14 and 15–19; however, restricting the sample to these age groups for multi-level disaggregation analysis would yield an insufficient sample size.
- Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel is measured among women who had children in the five years preceding the survey.
- The question regarding having a say in own health-care decisions is asked of all women and girls aged 13–49 (full sample). It is included as a relevant proxy for SDG 3 because it captures lack of autonomy, a well-being measure with strong implications for women and girls' access to critical health services.
- The indicator 'six or less years of education' is used to assess inequality in access to basic education for the full sample of women and girls aged 13–49 (the national average for those aged 15–49 is similar at 21.3 per cent). For a full list of other supplemental and official SDG 3 indicators included in the report, see Annex 1.
- The official SDG indicator on child marriage focuses on women aged 20–24; however, restricting the sample to this age group for multi-level disaggregation analysis would yield an insufficient sample size and therefore the full DHS sample is used. Due to difference in treatment of missing values, the figures presented may vary slightly from DHS reported estimates.
- Questions related to intimate partner violence are asked of the full sample (women and girls' aged 13–49) and refers to current or previous intimate partner.
- 'No access to basic drinking water services' is defined as being more than 30 minutes away from nearest improved water source. For new definitions of improved water source see WHO and UNICEF 2017b.
- 'No access to basic sanitation facilities' is defined as having no access to an improved sanitation facility that is not shared with other households. For the definition of 'Improved' sanitation facilities, see metadata for SDG indicator 6.2.1 here: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-06-02-01.pdf>.
- 'Clean cooking fuel' refers to fuels that meet emission rate targets and are aligned with the normative World Health Organization (WHO) guidance for indoor air quality. See metadata for SDG indicator 7.1.2 here: <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/files/Metadata-07-01-02.pdf>.
- The indicator 'not employed' refers to respondents aged 18–49 who reported they were not currently employed at the time of the survey. School aged children 15–17 are excluded from this portion of the analysis.
- 'Overcrowding' is defined as three or more people sharing a room designated for sleeping. See UNSD 2017a (SDG indicator 11.1.1).

United States case study: SDG-related outcome areas by income, location and race/ethnicity, 2015

OFFICIAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL (NON-OFFICIAL) GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS						
USA	SDG 3	SDG 4	SDG 5	SDG 5	SDG 8	SDG 8
	Proportion of women aged 18–49 without access to health insurance ^a	Proportion of women aged 18–49 with less than a high school diploma ^b	Proportion of women aged 18–49 married before 18 ^c	Proportion of women aged 18–49 with no access to home Internet subscription ^d	Proportion of women aged 18–49 not employed ^e	Average wage and salary income of women aged 18–49 (in 2014 US\$)
INCOME QUINTILES						
Poorest	23.0	20.8	6.5	36.0	55.7	4,755
Richest	5.2	4.3	1.9	3.8	24.8	44,142
LOCATION						
Peripheral (suburban areas)	10.7	8.5	2.8	10.7	28.7	28,066
Urban area (metropolitan area)	13.3	12.2	3.9	17.2	31.6	28,320
Rural (Non-metropolitan area)	14.2	11.3	4.2	21.3	33.1	18,360
RACE/ETHNICITY						
Native American/Alaska Native	26.9	15.4	4.1	31.9	42.1	16,656
Asian (includes Chinese, Japanese, other Asian and Pacific Islanders)	9.0	7.7	2.4	6.1	35.5	31,619
Black	14.4	10.2	2.7	25.8	31.0	21,775
Hispanic (any race)	25.7	24.6	7.3	21.3	36.7	17,192
White	8.8	5.8	2.7	11.1	27.7	27,715
COMPOUNDED GROUP (2-DIMENSION) - BY LOCATION AND INCOME QUINTILE						
Suburban richest	3.7	3.6	1.5	3.1	20.2	45,247
Urban richest (metropolitan area)	5.3	4.1	1.7	4.5	21.0	55,577
Rural poorest (non-metropolitan area)	21.2	19.3	6.4	42.4	56.8	4,716
Urban poorest (metropolitan area)	19.4	23.1	6.0	35.9	58.9	4,438
COMPOUNDED GROUP (2-DIMENSION) - BY RACE/ETHNICITY AND INCOME QUINTILE						
Native American/Alaska Native richest	18.7	12.2	2.7	11.5	36.2	30,032
Asian richest (includes Chinese, Japanese, other Asian and Pacific Islanders)	3.8	3.4	1.6	2.0	27.3	53,648
Black richest	9.4	6.2	2.1	6.8	27.8	39,988
Hispanic (any race) richest	10.9	10.7	4.4	6.6	26.9	34,326
White richest	3.7	3.0	1.5	3.2	23.5	45,350
Native American/Alaska Native poorest	32.2	24.5	4.9	55.3	64.2	3,828

OFFICIAL AND SUPPLEMENTAL (NON-OFFICIAL) GENDER-SPECIFIC SDG INDICATORS						
USA	SDG 3	SDG 4	SDG 5	SDG 5	SDG 8	SDG 8
	Proportion of women aged 18–49 without access to health insurance ^a	Proportion of women aged 18–49 with less than a high school diploma ^b	Proportion of women aged 18–49 married before 18 ^c	Proportion of women aged 18–49 with no access to home Internet subscription ^d	Proportion of women aged 18–49 not employed ^e	Average wage and salary income of women aged 18–49 (in 2014 US\$)
Asian poorest (includes Chinese, Japanese, other Asian and Pacific Islanders)	18.9	13.9	4.6	16.6	63.6	3,382
Black poorest	21.2	19.0	4.7	45.5	53.1	5,484
Hispanic (any race) poorest	37.0	38.3	9.9	40.0	58.6	4,411
White poorest	17.2	13.7	5.6	30.6	54.8	4,686
National aggregate	13.1	10.3	3.6	14.9	30.7	24,932

Source:

UN Women calculations based on microdata from the 2015 American Community Survey microdata U.S. Census Bureau 2017.

Notes:

For brevity, this appendix presents only the top and bottom income quintiles and select compounded groups.

a. The indicator 'access to health insurance' is used as a proxy for women's ability to access critical health services. This is not an official SDG indicator. However, see IFWPR 2015 for a description of the relevance of this indicator for the measurement of health and well-being in the context of the United States.

b. Includes women aged 18–49 who attended the last year of high school but did not obtain a diploma.

c. The official SDG indicator on child marriage focuses on women aged 20–24; however, because restricting the sample to this age group for multi-level disaggregation analysis would yield an insufficient sample size, a sample of women aged 18–49 is used instead.

d. Relevant for monitoring SDG Target 5.b, Target 9.c and Target 17.8.

e. The indicator 'not employed' refers to respondents aged 18–49 who reported they were not currently employed at the time of the survey.

ANNEX 4

SDG regional groupings

AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND			
Australia	New Zealand		
CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN ASIA			
Afghanistan	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	Nepal	Turkmenistan
Bangladesh	Kazakhstan	Pakistan	Uzbekistan
Bhutan	Kyrgyzstan	Sri Lanka	
India	Maldives	Tajikistan	
EASTERN AND SOUTH-EASTERN ASIA			
Brunei Darussalam	Hong Kong, China	Mongolia	Thailand
Cambodia	Indonesia	Myanmar	Timor-Leste
China	Japan	Philippines	Viet Nam
China, Macao SAR	Lao People's Democratic Republic	Republic of Korea	
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	Malaysia	Singapore	
EUROPE AND NORTHERN AMERICA			
Albania	France	Lithuania	San Marino
Andorra	Germany	Luxembourg	Serbia
Austria	Gibraltar	Malta	Slovakia
Belarus	Greece	Monaco	Slovenia
Belgium	Guernsey	Montenegro	Spain
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Holy See	Netherlands	Svalbard and Jan Mayen Islands
Bulgaria	Hungary	Norway	Sweden
Canada	Iceland	Poland	Switzerland
Croatia	Ireland	Portugal	The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
Czech Republic	Italy	Republic of Moldova	Ukraine
Denmark	Jersey	Romania	United Kingdom
Estonia	Latvia	Russian Federation	United States
Finland	Liechtenstein	Saint Pierre and Miquelon	
LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN			
Antigua and Barbuda	Costa Rica	Haiti	Saint Kitts and Nevis
Argentina	Cuba	Honduras	Saint Lucia
Bahamas	Dominica	Jamaica	Saint Martin (French part)
Barbados	Dominican Republic	Mexico	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
Belize	Ecuador	Nicaragua	Suriname
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	El Salvador	Panama	Trinidad and Tobago
Brazil	Grenada	Paraguay	Uruguay
Chile	Guatemala	Peru	Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)
Colombia	Guyana	Saint Barthélemy	

