PROGRESS ON THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS
THE GENDER SNAPSHOT 2019
More women than men live in poverty, especially during their peak childbearing years. Women and girls around the world are 4% more likely than men and boys to live in extreme poverty, and the risk rises to 25% for women aged 25 to 34.

Unequal power relations in households render women more vulnerable to food insecurity. Globally, women and girls around the world are 25% more vulnerable to food insecurity.

In the 30 countries where female genital mutilation (FGM) is concentrated, 1 in 3 girls aged 15 to 19 had been subjected to this harmful practice in 2017. Women spend 3x as many hours as men each day in unpaid care and domestic work.

In 2017, an estimated 3 billion people worldwide lacked clean cooking fuels and technologies. Girls in households that use solid fuels for cooking spend 18 hours a week gathering fuel, compared to 5 hours a week in households using clean fuels, according to data from 13 sub-Saharan African countries.

The labour force participation rate of women aged 25 to 54 is 55% versus 94% for men in the same age group.

About 18% of women and girls aged 15 to 49 have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner in the past 12 months. In the 30 countries where female genital mutilation (FGM) is concentrated, 1 in 3 girls aged 15 to 19 had been subjected to this harmful practice in 2017.

In 2018, only 27% of managerial positions worldwide were held by women. According to data from 61 countries, only 57% of women aged 15 to 49 who are married or in a union make their own decisions about sexual relations and the use of contraceptives and reproductive health services.

In the 30 countries where female genital mutilation (FGM) is concentrated, 1 in 3 girls aged 15 to 19 had been subjected to this harmful practice in 2017. Women spend 3x as many hours as men each day in unpaid care and domestic work.

An estimated 15 million girls and 10 million boys of primary-school age are out of school.

In 2018, an estimated 3 billion people worldwide lacked clean cooking fuels and technologies. Girls in households that use solid fuels for cooking spend 18 hours a week gathering fuel, compared to 5 hours a week in households using clean fuels, according to data from 13 sub-Saharan African countries.

Women are made vulnerable by discriminatory migration policies. An assessment of migration policies related to family reunification from 45 countries shows that 71% impose some restrictions on spouses and partners joining migrants in the host country. In other cases, women’s migration status is tied to a resident or citizen spouse, preventing them from living autonomous lives and heightening already unequal power relations and possible exposure to violence.

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LEAVE NO WOMAN OR GIRL BEHIND:
Why a multidimensional and multisectoral approach matters

Who is being left behind?

The ‘leave no one behind’ approach aims to identify not only who is left behind, but also the ways in which marginalization and exclusion are experienced. Analyses across countries of who is being left behind demonstrates that among the most disadvantaged are women and girls who face the compounded effects of gender-based and other forms of discrimination. The factors that contribute to women’s and girls’ disadvantage do not operate in isolation. Differences related to wealth, location and ethnicity, for instance, combine to create deep pockets of deprivation across a range of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)—from access to education and health care to clean water and decent work.

IN FOCUS

Inequality by wealth, location and ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PAKISTAN</th>
<th>COLOMBIA</th>
<th>NIGERIA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>40.6%</strong></td>
<td>women (aged 18 to 49) living in rural areas are <strong>UNDERNOURISHED</strong> compared to <strong>2.4%</strong></td>
<td><strong>55.4%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>99.4%</strong></td>
<td>more likely as those in <strong>urban areas</strong> to lack skilled health care during childbirth.</td>
<td><strong>99.4%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Why is data disaggregation across multiple dimensions important?

As the previous examples show, disaggregation by sex alone fails to adequately reflect the groups of women and girls who are most deprived. Identifying those furthest behind requires simultaneous disaggregation of data by multiple dimensions, including income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migration status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant to national contexts. Descriptive statistics for each of the subgroups should be accompanied by qualitative work to understand root causes—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.

What are the main challenges?

The socio-demographic characteristics of as many as 350 million people worldwide are not captured in traditional data sources. They include, for example, the homeless, people in institutions, nomadic populations, migrants and people living in areas hard to reach because of conflict or natural disaster. In many countries, little or no information is collected on persons with disabilities, on racial, ethnic and religious minorities or on gender identity. Even when these subgroups are included in surveys, the sampling may not be stratified. This can make it unsuitable for capturing information about various groups and challenging to draw robust conclusions. Fulfilling the principle of leaving no one behind will require expanding the data on these and other vulnerable groups that have traditionally been invisible in official statistics.

