



# The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2021

## *Extended Report*

### -Goal 5-



## **Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls**

**Note:** The UN Statistics Division (UNSD) prepares the annual *The Sustainable Development Goals Report*, also known as the glossy report, based on storyline inputs submitted by UN international agencies in their capacity as mandated custodian agencies for the SDG indicators. However, due to space constraints, not all information received from custodian agencies is able to be included in the final glossy report. Therefore, in order to provide the general public with all information regarding the indicators, this 'Extended Report' has been prepared by UNSD. It includes all storyline contents for each indicator as provided by the custodian agencies and is unedited. For instances where the custodian agency has not submitted a storyline for an indicator, please see the custodian agency focal point information linked for further information.

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## Target 5.1: End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere

### Indicator 5.1.1: Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex

#### Laws continue to discriminate against women worldwide

Discriminatory laws and legal gaps continue to prevent women from enjoying their human rights. Based on data collected in 2020 in 95 countries across four areas of law, the largest gaps were observed in the area of overarching legal frameworks and public life with an average gap in achievement of 29 percent. More than half of the countries in the sample lacked quotas for women in national parliament, and close to one fifth maintained discriminatory nationality laws. In the area of violence against women, the average gap was 22 percent, and while 83 percent of the countries included budgetary commitments to implement legislation addressing violence against women, 63 percent continued to lack rape laws based on the principle of consent. The average gap in the area of employment and economic benefits was 23 percent. In that area, over 90 percent of countries mandate nondiscrimination on the basis of gender in employment. However, almost half of the countries continued to restrict women from working in certain jobs or industries. In the area of marriage and family, which recorded legal gaps of 21 percent on average, almost a quarter of countries did not grant women equal rights with men to enter marriage and initiate divorce, and three-fourths of countries did not stipulate 18 years as the minimum age of marriage for women and men, with no exceptions. The Central and Southern Asia region had the largest gaps in the area of employment and economic benefits, while the Northern Africa and Western Asia region had the largest gaps in the areas of overarching legal frameworks and public life, violence against women, and marriage and family.

#### Average achievement score and achievement gap, global and by region 2020



Source: Based on 2020 assessment of legal frameworks, using a questionnaire with 45 questions in four areas of law.

Notes: The score for each area of law (a number between 0 and 100) represents the percentage of achievement on average for the countries in the sample (unweighted average), per area of law. The achievement gap is the inverse of the achievement score, it refers to the average gap in legal gender equality for countries in the sample (unweighted average). Ninety five countries are included in the sample. Oceania not included due to small sample size.

#### Custodian agency(ies):

UN Women, World Bank, OECD Development Centre

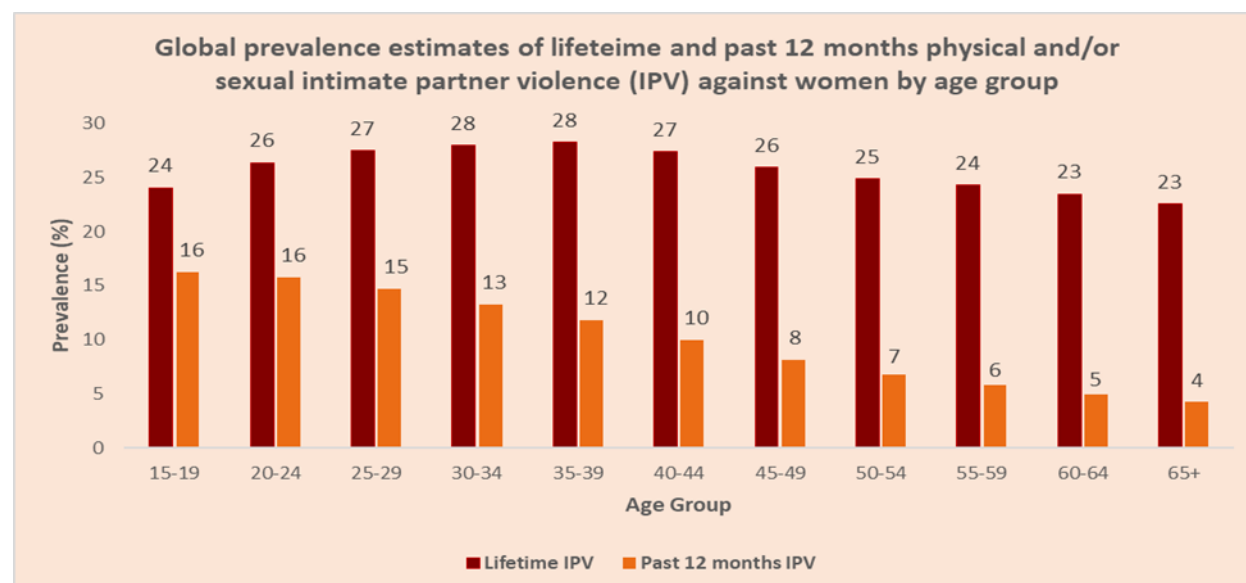
## Target 5.2: Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation

Indicator 5.2.1: Proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and by age

Indicator 5.2.2: Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence

### Violence against women persists at alarmingly high levels globally

New estimates<sup>1</sup> confirm that nearly 1 in 3 women (30%), that is 736 million women, have been subjected to physical and/or sexual violence by a husband or intimate partner or sexual violence by a non-partner at least once in their lifetime since the age of 15. Most of this is violence by an intimate partner, with over a quarter (26%) of ever-married/partnered women aged 15 years and older being subjected to physical and/or sexual violence at the hands of a partner or ex-partner. Intimate partner violence starts early with nearly 1 in 4 (24%) of adolescent girls 15-19 years old and 26% of young women aged 20-24 years who have ever had a partner or been married being subjected already to this violence. Sixteen percent of adolescent girls and young women (15-24 years old) have been subjected to current/recent physical and/or sexual violence, or both, by a male partner (i.e. within the past 12 months).



There are important variations across regions, with consistently higher prevalence in low- and lower-middle- income regions compared to high-income regions. These differences are particularly stark in relation to the past 12 months prevalence of intimate partner violence. These variations likely reflect the major challenges women in these settings may face in leaving abusive relationships, including limited economic resources, limited availability and access to formal support services, weaker social support networks, and fear of repercussions associated with the high levels of social stigma.

In the past two decades there has been a steady improvement in the availability and quality of data and survey measures on violence against women. However, several gaps remain, including on measurement and collection of data violence experienced by older women, women living with disabilities, psychological intimate partner violence, and non-partner sexual violence

These new estimates reiterate that violence against women remains a public health problem and human rights violation of pandemic proportions that preceded the COVID-19 pandemic, nevertheless deepened by it, and will continue long after it, unless urgent action is taken. Although data collection on Violence Against Women is generally not recommended by remote methods, and the specific impact of COVID-19 on violence against women is yet to be assessed, emerging data and reports from those on the front lines, have shown that all types of violence against women and girls, particularly domestic violence, has intensified amidst the COVID-19 crisis.<sup>2</sup> Violence against women has serious short- and long-term negative impacts on the health and well-being of women and their children and continues to affect millions worldwide. It has substantial social and economic costs to individuals, families and countries. Violence against women is preventable and there is growing and robust evidence on what works to prevent violence. It is critical that governments invest urgently in evidence-based sustainable and long-term measures to prevent and respond to violence against women. The prevalence estimates provide a baseline and a way to track progress of governments over the long term in preventing and ultimately ending violence against women.

#### Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:

- WHO, Violence against women prevalence estimates, 2018: global, regional and national prevalence estimates for intimate partner violence against women and global and regional prevalence estimates for non-partner sexual violence against women. Available at: [Violence Against Women Prevalence Estimates](https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240022256) <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240022256>, 2018
- [WHO](#),
- Executive Summary: Violence against women prevalence estimates, 2018: global, regional and national prevalence estimates for intimate partner violence against women and global and regional prevalence estimates for non-partner sexual violence against women. Available at: [https://cdn.who.int/media/docs/default-source/documents/violence-prevention/vaw\\_report\\_executive-summary\\_web\\_09032021\\_oleksandr-\(1\).pdf?sfvrsn=8ee5f68b\\_5](https://cdn.who.int/media/docs/default-source/documents/violence-prevention/vaw_report_executive-summary_web_09032021_oleksandr-(1).pdf?sfvrsn=8ee5f68b_5)
- Press release. Devastatingly pervasive: 1 in 3 women globally experience violence Younger women among those most at risk: WHO. Available at: <https://www.who.int/news/item/09-03-2021-devastatingly-pervasive-1-in-3-women-globally-experience-violence>

<sup>1</sup> Based on all national and sub-national prevalence surveys/studies conducted between 2000 and 2018 from 158 countries using specific acts-based questions on violence. These data were gathered through a comprehensive systematic review of publicly available prevalence data, national and international data repositories and additional data provided by countries' national statistics offices during the Country Consultation process conducted World Health Organization (WHO).

<sup>2</sup> [UN Women, Impact of COVID-19 on violence against women and girls and service provision: UN Women rapid assessment and findings](#)

- Global Database on the Prevalence of Violence Against Women. Available at: [Global Database on the Prevalence of Violence Against Womenhttps://srhr.org/vaw-data](https://srhr.org/vaw-data)
- UN Women and WHO, [Violence against women and girls data collection during COVID-19](#)
- UN Women, [COVID-19 and Ending Violence Against Women and Girls](#) Global Factsheet: Violence against women prevalence estimates, 2018: Available at <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240022256>
- UN Women, [The Shadow Pandemic: Violence against women during COVID-19](#)

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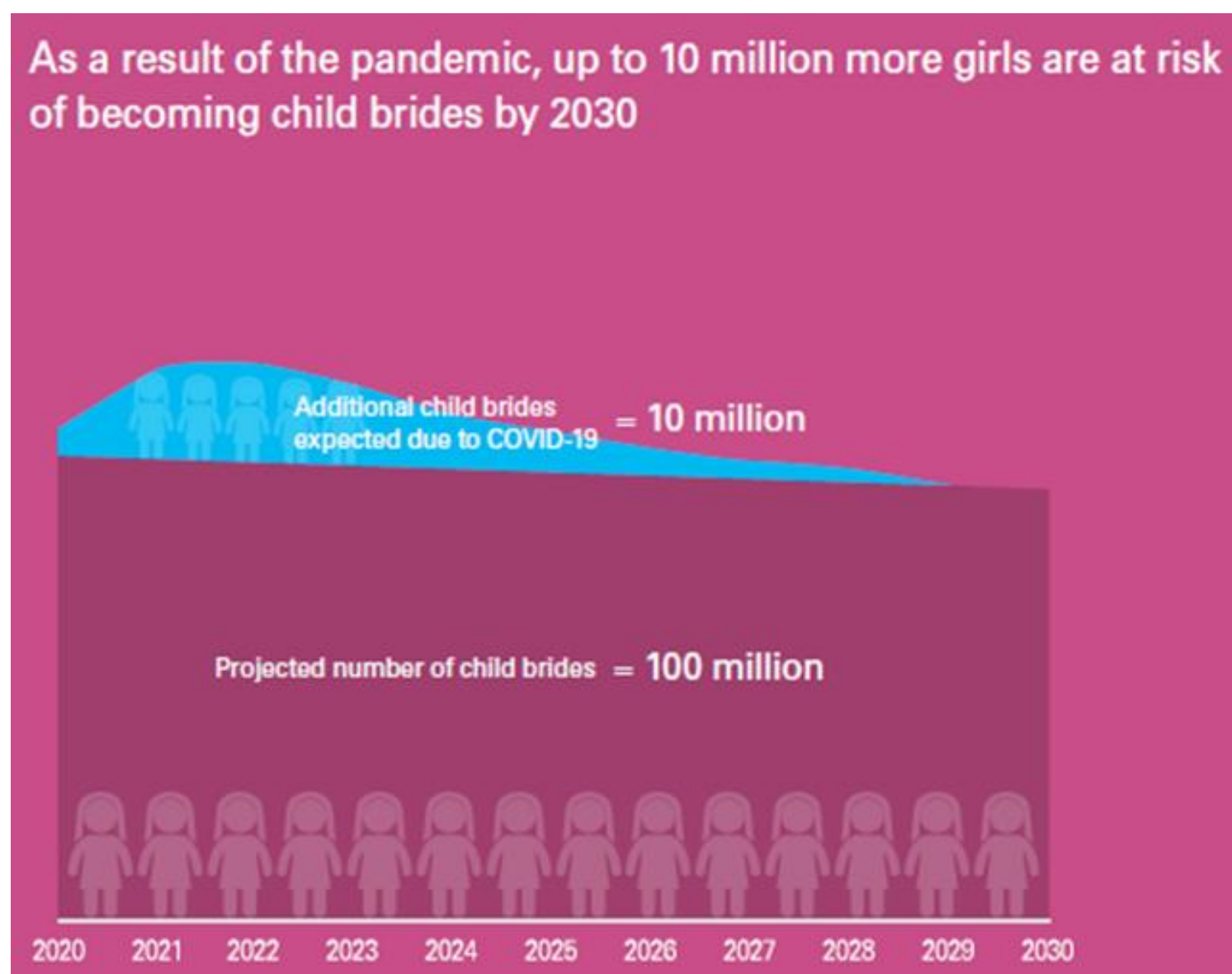
UNICEF, UN Women, UNFPA, WHO, UNODC, UNSD

## Target 5.3: Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation

### Indicator 5.3.1: Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18 COVID-19 threatens global progress against child marriage

Over the past decade, the practice of child marriage has declined significantly, with the global proportion of young women who were married as children decreasing by 15 per cent, from nearly 1 in 4 to 1 in 5. Thanks to this progress, the marriages of some 25 million girls have been averted.

However, the profound effects of the COVID-19 pandemic are threatening this progress, putting girls at higher risk of becoming child brides through various pathways including economic shocks, school closures and interruptions in services. In the next decade up to 10 million more girls will be at risk of child marriage as a result of COVID-19, in addition to the 100 million who were projected to become child brides before the pandemic. Most child marriages due to COVID-19 are expected to occur in the near term, though the impact is likely to be felt over at least the next decade, also raising the risk of early marriage for girls who are now young.



Progress analysis: [See progress chart](#)

Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:

- [UNICEF. Child marriage: latest trends and future prospects, 2018](#)

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UNICEF

**Indicator 5.3.2: Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age**

Female genital mutilation (FGM) is a human rights violation affecting girls and women worldwide, but especially in communities where it persists as a social norm. The practice can cause severe pain, excessive bleeding, infections (including HIV), infertility, complications during childbirth and sometimes death.

At least 200 million girls and women have been subjected to FGM. FGM is becoming less common in countries where it was once universal, and in countries where it only occurred in a few communities. Yet progress is not universal and not fast enough. Even in countries where the practice has become less common, progress would need to be at least 10 times faster to meet the global target of elimination by 2030.

**Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:**

- [UNICEF, Female Genital Mutilation \(FGM\)](#)

Custodian agency(ies):

UNICEF

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

**Indicator 5.4.1: Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location**

**Women spend more than twice as many hours in unpaid domestic and care work as men**

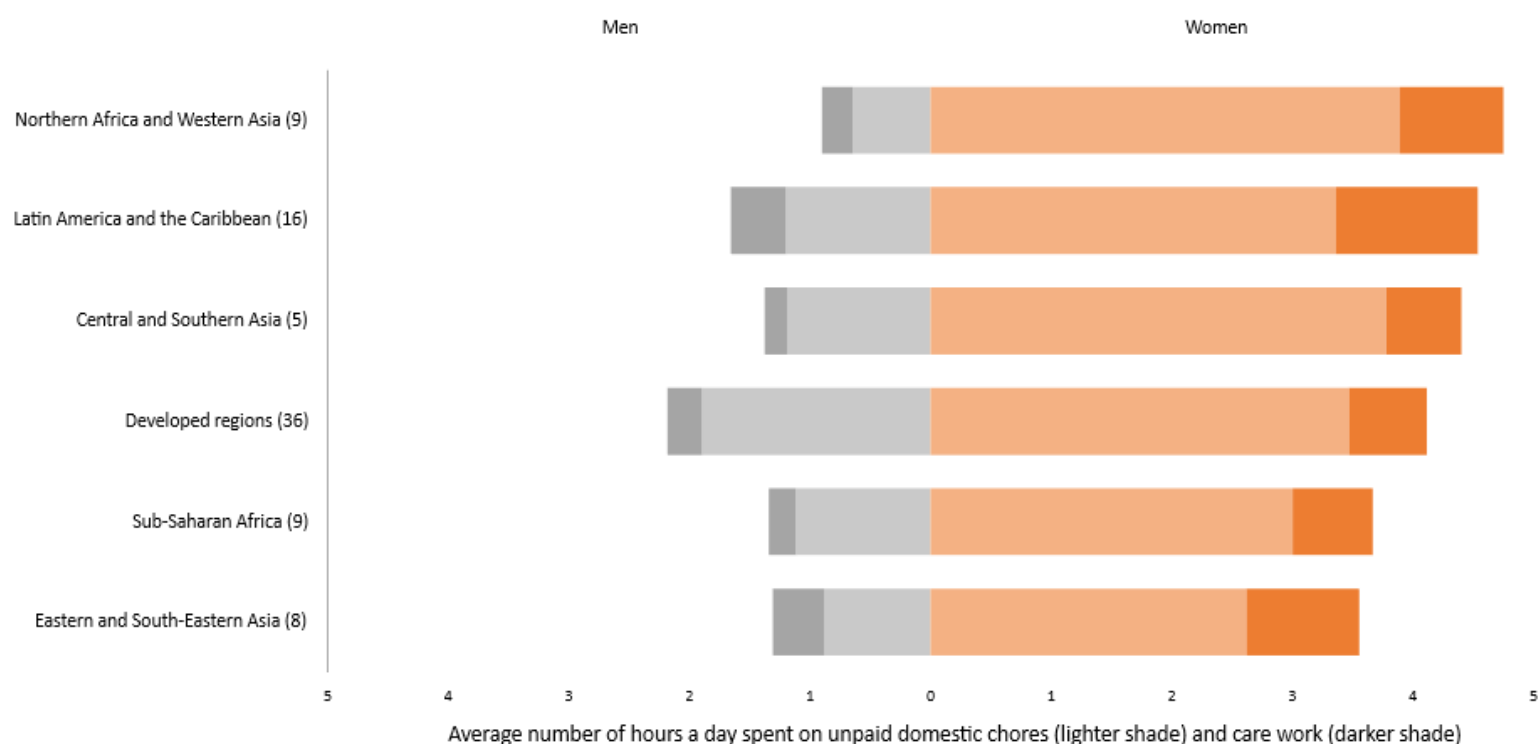
On an average day, women spend more than twice as many hours in unpaid domestic and care work as men, according to the latest data from 90 countries and areas collected between 2001 and 2019. The unpaid work includes unpaid care work such as taking care of children and the elderly, and unpaid domestic work such as cleaning or cooking. In roughly 75% of the countries with trend data, a small decrease in the time spent by women on unpaid domestic and care work relative to that spent by men has been observed over recent time. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, this progress might slow down.

Globally, women spend almost two hours more per day or more than twice as much on unpaid domestic work than men (14% of their time each day for women, compared to 6% for men). The gender difference on time spent on unpaid care work is less than 30 minutes, yet still significant as women spend almost three times as much as men (3% of their time each day for women, compared to 1% for men).

At the regional level, countries in Northern Africa and Western Asia have the greatest gender inequality in time spent on unpaid domestic work, such as cooking and cleaning, with women spending more than six times as much on these activities as men (16% of their day compared to 3% for men). Meanwhile, countries in Developed Regions have, relatively speaking, the least unequal gender distribution of unpaid domestic work (women report spending 14% of their day, compared to 8% for men), resulting in women spending roughly twice as much time as men on these activities. Unpaid caring for children and other dependents does not show a regional connotation, though this may be due to the lack of accurate data on this type of work, which remains difficult to measure and often overlaps with other activities.

Emerging data on the activities of working parents during the COVID-19 pandemic show that unpaid care work has intensified. In a 16-country study of parents, the amount of time spent on unpaid care work has increased for both women (from 15% of their time each day before COVID to 18%) and men (from 12% before COVID to 14%) resulting in a gender gap almost unchanged, but with women still spending one hour per day more than men in unpaid activities such as taking care of children, elderly and other dependent adults<sup>3</sup>.

**Average number of hours a day spent on unpaid domestic chores and care work**



*Note: Domestic chores refer to unpaid domestic work like cleaning and cooking and care work refers to unpaid work such as taking care of children and other dependent adults.*

**Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:**

- [UN Women, Whose time to care?: Unpaid care and domestic work during COVID-19](https://data.unwomen.org/features/covid-19-pandemic-has-increased-care-burden-how-much-0)

**Custodian agency(ies):**

UNSD, UN Women

<sup>3</sup> <https://data.unwomen.org/features/covid-19-pandemic-has-increased-care-burden-how-much-0>



## Target 5.5: Ensure women’s full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life

### Indicator 5.5.1: Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments

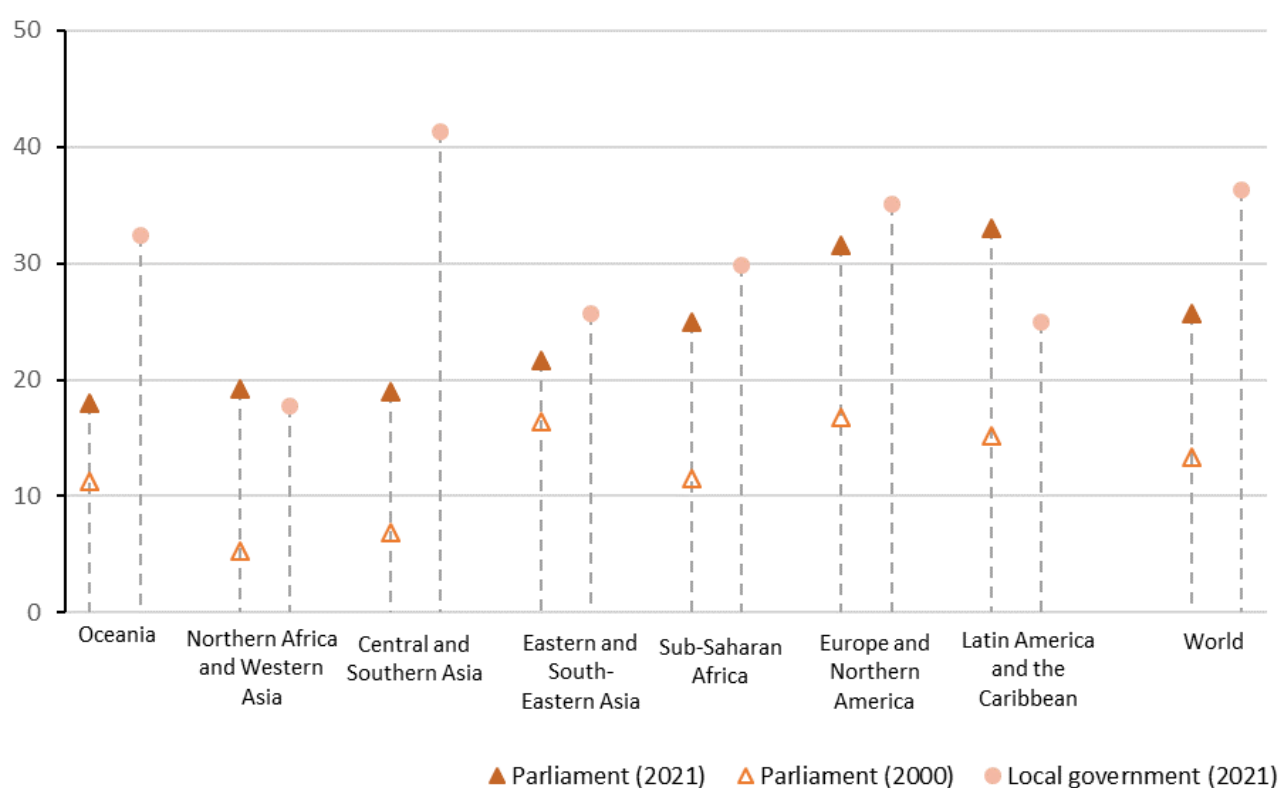
#### Women's equal participation crucial for Covid response and recovery, but parity remains far off

The COVID-19 pandemic has impacted women’s participation in public life in divergent and new ways. The shift to digital platforms and remote technologies in campaigning has reduced some of the gender disparities in campaigning, while enabling the combination of care work with political activities. However, political participation has been increasingly threatened by widespread online violence against women, or, for women with poor access to technologies, completely cut off.

