DATA DRIVING CHANGE

INTRODUCING THE EM2030 SDG GENDER INDEX
ABOUT EQUAL MEASURES 2030

Equal Measures 2030 (EM2030) aims for a world in which every girl and woman counts and is counted. This unique partnership, led by civil society and the private sector, connects data and evidence with advocacy and action on gender equality. We work to ensure that girls’ and women’s movements, advocates and decision-makers have the data they need, when they need them, and in a form they can use to guide their pursuit of the gender equality commitments in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

EM2030 was formed in 2016 by a group of cross-sector partners who united their resources, skills, networks and ambition to use data and bring new and critical insights, stories and action to help achieve collective impact for girls and women.

The partnership is a joint effort of leading regional and global organizations from civil society and the development and private sectors, including: the African Women’s Development and Communication Network (FEMNET), Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women (ARROW), Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, Data2X, the International Women’s Health Coalition (IWHC), KPMG International, ONE Campaign, Plan International and Women Deliver.

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This report would not have been possible without significant country-level insights and analysis from EM2030’s core, regional and national partners: Ruta Pacífica de las Mujeres (Colombia), Plan International El Salvador, the Society for Health Alternatives (SAHAJ) (India), KAPAL Perempuan (Indonesia), FEMNET (Kenya), and ONE Campaign with Plan International Senegal (Senegal), with additional insights shared by FAWE Senegal and GROOTS Kenya.

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Good data can help ignite change and drive accountability on the vision for gender equality laid out in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). But it can only do so when it is in the hands – and hearts – of gender equality advocates and champions from government, business, academia, faith-based groups, and beyond. This belief forms the foundation of Equal Measures 2030.

In 2015, in a remarkable show of unity, 193 countries signed on to the most ambitious global agenda yet seen, pledging to leave no one behind and to achieve gender equality. Ambition, however, must now be matched by political will and action, and action requires evidence. With gender mainstreamed across all 17 goals – including a goal (SDG 5) specifically focused on gender equality – the SDGs present a powerful opportunity to ensure we leave no one behind and work towards driving positive and lasting impact for girls and women.

Equal Measures 2030 was formed in 2016 by nine leading regional and global organizations from the civil society, development and private sectors. United by a shared commitment to build and use evidence to drive progress towards the SDGs, we have joined our resources, skills, networks and ambition to ensure that data are used to achieve lasting and positive impact for, and together with, girls and women.

We work alongside girls’ and women’s movements, advocates, and gender equality champions from all sectors to tell the story of progress (or the lack thereof) for girls and women at the community, national, regional and global level, set against the SDGs.

In our first major report, we set out our commitment to amplify, promote and make accessible the critical gender equality data and evidence that advocates and policymakers need to drive change.

Drawing on diverse and reliable data sources, this new report features EM2030’s SDG Gender Index, an advocacy and accountability tool to help advocates measure progress on the gender equality components of the SDGs.

Complemented by our Gender Advocates Data Hub, an online platform with human impact stories, country deep-dives and additional tools and resources, we want to tell a story of global progress, and equip gender equality advocates with the evidence necessary to influence policymakers and other key decision makers on the gender equality elements of the SDGs.

The work of our partners in six initial focus countries shows us that girls and women themselves are using data to drive change. From data on child, early and forced marriage in El Salvador helping to close a legal loophole that allowed marriage before the age of 18 with parental consent or if a girl was pregnant, to data in Kenya that has helped more women take out joint land titles with their spouses, to health care coverage data that has helped ensure more women and children have secured access to Indonesia’s new health insurance programme, Equal Measures 2030 partners are using data to get us closer to reaching the SDGs for every girl and every woman.

Data can shine a light on hidden issues, drive conversation and change laws, policies and budget decisions – particularly when it is about the lived realities of girls and women, about what is working and where we’re falling behind.

We’re now a fifth of the way through the SDG period, so now is the moment to ask – how do we get there? Equal Measures 2030 invites you to join us, as we launch this exciting new work. Working together, we can help to build a world where gender equality is achieved, and where every girl and woman counts and is counted.
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACRONYMS</th>
<th>EXPLANATION</th>
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<tr>
<td>ARROW</td>
<td>Asian-Pacific Resource and Research Centre for Women</td>
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<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
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<td>CFR</td>
<td>Council on Foreign Relations</td>
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<td>CRI</td>
<td>Commitment to Reducing Inequality Index</td>
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<td>CSE</td>
<td>Comprehensive sexuality education</td>
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<td>CSW</td>
<td>Commission on the Status of Women</td>
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<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department for International Development (UK)</td>
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<td>DHS</td>
<td>Demographic and Health Survey</td>
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<td>ECD</td>
<td>Early childhood development</td>
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<td>EM2030</td>
<td>Equal Measures 2030</td>
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<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization</td>
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<td>FARC-EP</td>
<td>Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia-Ejército del Pueblo (Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia-People’s Army)</td>
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<td>FAWE</td>
<td>Forum for African Women Educationalists</td>
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<td>FEMNET</td>
<td>The African Women’s Development and Communication Network</td>
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<td>FGM</td>
<td>Female genital mutilation</td>
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<td>FIDA</td>
<td>Federation of Women Lawyers</td>
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<td>FIES</td>
<td>Food Insecurity Experience Scale</td>
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<td>GBV</td>
<td>Gender-based violence</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross domestic product</td>
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<td>GII</td>
<td>Gender Inequality Index</td>
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<td>GNI</td>
<td>Gross national income</td>
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<td>GPE</td>
<td>Global Partnership for Education</td>
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<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus</td>
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<td>IAEG-SDGs</td>
<td>Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and communications technology</td>
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<td>ICTD</td>
<td>International Centre for Tax and Development</td>
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<td>IDM</td>
<td>Individual Deprivation Measure</td>
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<td>IDMC</td>
<td>Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>Ipsos MORI</td>
<td>Institut de Publique Sondage d’Opinion Secteur Market and Opinion Research International</td>
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<tr>
<td>IPU</td>
<td>Inter-Parliamentary Union</td>
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<td>IPV</td>
<td>Intimate partner violence</td>
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<tr>
<td>IUCN</td>
<td>International Union for Conservation of Nature</td>
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<td>IWHC</td>
<td>International Women’s Health Coalition</td>
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<tr>
<td>JKN</td>
<td>Jaminan Kesehatan Nasional (Indonesia’s health insurance programme)</td>
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<td>JMP</td>
<td>Joint Monitoring Programme (for water supply and sanitation)</td>
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<td>KIP</td>
<td>Indonesia Smart Card</td>
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<td>LAWG</td>
<td>Latin America Working Group Education Fund</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MHM</td>
<td>Menstrual hygiene management</td>
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<td>MICS</td>
<td>Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey</td>
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<td>MMR</td>
<td>Maternal mortality ratio</td>
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<td>NAP</td>
<td>National Adaptation Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>NEET</td>
<td>Not in education, employment or training</td>
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<td>NGEC</td>
<td>National Gender and Equality Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental organization</td>
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<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official development assistance</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>SAHAJ</td>
<td>Society for Health Alternatives</td>
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<td>SDGs</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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<td>SIGI</td>
<td>Social Institutions and Gender Index</td>
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<td>SRHR</td>
<td>Sexual and reproductive health and rights</td>
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<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>UNCTAD</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Trade and Development</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNFCCC</td>
<td>United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change</td>
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<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>UIS</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Statistics</td>
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<td>UNSCR</td>
<td>United Nations Security Council Resolution</td>
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<td>UNSD</td>
<td>United Nations Statistics Division</td>
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<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
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<tr>
<td>VACS</td>
<td>Violence Against Children Survey</td>
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<td>VAT</td>
<td>Value added tax</td>
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<td>WASH</td>
<td>Water, sanitation and hygiene</td>
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<td>WBL</td>
<td>Women, Business and the Law</td>
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<tr>
<td>WEF</td>
<td>World Economic Forum</td>
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<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Programme</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
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<td>WPS</td>
<td>Women, Peace and Security</td>
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<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organization</td>
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<td>WVS</td>
<td>World Values Survey</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY
INTRODUCTION

In 2015, 193 countries – every member state of the United Nations (UN) – pledged to end gender inequality by 2030 when they signed up to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). This global ambition must now be matched by action. And action demands robust data and evidence.

Data and evidence can drive accountability on gender equality issues. This is particularly true when data are in the hands of – and used effectively by – girls’ and women’s movements and advocates, backed by champions from government, business, the media, religious communities and others who have the power to make a difference.

Data – especially about the lived realities of girls and women, about what is working and where we’re falling behind – have the power to hold governments accountable, to shine a light on hidden issues, and to change laws, policies and budget decisions. If we want to galvanize political will and policy attention that translate into positive change for girls and women, we need data as one of the tools to ensure that gender equality moves up the policy and political agenda.

Equal Measures 2030 (EM2030) aims for global gender equality, backed by robust data – a world where every girl and woman counts and is counted. This unique partnership, led by civil society and the private sector, connects data and evidence with advocacy and action. We aim to ensure that girls’ and women’s movements, advocates and decision makers have the rich data they need, when they need them, and in a form they can use to drive progress on gender equality.

EM2030 believes that the urgency of this issue cannot be over-stated. And according to our recent survey of gender equality advocates, nine in ten (89 per cent) agree with us that a breakthrough in SDG progress on helping the most disadvantaged equality advocates, backed by champions from government, business, the media, religious communities and others who have the power to make a difference.

Almost half (49 per cent) of advocates feel that gender equality has neither improved nor worsened, but has instead remained static for the past five years. Those on the front-line in the fight for gender equality are worried about stagnating progress, and believe that there is a long way to go before we see the transformational advances needed to achieve the SDGs.

In this, our latest major report, EM2030 introduces a new tool – the SDG Gender Index – to tell the story of progress for girls and women and to measure whether the world is on track to achieve gender equality by 2030. The pilot Index responds to the urgent need for data on gender equality, given their critical role in progress towards the goals.

This report unpacks the SDG Gender Index to demonstrate its use for cross-country comparisons and in-depth analysis, and for the review of gender equality across the SDGs. It also identifies a range of ‘missing’ issues that are not sufficiently reflected in the current stock of global data: issues that are, nevertheless, of critical importance for girls and women. This pilot iteration of the Index provides a solid basis for the further development of data tools for gender equality and the expansion of country coverage in 2019.

DRIVING PROGRESS ON GENDER EQUALITY AND THE SDGS: THE ROLE OF DATA

In a world where ‘evidence’, ‘information’ and ‘knowledge’ are increasingly weaponized, undermined, and even called ‘fake news’, robust data – grounded in people’s lived realities – are more important than ever. Their importance is also heightened by the SDG agenda, with its unprecedented demand for new and better data on a wide range of indicators.

Here, the SDGs represent a marked departure from their predecessor, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), which measured gender equality primarily by the educational participation of girls, with a nod to maternal mortality and reproductive health.

In contrast to the MDGs, with their focus on low- and middle-income countries and the reduction of extreme poverty, the SDGs are universal, applying to all countries, rich or poor. What’s more, gender issues are mainstreamed throughout the goals and gender equality has its own comprehensive, stand-alone goal: SDG 5. With its emphasis on equity and on ‘leaving no one behind’, the SDG agenda also amplifies the importance of gender equality as an essential component for the achievement of every goal. Taken together, the SDGs offer a crucial opportunity to push for lasting progress for girls and women.

The comprehensive nature of the SDGs, however, also presents significant data challenges. For many of the SDG targets and indicators, information is not yet disaggregated by sex, there is no intention to disaggregate by sex, or there are data gaps that prevent us from measuring key issues, which hamper our ability to understand today’s gender differences and the direction of travel for the well-being of girls and women. Indeed, gender bias is often engrained in the way that we measure – or fail to measure – aspects of a person’s life.

Currently, less than one quarter of the 232 indicators used by the UN to measure progress towards the SDGs refer explicitly to girls or women or specify disaggregation by sex. And for the 53 indicators that relate specifically to gender, only 15 are generally available and well-defined enough to measure. This leaves to one side the many other indicators spread across the SDGs that are highly relevant for gender equality, but that either do not focus explicitly on gender, or worse, are ‘gender blind’: failing to acknowledge or address existing and often deep-rooted inequalities.

Gaps also persist across every aspect of data disaggregation. Two thirds (66 per cent) of advocates in our recent Global Advocates Survey identified insufficient data disaggregation (including by sex, wealth and location) as a challenge. Monitoring of the SDGs ‘leave no one behind’ agenda demands disaggregation of data not only by sex but also across multiple forms of disadvantage, combining sex and other characteristics such as age, income quintile, geographic location, disability and more. There are also political challenges. When asked why gaps remain in government gender data, the most common response from gender advocates is that “collecting data on issues that affect girls and women isn’t prioritized”: 91 per cent think this is
a “very relevant” or “fairly relevant” explanation for government data gaps. And they go further: 85 per cent of advocates also said that government data on gender equality are “somewhat” or “mostly” incomplete.

**WELCOME TO THE SDG GENDER INDEX**

EM2030’s SDG Gender Index and related tools – including our new Gender Advocates Data Hub to share data, evidence and stories on gender equality and the SDGs⁵ – build on the first two years of our partnership’s engagement and research.

The Index has been shaped by our work with partners across six initial focus countries – Colombia, El Salvador, India, Indonesia, Kenya and Senegal – as well as dialogue with thousands of other stakeholders worldwide. Its development has been informed by finding of two formal surveys: one with more than 100 policymakers in 2017⁶ and the other with more than 600 gender equality advocates in 2018.⁷ Together, these have increased our understanding of the demand for gender-related data and the inherent challenges and opportunities in connecting such data with advocacy and action for gender equality. The perspectives of gender advocates, in particular, have been crucial for the development of the SDG Gender Index.

Drawing on this mix of country engagement and global consultation and research, the SDG Gender Index is the most comprehensive index to date on gender equality aligned to the SDGs. And because gender equality is embedded in every goal, this tool is a vital indicator for key advancements across almost the entire SDG agenda.

The Index aims to help girls’ and women’s movements and champions across sectors to measure progress on the gender equality aspects of the SDGs and to use data, stories and evidence to hold policymakers accountable across countries.

As well as being a global tool for accountability on the promises made in the SDGs, the SDG Gender Index is already being used by our partner organizations in the six initial focus countries to frame their advocacy, and to dig deeper into the issues they have prioritized for data-driven advocacy on the SDGs.

**BUILDING THE SDG GENDER INDEX: COLLABORATION TO PUT GENDER DATA IN THE HANDS OF ADVOCATES**

The EM2030 SDG Gender Index is unique in that it has been developed by a partnership between civil society and private sector actors, as well as through engagement across six countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America. Its design⁸ has been informed by consultations across the EM2030 partnership (including with national partners in the focus countries), the public, by inputs from a Technical Reference Group, and by our surveys with policymakers and gender advocates worldwide.

In keeping with the spirit of the SDGs, the universal Index aims to capture a mix of gender equality issues that are relevant across all countries and contexts. Its breadth of indicators responds to the expressed needs of gender equality champions across sectors.

**Their views have helped to:**

- prioritize issues that must be reflected in the EM2030 SDG Gender Index
- identify issues that have traction and widespread support among advocates
- identify issues that should be amplified to build larger constituencies of support among gender equality advocates, such as climate change, clean water and sanitation, and public finance
- identify the ‘missing’ but critical policy areas where global data are insufficient to adequately measure cross-country progress towards the gender equality issues within the SDGs.

In its first iteration, the SDG Gender Index includes 43 indicators across 12 of the 17 SDGs and is tested here across our six initial focus countries: Colombia, El Salvador, India, Indonesia, Kenya and Senegal.

**WHAT HAVE WE LEARNED FROM THE SDG GENDER INDEX?**

In the SDG Gender Index we assign an overall score for each country: the scores are presented as a heat map – a score closer to dark green on the spectrum represents greater gender equality, in comparison to the other countries in the group and based on the measures we’ve chosen.

One strength of the SDG Gender Index is that it breaks down a country’s score to enable comparisons by individual SDG. For the six initial focus countries this goal-by-goal analysis reveals a mixed picture: all countries perform well on some SDGs, but no country is ahead of the others across all of the 12 goals. A dashboard of results by SDG and by country, as well as further analysis, can be found in section 3.

It is important to clarify that the score does not represent how near or far a given country is to reaching the ‘end-point’ for that SDG. It represents how the country performs on the selected indicators when compared with the other countries in this group. This method of relative scoring holds the potential for much richer cross-national comparisons when the SDG Gender Index is extended to cover a wider group of countries in 2019.

**Colombia** has the highest overall score on the SDG Gender Index among the six countries, scoring relatively well on several SDGs, especially SDG 1 (poverty) and SDG 7 (energy). On SDG 3, Colombia had the highest rate of women whose need for family planning was being met (87 per cent in 2016), and the lowest incidence of new HIV infections among women of reproductive age (0.04 in 2016). However, the Index scores show there is room for improvement on a number of SDGs, most notably on SDG 16 (peace, justice and institutions), where the impact of violence and conflict on girls and women is apparent. For example, Colombia had the lowest percentage of women who reported feeling safe walking alone at night (just 36 per cent in 2017).
El Salvador scores fairly well on SDG 3 (health), SDG 6 (water and sanitation) and SDG 7 (energy). El Salvador, for example, had the lowest maternal mortality ratio of the six countries in 2015 and the highest proportion of people across the six countries using at least basic sanitation services (91 per cent as of 2015). However, El Salvador has several weak points in the Index, including on SDG 5 where it has the lowest score (alongside Senegal) for the restrictiveness of its abortion laws. It also accounts for one of the most startling figures emerging from the Index in SDG 16 (peace, justice and institutions): the rate of women who were victims of intentional homicide in El Salvador was nearly 60 times the rate in Indonesia in 2016.

India scores well on SDG 10 (inequality), with the lowest levels of income inequality, alongside Indonesia, as of 2012 and the highest score for the extent to which gender equality was reflected in its Constitution. However, it lags behind on SDG 13 on climate especially, largely due to the impact of major droughts in 2015 and 2016 that affected nearly a quarter of the country’s large population, but also because it has the lowest score for whether the delegation representing the country at the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) was gender-balanced in 2012.

Indonesia has the highest Index score for SDG 4 on education amongst this group of countries. It had the lowest rate of girls who are ‘over-age’ for their grade in primary school in 2016, and it tied with Colombia for female literacy in the same year, with 94 per cent of women having basic literacy skills. However, on SDG 10 it has the lowest score (alongside El Salvador) for the extent to which gender equality is reflected in its Constitution.

Kenya has a strong Index score for SDG 5 (gender equality) and SDG 8 (work and growth). It had a very high proportion of women who have made or received a digital payment in the past year, and does fairly well on both the measure of whether women are represented in five key senior positions in the government in 2018 and also the extent to which the country has laws mandating women’s workplace equality. However, Kenya has areas of weakness in several goals including SDG 3 on health, due to a high maternal mortality ratio (MMR), high adolescent birth rate, and very high rate of new HIV infections among girls and women.

Senegal has some areas of relative strength in the Index, especially considering that it is the least economically developed of the six focus countries (as measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita), but it is clear that challenges remain. Senegal leads the group on the percentage of seats in the national Parliament that are held by women (42 per cent in 2018) and it also has the highest Index score on SDG 13 (climate). However, it has significant challenges in a number of areas, including SDG 1 on poverty, SDG 4 on education, and certain aspects of SDG 5 on gender equality. For example, Senegal had the highest rate of child, early and forced marriage in 2015, and the highest percentage of women who reported thinking a man is justified in beating his wife in certain circumstances in 2016. Like El Salvador, Senegal also has no legal grounds for abortion.
COMMON CHALLENGES AND REASONS FOR HOPE ACROSS THE SIX COUNTRIES

Section 4 of the report delves into our partners’ analyses of the six focus countries, using the findings of the SDG Gender Index. Looking across the country profiles, however, several themes emerge, both negative and positive.

Common challenges
While all six countries demonstrate some examples of strong laws, quotas and constitutional commitments to women’s human rights, they are not necessarily transforming the lives of girls and women, as seen in El Salvador’s continuing high prevalence of gender-based violence (GBV) and in Kenya’s lack of land ownership among women.

In many of the six countries, the legal frameworks that protect the rights of girls and women can be overridden by customary law (including legislation on the age of marriage in India, Indonesia and Senegal), leaving the rights of girls and women effectively unprotected, further compounding their marginalization.

Entrenched patriarchal social norms are also a strong common theme, including in El Salvador’s machista (male chauvinist) environment, in pervasive discrimination in Kenya, and a negative reaction to the word ‘parity’ in Senegal.

Reasons for hope
Despite certain challenges, our six country profiles also tell stories of great hope for gender equality. While progress may not be felt equally by all women, each country has seen progress that is worth celebrating and has examples of girls and women driving change, including through the use of data and evidence.

Recent changes in laws are aiming to tackle key challenges in some countries, such as the 2010 Parity Law in Senegal, the requirement in Kenya’s 2010 Constitution that no more than two thirds of the members of elected bodies can be of one gender, and the legislative reform in India to criminalize voyeurism, stalking and acid attacks.

There has been rapid progress linked to the provision of services, including water and sanitation, health, integrated services to respond to GBV, and financial services. Examples include the rapid acceleration of household access to improved sanitation in El Salvador, to public healthcare in Colombia and Indonesia, and to GBV response services in India.

Some countries cite progress on women’s financial inclusion, including India, where the percentage of women with a bank or savings account more than trebled between 2005/06 and 2015/16, and in Kenya, where almost as many women as men are aware of mobile money markets and have used mobile money in the last month.

THE STORIES BEHIND THE DATA

We – the GROOTS women – decided to begin generating our localized data based on the specific needs of a specific project. This data is powerful – it is real-time and highly contextualized. It is this kind of evidence that has equipped us with content for public participation. We are able to share our views in government planning meetings and support our arguments with our strong data."
- Winrose, Advocate, GROOTS Kenya

The SDG Gender Index is a starting point for advocates at national level: a full understanding of its results requires unpacking of the indicators, analysis of the country context, and the ability to dig deeper, using national and sub-national data to scrutinize the results for different groups of girls and women. It also requires data and evidence generated by communities that complement official, government statistics, including the qualitative data and human stories that look beyond quantitative numbers alone.

One distinctive feature of the SDG Gender Index is that it reflects the work of a partnership that extends far beyond the index itself. Through our regional partners and national influencing partners we have access to country-specific insights that can be used alongside our SDG Gender Index to tell a deeper story of the everyday realities for girls and women in a given country, and to explore the root causes of inequality to inform the design of effective solutions.

In all six of our focus countries, powerful stories illustrate the role of girls’ and women’s movements and gender equality champions from all sectors in using data and evidence to
drive change on key SDG issues. Stories from three countries demonstrate the potential of data-driven influencing (with stories from all six countries available in section 4).

In Colombia the National Summit of Women and Peace in 2013 played a pivotal role in one of the most inclusive formal peace processes yet seen. EM2030’s partner, Ruta Pacífica de las Mujeres, is now gathering data to monitor the implementation of the resulting Peace Agreement.

When I was evacuated (once more) in 2017, without any reparation, my parents were very worried about me. I was not threatened though. I was there negotiating with other leaders, asking the government, ‘what support or guarantees are you going to give us?’

- Nini, Advocate, Ruta Pacífica de las Mujeres

In Indonesia, EM2030’s partner KAPAL Perempuan supports community women’s groups, including one that is recording incidences of domestic violence and child, early and forced marriage, the number of women with adequate documentation, and the number receiving any social support from the government in order to bolster advocacy for better access to government services. KAPAL Perempuan is combining such community-level data on early marriage with national and sub-national data to make the case for raising Indonesia’s legal age of marriage for girls.

We’re working with the Social Security Administrator and Social Department to access the government scheme, especially national health insurance, to ensure women get the right support.

- Ning, Advocate, KAPAL Perempuan

In Kenya, EM2030 partner GROOTS Kenya has collected data on land ownership to advocate for joint land titles, making it faster, easier and cheaper for a woman to have her name added to a land deed. With support from EM2030, GROOTS Kenya is broadening its data-driven influencing, using national and local gender data drawn from original research to drive accountability on gender-transformative SDG targets prioritized by communities.

In our culture, land ownership belongs to the boy. We have seen big improvements, though. Today, land is at least shared among both boys and girls.

- Mary, Advocate, GROOTS Kenya

APPLYING THE SDG GENDER INDEX TO THE GLOBAL GOALS

This report draws on the SDG Gender Index to assess gender equality across 12 of the interlinked, indivisible and universal SDGs (see annex 3). In each case, we provide key facts and a rationale for the inclusion of each SDG, outlining its relevance for gender equality. We explain the issues captured in our Index, and why these must be tackled if the world is to uphold the rights of girls and women.

One word dominates our review of the issues included in the SDG Gender Index, and that is ‘disproportionate’: across the 12 goals reviewed, we see that the world’s most pressing challenges have a disproportionate impact on girls and women. Yet their disadvantage is often masked by data that present a picture of averages, and, therefore, of progress that appears to be evenly distributed. This reinforces the urgent need for more and better data, disaggregated by sex and other characteristics, to achieve the SDGs by 2030.

The first iteration of the SDG Gender Index has also revealed a number of issues that are of critical importance for girls and women worldwide, yet are currently ‘missing’ from the stock of global data on gender equality. Given their importance, these are issues we would have included in the Index, if the data were available. They include, for example, intra-household income and resource allocation, age at first pregnancy, women’s participation in energy policymaking, and the inclusion of gender provisions in trade agreements, among others (see annex 4).

Taken together, these ‘missing’ issues can form part of an advocacy agenda calling for more and better gender data, contributing to existing calls for gaps in gender data to be filled.11 In order to truly gauge whether the ambition of the SDGs is being met for all girls and women, we will need better globally-comparable measurements of all of these issues and more. We set out the relevance of each of these ‘missing’ issues for gender equality and the achievement of the SDGs, as well as some examples of promising measurement approaches on these issues in annex 4.

NEXT STEPS

We are already a fifth of the way through the 2015 to 2030 lifespan of the SDGs, and the global community urgently needs accelerated and expanded action to meet the goals. Yet few countries are making the wide-ranging policy, law and budget commitments that will achieve the scale of change needed to achieve gender equality by 2030.

The first two years of the EM2030 partnership have put in place strong foundations for future research and advocacy to uphold the rights of girls and women. It has generated new tools for gender advocates worldwide, including the SDG Gender Index and the Gender Advocates Data Hub,12 which incorporates country pages where advocates can explore national gender and SDG issues. And it has paved the way for partners in each of our six initial focus countries to strengthen their data-driven influencing efforts and to draw on the findings of the SDG Gender Index in their advocacy.

This report is, in itself, a starting point: the beginnings of a dialogue on how the SDG Gender Index can be expanded, enhanced and improved to offer a full picture of progress on gender equality.

Over time, the SDG Gender Index is designed to provide some answers to the burning questions for girls’ and women’s movements and gender equality champions from all sectors.
Do we understand the progress that is being made or the reasons for lack of progress? Where and how is progress being made? Which challenges to the rights of girls and women are proving to be the most intractable? And very importantly: who is being left behind?

For EM2030, connecting evidence to action means using existing gender equality-related data, supporting calls to fill data gaps, and training and equipping advocates to use data and evidence in their efforts towards accountability on SDG commitments. When advocates and decision makers have the compelling evidence they need, they can better work to ensure girls’ and women’s rights become, and remain, a priority on the policy agenda and in efforts to achieve the SDGs.

As demonstrated by the results of EM2030’s 2018 Global Advocates Survey and 2017 Policymaker Survey, and through the experience of local partners in our six pilot countries, it is imperative that girls’ and women’s movements, advocates, and decision makers have easy-to-use data and evidence to guide efforts to meet the transformational agenda of the SDGs.

With access to relevant, timely and disaggregated data and evidence, as well as related training and capacity-building opportunities, girls’ and women’s movements and advocates will be better supported to undertake and deliver coordinated, data-driven advocacy to influence their governments to achieve the SDGs for girls and women.

If we are to work towards a world where governments adopt, implement and fully fund policies and laws to achieve gender equality (in line with the SDGs), we must diversify our efforts and move beyond monitoring by applying a multi-pronged approach. This includes: capacity building of civil society on data for advocacy; engaging with accountability processes, including the development of alternative report findings and participation in voluntary national reviews (VNRs); and increasing government engagement on issues related to gender data and decision making.

EM2030 understands the imperative role of data-driven advocacy to build political will and influence policy agendas. We see the SDG Gender Index as a critical tool that adds value to relevant and timely data and provides evidence to measure progress on the goals and to help paint a fuller picture of progress and challenges for girls and women.

EM2030 is eager to hear from all stakeholders who can contribute ideas, suggestions and examples to this initiative to strengthen the SDG Gender Index before we launch it with data for as many countries as possible in 2019. Please stay in touch by visiting us at www.equalmeasures2030.org and at our new Gender Advocates Data Hub at www.data.em2030.org. You can also sign up to our newsletter and follow us on Twitter @Equal2030.

Direct inputs on the design of the SDG Gender Index can be sent to info@equalmeasures2030.org.

ABOUT THIS REPORT

This report sets out how the EM2030 SDG Gender Index can be used to assess progress for girls and women against the SDGs, not only across the global themes for each specific goal, but also across all goals at national level.

- Section 2 introduces the SDG Gender Index, the most comprehensive overall measure of progress towards gender equality aligned to the SDGs to date. It sets out the rationale for an Index that spans the full breadth of gender equality issues and outlines the unique design and development of the Index, spurred and guided by the data needs of those working at the frontline in the quest for gender equality.

- Section 3 provides an overall analysis of the SDG Gender Index findings across our six focus countries – Colombia, El Salvador, India, Indonesia, Kenya and Senegal – reinforcing the value of the Index for cross-country comparison.

- Section 4 shows how the Index can be used to deep-dive into the national picture, featuring country profiles with real-life stories and details of the work of our national partners.

- Section 5 provides conclusions and next steps for the EM2030 partnership, and is followed by annexes providing full details of the SDG Gender Index framework and indicators, the ‘missing’ critical issues, and our methodology.

The annexes provide significant background information on the design and rationale of the SDG Gender Index. In particular, annex 3 demonstrates the SDG Gender Index at work across 12 of the 17 SDGs. This section examines each goal in turn, providing an overview of the current situation (as measured by the best latest available data) and the relevant SDG Gender Index indicators. Annex 4 takes a closer look at the policy issues that are currently ‘missing’ from the global data picture, but that are of critical importance for girls and women.

Taken together, these ‘missing’ issues can help form part of an advocacy agenda calling for more and better gender data, contributing to existing calls for gaps in gender data to be filled. In order to truly gauge whether the ambition of the SDGs is being met for all girls and women, we will need better globally-comparable measurements of all of these issues and more.

This demands greater investment in data, as well as greater policy attention to gender equality.
“STORIES MOVED ME, BUT DATA CHANGED ME”

BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF THE SDG GENDER INDEX
INTRODUCTION

Data and evidence can drive accountability on gender equality, especially when they are used effectively by girls’ and women’s movements and advocates, backed by champions from government, business, the media, religious communities and others who have the power to make a difference.

EM2030 aims for a world in which every girl and woman counts and is counted, with robust data positioned as essential for global gender equality. Led by civil society and the private sector, this unique partnership connects data and evidence with advocacy and action. We work to ensure that girls’ and women’s movements, advocates and decision makers have the data they need, when they need them, and in a form they can use to guide their pursuit of the SDGs.

Gender equality advocates can come from any community and any sector — from a woman campaigning for a better water supply in her village; to a parliamentarian pushing for legislative reform on child, early and forced marriage; to a business owner who needs a deep pool of prospective employees with 21st century skills in a digital age.

EM2030 aims to support any and all of those who are committed to using data to drive progress on gender equality and the SDGs. We focus on support for girls’ and women’s movements and advocates and their use of data and evidence to fuel advancements, and we provide direct support to local partners in six initial focus countries to do just that: Colombia, El Salvador, India, Indonesia, Kenya and Senegal.

