

Book

Gender equality and the sustainable development goals in Asia and the Pacific : baseline and pathways for transformative change by 2030

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Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals in Asia and the Pacific

Baseline and pathways for transformative change by 2030

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Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals in Asia and the Pacific

Baseline and pathways for
transformative change by 2030

Foreword

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development places gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls at the heart of its implementation with its promise to “leave no one behind”. It provides an unprecedented opportunity to transform the lives of women and girls and to catalyse progress towards sustainable development in all dimensions: economic, social and environmental. With its universal and transformative mandate, the 2030 Agenda outlines a set of 17 integrated Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and targets to achieve our common aspiration for a more equitable and inclusive world.

The Asian Development Bank (ADB) and the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women) signed a Memorandum of Understanding in June 2016, in which the two organizations pledged to strengthen their partnership and cooperation to promote gender equality and women’s empowerment in Asia and the Pacific. In this spirit, *Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in Asia and the Pacific: Baseline and Pathways for Transformative Change by 2030* is a joint undertaking by ADB and the UN Women Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. It reflects the high-level commitment of both organizations to supporting national efforts and regional cooperation to accelerate progress towards gender equality and gender-responsive implementation of the SDGs.

As countries have embarked on this collective journey, this publication provides the first assessment of the current situation of women and girls in the region, based on available and comparable data from official national and international sources. It establishes a baseline for governments and policy makers to monitor and accelerate progress towards gender equality commitments in the SDGs, which are captured in the stand-alone SDG 5 and as a cross-cutting priority across all SDGs. The report identifies data gaps and underscores the necessity of heightened urgency to improve production and use of gender statistics for evidence-based SDG localization. It also provides valuable insight into key catalysts and policy recommendations to assist countries to achieve gender equality by 2030. The key to success lies in coherent and coordinated efforts to harness the synergies between achieving gender equality and realising all of the SDGs.

Gender equality must be addressed in its own right and as a catalyst of progress across the SDGs. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development calls for integrated responses to the social, economic and environmental challenges facing us today. This means going beyond conventional approaches to development, leveraging effective cross-sectoral partnerships and new financing models, and harnessing innovative technology that will bring about concrete changes to the lives of women and girls. Overcoming deeply entrenched gender inequality would transform the world, empowering everyone to realise their full potential and live a life of dignity. This publication provides invaluable evidence to support this effort to make gender equality and sustainable development a reality for all.



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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AIDS	acquired immune deficiency syndrome
ART	antiretroviral therapy
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CIF	Climate Investment Fund
CRVS	civil registration and vital statistics
CSE	comprehensive sexuality education
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FIES	Food Insecurity Experience Scale
GDP	gross domestic product
GHG	greenhouse gas
GMD	Global Micro Database
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
HPV	human papilloma virus
IAGE	Inter-Agency and Expert Group on the SDGs
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
ICT	information, communications and technology
ILO	International Labour Organization
INDC	Intended Nationally Determined Contribution
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
Lao PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
LDC	Least Developed Country
LGBTQI	lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer and intersex
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NAPA	national adaptation programmes of action
NCD	non-communicable disease
ODA	official development assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PMCT	prevention of mother-to-child transmission
PoA	Cairo Programme of Action

RAI	Rural Access Index
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
STEM	science, technology, engineering and mathematics
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
SPI	Social Protection Index
STI	sexually transmitted infection
TFR	total fertility rate
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNFCCC	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
WASH	water, sanitation and hygiene
WFR	wanted fertility rate
WHO	World Health Organization

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Executive Summary

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development calls for a new and transformative vision. It establishes a set of 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which are integrated and indivisible, with gender equality as a central priority. While the region has made progress in reducing poverty overall, socio-economic gains have not been equally shared. The 2030 Agenda has been agreed as the Asia and the Pacific region is seeing both persistent and newly emerging development challenges. These include multi-dimensional inequality, climate change and natural disasters, rising urbanization, demographic shifts, disruptive technologies, and the emergence of extremist groups and ideologies.¹ Understanding how these trends can impede or enable progress towards gender equality and sustainable development is vital for effective SDG implementation. The 2030 Agenda is a commitment by all countries and stakeholders to take a new direction towards sustainable development through stronger universal action, new partnerships, adequate financing and an integrated approach to achieving all goals. Gender equality and women's empowerment are addressed as explicit priorities through the stand-alone Goal 5 and by mainstreaming gender equality across the SDGs. In recognizing multi-dimensional inequality within and between countries, the 2030 Agenda is a commitment to "leaving no one behind" (Chapter 1).

The report provides a baseline for monitoring progress on gender equality within the SDG framework (Chapter 2) and identifies priority actions towards achieving gender equality in the region (Chapter 7). It provides the first assessment for Asia and the Pacific of how the 2030 Agenda is to be achieved by addressing gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. ADB and UN Women Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific jointly produced this report to assist governments, civil society, women's organizations and key stakeholders in the region to enhance gender equality and sustainable development outcomes by 2030. The report is informed by extensive regional consultations, involving key national stakeholders from planning ministries, national women's machineries, statistical offices, experts and UN agencies. It identifies a core list of 54 gender-specific indicators and an additional 34 gender-relevant indicators from the official SDG indicators list, through which the region can measure progress towards achieving gender

equality and sustainable development. The report includes statistical tables presenting available data in 57 countries and economies in the region, excluding India. It emphasizes the challenges posed by limited data availability and comparability across all the Goals, particularly Goal 5 on gender equality. The report calls for better gender statistics and disaggregated data to enable the SDGs to be effectively monitored and implemented. It also puts the spotlight on four transformative policy areas and highlights key policy actions that can make a fundamental difference to the achievement of sustainable development (Chapters 3 to 6).

Gender equality is central to sustainable development, but where do we stand in the region?

While Asia and the Pacific has made progress in some areas of gender equality, available data against the SDG indicators highlights significant inequality for women and girls. Moreover, major gaps remain in data availability and comparability in the region. Of the 85 unique gender-related SDG indicators used in this report, only 26 per cent are available for more than two thirds of the countries or territories in the region, as defined in this report, and 41 per cent have no relevant regional data.² Only 3 of the 14 Goal 5 indicators are classified as "Tier I", with data supposedly being regularly produced by countries and with agreed methodologies, however regional data is widely available for just one of these three indicators.³ The other 11 Goal 5 indicators are classified as "Tier II" or "Tier III", because data are not being regularly produced by countries, or the indicators are under methodological or conceptual development. As such, significant investment is needed to monitor gender equality in the SDGs.

The following box provides insights into the situation of gender equality in the region, drawn from available data.

Box 1: Some highlights of the baseline for gender equality in Asia and the Pacific



- Goal 3 recognizes that gender differences in health outcomes are driven by biological differences and social determinants such as gender roles, access to resources, voice and agency.
- While the maternal mortality ratio dropped from 178 to 86 per 100,000 live births between 2000 and 2015, maternal deaths persist and progress has been largely uneven. In 2015, almost 92 per cent of all maternal deaths in the region – around 78,000 – occurred in just 12 countries, with South and South-West Asia registering the largest share and the highest total due to their large populations.
- HIV incidence increased across the region between 2000 and 2015, from 23 to 29 per 100,000 men, and from 10 to 13 per 100,000 women aged 15–49. Women are biologically more susceptible to HIV transmission, which, combined with gendered power dynamics in relationships and violence against women, puts them at particular risk.
- More girls survive infancy than boys but the sex ratio is skewed for some countries in the region. This points to the **discriminatory practice of son bias and daughter devaluation**, which leads to sex-selective abortion, neglect and deliberate infanticide. The region has some of the countries with the **highest incidence of missing women** in the world.



- Goal 4 includes a comprehensive set of targets that moves beyond gender parity in education to focus on quality education, which has important gender-related implications for economic opportunity, but large gaps remain in country coverage and data points over time. Insufficient disaggregation of data remains a challenge to understanding other important dimensions of inequality and discrimination beyond sex (including religion, ethnicity and race).
- More girls achieve proficiency in maths and reading than boys in most countries. On the other hand, girls are less likely than boys to be in organized learning before primary school in the region.
- In the Asia and the Pacific region, 22 of 28 countries reported integrating sexuality education at secondary level, but there is a lack of information about its quality and content.



- One in two women has experienced **physical and/or sexual violence** from an intimate partner in the last 12 months in countries across the region for which data is available.
- South and South-West Asia have the highest rates of child marriage in the region and in the world, where **1 in 3 women are married** or in a union by the age of 18.
- Women and girls spend as much as 11 times more of their day than men and boys on **unpaid care and domestic work**, including cooking, cleaning and collecting water and fuel.
- In terms of **access to economic and productive resources**, women have less access than men to financial services and productive assets, including land, capital, agricultural extension and training, and information technologies.
- Women's representation in decision making and leadership roles remains limited: fewer than 1 in 5 parliamentarians in the region are women.



- Economic gains made in the region have not equally benefitted women and men. Asia and the Pacific is the only global region in which women's labour force participation is falling – from 56 per cent in 1990 to 49 per cent in 2013. Women are more represented than men in informal non-agricultural jobs in half of Asia and the Pacific. Even in formal jobs, they still earn much less than men.



- Girls aged under 15 are over-represented among those living in slums. A lack of **housing and security of tenure** increases their vulnerability to eviction and exploitation.



- Women are more likely to be the victims of trafficking than men. In five of eight countries in the region with data on human trafficking for both men and women aged 18 years or older, the victimization rate per 100,000 population was much higher for women than men. For children, in all five countries for which data are available, girls are more vulnerable than boys.

Accelerating progress towards sustainable development – putting a spotlight on four transformative policy areas for the advancement of gender equality

The report focuses on four transformative policy areas. These areas were selected because they are acutely relevant to achieving sustainable development in the region, underscore the strongly integrated nature of the SDGs, and highlight the potential to catalyse change across the SDGs and in the lives of women and girls. They are: (i) Realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights (Chapter 3); (ii) Recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work (Chapter 4); (iii) Eliminating violence against women and girls (Chapter 5); and (iv) Empowering women to build climate resilience and reduce disaster risks (Chapter 6). A failure to address these four critical areas risks undermining the achievement of multiple SDGs, and indeed, the entire 2030 Agenda.

1. Realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights as a catalyst for achieving sustainable development

The ability of women and girls to make their own decisions regarding their sexual and reproductive health is critical for achieving gender equality and sustainable development. The report emphasizes the synergies and interlinkages between realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights (Goal 5) and the achievement of other SDGs in the region. Expanding sexual and reproductive health and rights for women and girls will enable them to enjoy other social and economic opportunities. Fewer unintended pregnancies, greater family savings and productivity would improve maternal and child health (Goal 3), nutrition (Goal 2), household living standards (Goal 1) and school attendance (Goal 4). This could also catalyse greater benefits for communities and the economy at large.