Women’s leadership during the pandemic proved how essential women’s equal participation in political decision-making is for building back better. Gender inequalities that have been exacerbated by COVID-19 make it all the more pressing to ensure gender parity in decision making so as to craft gender-responsive laws, policies and budgets. However, as at 1 January 2021, women’s representation remains far from parity. The global average of women in single or lower chamber of national parliaments reached 25.6%, continuing a slow upward trend that will allow achieving gender parity no sooner than in 40 years, and 36.3 in local deliberative bodies (in 135 countries and areas with data). Only 23 countries have 40% or more women in their lower or single chambers of parliament, and 22 countries in local government, most of them through the use of gender quotas.

Legislated gender quotas are effective measures to reduce the gender gap in women’s representation. In 2020, following parliamentary renewals in lower or single chambers, the share of seats won by women in countries with legislated quotas was 27.4% by comparison to 15.6% in countries with no quota. At local level, the use of legislated quotas increases a country’s representation of women by 7 percentage points, globally, including by 16 and 13 percentage points, respectively, in sub-Saharan Africa and in Northern Africa and Western Asia.

#### Proportion of seats held by women in parliaments and local governments



Note: Data on parliament refer to single or lower chambers of parliament. Data on local government refer to elected seats in deliberative bodies. Ref: IPU + UN Women

Progress analysis: [See progress chart](#)

Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:

- Berevoescu, Ionica and Julie Ballington, 2020. Women’s representation in local government: a global analysis. Expert paper, Expert Group Meeting for the Sixty-fifth session of the Commission on the Status of Women (CSW 65) ‘Women’s full and effective participation and decision-making in public life, as well as the elimination of violence, for achieving gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls’ New York, New York 5-8 October 2020. <https://www.unwomen.org/-/media/headquarters/attachments/sections/csw/65/egm/berevoescuballingtonlocal%20govep1egmcsw65.pdf?la=en&vs=4618>
- IPU, 2021. Women in parliament in 2020: The year in review. <https://www.ipu.org/women-in-parliament-2020>
- IPU. Parline: Global data on national parliaments. <https://data.ipu.org/>

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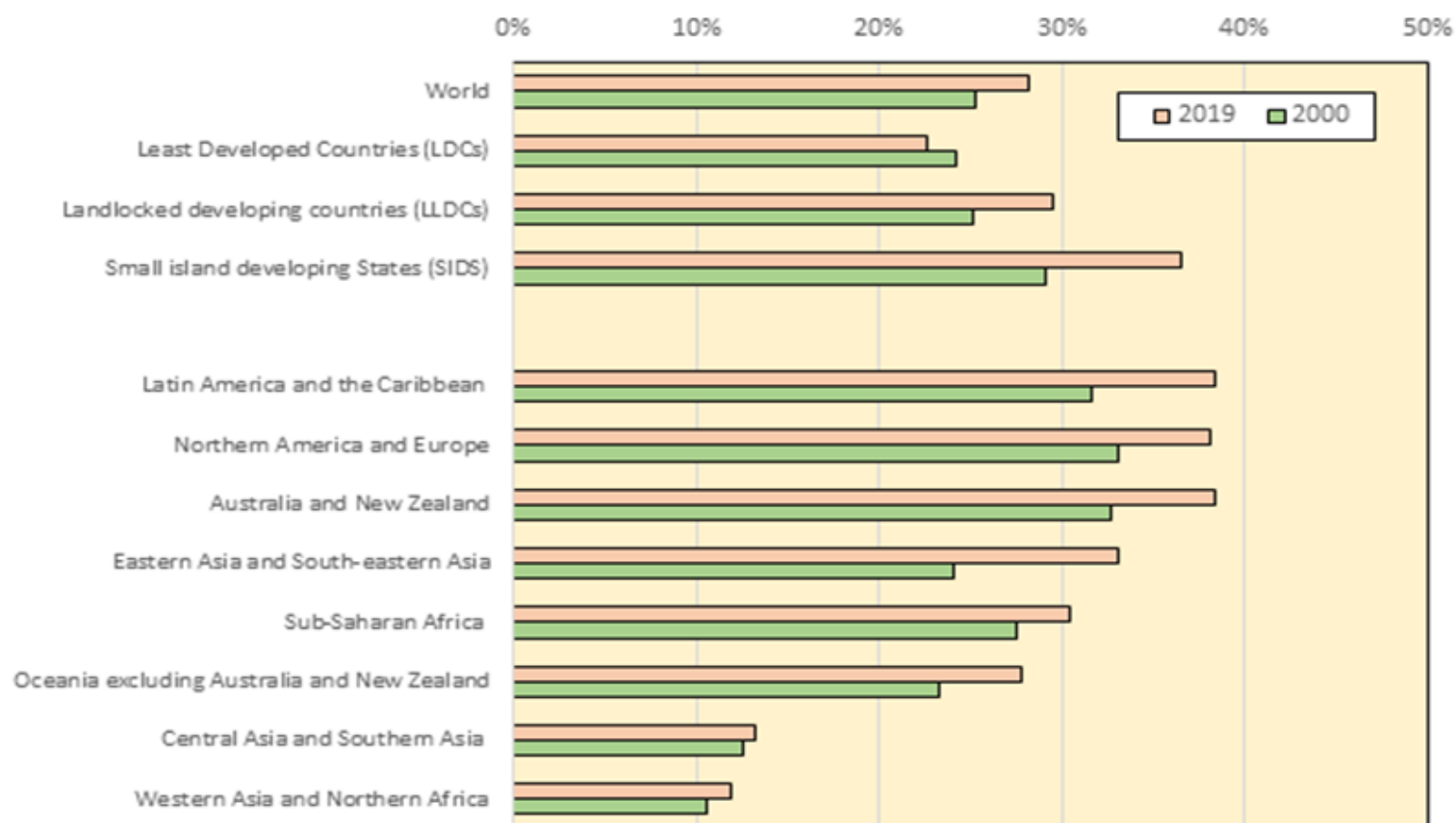
**Indicator 5.5.2: Proportion of women in managerial positions**  
**Women continue to be under-represented in managerial positions**

The share of women in managerial positions worldwide has shown slow progress in the last two decades. By 2019, even though women accounted for nearly 39 per cent of the global labour force, they occupied only 28.2 per cent of managerial positions. Women’s share in total management rose by less than 3 percentage points since 2000. This suggests that the glass ceiling is still very much in place, with men continuing to dominate decision-making positions such as CEO, senior officials and legislators, filling almost three-quarters of these occupations.

The two regions with the least progress over this period also maintained the lowest shares of women in management in 2019 – Western Asia and North Africa (11.9 per cent) and Central Asia and Southern Asia (13.3 per cent). The situation was especially grim for women in North Africa, where they held only 7.9 per cent of managerial positions. In contrast, around 38 per cent of managerial positions were held by women in 2019 in several regions -- Australia and New Zealand, Northern America and Europe, and Latin America and the Caribbean. They were followed by Eastern Asia and South-eastern Asia (33.1 per cent), which recorded the most notable increase of 9.1 percentage points between 2000 and 2019.