HOW CAN THESE CHALLENGES BE ADDRESSED?

Countries have committed to identifying marginalized populations and to reporting baseline statistics and progress among these groups. Doing so on a regular basis and disseminating these findings widely is essential for ensuring that this information is used by advocates and policymakers to inform political discourse and bring about needed change.

INVESTING IN DATA: Investment is urgently needed to ensure that high-quality, timely and disaggregated data are available to inform decision-making on all aspects of the SDGs. Increased flows of domestic and international resources and political commitment to national data and statistical systems are imperative.

GATHERING DATA: Given that deprivations tend to co-produce and ‘cluster’ together, identifying the ways in which groups and subgroups are left behind requires a multisectoral approach. Multi-layered disaggregated data should be collected and used across sectors to assess if the same groups and subgroups are being consistently left behind across different SDG-related dimensions of well-being. Modular/multi-topic household surveys are useful resources for this important type of sectoral-multidimensional analysis. Designing data collection instruments, using new and alternative data sources, and collaborating with multiple stakeholders while ensuring ethical standards are of utmost importance to adequately capture the realities of disadvantaged groups, including hidden or hard-to-reach populations.

USING THE DATA: More effort is needed to map existing data sources, develop inventories of sex-disaggregated statistics and gender-specific indicators, and utilize existing data to track progress over time. Moreover, from a policy point of view, 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. Inclusive evidence-based development strategies that increase access to decent employment options as well as public services for historically excluded groups while building universal systems that create a sense of solidarity through risk-sharing, redistribution and universal service provision are vital.
More women than men live in poverty, especially during their peak childbearing years

Women and girls globally are 4 per cent more likely than men and boys to live in extreme poverty. Gender gaps are widest among those aged 25 to 34: Women in this age group are 25 per cent more likely than men to live in extreme poverty.

Gender disparities in rates of extreme poverty can be partially attributed to the disproportionate share of women and girls performing unpaid care and domestic work. Typically, such responsibilities mean that they have less time and fewer opportunities to develop their capabilities and access decent work. Moreover, research shows that women aged 25 to 34 with dependent children (below 5 years of age) are 4.8 percentage points more likely than those who have no young children to live in extreme poverty.

**FIGURE 1**

Proportion of people living in extreme poverty (less than US$1.90 a day), by age group and sex, 2011–2016 (percentage)

![Graph showing poverty rates by age and sex](image)

Source: UN Women and World Bank (forthcoming), based on the World Bank’s Global Monitoring Database.

Note: The analysis is based on the latest data from 91 developing countries, covering 78 per cent of the world’s population.

* The term ‘gender-specific indicators’ is used here and in subsequent sections of the Gender Snapshot to refer to indicators that explicitly call for disaggregation by sex and/or refer to gender equality as an underlying objective. For a full list of gender-specific indicators by Goals, see pages 21-23 of this publication.
Food insecurity affects more women than men

Unequal power relations at the household level render women more vulnerable than men 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. They also tend to spend more time and energy than men and boys in securing and processing food for domestic consumption.

In 2018, an estimated 9.2 per cent of the world population (more than 700 million people) were exposed to severe levels of food insecurity. The prevalence was slightly higher among women (9.8 per cent) than men (9.1 per cent), with the largest differences found in Latin America and the Caribbean. The gender gaps are larger among those who are less educated, poor and living in urban areas. Controlling for place of residence, poverty status and education, the chances of being food insecure are about 10 per cent higher for women than for men.

FIGURE 2

Proportion of people who are moderately and severely food insecure by sex and region, 2018 (percentage)

Note: Estimates for Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand) are not presented due to insufficient sample size. Data are for individuals 15 years and older.
Access to skilled birth attendance is strongly associated with wealth and urban residence

In 2017, nearly 300,000 women died from complications related to pregnancy and childbirth. The chances of delivery-related complications and maternal death are reduced significantly when a skilled health professional is present at childbirth.

Analysis of the latest available data from 64 developing countries indicates large inequalities in access to skilled care during childbirth among women and girls in rural areas and in the poorest households. In Niger, 83 per cent of births in urban areas are attended by a skilled health worker compared to 21 per cent in rural areas. In Guinea, 90 per cent of births in the richest 20 per cent of households are assisted by skilled birth attendants versus 10 per cent in the poorest quintile. When data are simultaneously disaggregated, the compounded effects of various deprivations reveal even starker inequalities. In Colombia, for example, over a third (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.