NORTHERN AFRICA AND WESTERN ASIA			
Algeria	Georgia	Libya	Sudan
Armenia	Iraq	Morocco	Syrian Arab Republic
Azerbaijan	Israel	Oman	Tunisia
Bahrain	Jordan	Qatar	Turkey
Cyprus	Kuwait	Saudi Arabia	United Arab Emirates
Egypt	Lebanon	State of Palestine	Yemen
OCEANIA (EXCLUDING AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND)			
Fiji	Nauru	Samoa	Tuvalu
Kiribati	Palau	Solomon Islands	United States minor outlying islands
Marshall Islands	Papua New Guinea	Tonga	Vanuatu
Micronesia (Federated States of)			
SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA			
Angola	Democratic Republic of the Congo	Liberia	Senegal
Benin	Djibouti	Madagascar	Seychelles
Botswana	Equatorial Guinea	Malawi	Sierra Leone
British Indian Ocean Territory	Eritrea	Mali	Somalia
Burkina Faso	Ethiopia	Mauritania	South Africa
Burundi	French Southern and Antarctic Territories	Mauritius	South Sudan
Cabo Verde	Gabon	Mozambique	Swaziland
Cameroon	Gambia	Namibia	Togo
Central African Republic	Ghana	Niger	Uganda
Chad	Guinea	Nigeria	United Republic of Tanzania
Comoros	Guinea-Bissau	Rwanda	Zambia
Congo	Kenya	Saint Helena	Zimbabwe
Côte d'Ivoire	Lesotho	São Tomé and Príncipe	

BACKGROUND PAPERS

TO SUPPORT THE DEVELOPMENT OF THIS REPORT, UN WOMEN COMMISSIONED THE FOLLOWING BACKGROUND PAPERS FROM EXPERTS GLOBALLY:

Agarwal, B. 2017. "Concept Note on Gender and SDG Environmental Goals (SDG 13, 14 and 15)."

Atobrah, D. and B. Kwansa. 2017. "Pathways to Accessible, Affordable and Gender-Responsive Childcare Provision: The Case of Ghana."

Beales, S. and G. Gelber. 2017. "Gender Equality and the SDGs: An Analytical Review of Evidence on How Gender Equality Interacts and Interlinks with Other SDG-Related Areas."

Brickell, K. 2017. "Domestic Violence Law in Cambodia: Towards an Enabling Environment."

Chigateri, S. 2017. "Pathways to Accessible, Affordable and Gender-Responsive Childcare Provision for Children under Six: The Case of India."

De Henau, J. 2017. "Universal Childcare in South Africa, Turkey and Uruguay: A comparative Analysis of costs, Short-term Employment Effects and Fiscal Revenue."

Farias, A. M. 2017. "Servicios de Cuidado Infantil y Educación Inicial, Chile." (Childcare and Early Education Services, Chile.)

Hunt, J. and D. Kilsby, 2017. "Feminist Best Practice for Eliminating Violence against Women: Case Study on Fiji Women's Crisis Centre."

Lloyd-Sherlock, P. 2017. "Pathways to Accessible, Affordable and Gender-Responsive Care Services for Older Persons."

Mukherjee, A. Forthcoming. "Global Patterns on Gender Differences in Time Spent on Unpaid and Paid Work."

Nieuwenhuis, R., T. Munzi, J. Neugschwender, H. Omar and F. Palmisano. Forthcoming. "Gender Equality and Poverty Are Inextricably Linked: A Contribution to the Continued Monitoring of Selected Sustainable Development Goals."

Peng, I. and S. Yeandle. 2017. "Changing Family Constellations of Elderly Care: Mapping Family Variations and Their Implications."

Sardenberg, C. 2017. "Ten Years of Maria de Penha Law: Advancements and Shortcomings in Confronting Violence Against Women in Brazil."

Sen, G. 2017. "The SDGs and Feminist Movement Building."

Sepúlveda, M. 2017. "Gender-Responsive Accountability for the Implementation of the SDGs: The Potential of Using Existing Mechanisms and Procedures."

Velasco, M. 2017. "Cuidado Infantil en Ecuador: ¿Derechos en Conflicto?" (Childcare in Ecuador: Rights in Conflict?)

Vetten, L. 2017. "Families in a Changing World: Action to Address Violence against Women in South Africa."

ENDNOTES

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. Mawarire et al. 2016; UN HRC 2010.
2. Sen and Mukherjee 2014.
3. UNDP 2013a; UNRISD 2010; Ostry et al. 2014.
4. UN HRC 2015.
5. Grondona, Bigedain and Rodriguez Enriquez 2016; Levien 2017.
6. De Beer and Koster 2009; UN HRC 2014a.
7. Chant 2008a.
8. Kabeer 2006. See also Mkandawire 2005.
9. Sen 2017; IWHC 2017.
10. UN General Assembly 2015.

CHAPTER 1

1. ILO 2017a.
2. Ibid.
3. Ortiz et al. 2015.
4. Ibid.
5. UN DESA 2010; Guajardo et al. 2011; Ortiz et al. 2015.
6. UN Women 2014a.
7. Ibid.
8. WBG and Rnymede Trust 2017.
9. Haroon 2015.
10. World Bank 2016.
11. WMO 2017.
12. ILO 2017a.
13. Mawarire et al. 2016.
14. Ibid.
15. SIPRI 2017.
16. UNHCR 2017a.
17. Ibid.
18. O'Neil et al. 2016.
19. The Partnership for Maternal, Newborn & Child Health 2015.
20. UNDP 2013b.
21. Fukuda-Parr 2016.
22. Razavi 2016.
23. UN General Assembly 2015.
24. For overview discussions on gender equality and the MDGs, see: Kabeer 2015a; Fukuda-Parr 2016; and Sen and Mukherjee 2014.
25. Fukuda-Parr and Yamin 2014.
26. Yamin and Boulanger 2014.
27. Antrobus 2006; Sen and Mukherjee 2014.
28. Sen 2017; IWHC 2017.
29. UN Women 2013.
30. Kabeer 2015b.
31. Sen and Mukherjee 2014.
32. Esquivel 2016.
33. UN General Assembly 2015, para. 4.
34. Kabeer 2016.
35. Davis 2008.
36. Crenshaw 1989; 1991.
37. Indian Institute of Dalit Studies 2013, cited in Paz Arauco et al. 2014.
38. ECLAC 2015.
39. UNESCO 2016a.
40. UNESCO 2010, p. 153.
41. Chant 2008a.
42. De Beer and Koster 2009; UN HRC 2014a.
43. UNRISD 2016.
44. Government of Australia 2016.
45. Panaretto et al. 2014.
46. Kabeer 2006. See also Mkandawire 2005.
47. Kabeer 2014.
48. OHCHR and CESR 2013.
49. UN General Assembly 2015, paras. 72 and 73.
50. The nine Major Groups focus on different themes, including business and industry; children and youth; farmers; indigenous peoples; local authorities; non-governmental organizations (NGOs); science and technology; women; workers and trade unions; persons with disabilities; volunteers; and ageing.
51. Razavi 2016.
52. UN HRC 2014b; Levien 2017.
53. Barrientos et al. 2004.
54. UN HRC 2014c.
55. OHCHR 2016a.
56. UN General Assembly 2015, para. 74 d and e.
57. UN DESA 2015a.
58. See, for example, John-Abraham and Senderowitsch 2003; and Arroyo and Sirker 2005.
59. DPO Australia 2017.
60. Civil Society Reflection Group on the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. 2017.
61. UN DESA 2017a.
62. UN DESA 2017b.
63. WILPF 2017.
64. Dayringer 2015.
65. UN DESA 2017a.
66. See, for example: CESR 2017; Feminist Alliance for Rights 2017; and WEDO 2017.
67. See, for example, Civil Society Working Group for the 2030 Agenda 2017, which in its review of SDG 5 showed that government spending on services for women who experience violence had been cut by 61% between 2016 and 2017.
68. Zwingel 2016; Domínguez-Redondo 2012.
69. Together 2030 and World Vision 2017; CESR 2017; Bianco 2017.
70. Domínguez-Redondo 2012.
71. ECLAC 2016.
72. Sarwar 2015.
73. Evans forthcoming.
74. Sepúlveda 2017.
75. Ibid.
76. UN DESA 2016, Chapter 4.
77. Ministry of Economic Development and Trade of Ukraine 2017; UN Women 2016a.
78. Together 2030 and World Vision 2017.
79. Franzway and Fonow 2011.
80. Eyben and L. Turquet 2013.
81. UN ECOSOC 2015a.
82. UN Women 2015a.
83. Swiss Federal Council 2016.