The pandemic’s disproportional impact on women threatens to roll back the little progress made these last decades. The share of women in managerial positions decreased, sometimes significantly, from the fourth quarter of 2019 to the third quarter of 2020 in more than half of the 42 countries with available data. Quarterly figures were available mostly for high-income countries. Nonetheless, this pattern is likely to hold true in lower income countries, where often more than half of female managers are self-employed. Women entrepreneurs have been particularly hard hit by the COVID-19 pandemic. Social distancing measures, lock-downs and distorted supply chains and markets have exacerbated structural inequities and challenges that typically impede the performance and growth of women-owned businesses, and resulted in many closing down operations.

**Proportion of women in managerial positions, 2000 and 2019**



Source: ILOSTAT, ILO modelled estimates, November 2020.

[Custodian agency\(ies\):](#)

ILO

**Target 5.6: Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as agreed in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development and the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences**

**Indicator 5.6.1: Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care**

**Indicator 5.6.2: Number of countries with laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education**

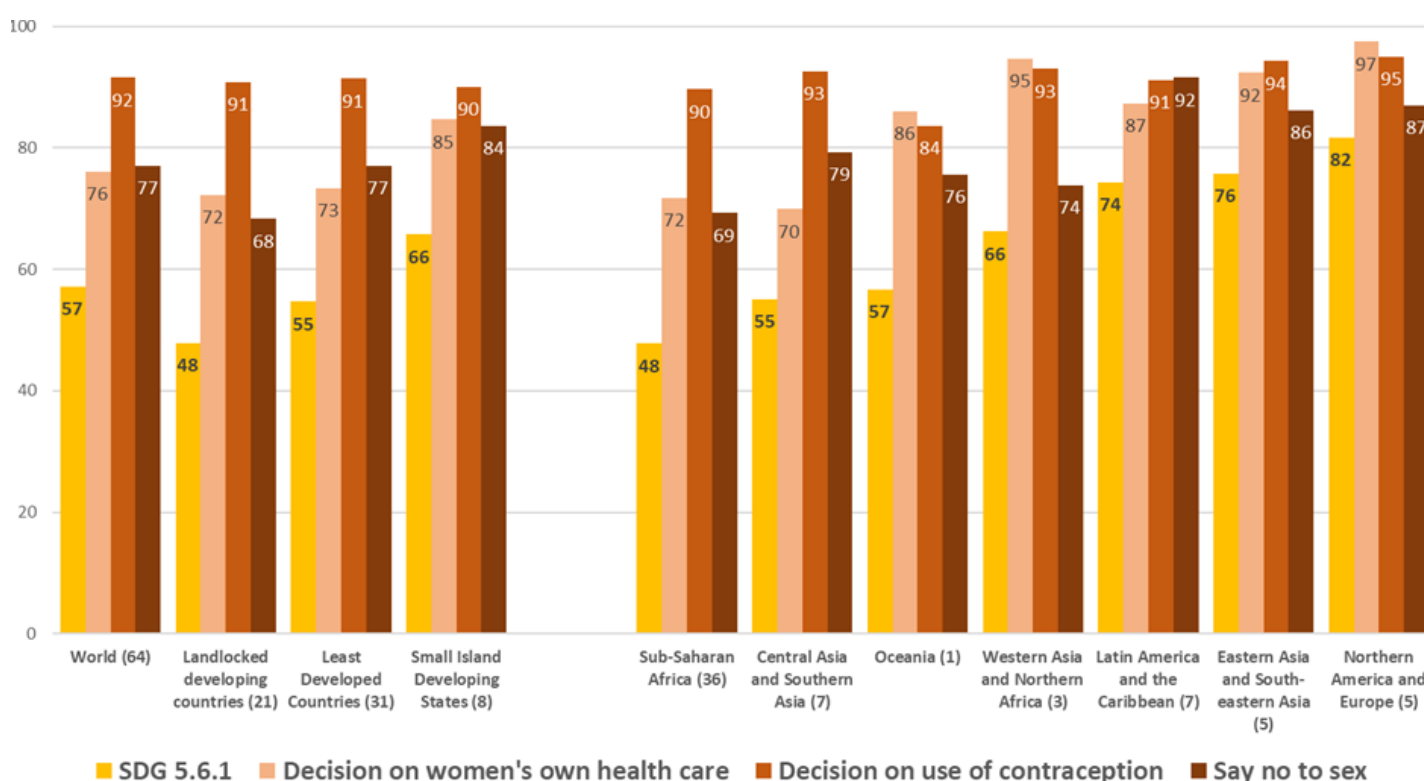
**Legal restrictions to women and adolescents’ access to sexual and reproductive health and rights, combined with the denial of women’s decision making on SRHR impedes full and equal enjoyment of SRHR for all.**

Only 57 per cent of married or in-union women aged 15 to 49 make their own decisions regarding sexual and reproductive health and rights (SRHR), based on data from 64 countries. Data thus far reveal large disparities among regions, from less than 50 per cent empowered in sub-Saharan Africa to approximately 80 per cent in some countries in Europe, South-eastern Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean. Analysis of the three sub-indicators shows that while women seem to have the most autonomy in deciding to use contraception, with 92 per cent empowered, only three in four women can decide on their own health care or say no to sex. Although in Eastern Asia and South-eastern Asia, and Latin America and the Caribbean over 86 per cent of women are able to make at least one of the three types of decisions, only three in four can make decisions for all of them. Variations are found at the national level for each type of decision. In some countries, older women are more likely to have the ability to say no to sex; while in other countries, the opposite is observed. In contrast, older women are more likely to make their own decisions on their health care in almost all of the countries with data available. More consistent disadvantages among less educated women, women living in poorer households, and women living in rural areas are found in the vast majority of the countries across all three components of the indicator. In summary, gaps still exist in women’s autonomy, even where high levels of individual decision-making are observed in some dimensions.

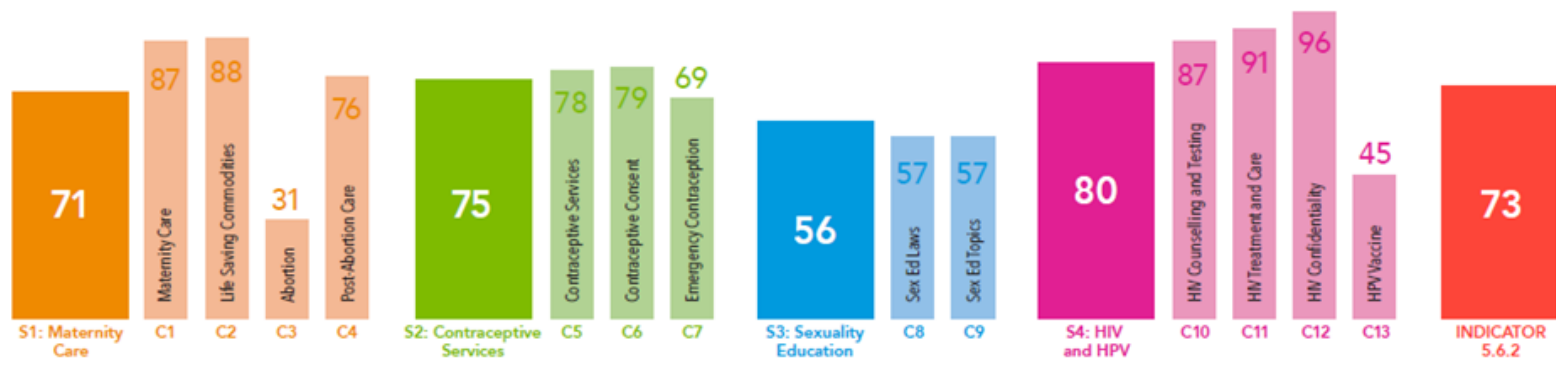
Critical to individuals’ ability to decide freely on their sexual and reproductive health and rights is the extent to which laws prevent or enable access to relevant sexual and reproductive health care and information. Among the 75 countries with complete data on 5.6.2, countries have in place, on average, 73 per cent of the laws and regulations needed to guarantee full and equal access to SRHR. The findings from these data are particularly encouraging when it comes to HIV: on average, countries have achieved 87 per cent of enabling laws and regulations for HIV counselling and test services; 91 per cent for HIV treatment and care services; and 96 per cent for HIV confidentiality. Meanwhile, countries have an average of 79 per cent of relevant enabling laws and regulations that stipulate full, free and informed consent of individuals before they receive contraceptive services, including sterilization. This indicates a mostly supportive protection framework from coerced or forced practices. Although laws and regulations exist to guarantee access to maternity care in 95 per cent of reporting countries, 9 per cent of these countries require a woman to be married to access those services. Access to contraceptive services is also restricted for a number of groups. In 12 per cent of reporting countries where laws protect access to contraceptive services, plural legal systems contradict the positive laws and regulations, 28 per cent of the countries have contraceptive restrictions based on a minimum age, 21 per cent have restrictions based on a requirement for third-party authorization and 6 per cent have restrictions based on marital status. Barriers are most prevalent regarding legal access to abortion. Although abortion is legal on some or all grounds in 93 per cent of reporting countries, a husband’s consent is required for married women to access the service in 28 per cent of these countries.