Proportion of births in Colombia not attended by skilled health personnel (births in the last five years), by location, wealth and ethnicity, 2015

Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from Colombia’s Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) (MINSALUD and Profamilia, 2015).
Note: For full details regarding this analysis, see UN Women’s Turning Promises into Action: Gender equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development 2018 report.
Illiteracy rates are highest among women in the poorest households

More girls are enrolling in primary education. Nevertheless, 15 million girls of primary-school age will likely never learn to read or write compared to about 10 million boys. Poverty plays a key role in exclusion from education.

Analysis of illiteracy data among women and men aged 15 to 49 across 53 developing countries shows that women living in the poorest households are consistently the most disadvantaged. In the Plurinational State of Bolivia, the illiteracy rate is close to zero among women from the richest 20 per cent of households and among most men. Yet the corresponding figure among women in the poorest 20 per cent of households is 23 per cent. The figure goes up to 29 per cent for Bolivian women from the Quechua indigenous group. In Nigeria, nearly all (99.4 per cent) of Fulani women and girls living in the poorest rural households have less than six years of education. High rates of illiteracy also contribute to deprivations in other areas, including employment opportunities.

**FIGURE 4**

Illiteracy rate among population aged 15 to 49, by sex and wealth quintiles, latest available year, 2007–2017 (percentage)

Source: UN Women calculations based on data from the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), 2019.
Note: Data are for 53 countries and refer to the latest available year for each country (2007–2017). In the key, the richest 20 per cent refers to households in the top 20 per cent of the wealth distribution and the poorest 20 per cent refers to households in the bottom 20 per cent of the wealth distribution.
The gender snapshot 2019

**Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals**

An analysis of 2018 data from 69 countries and areas found that only 19% fully met the criteria for establishing a comprehensive system to track budget allocations for gender equality.

As of January 2019, women’s representation in national parliaments worldwide ranged from 0 to 61.3%, with an average of 24%, an increase from 19% in 2010.

At the local level, data from 103 countries and areas show that women’s representation in elected deliberative bodies varies from less than 1% to close to parity, at 50%, with a median of 26%.

**Are we on track to achieve Goal 5?**

While some indicators of gender equality are showing progress, such as the significant decline in the prevalence of FGM and early marriage, the numbers overall continue to be alarming. Moreover, insufficient progress on structural issues at the root of gender inequality are undermining the ability to achieve SDG 5. Such root causes include legal discrimination, discriminatory social norms and attitudes, low levels of decision-making on the part of women and girls in sexual and reproductive health issues, and less than full political participation.

This limits the time they have available for paid work, education and leisure and further reinforces gender-based social and economic disadvantages.

Women devote roughly 3X as many hours a day to unpaid care and domestic work as men.

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**The Practice of Child Marriage**

Has continued to decline around the world.

This is largely driven by progress in South Asia, where a girl’s risk of marrying in childhood decreased by 25% between 2013 and 2018.

The practice is still prevalent in many countries, especially where poverty, conflict and crisis are rife.

At least 200 million women and girls have been subjected to FGM, according to data from 30 countries.

In these countries, the prevalence of this harmful practice declined by 25% between about 2000 and 2018.

Women devote roughly 3X as many hours a day to unpaid care and domestic work as men.

**Experienced Physical and/or Sexual Partner Violence**

in the previous 12 months.

The prevalence is highest in least developed countries, at 24%.

Based on data from 53 countries, only 57% of women aged 15 to 49 who are married or in union make their own decisions about sexual relations and the use of contraceptives and reproductive health services.

At home, at work and in political life, women are too often denied decision-making power.

While women represent 39% of the global workforce only 27% of managerial positions worldwide were occupied by women in 2018, up marginally from 26% in 2015.

According to data from 51 countries, only 26% of women aged 15 to 49 who are married or in union make their own decisions about sexual relations and the use of contraceptives and reproductive health services.

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**Recent data from 106 countries show that 18% of women and girls aged 15 to 49 who have ever been married or in a union have experienced physical and/or sexual partner violence in the previous 12 months.**

**The prevalence of FGM has decreased by 25% between 2013 and 2018.**

Based on data from 30 countries, 68% of women and girls aged 15-49 who have ever been married or in a union had ever been subjected to FGM, according to data from 30 countries.