84. Ibid.
85. Ibid., p. 38.
86. UN DESA undated.
87. UN ECOSOC 2015a, para. 60.
88. CHRC undated.
89. See, for example, Australian Human Rights Commission 2014.
90. See, for example, UNFPA, Danish Institute for Human Rights and OHCHR 2014, cited in Sepúlveda 2017.
91. See Nirere 2012, cited in Sepúlveda 2017.
92. Khan 2016; UN 2017a.
93. UN General Assembly 2015, para. 74g.
9. UNSD 2013.
10. WHO and UNICEF 2017a
11. See: UN Women 2015b.
12. The arguments for monitoring economic growth, health, inclusive and sustainable industrialization and environmental sustainability from a gender perspective were voiced during the open civil society consultation in February–May 2015 (see UNSD 2015), but ultimately the final decision on indicators did not result in their inclusion, as evidenced by the lack of gender-specific indicators in these important areas.
13. See: UNSD 2017c.
14. While some data are available, not enough countries produce data to be able to come up with global and regional aggregates.
15. UNSD 2017c.
16. The assessment of data availability is for the period 2000 to 2015, using a July 2017 revision of the SDG data repository. The year 2000 is used as the baseline year for this assessment, which asks whether data are available for the given indicator at any point since 2000. The findings represent data availability per indicator across a total of 208 countries and territories. For a country-by-country breakdown of available data for gender-specific indicators (see Annex Table 2).
17. UN ECOSOC 2015a; UN Women 2017a.
18. UN ECOSOC 2017c.
19. UNFPA Population and Development Branch and Gender, Human Rights and Culture Branch 2014. Depending on the context, the term ‘head of household’ refers to the individual in the household who is the chief economic provider, the chief decision-maker and/or the person designated by other members as the head. The definition differs across countries. However, even when the definition is adequate, criteria used by interviewers may not be clear, leaving room for interpretation that conforms to stereotypes that designate the man in the household as the person in authority and de-facto ‘head’, as seen in Hedman et al. 1996.
20. Okoye 2017. Data on individual household members are often collected through proxy respondents who are identified as either the head of the household or the most knowledgeable person about the topic of concern in the household. To the extent that there is limited or imperfect information sharing among household members, it is likely that data collected through these methods will be flawed even when the respondent is not intending to withhold information. The Evidence and Data for Gender Equality (EDGE) programme has found significant discrepancies between women and men if data are collected from proxy respondents compared to self-reports. See: UNSD 2017e.
21. Fox and Pimhidzai 2013; Buvinic and Levine 2016.
22. Comblon and Robilliard 2015.
23. Better training and improved awareness about violence against women can result in higher reporting of violence by respondents. While such increases point to improved data quality, they pose challenges for trend analysis (see Chapter 3, Target 5.2). See: Ellsberg and Heise 2005.
24. UN DESA 2014.
25. On 6 March 2015, at its forty-sixth session, the United Nations Statistical Commission created the High-level Group for Partnership, Coordination and Capacity-Building (HLG-PCCB) for statistics for the 2030 Agenda. The group is composed of Member States, as well as including regional and international agencies as observers, and aims to establish a global partnership for sustainable development data, including through the launch of a Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data. The Cape Town Global Action Plan for Sustainable Development Data builds on the call for a “data revolution” first made by a report by the High-level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Development Agenda (HLP) in 2013. This is described as the process by which statistics are fully integrated into decision-making, increased support for statistical systems is provided and open access to and use of data is promoted. See: HLP 2013; UNSD 2017f.
26. WHO 2013.
27. Alkire and Samman 2014.
28. Nicolai et al. 2015.
29. The assessment of data availability is for the period 2000 to 2015, using a July 2017 revision of the SDG data repository. The year 2000 is used as the baseline year for this assessment, which asks whether data are available for the given indicator at any point since 2000.
30. Republic of the Union of Myanmar 2014. The Rohingya are a majority Muslim ethnic group from the Rakhine state in Myanmar. Their systematic omission from the 2014 census is a symptom of their extreme persecution in the country, including denial of citizenship and restrictions on education and employment. The situation has deteriorated since August 2017 after attacks from the Arakan Rohingya Salvation Army on the Myanmar security forces. As of 20 November 2017, the ensuing violence and human rights

- violations have forced an estimated 622,000 Rohingya to flee to neighbouring Bangladesh, resulting in the world's fastest developing refugee emergency. See: UNHCR 2017b.
31. ECOSOC 2012; 2015a.
 32. UN General Assembly 1995.
 33. See, for example, UN CEDAW 1989a; 1989b; 1990; 1991; and 1992.
 34. See, for example, UNECE and World Bank 2010; UN 2015b; and UNFPA Population and Development Branch and Gender, Human Rights and Culture Branch 2014. Worth mentioning also is UNSD 2014.
 35. For more information on this programme, see UN Women undated.
 36. In September 2017, following an independent selection process, UN Women announced that the following countries have been selected: five—Bangladesh, Kenya, Morocco, Senegal and Uganda—for immediate implementation starting in 2017; and an additional seven—Albania, Cameroon, Colombia, Jordan, Nepal, Sierra Leone and United Republic of Tanzania—in 2018 should additional funding become available.
 37. DataKind 2013.
 38. UN General Assembly 2014a.
 39. Data2x 2014.
 40. Craig and Ludloff 2011.
 41. OHCHR 2016b.
 42. The fundamental principles of official statistics, endorsed in January 2014 by the United Nations General Assembly, are used as a basic framework that all statistical activities developed by national and international organizations must follow in recognizing official statistics as a public good. See: UN General Assembly 2014b.
 43. UN ECOSOC 2011a.
 44. Lozano 2010.
 45. Stuart et al. 2015.
 46. Hogan et al. 2016.
 47. See: Safecity: Pin the Creeps undated.
 48. Equal Measures 2030 undated.
 49. Detail based on discussions with Philippine Statistics Authority.
 50. Detail based on discussions with UN Women's Uganda Country Office.
 51. UNSD 2017g.
 52. UNSD 2017f.
- ### CHAPTER 3
1. See, for example, Barrientos and DeJong 2006; Blumberg 2005; Kabeer 2003; Quisumbing 2003; Kabeer and Natali 2012; Kabeer et al. 2013.
 2. Evidence of this association is available for some regions. See: WHO et al. 2013.
 3. Ibid.
 4. WHO 1997.
 5. UNICEF 2016a.
 6. UN General Assembly 2013.
 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 2006; 2008b; Green 2010.
 9. See discussions in Chant 2006; Lampietti and Stalker 2000.
 10. World Bank 2017a.
 11. The femininity index is calculated as follows: Σ (female in poor households), / $(\Sigma$ (male in poor households), / Σ (female in all households), / $(\Sigma$ (male in all households)). Values above 103 indicate that women and girls are overly represented among the poorest.
 12. See: Nieuwenhuis et al. Forthcoming.
 13. Global estimates of poverty in 2013, covering a larger set of countries, put the number of people living below US\$1.90 a day at 767 million. Data by sex for this global estimate are not available, however. Estimates presented here for 89 countries are derived from World Bank calculations using Global Micro Database (GMD) 2017. See: Buitrago et al. Forthcoming.
 14. Due to limited population coverage, regional aggregates are not available for all SDGs regions.
 15. UN Women 2014b.
 16. Brody 2016.
 17. FAO et al. 2017, Annex Table A.1.2. The figure refers to the number of undernourished, for the entire world, as an average for the 2014–2016 period.
 18. Maggio et al. 2015.
 19. UN Women analysis based on FIES data, disaggregated by sex. The FIES survey measures food insecurity experienced by the respondent or the respondent's household as a whole. Food insecurity is defined within the instrument as the inability to access food due to lack of money or other resource constraints.
 20. Asres et al. 2014; Ghattas 2014.
 21. See: WHO 2015a. Recent data on anaemia prevalence among men do not allow for a global aggregate but, for reference purposes, 2008 data indicate that 12.7 per cent of men are anaemic. Food insecurity and cultural norms in relation to within-household food distribution are likely to contribute to observed gender disparity.
 22. Based on an analysis by UN Women of data for 57 countries using the most recent Demographic and Health Surveys.
 23. FAO 2017a.
 24. Ibid.
 25. WHO et al. 2015.
 26. WHO 2016a.
 27. WHO et al. 2015.
 28. Sofer 2016.
 29. Say et al. 2014.
 30. WHO 2016b.
 31. UNICEF 2017b.
 32. UNSD 2017i.
 33. Horon 2005.
 34. See: WHO undated.
 35. Hill and King 1995; World Bank 2011a; UN ECOSOC 2015a.
 36. UNESCO 2017b; UN HRC 2012.
 37. UNESCO 2014.
 38. Data based on the adjusted net enrolment rate for primary school, which measures enrolment across levels. See: UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2017a.
 39. UNESCO 2016b.
 40. Ibid.
 41. Data based on the net enrolment rate for secondary school. See: UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2017a.
 42. Cross-country evidence from Eastern and South-eastern Asia, for example, shows underperformance in education among boys. See: UNGEI 2012.
 43. UNESCO 2016c.
 44. UN OSAGI and Secretariat of the UNPII 2010; Vinding and Kampbel 2012.
 45. World Bank 2015; UNSD 2017h.
 46. UNICEF 2017c.
 47. Ibid.
 48. UNESCO et al. 2015; UNGEI 2014.
 49. Cantor et al. 2015.
 50. UN DESA Division for Social Policy and Development 2013.
 51. Luoma et al. 2011.