COVID-19 is likely to have a significant impact on women’s ability to make their own decisions on sexual and reproductive health care, although the specific impact is yet to be assessed. The pressure on the health care systems could put at risk the ability of health facilities to provide affordable, accessible, and good quality health care to women, including for sexual and reproductive health care and contraception. Potential financial hardship could prevent women from deciding on their own health care and the use of contraception. Taken together these issues will make it harder for women to exercise their reproductive autonomy. During the lockdown periods, women may find it harder to say no to sex to their husbands or partners due to increased tensions in the household related to health, finance, and social isolation.

**Proportion of women aged 15-49 years who make their own decisions regarding sexual and reproductive health and rights (including deciding on their own health care, deciding on the use of contraception; and can say no to sex); most recent data 2007-2020**



Extent to which countries have laws and regulations that guarantee full and equal access to women and men aged 15 years and older to sexual and reproductive health care, information and education, including Section (S1-S4) and Component (C1-C13) values, 2019 (per cent)



Note: Based on official responses to the United Nations 12th Inquiry among Governments on Population and Development. Data for SDG 5.6.2 are based on 75 countries with complete data; data for Sections are based as follows: 79 countries for Section 1 Maternity Care, 104 countries for Section 2 Contraceptive Services, 98 countries for Section 3 Sexuality Education, and 101 countries for Section 4 HIV and HPV.

Source: United Nations Population Fund, global databases, 2021.

Custodian agency(ies):

UNFPA

**Target 5.a: Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws**

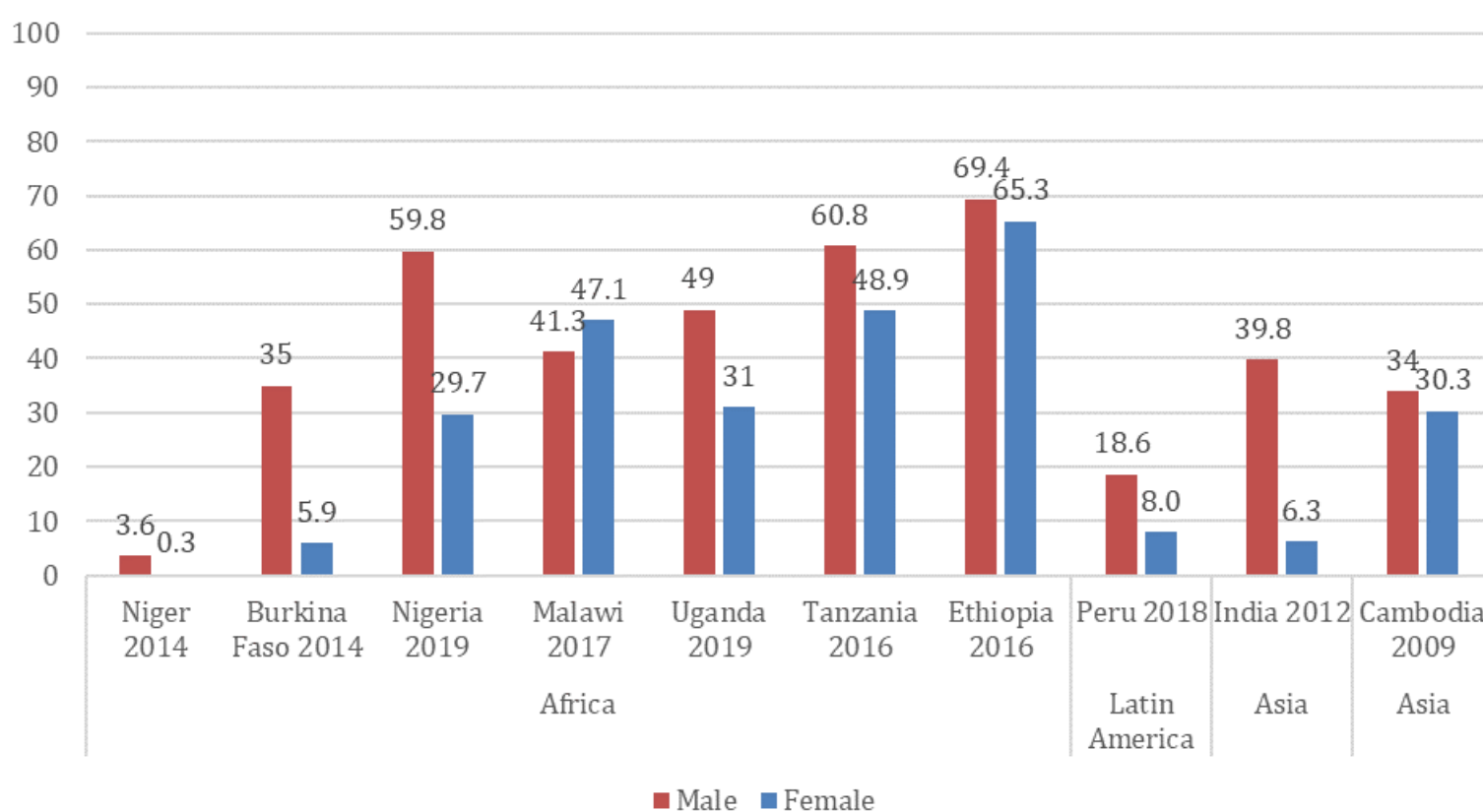
**Indicator 5.a.1: (a) Proportion of total agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex; and (b) share of women among owners or rights-bearers of agricultural land, by type of tenure**

**Substantial progress is still needed to realize women’s secure access to land**

Women’s land ownership and/or control is critical to achieving the economic dimension of gender equality, since land ownership gives rise to a host of benefits for women through an increase in their bargaining power within households and the economy. These benefits would not be restricted to women though; studies suggest that if women had equal access to land, poverty and food insecurity would be significantly reduced around the world.