In these countries, the prevalence of this harmful practice declined by 25% between about 2000 and 2018.

Women devote roughly 3X as many hours a day to unpaid care and domestic work as men.

Over the past 25 years, progress has been made towards gender equality through the adoption of new legislation and the reform of existing laws.

Still, gaps remain.

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**Are we on track to achieve Goal 5?**

While some indicators of gender equality are showing progress, such as the significant decline in the prevalence of FGM and early marriage, the numbers overall continue to be alarming. Moreover, insufficient progress on structural issues at the root of gender inequality are undermining the ability to achieve SDG 5. Such root causes include legal discrimination, discriminatory social norms and attitudes, low levels of decision-making on the part of women and girls in sexual and reproductive health issues, and less than full political participation.

This limits the time they have available for paid work, education and leisure and further reinforces gender-based social and economic disadvantages.

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Women and girls shoulder the heaviest burden in collecting water for household use

In 2017, 785 million people lived without basic drinking water services. A majority (400 million) lived in sub-Saharan Africa, where more than half relied on water collected directly from rivers, lakes and ponds. Where running water is unavailable at home, women and girls are the primary procurers of water for household needs, often travelling long distances to get it. In Sierra Leone, for example, more than a quarter of households spend over 30 minutes per day collecting water; 3 in 5 households rely on women for this task and 1 in 7 rely on girls. The average collection time for women and girls is approximately 25 minutes per household per day, which translates into more than 175 million hours each year in Sierra Leone alone.

Not having improved water on premises affects women and girls from marginalized groups the most. For example, in Kenya, 73.3 per cent of Kalenjin women from the poorest rural households do not have access to improved water sources compared to less than 1 per cent of Kikuyu women from the richest urban households.

Source: UN Women calculations from USAID data, 2019. For the ethnicity analysis, only the four largest ethnic groups sampled in the DHS for Kenya are presented.
Lack of safe cooking fuels and technologies poses serious health risks to women and children, especially in rural areas

Three billion people worldwide lack access to clean cooking fuels and technologies. Women and children are most adversely affected, since they are typically the main procurers and users of household energy.

Across 124 countries, 52 per cent of the population still rely on solid fuels, including wood, crop wastes, charcoal, coal or dung. Often, these and other unclean fuels (including kerosene) are used with inefficient technologies such as open fires and leaky stoves, leading to high levels of household air pollution. The use of solid fuels for cooking and heating is highest in sub-Saharan Africa, at 81.5 per cent of the population, and as high as 92.2 per cent in rural areas.

Rural populations rely on solid fuels to a much greater extent than urban populations. Deep disparities are also found among rich and poor countries. Less than 5 per cent of the population in high-income countries use solid fuels compared to 91 per cent in low-income countries and 56 per cent in lower-middle-income countries.

Proportion of population using solid fuels, by region and location, latest available year, 2013 and 2016 (percentage)

Note: Regional aggregates for Europe and Northern America should be treated with caution as estimates are based on less than 50 per cent of countries and/or less than 66 per cent of the region’s population.
Wide gender gaps persist in labour force participation

In 2018, young women were more than twice as likely as young men to be unemployed or outside the labour force and not in school or in a training programme.

The latest data also point to persistent gaps in labour force participation among women aged 25 to 54, which stands at 55 per cent versus 94 per cent for men in the same age group. When data are disaggregated by marital status, they show that marriage and childbearing often dampen women’s labour force participation, while having the opposite effect for men. Data for 93 countries show that just over half (52.1 per cent) of women aged 25 to 54 who are married or in union are in the labour force, compared to 65.6 per cent of women who are single or never-married and 72.6 per cent of women who are divorced or separated. Men’s labour force participation shows far less variation by marital status. Men who are married or in union show the highest rate of labour force participation, at 96.1 per cent.

**FIGURE 8**

Labour force participation among those aged 25 to 54, by sex and marital status, latest available year, 2007–2018 (percentage)

Source: UN Women calculations based on data from the International Labour Organization, 2018, Luxembourg Income Study (various years) and Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016.

Notes: Data for the latest available year for each country were used, ranging from 2007 to 2018 for a sample of 93 countries. Aggregate figures above are weighted averages based on population figures for persons aged 25 to 54 obtained from the United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs, 2017.
Women hold less than a third of the world’s research positions

Jobs in research and innovation, which are driving the transformation towards the ‘knowledge economy’, continue to be dominated by men.