In its first two years as a partnership, EM2030 has collaborated with organizations across all six countries. We have also worked with thousands of stakeholders in our networks around the world, and have commissioned two formal surveys of stakeholders to understand their data challenges, and to find ways to build stronger bridges between data and action. In late 2017 we shared the results of a survey of more than 100 policymakers in Colombia, India, Indonesia, Kenya and Senegal about perceptions of progress on gender-related issues, as well as access to — and use of — data to inform their decisions. In 2018, we surveyed more than 600 gender equality advocates to better understand their needs for gender-related data and the challenges and opportunities they face in putting data to good use (see section 2 for more information on EM2030’s Global Advocates Survey).

Part of our mission is to develop and share tools that will help advocates wield real influence to push for faster progress on the gender equality dimensions of the SDGs. We strive to practise what we preach, using our data and findings to inform our own advocacy tools. Our partnership has now pooled its strengths and its research resources to launch the EM2030 SDG Gender Index, which aims to help advocates track progress on the gender equality components of the SDGs and to better enable cross-country comparisons.

BOX 1
Building on the EM2030 SDG Gender Index – Gender Advocates Data Hub

The EM2030 SDG Gender Index is complemented by a wealth of data, evidence and stories for and by advocates on the Gender Advocates Data Hub

The Gender Advocates Data Hub enables advocates to explore a whole range of resources that provide context and nuance for the interpretation of global trends. It looks beyond the numbers to tell stories about progress within countries and to show the faces and voices of individual women and girls and their unique perspective on progress towards gender equality.

Data visualizations and country profiles are used to drill down from the Index to deeper analysis and storytelling on specific themes, SDGs and targets. Users can explore the SDGs based on cross-cutting thematic areas of interest, read about women and girls in our initial focus countries who are using data to drive action and change in their communities, or just go straight to the data to unpack the insights and findings from our SDG Gender Index.

Our Data Hub is tailored to meet the needs of girls’ and women’s movements and advocates, particularly at local and national levels, but is also accessible to decision makers, media, the private sector, civil society, the data community, academia and the general public.

We hope our interactive and easy-to-use Gender Advocates Data Hub becomes a go-to resource for evidence-based policy and advocacy on gender equality and a broader resource for tracking gender and development-related progress.

Visit www.data.em2030.org to explore our SDG Gender Index, stories, tools and more.
The Index represents the voices and views of key gender constituencies and women, and the needs that they have articulated. Crucially, it is a tool that partner organizations in our six initial focus countries are already using to frame their advocacy, and to dig deeper into the issues they have prioritized for data-driven SDG influencing in their country, as shown in section 4. It is a global tool for accountability on the promises made in the SDGs, and in annex 3 of this report, we show how it illuminates gender equality issues across 12 of the 17 goals.

The supporting tools for the SDG Gender Index include a Gender Advocates Data Hub (see Box 1) to share data, evidence and stories on gender equality and the SDGs. Taken together, the Index and related tools capture and build on the results of the first two years of our partnership.

There is a discussion between what is urgent and what is important. The important thing is the cultural change, and the urgent thing is more actions of prevention, protection and sanctions against women’s violence.”
- Male policymaker, Colombia, EM2030 Policymaker Survey

GENDER EQUALITY AND THE SDGS: HOW ARE WE DOING?

The SDGs contain transformative promises to achieve gender equality and fulfil the human rights of girls and women, too long held back in every country because of policies and practices that have normalized gender discrimination and exacerbated inequality.

The SDGs contrast with the MDGs, which focused predominantly on solving the problems of extreme poverty in low- and middle-income countries. Instead, the SDGs apply to every country, including high-income nations, with gender issues mainstreamed through almost every goal, as well as one specific goal (SDG 5) on gender equality.

The embedding of gender equality in the SDGs is the result of intense advocacy by a well-organized women’s movement – backed by voices from across sectors from government to business and beyond.15

Because the SDGs are so comprehensive, however, there are significant data challenges in measuring and tracking progress against them. There is now an unprecedented demand for more and better data on gender equality and on the quality of development, as well as its ‘quantity’. The achievement of the SDGs requires data from more diverse and reliable sources, and data that can be packaged for use by more diverse players.

Another major challenge we have identified from our own surveys is that even when gender data are available, they are often not accessible enough, or used enough, by the policymakers and gender equality advocates who can drive change – particularly girls’ and women’s movements. The EM2030 SDG Gender Index aims to help resolve these dilemmas.

Many challenges remain, but we also see reasons for hope. We see growing energy and momentum around gender equality, from the increasing numbers of African countries passing laws to ban child, early and forced marriage, to the prioritization of gender equality by the Group of Seven (G7) countries in June 2018. We see promising moves to change laws that oppress women from Argentina to Ireland, and debates about women’s under-representation in politics.

While the speed and fervour of movements such as #NiUnaMenos, #BalanceTonPorc and #MeToo shine a light on the terrifying scale of sexual harassment and abuse across all sectors and countries,16 they also demonstrate the power of collective voice and solidarity in bringing attention to an issue that has long been not only hidden from public view, but also minimized and trivialized.17
Advocates’ perceptions of progress on gender equality also vary by region, as shown in Figure 2.

- Respondents from Africa are the most positive about gender equality progress: more than half (53 per cent) say that women and men are more equal than five years ago.
- Respondents from Latin America and the Caribbean are least likely to say that men and women are less equal than five years ago (0 per cent) and this region is second most likely to cite positive progress (38 per cent).
- Respondents from Asia are most likely to say that gender inequality has not changed: more than two in three (68 per cent) feel that there has been no change in equality between women and men in the past five years.
- Respondents from North America and Western Europe are the most cynical about progress on gender equality: 17 per cent feel that women and men are less equal than five years ago, which is much more than the percentage for Latin America and the Caribbean (0 per cent) and Asia (3 per cent).

FIGURE 2
Perceptions of progress on equality between women and men in the last five years by region (Percentages)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>More equal</th>
<th>The same</th>
<th>Less equal</th>
<th>Don’t know/not applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Latin America &amp; the Caribbean</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America &amp; Western Europe</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018
Note: Number of respondents (n) by region: Latin America & the Caribbean=39; Asia=68; North America & Western Europe=58; Africa=76

There are inspiring examples of rapid progress on, for example, the number of women dying in childbirth: down by nearly 44 per cent globally since 1990; and the global share of girls out of lower secondary school: down from 28 per cent to 16 per cent (and now equal to boys) since the year 2000. Such progress has been driven, in part, by the attention and funding generated through global frameworks like the MDGs.

Indeed, many of those responding to our recent surveys of policymakers and advocates agree that women and men are more equal today than they were five years ago: 66 per cent of policymakers and 37 per cent of advocates. Just 11 per cent of policymakers and 8 per cent of advocates feel that men and women are less equal than they were five years ago (see section 2).

But this is only part of the picture, and the outlook for change on gender equality in line with the ambitious goals set out in the SDGs is far from rosy. In too many countries we have seen roll-backs on fundamental legislation, aiming to control and limit girls’ and women’s decisions over their bodies and lives. In the Russian Federation, for example, campaigners failed to stop the decriminalization of some forms of domestic violence, not to mention the laws that block the rights of LGBT+ people. In Afghanistan, strong political movements have opposed any protection for women experiencing violence. And in the United States (US), a series of roll-backs on women’s sexual and reproductive health and rights under the Trump Administration include new rules to allow insurance companies to refuse to cover the cost of birth control by seeking religious or moral exemptions.

Our survey of gender advocates reinforces such concerns: almost half (49 per cent) feel that gender equality has neither improved nor worsened, but has instead remained static for the past five years. This tells us that those on the frontline in the fight for gender equality believe there is a long way to go before we achieve the transformational progress needed to turn the SDG promises into reality for the world’s girls and women.

We must change the conceptions learnt about roles in the community; change the paradigm that is only women’s responsibilities to do the house chores.”
- Female policymaker, Colombia, EM2030 Policymaker Survey

HOW CAN WE ENSURE MOMENTUM TOWARDS GENDER EQUALITY?

The world is already almost one fifth of the way through the 2015 to 2030 lifespan of the SDGs, and we need accelerated and expanded action to meet the goals. Yet few countries are making the wide-ranging policy, law and budget commitments that will achieve the scale of change needed to achieve gender equality by 2030. Now is the moment to ask – how do we get there? How can we build on current momentum where it exists? We need political will and policy attention to translate data into genuinely evidence-based changes in laws, policies and budgets for the girls and women in greatest need.
We need pressure, support and positive incentives from citizens and stakeholders from all sectors to create and reinforce that political will – holding policymakers to account but also offering proven solutions.

Crucially, we need data-driven advocacy to inform the policies that are needed to ensure gender equality takes, and maintains, its rightful place high up the policy agenda.

Data alone cannot make change happen. But the right data in the right hands at the right time can transform societies. Data can help to reveal how differently girls and women experience the world and what needs to change to achieve gender equality.

The power of data and current challenges

**The [Violence Against Persons (Prohibition) Act 2015] is a direct result of the use of data to ensure that laws are promulgated to prevent gender-based violence in Nigeria**

- Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

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**Box 3**

The power of data

Women carry much more than babies. Or water. They carry families. They carry businesses. They carry communities. They carry potential and solutions. And when we count them and invest in their health, rights and well-being, they lift up entire countries – and everybody wins.”

- Katja Iversen, President and Chief Executive Officer, Women Deliver

**Why lack of data impedes progress**

In the 2016 report, *Counting the Invisible*, Plan International and several of the other EM2030 partners explained how “… millions of people remain invisible because of a lack of credible and timely data. Girls and women are among the most invisible, because some of the data that are currently being collected fail to accurately reflect the specific challenges they face – and other data relevant to their lives are not being captured at all.”

**How the availability and use of quality gender data drives progress**

Data can initiate dialogue and debate and shine a light on forgotten or hidden issues. Recent examples include the continuing global use of a 2013 statistic on violence against women: one in three women worldwide have experienced violence at some time in their lives.iii Pay gap legislation introduced in the United Kingdom (UK) in 2017 mandated that all employers of 250 or more employees must publish their gender pay gap data:iv the data released as a result has driven widespread debate about gender equality issues, though time will tell if attention to the issues will also lead to concrete change in policy and practice.

Data can help change laws and traditions. In El Salvador, for example, data showing that 25 per cent of all girls are married before the age of 18 equipped civil society organizations to campaign to close a legal loophole that allowed marriage before the age of 18 with parental consent or if a girl was pregnant (a law that resulted in some girls having to marry their rapist) (see El Salvador case study in section 4); in Kenya, data gathered by GROOTS Kenya on women’s land ownership has been crucial in encouraging men to take out joint land titles with their spouses (see section 4); Ireland’s referendum on abortion in May 2018 was partly influenced by data showing that the equivalent of nine women every day travelled from Ireland to the UK to have abortions, with “nine a day” becoming a common slogan.vi

Data can drive accountability when it is well-organised and accessible to civil society and other actors who can hold governments to account for their commitments and call out lagging progress. For example, Zambia’s rapid progress in reducing maternal mortality, especially between 2000 and 2015 was, in part, driven by well-publicized data that showed it was lagging behind other African countries in tackling maternal deaths.vii In Uruguay, data collected through time-use surveys helped to quantify women’s unpaid care work, and helped make the case for an integrated national care system, including expanded services for preschool children, the elderly and people with disabilities.viii

Examples of data driving accountability on gender equality can also be found in the stories highlighted in our country profiles in section 4.

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ii Ibid.


ix G. Cantril, “The naked power of numbers: How the availability and use of credible and timely data. Girls and women are among the most invisible, because some of the data that are currently being collected fail to accurately reflect the specific challenges they face – and other data relevant to their lives are not being captured at all.”

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**Equalmeasures2030.org**
If we ensure quality data are in the hands of decision makers who are ready to listen and act on the evidence, they will be better equipped to implement and monitor the laws, policies and budget allocations that are needed to achieve gender equality. Data are fuel for information, and information is fuel for decisions.

Of those who responded to our Global Advocates Survey, nine in ten (89 per cent) agree that a breakthrough in SDG progress on helping the most disadvantaged girls and women is not possible without relevant data – the data that present a full picture of progress and the reasons for that progress (or lack thereof).

Yet significant barriers remain in getting quality data into the right hands at the right time. Serious data gaps undercut advocacy on issues that are crucial to the lives and rights of girls and women. Nearly nine in every ten (85 per cent) of advocates surveyed by EM2030 said that government data on gender equality are “somewhat” or “mostly” incomplete.

Currently, less than one quarter of the 232 indicators used by the UN to measure progress towards the SDGs refer explicitly to girls or women or demand disaggregation by sex. And for the 53 indicators related specifically to gender, only 15 are generally available and well-defined enough to measure.23 There are many more gender-related indicators scattered across the SDG framework, but they are either not explicit in focusing on gender, or they are ‘gender blind’.

**HOW TO EXPLAIN GENDER DATA GAPS?**

When asked why they think gaps remain in government data on gender, the most common response from gender advocates surveyed was that “collecting data on issues that affect girls and women isn’t prioritized”: nine in every ten (91 per cent) respondents thought this was a “very relevant” or “fairly relevant” explanation for government data gaps. Seven in every ten thought that there wasn’t enough technical know-how on gender data within governments (70 per cent say said this was a “very relevant” or “fairly relevant” explanation for government data gaps). Seven in every ten respondents said that “collecting data on issues that are crucial to the lives and rights of girls and women isn’t prioritized”: nine in every ten (91 per cent) agree that they need greater knowledge of existing data and where to find them, indicating that advocates have challenges in using existing data, as well as challenges presented by ongoing data gaps.

As well as the technical and political challenges of measuring some gender issues, there are also gaps in data disaggregation across every SDG area. Two thirds (66 per cent) of gender advocates surveyed identify insufficient data disaggregation (including by sex, wealth, location) as a challenge. Monitoring the SDGs’ “leave no one behind” agenda requires disaggregation of data by sex but also other disaggregation that combine sex and other characteristics such as age, income quintile, geographic location and disability to capture overlapping disadvantages. Many girls and women experience inequalities that intersect with and amplify disadvantages linked to, for example, their age, income, sexual orientation and ethnic or religious identity.

In Colombia, for example, indigenous and Afro-Colombian women are affected disproportionately by high levels of violence.24 In India, life expectancy for low-caste Dalit women was found to be 11 years shorter in 2013 than it was for women from higher castes.25 Without better data on the groups of girls and women most likely to be left behind by wider social and economic progress, no country can hope to take the necessary action to achieve gender equality for all.

That said, a focus only on the supply of data – even much-needed disaggregated data – misses an important part of the story. There are also major challenges in ramping up demand by ensuring that existing gender equality data are fit for purpose: that they are accessible and can be used effectively by gender advocates and policymakers to drive change.

When asked what would help them to use data and evidence more effectively to promote gender equality, 70 per cent of the advocates we surveyed in 2018 agree that they need greater knowledge of existing data and where to find them, indicating that advocates have challenges in using existing data, as well as challenges presented by ongoing data gaps.

The 2017 Policymaker Survey also revealed the need for further work to improve the supply of data on gender issues and make data more accessible to policymakers who face many competing priorities. The foundation is in place: in our survey of policymakers, 78 per cent reported knowing “a great deal” or “a fair amount” about the SDGs, which is a good starting point for building awareness about the ambitious targets for gender equality contained in the goals.

The concerns of gender equality advocates in our survey are consistent with those raised by the EM2030 Policymaker Survey in 2017,26 which cast doubt on whether policymakers have – and are making good use of – the basic information they need to drive action towards the ambitious gender equality targets spread across the SDGs. When asked to estimate the scale of several key challenges in their own country – maternal mortality, early marriage, women in the labour force and women in parliament – most policymakers lacked confidence in their knowledge of the facts and were uncertain about where to find such information.27

The next section of this report introduces the SDG Gender Index, an advocacy tool driven by advocates, for advocates. The report then shows how the Index can be used in practice: in section 3 for cross-country analysis; in section 4 for country profiling; and in annexes 3 and 4 in relation to the SDGs and issues that are vital for girls and women yet are ‘missing’ from the global data sets that are currently available.
The EM2030 SDG Gender Index represents the most comprehensive tool to measure overall progress towards gender equality that is aligned to the SDGs. It is unique in the breadth of its approach and analysis, and in its development by a partnership that spans civil society and the private sector with a presence in Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America and North America. It is also unique in being driven in part by the needs for data expressed by policymakers and gender equality advocates.

The first iteration of the SDG Gender Index covers 12 SDGs and six countries (see Box 4 for how EM2030 chose the six focus countries). It will be refined in response to feedback in late 2018, with the full Index due to be launched in 2019, covering as many countries worldwide as possible.

WHY DO WE NEED THE SDG GENDER INDEX?

As the combined results of our surveys of policymakers and advocates have shown, there is a pressing need for data to hold governments accountable for gender equality across the SDGs. While this involves advocating for the filling of crucial data gaps and for greater disaggregation of data by sex, it also involves compiling and communicating data in more compelling ways, to ensure advocates have what they need now in order to assess whether governments are delivering on the commitments laid out in the SDGs.

This is where the SDG Gender Index comes in: aiming to tell the story of progress towards gender equality – or the lack thereof – and highlighting critical gender equality issues where global data gaps hamper our collective ability to track progress on the SDGs. The Index can be used by girls’ and women’s movements and other gender equality advocates as they try to influence policymakers and others on the gender equality elements of the SDGs.

DESIGN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDEX

The design of the SDG Gender Index has been informed by:
- consultations within and across the EM2030 partnership (including our national partners in six countries)
- public consultations, including at the 62nd Session of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) in March 2018
- inputs from a Technical Reference Group
- surveys with policymakers and gender advocates worldwide.

The perspectives of gender advocates, in particular, have been crucial for the development of the SDG Gender Index. Their views have allowed us to:
- prioritize the issues to be reflected in the SDG Gender Index
- identify the areas that have the greatest traction for advocates, such as SRHR and GBV
- identify the issues that need to be amplified to help build larger constituencies of support among gender equality advocates, such as climate change, public finance, and water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH)
- identify ‘missing’ policy issues that are critical for gender equality, that lack sufficient global data and that demand better measurement in the future (explored in annex 4).

BOX 4
How did EM2030 choose its six focus countries?

Colombia, El Salvador, India, Indonesia, Kenya and Senegal were initially selected as focus countries for EM2030 by the core partners of the initiative, on the basis of the following principles and guidelines:

- the countries had a high burden of gender-related SDG issues
- the countries represent a range of geographic coverage, sizes, populations and income levels
- the countries were seen to have safe spaces in which civil society could advocate and influence with a certain level of freedom
- further data and analysis, as well as investment in data usage and accessibility, would add value to the current efforts of civil society in these countries
- the countries had a strong EM2030 partner presence, as well as networks of advocates and connections with policymakers

As well as continuing to work in these six countries, we hope to scale up our work in additional countries, including countries in the Global North, in the near future.
In keeping with the SDGs’ spirit of universality to ensure that no one is ‘left behind’ by progress, our SDG Gender Index aims to capture a mix of gender equality issues of relevance across every country and context. It also aims to capture a breadth of gender equality indicators, spanning every area from SRHR to GBV, and from decent work to climate change and tax and public finance.

HOW DOES THE SDG GENDER INDEX RELATE TO OFFICIAL SDG MONITORING FRAMEWORKS?

Our Index includes many of the official gender-related SDG indicators developed by the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) and adopted by the UN. Given the rigour of the existing IAEG-SDGs process to develop a country-led and holistic monitoring framework for the SDGs, do we really need an independent global Index on gender and the SDGs?

The Index will build upon and reinforce the official SDG monitoring framework, particularly in providing advocates with tools to hold governments to account for their SDG commitments. It uses a gender lens to scrutinise the SDGs and capture as many gender issues as possible for each of the 12 goals we have measured (using complementary indicators where necessary). It also seeks to incorporate some issues that are important for advocates and for an enabling environment for gender equality, but that may not be reflected sufficiently in the official SDG monitoring framework, such as progressive taxation, legal frameworks for abortion, and the extent to which women are represented in senior government positions (such as Head of Government, Finance Minister, and Foreign Minister).

The Index has a particular focus on complementary indicators that capture information on laws, policies and public finance, as these signal national progress towards the SDGs today, where data for the full set of official SDG outcome indicators may not be collected or ready to be reported for some time. We hope to expand the inclusion of such complementary data sources in the future, including data from non-governmental organizations (NGOs), development agencies, civil society and the private sector.

The Index also aims to amplify and support the foundational work conducted by UN Women on monitoring the gender equality dimensions of the SDGs, including in their recent report – Turning Promises into Action: Gender Equality in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. We draw on this work in our analysis of gender equality across the SDGs in annex 3.

BOX 5

What is unique about the EM2030 SDG Gender Index?

- It draws on consultations with advocates and other stakeholders at every level and includes feedback from our focus countries and regional partners to provide deeper national contextualization.
- It draws on a mix of official and complementary indicators, and includes ‘inputs’ (such as laws, policies, norms and financing allocations) that affect the lives of girls and women, as well as the ‘outcomes’ (such as maternal mortality ratios) that more commonly feature in most indices.
- It highlights issues that create an enabling environment for gender equality but are not widely seen as ‘gender issues’, such as climate change and tax and public finance issues.
- It also helps to identify critical policy issues for girls and women that are missing from the Index because of a lack of data or insufficient country coverage – data gaps that, with political will and coordinated action, can and should be filled.
WHAT DOES THE SDG GENDER INDEX FRAMEWORK INCLUDE?
The first iteration of the EM2030 SDG Gender Index includes 43 indicators across 12 of the 17 SDGs, as shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Issues included in the EM2030 SDG Gender Index</th>
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| **SDG 1: Poverty** | • Households living below the national poverty line  
                         • Social protection for the poorest households  
                         • Laws on women’s access to land use, control and ownership |
| **SDG 2: Hunger** | • Stunting among girls  
                          • Obesity among women  
                          • Anaemia in women of reproductive age |
| **SDG 3: Health** | • Maternal mortality  
                         • Adolescent birth rate (girls, 15-19 years)  
                         • Access to modern methods of family planning  
                         • HIV incidence in women |
| **SDG 4: Education** | • Girls who are over-age in primary school  
                             • Girls’ upper secondary school completion  
                             • Women’s literacy |
| **SDG 5: Gender equality** | • Child, early and forced marriage  
                                   • Perceptions of domestic violence  
                                   • Extent of legal frameworks related to abortion  
                                   • Women’s political participation  
                                   • Women’s representation in senior positions in government  
                                   • Women’s access to and use of digital financial services |
| **SDG 6: Water and sanitation** | • Household access to drinking water  
                                        • Household access to sanitation services  
                                        • Whether WASH plans and budgets address the needs of women |
| **SDG 7: Energy** | • Household access to electricity  
                          • Household use of clean fuels  
                          • Gender-responsiveness of clean energy policy frameworks |
| **SDG 8: Work and growth** | • Young women not in education, employment or training (NEET) (compared to young men)  
                                    • Vulnerability of women’s work (compared to men)  
                                    • Women’s unemployment  
                                    • Laws mandating women’s workplace equality |
| **SDG 10: Inequality** | • Income inequality (population-wide)  
                                • Expert perceptions of women’s political power  
                                • Constitutional guarantees related to gender equality |
| **SDG 13: Climate** | • People affected by disasters (population-wide)  
                                   • Women’s representation in the climate change political process  
                                   • Scale of ambition in setting of emissions targets |
| **SDG 16: Peace, justice and institutions** | • Women’s perceptions of personal safety  
                                      • Coverage of birth registration systems  
                                      • Women who are victims of intentional homicide  
                                      • People displaced by conflict (population-wide) |
| **SDG 17: Partnerships** | • Government spending on social assistance  
                                  • Progressiveness of the tax system  
                                  • Government commitment to using gender budgeting  
                                  • Accessibility and transparency of gender statistics |

The full Index framework, including indicator values, reference years and information about data sources, can be found in annexes 1 and 2.
As shown in Table 2, the SDG Gender Index goes beyond existing gender indices that focus on four or five of the SDGs. While this small set of SDGs are crucial for gender equality, they do not reflect the impact of a wide range of other vital issues for girls and women, including nutrition, water, sanitation, energy and fiscal and tax policies. Indeed, these are areas that are relatively or entirely ‘gender blind’ in the official SDG framework, with no gender-specific indicators. The more holistic approach of the SDG Gender Index to monitor gender progress across the SDGs is one of its key distinguishing features.

Three of the gender indicator frameworks shown in Table 2 were used to support the design of the Index.

- **UN Women’s SDG Indicator Framework**, mapping gender-related indicators in the SDGs. An initial position paper in 2015 identified 12 goals and 45 indicators of relevance for girls, women and gender equality. More recently, the UN Women Turning Promises into Action report noted that only 54 of the 232 SDG indicators explicitly target girls or women, or call for reporting that is disaggregated by sex, and that sufficient and regular data are available for only ten of these at present. While UN Women is exploring gender issues across all of the SDGs, it has no current plans to create a gender index on these issues.

- The **UN Minimum Set of Gender Indicators** agreed by the UN Statistical Commission in 2013 to guide national production and international compilation of gender statistics is a collection of 52 quantitative indicators and 11 legal/policy indicators addressing relevant issues related to gender equality. It covers seven SDGs and 11 of its 52 indicators are included in the SDG Gender Index.

- The Ready to Measure study produced by Data2X presents 20 indicators (16 identical to or closely related to the official SDG indicators and four complementary indicators) that are currently ready to report. It covers gender issues in five SDGs. Seven of its 20 indicators are included in the SDG Gender Index.

### Table 2

**Mapping global gender indices and indicator frameworks across the SDGs**

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Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018
WHY DOES THE SDG GENDER INDEX COVER JUST 12 OF THE 17 SDGS?

It could be argued that all 17 goals should be included in the EM2030 SDG Gender Index, given the relevance of gender for progress on all of the goals and the relevance of all the goals for gender equality. The challenge has been to strike a balance in creating an index that is not overly complex while covering the full breadth of gender equality issues across the SDG framework. If the Index includes too many issues and indicators, it will be difficult for advocates to glean what is driving the scores. If the SDG Gender Index is to serve as an accountability tool, it needs to be feasible to trace the Index scores to a set of real-world issues on which there has been good progress (in order to learn lessons) or to highlight issues where progress is lagging (in order to spur faster change).

In some cases, SDGs were excluded because of a lack of sufficient data on the gender-relevant issues within them, or because the gender-relevant issues were covered within other goals. While aiming to keep the overall number of indicators manageable, we wanted to ensure that there were at least three gender-relevant indicators for each goal in order to ensure that the calculation of a score for a SDG would not be weighted too heavily on performance on a single indicator.

We will consider feedback on whether more goals should be included in future iterations of the SDG Gender Index, and whether we should aim to identify at least three gender-relevant indicators for each of the 17 SDGs. We hope that this initial version of the Index will generate feedback about how additional issues could be better reflected in future iterations of the Index.

At present, the SDG Gender Index does not include the following five goals.

**SDG 9: Industry**

There is no doubt that issues in this SDG are highly gendered and require progress on gender equality. Work on the nexus of gender equality and trade, such as the work led by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), and other initiatives from international organizations such as the International Trade Centre, will soon yield more data about women’s ownership of, and employment in, enterprises. Private sector-led initiatives may yield more global-level information about gender- and ICT-related infrastructure issues. We are open to feedback about whether and how to include SDG 9 in the Index in future.
**SDG 11: Cities**

By 2030, 60 per cent of people worldwide will likely live in cities. This SDG contains targets and indicators of relevance for gender, including those on transport systems, access to green and public spaces, deaths and destruction related to disasters, and safe and affordable housing and basic services. There are also links between urbanization and GBV, with some research showing that urbanization can provide women with greater opportunities to cope with violence, while the fragmentation of social relations can lead to greater incidence of GBV. The high costs (in money and time) of public transportation have been linked to women’s lack of economic opportunities. However, globally comparable data on the gender-related issues within Goal 11 that we wanted to measure were not sufficiently available. We hope that the Index can better reflect key gender dimensions of SDG 11 in the future.

**SDG 12: Consumption and production**

Producing and consuming in unsustainable ways drives climate change and the destruction of the environment. The SDG Gender Index has attempted to cover gender-related dimensions of climate action under SDG 13, but we are open to advice about gender-related indicators for SDG 12 to consider in future iterations of the Index.

**SDG 14: Life below water**

Important gender dimensions within SDG 14 include livelihoods that rely on oceans and sustainable development issues related to their degradation. Again, we are open to suggestions for gender-related indicators on SDG 14 for consideration in future iterations of the Index.

**SDG 15: Life on land**

Women, particularly those who are poor and living in rural areas, often depend on forests for fuel, fodder and food, and they can also play a crucial role in supporting regeneration when they have leadership roles. This is another area where we welcome advice on potential gender-related indicators.

Annex 3 of this report explains what is included in the Index and why for the remaining 12 SDGs. In annex 4 we outline in detail the ‘missing’ critical policy issues for each SDG that we wanted to include, or include in a better way, but that are not yet sufficiently measurable globally because of data constraints. Examples include intra-household income and resource allocation, intimate partner violence (IPV), time use, and gender provisions within trade agreements, amongst many more.
Gender advocates – gender equality champions from all sectors, with a particular focus on girls’ and women’s movements and advocates – are an important target audience for the SDG Gender Index. To better understand their needs, we commissioned a global survey, carried out by Ipsos, which is one of the world’s largest survey-based market research companies that delivers survey-based research to inform decision makers on contemporary societal and economic problems.

The EM2030 Global Advocates Survey 2018 attracted responses from 613 gender advocates around the world who shared their views on progress towards gender equality, how they feel about current data sources and the issues they think should be prioritized in the push for better and more accessible data to meet the SDGs for girls and women. The open-access survey was designed to inform EM2030’s work more broadly, but has also helped us to shape the SDG Gender Index.

The breadth of issues reflected in our SDG Gender Index reflects the wide-ranging gender equality issues that advocates see as a priority for the achievement of the gender equality aspects of the SDGs. We asked them to prioritize issues on the basis of what they saw as important, even if this differed from the issues they prioritize in their own advocacy.

Respondents saw the following four policy areas as the highest priority for progress on gender equality:

- GBV (58 per cent)
- SRHR (43 per cent)
- economic empowerment, access to land and financial inclusion (38 per cent)
- equitable and quality education at all levels (35 per cent).

The four policy areas seen as being of lowest priority for gender equality progress were:

- girls and women in conflict/post-conflict situations (14 per cent)
- access to public infrastructure, including clean energy, water and sanitation (9 per cent)
- women and the effects of climatic and environmental changes (9 per cent)
- public finance, public spending and taxation (7 per cent).

Advocates’ views on gender equality policy priorities differed significantly by region.

The issues judged by advocates to be lower gender equality policy priorities (based on the list of issues we provided, and the limitation of them choosing just three) should not be discounted as important gender equality issues, as the experience of the EM2030 partner organizations and our engagement with wider stakeholders shows. These issues are discussed in depth in annex 3, where we provide a goal-by-

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goal rationale for why all of the issues in our Index matter for gender equality.

Fewer than one in ten advocates (9 per cent) who responded to the survey, for example, prioritized “the effects of climatic and environmental change” as a key issue for gender equality, despite the severe impact of climate change on a wide range of issues from health, to land, to livelihoods, particularly for girls and women.

And just 7 per cent of advocates surveyed selected tax and public finance as a high-priority gender equality issue. When asked specifically about whether “tax issues have a big impact on gender equality,” 15 per cent of respondents said they “don’t know” and 19 per cent had a neutral view on the question. More positively, however, nearly four in five (79 per cent) respondents agreed that “government spending and investment in public services has a big impact on gender equality.” The majority (55 per cent) of advocates surveyed agreed that “tax policies and issues have a big impact on gender equality.”

More work is needed to raise the profile of tax and public finance issues among advocates, but there is some awareness and understanding of the critical importance of investment in public services that can support progress on many other gender equality issues. For more on the importance of tax and public finance for gender equality, see annexes 3 and 4.

The Global Advocates Survey helped to clarify that our SDG Gender Index needs to:

- reflect issues that top the list of advocates’ priorities and for which there is a ready-made constituency of support (such as GBV and SRHR)

- draw attention to systemic issues that are rarely thought of as gender equality issues but that influence gender equality progress across all SDGs, such as climate and public finance

- provide a platform for advocacy on more and better gender data (including disaggregated data) to fill the gaps where there is not enough global data at present to measure several critical gender equality policy issues.