52. UN HRC 2016.
53. UNICEF 2014b; 2016b.
54. Comparable data on child marriage are not available for China, which is therefore excluded from the Eastern and South-eastern Asia regional average.
55. A percentage point of 0 indicates that marriage rates before 15 are very low for Europe and Northern America, though by no means are they non-existent.
56. UNFPA 2012.
57. Refers to child marriage (before age 18), using 2013 DHS for Namibia, 2010 DHS for Rwanda and 2006/07 for Swaziland.
58. Refers to child marriage (before age 18), using 2011 DHS data for Ethiopia and 2012 DHS for Indonesia.
59. Refers to child marriage (before age 18), using 2011 DHS data for Ethiopia.
60. UNICEF 2016c.
61. UN Women analysis based on data for the following time period: Central African Republic (1995–2010); Egypt (1995–2015); Eritrea (1995–2010); Kenya (1998–2014).
62. UNICEF 2016a.
63. Based on a sub-sample of 29 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean and developed regions, as well as data for South Africa. See Mukherjee forthcoming.
64. Based on data for 13 countries. See: *ibid.*
65. ILO 2016a.
66. USAID 2015; Morris 2016; Beaman et al. 2012; Gonzalez et al. 2015; Chattopadhyay and Duflo 2004.
67. ILO 2015a.
68. Figures as of 1 September 2017. See: IPU 2017a.
69. IPU 2017b.
70. Dani and de Haan 2008.
71. UBOS et al. 2017.
72. Based on latest ILOSTAT data (2009–2016) for 75 countries. See: ILO 2017b.
73. UN Women calculations based on *ibid.*
74. The International Labour Organization (ILO) developed ISCO and defines it as “a system for classifying and aggregating occupational information obtained by means of statistical censuses and surveys, as well as from administrative records.” See: ILO 2012.
75. WHO 2014a.
76. UN Women analysis of latest available DHS for 65 countries.
77. UNFPA undated.
78. Based on the latest available data for 104 countries. Data are collected through national agricultural censuses and can be found at <http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/en/>. The agricultural holder is the civil or juridical person who makes the major decisions regarding resource use and exercises management control over the agricultural holding. An agricultural holding is an economic unit of agricultural production under single management comprising all livestock kept and all land used wholly or partly for agricultural production purposes, without regard to title, legal form or size (see: FAO 2015). SDG indicator 5.a.1 is more specific in scope as it focuses on ownership and tenure rights over agricultural land; therefore, the distribution of agricultural holders by sex can only be used as a proxy to have a broader understanding of gender-based disparities in the agricultural sector.
79. FAO 2010.
80. For further information on 5.a.1 and 5.a.2 methodological development, see IAEG–SDG meetings page (<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/meetings>), documents submitted for indicator 5.a.1 and 5.a.2 and the SDG indicators metadata repository (<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/metadata/>).
81. UN Women 2017b.
82. ITU 2017b.
83. ITU 2017a.
84. In Egypt and Jordan, women reported the practice of men randomly dialling numbers in the hope of reaching a woman as one of the forms of harassment experienced. See: GSMA 2015.
85. UN Women 2017b.
86. The pilot countries were: Albania, Austria, Bangladesh, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Ethiopia, Jordan, Macedonia, Mali, Mexico, Morocco, Nepal, Republic of Korea, Timor-Leste and Uganda.
87. UN General Assembly 2010.
88. WHO and UNICEF 2017b.
89. WHO 2014b.
90. O’Hanlon 2014.
91. UN HRC 2009, para 51; UN ECOSOC 2011b.
92. WHO and UNICEF 2017a.
93. *Ibid.*
94. Based on estimates of unsafely managed (open defecation, unimproved, limited, and basic) sanitation services, as there is insufficient data in sub-Saharan Africa and Oceania regions to estimate safely managed services. See: *Ibid.*
95. UN Women 2015c.
96. WHO and UNICEF 2017c.
97. UN Women calculation based on 2011 Benin DHS survey.
98. WHO and UNICEF 2017b.
99. See, for example, the UNICEF MICS6 household survey questionnaires, which have been updated for SDG monitoring (UNICEF 2018).
100. 2012 data. See: UN DESA 2017d.
101. While data disaggregated by location and wealth are available for this measure and are presented in this section, monitoring access to clean fuels requires going beyond ‘use of solid fuels for cooking’. Other polluting forms of energy, including unprocessed coal and kerosene, are widely used in the home for lighting and heating and relevant for addressing household air pollution. The type of device or technology used for cooking, lighting and heating is also relevant for the health and well-being of individuals in the home. See section on measurement challenges.
102. WHO 2016c.
103. Kammila et al. 2014, cited in WHO 2016d.
104. UNCTAD 2017.
105. Duflo 2012; Hansford 2016.
106. UN Women analysis based on ILO 2017b. Refers to LFPR among women and men aged 25–54.
107. Gender gaps in LFPR are measured as the differentials between the male labour force participation rate and the female labour force participation rate.
108. See: World Bank 2012.
109. Women, for example, are much more likely than men to work as contributing unpaid family workers in household farms and family-based enterprises.
110. ILO 2016a.
111. UN Women 2015c.
112. *Ibid.*
113. UNRISD 2010.
114. UN 1999.
115. UN Women 2015c.
116. UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2017b.
117. *Ibid.*
118. For comprehensive surveys of the relevant literature, see: World Bank 2011a and Duflo 2012.
119. Lakner and Milanovic 2016.
120. IMF 2007.
121. OECD 2017b.
122. UNDP 2013a.
123. See: Malghan and Swaminathan 2016
124. UN, UN DESA, Population Division 2016.
125. UN-Habitat 2013.