Ensuring universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights in the region includes meeting the unmet need for modern contraception, improving access to safe abortion, promoting sexual and reproductive health and rights for adolescents and marginalized communities, and tackling HIV/AIDS.

The ability to make informed reproductive choices and use modern contraception for family planning can empower women. Even though the use of modern contraceptive methods has increased in Asia and the Pacific, gaps remain between the total fertility rate and wanted fertility rate (in countries for which data is available such as Pakistan, Samoa, and Vanuatu), indicating that women's need for family planning in

the region remains unfulfilled. Furthermore, evidence proves that when abortion is made legal, services for women tend to be safer and more widely accessible, resulting in improved health outcomes. Nevertheless, in 2014 an estimated 6 per cent of maternal deaths in Asia were attributed to unsafe abortion. Only 18 countries allow abortion on request, but even when legally permitted, safe abortion and services are not accessible for many women in the region.⁴ Factors contributing to unintended pregnancy among adolescents include the lack of comprehensive sexuality education, discriminatory gender norms and unequal power relations that constrain the capacity of adolescent girls to negotiate safe sex. One of the drivers of high rates of teenage pregnancy, particularly in South Asia, is early marriage. Bangladesh has one of the highest rates of child marriage, with 52 per cent of girls married before the age of 18. Conservative interpretations of culture and religious text, which are misused to entrench traditional gender roles (particularly the role of women and girls in the family, their rights over their bodies and sexuality), continue to be a challenge in the region.

2. Recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work for inclusive growth and sustainable development

One of the significant constraints on women's economic empowerment is the disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work they undertake.

Across four Asian countries (Bangladesh, the People's Republic of China, Mongolia and Pakistan) for which a breakdown of data is available, around 90 per cent of women perform unpaid care and domestic work, compared to 31 to 75 per cent of men. Redistributing women's disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work (Goal 5) will help unleash their economic potential and enhance other development outcomes, including increased time for women to engage in decent work and economic opportunities (Goal 8), participate in education (Goal 4), politics and leadership (Goal 5), and undertake self-care and leisure activities. Over 20 per cent of women in the region cite work/family balance as a major challenge to labour participation. Approximately 83 per cent of Bangladeshi women and 73 per cent of Pakistani women report that responsibility for domestic work is the main reason they are not engaging in paid work. Apart from limiting participation in the labour market, unpaid care and domestic work has an impact on the type and quality of work that women engage in, and on their wages. Cross-country analysis in the region shows that countries in which women perform a higher share of unpaid care work have a higher share of women in part-time and vulnerable jobs. Investing in infrastructure and services (Goal 9) helps to ease the unpaid care and domestic responsibilities of women and girls, and expand their choices to lift themselves and their families out of poverty (Goal 1).

It is important to make care work more visible through statistics. Time-use data can reveal the details of how and for how long individuals spend their time on paid and unpaid activities. However, less than half of the countries in the region have collected time-use data at least once, and only six have mainstreamed time-use surveys in their national statistical systems and collected the data regularly.

Demographic changes in the region are adding new dimensions to the issue of care as people live longer and increase the demand for care and pressure on health services. Demographic transition is also unfolding in a context where patterns of urbanization and migration are rapidly changing the safety net of the family as a traditional source of care. As such, **investment in affordable, accessible and quality services for child, disability and elderly care is an urgent priority** to reduce and redistribute unpaid care work which is predominantly carried out by women.

3. Eliminating violence against women and girls as a cross-cutting priority for sustainable development

Ending violence against women and girls means addressing the most serious manifestation of gender inequality and discrimination that deprives women and girls of their basic rights and opportunities. Addressing this violence would widen the opportunities for women to complete their education (Goal 4), participate in paid employment (Goal 8), and increase their income (Goal 1), which can also reduce their social and economic vulnerability. Furthermore, it would reduce women's risks of physical harm, which can lead to poor health and well-being (Goal 3). Violence against women and girls in public spaces, particularly sexual violence and harassment, is an everyday occurrence (Goal 11). Based on data for 39 countries, intimate partner violence is a widespread form of violence and the most common in the region. The lifetime prevalence of physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence ranges from 6.1 per cent in Singapore to 67.6 per cent in Kiribati. Some of the highest rates of this violence are in Pacific countries. Intimate partner/family-related violence is a major cause of female homicide, with almost half of all female victims (47 per cent) killed by a family member or intimate partner, compared to 6 per cent of male victims (Goal 16). Violence against lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer and intersex (LGBTQI) adolescents and adults goes largely undocumented in the region.

Entrenched attitudes and social norms around gender roles underlie the persistence of violence against women and girls. Empowering them, and engaging men and boys, are key to addressing this issue. Social constructions of masculinity and manhood play a central role in the violence, and men and boys have a positive role to play in ending it. Research reveals that in many societies, both men and women, young and old, subscribe to attitudes and social norms that justify wife beating on various grounds. Key areas of

intervention that are proving promising in preventing violence in the region include: community mobilization to empower women and engage with men to change gender stereotypes and norms at community level; prioritizing education and youth engagement to prevent violence in schools; and utilizing policy and legal reform to address structural inequality.

4. Empowering women to build climate resilience and reduce disaster risks for sustainable development

Asia and the Pacific is the region most vulnerable to climate change and disaster impacts. Climate-related disasters now account for more than 80 per cent of all disaster events in the region. Women and girls are disproportionately affected due to underlying gender inequality and socio-economic disadvantage. Where sex-disaggregated data is available, it shows that women's mortality rates in major disasters in the region are much higher than men's, for example, in Indonesia due to the 2004 tsunami (77 per cent) and in Solomon Islands due to the 2014 flood (96 per cent). Women and girls are particularly dependent on climate-sensitive natural resources for their livelihoods (Goal 1) and are overrepresented among people who are food insecure (Goal 2). Women smallholder farmers and fishers tend to have less adaptive capacity to cope with the impacts of climate change and disasters, including the adverse impact on the quality and availability of water (Goal 6) and coastal and marine resources (Goal 14), due to their lack of knowledge and access and control over land and other productive resources (Goal 5). Women's unpaid care and domestic work responsibilities (Goal 5) tend to increase due to negative climate impacts. During and in the aftermath of disasters, many women and girls face heightened risk of violence, which is exacerbated where disasters cause significant population displacement, for instance in the 2010 floods in Pakistan.

Women are important agents of change. Their role in mitigating and adapting to climate change risks must be further supported. Critical to this end is investing in more robust data and evidence for better planning, monitoring and implementation of gender-responsive climate action. Sex-disaggregated data on the population affected by climate shocks, including mortality rates, is essential. Women need to be empowered as key actors in tackling climate change with improved capacity to prevent, prepare for and recover from climate change and its related disaster impacts, for instance through active involvement in early warning systems, sustainable land and ecosystem management, and access to recovery services and products such as micro-insurance. Other critical actions include stronger engagement of women in renewable energy and energy efficiency, and ensuring that women benefit from the expansion of green jobs (for example, women-led biogas mason enterprises in Viet Nam), as well as the integration of the gender perspective into climate finance.

Key pathways and policy actions for transformative change

The report brings together key recommendations centred around how gender equality issues can be tackled across the SDGs to support the attainment of the 2030 Agenda. It proposes key policy actions across sectors to advance a gender-responsive approach to SDG monitoring and implementation at national and sub-national level. These actions require a fundamental shift towards development approaches that recognize the synergies and interlinkages between achieving the SDGs and gender equality and women's empowerment.

Removing discrimination from legal frameworks and promoting change in social norms

- Ensure comprehensive constitutional and legal frameworks that guarantee gender equality and remove discriminatory provisions. For instance, national laws should prohibit practices that violate the sexual and reproductive health and rights of women and girls such as the requirements of spousal or parental consent to receive health services, and early and forced marriage (Chapter 3); and laws and national action plans must be adopted that criminalize all forms of violence against women and girls, including marital rape (Chapter 5). Similarly, laws that guarantee women's equal rights to productive resources and assets, including inheritance rights, is critical for their economic empowerment (Chapter 4).
- Transform discriminatory social norms and practices in favour of gender equality. This has been emphasized in all four transformative policy areas. For example, changing social norms around the traditional role of families can lead to greater acceptance of redistributing responsibility for elderly care from, especially, unpaid women family members to paid non-family care providers. This can be driven by government policies, such as in Japan and the Republic of Korea (Chapter 4). Similarly, engaging men and boys is an effective strategy for changing social norms to prevent violence against women and girls (Chapter 5).

Strengthening the production, analysis and use of gender data and statistics

- Promote enabling policies and legal environments to prioritize gender statistics, including disaggregation of data to better understand intersectional issues related to gender inequality (such as age, ethnicity, sexual identity and geographic location) to ensure "no one is left behind", especially marginalised groups of women and girls.
- Strengthen the capacity of national statistical systems and collaboration between national statistical offices, women's organizations and policymakers, to ensure the quality and integrity

of data, including through methodological development, data dissemination and the use of data to influence policy making, and hold decision-makers accountable.

- Identify new data sources, including "big data", which offer promising potential to reduce data gaps and garner new insights into otherwise unmeasurable areas.

Gender-responsive institutions and localisation to mainstream and prioritise gender equality across all policy sectors

- Localize the 2030 Agenda through inclusive planning processes at national and local level, including the adoption of nationally specific gender-based targets and indicators with robust monitoring and review structures.
- Institutionalize national coordination mechanisms that include various stakeholders (including key government, public and private institutions, civil society and women's groups), new partnerships and approaches to support progress towards gender equality across sectors. For instance, Thailand has established a National Committee for Sustainable Development. Similarly, Azerbaijan has established a National Coordination Council for Sustainable Development, which has organized consultations with a range of stakeholders, including women's civil society organizations.

Ensuring women's active and equal participation, representation and leadership at all levels

- Enhance women's voice and representation in decision-making to set national SDG priorities, and in SDG implementation and monitoring. This should especially involve women from the most marginalized groups, to ensure, for example, gender analysis in the voluntary national reviews, and gender-responsive management of resources to combat climate change and disaster risks (Chapter 6).

Increasing financing and investment

- Strengthen participatory and gender-responsive budgeting, social audits and public hearings to promote the transparency and accountability of spending decisions and assessment of their gender impacts.
- Make gender a priority in domestic resource mobilization. Macroeconomic policies, including tax policy, government expenditure and debt management, directly affect the level of resources available to achieve gender equality. For instance, the Government of Sri Lanka has reduced defence and security expenditure in order to increase social spending.
- Engage the private sector in the financing and delivery of the 2030 Agenda, in compliance with human rights and environmental and labour standards in business practices.

PART I:

GENDER EQUALITY AND THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS: WHERE DO WE STAND IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC?

A woman in a blue sari is flying a pink kite in a refugee camp. The background shows a sandy landscape with several small, makeshift huts and other people in the distance. The sky is clear and blue. The woman is smiling and looking up at the kite. The kite has a pink body and a long, flowing pink tail. She is holding a wooden spool in her left hand. The overall scene is one of joy and resilience in a challenging environment.