BOX 8
How was the Global Advocates Survey conducted?

We sought to reach and hear from the widest range of gender advocates from all sectors and across the world. For the purposes of this study, we adopted a broad definition to capture those who don’t have a formal job as an advocate but who champion gender equality in their sector or community. Respondents were considered gender equality advocates if they had “taken action to advocate for gender equality in the last three years,” with example actions including: working for an organization whose work includes advocating for gender equality, signing a petition, joining a public mobilization or contacting an elected representative about gender equality.

Using both paper and online surveys for the data collection was deemed to be the most effective method to engage with this diverse group of advocates and to collect their views on gender progress, priorities and the use of data and evidence to promote change.

Our recommendation for this approach assumed that an online survey would allow participants the necessary time and flexibility to complete the survey from anywhere in the world. Paper surveys (which were processed electronically) were used to reach those who might not have reliable access to the internet.

A special effort was made by a wide range of girls’ and women’s advocacy networks and groups to promote and disseminate the survey across their networks. The link to the survey questionnaire was also circulated through social media platforms (Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn), in electronic newsletters and other communication channels.

The survey was conducted between 8 March and 23 May 2018. The questionnaire was developed in five languages: Bahasa Indonesian, English, French, Hindi and Spanish (reflecting languages spoken in the EM2030 focus countries).

- In total, 613 advocates from 48 countries responded to the survey.

- Respondents were made up of 82 per cent women, 17 per cent men, and 1 per cent who described themselves in a different way.
**BOX 8 (CONTINUED)**

How was the Global Advocates Survey conducted?

- Of those who stated a single country on which their advocacy was focused (as compared with those who said their advocacy was regional or global, which totalled 316), the vast majority (73 per cent) are from the Global South, with a regional breakdown of national advocates as follows:
  - Africa: 76 (from nine countries)
  - Asia: 68 (from seven countries)
  - North America & Western Europe: 58 (from 15 countries)
  - Latin America & Caribbean: 39 (from 17 countries)

- More than one in five respondents (22 per cent) submitted paper forms and the remaining share (78 per cent) completed the online questionnaire. The two groups (paper and online survey respondents) were roughly similar in terms of the distribution of age, sex and location.

- Most respondents (79 per cent) indicated that they “work for an organisation whose work includes advocating for gender equality (including paid and voluntary positions).” There was a fairly even divide between advocates answering for a specific country (52 per cent) and those answering from a cross national (including regional or global) perspective (48 per cent).

**BOX 9**

There is no ‘magic bullet’ indicator for gender equality

The EM2030 Global Advocates Survey asked respondents to select one indicator that might propel gender equality in the right direction. The responses vary enormously, but there is a strong view that there is no ‘magic bullet’ indicator that can guarantee gender equality on its own, given the cross-cutting and complex nature of gender issues.

Some respondents cited indicators related to participation and representation …

- More women in legislative seats! Even better—women of COLOR!*
- Invest in and measure equity instead of equality: look internally at international organisations and political bodies. It is not about the number of women present, it is about their share, the value of their voices, the empowerment of women, the access to power systems.*

… some flagged up indicators on GBV …

- Proportion of women who experience any form of gender-based violence. Violence is destructive. Peace is constructive. If women live in a safe environment – at home, in their communities – gender equality and women’s empowerment can thrive.*
- Women’s perception of their safety and human security – in the home, in the community, in their political engagements at all levels.*

… some highlighted education …

- If in 5 years we have more women attending school it will be the first indicator to know that gender equality is starting to be relevant.*
- Education parity at all levels.*
… some emphasised wealth, poverty and the gender pay gap …

Per cent global and national wealth controlled by per cent women compared with per cent of men."

Pay gap … pay gap … pay gap.”

… and others emphasised the age of marriage …

Child marriage rates: It’s an amazing proxy for progress on a wide range of gender equality goals.”

Marriage age as a proxy indicator for economic empowerment, career opportunities.”

But some queried the validity of the question itself.

Oh gosh, this is very hard question because gender equality can’t be reduced to only one single indicator!”

I don’t think there is a single indicator/metric that would capture this complex issue.”

I think that reducing this complex problem to a single metric is a disservice to the cause of achieving gender equality and equity.”

Tellingly, one gender advocate responded:

I don’t think a single metric is capable of reflecting something as nuanced as gender equality.

So – maybe some kind of index?”
SDG GENDER INDEX
COMPARING PILOT RESULTS FOR SIX FOCUS COUNTRIES
In this pilot version of the EM2030 SDG Gender Index, we present results for our six focus countries: Colombia, El Salvador, India, Indonesia, Kenya and Senegal. As noted, the Index will be refined in response to feedback in late 2018, and launched in 2019 with data covering as many countries worldwide as possible.

The six focus countries provide a cross-section of diverse social, cultural and economic (although mostly middle-income) contexts, drawing on the geographic regions of Africa, Asia and Latin America.

These are countries that are poised to make progress towards the SDGs and gender equality. What’s more, the SDG situation for girls and women in these six countries matters because they represent such a significant share of the world’s population – more than one in five (22 per cent) of the world’s population of girls and women live in these six countries.\(^{30}\)

All six also have growing populations, with girls and women accounting for nearly 657.5 million people across the focus countries in 2000, rising to 817.8 million in 2015, and with their numbers predicted to grow even further over the lifespan of the SDGs to reach almost one billion girls and women in 2030.\(^{41}\)

Turning to the EM2030 SDG Gender Index, Figure 5 presents overall pilot scores for the six countries studied.

The scores are presented as a heat map – a score closer to green on the spectrum represents greater gender equality in comparison to the other countries in the group.

The dashboard in Figure 6 shows the results when we unpack the overall SDG Gender Index scores to look at the scores for each country on each SDG.

One common theme emerges strongly: there is wide variation in how countries score when we look across the SDGs. Each country has SDGs where their gender equality scores are stronger, and SDGs where they are weaker on the gender equality dimensions of the goal. Scores marked by darker green indicate SDGs where the country has a relatively high gender equality score amongst this group of countries. Scores marked by orange or red indicate SDGs where a country has a lower gender equality score. The dashboard provides an opportunity to identify SDGs to explore further, to better understand what is driving the country’s stronger or weaker result on that SDG.

After providing further context to help with interpreting the pilot SDG Gender Index scores, the remainder of this section unpacks some of the gender equality issues that are driving the strengths and weaknesses for each country. The values for all of the indicators used to calculate the Index scores can be found in annex 2. And the new Gender Advocates Data Hub (explained in Box 1, on page 14, and available at www.data.em2030.org) also provides an opportunity to dig into the findings for each country.
The six country profiles highlighted in section 4 explore in greater detail examples of both positive change on gender equality and areas where more efforts are needed in each country, written from the perspective of our national and regional partners.

INTERPRETING THE SDG GENDER INDEX SCORES

This first iteration of the SDG Gender Index aims to explore how robustly it has captured gender-related issues, looking both within and across countries. Results for these six countries are presented here as a way of bringing the SDG Gender Index framework to life, and to test how well the Index works when applied to diverse country settings.

The overall and individual SDG Gender Index scores are relative scores based on how countries perform on the selected indicators relative to the other five countries in this group. The darker green the country’s score, the higher the performance on gender-related indicators, compared to the other countries. The closer to red the country’s score, the lower the performance on gender-related indicators, compared to the other countries.

It is important to clarify that the scores do not represent how near or far a given country is to reaching the ‘end-point’ for that SDG. It represents only how the country has performed on the selected indicators when compared with the other countries in this group. This method of relative scoring holds the potential for much richer cross-national comparisons when the SDG Gender Index is extended to cover a wider group of countries in 2019.

As this is a pilot study, the scores for these six countries will change when the SDG Gender Index is released in 2019 with worldwide data for as many countries as possible. This is true for several reasons: new data will become available, the countries’ scores will be calculated relative to a larger group of countries of different levels of economic development, the issues and indicators included in the Index will be adapted before 2019 (in part due to data availability), and the techniques used to derive the scores may also change in response to feedback.

However, given that these six countries span three regions and they represent more than 22 per cent of the world’s population of girls and women, comparisons within this set of countries remain relevant as standalone research.

KEY SDG GENDER INDEX FINDINGS BY COUNTRY

What does the SDG Gender Index tell us about the profile of gender equality for each country? What are their specific strengths and weaknesses?

![Image of a woman]
COLOMBIA

Areas of strong performance in the Index

Colombia has the highest overall score on the SDG Gender Index among the six countries, with its overall score showing as darker green in Figures 5 and 6. The country scores relatively well on several SDGs: SDG 1 (poverty), SDG 2 (hunger), SDG 3 (health), SDG 6 (water and sanitation), and SDG 7 (energy). Context from its country profile (see section 4) also reinforces Colombia’s strong performance on a number of these issues, which are linked to access to services that have a positive impact on gender equality.

SDG 1 on poverty: Colombia has the highest score amongst the group on SDG 1, driven partly by the fact that it had the highest proportion of the poorest 20 per cent of the population covered by social assistance (81 per cent in 2014).

SDG 2 on hunger: Colombia also scores well on the hunger goal. It had the lowest proportion of non-pregnant women with anaemia (21 per cent in 2016), for example.

SDG 3 on health: Colombia leads the group on two gender-related health indicators: looking at the most recent data available, it had the highest rate of women whose need for family planning was being met (87 per cent of women in 2016, see Figure 7), and the lowest incidence of new HIV infections among women of reproductive age (0.04 out of every 1,000 uninfected women became infected in 2016, compared to a high of 3.09 per 1,000 in in 2016 in Kenya – a 77 times higher infection rate than Colombia).

SDG 6 on water and sanitation: 97 per cent of the population in Colombia were using at least basic sources of drinking water in 2015.

SDG 7 on energy: Colombia leads the pack on this SDG, with 92 per cent of the population reliant on clean fuels and technology as of 2016 (compared with 13 per cent in Kenya and 32 per cent in Senegal, see Figure 8). Colombia also performed well on access to electricity in 2016 and is the highest-performing country in the measure of whether a country’s clean energy policies reflect a gender-responsive approach.

 Areas for improvement in the Index

Despite leading the Index scores overall among this group of countries, there are at least four SDGs where Colombia’s performance on gender equality has weaknesses compared with the other countries in this group.

SDG 5 on gender equality: Colombia has some weak points in SDG 5. Just 19 per cent of seats in the national parliament were held by women (as at February 2018), and as of the May 2018 election none of the five senior government positions we measured were held by women.

SDG 8 on work and growth: There is room for improvement here, as Colombia had a fairly high rate of unemployment for women in 2017 and a fairly high ratio of young women to men who were NEET in 2017. It also has a poor performance on the indicator measuring laws mandating women’s workplace equality as at 2018.
SDG 10 on inequality: A very high rate of income inequality pulls Colombia’s score down, because the richest 10 per cent of people earned nearly four times the amount earned by the poorest 40 per cent in 2012. Colombia’s Palma ratio is 4.0 compared to a Palma Ratio of about 1.5 in both India (2010) and Indonesia (2010) where a lower ratio indicates greater income equality population-wide.43

SDG 16 on peace, justice and institutions: Colombia has the weakest score on SDG 16 amongst this group of countries, which is driven primarily by issues related to violence and conflict. It had the highest rate by far of people displaced by conflict in 2017 (with nearly 3 times the number of people displaced by violence and conflict as the next country in the list, see Figure 9). Colombia also had the lowest percentage of women who reported feeling safe walking alone at night (just 36 per cent in 2017, see Figure 12) and also the second highest rate of women who were victims of intentional homicide in 2016 (see Figure 10).

The Colombia country profile in section 4, and the data-driven influencing work of EM2030’s partner in Colombia, Ruta Pacífica de las Mujeres, focus heavily on monitoring the continuing and devastating impact of displacement, violence and conflict on girls and women.

FIGURE 9
Number of those displaced by conflict per 1,000 people (total/stock)

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018
Note: Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC), 2017

SDG 5 on gender equality: El Salvador has several weak points in SDG 5, especially the lack of any legal grounds for abortion by 2017 (Senegal is the only other country with no legal grounds for abortion – see Figure 15). The criminalization of abortion is discussed in the El Salvador country profile in section 4. El Salvador also had a fairly high rate of child, early and forced marriage, with 26 per cent of girls married before the age of 18 in 2014. And it had the lowest percentage of women who had made or received a digital payment in the last year (18 per cent in 2017).

SDG 10 on inequality: El Salvador had the lowest score on how equally political power is shared between men and women, based on experts’ perceptions in 2016. It also has the lowest score (alongside Indonesia) for gender equality provisions in its Constitution in 2017.

SDG 16 on peace, justice and institutions: One of the most startling figures in the SDG Gender Index for El Salvador is the number of women who were victims of intentional homicide in 2016 (see Figure 10), with the rate in El Salvador nearly 60 times the rate in Indonesia. Violence against girls and women and femicide is an issue emphasised in the El Salvador country profile in section 4.

FIGURE 10
Female victims of intentional homicide (per 100,000 population)

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018
Note: UNODC; Colombia, El Salvador, India, Kenya (2016), Indonesia (2014), Senegal (2015)
India scores fairly well on SDGs 10 and 16.

**SDG 10 on inequality:** India scores well on SDG 10 among our six countries. It had low levels of income inequality (as of 2012), and the highest score for the extent to which gender equality is reflected in its Constitution as of 2017.

**SDG 16 on peace, justice and institutions:** India had lower rates of women killed by intentional homicide in 2016 than many of the other countries (see Figure 10) and fairly low rates of people displaced by conflict as of 2017. India also had the second highest proportion of women who said they feel safe walking alone at night (69 per cent in 2017, see Figure 12).

There are bright spots within some of the other goals, even if the overall scores on these SDGs aren’t as high for India as the other five countries.

For example, on **SDG 5**, India had the highest score on the legal grounds for abortion, alongside Colombia (based on legislation in 2017) and it had the highest score for women represented in senior positions in the government in 2018. However, it has the lowest performance on women represented in national parliaments (just 12 per cent in 2018).

On **SDG 17** (partnerships), India registers a strong commitment to gender budgeting and also had the second highest social expenditure, as a percentage of GDP, in 2016.

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### Areas for improvement in the Index

**SDG 2 on hunger:** India lagged behind the other countries on SDG 2. While it had the lowest rates of obesity among women, it had the highest rates of stunting among girls in 2015/16. The country also had the highest prevalence of anaemia among women, with anaemia rates for women nearly double that of Colombia, El Salvador, Indonesia and Kenya in 2016 (see Figure 11).

**FIGURE 11**
Prevalence of anaemia amongst non-pregnant women (aged 15-49 years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Prevalence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018  
Note: WHO Global Health Observatory Repository, 2016

**SDG 5 on gender equality:** While there are some positive findings within SDG 5 for India, there are also weak points within this goal. India had the lowest percentage of women in its national parliament in 2018 – just 12 per cent compared to 42 per cent in Senegal (see Figure 14). It also had the second highest percentage of child, early and forced marriage before the age of 18 in 2015/16. In addition, it had a high percentage of women (45 per cent in 2015/16) who reported believing that a husband is justified in hitting his wife.

**SDG 13 on climate:** India scores the lowest of the six countries on the climate change goal, driven largely by the massive share of its people affected by disasters in recent years (primarily driven by monumental drought in 2015 and 2016, estimated to have affected nearly a quarter of the population), but also because it has the lowest score for whether the delegation representing the country at the UNFCCC was gender-balanced in 2012.
Indonesia has strong Index scores on several SDGs that cover important gender equality issues.

**SDG 1 on poverty:** Indonesia scores well on SDG 1, with just 11 per cent of the population living below the national poverty line in 2017 and social assistance having reached 76 per cent of the poorest 20 per cent of people in 2015. The Indonesia country profile in section 4 outlines the deliberate efforts made in Indonesia to expand the reach of healthcare and social protection across the country.

**SDG 4 on education:** Indonesia has the highest Index score for the education goal amongst this group of countries. It had the lowest rate of girls who were ‘over-age’ for their year in primary school (2.5 per cent of female students in 2016, compared with 15 per cent in Colombia in 2016). It also ties with Colombia for female literacy, with 94 per cent of women having basic literacy skills in 2016.

**SDG 5 on gender equality:** Indonesia ties with Kenya for the highest score on SDG 5. This is driven largely by a relatively low reported rate of child, early and forced marriage among the six focus countries. However, the Indonesia country profile and the work of EM2030 partner KAPAL Perempuan outlined in section 4 show that Indonesia cannot afford to ignore this problem, as it remains a major issue within some regions and groups in the country, and because there is still a large absolute number of girls affected due to Indonesia’s large population. While 35 per cent of women believe that a husband/partner is justified in beating his wife/partner in some circumstances, Indonesia performs best of the focus countries on two indicators related to violence in SDG 16 - percentage of women who feel safe walking alone at night (see Figure 12) and women killed as a result of intentional homicide (see Figure 10).

**FIGURE 12**

Percentage of women aged 15+ years who reported feeling safe walking in their neighbourhood at night

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Feeling Safe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018
Note: Gallup World Poll, 2017

**SDG 17 on partnerships:** This is another area where Indonesia has a strong lead. Its tax system was judged to be the most progressive among the six countries studied in 2015, and it led the group for the openness of its gender statistics in 2017. However, it could do more to raise its commitment to gender budgeting.

As with every other country reviewed, there are some areas across the gender equality dimensions of the SDGs where Indonesia’s performance could be improved.

**SDG 8 on work and growth:** Indonesia had the highest ratio of women to men recognized as “contributing family workers” in 2017, reflecting that vulnerable employment (often unpaid) makes up a much higher proportion of employment for women than it does men.

**SDG 10 on inequality:** Indonesia had the weakest commitment to gender equality in its national Constitution (tied with El Salvador) in 2017.
equalmeasures2030.org

top score on SDG 5 in the Index. It had a standout performance on the share of women who reported having made or received a digital payment in the past year in 2017 (75 per cent of women). The Kenya country profile in section 4 provides further context on the strength of Kenya’s digital money market, and the links to women’s economic empowerment.

While 23 per cent of girls in Kenya were married before the age of 18 in 2014, this was the second lowest rate of child, early and forced marriage among this particular group of countries. In addition, 22 per cent of seats in Kenya’s national parliament were held by women in 2018, putting it in third place among our selected countries (see Figure 14). Kenya also performed fairly well on women’s representation in the five key senior government positions that we measured for 2018 (see Figure 13).

FIGURE 13
Women’s representation in senior positions in government

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018

SDG 8 on work and growth: Kenya receives the highest score on SDG 8, showing strong performance on the share of young women relative to men who are NEET and on the extent to which Kenya has laws mandating women’s workplace equality. However, Kenya also had the highest rate of women’s unemployment among the focus countries at over 15 per cent of the female labour force.
**SDG 6 on water and sanitation:** While Senegal faces continued challenges in extending access to basic drinking water and sanitation services, the country has performed better than might be expected given its level of economic development. It is also the country with the highest score for the extent to which its WASH policies and plans include specific provisions to reach women.

**SDG 10 on inequality:** Senegal has the best Index score on SDG 10 of this group of countries. It had fairly low levels of income inequality in 2012, as well as fairly high scores for expert perceptions in 2016 of how equally political power is shared between men and women and for the extent to which its Constitution guarantees gender equality.

**SDG 13 on climate:** Senegal also has the highest Index score on the climate change goal. This is driven by the fact that it had the lowest rate of people affected by disasters in recent years and because it has set relatively ambitious emissions targets when compared to its ‘fair share’.

**Areas for improvement in the Index**

There is room for improvement on a number of the gender equality dimensions we studied in Senegal.

**SDG 1 on poverty:** Senegal had the highest proportion of the population living below the national poverty line, at 47 per cent in 2011 (latest available year). Of the six countries, Senegal also had the lowest percentage of the poorest people who are covered by social assistance – 5.1 per cent in 2011 (compared with 81 per cent in Colombia in 2014). It also has a low score for the extent to which laws afford women and men equal and secure access to land use, control and ownership, which is crucial to women’s economic empowerment.

**SDG 3 on health:** Senegal had a weak performance on access to family planning, with just 47 per cent of women having reported that their needs for family planning are met with modern methods in 2016, compared with at least 72 per cent (but typically higher) in the other five countries (see Figure 7).

**SDG 4 on education:** Senegal is a real outlier on girls’ secondary completion rates, with just 6 per cent of girls having completed upper secondary education in 2016, compared to around 40 per cent in Indonesia and Kenya in 2014 and in India in 2016. And the literacy rates for women were also very low, suggesting that this problem has been around for some time: just 34 per cent of women had basic literacy skills in 2013, compared with 79 per cent in Kenya in 2014, and 94 per cent in Indonesia in 2016.

**SDG 5 on gender equality:** Senegal has some major challenges to confront on this goal, in spite of the strong performance on women’s representation in national parliaments mentioned above. It had the highest rate of child, early and forced marriage (31 per cent in 2015) and the highest percentage of women who reported thinking a man is justified in beating his wife in certain circumstances (49 per cent of women in 2016). Like El Salvador, Senegal also has no legal grounds for abortion (see Figure 15).

**CONCLUSION**

The SDG Gender Index helps to paint a ‘big picture’ of gender equality across the SDGs in the six focus countries. It provides a framework for gender analysis across many of the SDGs and this, in turn, presents an opportunity to identify and learn from the countries’ strengths and weaknesses.

For example, what actions taken in a specific country might explain its high score on a particular SDG in the Index? Where are the gaps and weaknesses that provide a platform for advocacy to drive action? What can countries learn from one another on what works for gender equality?

In section 4 that follows, our EM2030 partners share their perspectives on the Index findings in a set of country profiles that illustrate the context behind these results.
COUNTRY PROFILES
Having compared the findings of the SDG Gender Index across our six initial focus countries, we dig deeper to explore the national results for each country. As well as providing an overview of the national gender equality context, the country profiles that follow set out areas within the Index where the respective countries perform well alongside possible reasons for this good performance, and areas where more work is needed.

Each profile provides information on the work of EM2030’s national influencing partners, all of whom are working intensively at community and national level on SDG issues and using data in different ways to strengthen their influencing. Stories from each country show the human faces behind the data.

**COLOMBIA**

The big picture

Colombia has strong laws and institutions to support the rights of girls and women. The country’s 1991 Constitution recognizes women’s equality and outlaws gender-based discrimination. The High Presidential Office for the Equality of Women, which reports directly to the President, was created after the adoption of the Constitution to monitor policies on gender equity. National legal and policy frameworks aim to support gender equality, expand parental leave, establish a 30 per cent quota for women candidates in all elections, allow the legal termination of pregnancies in some cases, and end GBV and discrimination.

A vibrant civil society has been instrumental in crafting policies to create a more equitable society, including advocating for women’s participation in the peace process that resulted in the historic 2016 accord between the Government and the Fuerzas Armadas Revolucionarias de Colombia-Ejército del Pueblo (FARC-EP). Colombia has also implemented effective policies in recent years to combat hunger, guarantee education and basic healthcare services, improve access to electricity and water, and reduce inequality.

In practice, however, girls and women still endure discrimination; those in conflict-affected areas face significant challenges, including displacement. There are barriers to women’s access to land, agricultural resources and basic services in rural areas, as well as limits on their opportunities to run for public office, their representation in government and their employment in the formal economy, alongside high rates of GBV. Further, many government policies and budgets continue to be ‘gender blind’: designed without incorporating gender perspectives.

**Positive results in areas addressed by the SDG Gender Index**

**Maternal and child health**

Basic public healthcare reached approximately 96 per cent of Colombians in 2016. Important measures of women’s health have improved over time, including increased access to screenings and treatment for cervical and breast cancer, as well as reduced deaths during childbirth, and curbing unwanted pregnancies through a national strategy to prevent teenage pregnancy.

The MMR dropped by over 2 per cent each year between 1990 and 2015, with an estimated 64 deaths for every 100,000 births in 2015. The Government of Colombia has committed to reduce the rural MMR by an additional 25 per cent by 2018 and to expand access to quality, affordable maternal and infant healthcare in under-served rural areas. Further to this, the programme De cero a siempre (From Zero to Forever) provides nutrition and health services for children from birth to age five and is accompanied by a programme to promote breastfeeding and child food subsidies from the Colombian Family Welfare Institute.

**Access to safe water**

Water supply and sanitation improved between 1990 and 2010: the share of the population with access to improved sanitation rose from 67 per cent to 77 per cent. Today, over 97 per cent of Colombians use drinking water services that are safely managed.

Yet many water-related policies – including those governing access to drinking water and sewer services in rural areas – continue to be designed without women’s participation in decision-making bodies and in ways that are not gender-responsive.

**SDG Gender Index priority areas for action**

**Gender-based violence (GBV)**

Civil society has raised the profile of violence against women in public debate and has contributed to the Government of Colombia’s adoption of numerous laws that criminalize various forms of GBV and improve accountability. Yet rates of violence against girls and women remain high.

**FIGURE 16**

**SDG Gender Index dashboard for Colombia**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>SDG 1</th>
<th>SDG 2</th>
<th>SDG 3</th>
<th>SDG 4</th>
<th>SDG 5</th>
<th>SDG 6</th>
<th>SDG 7</th>
<th>SDG 8</th>
<th>SDG 10</th>
<th>SDG 13</th>
<th>SDG 16</th>
<th>SDG 17</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018

Note: The scores in the SDG Gender Index are relative to the six countries in the sample, not to the desired end-point of the SDGs.
**BOX 10**

**Focus on success: Women in the peace process**

The peace accord between the Government of Colombia and the FARC-EP ended a brutal, decades-long civil war that saw reports of over 20,000 cases of sexual violence, 160,000 forced disappearances and seven million people forcibly displaced.

The peace process was a model for gender responsiveness and paved the way for strong institutions that protect gender equality. In 2013, civil society leaders organized a National Summit of Women and Peace to demand an inclusive formal peace process, leading to the creation of a sub-committee for gender issues.

As a result, women comprised 20 per cent of the Government’s negotiating team and 40 per cent of the FARC-EP team in the negotiations that drew up the comprehensive peace agreement – some of the highest percentages for such participation ever recorded for a peace process.

Outside the formal talks, civil society organizations, including women’s groups, helped to build coalitions of opposing negotiating sides, to rally public support for the process, to mediate local cease-fires and to convince guerrillas to lift roadblocks.

Civil society also influenced the gender-related provisions in the peace agreement, including special measures to promote the participation of women in politics and ensure accountability for victims of conflict-related sexual violence.

The Development Programs with Territorial Focus (PDET) has an objective to work with communities to strengthen organizations of rural women, direct housing subsidies towards rural women-led households, and uphold gender considerations in land restitution policies for those displaced by conflict.

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**BOX 11**

**Advocating for the rights of women displaced by conflict**

“As a result of the armed conflict, my community where I lived as a child was displaced – some 1,600 families,” says Nini.

“It was not a very developed place, but it was still my home. I moved to a town six hours away, and there I became aware of all of the community spaces where people could raise their voice. As most of the leaders were men, they determined the social issues that would be discussed. But naturally, I saw things from another perspective.

“I’ve been active in community advocacy work and want to dedicate my time and energy to land rights for women and forced displacement as a result of the armed conflict. In my experience, women do not have the opportunity to own or maintain property in their city – because of the conflict, they have to leave behind an entire house and land. I believe women have been the most impacted by the armed conflict and have since struggled to access social and health services.

“When I was evacuated (once more) in 2017, without any reparation, my parents were very worried about me. I was not threatened though. I was there negotiating with other leaders, asking the government, “what support or guarantees are you going to give us?”

“Everything has a risk, but I fight for my son. Last time I went to my town was 2.5 years ago, but I’ll never go back. I need to move forward and support women as we collectively protect ourselves and demand the lives we deserve.”

Nini, an advocate from Medellin region, Colombia, sits with a sign she’s written, translated as, “Women do not give birth to sons and daughters for the war.”
On average, 16 women each hour were victims of sexual violence between 2010-2015 in Colombia. Indigenous and Afro-Colombian girls and women accounted for 65 per cent of 3,445 murder victims from their communities during the armed conflict and continue to suffer disproportionately from violence. According to the National Institute of Legal Medicine and Forensic Sciences, reported murders of girls and women have risen in recent years.

In 2016, the brutal torture, rape and killing of a seven-year-old girl shocked the entire country, and thousands took to the streets to demand justice for GBV victims. In the city of Popayan, a high-profile rally called on Colombians to reject all forms of violence against girls and women, and nationwide rallies took place on November 25, 2016, the International Day of Non-Violence Against Women, to draw attention to femicides and propose action to end impunity. A civil society-led campaign has called on judges to educate themselves about GBV and public attorneys and prosecutors to investigate possible femicides in a timely way. The campaign also urges policymakers to learn about protection measures under Law 1257 (2008), police officers to do more to prevent violence, forensic and medical assistance to be improved, and the government to monitor cases under investigation.

**Economic empowerment and informal employment**

While Colombia has improved gender equity in the workforce, significant inequalities remain, particularly in rural areas and among indigenous communities that rarely feel the benefits of economic development. Gender gaps persist in unemployment rates, wages, the types of industries in which men and women work, and employment in the informal economy, with data showing that 58 per cent of Colombian women worked informally compared to around 50 per cent of men in 2013.

Promising developments include Law 902 (2017), which aims to calculate the contribution of women who work at home as part of national GDP so that women, especially in rural areas, can receive priority benefits in programmes for economic growth and land ownership. Law 1822 (2017) extends maternity leave from 14 to 18 weeks and paternity leave to eight days, and the Ministry of Labour has banned the firing of employees solely because they are pregnant or breastfeeding.

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**BOX 12**

**EM2030 partner in Colombia: Ruta Pacífica de las Mujeres**

Ruta Pacífica de las Mujeres is a feminist pacifist national organization, made up of more than 280 grassroots, afro-descendant, indigenous, rural and urban women's organizations in nine departments (areas) in Colombia. Since 1996, the movement has denounced violence across Colombia and its impacts on the lives, bodies and land of women. It mobilized across the movement to call for a political negotiation to end the armed conflict, and advocated for a gender approach in negotiations between the Government of Colombia and the FARC-EP.

Since the signing of the peace agreement in 2016, and with the support of EM2030, Ruta Pacífica is monitoring the development and implementation of the agreement in seven regions to guarantee the participation of women in post-conflict activities and to ensure compliance with the peace agreement’s women-related measures. Monitoring draws on freedom of information requests as well as information gathered from female leaders in the territories and other organizations. Ongoing monitoring provides powerful context-specific information, and data for advocacy are being gathered to ensure that the rights of girls and women are upheld and that the specific provisions for them within the peace agreement are met.
El Salvador has made significant strides to reduce poverty and inequality in recent decades. Income inequality in the country — measured by the Gini coefficient — declined by about 5 percentage points between 2007 and 2016, driven by income growth for the poorest 20 per cent. This has made El Salvador the second most equal country in Latin America—though poverty rates remain high in rural areas.

In the same time period, the share of the population with access to improved water sources rose from 79 per cent to 89 per cent, the share with access to improved sanitation increased from 56 per cent to over 95 per cent, and access to healthcare services improved dramatically.

These developments have had positive effects on girls’ and women’s health and livelihoods. Yet gender gaps persist in women’s political participation, employment, wages and financial inclusion, and other areas. High rates of violence, limited access to family planning, and the full criminalization of abortion under all circumstances (even when a woman’s life is at risk) continue to undermine women’s health and vital rights.

El Salvador has strong human rights frameworks for women and children in most areas, though implementation remains a challenge. Certain forms of discrimination against girls and women, including persistently high rates of GBV (despite laws that enshrine gender equality), reflect significant gaps between policy and practice. The Special Comprehensive Law for a Life Free of Violence for Women was passed in 2011, but women still experience GBV, as well as discrimination and hostility from authorities, especially the police and judicial system.

While gang violence and weak judicial institutions are partly to blame for high levels of violence, underlying social factors and a machista (male chauvinistic) culture also contribute to an environment of impunity. On average, 15 cases of sexual violence are reported in El Salvador every day, mostly against young women, with statistics showing that seven out of ten women who experience sexual violence are under 20 years of age.