126. UN 2017b.
127. UN Women forthcoming; Chen 2016; UN-Habitat 2016.
128. UN-Habitat 2013.
129. UN 2017c.
130. More than 80 per cent of women live in slums. For the purpose of this analysis, countries are considered to have widespread slum housing among urban women if more than 80 per cent of women live in slums.
131. UNSD 2017j.
132. The Lancet 2017.
133. Poushter 2015.
134. Ibid.
135. Sweden: Johansson-Stenman 2002; Germany and South Africa: Peters 2013; Gernetzky 2016; World Bank et al. 2015.
136. Peters 2013.
137. For further evidence of the inequality of 'travel choice', see: Levy 2013.
138. 10YFP Secretariat 2013.
139. UNDP 2013c.
140. 2015 estimate. See: ILO 2016a.
141. See: ILO 2017b.
142. Nelson et al. 2009, reproduced in Agarwal 2014.
143. Agarwal 2016a.
144. Doss 2010.
145. IUCN undated.
146. UNEP 2016.
147. Neumayer and Pluemper 2007.
148. FAO 2016a.
149. FAO 2016b.
150. FAO 2017c.
151. MacNeil and Ghosh 2017.
152. FAO 2016c.
153. Monfort 2016.
154. FAO 2016a.
155. UNEP-WCMC et al. Undated. The IUCN Green List of Protected and Conserved Areas is a new global standard for protected areas that aims to improve the contribution of equitably governed and effectively managed protected areas to sustainable development.
156. See: Agarwal 2010, Chapter 2.
157. See: UN DESA 2017c.
158. This figure does not capture the large proportion of indigenous forest turned yearly into woodlands, which further aggravates biodiversity loss.
159. See: FAO undated.
160. Ibid.
161. Oxfam 2011; Levien 2017.
162. See: White and White 2012; Li 2015.
163. See: Agarwal 2009.
164. UN Women 2011.
165. UNODC undated.
166. Latest available estimates on the percentage of homicide victims that are female date from 2010–2012 for most countries. To provide an accurate global figure in line with the percentages, the 2010 total number of homicide victims has been used as population weight. More up-to-date female homicide rates are available from national surveys in select countries. In some cases, the more recent national surveys (using different methodology) show higher rates. However, these are not presented here due to comparability limitations across countries.
167. UN Women 2011.
168. UNODC 2013.
169. Law enforcement authorities may collect and store detailed information on crime events, victims and perpetrators, including sex, age and relationship, but this wealth of information is much less frequently translated into statistical data through the use of harmonized concepts and statistical processes, and the detail is often lacking from national registries. See: UNODC 2013.
170. Based on information from 29 donors. Not all activities have been screened against the gender marker. An estimated US\$8 billion in ODA was not screened by gender and thus is not reflected in the figures above. See: OECD 2017a.
171. See: Development Initiatives 2017.
172. Rabie 2018.
173. Total outflows refers to net recorded and unrecorded transfers in 2012, including: (+) 1.3 trillion received (-) 1.6 trillion sent in recorded transfers and (-) 1.7 trillion in unrecorded capital flight and trade misinvoicing, for a net outflow of US\$2.0 trillion. See: Centre for Applied Research et al. 2015.
5. World Bank 2015.
6. Denmark, Spain, Hungary, Russian Federation and Serbia are exceptions to this pattern. See: Nieuwenhuis et al. Forthcoming.
7. Ibid. In the case of the United States, historical inequalities and discrimination associated with race exacerbate these statistics. In 2010, Hispanic and African American single mothers had poverty rates of 50.3 per cent and 47.1 per cent, respectively—significantly higher than the national poverty rate at the time of 15.1 per cent. See: Kerby 2012.
8. Analysis includes divorced women both with and without children. See: UN Women and World Bank forthcoming.
9. UN Women 2017c: 44.
10. U.S. Department of Education OCR 2014a.
11. U.S. Department of Education OCR 2014b.
12. IOM 2013.
13. O'Neil et al. 2016.
14. Crenshaw 2016.
15. Sen and Iyer 2012. The study found striking similarities between non-poor women and poor men in key health outcomes, including rates of non-treatment when ill, treatment discontinuation and treatment continuation, and the amounts they spent for treatment when ill.
16. Completion rates are 28 percentage points lower for women that married before age 18 compared to women that married after 18.
17. Roy et al. 2008: 72–73.
18. The DHS are specifically designed to provide data on fertility and family planning, childhood mortality, maternal and child health, women's and children's nutritional status, women's empowerment, domestic violence and knowledge of HIV and AIDS. This information is collected on women and girls aged 15–49. Very occasionally, a questionnaire is also administered to men asking for relevant information about the well-being of men in the household and their perceptions about domestic violence.
19. In addition to pregnant women, those who are less than three months post-partum are also excluded from this portion of the analysis. The BMI is an index of weight-for-height, commonly used to classify adults as underweight, overweight or obese. It is defined as the weight in kilograms divided by the square of the height in metres (kg/m²). See: WHO 2018.
20. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel is measured among women who had children in the five years preceding the survey. In the case of Nigeria and Pakistan, the question regarding having a say in own health-care

CHAPTER 4

1. The protection of human subjects from possible harm in the collection of data and participation in research is well established, particularly in the developed region context. See: Gostin 1991.
2. See UN System CEB 2017.
3. Van de Walle 2013.
4. UN CEDAW 2013.

- decisions is asked of currently married or cohabitating women and girls only. In Colombia, the sample is all women and girls aged 13–49.
21. This refers to women aged 18–49 who reported having had a child before the age of 18. Note that this indicator differs from the official SDG indicator 3.7.2 (adolescent birth rate), which focuses on women and girls who delivered a child between ages 10–14 and 15–19.
 22. SDG 4 refers to access to education that is of quality, inclusive and equitable. Quality, however, is not captured in the DHS and therefore the case studies only present information on inequality in access.
 23. See: UNESCO 2010.
 24. In the case of the United States, the specific variable used is “proportion of women aged 18–49 who did not obtain a High School Diploma”. This also captures women aged 18–49 who attended the last year of high school but did not obtain a diploma.
 25. The official SDG indicator on child marriage focuses on women aged 20–24; however, restricting the sample to this age group for multi-level disaggregation analysis would yield an insufficient sample size and therefore the full DHS sample (women and girls aged 15–49, and 13–49 in the case of Colombia) is used. Moreover, due to difference in treatment of missing values, the figures presented in the chapter may vary slightly from DHS reported estimates.
 26. Home Internet subscription, while widespread in the United States, is not universal. The impact of this inequality affects many dimensions of well-being, including access to employment, information on public services and, for young children, increasingly contributes to inequality in education outcomes (see: Howard 2015).
 27. Access to basic water services is defined as being able to access an improved water source within a short distance from residence (i.e., 30 minutes or less in collection time, round trip). Access to basic sanitation services is defined as being able to access an improved sanitation facility that is not shared with other households. Access to clean cooking fuel is defined as use of fuels that meet emission rate targets and are aligned with the normative World Health Organization (WHO) guidance for indoor air quality.
 28. The full sample is used for this portion of the analysis: in the case of Colombia this refers to proportion of women and girls aged 13–49 living in households lacking access to basic household level services, while in Nigeria and Pakistan this refers to proportion of women and girls aged 15–49.
 29. In many poor households, people live, sleep, cook and work in one single room. Thus, the question does not refer to bedrooms but instead asks about the number of rooms used for sleeping and
 - number of persons per room used for sleeping.
 30. The analysis presented in this chapter focuses on women and girls belonging to one or more of the subgroups represented in Box 4.3 but, as Figure 4.1 illustrates, many other forms of discrimination exist and their relevance varies depending on the context.
 31. The total personal earned income variable is used to assess individual level differences in average income. However, because the ACS is mainly focused on yearly income and does not include a readily constructed measure of wealth, the total household income variable is used instead to construct a proxy variable for wealth distribution. Wealth quintiles are defined according to official cut-off values published by the U.S. Census Bureau 2016a. These values have been adjusted to 2014 USD to ensure purchasing power parity (PPP) between the wealth variable and ACS income data. PPP adjustments were made using US official Consumer Price Index (CPI) conversion factors.
 32. Even among rather homogeneous societies, slight differences in dialect and region-specific culture can sometimes be a basis for location-based division and exclusion.
 33. Only ethnic groups with sample sizes larger than 1,000 observations were considered for the analysis.
 34. The DHS asks questions related to children’s well-being and, in some cases, collect information on men. However, for this analysis the indicators of interest were primarily available for women and girls.
 35. Not all individual level indicators in the radar charts are used for the cluster portion of the analysis because of sample size limitations. For example, BMI, adolescent births and intimate partner violence are not included because these are not collected for all women in the sample.
 36. For the cluster analysis, deprivation is defined in binary terms. For example, for child marriage the respondent is considered deprived in this dimension if she is married before the age of 18 and not deprived if she was married after age 18.
 37. In Nigeria and Pakistan, the question regarding no say in own health care is asked only of currently married or cohabitating women and thus the cluster analysis is based on a sub-set of women that were currently married and cohabitating at the time of the survey.
 38. Differences in mean between rural poorest and poorest are not statistically significant.
 39. IWPR 2015; NPC et al. 2014; MINSALUD and Profamilia 2015; NIPS and ICF International 2013.
 40. Whitney 2017; Call et al. 2006.
 41. The sample of Afro-Colombian and indigenous in the richest urban households is too small to derive an estimate (see the case study box on group characteristics). Large overall disparities on use of clean fuels exist in Colombia between urban and rural households (0.7 per cent of urban households lack access to clean fuels, while 48.9 per cent of rural households do).
 42. Pakistan Bureau of Statistics 2017.
 43. Pakistan Bureau of Statistics undated.
 44. The 2012–2013 Pakistan DHS was designed to provide reliable estimates of key fertility, family planning, maternal and child health indicators at the national, provincial and urban and rural levels. The sample represented the population excluding Azad Jammu and Kashmir, FATA and restricted military and protected areas. It consisted of all urban and rural areas of the four provinces of Pakistan and Gilgit Baltistan, defined as such in the 1998 Population Census. In Balochistan, Islamabad and Gilgit Baltistan, urban areas were oversampled and proportions were adjusted by applying sampling weights during the analysis.
 45. Estimates for Urdu-speaking women and girls in the poorest rural households were not possible due to the low sample size (see box on group characteristics above).
 46. Farhan and Sattar Abbasi 2013; Begum Sadaqat and Ali Sheik 2011.
 47. The case study analysis evaluates well-being in 10 SDG-related dimensions (see Figure 4.10). Six of these are at the individual level: BMI, skilled attendance at birth, no say in own health, six years of education or less, child marriage and employment status. Skilled attendance at birth and BMI, however, were not collected for the full DHS sample and are thus excluded in this portion of the analysis due to sample size constraints. No say in own health care decisions is only collected of women and girls currently married or cohabitating. Therefore, in the case of Pakistan, the clustered analysis refers to the sample of women 18–49 currently married or cohabitating at time of survey.
 48. Between the four largest ethnic groups, the Muslim Hausa and Fulani are largely concentrated in the northern region of the country, the Igbo live mainly in the southeast and the Yoruba mostly in the southwest.
 49. Pew Forum on Religion and Public Life 2012.
 50. The target groups were women and men aged 15–49 in randomly selected households across the country. The sample for the 2013 Nigerian DHS was nationally representative and covered the entire population residing in non-institutional dwelling units. In addition to national estimates, the data enable estimates of key indicators for both rural and urban areas, the 6 geopolitical zones, the 36 states