Chapter 1

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: An opportunity for transformative change for women and girls

Photo: UN Women/Allison Joyce

The 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals

With gender equality reflected as both a stand-alone goal and cross-cutting priority in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development provides a significant opportunity to accelerate progress. This requires placing gender equality at the heart of implementation to transform the lives of women and girls across Asia and the Pacific and to catalyse progress towards achieving sustainable development in all its dimensions: economic, environmental and social.

Box 1.1 Sustainable Development Goals in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development



No Poverty

End poverty in all its forms everywhere



Zero Hunger

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



Good Health and Well-being

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



Quality Education

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



Gender Equality

Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls



Clean Water and Sanitation

Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all



Affordable and Clean Energy

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



Decent Work and Economic Growth

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



Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure

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



Reduced Inequalities

Reduce inequality within and among countries



Sustainable Cities and Communities

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



Responsible Consumption and Production

Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns



Climate Action

Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts



Life Below Water

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



Life on Land

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



Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions

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



Partnerships for the Goals

Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development

Adopted in September 2015, the 2030 Agenda reflects over two years of consultation and discussion among governments, regional and multilateral institutions, civil society groups including women's organizations, academia, the private sector, and millions of citizens to define a new direction for global development.

The 2030 Agenda is a plan of action to take the transformative steps needed to shift the world to an equal, sustainable and resilient path, with a commitment to leave no one behind. It establishes a set of 17 Goals to implement this vision (Box 1.1). These goals encompass 169 targets that are monitored by 232 indicators to track progress on implementation. The 2030 Agenda builds on its predecessor, the Millennium Declaration, and its subsequent eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) – the global development framework that expired in 2015. The SDGs have moved significantly beyond the MDGs by addressing the complex and urgent challenges of poverty, growing inequality, climate change, conflict and fragility. The SDGs are grounded in human rights with a commitment to ensure dignity and respect for all.

The SDGs are universal: All countries in the world, developing and developed economies alike, have committed to implementing the 17 goals. The concept of universality also reflects a commitment to global and regional cooperation and learning to address common challenges. This is particularly important for Asia and the Pacific given the different levels of development across the region.

A unique feature of the 2030 Agenda is the principle “leave no one behind”: a call to action that no goal will be considered to have been achieved if it is not achieved for all in society; progress in national averages is not enough. Each Goal includes targets that not only outline time-bound commitments, but also commit to progress on key enabling factors and means of implementation, such as new data, technology and resource mobilization, which are needed to achieve positive outcomes.

The regional context for gender equality and sustainable development

The 2030 Agenda provides significant momentum to accelerate progress on gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls, through the stand-alone Goal 5 and the gender equality targets across the other Goals. While the 2030 Agenda reflects a new set of commitments to achieving gender equality in Asia and the Pacific, it stands on the shoulders of previous intergovernmental commitments that highlight areas for endorsing gender equality within the region (Box 1.2).

While Asia and the Pacific has made progress in some areas of gender equality, inequalities for women and girls remain stark across the region on a broad range of indicators (see Part II). The region has a disproportionate share of women in vulnerable work, women bear an unequal share of unpaid care work, there are unacceptably high levels of violence against women and harmful practices, women have poor access to quality sexual and reproductive health services, and there are low levels of women in multiple arenas of decision-making.¹ Underlying these gaps are entrenched discriminatory laws and social norms and practices which shape economic, political and social life in the public and private spheres.

Gender inequality in the region is shaped by a range of broader social, economic, political and environmental trends, including those related to increasing income inequality, more frequent natural disasters, demographic shifts, the spread of technology and the growing influence of extremist groups. Understanding how these trends can impede or enable progress towards gender equality and sustainable development is vital for the implementation of the SDGs.

Box 1.2 Building on the Asia and the Pacific regional commitments to gender equality

Prior to the adoption of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, governments in the Asia and Pacific region have long enshrined commitments to gender equality.

- The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Charter reflects the importance of women in leadership by including the provision that “gender equality” be duly considered in the appointments of the Secretary-General and the four Deputy Secretaries-General.
- The Pacific Islands Forum committed in its Pacific Leaders Gender Equality Declaration to accelerate efforts to close the gender gap in the sub-region, including the strengthening of consultative mechanisms with civil society, enhancing women's representation in leadership, and “temporary special measures” such as inclusive design features, targets and quotas.
- In 2014, the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) renewed its partnership with UN Women for the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment in the sub-region.

While the region has made progress in reducing poverty overall, economic gains have not been equally shared, resulting in high levels of **income inequality** in the region, which, as measured by the Gini Index or the Palma Index, has remained high (above the world average) and even increased in the People's Republic of China, Indonesia, the Philippines and the Russian Federation, among other countries.² Entrenched exclusion and disadvantage as a result of inequality pose significant risks to progress in social, economic and environmental development. From a gender perspective, the drivers of women's economic inequality include unpaid care work, discriminatory social norms and women's lack of voice and agency, which are priorities for the implementation of the SDGs.³

The Asia and the Pacific region is particularly vulnerable to the impacts of **climate change** in the form of unprecedented shocks and stresses, and in the way floods and droughts can devastate urban and rural land and livelihoods. Countries in the region feature heavily on the list of those most vulnerable to natural disasters and hazards. Over the last decade, natural disasters in the region have affected around 1.3 billion people.⁴ **Natural disasters and hazards** have a significant impact on gender equality and sustainable development. Those living in areas more prone to environmental hazards are among the most marginalized populations. Poor women and a significant portion of the region's population rely on natural resources for their livelihoods and well-being. The impacts of environmental disasters and shocks often intensify gender inequality, as women are disproportionately affected (see Part II).

The region is also seeing several **demographic shifts**, which have implications for gender equality and sustainable development. Rising urbanization is a key trend in the region. Current projections estimate that one half of the region's population will be urban residents by 2018.⁵ While urbanization can provide economic opportunities for those migrating from rural areas, rapid urbanization places increased pressure on infrastructure and basic services in cities. From a gender perspective, urbanization can potentially expand women's economic opportunities; however, challenges in cities around housing, health services and safety can have disproportionate negative impacts on women.⁶

The region is also experiencing demographic shifts in different ways. Of the 38 countries and territories in the region with data available, 13 are experiencing a "youth bulge", where 20 per cent or more of the population is between 15 and 24 years old. Another 11 countries and territories are ageing rapidly, where at least 14 per cent of the population is aged 60 years and above. Others are seeing an expanding share of working-age people.⁷ These shifts have implications for sustainable development in terms of the availability of decent work, social protection coverage and pressure on services and infrastructure.⁸

Population ageing has two important implications for gender equality. First, women are likely to make up a greater share of ageing populations in countries across the region, due to their longer life expectancy. Yet, due to their poorer labour market outcomes (for example, vulnerable and part-time employment, career breaks due to childbirth and child-rearing), the gender



Photo: ADB/Eric Sales

gap in pensions and other forms of social protection risks being exacerbated without immediate policy attention.⁹ Second, it increases the demand for elderly care, which can act as both a barrier (women being the main providers of care for ageing family members, which is often unpaid work) and an opportunity (skills development and employment opportunities) for women in the region (see Chapter 4).

Increased connectivity and the rise of **new technologies** present significant opportunities for women's empowerment. Some 45 per cent of the population in the region has access to the Internet through mobile telephones, and this is expected to increase to 70 per cent by 2020.¹⁰ Evidence shows that technology has the potential to increase women's empowerment, for example by enabling autonomy over financial decisions, expanding access to financial services through fintech,¹¹ or opening new job opportunities in the "gig economy".¹² However, technological advances also present new risks for gender equality, with online bullying, harassment and exploitation emerging as policy and regulatory concerns. Women remain underrepresented in most skilled jobs in the technology sector, reflecting inequality in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) subject choices and careers.¹³ Moreover, as automation increases production efficiency, it also risks eliminating the jobs typically held by women. Again, these issues on the horizon will require a response today to avert new technologies widening, and not reducing, gender gaps.

Finally, the pursuit of gender equality is being threatened across many countries in the region by the growing emergence and **influence of extremist groups and ideologies**, which seek to scale back gender equality efforts.¹⁴ The influence of extremism and radicalization are manifest in diverse forms across diverse contexts. However, a common feature is the misuse of religion, tradition and culture to curtail women's human rights and entrench stereotypical gender roles, particularly in relation to women and girls' role in the family, their rights over their bodies and sexuality, and their right to participate in public life, including in educational institutions, labour markets and politics.¹⁵ In some contexts, these forces have reshaped laws, state institutions and social norms related to gender equality and restricted spaces for the work of civil society and women's organizations, presenting a significant challenge for achieving gender equality and the SDGs.

Against the background of these regional issues, the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs are an important framework for tackling gender inequality and broader sustainable development challenges.

Box 1.3 Gender equality: A stand-alone Goal and cross-cutting priority in the 2030 Agenda

The achievement of full human potential and of sustainable development is not possible if one half of humanity continues to be denied its full human rights and opportunities. Women and girls must enjoy equal access to quality education, economic resources and political participation as well as equal opportunities with men and boys for employment, leadership and decision-making at all levels. We will work for a significant increase in investments to close the gender gap and strengthen support for institutions in relation to gender equality and the empowerment of women at the global, regional and national levels. All forms of discrimination and violence against women and girls will be eliminated, including through the engagement of men and boys. The systematic mainstreaming of a gender perspective in the implementation of the 2030 Agenda is crucial.

Source: United Nations, *Transforming Our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, p. 6, paragraph 20

The gender equality commitments in the 2030 Agenda represent a significant step forward from the MDGs. Gender equality issues in the MDGs were narrowly framed and many critical issues were missing. The gender equality commitments in the SDGs build on these important issues with a more comprehensive package of targets.

The 2030 Agenda underscores progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls as a precondition for the achievement of the entire agenda. The SDGs seek to achieve gender equality through a twin-track approach: addressing gender equality as an explicit priority through the stand-alone Goal 5 on gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls, and mainstreaming gender equality across the SDGs. Gender equality targets build on existing international commitments and norms, including the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, which provide a normative anchor for the SDGs (Box 1.4).

Box 1.4 CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action – Foundations for the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development

CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action together represent milestones on the path to gender equality and women's empowerment – both are recognized in the 2030 Agenda in general and in its framing of anti-discrimination and the pathways necessary for gender equality. Both CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action emphasize the need to redress formal and informal barriers to women's full and equal enjoyment of human rights, and to ensure that women benefit equally from the three dimensions of sustainable development: economic, social and environmental.

CEDAW, adopted in 1979, is commonly known as the international bill of human rights for women. It defines what constitutes discrimination against women and sets out an agenda for national action to end such discrimination. CEDAW underscores the need to go beyond formal equality or “equality of treatment” to achieve substantive equality or “equality of outcomes”. This broader understanding of equality recognizes the structural, cumulative and historical nature of gender inequality, which results in women being unable to enjoy their rights in practice, even when they are equal before the law.