Marriage before age 18 remains a persistent problem in El Salvador, where 26 per cent of all girls are married as children. Recent data from the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) also shows that nine out of ten girls and adolescents were in an informal union by the age of 18 in 2017, and that five out of ten had been forced into such a union. Given this situation, civil society organizations including Plan International organized political advocacy, lobbying, meetings and social media campaigns to demand the reform of article 14 of the Family Code to prohibit child, early and forced marriage, working alongside the country’s child rights guarantor organizations: the National Child and Adolescent Council (CONNA), the Salvadoran Institute of Integral Attention for Children and Adolescents (ISNA), the Salvadoran Institute for Women’s Development (ISDEMU), and institutions representing the UN system.

Their efforts contributed to the abolition of a 23-year-old exception to the law that made marriage under 18 legal if there was parental consent or in cases where the girl had become pregnant. Activists argued that this law was often abused, with shamed families marrying off their daughters to their alleged rapists. A legal amendment passed in 2017 closed this legal loophole.

**focus on success: prohibition of child, early and forced marriage**

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**positive results in areas addressed by the SDG gender index**

**Access to financial services**

Women in El Salvador have legally protected rights to own assets, open bank accounts and procure bank loans. Nevertheless, their financial inclusion has lagged behind that of men: 32 per cent of women had an account at a financial institution in 2016 (compared to over 40 per cent of men) and women were much less likely than men to have taken out a loan or mortgage.

The Government of El Salvador has launched several programmes to improve women’s financial inclusion and access to loans, particularly in rural areas, including enabling more opportunities for digital payments.

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**FIGURE 17**

**SDG Gender Index dashboard for El Salvador**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>SDG 1</th>
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</table>

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018

Note: The scores in the SDG Gender Index are relative to the six countries in the sample, not to the desired end-point of the SDGs.
“My name is Yenifer and I am 18 years old. I am an adolescent empowered in the protection of the rights of girls and adolescents in the country. I have had the opportunity to see the realities that many girls and adolescents have experienced around different forms of violence – whether it be sexual, physical or emotional violence.

“I joined a community activism and campaign group when I was 15 to educate other youth and their parents about human rights and gender equality issues. I am the only girl in my community to go to high school, amongst a school of 300 students. It was hard at first, especially as everyone would say to me, “she’s going to get pregnant and eventually drop out”. I see a similar cycle in my community. Girls drop out of school and then they fall pregnant. For me, that was personal motivation to continue going to school.

“Knowledge can never be taken away from us, and if we are meant to eradicate violence against women, for example, we must know what needs to be done. We have laws, but we do not enforce them.

“I always had good grades, and knew I wanted to be a good person. My parents say to me, “we don’t want you to turn out like us”. My mother’s childhood was terrible, as she witnessed a lot of abuse and violence.

“Gender equality is a huge topic in my community. I feel that we undervalue girls and women in my community. It’s important to become educated and express our concerns to our mayor, asking questions like “why doesn’t a woman run for mayor?”

Yenifer is part of a project led by Plan International in El Salvador, which trains girls and women to push for gender equality in El Salvador. The group was formed to influence the development and implementation of SDG 5 on gender equality.
Maternal health services have improved in El Salvador over the last two decades, in large part because of the expansion of services in rural and remote areas, as well as nationwide policies such as the creation of maternity waiting homes. The adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000, women aged 15-19) also decreased by over 20 per cent between 2000 and 2016.

The Government’s Five-year Development Plan (2015-2019) aims to further reduce maternal and infant mortality, expand vaccination coverage, and reduce direct out-of-pocket household spending on health by 3 per cent.

SDG Gender Index priority areas for action

Adolescent pregnancy

In 2015 El Salvador had the highest rate of teenage pregnancy in Latin America, with adolescents accounting for 32 per cent of all the pregnancies in the country. The most recent National Family Health Survey (2014) indicated that 23 per cent of girls aged 15 to 19 had had at least one pregnancy. A survey found that 48 per cent of those aged 18 or younger when they first became pregnant did not intend to become pregnant, underscoring the critical need for improved access to family planning. Widespread GBV, lack of comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) in schools and barriers to sexual and reproductive health services all contribute to high rates of pregnancy among adolescents.

These factors undermine girls’ ability to make decisions about their own sexual and reproductive health; increase their risks of eclampsia, puerperal endometritis and systemic infections; and make them more likely to drop out of school after pregnancy.

The Government of El Salvador has taken steps in recent years to expand sexual education, bring health services to rural areas, and change legal frameworks that undermine the rights of girls and women. In 2017, for example, lawmakers voted unanimously to change the Family Code to abolish a law that allowed men to marry underage girls they had impregnated.

Access to abortion

El Salvador has one of the most restrictive abortion laws in the world, which criminalizes abortions even in cases of rape or when a woman’s life is in danger. Many cases taken to court end in jail sentences of two to eight years for women and up to 12 years for healthcare providers, even when an abortion has aimed to save the life of the mother. In 2013, for example, 16 girls and women were charged with the crime of abortion, six of whom were adolescents at the time of the alleged offence. In some cases, miscarriages and stillbirths result in prosecution: one recent high-profile case involved a woman sentenced to 30 years in prison after suffering a stillbirth.

The criminalization of abortion has led to cases of children being forced to continue with pregnancies caused by rape, women dying of preventable conditions, and doctors withholding some treatments because doing so could endanger pregnancies. The ban on legal abortion has also driven the practice underground, with devastating consequences for women’s health and safety: in 2014 El Salvador’s Ministry of Health found that tens of thousands of girls and women had pursued clandestine abortions since 2005, often using pesticides or sharp objects, and that over 11 per cent of these women had died as a result.

Women’s rights organizations have advocated, without success, for the reform of Article 133 of the Criminal Procedure Code, which criminalizes all forms of induced termination of pregnancy. In July 2017, the right-wing Nationalist Republican Alliance (ARENA) party introduced a new bill to increase the maximum prison sentence for abortion from eight to 50 years: an ominous prospect for girls and women.

Other amendments to the penal code considered by the Legislative Assembly in 2018 are promising but far from comprehensive, including making abortion legal only in cases when the life of the pregnant woman is in danger or when a child becomes pregnant by rape or incest.
practices continue. Yet gender disparities persist against a backdrop of rapid economic growth: rates of immunization rates and education enrolment rates, as well as to achieve broad economic growth. Y et gender disparities continue.

The Constitution ensures equality for women before the law and prohibits discrimination against any citizen on the basis of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth. It also allows personal laws, however, resulting in a dual system that allows forms of discrimination against girls and women. Under civil law, for example, the minimum age for marriage is 18 years for women and 21 years for men, but in Muslim Personal Law (though not codified) Muslims can determine when marriage is acceptable (sometimes at puberty).

Implementation of relevant legislation, such as the Prohibition of Child Marriage Act (2006), has been weak partly because the statute is unclear on whether it supersedes personal law. Similarly, the Hindu Succession Act of 2005 grants Hindu, Sikh, Buddhist and Jain women equal inheritance rights to ancestral and jointly owned property, but Muslims may follow Shari'a law on inheritance that allow daughters to inherit only half as much as sons.

India launched the National Mission for Empowerment of Women (NMEW) in 2010, mandated to facilitate the coordination of all programmes related to women’s welfare and their socio-economic development across all ministries and departments. The government leads specific initiatives focused on gender equality and other programmes that, though not focused exclusively on girls and women, benefit them nonetheless, including its push to enhance access to clean water and sanitation.

India is the world’s largest democracy, with 1.2 billion people, and is expected to be the world’s most populous country by 2050. Where India makes progress towards development goals, the lives of hundreds of millions of people can be improved: in recent decades, India has made substantial progress to improve child nutrition, and discriminatory dowry and inheritance violence against women are still high, women’s participation in government is low, and discriminatory dowry and inheritance practices continue.

Focus on success: GBV

While civil society has campaigned on violence against women for many years, there has been a surge in public awareness, mobilization and engagement in recent times, following highly publicized cases of violence against women. In response, the Government of India revised the country’s rape laws (section 375/376 of the Indian Penal Code) to expand the definition of rape to include voyeurism, stalking and acid attack as punishable crimes. Other reforms include amendments to the Criminal Law (2013 Amendment Bill), which provides legal protection for the privacy of victims and aims to end police interrogation of a victim’s sexual history.

The government has also increased funding to centres that provide medical aid, police assistance, legal aid/case management, psychosocial counselling and temporary support services to women affected by violence. Over 150 One Stop Centres became functional in 2017, with another 50 centres expected to open in 2018.

A women’s helpline has also been expanded to provide 24-hour immediate and emergency responses to women affected by violence through referral (linking with appropriate authorities such as the police, One Stop Centre or hospital). It also provides information about government-funded programmes for women through a dedicated phone number.

Other areas of progress include reductions in infant mortality (falling from 57 deaths for every 1,000 live births in 2005/06 to 41 per 1,000 in 2015/16) and a fall in stunting rates (from 48 per cent of children under the age of five in 2005/06 to 38 per cent in 2015/16). Female literacy rates have also risen over time (up from 55 per cent in 2005/06 to 68 per cent in 2015/16), and there has been a large increase in financial inclusion for women (53 per cent of women had a bank or savings account in 2015/16, up from only 15 per cent in 2005/06).

### Figure 18

**SDG Gender Index dashboard for India**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>SDG 1</th>
<th>SDG 2</th>
<th>SDG 3</th>
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<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Box 16**

**Focus on success: GBV**

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"My name is Saroj. I live in Madhya Pradesh, India and work as a video volunteer. I interview community members and produce videos to highlight local issues and tell stories on behalf of women and girls. I show these to community groups to spark conversation and inspire action for change.

"More than 50 households have joined my group from the tribal community and from the upper caste – groups of individuals who would normally not mix.

"During our meetings, I usually wear the traditional Sari, but I have started to wear a Gumcha – like the men – to show that women don’t always have to follow the rules. We need to push boundaries to achieve gender equality.

"My first video was about gender-based discrimination in newborn and antenatal care services. Women are often forced to have children until they deliver a boy. In the same video, we spoke about the lack of vaccination services in remote areas, and the inadequate and limited antenatal care services that are causing an increase in neonatal deaths.

"I uploaded it to YouTube and shared it with our local health officials. After follow-up, the Government designated more nurses to our local health centres and increased the number of pregnancy-related home visits.

"Previously, when you wanted to raise an issue with the Government you had to send a formal letter that would often just remain unopened on their desk. Today, we can send Government officials a video of evidence and interviews of issues impacting families.

"I have always worked in the social sector, but never before have I seen the Government listen as carefully as they do now. The villagers have told me that my videos can help them advocate for change.

"As a result, I was elected the first ever female village leader! We need female reporters to tell stories impacting women and girls if we are to advocate and push for gender equality. The videos that I produce are evidence of what is happening on the ground. We need to remember our rights so that we can reclaim them!"
Positive results in areas addressed by the SDG Gender Index

**Financial inclusion**

The Government of India has promoted schemes to enhance women’s economic participation and access to financial services.\(^{92}\) For example, the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act requires equal wages for men and women by law, and, in March 2017, India enacted a federal law mandating 26 weeks of paid maternity leave.\(^{93}\) The Pradhan Mantri Jan-Dhan Yojana (PMJDY) scheme, launched in 2014, supports women’s access to financial services, including banking, credit, insurance and pensions, and attempts to bank the unbanked. Under this programme, 280 million new accounts have been opened with deposits amounting to 639 billion Indian Rupees ($9.9 billion)\(^{94}\) and, as of August 2018, 169 million women (from both rural and urban areas) have benefited.\(^{95}\)

In addition, the Government of India introduced the Pradhan Mantri Mudra Yojana (PMMY, Micro Units Development and Refinance Agency Ltd) scheme to facilitate access to loans and microcredit; 73 per cent of loan recipients were women in 2016/17, however women received just 44 per cent of the funding allocated (indicating that they were favoured to receive loans but that men tended to receive larger amounts).\(^{96}\) India has also taken steps to advance women’s financial inclusion through the innovative Aadhaar National Identification Programme, which now covers more than 99 per cent of adults – evidence shows that the programme not only allows women to gain the identification needed to open bank accounts using biometric information, but also ensures that men are not able to access money in their wives’ bank accounts, thus promoting women’s financial autonomy.\(^{97}\)

**SDG Gender Index priority areas for action**

**Son preference**

Son preference is a stark expression of gender discrimination in India, and it underlies several issues that affect girls and women that are included in the SDG Gender Index, including those related to health, nutrition and education.

The ratio of females to males in India is one alarming indicator of the continuing low value of girls and women within society. Almost three decades ago, economist Amartya Sen calculated that India had some 40 million “missing women”.\(^{98}\) According to census data from 2011, India’s sex ratio was 933 females per 1,000 males. At that time, Kerala was the state with the highest ratio of females (1,084 per 1,000 males) while Haryana and Delhi had two of the lowest sex ratios with only 879 females and 868 females per 1,000 males, respectively.\(^{99}\) This issue has been highlighted by civil society through large public campaigns.

However, many campaign messages focus on women’s reproductive roles, leading to an over-emphasis on the role of sex-selective abortions in India’s unbalanced sex ratio. In reality, the sex-ratio gap is generated not only through abortions, but also more often through infanticide and the general neglect of girls, especially in families who lack the income and power to overcome such prejudice.\(^{100}\) In response, the government launched Beti Bachao Beti Padhao (‘Save the Girl Child and Educate the Girl Child’), which aims to prevent sex selection before birth, and to promote the survival, protection and education of girls.

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**BOX 18**

**EM2030 partner in India: Society for Health Alternatives (SAHAJ)**

SAHAJ, an NGO based in Gujarat, strives to improve the health and education of marginalized girls and women through community-directed programmes, research and policy advocacy. With the support of EM2030, SAHAJ works with partner coalitions in six states in India and at the national level to build data-for-advocacy skills. It aims to increase political will and dialogue among government stakeholders on the importance of data-based implementation of the SDGs for girls and women, particularly SDG 3 on health and SDG 5 on gender equality. The project analyses existing data and field-level evidence from grassroots organizations to drive advocacy, focusing on the groups of girls and women most likely to be left behind. National-level advocacy in 2018 has focused on the Ministries of Health and Women’s Development, the NITI Aayog (National Institution for Transforming India), and the Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation.
**INDONESIA**

**The big picture**

Indonesia is the fourth most populous country in the world and currently has one of the highest literacy rates in Asia (females 93.59 per cent and males 97.17 per cent). The country has put in place a number of laws, regulations and programmes that provide support to girls and women, including the Jaminan Kesehatan Nasional (JKN), one of the world’s largest national health insurance programmes. This currently provides free healthcare to almost three quarters of the population and has included significant investments to reduce maternal mortality.

However, legal barriers in some key areas, coupled with a patriarchal culture and religious conservatism, continue to prevent girls and women from fulfilling their rights. Tax and inheritance laws, for example, discriminate against women, and legislation to protect women against sexual harassment and domestic violence is weak or goes unenforced.

According to the 2016 Women’s Health and Life Experiences Survey, one in three women aged 15-64 years in Indonesia reported that she had experienced physical and/or sexual violence in her lifetime. Women also face legal barriers and discrimination in the economy: at 51 per cent in 2017, Indonesia’s female labour force participation rate was well below that for males (around 80 per cent) and lower than average for countries at a comparable stage of development.

According to a recent study, the main drivers of low female labour force participation in Indonesia are marriage, having children under the age of two in the household, low educational attainment (below upper-secondary and tertiary levels) and a changing economic structure that has seen a decline in the agricultural sector as a result of migration from rural to urban areas, in particular.

Positive results in areas addressed by the SDG Gender Index

**Health reform**

As a result of the JKN, health insurance coverage rates in Indonesia have increased significantly in recent years: from 27 per cent in 2004 to 73 per cent in 2017. By 2019 Indonesia aims to cover 95 per cent of the population with the JKN programme.

**BOX 19**

Focus on success: Girls’ education

There has been significant progress in Indonesia towards universal primary (or basic) education. The country introduced 12 years of universal education in 2016, up from the nine years of compulsory education introduced in 1994, and aims to ensure equal access to education for children up to 18 years of age. Primary enrolment rates reached 99 per cent in 2015, and some 27 million children now attend primary schools.

Girls continue to make up 64 per cent of the out-of-school population, however, and this inequality begins early, with 64 per cent of boys enrolled in pre-primary education compared to 57 per cent of girls. Nevertheless, literacy gaps are closing, with literacy rates for males and females aged 15-24 years almost equal, in marked contrast to the figures for all women over the age of 15 years, who account for 69 per cent of the illiterate population in Indonesia.

Whilst increased investment in education has led to almost universal enrolment in primary education, only 55 per cent of children from poor families were enrolled in secondary school in 2014 according to World Bank data. Indonesia recently introduced the Indonesia Smart Card (KIP) scheme to increase access to education for primary and secondary students, particularly those from poor families. Under the scheme, those aged 6-21 years with access to a KIP, or from a household that holds a family welfare card, can receive educational grants. The programme was launched in 2014 and increased enrolment eligibility from 11.2 million to 20.3 million children by 2015.

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2. Ibid.
4. Ibid.
6. Ibid.

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**FIGURE 19**

SDG Gender Index dashboard for Indonesia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<th>SDG 2</th>
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Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018

Note: The scores in the SDG Gender Index are relative to the six countries in the sample, not to the desired end-point of the SDGs.
Using data to increase women’s access to government services

Understanding the pervasiveness of violence in her community in urban Jakarta, Sukaesih and her community women’s group began to document cases of domestic violence and child, early and forced marriage, tracking the number of women who have adequate documentation (such as birth certificates) and how many of them receive any form of social support from the government.

This information has been critical for their efforts to advocate for better access for women to government services, such as national health insurance cards or education-related subsidies.

Ning is a field coordinator for the women’s group, working with women like Sukaesih to secure women’s rights. Ning has started to discuss such issues with her family, too. “It’s not only women who need to do domestic work, men can do it too,” she tells them. Previously, her husband would ask, “Why did you join this group?”

“Now he’s supportive and contributes at home,” says Ning. “We’ve faced resistance from our chief, because it’s perceived to be unmanly to help at home, but we’re challenging these stereotypes.”

Ning and Sukaesih encourage girls to stay in school so that they can remain financially independent, knowing that poverty is one of the biggest reasons girls stay at home.

They encourage women to access government services by collecting and sharing data about the women in their community with the local government. “We’re working with the Social Security Administrator and Social Department to access the government scheme, especially national health insurance, to ensure women get the right support,” says Ning. “So far, 40 women have received support through this scheme.”

The women’s group is also involved in district development planning, sharing their community-generated data on the number of women benefiting from social protection programmes at planning meetings, so that they can verify and validate their data against the data collected by the government.
There have been clear results in terms of health outcomes for girls and women: the proportion of pregnant women receiving four or more antenatal care visits increased from 64 per cent in 2002 to 77 per cent in 2017, and under-five mortality declined from 46 deaths for every 1,000 live births in 2002 to 32 per 1,000 live births in 2017. However, the maternal mortality rate remains high. The estimate of 126 for every 100,000 live births in 2015 used in the SDG Gender Index was cited in the official global SDG Database. But other published government data, based on the Indonesian Intercensal Survey of 2015, have estimated much higher rates of 305 deaths for every 100,000 live births. In addition, 39 per cent of children were considered stunted in 2013.

**SDG Gender Index priority areas for action**

### Women’s political participation

Women’s political participation in parliament and regional representative councils remains relatively low in Indonesia. In 2013, Indonesia introduced a 30 per cent gender quota to increase women’s share of seats in parliament. In the 2014 elections, however, and despite stronger enforcement of the quota provisions, expansive civil society-led efforts to support women candidates and favourable press coverage, the percentage of women elected to parliament remained almost the same as the previous cycle at just 17.3 per cent. At the provincial and district/municipal level, women’s political participation was even lower than at national level: in 2014 women won just 14.6 per cent and 14.2 per cent of seats at these levels, respectively.

There are five main reasons for the lack of progress on women’s representation in national and local elected bodies (SDG 5.5). First, political parties are dominated by men, and electing committees tend to favour longstanding, loyal male members rather than female newcomers they have to recruit. Second, political party branches at province and district or municipal level are only required to include the intention to comply with the 30 per cent quota, allowing them to avoid actual implementation. Third, the recruitment of female candidates is often done on an ad hoc basis and shows a tendency towards nepotism, favouring women who are related to male politicians. Or they may be chosen because they are well-known to the electorate and expected to gain votes, which are often then transferred to a male candidate. Fourth, women may be unable to meet the demand for financial donations to the party or pay for their political campaign. Finally, the normative landscape in Indonesia still favours male leadership. In the most recent World Values Survey conducted in Indonesia, 59 per cent of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that men made better political leaders, and a poll in the lead up to the 2014 elections found that 44 per cent of voters preferred male candidates, while only 3 per cent preferred female candidates.

### Child, early and forced marriage

An estimated 14 per cent of girls in Indonesia are married before the age of 18, with over 50,000 girls under the age of 15 marrying each year. This puts Indonesia in the top ten countries worldwide with the highest absolute number of child brides, due the country’s large population. Recent data from 2016 also suggest that these figures drastically underestimate the prevalence of child, early and forced marriage in rural areas, where economic pressures, dowry practices, and other factors have pushed rates as high as 35 per cent in some communities.

The laws on early marriage in Indonesia discriminate against girls: the legal age of marriage is 19 for boys but just 16 for girls. Progress on the issue of early marriage has stalled, in part because a loophole in the law (dispensation) means that parents can, in effect, legally allow their children to marry at any age if they have the support of a religious or civil court.

Women’s advocates and the government’s Women Empowerment and Child Protection Ministry have campaigned for years to remove this dispensation from the 1974 Marriage Law. In early 2018, 18 women’s rights groups, including EM2030 partner KAPAL Perempuan, met President Joko Widodo to support a presidential decree to outlaw the practice.

As a result, two government ministries, the Coordinating Ministry for Human Development and Cultural Affairs and the Ministry of Women’s Empowerment and Child Protection, are now preparing a formal decree to amend the discriminatory 1974 law.

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**Box 21**

**EM2030 partner in Indonesia: KAPAL Perempuan**

KAPAL Perempuan is a women’s organisation working for the creation of a society that values and upholds critical thinking, solidarity, gender justice, pluralism and non-violence. With support from EM2030, KAPAL Perempuan is building a data-driven advocacy movement to ensure the achievement of the SDGs with a focus on issues related to child marriage. The project gathers data and undertakes influencing in two key geographic areas with high rates of child marriage – Lombok and Gresik – and is strengthened through cooperation and dialogue with grassroots women’s groups, multi-stakeholder networks, and government at national and regional levels.

In this project to date, KAPAL Perempuan has influenced the district governments to issue a circular letter supporting the prevention and elimination of child marriage. KAPAL has also had significant engagement with national bodies including Bappenas and the Ministry of Women’s Empowerment and Child Protection and with the President’s office to secure commitments to achieve a 12-year compulsory education programme, decrease the MMR, break the poverty chain, prevent trafficking of women, and increase human resources to achieve the SDGs, particularly SDGs 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 10.
Violence Act (2015) framework to eliminate GBV. The Protection Against Domestic unlawful interference from in-laws. FGM; incest; defilement; forced wife inheritance and marriage; dependants, the Act’s recognition of forms of domestic abuse practices and traditions. As well as protecting victims of Based Violence (2014) The National Policy on Prevention and Response to Gender-based violence (GBV) The Women’s Enterprise Fund Financial inclusion Pervasive discrimination and cultural norms influence women’s land tenure and participation in labour markets; child, early and forced marriage; FGM; food security and nutrition; and access to finance and technology. Many girls and women still lack access to basic services, and there is progress to be made on women’s representation in decision-making positions and political leadership.

Positive results in areas addressed by the SDG Gender Index

Gender-based violence (GBV)
The National Policy on Prevention and Response to Gender-Based Violence (2014) provides a cross-government framework to eliminate GBV. The Protection Against Domestic Violence Act (2015) tackles discriminatory cultural norms, practices and traditions. As well as protecting victims of domestic violence and providing shelter for spouses and any dependants, the Act’s recognition of forms of domestic abuse includes sexual violence in marriage; child, early and forced marriage; FGM; incest; defilement; forced wife inheritance and unlawful interference from in-laws. Yet almost half of Kenyan women have experienced physical or sexual violence in their lifetime, and more than one third of men and women agreed that a husband is justified in beating his wife under some circumstances.

Financial inclusion
The Women’s Enterprise Fund has provided tens of thousands of women with financial services and access to loans, and is projected to reach over one million women with skills training by 2022. Kenya also has one of the most mature mobile money markets worldwide, and certainly in East Africa, with 58 per cent of adults having a mobile money account in 2014 (compared to around 35 per cent of adults in Tanzania and Uganda).

These services enable women to bank securely, reduce the time they spend travelling to banks, increase their profit margins, and enable them to exercise more control over household finance. In 2015, around 96 per cent of women reported that they were aware of such services (roughly equal to men) and 77 per cent had used them in the past month. However, women were less likely to use them to send money or use savings and loan products.

BOX 22
Focus on success: Political participation
Kenya’s 2010 Constitution establishes the principle that no more than two thirds of the members of elected bodies can be of one gender, a key success for which the women’s movement lobbied actively. Campaigners also called on the Government of Kenya to eliminate violence against women during electoral processes, proposed civic education on gender equality and recommended regulations to strengthen the Office of the Registrar’s monitoring of candidate lists. One achievement was a requirement for political parties to uphold the two-thirds gender rule in their nominating lists. However, ongoing legal and implementation questions over the two-thirds rule continue to hamper the full achievement of this constitutional commitment. While a record number of women were elected in Kenya’s 2017 general election, they still account for only 22 per cent of those in the National Assembly and 31 per cent in the Senate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>SDG 1</th>
<th>SDG 2</th>
<th>SDG 3</th>
<th>SDG 4</th>
<th>SDG 5</th>
<th>SDG 6</th>
<th>SDG 7</th>
<th>SDG 8</th>
<th>SDG 10</th>
<th>SDG 13</th>
<th>SDG 16</th>
<th>SDG 17</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018
Note: The scores in the SDG Gender Index are relative to the six countries in the sample, not to the desired end-point of the SDGs.
The power of a woman’s movement in advocating for land rights

“We come together on issues that affect us,” says Alice, a member of GROOTS Kenya, which equips women with the tools, knowledge and confidence to advocate for their rights. This grassroots movement of community groups led by and for women is championing a movement to reform Kenya’s laws and regulations on land ownership.

Their first goal was to simplify the process of land succession by advocating for joint land titles, making it faster, easier and cheaper for a woman to have her name added to a land deed, and for this process to be available locally (not just nationally).

They collected data on land ownership, interviewing women in 2,430 households to ask them “do you have a land title?” or “do you own your land?”. The resulting survey data were presented at a public forum where GROOTS Kenya encouraged men to take out joint land titles with their spouses to speed an inheritance process that can otherwise take years.

“In our culture, land ownership belongs to the boy,” says Mary, a member of Alice’s group. “We have seen big improvements, though. Today, land is at least shared among both boys and girls.”

SDG Gender Index priority areas for action

Maternal health

Despite dramatic progress in other areas of public health, high rates of maternal morbidity and mortality persist. In 2015, an estimated 510 women died for every 100,000 live births, far above the MDG target of 147 per 100,000 births. Further, according to estimates from 2012, for every woman who dies during childbirth in Kenya, an estimated 20 to 30 women suffer serious injury or disability as a result of complications during pregnancy or delivery.

Government policies to reduce this toll have included free maternity care and services in all public health facilities since 2013. Yet despite a growing health infrastructure, many women still lack access to quality maternal health services, living far from health facilities and lacking skilled support during childbirth. According to data from Kenya’s Demographic and Health Survey 2014, only 62 per cent of births were supervised by skilled birth attendants, well below the MDG target of 90 per cent set for 2015.

Despite recent improvements, maternal health challenges are compounded by a lack of family planning tools, particularly in rural areas. Almost 43 per cent of all women of reproductive age (married or unmarried) used modern or traditional methods of contraception in 2014, although contraceptive use varied significantly by wealth quintile, with 32 per cent of women in the lowest wealth quintile using any method of contraception in 2014 in comparison with 58 to 66 per cent of women in
the higher wealth quintiles. Eighteen per cent of all married Kenyan women of reproductive age had unmet needs for family planning tools in 2014, however, with 20 per cent of all married women in rural areas having unmet needs versus only 13 per cent in urban areas.

Secondary education
As well as achieving gender parity in primary education and near parity in secondary education since 2000, Kenya has improved literacy rates among young women dramatically, with 86 per cent of those aged 15 to 24 reported as literate in 2014. Yet the country has not achieved universal access to primary education, and enrolment in secondary education remains low for both boys (51 per cent) and girls (48 per cent).

Challenges to girls’ enrolment in secondary school are acute in the arid and semi-arid counties, where their education is undermined by negative attitudes towards their schooling, FGM and early marriage, poor-quality education and insecurity.

Government efforts to improve girls’ access to secondary school include bursaries for disadvantaged students, support for boarding schools in arid and semi-arid areas, and a re-entry policy that allows girls who have dropped out due to pregnancy and early marriage to return to school.

Women's land tenure
Agriculture accounts for over 26 per cent of Kenya’s GDP and employs more than 70 per cent of rural adults. The government aims to guarantee food security and adequate nutrition for all Kenyans by 2022 by expanding food production and supply, reducing food prices, and improving the food processing value chain. Its efforts are hampered, however, by women’s limited access to land. Customary law in many areas leaves women unable to inherit their fathers’ properties upon marriage or to claim the property of deceased husbands. According to the Federation of Women Lawyers, Kenya (FIDA), women held just 1 per cent of all Kenyan land titles on their own in 2017 and only 5 per cent of land titles jointly with men.

While they have the right to land under numerous laws, a lack of local official capacity prevents the implementation of these laws, limiting women’s potential contributions to Kenya’s broader economic growth.
according to the World Bank, electoral lists for all elections. The Constitution to mandate parity between men and women in equality, including the 2010 Parity Law (see Box 25) that amends the country has made legal advances to ensure women’s gender equality.

The country has made legal advances to ensure women’s equality, including the 2010 Parity Law (see Box 25) that amends the Constitution to mandate parity between men and women in electoral lists for all elections. Its implementation during the 2012 legislative elections almost doubled the representation of women from 22 per cent in 2007 to 42 per cent in 2012. Senegal has adopted a National Strategy for Equity and Gender Equality (2016-2026) to ensure that women, girls, men and boys have the same opportunities to participate in and benefit equally from development. The strategy also mandates gender budgeting at national level.

Nevertheless, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)’s SIGI scores Senegal as only “medium” (on a scale ranging from “very low” to “very high”) on its gender discrimination scale, given its discriminatory family laws regarding ownership of assets, inheritance and other legal rights. While the 1972 Family Code grants men and women equal access to land, traditional custom prevents equality in practice, with women often unable to inherit land and husbands often opposing the acquisition of land by their wives. Similarly, though child, early and forced marriages are prohibited under article 108 of the Family Code, they are still widespread.

**Positive results in areas addressed by the SDG Gender Index**

**Education**

Education in Senegal is free and compulsory up to age 16 and the country has made significant headway on primary school enrolment rates—up from 67 per cent in 2000 to 85 per cent in 2015 for all children. Between 2009 and 2016, the number of students passing their secondary school exams more than doubled, up from 20,500 in 2009 to 54,500 in 2016. However, both girls and boys are still falling behind when it comes to secondary education according to the latest estimates: only 20 per cent of girls and 23 per cent of boys complete lower secondary school. Women continue to fall behind in literacy: only 34 per cent of women over 15 years are literate compared to 53 per cent of men of the same age.

Steady economic growth has also contributed to increased investment in education, with education sector funding increasing by 48 per cent between 2009 and 2016. The government has robust education laws and policies in place and has taken a global lead on education issues.