- and the Federal Capital Territory. The survey used as a sampling frame the list of enumeration areas prepared for the 2006 Population Census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, provided by the National Population Commission.
51. Data by ethnicity are presented only for ethnic groups for which a sample was sufficiently large to produce disaggregated statistics (i.e., greater than 1,000). Of the more than 250 ethnic groups in Nigeria, most comprise only small numbers. For instance, the Ibibio, Ijaw, Kanuri and Tiv each account for only 2 per cent of the population.
 52. Estimates for poorest rural Igbo and poorest rural Yoruba are not possible due to small sample size.
 53. The indicator 'not employed' does not differentiate between respondents that voluntarily opted out of the labour force, those that are pushed into low quality and low pay work due to poverty and those that are seeking but unable to find employment due to discrimination and other factors. For this reason, in some cases, rates of not employed are high among richest urban and poorest rural households alike: for example, while 50.5 per cent of poorest rural Fulani women are not employed, the figure among richest urban Hausa is similarly large: 48.0 per cent.
 54. The conflict in the northeast of the country, where a large share (49 per cent) of the Fulani live, could be a contributing factor to the in-equality in education outcomes and their greater deprivation than the Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba.
 55. Only ethnic groups where the sampled population was higher than 100 were considered for the analysis.
 56. The differences in child marriage rates between Hausa and Fulani women and girls who live in the poorest rural households are statistically significant at the 1 per cent level.
 57. Overall, 14.3 per cent of richest urban Yoruba women and girls were married before the age of 18. The corresponding figure is lower for those that identify as Christian (12.6 per cent) and higher among those that identify as Muslim (16.5 per cent).
 58. Propensity to disclose incidence of violence may be different among different groups. The differences reported, therefore, may not be reflective of actual differences in incidence and instead reflect willingness/unwillingness to disclose the violence experienced.
 59. The case study analysis evaluates well-being in 10 SDG-related dimensions, see Figure 4.15. Six of these are at the individual level (see note 47). Skilled attendance and BMI, however, were not collected for the full DHS sample and are thus excluded in this portion of the analysis due to sample size constraints. No say in own health-care decisions is only collected of women and girls currently married or cohabitating. Therefore, in the case of Nigeria, the clustered analysis refers to the sample of women 18-49 currently married or cohabitating at time of survey.
 60. Information on the Rom was collected for the first time in the 2005 Census. The DHS, however, did not have information on this ethnic group. See: DANE 2007.
 61. UNHCR 2017c.
 62. In Colombia, 99 per cent of the richest households are in urban areas; in contrast, only 12 per cent of the poorest live in urban areas.
 63. Rates of childbirth before age 18 among indigenous and Afro-Colombian women and girls are similar: 25.2 and 24.0 per cent, respectively. The difference between the two means is not statistically significant.
 64. Afro-Colombian women are 8.5 per cent of the sample but only 4.9 per cent of women in the richest urban households. Thus while wealth and location advantages mitigate risk in this dimension, for the vast majority of Afro-Colombian women these advantages are out of reach.
 65. UNHCR 2017c.
 66. This is despite the fact that, based on DHS data, Afro-Colombian and indigenous women and girls make up only a small share of the Colombian population as a whole at 10 and 5 per cent, respectively.
 67. Sample size for IDPs by ethnicity is less than 100. Estimates should be interpreted with caution.
 68. The case study analysis evaluates well-being in 10 SDG-related dimensions, see Figure 4.20. Six of these are at the individual level. Skilled attendance and adolescent births, however, were not collected for the full DHS sample and are thus excluded in this portion of the analysis due to sample size constraints.
 69. Although there is a strong correlation between child marriage and education poverty, correlation between no say and child marriage and education poverty is near zero and 0.11, respectively.
 70. U.S. Census Bureau 2016b.
 71. In the United States, Hispanic/Latino is understood as an ethnicity category based on language and culture, and thus people of any race can identify as Hispanic. For the purpose of this analysis, figures presented disaggregated by race exclude those who identify as Hispanics, while figures for Hispanics include people of any race.
 72. U.S. Census Bureau 2017.
 73. Although black women have the highest unemployment rate (8.9 per cent), Native American/Alaska Native and Hispanic women were more likely to be simultaneously not employed and not in the labour force at the time of the survey.
 74. IWPR 2015; NPC (National Population Commission).
 75. To be consistent with the other case studies, the analysis focuses on women who reported 'not working' at the time of the survey. This is different from being unemployed, which is defined in the United States as people who are jobless but looking for a job and available for work. Discouraged workers, or people who did not search for work in the four weeks preceding the survey, are excluded from unemployment calculations. In 2015, the unemployment rate stood at roughly 5 per cent nationwide, with similar rates for women and men. This figure does not capture those who have given up looking for work or remain outside the labour force for other reasons.
 76. While not large in magnitude, the differences are statistically significant at the 1 per cent level.
 77. The figure was 30.5 in the case of men in the same age group.
 78. OECD undated.
 79. Different indicators have been used for the multi-dimensional deprivation analysis in the United States as the country characteristics render indicators such as access to water and clean cooking fuels irrelevant. See section on Approach for full description of indicators selected.
 80. Black women are more likely than white women to not complete high school. However, Hispanic and Native American/Alaska Native women are more likely to be out of work and lack health insurance at the same time. In other words, the association between lacking employment and having no health insurance is weaker for black women, rendering Native American/Alaska Native and Hispanic women significantly more likely to be classified as simultaneously deprived.
 81. Stuart et al. 2015.
 82. For example, countries participating in the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) are given the option to include questions on ethnicity, religion or language. Most governments have chosen not to include these questions. See: Stuart et al. 2015.
 83. Altman 2016.
 84. Mont 2007.
 85. Mitra and Sambamoorthi 2014.
 86. WHO 2011.
 87. The data are for 27 European Union countries from European Commission 2017.
 88. Mitra and Sambamoorthi 2014.
 89. Hughes et al. 2012.
 90. Ibid.
 91. Disabled vs non-disabled comparisons are

possible within countries using these data but, because not all countries used WG questions in their censuses, comparing the absolute percentages across countries is discouraged.