All United Nations Member States in Asia and the Pacific except Iran, Palau and Tonga have ratified or acceded to CEDAW.

Building on CEDAW and other human rights frameworks, the 1995 Fourth World Conference on Women and its outcome document, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, and the Asian and Pacific Ministerial Declaration on Advancing Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment: Beijing+20 Review called for strategic action to advance gender equality, the empowerment of women and the realization of women and girl's human rights across 12 critical areas of concern: poverty; education and training; health; violence; armed conflict; economy; power and decision-making; institutional mechanisms; human rights; media; environment; and the girl child. Like the 2030 Agenda, the Platform for Action clearly articulates the synergistic relationship among gender equality, sustainable development and peace.

Source: UN Women and UNESCAP. Report of the Asian and Pacific Conference on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment: Beijing+20 Review, Bangkok 17–20 November 2014



Photo: ADB/Ariel Javellana

For the first time in a global or Asia and the Pacific development framework, the SDGs seek – through Goal 5 – to: end all forms of discrimination; eliminate violence and harmful practices against women and

girls; address unpaid care and domestic work; and ensure women's effective participation at all levels of decision-making, and universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights (Box 1.5).

Box 1.5 Goal 5: Targets to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls



5.1 End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere.



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



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



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



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



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

Means of implementation targets:

5.a Undertake reforms to give women equal rights to economic resources, as

well as access to ownership and control over



land and other forms of property, financial services, inheritance and natural resources, in accordance with national laws.



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



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

Gender equality and sustainable development: Harnessing synergies to catalyse progress

Gender equality has a catalytic effect on the achievement of sustainable development in all its forms. When women have a greater voice and stronger participation in public administration, public resources are more likely to be allocated towards investment in human development priorities, including child health, nutrition and access to employment.¹⁶ Evidence suggests a relationship between women's empowerment and environmental sustainability. Research shows that women's participation in local institutions governing natural resources is critical for sustainable forest and water management.¹⁷ Ensuring women's access to and control over agricultural assets and productive resources is fundamental to achieving food security and sustainable livelihoods, increasing resilience to climate change, and strengthening women's voice in the family and household.¹⁸

There are important synergies between gender equality and the entire SDG framework. For example, while eliminating violence against women is a target in Goal 5, it is also relevant to many of the other Goals, for example, ensuring women's and girls' safety in the aftermath of natural disasters (Goal 13); being responsive to violence against women in the provision of health services (Goal 3); addressing violence against girls in educational contexts (Goal 4); taking action on violence against women in the context of conflict and fragility (Goal 16); making public transport safe for women (Goal 11); and making cities safe for women and girls (Goal 11). Therefore, paying attention to violence against women in the implementation of all SDGs is important for both achieving gender equality and making overall progress towards the Goals.

Another example is the synergy between addressing women's unequal burden of unpaid care work (Goal 5) and the other Goals. Across the world and in Asia and the Pacific, women spend more time than men doing unpaid care and domestic work, including household tasks such as fetching water, collecting firewood, cooking and caring for the family, including children, the sick and the elderly. This leaves less time for engaging in paid work (Goal 8), and contributes to time poverty (Goal 5) for women, where they often juggle intense workloads of paid and unpaid work. Infrastructure has the potential to reduce time spent by women on unpaid care and domestic work, including improved water supply (Goal 6), electricity (Goal 7) and transport (Goal 9). Reducing and redistributing women's unpaid care work can catalyse the achievement of some Goals (for example, 1 and 8), and make progress towards other Goals (for example, 6 and 7) related to reducing women's unpaid work burden.

Gender equality and women's empowerment as a stand-alone Goal 5 and cross-cutting priority across all the SDGs



It is vital that gender equality is pursued not only as a catalyst of sustainable development, but in its own right. While gender equality can support social, economic and environmental sustainability, the reverse does not always hold. For example, patterns of economic growth in the Asia and the Pacific region (Goal 8) have predominantly been premised on maintaining gender inequality, such as through hiring unskilled female labour at low wages in the manufacturing and agricultural sectors. Research from the region shows that higher wage gaps boost competitiveness when women are disproportionately employed in labour-intensive, export-oriented activities.¹⁹ However, such growth is not inclusive, and in the long term, gender equality may be more beneficial to growth.²⁰ Addressing these tensions will be important in SDG implementation efforts.

Harnessing the synergy between gender equality and the SDGs requires action in several areas. First, gender-responsive implementation requires policies and programmes to implement all SDGs systematically, placing priority on gender equality and looking beyond specific “gender equality” targets to focus on how gender equality is relevant across all the SDGs. Second, the SDGs should be implemented in an integrated manner rather than in silos, which requires cross-sectoral approaches and coordination among relevant actors. Third, progress, challenges and gaps in the implementation of the SDGs must be regularly monitored through data and analysis. Finally, women and women's organizations need to have a seat at the table to influence strategies for sustainable development at both at regional and national level.

A gender perspective on “leave no one behind”

An important commitment to the lives of women and girls in Asia and the Pacific is the stated SDG principle of leaving no one behind. A limitation of the MDGs was the focus on tracking national averages in the effort to monitor progress, which served to obscure the lack of progress for the most marginalized groups. The 2030 Agenda specifically highlights the need to “reach the furthest behind first”. Alongside Goal 10, which focuses on inequality, the emphasis on reaching the most marginalized groups and tackling different kinds of inequality is a distinct feature of the SDGs.

This is significant from a gender perspective, as it can highlight women who experience multiple forms of discrimination and have been historically excluded.²¹ The concept of multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination describes overlapping identity-based inequalities that create additional forms of discrimination.²² An intersectional approach to gender equality acknowledges that women have different experiences and perspectives based on aspects of their identity, including race, class, ethnicity, sexual orientation and gender identity, disability, religion, age, marital status, indigenous status and migration status.

What does leaving no one behind mean in practice? Much of the focus of the SDG implementation debate to date has been on the need for disaggregated data to monitor progress on the targets. This is a key action that is discussed further in Chapter 2. However, little attention has been dedicated to the structural, power and political dynamics that push particular groups further behind and deepen inequality.²³ Inequality and discrimination are the product of policies, laws, regulations, institutions, cultural practices, structural barriers, democratic deficits and concentrations of wealth and power. As such, addressing gender inequality requires a comprehensive package of policies and programmes that are reflected across the SDGs, in addition to the disaggregation of data to monitor how different groups are benefitting – or not – from their implementation. This package of policies and programmes should include, for example, universal social protection and essential services to ensure an adequate standard of living, and redistributive and progressive tax policies to address income inequality.²⁴

Policies should reflect the diversity of women’s experiences and different needs, rather than treating women as a homogenous group. Leaving no one behind also indicates a commitment to universal policies and services that ensure access for all. However, implementing this principle can be challenging. How can policies be designed so that universal and targeted measures work in tandem to achieve the

desired result (for example, ensuring specific measures to increase access for historically excluded groups within universal health and education systems that are collectively financed and used by all groups)?²⁵ Establishing consultation mechanisms with different groups of women in decision-making mechanisms related to SDG implementation, and monitoring and follow-up at the national level will enable their voices and perspectives to shape policy decisions that directly affect them.

Overview of the report

The opportunity of a generation rests in strengthening our collective understanding of gender inequality and taking action to realize women and girls’ human rights to accelerate the achievement of sustainable development for all in Asia and the Pacific. Establishing a baseline for progress and setting priorities for action are first steps in this direction.

As the first assessment for Asia and the Pacific on how gender equality is to be achieved through the 2030 Agenda, this report analyses gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls as a catalyst for accelerating progress towards the SDGs in the region. It is divided into three parts.

In Part I, Chapter 1 introduces the 2030 Agenda and how gender equality is both a stand-alone goal and a cross-cutting priority throughout the SDGs. Chapter 2 provides a goal-by-goal snapshot and outlook for the gender-related targets in the SDGs for Asia and the Pacific, within the constraints of data availability at the start of the implementation period.

In Part II, this report explores four key transformative policy areas that can catalyse progress towards gender equality and women’s empowerment and the 2030 Agenda. These action areas are acutely relevant to Asia and the Pacific. While they do not seek to represent the comprehensive scope of gender equality commitments in the SDGs, if properly addressed, they have the potential to transform not only the lives of women and girls in the region, but also economies and societies at large. Given the interdependence and synergies between gender equality and the SDGs, accelerating progress in and through these areas increases the likelihood of better progress towards the SDGs overall. The four transformative policy areas assessed in-depth in this report are:

- **Realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights.** The ability of women and girls to choose their partners and control their fertility is an important indicator of their enjoyment of human rights and a precondition for their economic, social and political empowerment, and vital for achieving sustainable development.

- **Recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work.** Recognizing, redistributing and reducing unpaid domestic and care work, which is disproportionately carried out by women, is vital for expanding women and girls' opportunities to participate in education, decent work and public life, thus contributing to gender equality and sustainable development.
- **Eliminating violence against women and girls.** Violence impacts upon women and girls in every society in Asia and the Pacific, regardless of wealth, age, or ethnic group – although some women and girls are more at risk than others. Violence against women has significant health and well-being consequences and holds women back from the full enjoyment of their rights in all spheres, deepening their exclusion from economic, political and social life.
- **Empowering women to build climate resilience and reduce disaster risks.** The risks and impacts of climate change and disasters are acute in Asia and the Pacific, and have devastating consequences across many parts of the region. Women are disproportionately affected by climate change and disasters because of entrenched gender inequality and socioeconomic disadvantage. Yet women's participation in adapting and building resilience to climate change in Asia and the Pacific is often unrecognized and unsupported.

Part III concludes with an action plan to accelerate progress on gender equality commitments under the 2030 Agenda and achieve sustainable development in Asia and the Pacific by 2030. By reflecting on emerging lessons from the in-depth assessment of the catalysts for progress on gender equality and the 2030 Agenda, the report identifies priority actions for implementation to turn commitments into results.



Photo: ADB/Eric Sales



Chapter 2

Setting the Baseline for Gender Equality in the Sustainable Development Goals for Asia and the Pacific

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) recognize gender equality as a priority for sustainable development, as a goal in itself and as a catalyst for progress across all goals. Realizing this vision requires gender equality to be integrated in the implementation of all SDGs, alongside systematic monitoring of gender-related outcomes.

This chapter sets a goal-by-goal baseline to enable monitoring of progress on the SDGs from a gender perspective in the Asia and the Pacific region. The global monitoring framework for the SDGs currently includes 169 targets and 232 indicators. Of these, 54 indicators have been identified as gender-specific as they explicitly refer to sex, gender, women and girls and/or specifically or largely target women and girls. The SDG indicators and their methodology were developed and agreed upon, and are regularly reviewed by the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on the SDGs (IAEG-SDG).¹

Building on this core list of 54 gender-specific SDG indicators, this Report also uses an additional 34 gender-relevant indicators from the official SDG indicator framework that, despite not mentioning gender explicitly, help shed light on gender equality issues that are relevant to the region, enabling a more comprehensive and tailored analysis. The additional 34 gender-relevant indicators for the region can be classified into two groups:

- Indicators that are in the official SDG indicator list, where sex-disaggregation is relevant but is not explicitly stated.
- Official SDG indicators or their components that relate to areas that are particularly relevant to gender equality in the Asia and the Pacific region.