**FIGURE 21**

SDG Gender Index dashboard for Senegal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>SDG 1</th>
<th>SDG 2</th>
<th>SDG 3</th>
<th>SDG 4</th>
<th>SDG 5</th>
<th>SDG 6</th>
<th>SDG 7</th>
<th>SDG 8</th>
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<th>SDG 16</th>
<th>SDG 17</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Equal Measures 2030, 2018

Note: The scores in the SDG Gender Index are relative to the six countries in the sample, not to the desired end-point of the SDGs

**BOX 25**

Focus on success: Progressive gender quota laws

The Senegalese women’s movement, with support from political elites and international donors, pushed for the adoption of the 2010 Parity Law: one of the most progressive gender quota laws worldwide. All political parties are now obliged to alternate women and men on candidate lists, aiming for a male-female ratio of 50 per cent. The law also authorizes the Electoral Commission (CENA) to reject lists (thereby excluding parties from elections) in cases of non-compliance.

In 2009, women occupied just 16 per cent of seats in local government and 22 per cent of seats in the National Assembly. During the 2012 elections, the first since the law was passed, the proportion of women voted into national and local assemblies rose dramatically. Today women occupy 47 per cent of local government seats and 42 per cent of those in the National Assembly.

Serious challenges remain, however. While gender parity has been integrated into Senegalese policy, its implementation has been opposed by some religious groups. This has led to a religious exemption from parity for religious parties, undermining the law. A religious backlash has even influenced the use of the word ‘parity’; where in some parts of rural Senegal, “parité” has come to mean “I no longer accept my husband’s authority.”

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ii Ibid.


When pregnancy ends education: Data to keep girls in school

When Diarra (now aged 23) became pregnant, she asked her head teacher – Yaye Kandia – to help her stay in school. This was met by a wave of negative reactions from the community. Diarra was initially pressured to marry the father and forget about her education. Through persistence and hard work, she was able to forego the marriage and return to school after giving birth.

“I have always valued my education,” says Diarra. At school she joined a club to organize school sessions and campaigns on education and girls’ rights. “At first, we faced a lot of pushback, but now people listen to us.”

In Kaffrine Region (in Central Senegal), where Diarra lives and works, girls’ access to and retention in school can be a challenge. While girls are often among the best-performing students, they have to fight hard to stay in school until graduation. In 2017, only one girl in Kaffrine graduated with a science degree, and girls accounted for only 12 per cent of the students who passed their university entrance exams. Only 20 per cent of new mothers in the area return to school, says Yaya Kandia.

Diarra now works with the school administration to collect data on how many girls are falling pregnant and how many of those complete their schooling. This knowledge equips Diarra and the school to tackle the issue.

“One way to support girls to return to school is for the Ministry of Education to award scholarships to girls so that they can personally cover school-related fees,” says Yaya Kandia. “This will allow girls to have more freedom to choose their own future.”

“Education is a means to prevent and fight against violence,” says Diarra. “When a girl becomes educated, she is able to form a different opinion to what is happening in our community. It helps us to see things differently, and push for change.”
For example, Senegal recently co-hosted the 2018 Global Partnership for Education (GPE) replenishment and became the first developing country to contribute to GPE as a donor. Although challenges persist in fulfilling girls’ rights to education, current investments in education mean that the country is on track to meet its global commitments.

**SDG Gender Index priority areas for action**

**Poverty reduction**

Senegal is one of the poorest countries in the world, standing at 162 out of 188 countries on the Human Development Index (2017). After decades of very modest economic growth, the Government of Senegal adopted the Plan Senegal Emergent (PSE) in 2014, a development plan that is designed to break a cycle of low growth and weak poverty reduction. Preliminary figures put Senegal’s economic growth at 6.8 per cent by 2017 – a growth rate of over 6 per cent for the third year in a row, which has also led to a modest drop in poverty levels of between 4 and 7 per cent.

According to our SDG Gender Index, however, 47 per cent of the population live below the poverty line. Other dimensions of the Index related to poverty include the proportion of the poorest quintile of the population covered by social assistance programmes, which stands at only 5 per cent, and the extent to which laws afford women and men equal and secure access to land use, control and ownership – not fully afforded by Senegalese law at present. The dual legal system in Senegal, which recognizes both civil and Islamic (Sharia) law, effectively discriminates against women, particularly in relation to inheritance.

**BOX 27**


FAWE Senegal aims to promote equity and gender equality in education, by encouraging the adoption of policies, practices and positive attitudes towards girls’ education, training and women’s empowerment.

Supported by EM2030, FAWE’s project focuses on the regions of Ziguinchor and Sedhiou, where girls face particularly significant challenges to completing their education due to child, early and forced marriage, early pregnancy, and GBV. Primary research with students, parents, teachers and education officials aimed to identify the scale of challenges.

Armed with this evidence, advocacy groups in the regions are undertaking data-driven advocacy and public mobilization through media engagement for the successful implementation of SDG 4 on education and SDG 5 on gender equality.
CONCLUSIONS
NEXT STEPS FOR EM2030
This report has stressed the critical importance of getting robust data on gender to those who need it, when they need it, and in a form they can use for maximum impact, and has outlined the important role that advocates play in using data to affect change on gender equality. It has set out a new perspective on the state of play on gender equality and the SDGs in six countries, and has reinforced the immense power of data as a way to transform the lives of girls and women when it is placed in their own hands.

The report has introduced the EM2030 SDG Gender Index, by advocates, for advocates: the most comprehensive Index on gender equality aligned to the SDGs to date, rooted in the expressed needs of gender advocates worldwide. And it has demonstrated how the Index works in practice across 12 SDGs and across six countries, followed by a set of country profiles providing a ‘deep-dive’ examination of gender equality.

WHAT DID WE LEARN FROM THE INDEX?

From the six countries, the Index has demonstrated common challenges and opportunities to improve performance across various thematic areas and to deliver greater equality for girls and women. In some countries, the presence of laws and commitments have not translated into real change for girls and women (for example El Salvador’s continually high prevalence of GBV and Kenya’s lack of land ownership among women), whereas in other countries, strong legal frameworks that would promote and protect the rights of girls and women can be overridden by customary law (including legislation on the age of marriage in India, Indonesia and Senegal).

Acknowledging the challenges and set-backs cannot be done without equally celebrating the success and policy wins that we have seen in recent years across these six countries. While progress may not be felt equally by all women, each country has progress that is worth celebrating, as well as examples of girls and women driving change, including through the use of data and evidence.

NEXT STEPS FOR THE SDG GENDER INDEX

EM2030 is now preparing its next steps for the SDG Gender Index, aiming to take it to scale over the next year. In June 2019, we will launch an expanded Index that will include as many countries as possible, given the data constraints.

We aim to expand the Index with more and better data – not only on more familiar areas such as health and education, but also on the missing issues outlined in annex 4 that must also be addressed to ensure gender equality.

With gender equality outcomes embedded in every SDG, the SDG Gender Index will be a critical tool for monitoring key advancements across the SDGs. Equally, the Index represents an opportunity for advocates to call for greater investment in globally comparable data and evidence, by highlighting the ‘missing’ critical gender equality issues that we weren’t able to include in the Index due to insufficient globally comparable data.

Despite advancements in monitoring and accountability efforts, we know data gathering alone is not enough, and the Index can only ever be a means to an end. Data must be used if they are to have an impact.

Through the support of EM2030, our six national influencing partners are using data and evidence presently to influence SDG issues prioritized in their communities.

The task ahead for the EM2030 partners and for gender advocates worldwide is to adapt the data contained in the SDG Gender Index for their own purposes – to re-package it in compelling and engaging ways to get their message to those who can really drive change, to dig deeper on the issues that are most important in their country, to tell the stories about the lived realities of girls and women that can bring data to life.
We recognise that the SDG Gender Index is just a starting point, a conversation starter, and must be complemented by stories, evidence and tools – developed by and for advocates – in order to tell a more complete story of the lived realities for girls and women.

DATA, ACCOUNTABILITY AND THE SDGS

In the introduction of this report, we acknowledged that we have just 12 years left to meet the ambitious goals of the 2030 agenda and questioned the solutions and gaps needing to be addressed in order to drive progress for girls and women.

What this report has shown through the findings of our Index for the six countries is that laws, quotas, commitments and funding allocations must translate into real change for girls and women. How can advocates and gender equality champions monitor that progress and hold their governments accountable on these commitments? One solution is data.

Data is a pivotal tool to galvanize political will and ensure that gender equality rises up the policy agenda and remains a priority for governments.

While we recognise the crucial role in placing accessible, relevant and timely gender-disaggregated data in the hands of advocates and champions – as demonstrated in the country profiles in section 4 of our report – there are significant data challenges in measuring and tracking progress on the goals.

When asked why they thought gaps remained in government data, 91 per cent of gender equality advocates in our global survey thought that “collecting data on issues that affect women and girls isn’t prioritized.” How do we make this a priority?

Despite these challenges and shortcomings, we must use this reality as the impetus for change. If 89 per cent of the gender advocates from around the world surveyed by EM2030 in 2018 agree that a breakthrough in SDG progress on helping the most disadvantaged girls and women will not be possible without relevant data, then we know that our approach must change.

WHAT CAN WE DO NEXT, TOGETHER?

Our mantra at EM2030 is collaboration. The SDGs can only be achieved through collaboration, and gender equality requires collaboration amongst gender equality champions at every level and from every sector, from political leaders in the corridors of power, to girl- and women-led movements in the smallest village.

This is why EM2030 invites feedback, suggestions and engagement from a wide range of stakeholders spanning every sector in order to strengthen the SDG Gender Index before we launch it with data for as many countries as possible in 2019. Inputs related to the SDG Gender Index can be sent to info@equalmeasures2030.org.

PLEASE STAY IN TOUCH

by visiting us at www.equalmeasures2030.org and at our new Gender Advocates Data Hub (www.data.em2030.org). You can also sign up to our newsletter and follow us on Twitter at @Equal2030. With your help and advice, we aim to create an Index that can be used to change the story for girls and women the world over.
# ANNEX 1:
## EQUAL MEASURES 2030 SDG GENDER INDEX FRAMEWORK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ref</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>SDG indicator reference/complementary</th>
<th>Gender-specific indicator</th>
<th>Data source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td>Proportion of the population living below the national poverty line</td>
<td>1.2.1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>World Development Indicators (World Bank)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b</td>
<td>Proportion of the poorest quintile of the population covered by social assistance programs</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Aspire database (World Bank)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1c</td>
<td>The extent to which laws afford women and men equal and secure access to land use, control and ownership (score)</td>
<td>5.a.2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Women, Business and the Law (World Bank)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2a</td>
<td>Prevalence of stunting among girls (height for age &lt; -2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) &lt;5 years of age</td>
<td>2.2.1 (girls only)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Demographic and Health Survey for Colombia, Kenya, Senegal, NFHS for India, UNICEF MICS for El Salvador, RISKEDAS for Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2b</td>
<td>Prevalence of obesity among women aged 20+ years</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Global Nutrition Report dataset (WHO)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2c</td>
<td>Prevalence of anaemia amongst non-pregnant women (aged 15 - 49 years)</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Global Health Observatory Repository (WHO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3a</td>
<td>Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)</td>
<td>3.1.1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>SDG Indicators Global Database beta 0.2.52 (UNSD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3b</td>
<td>Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19)</td>
<td>3.7.2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Demographic and Health Survey for Colombia, Kenya, Senegal, NFHS for India, UNICEF MICS for El Salvador, RISKEDAS for Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3c</td>
<td>Proportion of women married or in a union of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years) who have had their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods</td>
<td>3.7.1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>SDG Indicators Global Database beta 0.2.52 (UNSD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3d</td>
<td>Incidence of HIV per 1,000 uninfected women of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years)</td>
<td>3.3.1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>SDG Indicators Global Database beta 0.2.52 (UNSD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a</td>
<td>Percentage of female students enrolled in primary education who are over-age</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Institute for Statistics (UNESCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4b</td>
<td>Percentage of young women aged 3-5 years above upper secondary school graduation age who have completed secondary education</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Institute for Statistics (UNESCO), WIDE (UNESCO) for Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4c</td>
<td>Proportion of women (15+ years) who have basic literacy skills</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Institute for Statistics (UNESCO)</td>
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<tr>
<td>5a</td>
<td>Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 18</td>
<td>5.3.1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5b</td>
<td>Percentage of women who agree that a husband/partner is justified in beating his wife/partner under certain circumstances</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Demographic and Health Survey StatCompiler, UNICEF MICS</td>
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<tr>
<td>5c</td>
<td>The extent to which there are legal grounds for abortion (score based on 10 legal grounds)</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Global Abortion Policies Database (WHO)</td>
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<tr>
<td>5d</td>
<td>Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments</td>
<td>5.5.1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Inter-Parliamentary Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>5e</td>
<td>The extent to which women are represented in senior levels of government (score based on five positions)</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Wikipedia</td>
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<tr>
<td>5f</td>
<td>Proportion of women who have made or received digital payments in the past year</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Global Findex Database (World Bank)</td>
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<tr>
<td>6a</td>
<td>Proportion of population using at least basic drinking water services</td>
<td>6.1.1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Joint Monitoring Program for Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene (WHO/UNICEF)</td>
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<td>Ref</td>
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<td>Gender-specific indicator</td>
<td>Data source</td>
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<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6b</td>
<td>Proportion of population using at least basic sanitation services</td>
<td>6.2.1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Joint Monitoring Program for Water Supply, Sanitation and Hygiene (WHO/UNICEF)</td>
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<td>6c</td>
<td>The extent to which a country’s policies and plans have specific measures</td>
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<td>Glass report (WHO)</td>
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<td>to reach women and specific measures for the financing plan to target</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>resources to women in relation to a) sanitation and b) drinking water</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(score)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7a</td>
<td>Proportion of population with access to electricity</td>
<td>7.1.1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>SDG Indicators Global Database beta 0.2.52 (UNSD)</td>
</tr>
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<td>7b</td>
<td>Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and</td>
<td>7.2.1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>SDG Indicators Global Database beta 0.2.52 (UNSD)</td>
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<td>The extent to which national energy frameworks take a gender</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
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<td>International Union for Conservation of Nature</td>
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<td>responsive approach (score)</td>
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<td>8a</td>
<td>Ratio of the share of young women (15–24 years) relative to men not in</td>
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<td>education, employment or training (NEET)</td>
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<td>8b</td>
<td>Ratio of women to men recognized as “contributing family workers” (as a</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
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<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td></td>
<td>% of total employment for female and male employment)</td>
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<td>8c</td>
<td>Unemployment rate for women (% of female labour force)</td>
<td>8.5.2</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
</tr>
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<td>8d</td>
<td>The extent to which the country has laws mandating women’s workplace</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Women, Business and the Law (World Bank)</td>
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<td>equality (score based on 5 factors)</td>
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<td>10a</td>
<td>Palma inequality ratio (the share of income of the richest 10% of the</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Palma Dataset (Cobham, Schlogl, Sumner, 2016)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>population divided by the share of income of the poorest 40%)</td>
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<td>10b</td>
<td>Expert perceptions of women’s political power (score)</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Varieties of Democracy Initiative</td>
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<td>The extent to which the national constitution addresses gender</td>
<td>5.1.1</td>
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<td>WORLD Policy Analysis Center</td>
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<td>equality (score)</td>
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<td>13a</td>
<td>Number of deaths, missing persons and persons affected by disaster</td>
<td>1.5.1/13.1.1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>International Disaster Database (UNSDR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(per 1,000 population)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13b</td>
<td>The extent to which the delegation representing the country at the UNFCCC</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change and Women’s Environment</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>is gender balanced (score)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and Development Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13c</td>
<td>The extent to which a country’s emissions reductions target is within</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Christian Holz, Sivan Kartha and Tom Athanasiou, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>their “fair share” (score)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>16a</td>
<td>Percentage of women ages 15+ who report that they “feel safe walking</td>
<td>16.1.4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Gallup</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>alone at night in the city or area where you live”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16b</td>
<td>Proportion of children &lt;5 years of age whose births were registered with</td>
<td>16.9.1</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>SDG Indicators - Global Database beta 0.2.52 (UNSD)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a civil authority</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16c</td>
<td>Female victims of intentional homicide (per 100,000 population)</td>
<td>16.1.1</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>United Nations Office On Drugs and Crime</td>
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<tr>
<td>16d</td>
<td>Number of those displaced by conflict per 1,000 people</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(total/stock displacement)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17a</td>
<td>Social expenditure as a % of GDP (for all types of social assistance</td>
<td>1.a.2</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Aspire database (World Bank)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>programs)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17b</td>
<td>Progressive structure and incidence of tax (standardised tax score)</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Commitment to Reducing Inequality Index (Oxfam)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17c</td>
<td>The extent to which countries are committed to gender budgeting</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(score)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17d</td>
<td>Openness of gender statistics (score)</td>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Open Data Watch</td>
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## ANNEX 2: SDG GENDER INDEX INDICATOR TABLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ref</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Colombia</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>El Salvador</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>India</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Indonesia</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Kenya</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Senegal</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td>Proportion of the population living below the national poverty line</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b</td>
<td>Proportion of the poorest quintile of the population covered by social assistance programs</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1c</td>
<td>The extent to which laws afford women and men equal and secure access to land use, control and ownership (score)</td>
<td>0 = no laws exist; 100 = extensive laws exist</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2017</td>
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<tr>
<td>2a</td>
<td>Prevalence of stunting among girls (height for age &lt; - 2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) &lt;5 years of age</td>
<td>% &lt;5 years old</td>
<td>2009 - 10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2009 - 10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2009 - 10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2009 - 10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2009 - 10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2009 - 10</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>3a</td>
<td>Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)</td>
<td>ratio per 100,000 live births</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3b</td>
<td>Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15 - 19)</td>
<td>rate per 1,000 15 - 19 year olds</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3c</td>
<td>Proportion of women married or in a union of reproductive age (aged 15 - 49 years) who have had their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3d</td>
<td>Incidence of HIV per 1,000 uninfected women of reproductive age (aged 15 - 49 years)</td>
<td>ratio to 1,000 uninfected women aged 15 - 49 years</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2016</td>
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<td>Indicator</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4a</td>
<td>Percentage of female students enrolled in primary education who are over - age</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4b</td>
<td>Percentage of young women aged 3 - 5 years above upper secondary school graduation age who have completed secondary education</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>2016</td>
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<tr>
<td>4c</td>
<td>Proportion of women (15+ years) who have basic literacy skills</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5a</td>
<td>Proportion of women aged 20 - 24 years who were married or in a union before age 18</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5b</td>
<td>Percentage of women who agree that a husband/partner is justified in beating his wife/partner under certain circumstances</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>2016</td>
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<tr>
<td>5c</td>
<td>The extent to which there are legal grounds for abortion (score based on 10 legal grounds)</td>
<td>0=no grounds exist; 100=most grounds exist</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2017</td>
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<tr>
<td>5d</td>
<td>Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5e</td>
<td>The extent to which women are represented in senior levels of government (score based on five positions)</td>
<td>0=no representation; 100=extensive representation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2018</td>
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<tr>
<td>5f</td>
<td>Proportion of women who have made or received digital payments in the past year</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2017</td>
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<tr>
<td>6a</td>
<td>Proportion of population using at least basic drinking water services</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6b</td>
<td>Proportion of population using at least basic sanitation services</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2015</td>
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<tr>
<td>6c</td>
<td>The extent to which a country’s policies and plans have specific measures to reach women and specific measures for the financing plan to target resources to women in relation to a) sanitation and b) drinking water (score)</td>
<td>0=no measures; 100=many measures</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2015, est.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ref</td>
<td>Indicator</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
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<td>Senegal</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>7a</td>
<td>Proportion of population with access to electricity</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7b</td>
<td>Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32</td>
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<tr>
<td>7c</td>
<td>The extent to which national energy frameworks take a gender responsive approach (score)</td>
<td>0=not gender responsive; 100=most gender responsive</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2017, est.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8a</td>
<td>Ratio of the share of young women (15 - 24 years) relative to men not in education, employment or training (NEET)</td>
<td>ratio of shares by sex</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1999, est.</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8b</td>
<td>Ratio of women to men recognized as “contributing family workers” (as a % of total employment for female and male employment)</td>
<td>ratio of shares by sex</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2017</td>
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<tr>
<td>8c</td>
<td>Unemployment rate for women (% of female labour force)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8d</td>
<td>The extent to which the country has laws mandating women’s workplace equality (score based on 5 factors)</td>
<td>0=no laws; 100=extensive laws</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10a</td>
<td>Palma inequality ratio (the share of income of the richest 10% of the population divided by the share of income of the poorest 40%)</td>
<td>ratio of top 10% income to bottom 40% income</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10b</td>
<td>Expert perceptions of women’s political power (score)</td>
<td>0=no power; 100=extensive power</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10c</td>
<td>The extent to which the national constitution addresses gender equality (score)</td>
<td>0=does not address gender; 100=addresses gender</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ref</td>
<td>Indicator</td>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13a</td>
<td>Number of deaths, missing persons and persons affected by disaster (per 1,000 population)</td>
<td>rate per 1,000 population</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>2015 - 17</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>2014 - 17</td>
<td>9.46</td>
<td>2015 - 17</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>2015 - 17</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>2015 - 17</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>2013 - 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13b</td>
<td>The extent to which the delegation representing the country at the UNFCCC is gender balanced (score)</td>
<td>0 = no gender balance; 100 = gender balance</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13c</td>
<td>The extent to which a country’s emissions reductions target is within their “fair share” (score)</td>
<td>0 = does not meet fair share; 100 = exceeds fair share</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16a</td>
<td>Percentage of women ages 15+ who report that they “feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live”</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16b</td>
<td>Proportion of children &lt;5 years of age whose births were registered with a civil authority</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>96.8</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>98.5</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>79.7</td>
<td>2015 - 16</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16c</td>
<td>Female victims of intentional homicide (per 100,000 population)</td>
<td>rate per 100,000 females</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>15.69</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16d</td>
<td>Number of those displaced by conflict per 1,000 people (total/stock displacement)</td>
<td>rate per 1,000 people</td>
<td>132.7</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17a</td>
<td>Social expenditure as a % of GDP (for all types of social assistance programs)</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>2013 - 15</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17b</td>
<td>Progressive structure and incidence of tax (standardised tax score)</td>
<td>0 = least progressive; 100 = most progressive</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17c</td>
<td>The extent to which countries are committed to gender budgeting (score)</td>
<td>0 = no gender budgeting; 100 = extensive gender budgeting</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17d</td>
<td>Openness of gender statistics (score)</td>
<td>0 = no open data; 100 = extensive open data</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ANNEX 3: GOAL-BY GOAL RATIONALE FOR INCLUSION WITHIN THE SDG GENDER INDEX

This annex provides a rationale for the inclusion of each of the 12 SDGs in the SDG Gender Index, the issues captured in our Index, and why those issues must be tackled if the world is to uphold the rights of girls and women. It also includes a set of key facts for each SDG.  

One word is inescapable throughout this section, and that is ‘disproportionate’. Across the 12 goals, we see that every challenge that the world must overcome has a disproportionate impact on girls and women. From poverty to poor health, and from lack of education to the effects of climate change and conflict, it is girls and women who feel the impact most acutely.

The disadvantage experienced by girls and women is often masked by data that present the average picture, leading to assumptions that progress is fairly evenly distributed across nations, communities and even within households. This only reinforces the urgent need for more and better data, disaggregated by sex (as well as other dimensions), to achieve the SDGs by 2030.

As this is the first iteration of the SDG Gender Index, EM2030 invites feedback on the indicators presented in this section. Such feedback will inform the scale-up and full launch of the Index in 2019.

SDG 1 POVERTY

KEY FACTS

- Nearly 1.1 billion people moved out of extreme poverty between 1990 and 2018.
- Yet in 2013, almost 11 per cent of the world’s people still lived on less than $1.90 each day.
- Women are more likely to live in extreme poverty than men: in 2017, 122 women aged 25-34 lived in extreme poverty in developing countries for every 100 men.
- Rising to 132 women for every 100 men in Latin America and the Caribbean.
- In 2011, women accounted for only 10-20 per cent of all land holders in developing countries.

WHY SDG 1 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY

Despite enormous achievements in halving the 1990 poverty rate during the era of the MDGs, a continuing lack of disaggregated data blurs the different ways in which poverty today affects men and women, with assumptions that those within a household share the same standard of living. In reality, intra-household gender inequities mean that girls and women feel the impact of poverty most severely. Analysis by UN Women and the World Bank also finds that women are 4 to 8 per cent more likely than men to live in extreme poverty, with the widest gap in Central and Southern Asia.

As well as leaving girls and women more vulnerable to poverty, gender inequities deny them the resources to cope, including education, incomes, banking and credit, control of assets and decision-making power. In hard times, poverty and gender inequities combine to undermine their prospects, with girls and women more likely to stop education, start unpaid labour, eat last and go without healthcare.

A Poverty Assessment of Grenada showed that the labour force participation rates of women were substantially lower than for men. The Government became aware of the issue and started designing policies to address it.  
- Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 1

Issue 1: Households living below the national poverty line

Indicator 1a: Proportion of the population living below the national poverty line

National poverty lines provide a useful way to assess the people or households seen as poor in each country by setting a line below which people will struggle to meet their basic needs. The women living in households below the poverty line have difficulties accessing basic services and productive economic activities. The indicator also illustrates the reach of social protection provided by a government, as well as women’s access to such protection. The measurement of a proportion is also a useful starting point for national assessment of gender dynamics and poverty.

Issue 2: Social protection for the poorest households

Indicator 1b: Proportion of the poorest quintile of the population covered by social assistance programmes

While poverty heightens existing gender inequalities, social protection can ease the impact of poverty on the poorest households and prevent backsliding on gender equality. Social protection can include government provision of cash or food, protection for livelihoods, enhancing the rights of marginalized people and policies that encourage women’s employment. Yet women are disproportionately excluded from effective social protection schemes, even though these have been shown to narrow gender gaps in poverty rates and provide an economic lifeline for poor women.

Evidence suggests that social protection schemes do the most good for the most people when they target women, who are more likely than men to invest social protection resources in the health, nutrition and education of their children.
multiplier effect leaves families healthier, better educated and more economically stable.160

**Issue 3: Laws on women’s access to land use, control and ownership**

Indicator 1c: The extent to which laws afford women and men equal and secure access to land use, control and ownership (score)

Control of resources, including land, is skewed by discriminatory legislation and customary laws that exacerbate poverty and gender inequality. Most of the 189 nations in the World Bank’s Women, Business and the Law 2018 survey161 have at least one law constraining women’s economic participation, and women’s property rights are limited in 75 countries. Widows in 36 countries lack the same inheritance rights as widowers, and 39 countries stop daughters from inheriting the same proportion of assets as sons.162 Women’s inability to hold land titles limits their ability to use land as a source of productive income or as collateral for bank loans, leaving them with fewer assets and undermining their potential contribution to the economy, as well as their rights.

Strong property rights for women, on the other hand, enable asset-based lending where land is used as collateral. Ensuring women’s ability to secure and use land could accelerate global poverty reduction. When two Indian states reformed the Hindu Succession Act in 1994 to give women and men identical inheritance rights, parental investment in daughters increased, more women had bank accounts and community sanitation improved.163

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**SDG 2 HUNGER**

**KEY FACTS**

- In 2015, women accounted for 60 per cent of chronically hungry people worldwide.1
- Estimates from 2011 suggest that if women had the same access to productive resources as men, they could increase farm yields by 20-30 per cent, lifting 100-150 million people out of hunger.1
- Malnourished mothers are more likely to give birth to underweight babies, and underweight babies are 20 per cent more likely to die before the age of five.14
- The rate of obesity nearly tripled globally between 1975 and 2018.8

**WHY SDG 2 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY**

Today an estimated 789 million people are undernourished, and women account for 60 per cent of the world’s chronically hungry people.164 Hunger poses severe risks to women’s health, and the health of their children. Malnourished mothers are more likely to give birth to underweight babies, and underweight babies are 20 per cent more likely to die before the age of five.165 While food insecurity varies across countries, women are more likely than men to experience such insecurity in most countries. The gender gaps in food insecurity are widest in Africa, South America, and South Asia: in Pakistan, for example, food insecurity among women was 11 percentage points higher than among men in 2014/15.166

Such gaps are often linked to women’s lack of control over household assets, land and agricultural technologies. Crises can exacerbate such inequities, as seen across many other SDGs. UN Women has found that when crises hit or food prices rise, girls and women often become household ‘shock absorbers’,167 spending more time finding food while consuming less food (and less nutritious food) than others.

Progress on hunger means empowering the girls and women who collect, produce, cook, process and sell so much of the world’s food. Their access to productive agricultural resources can increase incomes and enhance the well-being of their children, as well as move the world towards SDG target 2.3: doubling the agricultural productivity and incomes of small-scale food producers.

**SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 2**

**Issue 1: Stunting among girls**

Indicator 2a: Prevalence of stunting among girls (height for age <-2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) <5 years of age

Those who survive stunting (being too short for their age) due to malnutrition in early childhood face lasting damage to their cognitive development, educational achievement, health and their productivity as adults.168 While similar stunting rates for boys and girls exist at the global level,169 recent research reveals close links between stunting and gender inequalities in some countries.170 Stunting may be more prevalent, for example, among girls in countries with a strong son preference, such as India.171

It is also more prevalent in the poorest households, where it combines with other risks for girls, such as early marriage and child bearing to increase the dangers of perinatal and neonatal death.

Children of undernourished mothers are themselves more likely to be stunted – as documented in Ethiopia, Mozambique, Nigeria and Tanzania – with stunting rates offering a proxy measure for women’s nutrition.172 Given its impact on development, the World Health Assembly positions stunting as a key indicator for nutrition.

**Issue 2: Obesity among women**

Indicator 2b: Prevalence of obesity among women aged 20+ years

While not reflected in the SDG targets, obesity has serious implications for global health and has almost tripled since 1975.173 According to WHO, more people now live in countries where obesity is a bigger killer than lack of food.174 Worldwide, at least 2.8 million people die each year from conditions related to being overweight or obese.175
While women’s obesity rates are double those of men in the WHO regions with the widest gender gaps – Africa, Eastern Mediterranean and South East Asia – the rates are similar in higher-income countries. The gender distribution of obesity offers a measure of gender equality.\(^{176}\) Where more women than men are obese, they are affected in different ways by the inequalities that cause obesity.\(^{177}\)

Obesity also contributes to many non-communicable diseases, such as heart disease, diabetes and gestational diabetes, the latter of which can lead to significant maternal and foetal complications.\(^{178}\) As the global obesity and diabetes epidemics expand, they will increasingly affect women of childbearing age, in many countries of sub-Saharan Africa, for example, women are already more likely to be obese or overweight than men and have a higher prevalence of diabetes.\(^{179}\)

### Issue 3: Anaemia in women of reproductive age

#### Indicator 2c: Prevalence of anaemia amongst non-pregnant women (aged 15-49 years)

Anaemia contributes to one fifth of all maternal deaths worldwide.\(^{180}\) The links between anaemia and maternal and infant mortality and morbidity are clear, as are the benefits of low-cost programmes to distribute fortified foods and iron supplements that can prevent anaemia. According to WHO, such interventions improve pregnancy outcomes, children’s school performance and women’s productivity.\(^{181}\)

Yet progress towards the goal set in 2012 by the World Health Assembly of halving anaemia in girls and women of reproductive age remains painfully slow. Its prevalence has fallen only a few percentage points in South Asia, for example, from 55 per cent in 1990 to 49 per cent in 2016.\(^{182}\)

Anaemia underscores health disparities between and within countries. Affecting nearly one in three girls and women worldwide, it is life-threatening primarily for those living in developing countries. Within countries, prevalence rates are highest among girls and women who are already vulnerable, including those living in rural areas, the poorest and those with limited education.\(^{183}\)

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**SDG 3 HEALTH**

### KEY FACTS

- The global maternal mortality ratio fell by 44 per cent between 1990 and 2015.\(^{1}\)
- Around 16 million girls aged between 15 and 19 years give birth each year.\(^{ii}\)
- There are approximately 380,000 new HIV infections among adolescent girls and young women globally every year.\(^{iii}\)
- Globally, there were still more than 1.4 million pregnant women with HIV in 2015.\(^{iv}\)
- In 2008, deaths caused by unsafe abortion accounted for an estimated 13 per cent of all maternal deaths.\(^{v}\)
- In 2017, more than one in ten married women worldwide had an unmet need for family planning services.\(^{vi}\)

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**WHY SDG 3 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY**

Gender inequalities often determine who suffers the heaviest burden of disease and who can access healthcare, with women’s health undermined by GBV, lack of control over household resources, and unpaid and unhealthy work.\(^{184}\) Girls and women cooking on open fires in their homes, for example, breathe in pollutants that contribute to hundreds of thousands of deaths each year.\(^{185}\) They face gender-specific health risks, including FGM, and complications during pregnancy and childbirth such as obstetric fistula.
Girls and women are not only more vulnerable to health problems – they also have less access to healthcare. In some communities, medical treatment for girls and women is not a priority. Furthermore, women bear a disproportionate responsibility for unpaid care work – including caring for the sick. Unpaid care work is thought to cost around 13 per cent of global GDP each year ($10 trillion).