On average, women comprise 28.8 per cent of the world’s researchers, but large variations are found across regions. In developing countries, three times more men than women are in research positions; in developed countries, there are twice as many men researchers as women. Relatively high levels of representation among women are found in New Zealand (52 per cent) and Latin America and the Caribbean (47 per cent). Conversely, in Europe and Northern America, Central and Southern Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, and Eastern and South-Eastern Asia (excluding China), women make up, on average, 35 per cent, 33 per cent, 31 per cent and 25 per cent of researchers, respectively.

FIGURE 9

Share of female researchers, latest available year


* Data for the SDG region of Australia and New Zealand are for New Zealand only due to unavailability of data for Australia.
Unfavourable family reunification policies for migrants make women more vulnerable

Around the world, millions of people have been forced from their homes and sought safe haven elsewhere as a result of conflict, disrupted livelihoods, climate change, natural disasters and deeply entrenched gender inequalities, including violence against women. Well-planned and managed migration policies are essential to ensuring their well-being and to supporting families separated, often for years, as a result of migration.

Where such policies are lacking, women and their families face many risks that can compromise their well-being and autonomy. Discriminatory migration policies, for example, can weaken women’s bargaining position within their families by making their right to remain in a country dependent on a resident or citizen spouse. Such policies can also restrict women’s access to paid work and, in some cases, also separate women from their spouses.

An assessment of migration policies related to family reunification from 45 countries in Europe and Northern America, Western Asia, and Australia and New Zealand shows large variations. Most countries (71 per cent) impose some restrictions on spouses and partners joining migrants in the host country and/or use a narrow definition of family; a far smaller proportion impose restrictions on minor children joining their parents. Rights related to the autonomous residence of spouses and children (independent to that of the sponsor) are also lacking across countries, leaving women more vulnerable.

Favourability of family reunification policies, 2014

Source: Barcelona Centre for International Affairs and the Migration Policy Group, 2015.
Notes: UN Women calculations based on the 2014 Migrant Integration Policy Index database for 45 countries. ‘Highly favourable’ indicates that countries have generally favourable policies with respect to the given policy dimension (score of 100). ‘Unfavourable’ indicates unfavourable policies (a score below 50). ‘Partially favourable’ is used to denote cases in which a policy is favourable toward migrants and their families in some way, but only partially or with conditions (score of 50 or above but below 100).
For more information regarding the classification of family reunification policies, see UN Women’s Progress of the World’s Women 2019-2020 report.
More women than men live in slum–like conditions

Women are overrepresented in slums in 70 per cent of 61 developing countries where data are available. In 48 per cent of the 61 countries analysed, more than half of the female urban population aged 15 to 49 live in slums, where they lack at least one of the following: access to clean water, improved sanitation facilities, durable housing or sufficient living area. The share for men was only 41 per cent. Many of these women endure not just one deprivation but have several of these basic needs unmet. In 30 per cent of countries—most of them 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.

FIGURE 11

Gender gap among individuals aged 15 to 49 living in slums, latest available year, 2007 to 2017 (percentage-point difference)

Source: UN Women calculations based on microdata from DHS for 61 developing countries.

Notes: Gender gap refers to the proportion of women living in slums minus the proportion of men living in slums. 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, the methodology for measuring the security of tenure is not in place; thus, slum status is assessed using the first four criteria only.
Only one gender-specific indicator is available for addressing the gender-environment nexus

Women and men have different relationships to the environment, such as their access to land and natural resources and their engagement in environmental management. They also tend to differ in their vulnerability to environmental challenges.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climate-related and geophysical disasters claimed an estimated 1.3 million lives between 1998 and 2017.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INCREASING TEMPERATURES, RISING SEA LEVELS, MELTING GLACIERS AND THE LOSS OF BIODIVERSITY contributed to some of these disasters and triggered environmental stress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The effects on the livelihoods and security of people around the world have been devastating, particularly for women and girls in developing countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deforestation increases the time women spend collecting fuelwood. In Zambia, women spend an average of 800 HOURS a year on that task, and in the United Republic of Tanzania, 300 HOURS a year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sustainable management of oceans, seas and marine resources supports the livelihoods of nearly 1 billion people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WOMEN ARE NOT TYPICALLY INCLUDED IN DECISIONS ON THE MANAGEMENT OF COASTAL AND MARINE RESOURCES, LIMITING THEIR ACCESS (lack of data and analysis hampers deeper understanding of this relationship).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In fact, none of the targets for SDG 14 address gender equality or how marine resources relate to the livelihoods of women and men, including the role such resources can play in food security, employment and poverty reduction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20% of the Earth’s land area was degraded between 2000 and 2015, impacting the lives of 1 BILLION PEOPLE.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women with little access to productive assets have been disproportionately affected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globally, while more employed women than men are working in agriculture, forestry and fisheries, only 13.8% of landholders are women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The gaps widen in regions where agriculture is a key sector:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women working in agricultural and related activities:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Central and Southern Asia</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women landholders:</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>11.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Three quarters of human trafficking victims are women and girls