This chapter also assesses the state of data availability by each SDG and concludes with recommendations for improving gender statistics to effectively monitor the SDGs.

The full list of indicators tracked in this Report is provided in the Table 2.1. The Statistical Tables in Annex 2 that accompany this Report provide data for the indicators for countries in the region, where it is available.

Box 2.1 Statistical note

This Report reflects the status of the official SDG indicators in Asia and the Pacific as of December 2017 for indicators available at that time in the Global SDG Database, and July 2017 for other indicators. Of the 85 unique gender-related SDG indicators used in this report, only 26 per cent are available for more than two thirds of the countries or territories in the region, as defined in this report.²

In addition to the 85 official gender-related SDG indicators, this Report uses nine complementary indicators to provide insights into SDG targets in the absence of data for official SDG indicators. Chapter 2 provides a review of data availability for the 85 unique gender-related official SDG indicators used in this Report.

Data in this chapter, unless otherwise cited, are presented in the Report's Statistical Tables (Annex 2) and referenced by the number of the

relevant Statistical Tables. All data are drawn from internationally comparable sources, nationally representative surveys such as the Demographic Health Surveys and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, and a questionnaire sent to obtain official data from National Statistical Offices.

This report categorizes 57 countries and territories in Asia and the Pacific into six sub-regions: Developed Economies; East and North-East Asia; North and Central Asia; the Pacific; South and South-West Asia; and South-East Asia. Developing Economies include all countries and territories except Developed Economies, and the regional grouping for Asia and the Pacific covers all countries and territories. India is not included in this report. For more information, see Annex 1: Note to Statistical Tables.

ALL 17 GOALS FROM A GENDER EQUALITY PERSPECTIVE IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC



GOAL 1: NO POVERTY

Ending poverty in all its forms is a cornerstone of the 2030 Agenda. Poverty curtails people's quality of life and limits their capacity to make choices about their education, employment, health and other outcomes. Women's lower labour force participation, lower earnings and lack of access to social protection can lead to gender differences in poverty. At household level, inequitable access to assets and the unequal sharing of unpaid care and domestic work hamper women's earning capacity and increase their vulnerability to poverty.

State of data availability

Reporting on the number of people living in poverty, by sex, is challenging. Income poverty measures are generally based on household survey data, where aggregate household-based income and consumption estimates are used to calculate per capita income. Such measures are often calculated assuming that household resources are evenly distributed among household members. These measures do not reflect the gender dimensions of poverty, including the unequal sharing of household resources between women/girls and men/boys, inequalities in time use, which result in longer working hours for women, or women's lack of voice or control of household income.

Individual level income and consumption data are needed to monitor poverty by sex. However, collecting this data can be complex and expensive, so comprehensive, periodic and nationally-representative poverty data collection exercises at individual level may be a long way away.

Poverty rates, whether using international or national poverty lines, do not describe the multiple deprivations that women face, including those stemming from the

intersection of poverty status with various dimensions of wellbeing such as education, employment, health and nutrition, access to safe water and sanitation, asset ownership and time use. While the country estimate of the population in poverty in all its dimensions is an SDG indicator, there is currently no data for SDG indicator 1.2.2.

Developing new methodologies and increasing data coverage to monitor the other dimensions of Goal 1, such as women's access to social protection, is also an urgent priority for effectively monitoring progress towards the targets.

For Goal 1 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 1.1.1 Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)
- 1.3.1 Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable

Complementary indicator used:

- Asian Development Bank's Social Protection Index (For SDG Target 1.3)

Box 2.2 Measuring women's poverty by analysing the share of women and girls living in poor households

To address the challenges of poverty measurement, UN Women commissioned new global analysis of poverty data from the World Bank, using the recently developed Global Micro Database (GMD). Building on the work of the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean on the femininity index,³ the analysis for 88 countries looks at the prevalence of extreme poverty by sex, age and additional characteristics such as marital status and educational attainment, and by differences in household composition (for example, mix of earners and non-earners by sex).⁴ It shows that, at global level, the percentage of women and girls living in poor households (i.e., the female poverty rate) is 12.8 per cent, compared to 12.3 per cent for men and boys.

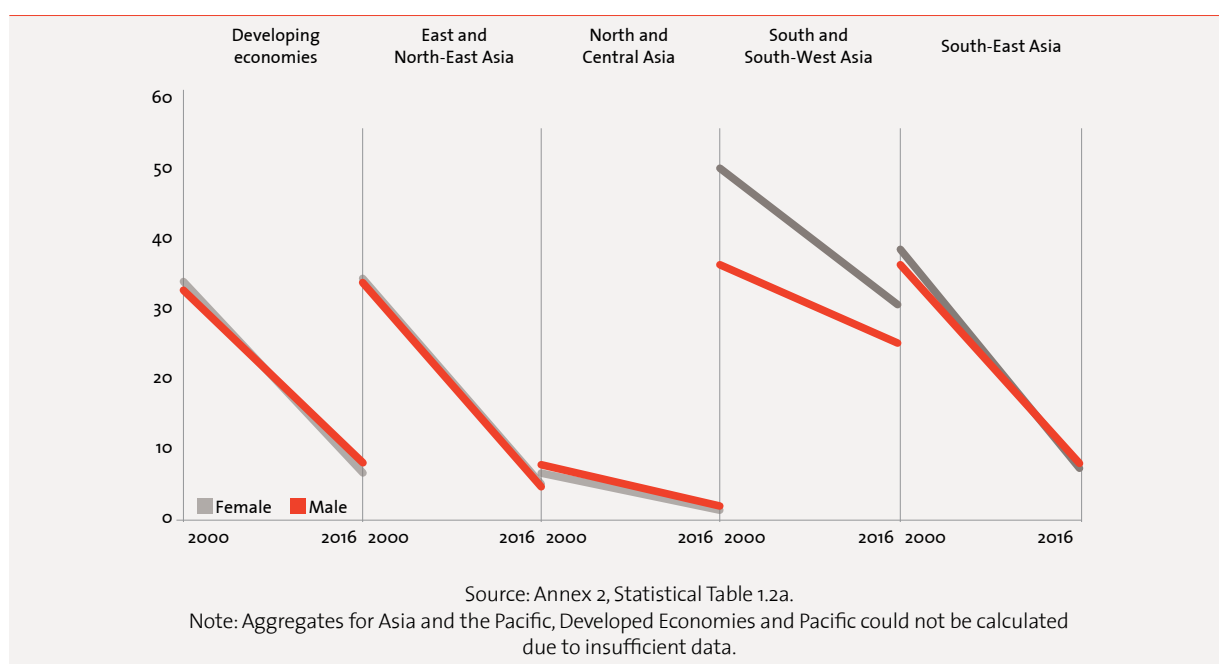
Extreme poverty rates are higher among women than men in Latin America and the Caribbean, South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. In Europe and Central Asia and in East Asia and the Pacific, women are less likely to live in extreme poverty than men.⁵ However, differences in extreme poverty rates by sex are small across regions and only statistically significant in South Asia, where the rate is 15.9 per cent for women compared to 14.7 per cent for men. This is equivalent to 330 million poor women and girls compared to 325 million poor men and boys. When adjusted for the fact that men outnumber women in the population, the results indicate that women globally are 4 per cent more likely than men to live in extreme poverty, while the gender gap rises to 9 per cent in South Asia.⁶

Poverty amongst working women is the highest in South and South-West Asia

Where individual level poverty data is limited, examining the poverty rates in the working population can provide further insights into differences in poverty by sex. A limitation of this data is that it does not provide information on sources of income, intra-household differences in control over resources or insights into the situation of women who are not working.

Based on available sex-disaggregated data, poverty rates among women in the working population in developing economies in the region declined from 34.2 per cent in 2000 to 7.8 per cent in 2016 (Figure 2.1), compared to 33 per cent to 8.9 per cent among men. The rate of poverty amongst the working population for South and South-West Asia remains particularly high at 30.9 per cent for females, compared to 25.4 per cent for males, also reflecting the largest gender gap.

Figure 2.1 Proportion of employed population below the US\$1.90 per day international poverty line in 2011 PPP prices by sex and sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2000 and 2016 (%)



In the absence of sex-disaggregated data on poverty, a common approach is to look at household headship and differences between female-headed and male-headed households. However, this approach has been criticised as a substitute for gender analysis, as it neglects the distribution of resources within a household and contributes to the stigmatization of female-headed households.⁷ Such an approach

conflates household composition and living arrangements with gender differences. The data for the region using this measure is inconclusive. Of only nine countries with sex-disaggregated data on poverty by sex of household head, four countries showed female-headed households experiencing greater poverty than male-headed households (Annex 2: Statistical Table 1.3).

Women have less access to and coverage from social insurance, assistance and labour programmes than men

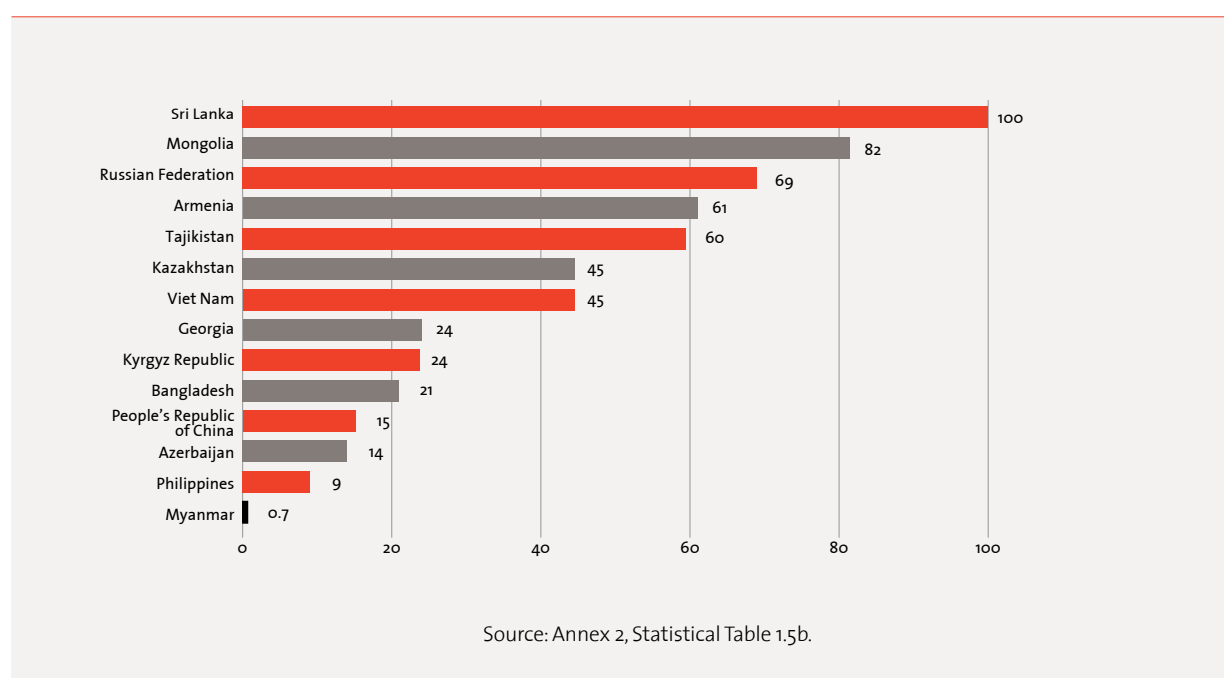


A range of sub-indicators provide insights into the coverage of social protection floors/systems (1.3.1), including the proportion of the population covered by labour market programmes, social assistance programmes, social insurance programmes and those receiving unemployment benefits. However, there is limited sex-disaggregated data on these for the region. For example, data shows that the share of unemployed people (men and women) receiving unemployment benefits ranges in 2016 from 1.6 per cent in Azerbaijan to 68.2 per cent in the Russian Federation (Annex 2: Statistical Table 1.5b); however, this does not shed light on possible gender differences in access to unemployment benefits.