When girls and women have good prenatal care and safe birthing facilities, infant mortality rates fall and child health improves. Investment in adolescent girls’ health increases their chances of finishing secondary school and of finding productive work. And ending the disproportionate burden of poor health on girls and women would enhance progress on education, gender equality and economic growth (SDGs 4, 5 and 8).

Because we had enough data on the health situation of working mothers in rural areas in southern Tunisia, we were able to accordingly launch an SRHR campaign that targeted these women and linked them with medical centres in the southern governorates."

- Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 3

**Issue 1: Maternal mortality**

**Indicator 3a: Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)**

Safe pregnancy and childbirth are linchpins of women’s health. The vast majority of maternal deaths are preventable, with over three quarters of deaths during pregnancy and childbirth caused by the dangers of severe bleeding, infections, unsafe abortion, hypertensive disorders (e.g. pre-eclampsia), or delivery complications. The rest are caused by medical conditions complicated by pregnancy (e.g. cardiac disease, malaria, diabetes or HIV/AIDS).

Every leading cause of maternal mortality can be mitigated by access to safe and accessible health or medical facilities with skilled attendants, such as doctors, midwives or trained nurses. While maternal mortality has fallen globally since 1990, inequities persist across regions and within countries, with the highest rates of mortality among the poorest girls and women and those living in rural areas. Sub-Saharan Africa is the region with the highest MMR with 556 deaths for every 100,000 live births in 2015, accounting for two thirds of all global maternal deaths.

**Issue 2: Adolescent birth rate (girls, ages 15-19)**

**Indicator 3b: Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women aged 15-19)**

Gender inequalities drive high birth rates among adolescent girls, while early childbearing denies them vital opportunities. An estimated 16 million girls aged 15 to 19 give birth each year. Early pregnancy is linked to lack of access to reproductive health services and to the harmful practices of child, early and forced marriage.

Adolescents are vulnerable to complications in pregnancy and childbirth, including obstetric fistulas that are common in girls who give birth before their bodies have matured. In 2017 the WHO reported pregnancy and childbirth as the leading cause of death among girls aged 15 to 19 worldwide. Early childbearing also undermines girls’ prospects: young mothers are less likely to finish school, which diminishes their earning potential and leaves them more vulnerable to intergenerational poverty.

**Issue 3: Access to modern methods of family planning**

**Indicator 3c: Proportion of women married or in a union of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years) who have had their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods**

Modern methods of family planning enhance the well-being of women and adolescent girls. They enable girls and women to make choices about their own bodies, avoid unwanted or dangerous pregnancies and space out their births, a practice that reduces the risks for women and babies and increases household investment in each child. Modern family planning also supports a woman’s participation in social and economic life – including paid employment. Adolescent girls need access to reproductive healthcare to avoid early pregnancy and stay in school.

Family planning counselling and access to contraception also reduce abortion, including unsafe abortion in countries where it is illegal, restricted or prohibitively expensive. In all, 214 million women in developing countries who want to avoid pregnancy are not using any modern contraceptive method. In Latin America and the Caribbean, more than 24 million girls and women of reproductive age reported an unmet need for modern contraception in 2017.

**Issue 4: HIV incidence in women**

**Indicator 3d: Incidence of HIV per 1,000 uninfected women of reproductive age (aged 15-49 years)**

Adolescents and young people represent a growing share of people living with HIV and those newly infected worldwide. Globally, in 2016, there were an estimated 2.4 million adolescent
girls and young women living with HIV, with adolescent girls and young women constituting 61 per cent of all young people living with HIV.195

In sub-Saharan Africa – the region most affected by HIV – girls and young women aged 15–24 accounted for almost 70 per cent of new infections and the world’s fastest growing infection rate.196 Yet UNICEF data suggest that only 23 per cent of adolescent girls in the region in 2017 were tested for HIV in the past 12 months.197

Sexual violence increases the risk of infection.196 Once a woman contracts HIV, she is vulnerable to more violence, poor health and complications during pregnancy and childbirth, as well as poverty. A study in sub-Saharan Africa found that stigma around HIV deterred reporting of violations of property and inheritance rights.199 Women’s HIV status, therefore, links to most other SDG targets, including those on poverty.

SDG 4 EDUCATION

KEY FACTS

- It was estimated in 2013 that if all girls completed secondary education, child, early and forced marriages would fall by two thirds.1
- Increased education for women has prevented more than four million child deaths over the past 40 years.8
- In 2014, women accounted for two thirds of the world’s 774 million illiterate adults – a proportion that had not changed for 20 years.11

SDG 4 has a strong gender perspective, grounded in evidence on the close links between girls’ education and social and economic development, including poverty reduction: one additional school year can increase a woman’s earnings by 10 per cent to 20 per cent; each year of secondary education reduces the likelihood of marrying as a child by five percentage points or more; and a child whose mother can read is 50 per cent more likely to live past the age of five.200

To date, only two thirds of the world’s countries have achieved gender parity in primary school enrolment, and just over one third have achieved parity in lower secondary enrolment.201 Girls living in rural poverty still face the greatest barriers to education, and families that cannot afford to send all children to school may choose to send only their sons. Such educational gaps can undermine a girl’s earnings in later life, and her chances of genuine participation in society.

However, SDG 4 goes far beyond enrolment. It also recognizes the challenges presented by a lack of the necessary increases in resources, infrastructure and teachers to cope with the growing number of students in schools, often resulting in poor learning outcomes. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) estimates from 2012 suggested that, globally, approximately 250 million children of primary school age had not acquired basic literacy or numeracy skills, some even after four years of schooling.202 SDG 4 emphasizes learning outcomes driven by curricula reform, teacher training and the reduction of violence against girls in school, and covers all types of learning (formal, informal, technical and vocational).

We use the Days for Girls program and use data to track how many girls stay in school as a result of the training. Using data to show that our work is accomplishing our goal helps with additional support."
- Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 4

Issue 1: Girls’ who are over-age in primary school

Indicator 4a: Percentage of female students enrolled in primary education who are over-age

In many poor and conflict-affected countries there is a mismatch between a child’s age and their school grade. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), of the 84 per cent of adolescents of lower-secondary age in formal education worldwide in 2014, nearly one in every five was in a primary class.203

Many poor children start late, repeat classes or drop out, but girls are more likely to drop out or be pulled out of school when they are the wrong age for their grade, particularly during the transition between primary and secondary education.204 Where their education is a low priority and they do not attend school regularly, families may not see the benefits of keeping them in school or fending off the social pressures that drive child marriage.

It is vital to keep girls in school beyond puberty. According to UNESCO in 2013, if all girls had a secondary education, there would be two thirds fewer child, early and forced marriages.205

Issue 2: Girls’ (upper) secondary school completion

Indicator 4b: Percentage of young women aged 3-5 years above upper secondary school graduation age who have completed secondary education

The development impact of girls’ secondary education is clear. Research has shown that when a girl in the developing world receives seven years of education, she marries four years later and has 2.2 fewer children – and those children are likely to be healthier.206 Recent data show that for every additional year of schooling a girl receives on average, her country’s resilience to climate disasters can improve by 3.2 points on the Notre Dame Global Adaptation Index.207

4 equalmeasures2030.org
Secondary education is the most important predictive factor not only for poverty reduction, but also the reduction of human rights violations. According to the World Bank “each year of secondary education may reduce the likelihood of marrying before the age of 18 by five percentage points or more,” and the GPE notes that even one year of secondary education for a girl can correlate with an increase of up to 25 per cent in her wages later in life.

Issue 3: Women’s literacy
Indicator 4c: Proportion of women (15+ years) who have basic literacy skills

The literacy rate among youth aged 15 to 24 increased globally from 83 per cent to 91 per cent between 1990 and 2015. However, of the world’s 123 million illiterate youth in 2014, 76 million were female. These gender disparities have changed very little over time. Given that literacy and numeracy are basic learning outcomes, a focus on literacy provides a proxy measure for the quality of education in schools. Where literacy and numeracy skills increase, it signals an improvement in the quality of education, and the benefits of girls’ education – such as reduced early marriages, increased earnings and healthier children – will become apparent.

While the official SDG indicator 4.6.1 examines the percentage of the population in a given age group achieving a minimum proficiency level in (a) literacy and (b) numeracy, by sex, the SDG Gender Index narrows this down to look at the proportion of women (15+) with literacy skills.

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SDG 5
GENDER EQUALITY

KEY FACTS

- In 2013, around 35 per cent of women worldwide reported having experienced physical or sexual violence in their lifetime.
- In the period 1982-2011, up to 38 per cent of murders of women were committed by their partners, and 49 countries currently have no laws to tackle domestic violence.
- Women still earn 25 per cent less than men, on average.
- Women’s political representation has risen by 10 percentage points on average worldwide over the past 20 years, however just 20 current heads of state or government are female.
- 38 per cent of the 146 nations studied by the WEF have had a female head of government or state for at least one year in the past half-century; in over 90 per cent of these countries, women led for five years or less.
- Women’s representation among cabinet ministers increased from 6 per cent in 1994 to 18 per cent in 2015.

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ii. Ibid.
WHY SDG 5 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY

SDG 5 is unique in focusing on one population group: girls and women. However, its achievement requires strong progress for girls and women across every other SDG. SDG 5 creates clear linkages between its overall goal of gender equality and the empowerment of women, including its own targets on ending discrimination and eliminating violence against women, and other SDG targets that reflect specific gender issues: the SDG 3 targets for family planning and reproductive health; the SDG 4 targets for gender parity in education; and the SDG 16 targets on the elimination of sexual exploitation and trafficking, among many others.

SDG 5 is also aspirational. While no nation on earth has ended discrimination against women, target 5.1 represents a catalytic call to action. Other targets were hotly contested, including 5.4 on recognizing and valuing unpaid care and domestic work, and 5.6 on universal access to sexual and reproductive health. Their very presence within the final SDG agenda provides a strong mandate for advocacy on responsive and transformative legislation and for far greater investment in girls and women.

On a recent trip to Indonesia, the fact that child marriage rates were disaggregated to the district and below level by UNICEF allowed us to demonstrate to elected officials that although the country has a 12-14% official [child marriage] rate, there are areas where rates of child marriage are above two thirds – which allowed us to demonstrate to them that the problem was significantly holding back progress on their education, health, poverty and nutrition SDG goals.”

- Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 5

Issue 1: Child, early and forced marriage

Indicator 5a: Proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 18

Child marriage is a formal marriage or informal union before the age of 18. The proportion of women married as children has fallen from one in four to approximately one in five over the past decade. Nevertheless, more than 650 million of the world’s women were married as children, and an estimated 12 million girls under the age of 18 are married each year.

Child marriage links discrimination and poverty: where resources are scarce and girls are valued primarily as potential mothers, they are more likely to be forced into marriage. In 2012, UNFPA reported that girls from poor families were three times more likely to marry as children than their wealthier counterparts.

The impact of child marriage on girls is disproportionate to boys, undermining their health, education and economic prospects. The World Bank has estimated that ending child marriage would increase national earnings by, on average, 1 per cent. Child marriage is, therefore, a proxy measure for progress towards gender equality.

Issue 2: Perceptions of domestic violence

Indicator 5b: Percentage of women who agree that a husband/partner is justified in beating his wife/partner under certain circumstances

According to the WHO, almost one third (30 per cent) of women who have been in a relationship reported having experienced physical or sexual violence at the hands of their intimate partner. The impact on their physical, mental, sexual and reproductive health is profound.

Domestic violence and IPV emerge from social norms that govern attitudes and behaviours, including within relationships. According to UNICEF “data on attitudes towards wife-beating offer clues on how girls and women are perceived within a given society.”

Evidence shows that gender inequities are predictors of IPV. Research from Bangladesh, for example, linked IPV with women’s limited financial and household decision making. Such research is relatively new, as noted in a briefing note by the UK Department for International Development (DFID): “the evidence base on what works to tackle social norms that drive violence is at an early stage in scope and scale.”

Issue 3: Extent of legal frameworks related to abortion

Indicator 5c: The extent to which there are legal grounds for abortion (score based on 10 legal grounds)

Safe abortion services are critical to women’s choices about their own bodies. Yet it has been calculated that 6 per cent of the world’s 1.6 billion women of reproductive age live in countries where abortion is banned, and only 37 per cent in countries where it is allowed without restriction, leaving the vast majority living in countries with some restriction on abortion.

Safe induced abortion (with trained people using WHO-recommended methods) is often limited by law, stigma, lack of services and information, as well as cost – all of which fuel unsafe abortions. Of the 56 million induced abortions each year between 2010 and 2014, an estimated 25 million were unsafe under WHO standards. The consequences are both devastating and preventable, with estimates suggesting that over 22,000 women worldwide die as a result of unsafe abortions each year, and that abortion is safer in countries where it is legal than in countries where it is restricted.

Issue 4: Women’s political participation

Indicator 5d: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments

Women’s political participation is essential for gender equality and genuine democracy. Women become more engaged in decision making and government becomes more accountable to women. Their access to political power is a first step towards laws and policies to safeguard the rights of disadvantaged people, particularly girls and women. Measuring their participation in political life, therefore, charts progress on social norms, as well as the fundamental right to participate. Women are under-represented worldwide in national parliaments. But where they have exercised political power, they have proven to be important drivers of gender equality policy.
Issue 5: Women’s representation in senior positions in government
Indicator 5e: The extent to which women are represented in senior levels of government (score based on five positions: Head of Government, Defense Minister, Finance Minister, Foreign Minister, President of Assembly)

Data from the IPU reveal that as of 2017 only 6.4 per cent of the world’s political leaders (Head of State or Government) were women and only 18.3 per cent of government ministers were women. Women are also less likely than men to hold cabinet positions, or leadership roles in ministries of home affairs, finance, defense and justice; the most commonly held portfolios by women ministers are environment, natural resources, social affairs, education, and the family.

Women government officials are more likely than men to champion issues of gender equality and to implement policies regarding GBV, parental leave and childcare, pensions, and electoral reform to make politics more inclusive.

Strong gender stereotypes about leadership persist in all regions of the world. In the most recent World Values Surveys in 2010-2014, over 80 per cent of respondents in Egypt, Ghana, Jordan, Qatar and Yemen agreed with the statement that men make better political leaders than women. Political party dynamics that favour men, patronage systems, differential access to resources in campaigns and other factors can also limit women’s entry to political office. Policies (e.g. a gender quota at the party level) or political commitments (e.g. a prime minister’s pledge for gender parity in a cabinet) can help remedy these barriers and foster women’s leadership at the highest echelons of government.

Issue 6: Women’s access to and use of digital financial services
Indicator 5f: Proportion of women who have made or received digital payments in the past year

When women make their own decisions about how to spend their own money, and when they have more control over their own finances and those of their household, they are more likely to channel resources to food, water, children’s education and healthcare.

Access to credit opens up economic opportunities for women, and bank accounts can be the first step in the use of additional financial services. However, women often face restrictions in opening bank accounts, such as requiring the permission of a male family member. They may also lack access to savings, digital payment methods and loans, as well as the financial education that could help them access financial services.

According to the World Bank in 2014, “in developing economies women are 20 per cent less likely than men to have an account at a formal financial institution and 17 per cent less likely to have borrowed formally in the past year.”

SDG 6 WATER AND SANITATION

KEY FACTS

- Diarrhoea caused by dirty water and poor toilets kills a child under five years every two minutes.
- Globally, it has been estimated that girls and women spend 200 million cumulative hours each day collecting water and are responsible for water collection in 80 per cent of households without running water.
- In sub-Saharan Africa, about three quarters of households rely on water sources outside the home and an average trip to collect water in 2016 was estimated to cover over three miles and take more than an hour.
- In 2015, half a billion women globally, or 13 per cent of all women, lacked a toilet and a private place for menstrual hygiene management (MHM).

WHY SDG 6 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY

It has been estimated that 800 million people lack access to clean water and an estimated 2.5 billion people lack access to proper sanitation, with girls and women feeling the greatest impact. They are responsible for water collection in 80 per cent of households without access to running water. Based on data across 24 sub-Saharan countries from 2005 to 2012, an estimated 13.5 million women made round trips of more than an hour each day to collect water. Those walking long distances to collect water faced the risks of sexual violence, fatigue, injuries, and bone and muscle damage, as well as waterborne diseases.

Girls collecting water each day were also more vulnerable to pregnancy, exploitative labour and school dropout. A 2011 study in Ghana found that even a 15-minute reduction in water collection time increased the share of girls attending school by up to 12 per cent. Poor sanitation in schools also fuels gender gaps in primary and secondary school attendance. Girls in Bolivia, for example, have reported feeling fear, shame and lack of privacy at school during menstruation. Worldwide in 2015, half a billion women, or 13 per cent of all women, lacked toilets. Studies estimate that lack of access to clean water and sanitation costs up to 7 per cent of GDP in some countries each year.
**SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 6**

**Issue 1: Household access to clean drinking water**

Indicator 6a: Proportion of population using at least basic drinking water services

Access to clean drinking water from a protected external source (such as boreholes, protected springs and piped water) or in the home (whenever needed and free of contamination) is critical to the daily lives of girls and women. Improved water sources limit the amount of time they spend walking to sources, queuing and hauling water, freeing up hundreds of hours each year that they can devote to education or productive employment.

Access to clean water also reduces the risks to girls’ and women’s health posed by drinking and washing in contaminated water. Access to clean water is particularly crucial for pregnant women, new mothers, babies and growing children. They are all particularly vulnerable to water-related diseases, and giving birth in places with unclean drinking water and inadequate sanitation increases the risk of disease, infection (including sepsis) and death.  

**Issue 2: Household access to sanitation services**

Indicator 6b: Proportion of population using at least basic sanitation services

Sanitation services are essential for overall development. A 2012 WHO study calculated returns of $5.50 for every $1.00 invested in sanitation in reduced health costs and premature deaths, as well as increased productivity. Yet women in developing countries – particularly the poorest, most marginalized and those displaced by conflict or disaster – often rely on communal sanitation facilities that are unsafe and also expose them to sexual violence. In India, poor sanitation and water supply contributed to a life expectancy for a Dalit woman in 2012 that was 11 years shorter than for a woman from a higher caste.

It was estimated in 2010 that less than half of all primary schools had access to safe water and just over one third had adequate sanitation facilities. Research from Bolivia, Cambodia, Ethiopia, India, Kenya and Tanzania shows that lack of separate toilets and menstrual hygiene management in schools deters girls from attending during menstruation, disrupting their learning.

**Issue 3: Whether WASH plans and budgets address the needs of women**

Indicator 6c: The extent to which a country’s policies and plans have specific measures to reach women and specific measures for the financing plan to target resources to women in relation to a) sanitation and b) drinking water (score)

Adequate and equitable sanitation and water for all requires government spending that targets the needs of girls and women explicitly. WASH programmes and budgets that are not gender-responsive may fail to account for the ways in which water collection and management affects the daily lives of the main collectors, users and managers of household water. In Rajasthan, India, for example, a government programme to subsidize toilets for rural households with no running water experienced lower than expected uptake. This was because women saw the additional time they would have to spend on collecting extra water to run the toilets as more costly than beneficial.

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**SDG 7 ENERGY**

**KEY FACTS**

- 1.1 billion people worldwide lacked access to electricity in 2015.
- More than 3 billion people worldwide relied on combustible fuels in 2012.
- Women and children bear the burden of fuel collection and transport, with women in many developing countries spending from one to four hours a day collecting biomass for fuel.

**WHY SDG 7 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY**

Access to affordable, clean energy can power global poverty reduction. Yet more than one billion people lacked access to electricity in 2015, and three billion people relied on fuels such as wood, coal, kerosene and animal dung that undermine health and contribute to climate change. Over half the population of the developing world cooks over open fires. In 2012, the resulting air pollution contributed to around four million deaths from illnesses such as cancer, pneumonia and lung disease, with women and children – those most likely to be in the house during food preparation – accounting for 60 per cent of these deaths.

On average, the rural poor travel the furthest to collect fuel that is, in turn, the most inefficient in converting to energy. As with water collection, girls and women often travel long distances for heavy loads of firewood, with the average wood load carried by women in sub-Saharan Africa weighing around 20 kilograms. The risks are also similar: sexual violence, fatigue, and lost time that could be spent in school or earning an income.

Problems intensify during crises, when the world’s most vulnerable people become those most acutely affected by a lack of clean energy. The UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and FAO found that access to fuel was one of the most pressing daily issues for the over 65 million people displaced worldwide by 2015. And a 2016 study of a refugee camp in Tanzania found that attacks on girls and women collecting firewood spiked during influxes of new refugees, when increased demand meant that they had to travel further for firewood.
Engagement in local economies.

Women use energy in their households and how they may be affected by new initiatives.

Traditional firewood, rather than cleaner-burning fuels.

Low birthweights among babies born to those cooking with (an indicator of cardiovascular disease) in pregnant women and in Nigeria, for example, found increased systemic inflammation in children. A study on traditional firewood fuel and maternal health found that electrification in rural communities raised local and gender equality.

A study in South Africa in 2011 found that electrification in rural communities raised local female employment by 9.5 per cent by enabling women’s microenterprises.

Similarly, a study in 2015 of nearly two million women and men in rural Brazil found that those with access to energy were more than 10 per cent more likely to be employed than those without access, and that household appliances improved female labour force participation.

The same research confirmed the educational benefits of reliable electricity at night: girls who had access to electricity were 59 per cent more likely to complete primary education by the age of 18 than those without.

The use of clean fuels can improve the health of women and children. A study on traditional firewood fuel and maternal health in Nigeria, for example, found increased systemic inflammation (an indicator of cardiovascular disease) in pregnant women and low birthweights among babies born to those cooking with traditional firewood, rather than cleaner-burning fuels.

Evidence has suggested that the use of clean fuels and efficient cook-stoves can reduce household costs by up to 70 per cent. One study found that switching to improved cook stoves or liquefied petroleum gas could save a typical South Asian household about $30 per year.

Clean fuels can also ease time burdens for girls and women, particularly in rural areas. Girls in households using clean fuels have been found to spend five hours a week on average gathering fuel, compared to 18 hours for households using solid fuels. Access to clean fuels can also spur women’s engagement in local economies.

Gender equality in employment gives women more decision-making power and enhances family well-being; they will typically invest more of their income than men in the health, education of their children. National evidence from Brazil, China, India, South Africa and the UK also demonstrates that women’s ability to earn and take part in financial decisions increases families’ resilience to economic shocks.

Yet labour inequalities are pervasive, with women often facing legal and social hurdles around the types of jobs available to them and their ability to own and use land – also an issue for SDG 1. Meanwhile, they do twice as much unpaid work as men.

Women in developing countries are more likely than men to work in informal, poorly paid or unsafe jobs. SDG target 8.8 on labour rights recognizes the risks of exploitation, trafficking and forced labour, while target 8.7 aims to eradicate such violations, which affect more than 40 million people mostly girls and women – undermining global development and stability.

A 2017 assessment by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and other partners analysed the degree to which gender considerations have been addressed in energy policies, plans and strategies worldwide.

The analysis of a sample of 192 national energy frameworks from 137 countries found that less than one third of the frameworks include gender considerations, and that women are often characterized as potential stakeholders or beneficiaries but seldom as agents of change.

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Attitudes have not changed, women have come out for work, but burden and running family is still there, this is not recognized. We have to strike a balance.

- Female respondent to EM230 Policymaker Survey, India

SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 8

Issue 1: Young women not in education, employment or training (NEET) (compared to young men)

Indicator 8a: Ratio of the share of young women (15-24 years) relative to men not in education, employment or training (NEET)

The share of youth who are NEET (the NEET rate) reflects their vulnerabilities, including market factors that hamper their employment, poor school attendance and drop out, and the proportion working in the informal economy or as unpaid carers.

Higher NEET ratios among young women signal that they struggle to find work because of cultural barriers against women working outside the home, legal barriers that leave them unable to access credit, or structural barriers such as limited secondary education or vocational training. The International Labour Organization (ILO) found that most NEETs in almost every country surveyed in 2015 were young women fully occupied with household tasks. The gender gap in national NEET rates, therefore, shows girls’ and women’s unpaid labour burden and is a useful proxy measure for their access to decent work.

Issue 2: Vulnerability of women’s work (compared to men)

Indicator 8b: Ratio of women to men recognized as “contributing family workers” (as a % of total employment for female and male employment)

High rates of women’s work in particularly vulnerable roles within the informal economy are linked to women’s lack of access to secondary education and vocational training, barriers to their legal entry into the formal workforce, and a lack of government policies to support their work (such as progressive policies on care for children and the elderly).

Their informal and household work goes uncounted in typical measures of economic productivity, even though its support for family incomes, in effect, subsidizes the global economy.

The ratio of women to men in vulnerable employment indicates gender inequalities, with women’s higher representation in work as “contributing family workers” (often unpaid) leaving them particularly vulnerable to exploitation and economic shocks. Contributing family workers are considered self-employed but work in an establishment operated by a relative, with too little authority over its operation to be considered a partner. The percentage of women contributing family workers is at least twice that of men in all regions except Eastern Europe and Central Asia where it is roughly the same.

Issue 3: Women’s unemployment

Indicator 8c: Unemployment rate for women (% of female labour force)

Women face high rates of unemployment and underemployment. Globally, their labour force participation rate holds at 63 per cent, compared to 94 per cent for men. There are marked regional differences in women’s unemployment as a result, in part, of the proportion of women in informal jobs. The widest gaps are found in Northern Africa and Central, Southern and Western Asia, where female labour force participation rates are below 40 per cent. Without access to decent work and an income, women are more likely to live in poverty, suffer poor health and experience social exclusion. Their unemployment and underemployment also cause significant economic losses to families, communities and nations.

Conversely, bringing more women into the labour force reduces poverty, produces macroeconomic benefits and eases demographic challenges in rapidly ageing nations. Japanese Prime Minister Shinzo Abe, for example, has made ‘womenomics’ a core pillar of Japan’s economic growth strategy.

Issue 4: Laws mandating women’s workplace equality

Indicator 8d: The extent to which the country has laws mandating women’s workplace equality (score based on 5 factors)

The World Bank’s Women, Business and the Law 2018 report notes that most of the 189 economies surveyed have at least one law inhibiting women’s economic participation. Women still face legal barriers to economic participation, including lack of access to identification documents and obstacles to owning and using property, getting a job or building credit.

The job choices for a staggering 2.7 billion women worldwide are legally restricted. In 18 countries, a woman cannot get a job without permission from her husband or male guardian. And while nearly 80 per cent of countries prohibit gender discrimination in employment, only 40 per cent have legislation on equal pay for equal work.

The need for more equitable legal frameworks is recognized in SDG target 8.5 on full and productive employment and decent work, though this lacks indicators on legal reform or targets for women’s economic rights.
**SDG 10 INEQUALITY**

**KEY FACTS**

- Of the wealth generated in 2017, 82 per cent went to the richest 1 per cent of the world’s population, while the poorest half of the world’s population saw no increase in their wealth.\(^1\)
- In 2013, more than 75 per cent of people in developing countries lived in societies where income distribution was more unequal than it was in the 1990s.\(^2\)
- Only five countries worldwide offer constitutional rights to people regardless of their sexual orientation and gender identity.\(^3\)
- Discrimination was deemed to be increasing in 63 per cent of countries in 2017.\(^4\)
- Rural women are still up to three times more likely to die during childbirth than urban women.\(^5\)

**WHY SDG 10 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY**

Widening income inequality within many countries signals that the world’s wealth is captured increasingly by its richest people. While growing income inequality can destabilize societies and harm entire nations, its most acute impact falls on those who are already disadvantaged, including girls and women.

For them, gender inequalities in health, education, work and access to civic participation intersect with multiple discriminations linked to race, ethnicity, caste, religion, location, sexuality, age, class or disability.\(^6\) Indigenous women around the world, for example, face a disproportionate lack of access to health care.\(^7\)

Evidence suggests that gender inequality also fuels overall income inequality.\(^8\) the poorest people overall earn less when women earn less.\(^9\) In 2016, UN Women reported that household inequality between women and men may account for up to 30 per cent of all income inequality.\(^10\)

Greater equality, however, is associated with higher growth, better development outcomes and greater income equality. SDG 10 recognizes the linked objectives of gender and social equity in target 10.1 (accelerated income growth for the poorest 40 per cent); target 10.3 (equal opportunities); and target 10.4 (to support greater equality).

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**SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 10**

**Issue 1: Income inequality (population-wide)**

**Indicator 10a: Palma inequality ratio (the share of income of the richest 10% of the population divided by the share of income of the poorest 40%)**

Studies from WEF and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) find that inequality in distribution of income across a population has strong associations with gender inequalities.\(^11\) Countries where women lack equal rights and access to services, and where their outcomes are poorer than those of men, also tend to be countries with large gaps between their richest and poorest citizens. As Oxfam has argued, the processes that drive extreme concentration of wealth, political capture and market fundamentalism also stand in the way of gender equality and women’s rights: deliberate policy actions (such as more progressive tax systems and investment in public services) must be taken to redistribute the proceeds of economic growth to women.\(^12\) Rising economic inequality in many countries in the world shows that in most countries there has been systemic failure to take these actions.\(^13\)

The Palma Ratio is an indicator of overall income inequality, which captures the top and the bottom ends of the income distribution better than the more widely used Gini Index.\(^14\)

**Issue 2: Expert perceptions of women’s political power**

**Indicator 10b: Expert perceptions of women’s political power (score)**

In addition to measuring women’s representation in political bodies, it is also crucial to assess how much real political power women yield. It is telling that just 20 heads of state or government around the world are women: just 6.3 per cent of international leaders.\(^15\) Underlying gender biases limit women’s chances of gaining political office and also reaching higher levels of political power.

The Wilson Center’s new Leadership Index aims to measure where women are in governments around the world, how much power they hold and how they got to their positions of leadership.\(^16\) However gaps in global data continue to make it difficult to measure these issues systematically across countries.

As an assessment of women’s political power, we have drawn on the Varieties of Democracy Initiative, which gathers expert perceptions of how political power is distributed between women and men.\(^17\)

**Issue 3: Constitutional guarantees related to gender equality**

**Indicator 10c: The extent to which the national constitution addresses gender equality (score)**

Constitutions are the fundamental documents that shape a country’s legal and political systems, and are crucial foundations for legal guarantees of rights for girls and women. The WORLD Policy Database\(^18\) examines whether countries take at least one approach to protecting gender equality in their Constitution, and finds that nearly all Constitutions take some approach to...
protecting equality for girls and women. While laws on paper do not guarantee equality in practice, this articulation of rights is vital for women’s access to justice.295

Women have used constitutional guarantees to advance their rights. In 2002, for example, the Supreme Court of Nepal annulled a criminal code provision that exempted husbands from marital rape, paving the way for parliament to enact policies to enforce the law and strengthen prosecution in 2018.296 Women in Botswana used the courts to have customary law that barred them from passing their nationality to their children ruled unconstitutional. And conflict-affected countries – including Colombia, Egypt and Tunisia – have used post-conflict transitions as opportunities to expand women’s constitutional rights.297

SDG 13
CLIMATE

KEY FACTS

- In 2014, poor women were 14 times more likely than men to be killed in climate-fuelled disasters.1
- Four women died for every man in the Indian Ocean tsunami in India and Sri Lanka in 2004.8
- In 2015 only 0.01 per cent of climate finance projects tackled both climate change and gender inequalities.iii
- In 2010/11 women comprised 43 per cent of agricultural labourers in developing countries, but owned or managed only 15 per cent of land in sub-Saharan Africa, falling to 9 per cent in Indonesia.24
- Men held 96 per cent of leadership positions on national energy committees in 2015.v

WHY SDG 13 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY

Women are vulnerable to climate change,298 because, as we saw in relation to SDG 1, they are more likely to be poor.299 They are more likely to die in a climate-fuelled disaster than men,300 and more likely to be displaced.301 They grow much of the world’s food, but often on the most degraded land.302 And climate change forces them to walk further to gather firewood and water, which as we saw for SDGs 6 and 7, takes time and puts them in danger.303

Women’s equal access to agricultural resources could support SDG 2 on hunger.304 It has been estimated that tackling gender inequalities in Malawi, for example, could increase crop yields by 7.3 per cent and boost national GDP by 1.8 per cent.305 When women have secure land tenure they are more likely to adopt climate-friendly practices.306 Evidence from the forestry sector reveals that women’s participation in forest management enhances the outcomes.