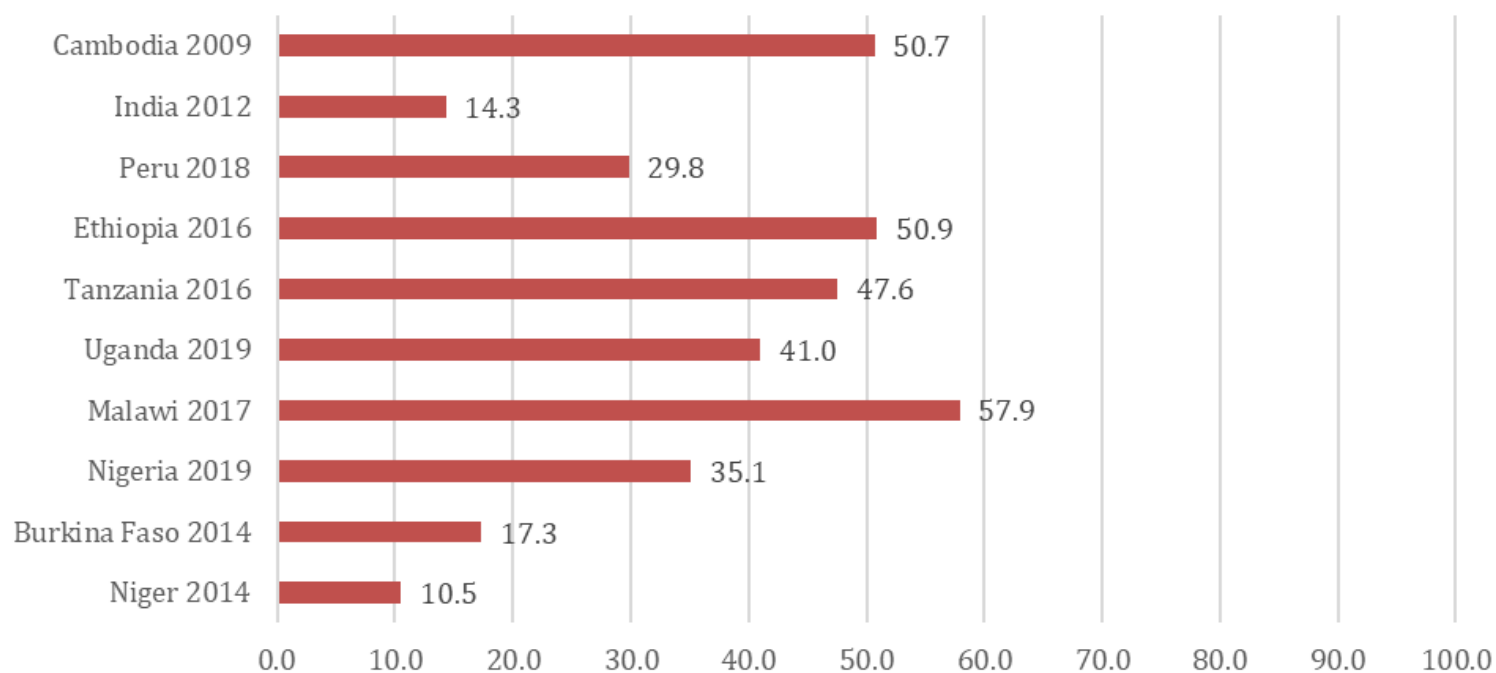
However, that vision is far from realized: data shows in most countries, less than 50 percent of men and women engaged in agriculture have ownership and/or secure tenure rights over agricultural land, and in 9 out of 10 countries assessed, relatively fewer women have such rights compared to their male counterparts. Moreover, although it is not always the case that male landowners outnumber women, this is by far the most prevalent situation, occurring in 7 out of ten countries. In five of these, male landowners outnumber women more than 2:1.

**Share of women and men in the adult agricultural population with ownership or secure rights over agricultural land**



Source: FAO

**Share of women among owners or rights holders**



Source: FAO

Custodian agency(ies):

FAO

## 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

### [Legal provisions included in national laws fail to provide sufficient guarantees for gender equality in ownership and/or control of land](#)

Legal provisions included in national laws representing various regions, as well as different religious and cultural contexts, show that frequently women's land rights are less protected than those of men. For instance, an analysis of 36 countries shows that while nearly 42 percent have integrated joint-registration provisions in their laws; in 39 percent of them, joint registration of property is mandatory, while only one out of 36 countries has established financial incentives to encourage it. Without the inclusion of women's names and rights on the land registration document, women's property rights remain insecure, especially in case of divorce from or death of their husband or partner.

The most positive features in legal frameworks guaranteeing women's land rights concern the management of marital property and inheritance rights. About 61 percent of countries in the sample have provisions establishing spousal consent requirements for land transactions and 69 percent equally protect the rights to inherit of married couples and son and daughters. However, persistent social and cultural norms constitute an important obstacle for exercising and claiming inheritance rights, in particular in those countries where the legal framework provides for the supremacy of personal status law and/or custom in inheritance matters.

Moreover, in countries, where customary law is recognized, very often the rights of women are not explicitly protected if customary law conflicts with the formal law. In addition, it is important to mention that women's property rights in informal unions are less protected in the law than those for married women, thereby leaving behind a large number of women. This is particularly relevant for issues concerning joint registration, consent for land transactions and inheritance rights.

Moreover, while some countries have adopted temporary special measures to support the realization of women's rights to land in the law and in practice, more needs to be done. Only 33 percent of the countries have established mandatory quotas to ensure women's participation in land governance institutions. Evidence shows that when women participate in decision making processes, it is more likely that their interests and priorities are considered. Finally, only six countries have provisions in their frameworks allocating financial resources for facilitating women's purchase of land.

The global COVID-19 pandemic is likely to worsen the situation for women's land rights. For instance, there are reports of women being forced to cede their land after the death of their husbands, exposed to internal pressures to relinquish their rights to more powerful family or community members and experiencing difficulties to access to mediation and judicial systems for recourse<sup>4</sup>.

#### [Custodian agency\(ies\):](#)

FAO

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<sup>4</sup> FAO. 2020. Protecting land and natural resources tenure rights in the era of COVID-19 by heeding the lessons from the past. Rome. <https://doi.org/10.4060/cb0706en>

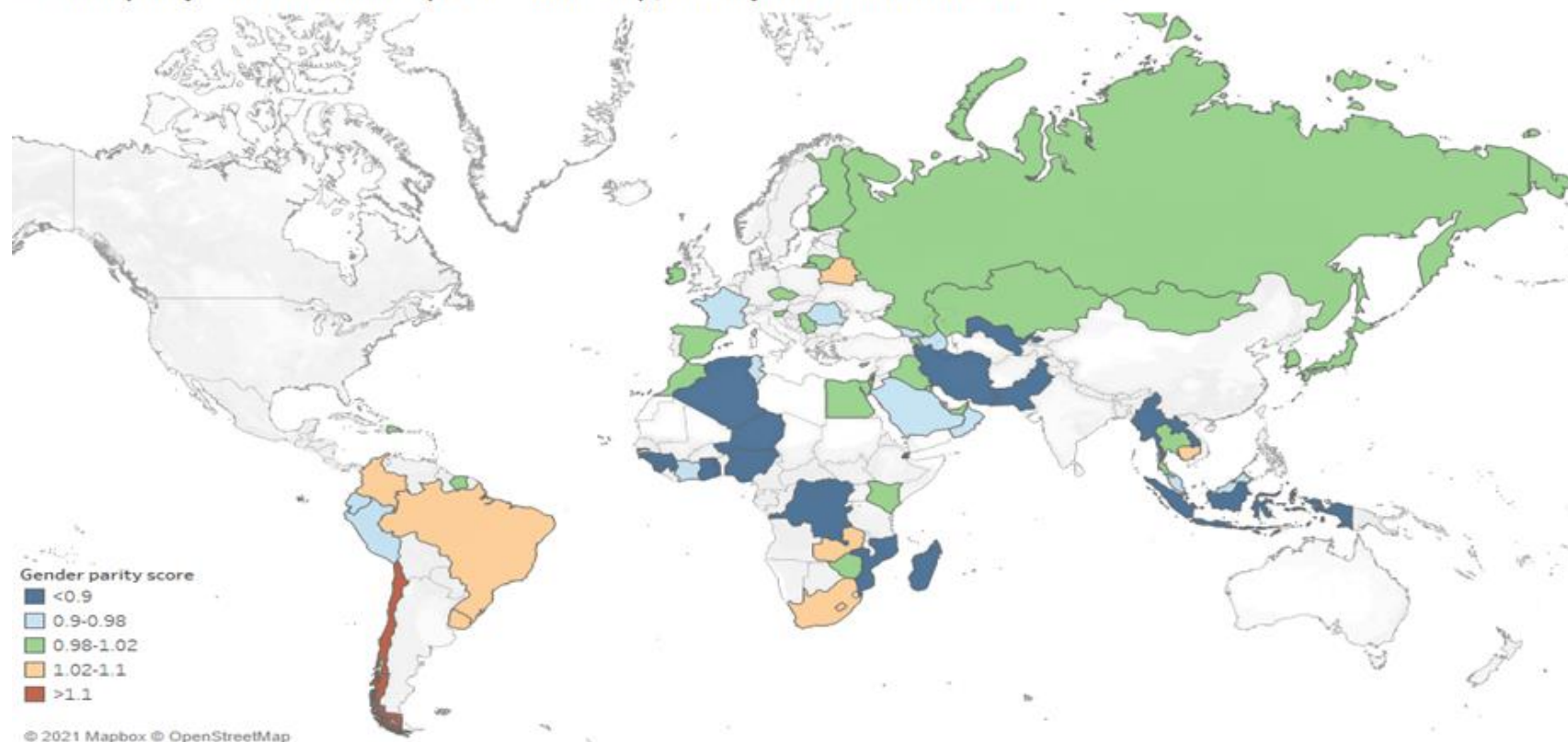
## Target 5.b: Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women