One gender-specific indicator is the share of mothers receiving maternity benefits and benefits for newborns. However, data is only available for 14 countries, which limits sub-regional analysis. Based on available data, Sri Lanka has 100 per cent coverage of women for maternity benefits, compared to Myanmar and the Philippines, where only 0.7 per cent and 9 per cent of mothers receive benefits, respectively (See Figure 2.2).

In light of these limitations, a complementary indicator – the Asian Development Bank's Social Protection Index – is used to reflect disparities in social protection systems and measure coverage between women and men across countries (Box 2.3).

Figure 2.2 Proportion of mothers receiving maternity benefits and benefits for newborns, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, 2016 (%)



Box 2.3 Women are less likely than men to have access to social protection

The Asian Development Bank's Social Protection Index (SPI) is a composite indicator of social protection programme expenditure, size of benefits, coverage and distribution. The distributional dimension of SPI provides insights into how various social protection systems support women and men in Asia. The 2015 SPI results for Asia indicate that generally women were less protected than men. For overall social protection programmes provided by governments in the Asia and the Pacific region, the social protection expenditures for women (about 2 per cent of gross domestic product [GDP] per

capita) were lower than for men (about 2.6 per cent of GDP per capita) (Annex 2: Statistical Table 1.5c). On social insurance, except for North and Central Asia, women were less covered than men. For most sub-regions in the Asia and the Pacific region, women were slightly better off than men on social assistance (except in South-East Asia). Coverage by labour market programmes was low for both women and men in the region (Figure 2.3a). By income group, social protection expenditures are higher for men than women in both developed and developing economies (Figure 2.3b).

Figure 2.3a Social Protection Index by sex and sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2015

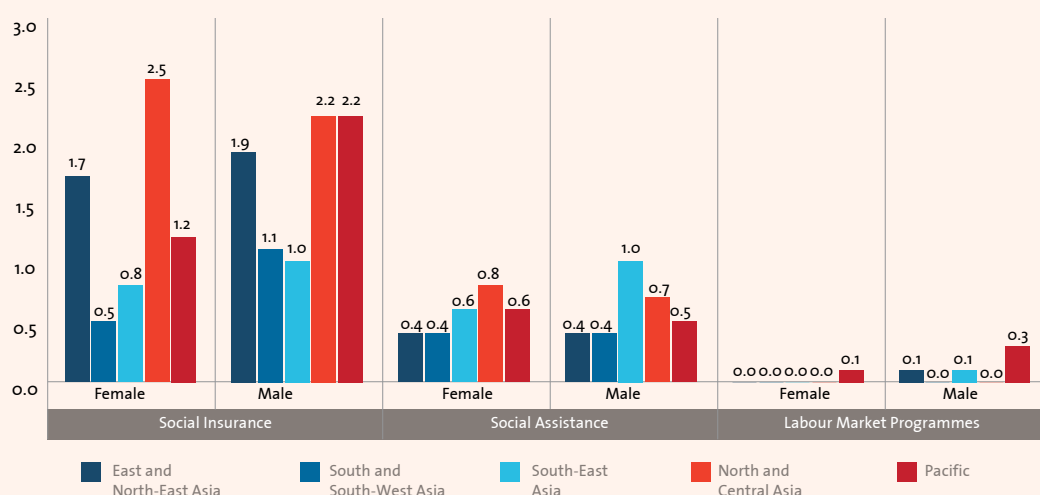
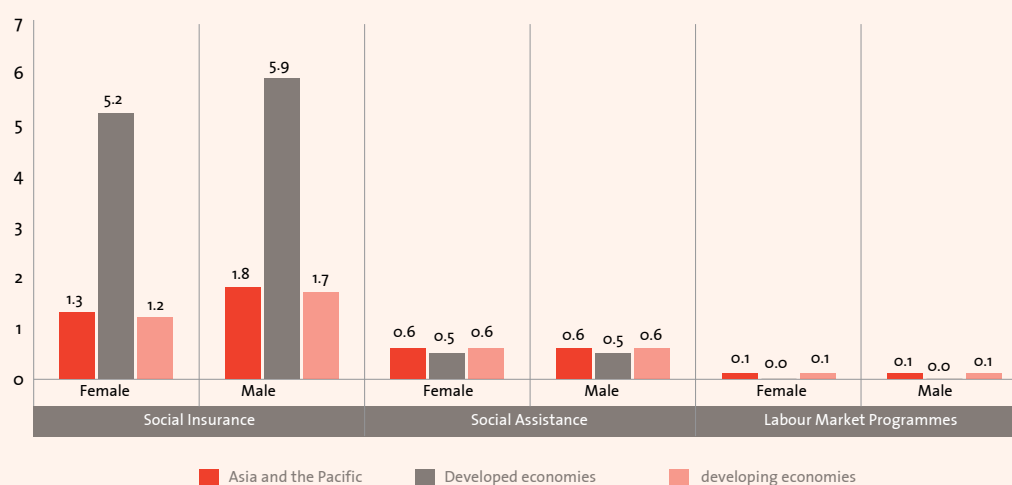


Figure 2.3b Social Protection Index by sex and income group, Asia and the Pacific, 2015



Source: ADB estimates based on 2015 SPI Country Reports.



GOAL 2: ZERO HUNGER

Women play a critical role in food production, processing and distribution, but have unequal access to and control over productive resources, markets, training and technology. Unequal gender relations often leave them trapped in domestic and subsistence type activities in which they have little control over the proceeds of their labour (be it food or cash).⁸ At the household level, women and girls often become “shock absorbers” when crises hit or food prices rise, reducing their own intake of nutritious food in favour of their families, and spending more time and energy to secure and process food for domestic consumption.⁹

State of data availability

The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) estimates the prevalence of undernourishment using a combination of microdata from specialized food consumption and dietary surveys and information compiled from food-balance sheets.¹⁰ Sex and age disaggregation for the prevalence of undernourishment is not currently available. An ideal indicator of hunger would focus on whether people are getting enough to eat, and involve comparing the diet actually consumed and what is required for sustaining an active and healthy life. Combining the existing estimates with disaggregated data on how individuals report on their access to adequate food

and nourishment is a priority for gender-responsive monitoring of this goal.

Further, measuring the incomes of small-scale farmers by sex, the only gender-specific indicator under conceptual and methodological development in this SDG, is an urgent priority in order to track progress on this critical target for women and men.

For Goal 2 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 2.1.2 Prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity in the population, based on the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES)
- 2.2.2 Prevalence of malnutrition (weight for height $>+2$ or <-2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age, by type (wasting and overweight)

Complementary indicator used:

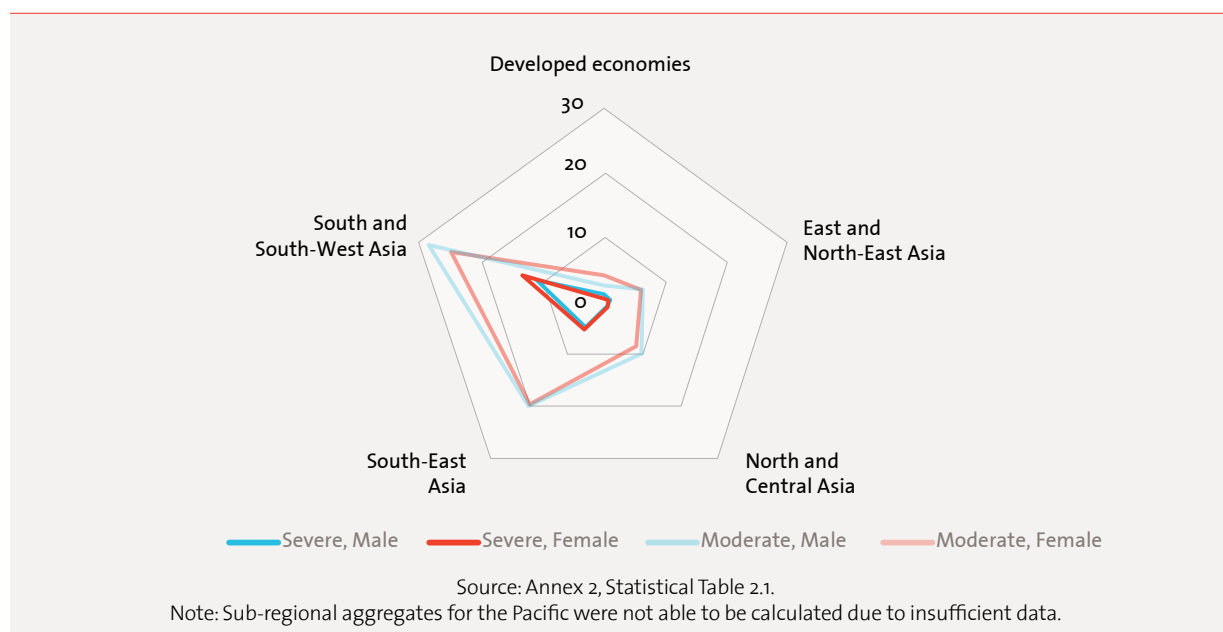
- Prevalence of anemia among reproductive age women (For SDG Target 2.1)

Women and girls are more likely to report food insecurity than men and boys in developing sub-regions



Hunger and malnutrition have been significantly reduced in Asia and the Pacific over the past 15 years, but the region is still home to nearly half a billion people who lack regular access to adequate food.¹¹ Among Developing Economies in the region, moderate and severe food insecurity is higher for women than men, with South and South-West Asia experiencing the greatest gender difference on both measures (Figure 2.4). The situation is reversed, however, in Developed Economies in the region, where men tend to be more food insecure at moderate and severe levels than women (Annex 2: Statistical Table 2.1). Undernourishment has significant consequences for the health and well-being of women (Box 2.4).