Women are underrepresented in institutions of global, regional and national governance. They lack the power to shape these institutions, which in turn contributes to a perpetuation of gender bias. What’s more, while the gender dimensions of conflict and the pivotal role women play in building and sustaining peace are increasingly recognized, the opportunities to promote women’s leadership, enhance their access to justice, and build more peaceful and inclusive societies have not been sufficiently harnessed.

As a result, crimes against women and girls are committed with widespread impunity: Homicide, rape and other forms of violence against women continue to be pervasive during and after conflict. Most victims of human trafficking detected in countries around the world are intended for sexual exploitation. More than half of them are adult women and about a quarter of them are girls. In Latin America and the Caribbean, 90 percent of detected victims of trafficking in persons are women and girls.

**FIGURE 13**

**Detected victims of trafficking in persons by sex and age, latest available data, 2013–2017 (percentage)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Boys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Africa and Western Asia</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe and Northern America</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern and South-Eastern Asia</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia*</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Note: The world aggregate is based on 38 per cent of the world’s population and 41 per cent of countries. Due to low coverage, estimates for Central and Southern Asia, Oceania (excluding Australia and New Zealand) and sub-Saharan Africa are not shown. Women refers to females aged 18 years and older, girls refers to females below age 18, men refers to males aged 18 years and older, and boys refers to males below age 18.

*The SDG region is Australia and New Zealand, but no data are available for New Zealand.*
Increased mobilization of financial resources for gender equality is urgently needed

Achieving the SDGs for women and girls requires an enabling environment and a stronger commitment to partnership and cooperation. Target 17.3 therefore calls for increased mobilization of financial resources for developing countries, which can be monitored from a gender equality perspective by examining the resources received by developing countries as official development assistance (ODA).

Of the $117 billion in ODA commitments received by developing countries from OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) countries, 62 per cent remained gender ‘blind’, on average. Of the remaining 38 per cent, 34 per cent of funds were allocated with a significant focus on gender equality and 4 per cent focused on gender equality as a principal objective. Only nine countries directed more than half of their bilateral allocable aid to gender equality as either a principal or significant objective.

In 2017, commitments to gender equality and women’s empowerment made by 26 private foundations reporting to the OECD Development Co-operation Directorate totalled US$1.2 billion. The sum corresponded to 16 per cent of the total development flows contributed by these foundations.

**FIGURE 14**

Proportion of ODA focused on gender equality in bilateral allocable aid, 2016–2017 average (percentage)

Source: Aid in support of gender equality and women’s empowerment (annual statistical charts), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2019.
Gender equality is a prominent and cross-cutting feature of the 2030 Agenda, one that is key to realizing women’s and girls’ human rights and catalysing progress across all the SDGs. In the SDG indicator framework, a total of 53 indicators are gender-specific. This means that they are either targeted at women and girls under SDG 5, explicitly call for disaggregation by sex, or refer to gender equality as the underlying objective. Lack of gender data, however, and the absence of gender-specific indicators across all goals, makes 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. 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. This includes greater efforts made 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. Investing in national statistical capacity, particularly in developing countries, is also central to the monitoring of gender equality and the SDGs.