92. As stated earlier, censuses are typically only conducted every 10 years, thus survey data are still essential.
93. IOM undated.
94. UN DESA 2009; 2015b.
95. Benería et al. 2012.
96. UNHCR 2017a.
97. UNHCR 2017d.
98. Billsborrow 2016.
99. Juran and Snow 2016.
100. UNHCR 2016.
101. UN 2016.
102. UN DESA Statistics Division 2017.

CHAPTER 5

1. UN General Assembly 1993a; UN 1995; UN CEDAW 2017; UN CSW 2013.
2. UN General Assembly 1993b.
3. The UN CEDAW Committee (UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women) is the body of independent experts that monitors implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).
4. UN HRC 2013; 2014d.
5. UN General Assembly 1993a.
6. Manjoo 2012.
7. UN DESA 2014.
8. DAW/DESA 2010.
9. UN Statistical Commission 2009; UN CEDAW 1992; Morgan and Chadwick 2009.
10. World Bank 2015: 21.
11. UN DESA 2014.
12. UN 2000, Article 3 (a).
13. EUAFR 2014.
14. UN Women and UNDP 2017; Ballington forthcoming.
15. UN General Assembly 2006.
16. UNSD 2017a.
17. Htun and Weldon 2012.
18. WHO 2013b.
19. UNODC 2013.
20. WHO 2013b.
21. UN HRC 2011a; UN CEDAW 2017.
22. UN General Assembly 2017.
23. True 2012.
24. De la Puente 2014, cited in IASC and Global Protection Cluster 2015: 7.
25. UNHCR 2011, cited in IASC and Global Protection Cluster 2015: 8.
26. UN Security Council forthcoming.
27. Wood 2009.
28. UNICEF 2014.
29. See: Dziewanski et al. 2014; Omanyondo 2005.
30. True 2012.
31. WHO and London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine 2010.
32. Heise 2011.
33. Vyas and Watts 2009.
34. Agarwal 1997; Agarwal and Panda 2007.
35. Jewkes 2002.
36. Vyas and Watts 2009.
37. Krishnan et al. 2010.
38. Panda and Agarwal 2005.
39. Oduro et al. 2015.
40. Htun and Weldon 2012.
41. Weldon and Htun 2013.
42. UN Women 2012.
43. UN HRC 2014d.
44. UN Women 2012.
45. Office of the Head of State of Spain 2004.
46. INMUJERES 2015.
47. Democratic Republic of Timor-Leste 2010; UNDP 2013d.
48. The exceptions included Hong Kong (PoC), Norway, Puerto Rico, the United Kingdom and the United States.
49. World Bank 2017c.
50. Ibid.
51. UNDP 2013d.
52. World Bank 2015.
53. UN Women 2017d; 2017c.
54. Zachary et al. 2016.
55. World Bank 2017c.
56. UN Women 2017e.
57. UN Women 2017g.
58. UN Women 2014c. Additional detail based on subsequent discussions with UN Women's Egypt Country Office.
59. Hudson et al. 2011.
60. Flood 2010; Kaye and Tolmie 1998.
61. Sardenberg 2017.
62. Brickell 2017.
63. Vetten 2017.
64. Kelly 2013.
65. Southall Black Sisters undated.
66. OHCHR 2015.
67. The justice chain refers to the series of steps that must be taken to access justice through the formal state system; for a woman who has experienced violence, the chain consists of the processes and institutions she has to navigate in order to seek redress. See: UN Women 2011.
68. EUAFR 2014.
69. Weldon 2016.
70. UN Women 2011.
71. Walsh and Menjivar 2016.
72. Ibid.
73. Davis 2000, cited in Hall 2015.
74. UN Women 2011.
75. UN ECOSOC 2013.
76. UN Women with WHO, UNFPA, UNDP and UNODC 2015.
77. UN ECOSOC 2013.
78. Htun and Weldon 2012.
79. UN Women with WHO, UNFPA, UNDP and UNODC 2015.
80. WHO 2015c.
81. UN DESA 2013.
82. WHO 2013b:
83. UNFPA and HelpAge International 2012.
84. Cook et al. 2011.
85. Desmarais and Reeves 2007.
86. WHO Europe 2011.
87. Luoma et al. 2011.
88. See WHO 2002: "a single or repeated act, or lack of appropriate action, occurring within any relationship where there is an expectation of trust which causes harm or distress to an older person".
89. UN News Centre 2014.
90. UNFPA and HelpAge 2012.
91. See World Bank, Global Women's Institute, IDB and ICRW 2016.
92. Gordon 1987; Rapp-Paglicci and Dulmus 2005 – both cited in UN DESA 2013.
93. Graham 2014.
94. UN DESA 2013.
95. UN CEDAW 2017.
96. UNICEF 2014.
97. EFA/GMR et al. 2015; and UNGEI 2014.
98. Cantor et al. 2015.
99. UNICEF 2017d.

100. UNICEF 2014; 2017c; and Sumner et al. 2015.
101. Bruce 2011.
102. Ibid.
103. Together for Girls 2016.
104. Towers and Walby 2012.
105. Government of the United Kingdom 2016: 28.
106. WBG 2017.
107. Denney and Ibrahim 2012.
108. Judd et al. 2008.
109. Sardenberg 2017.
110. Ibid.
111. Judd et al. 2008.
112. Nicaragua has a much smaller population (5.8 million) than Brazil (207.4 million). See Walsh 2016.
113. Walsh 2016.
114. Heise 2011; Judd et al. 2008.
115. UN Women 2015c, Box 3.10.
116. Vetten 2015.
117. Ibid.
118. UN ECOSOC 2013.
119. UN General Assembly 2016.
120. Crenshaw 1991.
121. Our Watch, ANROWS and VicHealth 2015.
122. UN 2017d.
123. UN 2000, Article 3 (a).
124. UNODC 2009: 11–12.
125. UNODC 2016.
126. Ibid.
127. Ibid.
128. Kotiswaran 2014.
129. Blokhuis 2008; Grondona et al. 2016.
130. OHCHR and UNAIDS 2017.
131. Ellsberg et al. 2015.
132. Sasa is a Kiswahili word that means ‘now’.
133. Abramsky et al. 2014.
134. WHO 2016e; UN Women et al. 2017.
135. Shell–Duncan et al. 2013.
136. Khosla et al. 2017.
137. Berg and Denison 2013.
138. UN Women et al. 2017a; 2017b.
139. Jewkes et al. 2015.
140. Ibid.
141. Flood 2015.
142. Shell–Duncan et al. 2013.
143. Gillespie and Melchin 2010.
144. UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre 2010.
145. See Tostan 2017.
146. UN Women et al. 2015; Fulu et al. 2015.
147. Vetten 2017: 18.
148. Dyson 2012: 11.
149. Fulu et al. 2015.
150. Reza–Paul et al. 2012.
151. Chevrier et al. 2016.
152. Kotiswaran 2014.
153. Blanchard et al. 2013.
154. Reza–Paul et al. 2012.
155. UN DESA 2014.
- ## CHAPTER 6
1. Tronto 2013: 107.
2. UN General Assembly 2013; UN Women 2016b; Ilkkaracan forthcoming.
3. UN General Assembly 1995.
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. UN General Assembly 2013.
6. Ilkkaracan et al. 2015; ITUC 2017; Jackson 2009, Chapter 12.
7. UN Women 2015c.
8. UNIFEM 2000; Budlender 2010.
9. Budlender 2010; Hirway 2017.
10. Razavi 2007.
11. England et al. 2002; Duffy 2005.
12. Hernes 1987; Tronto 2013.
13. Budig and Misra 2010.
14. Razavi 2007.
15. Robson 2004.
16. Glaser et al. 2013; Bettio et al. 2006.
17. Charmes 2015. All the data in this paragraph are taken from this paper.
18. Bittman et al. 2003; Hook 2006.
19. Australian Bureau of Statistics 2013.
20. Patterson et al. 2004; Goldberg et al. 2012; Tornello et al. 2015.
21. UN Women 2015c, Figure 3.13.
22. US Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) 2015.
23. Hirway 2010.
24. Michel and Peng 2017; Williams 2017.
25. WHO 2015c.
26. Budlender 2010.
27. Akintola 2008.
28. Agarwal 2016b.
29. UN Women 2015c, Figure 2.2.
30. Woetzel et al. 2015.
31. Ilkkaracan forthcoming.
32. Ibid.
33. Ibid.; Antonopoulos et al. 2016; Zacharias et al. 2014.
34. Ilkkaracan forthcoming.
35. Elson 2009; Fälth and Blackden 2009.
36. It is also worth noting that policies redistributing care between women and men, or between women and childcare centres, are at the same time reducing the amount of time that women allocate to such work.
37. UN Women 2015c, Box 3.12; 2017f.
38. Koolwall and van der Walle 2013.
39. Fontana and Elson 2014.
40. UN 2015a.
41. WHO and UNICEF 2012, Figure 6.
42. Fontana and Elson 2014.
43. WHO and UNICEF 2017a.
44. Ibid.
45. WHO and UNICEF 2015.
46. UN 2014; Burt et al. 2016.
47. WHO and UNICEF 2015.
48. ICED 2017.
49. Hutton and Bartram 2008; UN Women 2014b, Chapter 6.
50. UNCTAD 2015.
51. Ibid.
52. IEG 2014.
53. Gunatilake and Carangal–San Jose 2008.
54. UNCTAD 2015; Lobina and Hall 2013.
55. UN General Assembly 2011.
56. UN Women 2014b, Chapter 6.
57. de Albuquerque with Roaf 2012.
58. Spotlight on Sustainable Development 2017.
59. de Albuquerque with Roaf 2012.
60. UN HRC 2011b: 7.
61. O’Hanlon 2014.
62. ‘Dalit’, which means oppressed in Sanskrit, is the term used to describe people from lower-caste backgrounds in India.
63. ADB et al. 2012; World Bank 2010a.
64. Hall and Lobina 2012.
65. Anenberg et al. 2013.
66. Sovacool 2012.
67. Ibid.