Figure 2.4 Food insecurity by sex and sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2014 (% of population)

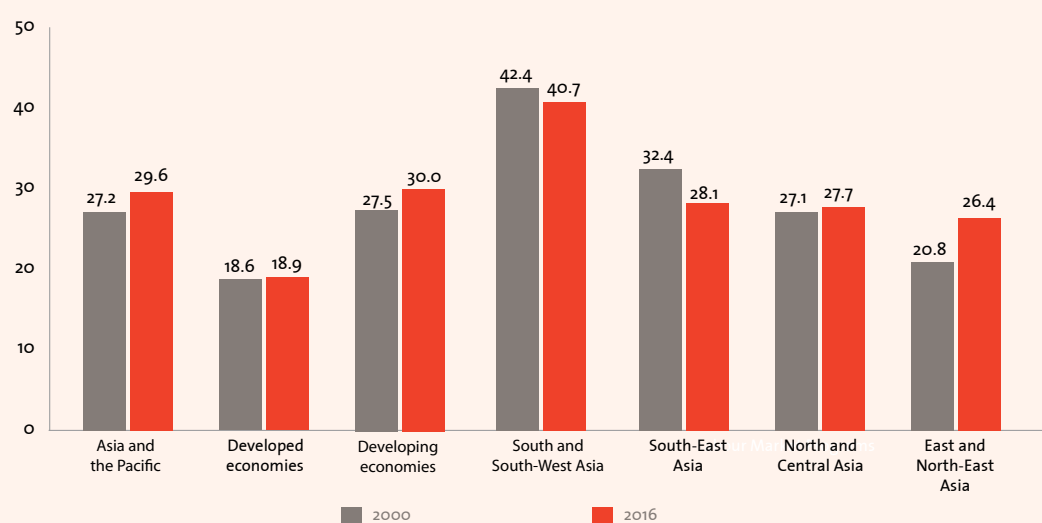


Box 2.4 Prevalence of anemia among reproductive age women increased

Undernourishment impacts upon women and men differently. The prevalence of anemia among reproductive age women is an indicator of the consequences of undernourishment for women. Women's undernourishment due to inadequate dietary iron intake or absorption from food has been the primary cause of anemia, affecting nearly one third (29.6 per cent) of reproductive aged women in the region (Annex 2: Statistical Table 2.1).

Multiple factors like age, socioeconomic status and diet can determine the stores of iron in women of reproductive age.¹² These trends are largely moving in the wrong direction for Asia and the Pacific as a whole, increasing from 27.2 per cent of woman aged 15–49 with anemia in 2000 to 29.6 per cent in 2016, with the largest increase in East and North-East Asia, from 20.8 per cent to 26.4 per cent (Figure 2.5).

Figure 2.5 Prevalence of anemia among women of reproductive age of 15–49 years by sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2000 and 2016 (%)



Source: Annex 2, Statistical Table 2.1.
Note: Aggregates for Pacific could not be calculated.

While stunting has decreased, wasting and obesity are increasing

Malnutrition also has significant impacts upon the health and well-being of children in the region, with a fifth of all children aged under 5 stunted (low height for age) (Annex 2: Statistical Table 2.2). From the earliest data to 2000 and the latest data available per country, stunting for both sexes has declined, but very slowly, from 28.1 per cent to 22.8 per cent for boys and from 26.5 per cent to 20.6 per cent for girls.

Trends for wasting (low weight for height) and overweight, however, are on the rise. From the earliest year to 2000 to the latest year with data available, wasting has increased at a faster rate for girls, from 5.1 per cent to 5.8 per cent compared to 6.3 per cent to 6.5 per cent for boys (Annex 2: Statistical Table 2.3). The share of boys and girls aged under 5 that are overweight (high weight for height) has nearly doubled for both sexes: from 3.5 per cent to 6.3 per cent for boys, and 2.8 per cent to 5.3 per cent for girls (Annex 2: Statistical Table 2.4).



GOAL 3: GOOD HEALTH AND WELL-BEING

Gender differences in health outcomes are driven by both biological differences and social determinants such as gender roles, access to resources, voice and agency. Gender norms and bias shape how women's health needs are perceived both by themselves and others. At the health systems level, for example, identification and support for women who have been victims of violence is often inadequate. At the household level, gendered power relations may mean that women have to obtain consent from family members to seek medical care or lack the resources to do so. Gender inequalities in health are compounded by other factors, such as living in a rural area, being part of a particular caste, racial or ethnic group, living with HIV and AIDS, and sexual orientation and gender identity.

State of data availability

On Goal 3, monitoring and reporting presents a challenge, as the number of unrecorded deaths is likely to be substantial. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), 65 per cent of all deaths worldwide – around 35 million each year – go unrecorded. Adolescent mothers are especially at risk of pregnancy and delivery complications. In the region, early pregnancy, which tends to go unrecorded, is a key factor contributing to maternal mortality. However, surveys often do not collect information on girls aged below 15. Without this information, government officials, public health leaders and funders cannot make informed decisions on priorities including how and where to direct health funds.

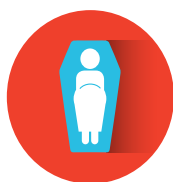
Sound civil registration and vital statistics (CRVS) systems are key to the improvement of the overall health of societies, and in particular to women's and girls' health. Accurate information about the number of births and deaths and the causes of death generated by well-functioning CRVS systems is fundamental for evidence-based policy development and monitoring,

as well as the regional commitments made by governments regarding the Asia-Pacific CRVS Decade (2015–2024).

Currently, no disaggregation by sex is available for several Goal 3 indicators. Sex-disaggregated data should be made a priority for health statistics to enable effective monitoring of Goal 3 targets.

For Goal 3 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

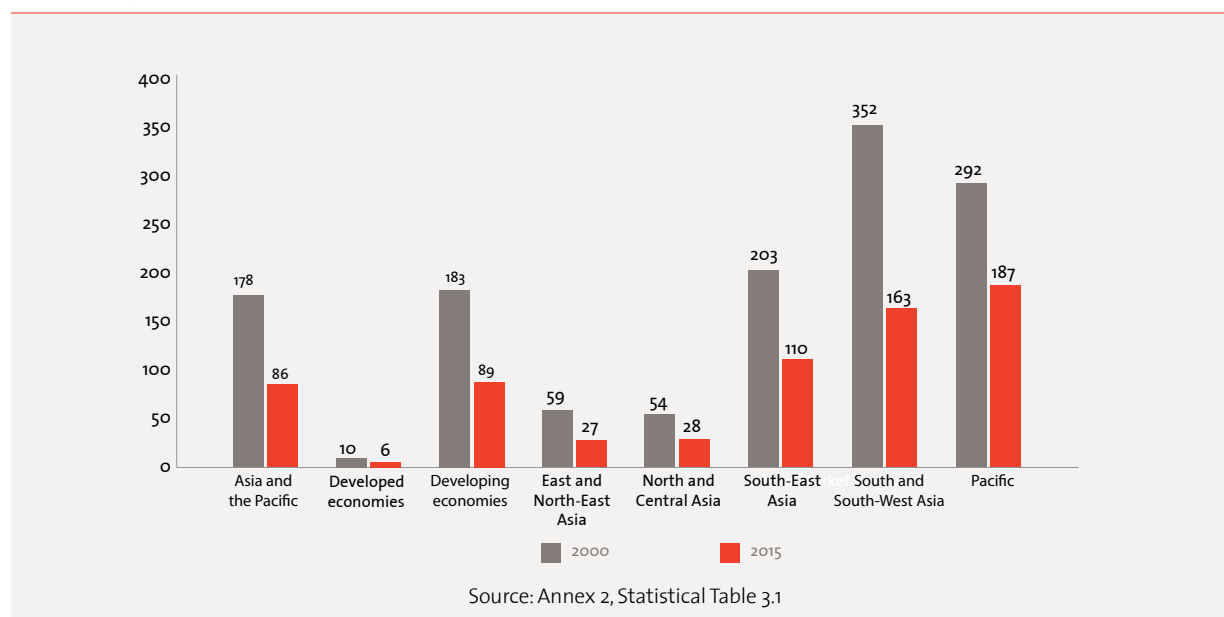
- 3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio
- 3.1.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel
- 3.2.1 Under-five mortality rate
- 3.2.2 Neonatal mortality rate
- 3.3.1 Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations
- 3.4.1 Mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease
- 3.4.2 Suicide mortality rate
- 3.7.1 Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods
- 3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group
- 3.9.2 Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene (exposure to unsafe Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for All (WASH) services)



Maternal deaths dropped from 178 to 86 per 100,000 live births from 2000 to 2015, but this progress has been uneven, with regional and sub-national disparities

Asia and the Pacific has achieved progress in the reduction of maternal deaths, dropping the rate in half from 178 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2000 to 86 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2016 (Figure 2.6). Some sub-regions still lag behind, and a significant number of women continue to die from preventable pregnancies and birth-related causes. In 2015, almost 92 per cent of all maternal deaths in the region – around 78,000 – occurred in just 12 countries, with South and South-West Asia registering the largest share and the highest total given its large population size (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.1).

Figure 2.6 Maternal mortality ratio by sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2000 and 2015 (per 100,000 live births)



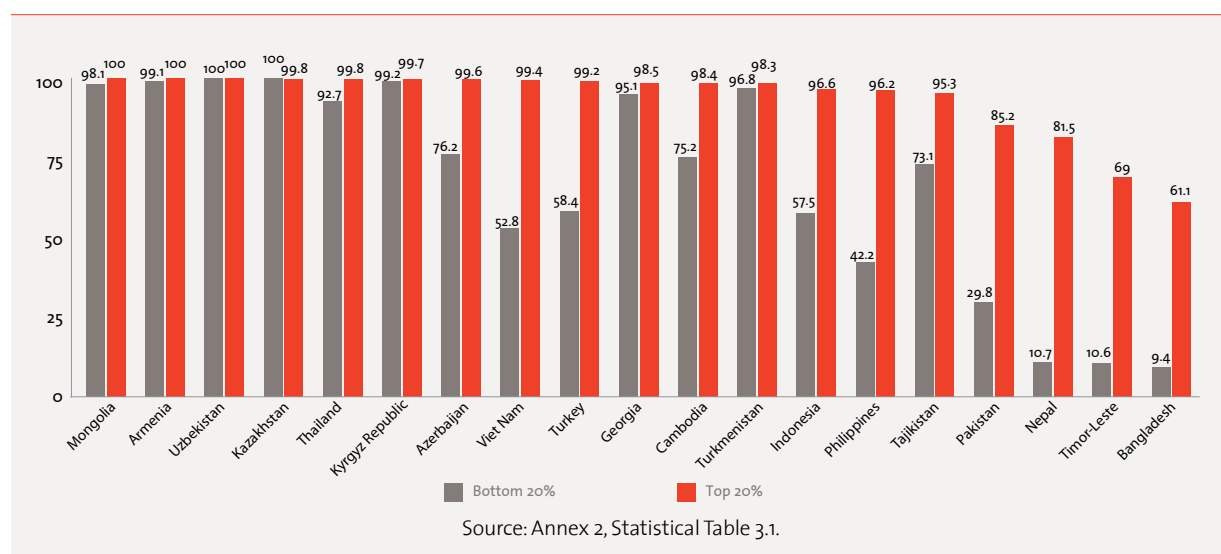
Progress in reducing maternal deaths has been accompanied by a rise in the share of births in the region attended by skilled personnel, which rose from 71 per cent in 2000 to 84.9 per cent in 2015. Despite this overall progress, less than half of births are attended by skilled personnel in Timor-Leste (29.3 per cent), the Lao PDR (40.1 per cent), Bangladesh (42.1

per cent), and Afghanistan (50.5 per cent) (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.1). Those who are most likely to be left behind in access to skilled birth attendants live in rural areas, have less education and live in poorer households – with the wealthiest 20 per cent up to 6.5 times as likely to have births attended by skilled health personnel as the poorest 20 per cent (Figure 2.7).