There are clear synergies between climate change and gender inequality,307 and as the group most affected by climate change, women need to be heard.308 Yet climate change responses are often ‘gender blind’, ignoring or even exacerbating existing inequalities.309 Research in Vietnam shows that women’s views are rarely considered in the design of gender-sensitive approaches to projects that aim to reduce emissions from deforestation and forest degradation (REDD+), which are more likely, therefore, to reflect male priorities.310

The measurement of progress on SDG 13 needs to assess how climate change affects women and whether climate programmes tackle gender inequality, requiring a shift from readily available data to more ‘difficult-to-measure’ indicators.

[Quote]

Data has helped the public better respond to the current climatic change and the consequences if certain practices are not abolished.”

- Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 13

Issue 1: People affected by disasters (population-wide)

Indicator 13a: Number of deaths, missing persons and persons affected by disaster (per 1,000 population)

Poor women are 14 times more likely to be killed in a climate-fuelled disaster such as a hurricane, typhoon or cyclone than men.311 They die because of cultural factors, such as the care of children and the elderly that keeps them at home, their relative lack of access to information about the impending disaster, and because their clothing may hamper their ability to escape danger. Similarly, women are more likely to be displaced by such disasters, and to have their health undermined.

Displaced women face specific disadvantages in many humanitarian and recovery efforts after disasters. After the 2010 floods in Pakistan, for example, single women and female heads of households in particular, were the most likely to lack the national identity cards required to get help from the government compensation scheme.312

Issue 2: Women’s representation in the climate change political process

Indicator 13b: The extent to which the delegation representing the country at the UNFCCC is gender balanced (score)

Women’s participation at the UN climate negotiations has improved, but women remain under-represented, particularly at the head of delegation level.313

A balanced representation of women and men in climate change decision making can provide the cross-cutting experiences necessary for climate change policies that embody social equity and reflect and serve the needs of society.314 A 2005 study
indicated that countries with higher proportions of women in their national legislative bodies are more likely to approve environmental agreements.\textsuperscript{315} Balanced representation would also contribute to SDG target 5.5 on women’s full and effective participation in political, economic and public life.

\textbf{Issue 3: Scale of ambition in setting of emissions targets}

\textbf{Indicator 13c: The extent to which a country’s emissions reductions target is within their “fair share” (score)}

Climate change caused by greenhouse gas emissions is having a profound impact on women. In the past year, there have been extreme hurricanes in the Caribbean, unusually heavy monsoon rains in South Asia, devastating drought in the Sahel region and rising sea levels in the Pacific, as well as widespread floods across South America.\textsuperscript{316} No policy measures can compensate for such events. It is essential, therefore, to keep global warming below 2°C, as agreed at the 2015 Paris Climate Conference.\textsuperscript{317}

To contribute to the Paris goal, developed countries are committed to their own climate change mitigation and the provision of finance for mitigation and adaptation in developing countries. Developing countries are committed to domestic mitigation. The expected actions vary according to a country’s historical responsibility for climate change and its capacity to act. Assessments have examined whether countries’ current actions are a fair reflection of the actions expected of them.

\textbf{SDG 16}

\textbf{PEACE, JUSTICE AND INSTITUTIONS}

\textbf{KEY FACTS}

- Women hold 24 per cent of parliamentary seats worldwide.\textsuperscript{i}
- Between 1992 and 2011, women accounted for fewer than 4 per cent of signatories to peace agreements and only 9 per cent of negotiators.\textsuperscript{ii}
- In 2010 the global female homicide rate stood at 2.3 per 100,000.\textsuperscript{iii}
- In 2017 it was estimated that 35 per cent of women worldwide had experienced physical and/or sexual violence at some point in their lives.\textsuperscript{iv}
- Rates of sexual violence and GBV increase during conflict: the majority of 86 civil wars around the world between 1980 and 2009 saw at least one year of numerous or massive reported rapes.\textsuperscript{v}
- By the end of 2017, 68.5 million people worldwide had been forcibly displaced by persecution, conflict and widespread violence.\textsuperscript{vi}

WHY SDG 16 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY

Progress on every SDG requires strong government institutions. SDG 16 spans institutional issues from peace to participatory decision making, and each one matters for girls and women. Government institutions that criminalize violence against women (target 16.1) codify their rights to live free of violence.

The rule of law (target 16.3) requires judicial systems that offer women legal protection. And women are crucial for participatory decision making (target 16.7).318

Women in parliaments, for example, are more likely to sponsor legislation and compromise across political lines, and less likely to be corrupt.319 Yet, as seen in SDG 5, women face barriers to political power. Amongst female parliamentarians surveyed in 2016, more than four in ten (44 per cent) had been threatened with death, rape, beating or abductions while in office.320

The general breakdown in law, order and state institutions that occurs during conflict has particularly dangerous effects for women, including increases in rates of sexual violence and GBV.321 Such upticks have been documented in nearly every region of the globe, from Bosnia and the Democratic Republic of Congo to El Salvador and Myanmar. The majority of 86 civil wars around the world between 1980 and 2009 saw at least one year of numerous or massive reported rapes.322 Girls and women experience violence during conflict not only at the hands of combatants, but also civilians: reports find that rates of intimate partner sexual violence and domestic violence increase during conflict.323

Post-conflict situations are key moments to rebuild strong institutions that guarantee accountability and women’s participation. UNDP suggests that inclusive post-conflict political processes help to foster community resilience, restore the social contract between states and citizens, consolidate peacebuilding and promote progress towards development goals.

In Rwanda, for example, post-genocide policies since 1994 have enabled more women to participate in the legislature, supporting the country’s development successes, including gender parity in literacy and primary enrolment. Today, Rwanda’s parliament is comprised of over 60 per cent women, the highest percentage in the world.324

Another measure of institutional strength is a woman’s ability to register her children’s births (target 16.9) to ensure their access to a range of government services. Yet millions of babies go unregistered every year and are, therefore, excluded from official statistics.325

Men often do not believe that gender-based violence is “bad” in their own country; being able to provide recent data on the prevalence rate as well as the age groups tends to ‘shut down’ this pushback.”
- Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 16

**Issue 1: Women’s perceptions of personal safety**

Indicator 16a: Percentage of women ages 15+ who report that they “feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where you live”

Qualitative research about women’s perception of their safety and human security helped to make the link between violence against women and girls in conflict-affected contexts and violence against women and girls in communities not in conflict.”
- Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

Gender gaps in perceptions of safety show how women around the world – in both developed and developing countries – face restrictions on mobility, access to public spaces, transport and their ability to decide where and what hours to work. Gender gaps in perceptions of physical safety may also point to underlying issues with institutions and access to justice if reporting structures for acts of violence against women are lacking and perpetrators go unpunished.

Even in high-income countries, men are far more likely than women to report feeling safe walking alone at night in their communities: Gallup polls in 2012 found that, worldwide, 72 per cent of men and 62 per cent of women said they would feel safe in this situation. Double-digit gender gaps appeared in 84 of the 143 countries studied, including high-income countries such as New Zealand, Malta, Italy, France, Australia, and the US.326

**Issue 2: Coverage of birth registration systems**

Indicator 16b: Proportion of children <5 years of age whose births were registered with a civil authority

Civil registration systems give governments basic information about their citizens, and give individuals the identity documents they need to participate in society.327 Yet around 230 million children (35 per cent of all children) under the age of five had not had their births registered as of 2013.328

While registration rates for girls and boys are almost equal, lack of registration has a disproportionate impact on girls and women. It denies girls birth certificates that can prove their age and prevent child marriage.329 In Bhutan, Nepal and Nicaragua, children cannot be registered unless a male relative is named on the birth certificate, which disempowers women who are illiterate or women who become pregnant after sexual violence and who do not want to (or cannot) share the father’s name.330 Registration gaps also hamper government planning for maternal health and post-natal care and lack of legal documentation undermines access to vital vaccinations.

**Issue 3: Women killed by intentional homicide**

Indicator 16c: Female victims of intentional homicide (per 100,000 population)

While most victims of lethal violence are men, violence against women is pervasive. As noted on SDG 5, an estimated 35 per cent of women have experienced physical or sexual violence at some point, with some national studies suggesting rates approaching...
70 per cent. As we have seen, up to 38 per cent of women homicide victims die by the hands of an intimate partner, while only 6 per cent of murdered men fall into this category.

Women face the world’s highest rates of lethal violence in Central America. Killings are on the rise in Guatemala, Mexico, Honduras and El Salvador and are often linked to organized crime, despite civil society advocacy and numerous laws to end these crimes. Conflict and post-conflict countries also report high rates of violence against women, reinforcing the need to protect women’s rights and promote their inclusion in post-conflict disarmament, transitional justice and reconstruction.

Issue 4: People displaced by conflict (population-wide)
Indicator 16d: Number of those displaced by conflict per 1,000 people (total/displacement)

While men are more likely to die on the world’s battlefields, girls and women are hit hard by conflicts that result in mass displacement. By the end of 2017, more than 68 million people had been forcibly displaced worldwide by persecution, conflict or generalized violence. Displaced girls and women face heightened risks of sexual violence, and femicide rates rise during and shortly after conflict. Sexual violence fuels displacement, weakens governance and communities, and hampers post-conflict reconciliation and stability.

The average length of displacement is 17 years, meaning generations of children may miss out on education. Around 34 million children and adolescents in conflict-affected countries are out of school, with girls around 2.5 times more likely to be out of school than boys. Displaced girls are also vulnerable to child marriage, with families seeing it as a buffer against poverty or a way to protect girls from sexual violence.

SDG 17 PARTNERSHIPS

KEY FACTS

- Domestic taxation in developing countries offers the largest source of funding for gender equality and the SDGs, while domestic finance for development provides twice as much funding as all international resource flows.
- Funding from bilateral donors for “women’s equality organizations and institutions” amounted to less than 0.5 per cent of official development assistance (ODA) in 2015/16.
- Corporate tax avoidance has been estimated to deprive developing countries of around $150 billion each year.
- According to the IMF, 40 per cent of low-income developing countries are in (or at high risk of) debt distress currently.
- In 2016, only three of the World Trade Organization Secretariat’s 20 directors were women.

WHY SDG 17 MATTERS FOR GENDER EQUALITY

Financing for the SDGs is rarely seen as key to gender equality, yet gender equality commitments require the mobilization of resources for public services. Cuts to services such as health, education, social services and social protection are especially damaging for women. Research from 2017 shows, for example, that 57 million unpaid workers – most of them women – step in to fill the gaps caused by inadequate healthcare provision.

ODA alone cannot fill such gaps. In 2015/16 around 40 per cent of screened ODA had some focus on gender equality, but less than 0.5 per cent supported women’s equality organizations and institutions.

More domestic resources – particularly from taxation – are essential. However, most countries, rich or poor, favour tax cuts.

Economic inequalities can be magnified by taxation. Direct taxation, for example, can be more progressive if the richest people or entities pay more. Indirect taxation on goods and services, such as value added tax (VAT), tends to be more regressive, with the poorest paying proportionately more. Yet VAT dominates the tax base in developing countries. Women tend to spend more of the money they control on goods subject to VAT, including food, fuel, children’s clothes and school...

supplies, as well as medicines. So the greater the proportion of VAT in a country’s tax mix, the greater the impact on women, unless such goods are VAT exempt.

Other fiscal policies addressed by SDG 17 – including investment in public services and trade and partnerships for technological progress – are also critical for the rights of girls and women and for greater equity overall.

Disaggregated data help to expose patterns of how indicators of health are distributed throughout a population. Data will help policy makers and practitioners on how to include the disadvantaged people. It will help to prioritize the distribution of resources in the areas of need.* - Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

SDG GENDER INDEX ISSUES FOR SDG 17

Issue 1: Government spending on social assistance
Indicator 17a: Social expenditure as a % of GDP (for all types of social assistance programmes)
Social assistance includes unconditional or conditional cash transfers, social pensions, school feeding, in-kind transfers, fee waivers and public works. Social assistance is particularly important for girls and women who, as we have seen across the SDGs, have particular economic and social vulnerabilities and bear a greater burden of care within families.

Evidence suggests that cash transfers have a positive impact on their education and employment, in particular. Cash transfers can also increase their decision-making power on marriage and fertility, and reduce physical abuse by male partners.

Conditional cash transfers – with payments conditional on, for example, a child attending school – have been criticized from a feminist perspective for adding to women’s responsibilities while removing their autonomy on how the money should be spent. Programmes that are not gender-sensitive may also have negative consequences. However, while the selected indicator is not perfect, cross-country data are available and it demonstrates investment in public services.

Issue 2: Progressiveness of the tax system
Indicator 17b: Progressive structure and incidence of tax (standardised tax score)
Tax laws can show gender bias, where, for example, tax deductions that are granted to men are denied to women. In general, progressive taxation, with richer people and entities paying more, benefits women who tend to earn less than men and do more unpaid care work.

There is also a gender gap on VAT, which accounts for around two thirds of tax revenue in low-income countries. Women tend to spend more of the money they control on goods subject to VAT. In Ghana in 2012, for example, revenue from direct taxes – primarily from men – accounted for 13 per cent of tax revenue, compared to 43 per cent from indirect taxes, with a disproportionate effect on women who spent more of their income on consumer goods. The selected indicator draws on Oxfam’s new Commitment to Reducing Inequality Index.

Interviews with the [Barbados] public about a sugar-sweetened beverage tax showed that [they] did not understand the items being taxed nor did they know when the tax came into effect or where the money collected would be spent." - Respondent to the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey

Issue 3: Government commitment to using gender budgeting
Indicator 17c: The extent to which countries are committed to gender budgeting (score)
Gender budgeting applies gender concepts to a budgetary process, and is a key measure of a government’s fiscal commitment to gender equality. The Council of Europe suggests a definition of gender budgeting: "a gender-based assessment of budgets, incorporating a gender perspective at all levels of the budgetary process and restructuring revenues and expenditures in order to promote gender equality."

Recognizing that many fiscal policies have gender-related implications, the IMF has suggested fiscal policy instruments that are known to have a positive impact on gender equality, including tax and tax benefits to increase female labour supply, improved family benefits, subsidized childcare, social benefits that increase the return on women’s work, and incentives for businesses to hire women. As of 2017, almost half of the OECD countries (including Austria, Belgium, Finland, Israel, Japan, Korea, Mexico and Sweden) reported having introduced gender budgets.

Issue 4: Accessibility and transparency of gender statistics
Indicator 17d: Openness of gender statistics (score)
Gender statistics and sex-disaggregated data are vital for responsible policy decisions. However, for young girls and women, many of the statistics that should reflect the most basic aspects of their lives are lacking. Within the SDGs, 53 indicators, or 23 per cent of the total, specify sex-disaggregated or sex-specific indicators. These are needed to plan programmes and to ensure accountability for SDG 5 on gender equality and to measure the impact of other goals by tracking sex-disaggregated indicators.

CONCLUSION
This section has explored the SDG Gender Index findings across 12 of the SDGs, revealing the value of gender-focused data to gain a more accurate picture of both the goals and their potential contribution to gender equality. Annex 4 examines issues that we would like to include in the Index, but cannot because of a lack of data. Data on every one of these issues are also critical for a full picture of the well-being of girls and women.
### Goal | Missing issue requiring improved global measurement
--- | ---
**SDG 1: Poverty** | *Intra-household income and resource allocation*  
*Access to nationally relevant social protection floors (women and men)*  
*Women with secure tenure rights to land, with legal documentation*

**SDG 2: Hunger** | *Low birth weight*  
*Food insecurity (disaggregated by sex)*  
*Average income of small-scale food producers (women and men)*

**SDG 3: Health** | *Inequality in essential health coverage, poorest to richest quintile*  
*Mental health and suicide (girls and women)*  
*Age at first pregnancy*

**SDG 4: Education** | *Youth and adults with information and communications technology (ICT) skills (disaggregated by sex)*  
*Comprehensive Sexuality Education (CSE) as part of national curriculum and activities within schools*  
*Girls under five years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being*

**SDG 5: Gender equality** | *Women’s household decision-making power*  
*Women making their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care*  
*Prevalence of violence against girls and women (especially intimate partner violence)*  
*Assessment of CEDAW implementation*  
*Extent of laws that discriminate against women*

**SDG 6: Water and sanitation** | *Inclusive local administration for WASH management*  
*Menstrual hygiene management*

**SDG 7: Energy** | *Women’s participation in energy policymaking roles*

**SDG 8: Work and growth** | *Time use (unpaid care and domestic work)*  
*Average hourly earnings of female and male employees*  
*Mandatory paid parental leave policies (including ‘use it or lose it’ paid paternity leave)*  
*Level of national compliance with labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) (by sex)*  
*Gender-based violence in and around the workplace*

**SDG 10: Inequality** | *Discriminatory laws and policies (e.g. based on ethnicity, religion, or caste)*  
*Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months (broken down by sex and other dimensions)*  
*Whether data are broken down not just by sex but by other dimensions such as age, ethnicity, language, religion or region*

**SDG 13: Climate** | *Impact of slow onset crises on women compared to men, specifically in relation to male migration related to climate change without female family members*  
*Impact on women, compared to men, of challenges/decrease in agricultural production related to climate change*  
*Women’s inclusion in national decision making on climate policies*

**SDG 16: Peace, justice and institutions** | *Referred cases of sexual and gender-based violence against women and children that are investigated and sentenced*  
*Young women and men aged 18-29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18*  
*Women’s participation in police, security forces, and the judiciary*

**SDG 17: Partnerships** | *Government spending on social infrastructure (including education, essential health services, early childhood education and childcare, other social care)*  
*Tax paid and income earned data broken down by sex and by type of tax*  
*Inclusion of gender provisions in trade agreements*
The process of research and consultation that has generated the first iteration of the SDG Gender Index has also revealed a number of issues that are of critical importance for girls and women worldwide that are, at present, ‘missing’ from, or insufficiently covered in, the current stock of global data on gender equality. Given their importance, these are issues we would have included in the Index, if sufficient data were available. Taken together, these ‘missing’ issues can form part of an advocacy agenda. These are data gaps that need to be filled and that can be filled if gender advocates speak with one voice in calling for more and better gender data. In this section, we present 37 ‘missing’ issues across the 12 SDGs reviewed, setting out their relevance for gender equality, as well as a sampling of promising measurement approaches on these issues where they exist.

### SDG 1 – Poverty

#### Issue: Intra-household income and resource allocation

**Relevance:** Surveys are designed to collect primarily information about households which pools the income and assets of individuals living in the same home, and considers only household access to collective resources such as water, sanitation and clean energy. The interpretation of these data often assumes that resources are shared equally within a home, but people living under the same roof often experience markedly different living standards. Many important components of the dimensions of individual well-being are still only measured at the level of the household, thus masking important differences in how men and women, boys and girls experience poverty. A study of intra-household consumption in Senegal from 2006/07, for example, showed that household inequality accounted for nearly 16 percent of the country’s total income inequality.369 Girls and boys often receive different levels of nutrition and education and the bargaining power of men and women within the household impacts the allocation of resources.360

**Promising measurement approaches:** Some World Bank Living Standards Measurement Surveys (LSMS) are used to collect data on the consumption of certain goods at the individual level, and the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) has a module on material deprivation and another on intra-household sharing of resources, where some of the questions capture individual-level information. The Individual Deprivation Measure (IDM) is a new, gender-sensitive and multidimensional measure of poverty.361 It has been developed to assess deprivation at the individual level and overcome the limitations of current approaches that measure poverty, collectively, at the household level. The IDM is currently being piloted in selected countries with the goal that by 2020 it is ready for global use as an individual measure of deprivation.

#### Issue: Access to nationally relevant social protection floors (women and men)

**Relevance:** An estimated four billion people worldwide are unprotected by any social benefit,362 with women disproportionately excluded from social protection schemes and their specific needs often unaddressed by existing policies.363 Yet on average, women earn less, access less credit, and hold fewer assets than men, leaving them vulnerable to income insecurity and less able to access government social protection (such as unemployment benefits or pensions). Millions of women are also unprotected by maternity benefits: according to the ILO’s World Social Protection Report 2017–19, only 41.1 per cent of mothers with newborns receive a maternity benefit, with an estimated 83 million new mothers worldwide uncovered.364 Such discrepancies in access to social protection policies can limit women’s personal income and leave them more vulnerable to economic shocks, and widen gender gaps in poverty rates, particularly for single mothers, widows and disabled persons.365

**Promising measurement approaches:** The World Social Protection Report provides a global overview of social protection systems, using a range of global, regional and country data on coverage, benefits and budgets.366 The report includes gender-specific data on protections available to women and men of working age, as well as protections for maternity, unemployment, employment injury and disability, as well as pensions.

#### Issue: Women with secure tenure rights to land, with legal documentation

**Relevance:** Lack of a government-recognized identification document may limit a woman’s ability to own land, yet married women cannot obtain such a document as easily as married men in 11 countries.367 Women also face governance issues. More than 10 per cent of people worldwide have reported having paid bribes when dealing with ordinary land issues,368 and Transparency International finds that bribery around land management hits women the hardest: they are more likely to be subjected to sexual extortion.369

**Promising measurement approaches:** The World Bank’s WBL initiative tracks discriminatory laws worldwide, including those governing land ownership and tenure. It collects global data on a wide range of indicators – with countries scored on their answers to questions such as: can a woman legally apply for a national ID card in the same way as a man? Who legally administers marital property? Does the law provide for valuation of non-monetary contributions? Do men and women have equal ownership rights to immovable property? The Initiative’s global dataset tracks these and related measures, with the 2018 report covering 189 economies and seven topics of relevance for women’s economic participation.370
### SDG 2 – HUNGER

#### Issue: Low birth weight

**Relevance:** Gender inequalities are linked to low birth weight, which indicates undernourishment in the womb. Evidence from India suggests that children born with low birth weight are most likely to be born to mothers without decision-making power over food.\(^{371}\) Common risk factors around the world include mothers who are under the age of 20, HIV positive or lack access to health care.\(^{372}\) The WHO also finds links to women and girls’ education, social protection, food distribution and perinatal care.\(^{373}\)

**Promising measurement approaches:** Low birth weight data, which can be used as a proxy for women’s nutrition during pregnancy, is particularly patchy in developing countries. The UNSD and UNICEF track low birth-weight births globally, collecting nationally reported statistics. Yet many births, particularly in developing nations, do not take place in formal health facilities and are often unreported in official figures, resulting in under-estimates. UNICEF suggests that nearly half of the world’s infants are not weighed at birth.\(^{374}\) A web-based tracking tool developed by the WHO aims to improve measures of low birth weight to help countries set targets to achieve the SDGs and chart their progress.\(^{375}\)

#### Issue: Food insecurity (disaggregated by sex)

**Relevance:** Challenges to food insecurity and nutrition vary across countries, yet they have a consistent and disproportionate impact on women and girls and are linked to other dimensions of gender equality. Gender gaps in who experiences food insecurity are biased against women in more countries than they are against men. In Pakistan, for example, food insecurity among women is 11 percentage points higher than among men.\(^{376}\) As we have seen, women and girls also suffer in unique ways from protracted crises that undermine food security and nutrition.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES) – a metric on the severity of food insecurity based on people’s responses to simple survey questions – has been developed as part of FAO’s Voices of the Hungry project. The FIES has been applied in the Gallup World Poll® and can measure food insecurity at the individual level, allowing results to be meaningfully disaggregated by gender.\(^{377}\)

#### Issue: Average income of small-scale food producers (women and men)

**Relevance:** An estimated 500 million households worldwide rely on smallholder farming, accounting for many of those living on less than $2 a day.\(^{378}\) Yet male and female farmers have different access to agricultural inputs and unequal yields and incomes. In Africa, for example, women make up almost half of the agricultural workforce, yet their productivity is lower than that of men. They often face bigger hurdles in accessing agricultural resources, banking, credit and markets and in owning and controlling land.\(^{379}\) Progress on food security and poverty reduction goals depends, therefore, on their empowerment within the food sector.

**Promising measurement approaches:** Better sex-disaggregated national data are needed on smallholder farmers’ income and access to resources and markets. The African Smallholder Farmers Group (ASFG) collects regional data on the factors that affect the capacity of smallholder farmers to improve productivity and access markets.\(^{380}\) The Smallholder Diaries managed by the Consultative Group to Assist the Poor (CGAP) aim to bridge agricultural policymaking and the challenges faced by smallholder farmers by collecting data from interviews conducted every two weeks, generating around 500,000 data points on the lives of smallholder farming families.\(^{381}\) The study is modelled on the Portfolios of the Poor approach, which tracked the income, expenses and production of 270 smallholder families in three countries.\(^{382}\)
### SDG 3 – HEALTH

**Issue: Inequality in essential health coverage, poorest to richest quintile**

**Relevance:** Inequalities in health coverage for a country’s poorest citizens – often those in rural areas – has dire consequences for women and girls, who face the greatest risks of disease and poor health. The quality of maternal healthcare worldwide is far worse, and MMRs are higher for poorer women. Unequal access to essential health services also adds to the burden of unpaid work for women and girls who care for sick relatives. Lack of access to quality healthcare also hampers women’s ability to earn a livelihood and close the gap between the richest and poorest households. Research from India has found that unless explicit attention is paid to gender (and its intersectionality with other types of inequality), movement towards universal health coverage can fail to achieve gender balance or improve equity, and may even exacerbate gender inequity.

**Promising measurement approaches:** To monitor where coverage in a given country is universal, the WHO and World Bank developed the Tracking Universal Health Coverage: 2017 Global Monitoring Report, which outlines gaps in essential health services across populations, as well as progress towards universal health coverage. Another promising new approach is the Healthcare Access and Quality (HAQ) Index, developed using the 2016 Global Burden of Diseases study, which aims to provide a stronger indication of personal healthcare access and quality across 195 countries and territories globally.

#### Issue: Mental health and suicide (girls and women)

**Relevance:** Gender shapes many factors that affect mental health. Women face specific pressures, including discrimination, disadvantage and GBV. Sexual violence, in particular, has a disproportionate impact on girls and women and significant effects on their mental health – often untreated due to stigma. It can trigger post-traumatic stress disorder, which affects more women worldwide than men. There are gender gaps in other common mental disorders too, including depression and anxiety. Unipolar depression, predicted to be the second leading cause of the global disability burden by 2020, is twice as common in women as in men. Yet girls and women may need permission from a male household member to seek treatment for mental health issues, and many who seek treatment report discriminatory attitudes towards their mental health.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The quality of global data on mental health and suicide is poor, and there are few sex-disaggregated statistics. As of 2018, only 60 WHO member states had vital registration data of sufficient quality to be used to estimate suicide rates. The WHO suggests vital registration of suicides, hospital-based registries of suicide attempts and nationally representative surveys to collect information about mental health and self-reported suicide attempts to capture a global picture of mental health and suicide.

#### Issue: Age at first pregnancy

**Relevance:** The number of births in early adolescence (10-14 years) is a strong measure of the gender inequalities faced by girls. The WHO suggests that they are more likely in marginalized communities where poverty rates are high and girls have limited access to education and employment opportunities. Girls under the age of 15 are at a particularly high risk of complications during pregnancy and childbirth as a result of an underdeveloped pelvis, eclampsia, puerperal endometritis and systemic infections. According to research from 2013, the MMR is five times higher for girls aged 10-14 than for women aged 20-24, and early adolescents are more likely to experience rapid repeat pregnancies.

**Promising measurement approaches:** Despite the severe risks to their lives and health posed by early pregnancy, we lack data for girls aged 10-14 years, while having decent data on older girls. However, the missing data can be collected or derived retrospectively from census and survey data sources. Some organizations measure factors related to early pregnancy – for example, Girls Not Brides ranks countries on child marriage prevalence (the percentage of women 20-24 years old who were first married or in union before they were 15), based on Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS), Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and other national surveys, which otherwise cover only those aged 15 and older.
### SDG 4—Education

#### Issue: Youth and adults with ICT skills (disaggregated by sex)

**Relevance:** An estimated 90 per cent of jobs will soon require skills in ICT, yet the percentage of women in computing jobs declined between 1991 and 2015, from 36 per cent to 25 per cent (and even lower for women of colour). Yet the world has a shortage of 200 million workers with ICT skills. Increasing access to ICT skills for girls and young women is crucial to ensure they are not left behind in an increasingly digital world. These skills are also particularly empowering for women in their social roles as family caretakers and their production roles, with ICT often reducing the need to travel for work, overcoming barriers to access to information and increasing their economic opportunities, thus contributing to poverty alleviation. This indicator looks at 12 computer-related skills, but does not include mobile phone-related use or programming skills, which limits its scope.

**Promising measurement approach:** This is an official SDG indicator, SDG 4.4.1 (tier II), though global averages are not yet available and data are only available for 42 countries. The Partnership on Measuring ICT for Development was established in 2004 and has developed a core list of indicators of which 12 are disaggregated by sex.

#### Issue: CSE as part of national curriculum and activities within schools

**Relevance:** Research shows that CSE can reduce unintended pregnancies, keep girls in school, reduce rates of sexually transmitted infections and even reduce GBV within relationships. Yet global statistics on CSE are worrying. According to the UN, up to two thirds of girls in some countries said they had no idea what was happening to them when they began menstruating and in 2016 only one third of young women had comprehensive and correct knowledge on how to prevent HIV infection. The Guttmacher Institute has reported that nine out of ten teachers surveyed in Ghana taught students that condoms do not prevent pregnancy. SDG 4 provides no specific targets for CSE but SDG 5 has a target on access to sexual and reproductive health information in the context of health systems, rather than education. This stems from the political dynamics of the SDG agenda negotiations and the cultural and religious sensibilities around CSE.

**Promising measurement approaches:** This issue was not included in the SDG agenda and current methods of measurement are based on UNESCO’s guidance, captured in a report that provides voluntary guidelines on CSE, which is available to education ministries. A UNFPA report published in 2015 on evaluating CSE programmes laid the groundwork for building indicators and variables for an ‘empowerment’ approach to CSE. The report makes the case for universal indicators, with the limited variation in definitions and approaches to CSE offering the potential for an indicator framework.

#### Issue: Girls under five years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being

**Relevance:** Early childhood development (ECD) has life-long benefits, and investment in ECD is a cost-effective way to improve adult health, education and productivity. Gender discrimination, combined with son preference, means that young girls receive less nutrition, and fewer opportunities to play and access early learning than young boys, which has impacts on their entire life. Stunting in childhood, for example, can lead to anaemia in adolescent girls and increases the risks for mothers and babies during pregnancies. Equitable ECD can also steer girls into non-traditional gender roles through early socialization, helping them to challenge gender stereotypes.