68. Ibid.
 69. Ibid.
 70. UN Women 2014b, Chapter 6.
 71. World Bank 2014.
 72. World Bank 2011b.
 73. UN Women 2014b, Chapter 6.
 74. Gunther 2016.
 75. UN Women 2014b, Chapter 6.
 76. World Bank 2014.
 77. Ibid.
 78. Ilkharacan forthcoming
 79. World Bank 2014: 15.
 80. Panagariya and Jain 2016.
 81. Del Boca 2015
 82. Ilkharacan et al. 2015; ITUC 2017.
 83. Ruhm and Waldfogel 2012; Yoshikawa and Kabay 2015; Pianta et al. 2009.
 84. UNESCO 2016d, Annex Table 4.
 85. Ibid. Based on Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS).
 86. OECD 2016a.
 87. Gambaro et al. 2014.
 88. UN Women 2015d.
 89. OECD 2006.
 90. UNESCO 2015.
 91. Atobrah and Kwansa 2017.
 92. OECD 2016a; Schweinhart et al. 2005; Ilkharacan et al. 2015; ITUC 2017.
 93. Engle et al. 2011.
 94. Stewart et al. 2014.
 95. Ibid.
 96. Chigateri 2017.
 97. Farias 2017.
 98. Velasco 2017.
 99. Daly 2015; Staab and Gerhard 2010; Velasco 2017.
 100. Alfars 2015.
 101. Chigateri 2017.
 102. Ellingsæter 2014.
 103. Atobrah and Kwansa 2017.
 104. Long-term care (LTC) is defined as “the activities undertaken by others to ensure that people with or at risk of a significant ongoing loss of intrinsic capacity can maintain a level of functional ability consistent with their basic rights, fundamental freedoms and human dignity” (WHO 2015c: 127).
 105. Scheil-Adlung 2015.
 106. WHO 2015c.
 107. Ibid.
 108. Ibid.
 109. Ibid.
 110. Ibid.
 111. Wood et al. 2005.
 112. Lloyd-Sherlock 2017.
 113. Scheil-Adlung 2015.
 114. Peng and Yeandle 2017.
 115. Abe 2010.
 116. Peng and Yeandle 2017.
 117. OECD 2005; World Bank 2010b.
 118. WHO 2015c.
 119. Scheil-Adlung 2015.
 120. Ibid.
 121. WHO 2015c.
 122. Ibid.
 123. Choo et al. 2003, cited in Lloyd-Sherlock 2017.
 124. Lloyd-Sherlock 2017.
 125. WHO 2015c.
 126. Ibid.
 127. Lloyd-Sherlock 2017.
 128. Ibid.
 129. Ibid.
 130. Scheil-Adlung 2015, Table 4.
 131. Bettio et al. 2006; Michel and Peng 2012; Peng and Yeandle 2017.
 132. OECD 2016b.
 133. Moss 2015.
 134. ILO 2014.
 135. Ibid.
 136. ILO 2016b.
 137. UN Women 2015c.
 138. ILO 2016b.
 139. Ibid.
 140. ILO 2015b.
 141. ILO 2016b.
 142. Chigateri 2017.
 143. Ibid.
 144. ILO 2016b; Ulrichs 2016.
- CREATING FISCAL SPACE FOR GENDER EQUALITY INVESTMENTS**
1. Schmidt-Traub and Sachs 2015.
 2. ILO 2008.
3. ILO 2015b.
 4. De Henau et al. 2016; De Henau et al. 2017; De Henau 2015.
 5. Methodology and calculations based on De Henau 2017. The costing exercise for South Africa was carried out by Debbie Budlender and for Uruguay by Fernando Filgueira and Rafael Mantero.
 6. De Henau 2017.
 7. UNRISD 2016.
 8. Balakrishnan et al. 2011.
 9. The list of options is adapted from Ortiz et al. 2017.
 10. Ortiz et al. 2017.
 11. Griffith-Jones and Persaud 2012; Burman et al. 2016.
 12. CESR and Christian Aid 2014.
 13. Ortiz et al. 2017.
 14. UN HRC 2014a.
 15. Barnett and Grown 2004; Inchauste and Lustig 2017.
 16. UNDP 2010.
 17. Ortiz et al. 2017.
 18. Ibid.
 19. UN Women 2015c.
 20. UN General Assembly 2014c.
 21. Khan 2016.
 22. OECD DAC GENDERNET 2015.
 23. ICRICT 2015; 2016.
 24. Spanjers and Fossil 2015.
 25. UN CEDAW 2015.
 26. Stiglitz and Pieth 2016.
 27. Ortiz et al. 2017; UN Women 2015c.
 28. de Renzio and Wehner 2015.
 29. UNRISD 2016.
 30. Elson 2006.
 31. Stotsky 2016.
 32. Perez Fragoso and Rodriguez Enriquez 2016.
 33. Stotsky et al. 2016.
 34. Stotsky 2016.
 35. United Nations Joint Programme on Gender Equality – Uganda 2014.
- ACTION AGENDA**
1. United Nations Global Compact and UN Women 2011.
 2. UN HRC 2014c.
 3. UN General Assembly 2015. 1, para. 74 d and e.

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UN WOMEN

UN Women is the UN organization dedicated to gender equality and the empowerment of women. A global champion for women and girls, UN Women was established to accelerate progress on meeting their needs worldwide.

UN Women supports UN Member States as they set global standards for achieving gender equality, and works with governments and civil society to design laws, policies, programmes and services needed to implement these standards. It stands behind women's equal participation in all aspects of life, focusing on five priority areas: increasing women's leadership and participation; ending violence against women; engaging women in all aspects of peace and security processes; enhancing women's economic empowerment; and making gender equality central to national development planning and budgeting. UN Women also coordinates and promotes the UN system's work in advancing gender equality.



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