### Goal 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total indicators: 14</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender-specific indicators (6)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Population living below US$1.90 per day, by sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.1 Population living below the national poverty line, by sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2 Multidimensional poverty among women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3.1 Population covered by social protection, by sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4.2 Secure tenure rights to land, by sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.b.1 Proportion of government spending to sectors benefiting women, poor and vulnerable groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Goal 2. End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total indicators: 13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender-specific indicator (1)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Goal 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total indicators: 27</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender-specific indicators (6)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1.2 Births attended by skilled health personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.1 New HIV infections, by sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.1 Satisfactory family planning with modern methods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8.1 Coverage of essential health services, including reproductive and maternal health</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

**Total indicators: 11**

**Gender-specific indicators (8)**

- 4.1.1 Minimum proficiency in reading and mathematics at the end of primary and lower secondary, by sex
- 4.2.1 Early childhood development, by sex
- 4.2.2 Pre-primary participation, by sex
- 4.3.1 Participation of youth and adults in education, by sex
- 4.5.1 Parity indices for all education indicators
- 4.6.1 Proficiency (at a given age group) in functional literacy and numeracy skills, by sex
- 4.7.1 Mainstreaming of global citizenship education, gender equality and human rights
- 4.a.1 Upgrade education facilities with handwashing and single-sex sanitation facilities

### Goal 5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

**Total indicators: 14**

**Gender-specific indicators (14)**

- 5.1.1 Legal frameworks to promote, enforce, and monitor equality and non-discrimination based on sex
- 5.2.1 Women and girls subjected to intimate partner violence
- 5.2.2 Sexual violence against women and girls by a non-intimate partner
- 5.3.1 Child marriage among women and girls
- 5.3.2 Female genital mutilation
- 5.4.1 Unpaid domestic and care work, by sex
- 5.5.1 Women in parliaments and local governments
- 5.5.2 Women in managerial positions
- 5.6.1 Proportion of women and girls who make informed decisions on reproductive health
- 5.6.2 Laws on equal access to reproductive health, information and education
- 5.a.1 Ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex
- 5.a.2 Laws that guarantee equal land rights
- 5.b.1 Women who own a mobile phone
- 5.c.1 Countries with system to track gender equality

### Goal 6. Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

**Total indicators: 11**

**Gender-specific indicators (No gender-specific indicators)**

### Goal 7. Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all

**Total indicators: 6**

**Gender-specific indicators (No gender-specific indicators)**

### Goal 8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

**Total indicators: 17**

**Gender-specific indicators (6)**

- 8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment, by sex
- 8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female employees
- 8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex
- 8.7.1 Proportion and number of children engaged in child labour, by sex
- 8.8.1 Fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex
- 8.8.2 National compliance of labour rights, by sex

### Goal 9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

**Total indicators: 12**

**Gender-specific indicators (No gender-specific indicators)**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Total Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>Reduce inequality within and among countries</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-specific indicator (1)</td>
<td>10.2.1 People living below 50% of median income, by sex</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-specific indicators (3)</td>
<td>11.2.1 Access to public transport, by sex</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.7.1 Share of open public space in built-up urban areas, by sex</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.7.2 Victims of physical or sexual harassment, by sex</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-specific indicators (No gender-specific indicators)</td>
<td>12.1.1 LDCs and SIDS receiving support for climate change-related planning and management</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-specific indicator (1)</td>
<td>13.1.1 LDCs and SIDS receiving support for climate change-related planning and management</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-specific indicators (No gender-specific indicators)</td>
<td>14.1.1 Oceans and seas receiving protection</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-specific indicators (No gender-specific indicators)</td>
<td>15.1.1 Forests receiving protection</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-specific indicators (6)</td>
<td>16.1.1 Intentional homicide, by sex</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16.1.2 Conflict-related deaths, by sex</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16.2.1 Victims of human trafficking, by sex</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16.2.2 Sexual violence against girls</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16.7.1 Women in public institutions</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16.7.2 Perceptions of inclusion in decision-making, by sex</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender-specific indicator (1)</td>
<td>17.1.1 Full disaggregation of SDG indicators</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total indicators: 232* Gender-specific indicators: 53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note that the total number of indicators listed in the global indicator framework for the SDGs is 244. However, since nine indicators repeat under different targets, the actual number of individual indicators is 232. Official SDG indicator names have been condensed for the purposes of this depiction given space limitations.
On 24 and 25 September 2019, Heads of State and Government gathered at United Nations Headquarters in New York to comprehensively review progress on the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its 17 Sustainable Development Goals. This publication was created to inform those discussions, by bringing together the latest available evidence on gender equality across all 17 Goals, underscoring the progress made as well as the action still needed to accelerate progress.

For full references, citations and information on the data and statistics used in the Gender Snapshot 2019, email us at: gender.data@unwomen.org.