### Indicator 5.b.1: Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex

#### Gender gap persistent in mobile phone ownership

Ownership of mobile phones is an important tool to reduce gender inequality. Empowering more women with mobile phones has been shown to accelerate social and economic development. However, a gender gap for this indicator is persistent. In the 80 countries for which data are available in the timeframe 2017 to 2019, male mobile phone ownership was on average about 8.5 percentage points higher than female mobile phone ownership. In 31 of these 80 countries, the gender parity ratio, defined as female ownership divided by male ownership, was between 0.98 and 1.02, which we consider to be gender parity. In 13 countries, the gender parity ratio was above 1.02, meaning significantly more women than men own a mobile phone, but in 36 countries ownership was skewed towards men, in many cases quite severely. In most of the countries that had a large gender gap in mobile phone ownership, a large gender gap in Internet usage can be observed as well (indicator 17.8.1).

#### Gender parity score for mobile phone ownership, latest year available in 2017-2019\*



© 2021 Mapbox © OpenStreetMap

\* The gender parity score is calculated as the proportion of women who own a mobile phone divided by the proportion of men who own a mobile phone. A value smaller than 1 indicates a larger proportion among men than among women. A value greater than 1 indicates the opposite. Values between 0.98 and 1.02 reflect gender parity.

Note: The designations employed and the presentation of material on the two maps above do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of ITU and of the Secretariat of the ITU concerning the legal status of the country, territory, city or area or its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. The base map is the UNmap database of the United Nations Cartographic Section.

Source: ITU

#### Additional resources, press releases, etc. with links:

- Measuring digital development: Facts and figures 2020: <https://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/facts/default.aspx>

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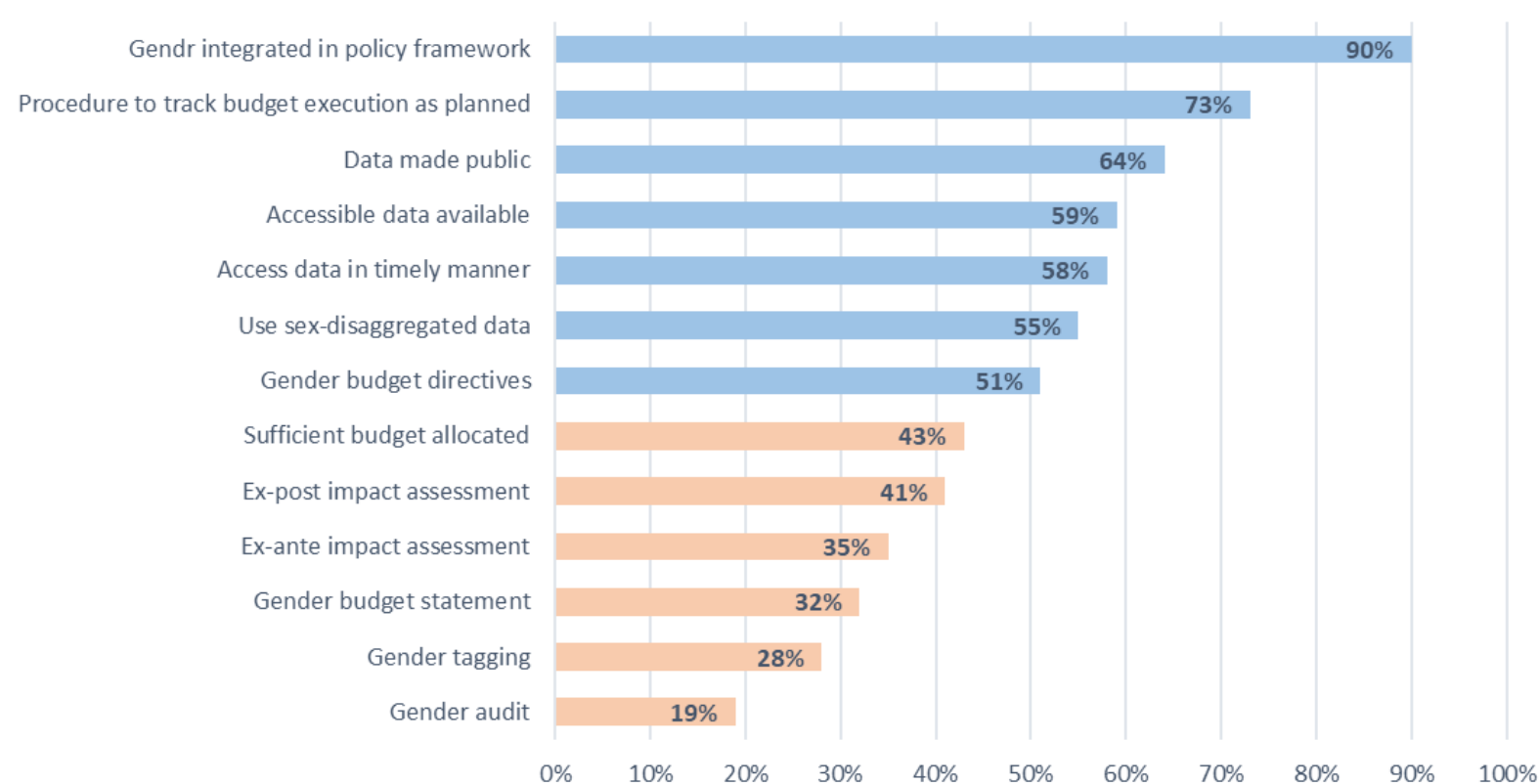
**Target 5.c: Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels**

**Indicator 5.c.1: Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women’s empowerment**

**Country systems require strengthening to target financing for gender responsive COVID-19 recovery**

2018 data from 69 countries and areas indicate that despite progress in integrating gender into public finance management, a majority of national systems (81%) still require improvements to analyze, track and evaluate gender responsive allocations and expenditures. Governments can strengthen their systems through the introduction and sector-wide application of gender responsive budgeting (GRB). This is all the more pressing in the COVID-19 context, when fiscal space is highly constrained and budget decisions are being made rapidly, often without sufficient consideration and integration of gender analysis. GRB offers a set of tools to strengthen national systems so that budget resources are better targeted to policies and programmes that advance gender equality, including as part of COVID-19 response and recovery. Specifically, countries can strengthen how gender analysis informs budget decision-making through increased use of ex-ante and ex-post gender impact assessments. Based on available data only 35% and 41% of countries respectively have implemented such measures. Expenditure tracking, including through gender budget tagging (implemented by 28% of reporting countries) and use of gender budget statements (32%) is also vital. This can be buttressed by budget oversight and performance review via gender budget audits (implemented by only 19% of reporting countries). The application of these tools enables robust analysis of the gender dimensions of COVID-19, including impacts of budgetary decisions on women and men.

**Proportion of countries that meet each SDG Indicator 5.c.1 requirement**



Source: UN Women

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