**Promising measurement approaches:** Despite its importance, universal measures to quantify ECD are lacking, particularly for the youngest children. ECD is covered by an official SDG indicator (SDG 4.2.1), and household surveys such as the UNICEF-supported MICS have collected data on this indicator through the Early Child Development Index (ECIDI) in low- and middle-income countries since around 2010, although the data-collection approach is being revisited. Another promising initiative is the WHO 0-3 measurement tool, which aims to develop two harmonized tools to measure child development for children 0-3 years. These tools will allow regional, national and global monitoring as well as programmatic evaluations among children in specific populations of interest.
### Issue: Women's household decision-making power

**Relevance:** Patriarchy undermines a woman’s ability to make her own strategic life choices. Yet improving women’s agency, specifically their ability to define and act upon their own goals, is critical for advancing gender equality. This measure indicates the ecosystem within which the SDGs are implemented and is a proxy measure for broader progress towards gender equality.\(^{411}\) For example, evidence from Mexico shows that increases in labour market opportunities improve women’s decision-making power as well as children’s health.\(^{412}\) World Bank research from Pakistan also shows that when a woman has more decision-making power, her household is more likely to spend its income on footwear, clothing, medical care and education.\(^{413}\)

**Promising measurement approaches:** This indicator is not part of the official SDG framework, but can be measured through the World Values Survey (WVS) and DHS. The 6th WVS covered 60 countries\(^{414}\) and DHS decision-making modules are widely available, though the methodology behind the survey questions is widely contested.\(^{415}\) For example, individual analyses of DHS studies have shed light on the link between women’s empowerment in decision making and increases in health outcomes, including dietary diversity.\(^{416}\)

### Issue: Women making their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care

**Relevance:** Progress on gender equality is tied to women’s ability to make their own decisions about whether and when to have children.\(^{417}\) However, data from 45 countries, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa, reveal that only 52 per cent of women aged 15–49 who are married or in a union reported that they make their own decisions about sexual relations and the use of contraceptives.\(^{418}\) Increased contraceptive use from 1990 to 2008 contributed to 1.7 million fewer maternal deaths,\(^{419}\) and if the needs for modern contraceptives were fully met there would be an estimated 76,000 fewer maternal deaths each year, based on data from 2017.\(^{420}\)

**Promising measurement approach:** There is an official SDG indicator (tier II), which is measured through DHS and MICS surveys that cover most low- and middle-income countries. The methodology builds on available information from DHS surveys in approximately 70 countries, where the indicator can be disaggregated by location, household wealth quintile and marital status (married, in union, unmarried) and disability.\(^{421}\)

### Issue: Prevalence of violence against girls and women (especially IPV)

**Relevance:** Violence against girls and women is a common form of gender-based discrimination and abuse, which no country has eliminated to date. They are particularly vulnerable to violence, abuse and even femicide by those closest to them, including family members and intimate partners. This human rights violation also has intergenerational effects: children in families where there is a prevalence of IPV are more likely to have subsequent problems with parenting and to maltreat their own children.\(^{422}\)

**Promising measurement approaches:** The main sources of data on IPV are national surveys dedicated to measuring violence against women and broader surveys that include a module of questions on experiences of violence by women, mainly the DHS. Other surveys also cover violence to a lesser extent, including Reproductive Health Surveys and Crime Victimization Surveys,\(^{423}\) which are mostly conducted in developed countries such as the US.\(^{424}\)

### Issue: Assessment of CEDAW implementation

**Relevance:** The extent to which a government has adopted CEDAW provisions into national law is one measure of its commitment to gender equality and women’s ability to pursue accountability for cases of discrimination. CEDAW, adopted by the UN in 1979 and ratified by 189 of its 193 member states, is considered an international bill of rights for women.\(^{425}\) Many countries have incorporated CEDAW principles and language into national constitutions, legislation and policies. Civil society organizations and women’s groups have used the Convention to hold governments accountable to their formal legal obligations to eliminate discrimination against women. Yet constraints to CEDAW implementation at national level include lack of clarity among state parties on the meaning of CEDAW principles, ineffective state institutions, lack of political will to promote progressive legislation, and the inability of women’s groups to access processes to claim rights.\(^{426}\)

**Promising measurement approaches:** CEDAW is overseen by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women, elected by state parties to CEDAW. All state parties to CEDAW must submit regular reports to the Committee every four years, detailing legislative, judicial, administrative and other measures to implement CEDAW principles at national level.\(^{427}\) The OECD and UN also facilitate regular regional assessments detailing the best regional practices and challenges of CEDAW implementation.
**SDG 5 – GENDER EQUALITY (CONTINUED)**

**Issue: Extent of laws that discriminate against women**

**Relevance:** Discriminatory laws affect the daily lives of girls and women and in significant ways. As noted, the Women, Business and the Law 2018 report finds that most of the 189 countries surveyed have at least one law that discriminates against women. For example, 104 economies still have laws that prevent women from working in some specific jobs, 27 countries discriminate against women in their ability to confer nationality to children, and over 60 countries deny women equal rights as men to acquire, change or retain their own nationality, which can result in statelessness that effectively bars women and children from education, voting and from employment opportunities that require proof of citizenship.

**Promising measurement approaches:** One promising approach has been elaborated for use in the official monitoring of SDG 5.1.1 by a consortium including UN Women, OECD’s SIGI and the World Bank’s WBL. The approach uses a questionnaire of 45 yes/no questions in four domains: overarching legal frameworks and public life; violence against women; employment and economic benefits; and marriage and family, with a composite score calculated for each domain to reflect progress on ending discrimination and achieving gender equality. Initial results have been validated using existing sources and governments will submit indicators in the future.

**SDG 6 – WATER AND SANITATION**

**Issue: Inclusive local administration for WASH management**

**Relevance:** Inclusive implementation and governance of WASH policies could boost awareness of the water-related duties carried out by girls and women, which could improve the design of safe, accessible and usable WASH facilities. Given their unique use of and dependence on local water resources, women have knowledge on water location, quality and storage methods to contribute to local WASH management.

**Promising measurement approaches:** There is a lack of data on local WASH administration. The Joint Monitoring Programme (JMP) for Water Supply and Sanitation reports globally on water supply and the sanitation sector, and its indicator frameworks and baseline estimates for the SDG-related WASH targets and open ‘data drive’ represent promising approaches. The World Bank’s The Rising Tide report includes survey responses on the perceived top priorities for governments in 2017, revealing gender differences in the ways that men and women think about water use and management. The report highlights exclusive initiatives that have had unintended consequences for gender equality. UN Women’s Accountability Framework on Gender, Urban Water and Sanitation assesses women’s empowerment within urban water and sanitation management, proposing a self-assessment tool for mainstreaming gender in the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development in the governments of large cities.

**Issue: Menstrual hygiene management (MHM)**

**Relevance:** The availability of water, sanitation and hygiene facilities in schools affects the educational performance of girls – especially those from poor, rural or marginalized families. Research from Bolivia, Cambodia, Ethiopia, India, Kenya and Tanzania has documented how the lack of adequate sanitation facilities and MHM interventions in schools can lead to disrupted classroom engagement and absenteeism among girls. Adolescent girls’ ability to meet their MHM needs in school is critical to limit school dropout and enable their lifelong ability to understand and manage menstruation.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The JMP on Water Supply and Sanitation has introduced updated service ladders for drinking water, sanitation and hygiene, including specific MHM indicators. Many national governments do not collect the data required to adequately monitor hygiene components of SDG 6. The survey tools for the sixth round of MICS includes a women’s questionnaire with new questions on access to materials and facilities for MHM and non-participation in school, work or social activities during menstruation. These indicators will be routinely tabulated in future survey reports. The new framework for WASH monitoring extends beyond the household with questions on schools and healthcare facilities.
### SDG 7 – ENERGY

**Issue: Women’s participation in energy policymaking roles**

**Relevance:** Women are predominantly responsible for using household energy, collecting fuel and cooking in the developing world. Yet they lack opportunities for equitable participation in crafting energy policy and designing energy projects. For clean energy interventions to meet the needs of both female and male household members, they should ensure the meaningful participation of women and men in decision-making processes and throughout the value chain. Much of the focus on gender in energy policymaking has focused on, for example, women’s access to cleaner cook stoves, rather than large-scale energy infrastructure projects that need a gender-responsive approach. Women’s participation at all levels of energy policy governance is critical, including on local energy boards, in energy decision-making bodies, in energy enterprises and in national ministries.

**Promising measurement approaches:** Greater attention is being paid to monitoring the participation of women in energy-related decision making. The Climate Investment Funds’ checklist for gender-mainstreaming projects includes sample output indicators such as the number/percentage of women in decision-making bodies, groups and committees, and the number of individuals indirectly employed by firms accessing improved electricity sources, disaggregated by sex. Other promising measurement approaches include intergovernmental initiatives, such as SE4All and international programmes, such as the Energy Sector Management Assistance Programme’s (ESMAP) Gender programme which maintains a dedicated dashboard on gender and the implementation of energy projects.

### SDG 8 – WORK AND GROWTH

**Issue: Time use (unpaid care and domestic work)**

**Relevance:** Entrenched gender norms shape household responsibilities for care and housework, with girls and women predominantly responsible for cooking and cleaning, fetching water and firewood, and taking care of children and the elderly (see SDG 2, 6, 7). Despite modest improvements in some nations over the past 50 years to close the gender gap in household and unpaid labour, women still spend more time than men on unpaid work and housework in every country with available data. The World Bank estimates that women carry out at least twice as much unpaid household and care work than men, limiting their time for paid labour. Estimates suggest that women perform 75 per cent of the world’s unpaid work, which some economists suggest could amount to between 10 and 39 per cent of global GDP if it were assigned a monetary value. Yet much of this work is overlooked in standard economic measures and is not considered by national economic policies.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The World Bank’s Women, Business, and the Law 2018 report assesses regional and national levels of unpaid work by women, but the data are not disaggregated by care work specifically across all countries. Household-level time-use surveys—which can collect sex-disaggregated data on care for children, the elderly and the sick; collection of fuel and water; household tasks; and paid labour—have been employed successfully by some national governments. For example, the National Institute of Statistics and Geography (INEGI) in Mexico used time-use surveys to value women’s unpaid labour at approximately 20 per cent of GDP in 2012, compared to 6 per cent for men. Data2X’s Women’s Work and Employment partnership is developing new methodologies to capture women’s paid and unpaid work, including testing and harmonizing definitions of work emerging from the 19th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, and developing a Light Time Use Survey Module for Labour Force Surveys.

**Issue: Average hourly earnings of female and male employees**

**Relevance:** Globally, women earn on average only 60 to 75 per cent of men’s wages. Many women earn less than men for the same jobs, and they are less likely than men to hold senior managerial positions. Gender disparities contributing to the wage gap include the likelihood that women will work in part-time jobs, industry segregation (with women more likely to be wage workers and domestic workers), and women’s over-representation in non-unionized sectors that cannot negotiate wage increases. Many of these factors relate to their burden of care work.

**Promising measurement approaches:** Labour Force Surveys provide crucial data about average hourly earnings of female and male employees—and about the gender wage gap. All European Union member states are required to conduct a Labour Force Survey annually and the surveys are carried out in an increasing number of non-EU countries. However, there is not yet universal coverage: Labour Force Surveys are not carried out in all countries, there tends to be less investment in conducting surveys and making them publicly available in developing nations. One benefit of labour force surveys as a measurement approach is that survey questions and modules can be standardized across countries—the Mind the Gap Initiative, which aims to measure pay gaps among private sector companies, suggests that standardization is among the biggest challenges in measuring the gender pay gap, and that measurement methodology should be open-source, publicly available, and uniform.
### SDG 8 – Work and Growth (Continued)

#### Issue: Mandatory paid parental leave policies (including ‘use it or lose it’ paid paternity leave)

**Relevance:** Parental leave policies are linked to women’s access to the economy and autonomy over career choices. Gender-neutral paid leave policies are used overwhelmingly by women; while Japan has a 14-week paid leave policy, for example, only 2 per cent of fathers take leave, compared with 83 per cent of mothers. Use it or lose it’ paid paternity leave, however, offers non-transferable paternity leave or a period of leave that includes a portion specifically for fathers. In Quebec, where such policies are in place, the percentage of fathers taking paternity leave rose from about 10 per cent in 2001 to more than 80 per cent in 2010.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The World Policy Analysis Center at the University of California, Los Angeles, collects global metrics on dimensions of paid leave policy, child care and unpaid care work, including if paid leave is available for mothers of infants; if paid annual leave is available to workers; and if paid leave is available for fathers of infants. Its report, Paid Parental Leave: A Detailed Look at Approaches Across OECD Countries, identifies and analyses types and duration of paid leave and wage replacement policies.

#### Issue: Level of national compliance of labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) (by sex)

**Relevance:** Trade unions and collective bargaining can play an important role in improving women’s employment conditions, wage equity and gender equality in the workforce. When women have access to trade unions, worker organizations, cooperatives and self-help groups they are able to define policy priorities and advance gender equality issues – including on pay and career advancement – in bargaining agendas. UN Women finds, for example, that the gender wage gap in the US is 11 per cent for unionized women compared to 22 per cent for those who do not belong to trade unions, and that the wages of women union members in the UK are 30 per cent higher than those of non-unionized women.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The Center for Global Workers’ Rights at Penn State University has recently constructed a new indicator of freedom of association and collective bargaining (FACB) rights with data for 185 ILO member states for five years between 2000 and 2015. At present, however, it is not possible to disaggregate the data by sex or migrant status (as required by SDG indicator 8.8.2). Further disaggregation is technically feasible, but will require additional investment by the ILO.

#### Issue: GBV in and around the workplace

**Relevance:** Sexual harassment, discrimination, and GBV violate women’s rights and undermine their equal participation in the labour force. One study found that such abuses in the workplace increase financial stress and can alter women’s career trajectories. Yet 68 countries – at all income levels – have no workplace protections for women, leaving 424 million with no legal recourse when faced with an abusive supervisor or hostile work environment. Industrial Global Union, an organization representing 50 million workers in 140 countries, finds that women working in industries such as mining, textiles, agriculture and manufacturing are particularly vulnerable to violence in and around their workplaces, and that women cite limited channels to report abuse, fear of losing their jobs and stigmatisation if they report abuse. There are calls for a convention on GBV in the workplace.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The World Bank’s WBL initiative tracks laws that discriminate against women worldwide, including legal frameworks at the national level that address GBV in the workplace. The 2018 report assesses whether there are criminal penalties for sexual harassment in employment and whether there are civil remedies for sexual harassment in employment for each country covered. The World Policy Analysis Center also collects global metrics on dimensions of gender equity in the workplace, including policies and protections against sexual harassment and violence at work in all 193 UN member states.
### SDG 10 – INEQUALITY

#### Issue: Discriminatory laws and policies (e.g. based on ethnicity, religion, or caste)

**Relevance:** Discriminatory laws affect the daily lives of girls and women significantly, in many cases harming their health, inhibiting their education and economic participation, limiting their civic participation, and fuelling other inequities in society. While SDG 5 captures discriminatory laws on the basis of gender, SDG 10 stresses the way in which inequalities intersect, requiring measurement of the extent to which laws discriminate on the basis of ethnicity, religion, caste, disability, sexual orientation and many other dimensions. Discriminatory laws and policies compound existing gender inequalities. In Myanmar, for example, laws that restrict interfaith marriage disenfranchise Rohingya ethnic minority women and limit their ability to access legal documents, inherit assets or pursue divorce or child custody.456

**Promising measurement approaches:** A promising new measurement approach to monitor the elimination of discrimination against girls and women has been elaborated by a consortium including UN Women, SIGI and the WBL, for use in the official monitoring of SDG 5.1.1. The approach uses a questionnaire comprising 45 yes/no questions in four domains: overarching legal frameworks and public life; violence against women; employment and economic benefits; and marriage and family. A composite score will be calculated for each domain. These scores will reflect progress towards ending discrimination and achieving gender equality. Initial results have been validated using existing sources and national governments will submit indicators in the future.

#### Issue: Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months (broken down by sex and other dimensions)

**Relevance:** This focuses on self-reported experiences of discrimination, disaggregated by the basis for the discrimination, the relationship with the discriminatory person or entity, and where the discrimination occurred.457 Subjective experiences of discrimination and bias can hamper women's ability to realize their rights and undermine their productivity. A Pew research study, for example, found that "women are about three times as likely as men (19 per cent vs 7 per cent) to say their gender has made it harder for them to succeed at their job."458

**Promising measurement approaches:** The World Justice Project459 measures rule-of-law adherence in 113 countries based on more than 110,000 household and 3,000 expert surveys. The Project uses this considerable data collection to calculate a Rule of Law Index460 measuring performance across eight factors, one of which measures the protection of fundamental human rights firmly established under the Universal Declaration and closely related to rule of law.

#### Issue: Whether data are broken down not just by sex but by other dimensions such as age, ethnicity, language, religion or region

**Relevance:** The 'leave no one behind' agenda has learned lessons from the MDG era, when a lack of understanding about how people of different ages, capabilities, or income levels were faring hampered strategies to tackle discrimination. Studies also demonstrated that progress has often been made among the groups that are easiest to reach or whose situations are the easiest to resolve, often leaving the poorest and most vulnerable behind.461 Inequalities between groups, whether they are political, social or economic, have profound implications for social stability and the incidence of conflict, as well as for human well-being.462 Disaggregated data are vital to reveal who is being left behind. However, a 2017 study by the Centre for Global Development on indicators measuring poverty, undernourishment, access to safe drinking water and access to electricity found no disaggregated data, with data on other indicators disaggregated across two metrics at most.463 None of the indicators intended to represent the bare minimum of 'leaving no one behind' had data disaggregated by income, race, ethnicity, migratory status or disability.464

**Promising measurement approaches:** UN Women's 2018 report contains extensive analysis of intersecting discrimination in Chapter 4.465 UNICEF's MICS (a household survey programme that has been carried out in more than 100 countries to generate data on the situation of children and women) disaggregates some data by sex, age, region, ethnicity and other measures.466 For example, Save the Children used MICS data from Ghana to show how some groups from different ethnicities and religions bear far greater shares of deprivation than other groups.467 When data is disaggregated by several different dimensions, it enables analysis of intersecting discrimination.
SDG 13 – CLIMATE

**Issue: Impact of slow-onset crises on women compared to men, specifically with regards to male migration related to climate change without female family members**

**Relevance:** Where communities face slow-onset events, such as rising sea levels or increasing droughts and desertification, some respond by migrating. Women, particularly poor and marginalized women, are far more likely to be ‘trapped’ at home. In the flood-prone Kurigram District of Bangladesh, for example, many female-headed households lack the resources to migrate. In Ecuador, access to land facilitates migration for men, while women have fewer opportunities to leave environmentally degraded areas.

**Promising measurement approaches:** SDG indicator 10.7.2 (number of countries that have implemented well-managed migration policies) is relevant here. Migration policies could be reviewed for gender inclusion (not included explicitly in 10.7.2), including support for female-headed households that remain behind. In addition, the Global Compact on Migration, due for adoption in December 2018, offers an opportunity to track progress.

**Issue: Impact on women, compared to men, of challenges in agricultural production related to climate change**

**Relevance:** The impact of climate change will be experienced acutely and increasingly in the poorest regions of the world, where women grow a significant proportion of the food on the most marginal land with less access to inputs such as seeds, fertilisers and water. In Vietnam, for example, it has been found that female-headed households report 20 per cent lower rice yields than male-headed households as a result of limited water supplies. As we have seen, women often lack tenure, or full decision making, over the land they till. Addressing their land tenure rights is seen as crucial in the fight against the impact of climate change. In Vietnam, a programme working with women to build understanding and awareness, collect sex-disaggregated data, reform land tenure, facilitate access to credit and other measures has been implemented as a climate adaptation strategy. According to the FAO in 2011, if women’s agricultural activities were supported on an equal basis with men’s, global agricultural production would increase by 10 to 14 per cent, decreasing the population of those going hungry by 100 million.

**Promising measurement approaches:** FAO undertook a ten-country exercise to pilot the methodology for collecting data on SDG Indicator 5.a.2 (Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women’s equal rights to land ownership and/or control), with countries expected to report on this indicator every two years starting from 2018.

**Issue: Women’s inclusion in national decision making on climate policies**

**Relevance:** If women have no voice in national decision making on climate policies, countries risk putting in place programmes that are less effective. Women and men often have different perceptions of climate change, and engaging them both makes it possible to harness diverse knowledge and experiences. Women’s participation can lead to better environmental outcomes, but this is difficult to measure.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The IUCN Global Gender Office undertook a gender audit on 192 national energy frameworks from 37 countries, which identifies the involvement of women’s ministries and organizations. In addition, references to women’s participation in the Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) could be assessed alongside the assessment of gender inclusion, and could be expanded to Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Actions (NAMAs), National Adaptation Programmes of Action (NAPAs), and National Adaptation Plans (NAPs), in conjunction with partners such as WEDO already working in this area. Alternatively, countries could be surveyed, via their gender focal points, for their participation policies as part of a gender action plan. This information could be supplemented by data collection from women’s organizations on the impact of such policies.
## SDG 16 – PEACE, JUSTICE AND INSTITUTIONS

### Issue: Referred cases of sexual violence and GBV against women and children that are investigated and sentenced

**Relevance:** According to UN Women, less than 40 per cent of women globally who experience violence seek help of any sort, and less than 10 per cent of those appeal to the police. Strong institutions contribute to a culture in which sexual violence is less accepted and girls and women have recourse. Yet 37 countries worldwide still have legal loopholes that excuse rape in marriage or if a perpetrator marries the victim. Investigation of sexual violence cases is critical in nations emerging from conflict, where the legacy of sexual violence includes unwanted pregnancies, sexually transmitted infections, stigmatization and psychological trauma. Investigating and prosecuting cases through transitional justice mechanisms, including truth commissions and special courts, is critical for future accountability.

**Promising measurement approaches:** One promising measurement approach is the Violence Against Children Surveys (VACS), led by the Center for Disease Control and Prevention as part of the Together for Girls partnership. The VACS measure rates of physical, emotional and sexual violence against girls and boys around the world through survey tools, publishing findings in country reports. The Office of the High Commissioner on Human Rights (OHCHR) provides technical advice to the International Crimes Division of the High Court to facilitate compliance with good practices in handling cases of sexual violence and GBV, including studies of redress for GBV in transitional justice and drafting the Guidance Note of the UN Secretary General on Reparations for Conflict-Related Sexual Violence.

### Issue: Young women and men aged 18-29 years who have experienced sexual violence by age 18

**Relevance:** More than one in three girls in some countries report that their first sexual encounter was coerced. Most girls report this first happened during adolescence – a time when girls are more vulnerable to sexual violence and suffer unique long-term consequences, including mental and physical health issues, stigma and shame, unintended pregnancy, and complications during pregnancy and childbirth, as well as higher risks of IPV and exploitation (including sex work) in adult life.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The UN’s SDG Indicators Global Database suggests household surveys as a way to measure the number of people who report having experienced sexual violence by age 18. However, there are issues on the accuracy of survey data, given the likelihood of under-reporting, and such data are unavailable in the WHO’s Global Health Observatory data repository for many countries. The WHO report Global and Regional Estimates of Violence Against Women assesses individual country information on sexual violence, as does the UN Women Global Database on Violence Against Women. UNICEF’s report A Familiar Face: Violence in the Lives of Children and Adolescents uses available data to assess sexual violence in childhood and adolescence. Governments’ commitments on this issue are reflected in their adoption and implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325, with most of the 74 countries and territories with NAPs including protection from GBV.

### Issue: Women’s participation in police, security forces and the judiciary

**Relevance:** The inclusion of women and civil society groups in peace negotiations makes resulting agreements 64 per cent less likely to fail and 35 per cent more likely to last at least 15 years, according to data from 1989-2011. Yet, as noted, women make up only 4 per cent of signatories to peace agreements and, as of 2015, only 3 per cent of UN military peacekeepers and 10 per cent of UN police personnel were women. Data from 39 countries reveal that women are more likely to report GBV to female police officers and peacekeeping personnel, and the establishment of female security forces in conflict and post-conflict countries is one way to mitigate sexual violence and reduce abuses by security bodies. In Liberia, more than 8 per cent of victims of sexual violence reported having been assaulted by national security personnel. Female security officers are more likely to ease tensions and less likely to use force, helping to restore community trust in institutions.

**Promising measurement approaches:** In addition to assessment of government nationalization of UNSCR 1325, as noted in relation to sexual violence, another promising approach is the Women, Peace and Security Index 2017-18, which has used international data sources to rank 153 countries on measures of women’s inclusion, security, well-being and access to justice.
### Issue: Government spending on social infrastructure (including education, essential health services, early childhood education and childcare, and other social care)

**Relevance:** A government’s spending on health and education services signals its fiscal commitment to development goals, with particular benefits for girls and women. When countries spend a lower percentage of GDP on essential healthcare services, more pregnant and post-natal women and newborns are put at risk. When governments invest more in early education, childcare and other social care, women are better able to make autonomous decisions about their time use and engage in productive economic activities. Social infrastructure and social assistance programmes can also reduce inequalities. The South African Child Support Grant (CSG) assistance programme, for example, has become one of the most comprehensive social protection systems in the developing world since 1998. The grants have had a strong impact for girls, with early receipt of the grant increasing their grade attainment by a quarter of a grade.

**Promising measurement approaches:** The ILO’s *World Social Protection Report 2017-19* includes all public social security and social protection schemes or programmes. Regional and multilateral banks also track government spending by percentages – the IMF World Economic Outlook is the best source for GDP and total government spending figures. The information is compiled from a mix of these sources by Oxfam and Development Finance International’s 2017 Commitment to Reducing Inequality Index (CRI), which uses a ‘tax potential’ measure of tax effort across several development measures.

### Issue: Tax-paid and income-earned data broken down by sex and type of tax

**Relevance:** As noted, a nation’s tax mix can influence the burden of taxes that fall on women relative to men, with gender biases and the form of taxation often increasing that burden. While progressive taxation such as income tax ensures that the wealthiest pay more, regressive taxation, such as VAT, is payable by consumers – very often the women who buy household basics. With women earning less than men, VAT and other regressive forms of taxation can cut into their already reduced resources.

**Promising measurement approaches:** Oxfam’s CRI is the first index to measure the commitment of governments to reducing the gap between the rich and the poor, including through progressive tax policies. As noted, the CRI Index in 2017 used a ‘tax potential’ measure of tax effort across several development measures. The International Centre for Tax and Development (ICTD) also tracks taxation in developing countries, and particularly in Africa, including a focus on the gender implications of taxes paid. The ICTD’s online tools survey the representation of women in African tax administrations and the differing impacts of taxation on men and women.

### Issue: Inclusion of gender provisions in trade agreements

**Relevance:** Inclusive trade policies can advance gender equality through gender-related assessments of trade measures or the inclusion of gender stipulations, such as increasing women’s economic participation. The Peru Free Trade Agreement, for example, includes a mechanism on the “development of programmes on gender issues, including the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation.” Trade reforms that do not include gender provisions can exacerbate gender inequalities, as women may lack access to the new jobs created as well as markets.

**Promising measurement approaches:** At the 2017 WTO Ministerial Conference, 118 WTO members and observers agreed to support the Joint Declaration on Trade and Women’s Economic Empowerment, which aims to increase gender responsiveness in trade policies. Other promising approaches include UNCTAD’s methodology for gender-related assessments of trade reforms. The European Parliament’s Policy Department for Citizens’ Rights and Constitutional Affairs and the Committee on Women’s Rights and Gender Equality track gender provisions in EU trade agreements and advocate for gender equality objectives in new trade agreements. Yet, as of January 2018 only 20 per cent of EU trade agreements mention women’s rights.
**The Conceptual Framework for the Index**

The conceptual framework of the Index is normative in approach, using as its basis the official agenda for Sustainable Development framework adopted by the Member States of the United Nations and indicators adopted by Member States through the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs). Drawing on this framework, the SDG Gender Index aims to provide a comprehensive measure of the gender dimensions across these goals, going beyond SDG 5 on gender equality.

In this process, 12 of the 17 goals were chosen as domains. Nine of these 12 were chosen because the official SDG targets within that goal explicitly recognised girls, women and gender issues as part of the indicators and because we were able to identify relevant data sources to reflect the issues within that goal in our Index. These were complemented by three other goals that, while gender-blind in their SDG formulation, implicitly affect the lives of girls and women. These goals include SDG 7 on energy, SDG 13 on climate and SDG 17 on partnerships (including fiscal and tax policies).

For each of these 12 goals, three to six indicators were selected that captured the key gender dimensions of the goal (the rationale for each is discussed in annex 3) totalling 43 indicators. The indicators include those cited in the SDG framework as well as complementary indicators from other data sources. They include the issues with sufficient data coverage that were prioritized by EM2030 partners, girls’ and women’s advocates and organizations from across the world through various consultative mechanisms. Each of the 43 indicators was reviewed to assess policy relevance, data availability, and other criteria. The aim was to keep the set of indicators to a reasonable number while still capturing the most important gender dimensions for each goal.

Further information about the design of the Index and the process followed can be found in section 2 of the report.

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**The Implementation of the Index**

There were both advantages and limitations in using a small set of countries in the pilot. One of the key advantages was related to the availability of recent data, i.e., the most recent indicator for the nearest available year (+/- 3 years) to the SDG baseline of 2015. There were only several exceptions (see annex 2) where older data or simple estimation techniques were used for the six pilot countries.

Each of the indicators was adjusted to move in the same direction (i.e., a higher score meaning better conditions for girls, women and gender equality) and standardized scores were generated for each indicator using a percentile rank approach which indicates the location of a national score in the distribution of the six countries, ranging from 0 to 100. Despite the limitations of a small number of countries and thus more limited distribution than exists globally, there was a sufficient spread of indicator values across the six countries. The average score across the three to six indicators was used to generate a goal score. So while scores are unweighted across goals to generate the overall Index score, there was weighting dependent upon the number of indicators within a goal. That is, an indicator in a goal with six indicators would have less weight in the score than an indicator in a goal with three indicators. To ensure simplicity and transparency, all 12 goals are weighted equally in generating the total Index score.

This approach was piloted using data for the six Equal Measures 2030 focus countries, and will be further refined in response to feedback on this pilot study. Changes to the approach and methodology will be considered after September 2018 from the goals, issues and indicators included, to the conceptual framework, to further elements of the design. The next iteration of the Index will incorporate these revisions and also aim to cover as many countries globally as possible.
1 For more information on the findings of the EM2030 Global Advocates Survey 2018, see section 2 of this report. See also http://www.equalmeasures2030.org/products/advocate-survey/.

2 Global data gaps are usually reflective of severe data gaps at the national level as well, meaning that these issues are not just difficult to monitor across countries, but also issues on which national monitoring is difficult in many countries. For more on gender, data and SDG monitoring, see the work of Data2X at: https://www.data2x.org/partnership/gender-data-SDG-monitoring.


7 See section 2 of this report for more on our EM2030 Global Advocates Survey 2018.

8 For more on the Index methodology, and the inputs by different stakeholders, see section 2 and annex 5.

9 See annexes 1 and 2 for all sources used in this summary of challenges across the six countries.

10 See annexes 1 and 2 for all sources used in this summary of progress across the six countries.

11 See, for example, the work being led by Data2X on measuring time use and economic empowerment.

12 See Box 1 for more information about the Gender Advocates Data Hub, and the live link here to visit it: www.data.em2030.org.

13 See, for example, the work being led by Data2X on measuring time use and economic empowerment.


17 Ibid.

18 Ibid.


22 Ibid.


27 Ibid.

28 EM2030 hosted two side events at CSW in March 2018, to introduce draft thinking on the SDG Gender Index to raise awareness about the work and garner input. In addition, between March and May 2018, we had an online consultation form available for specific inputs into the SDG Gender Index.

29 The Technical Reference Group was comprised of technical experts in gender statistics, SDG data and index construction. Many of the members have led or are leading major global index initiatives. The group was comprised predominantly by women and represented a cross-section of national backgrounds. The group worked virtually in this phase of the Index design process.

30 The EM2030 partners are continuing to follow the evolving IAEG processes and aim to integrate newly developed indicators as new data become available.


41 Ibid.

42 All sources for data referenced in section 3 is drawn from the SDG Gender Index and can be found in annexes 1 and 2.

43 The Palma Ratio is a measure of inequality it is the ratio of the richest 10 per cent of the population’s share of gross national income (GNI) divided by the share of the poorest 40 per cent.


52 https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdgs/


43. Ibid.


54. Ibid.