Photo: UN Women/Allison Joyce

Figure 2.7 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel by top/bottom wealth quintile, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



More girls survive infancy than boys overall, although the sex ratio is skewed for some countries in the region

Infant girls tend to have a higher survival rate than boys in half of the countries with data (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.2b). Generally, girls also have a lower neonatal mortality rate than boys (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.3). Among several Asia and the Pacific countries, boys aged under 5 years are at greater risk of dying than girls. Children living in cities, with better educated mothers, and from wealthiest households are most likely to survive. Of 50 countries with data, 33 have under-5 mortality rates lower than 30 deaths per 1,000 live births. Yet, Afghanistan (at 91.1 deaths per 1,000 births) and Pakistan (81.1 deaths) are well above the sub-regional average (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.2a).

Despite the overall tendency of girls to survive at a higher rate than boys due to biological factors, many countries in the region have skewed sex-ratios, with more boys than girls being born than would be expected naturally. This points to the discriminatory practice of son bias and daughter devaluation which leads to sex-selective abortion, neglect and deliberate infanticide or infanticide due to neglect.¹³ The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Social Institutions and Gender Index (OECD SIGI) measures the concept of “Missing Women” based on the analysis of sex ratios across age groups. The region has some of the countries with the highest incidence of missing women in the world. The analysis also indicated that the incidence of missing women is increasing in some countries in the region, such as the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea.¹⁴

HIV infection rates are rising, mortality to non-communicable diseases is declining; while largely a concern for men, higher suicide rates for women are a concern in a few countries

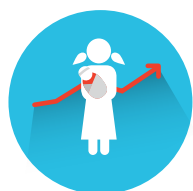


HIV incidence increased across the region between 2000 and 2015 for men and women, from 23 to 29 per 100,000 men, and from 10 to 13 per 100,000 women aged 15–49. Women are biologically more susceptible to HIV transmission, which, combined with gendered power dynamics in relationships and violence against women, puts them at particular risk of HIV.¹⁵ Moreover, women living with HIV continue to face stigma and discrimination and are particularly vulnerable to social exclusion.

Men tend to be more at risk of dying in the region due to non-communicable diseases (NCDs) including cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes and chronic respiratory disease, with the mortality rate to NCDs for men at 25.3 per cent and for women at 17.2 per cent in 2015. In recent years there has been progress for both sexes, with the rates dropping from 30.1 per cent for men and 20.8 per cent for women, in 2000 (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.5). Between 2000 and 2015, suicide rates have declined for both sexes

for Asia and the Pacific as a whole (from 11.5 to 10.4 per 100,000 females, and 30.3 to 20.2 per 100,000 for males). However, suicide rates for females have increased slightly in South-East Asia (while declining in other sub-regions), and for males, rates have increased in East and North-East Asia, South and South-West Asia and South-East Asia (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.5).

Suicide rates have been higher among males than females in countries and territories in the region with data, while in the People's Republic of China and Bangladesh, suicide rates are higher for females. More research is needed to understand the factors contributing to female suicide in these countries.



Despite overall progress in the region, women's need for family planning remains unfulfilled in many countries and adolescent birth rates are rising in some countries, particularly in South-East Asia

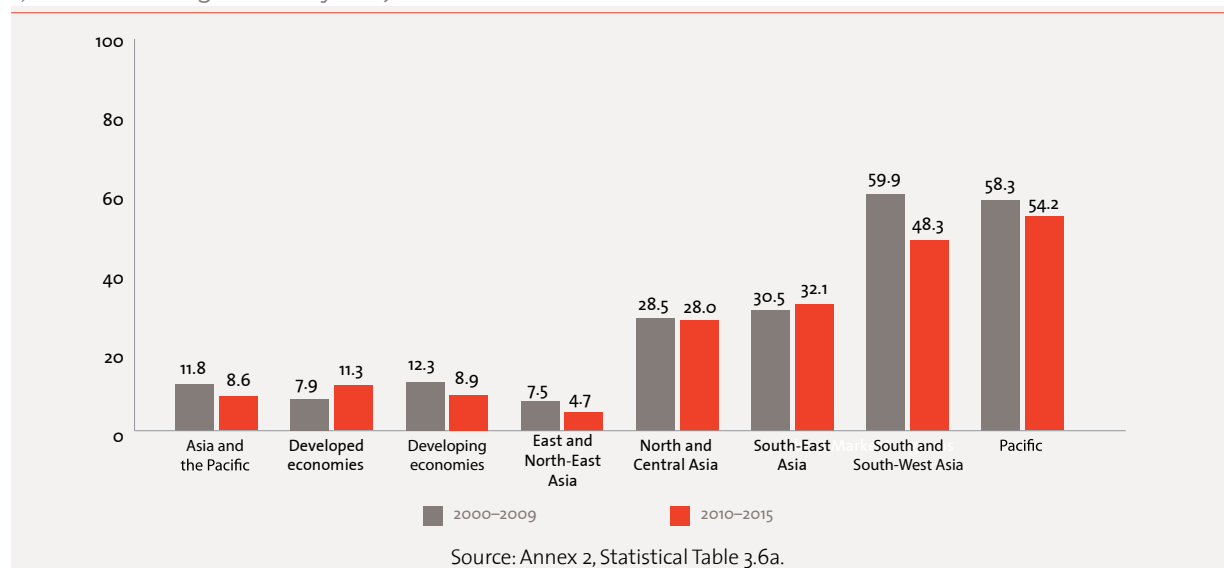
Across several sub-regions with data, the share of married or in-union women who have their family planning needs met by a modern method of contraception is rising (see Chapter 3). Among the 32 countries and territories in the region with sufficient data to allow for estimates, the proportion of women married or in a union of reproductive age who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods ranged from 21.5 per cent in Azerbaijan to 80 per cent or more in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Thailand and Bhutan based upon the latest available data. South and South-West Asia has seen the largest increase, from 60.7 per cent between 2000 and 2008 to 71.1 between 2006 and 2017 (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.6a).

Between 2000–2009 and 2010–2015, the adolescent birth rate in Asia and the Pacific decreased from 11.8 to 8.6 births per 1,000 adolescents aged 15–19 years (Figure 2.8). This has been driven by a large decrease

in births among adolescent girls in South and South-West Asia, with Afghanistan seeing the largest change in the region (declining from 146 to 51.9). However, the adolescent birth rate has increased in Developed Economies and in South-East Asia, where the rate in Thailand has nearly doubled from 33.1 to 60.

Access to basic water services and improved sanitation infrastructure are linked to improved child and maternal health. Contaminated water and poor sanitation contribute to diseases such as cholera, diarrhea, dysentery, hepatitis A, typhoid and polio. In the entire region, 3.2 deaths per 100,000 population in 2012 were caused by unsafe water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) services (Annex 2: Statistical Table 3.6a). South and South-West Asian and Pacific countries have the highest unsafe WASH mortality rates, with 34.6 and 20.7 deaths per 100,000 in Afghanistan and Pakistan, respectively, attributed to unsafe WASH services.

Figure 2.8 Adolescent birth rate by sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2000–2009 and 2010–2015 (per 1,000 women aged 15–19 years)





GOAL 4: QUALITY EDUCATION

Education is not only an important end in itself, but a pathway for achieving many other SDGs, including gender equality. Building on the MDG commitments, Goal 4 includes a more comprehensive set of targets that move beyond just the number of girls enrolling in and completing school, to focus on the quality of education. Access to quality education has important gender-related implications in terms of future economic opportunity. This includes gender-inclusive curricula, and a school environment that protects girls' well-being, rights and freedom from violence.

State of data availability

Of 10 gender-specific indicators on Goal 4, only one is missing in the SDG Global Indicators Database, but there remain gaps in country coverage and data points over time. For instance, similar to the global picture, relatively few countries in the Asia and the Pacific region have data on proficiency of children in mathematics and reading, and on all of the components on “the proportion of schools with access to: (a) electricity; (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes; (c) computers for pedagogical purposes; (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities; (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities”.

The proportion of youth and adults with information, communications and technology (ICT) skills is a relatively new indicator based on an internationally agreed definition and methodology developed under the coordination of the International Telecommunications Union. While this indicator should be disaggregated by sex and other relevant characteristics to enable thorough gender analysis, data (overall for both sexes) is only available for four countries in the region.

To fulfil the principle of leaving no one behind, it is important to disaggregate these indicators by multiple dimensions beyond sex. For example, these include differences in educational outcomes based on urban/rural location and income quintiles.

For Goal 4 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people: (a) in grades 2/3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex
- 4.2.2 Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex
- 4.5.1 Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated

Complementary indicators used:

- Adult literacy rate, by sex (For SDG Target 4.6)
- Extent to which comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) is integrated into school curricula (For SDG Target 4.7)

More girls achieve proficiency in maths and reading than boys in most countries

At the end of primary school, more girls than boys achieve a minimum proficiency in reading and maths in all Asia and the Pacific countries except for Australia, according to 2011 and 2015 estimates, respectively (Annex 2: Statistical Table 4.1). By the end of lower secondary school, while maths proficiency for both girls and boys declines, girls see a steeper drop. Nevertheless, more girls still achieve proficiency in both reading and maths than boys by the end of lower secondary school—with the largest gap in reading proficiency in Georgia, where the gender parity index stands at 1.64, and the

smallest in Japan, at 1.05. Proficiency rates for girls in 2015, however, vary substantially across countries, from just 32.3 per cent in Indonesia to 99.3 per cent in Singapore on maths; and from 51.2 per cent in

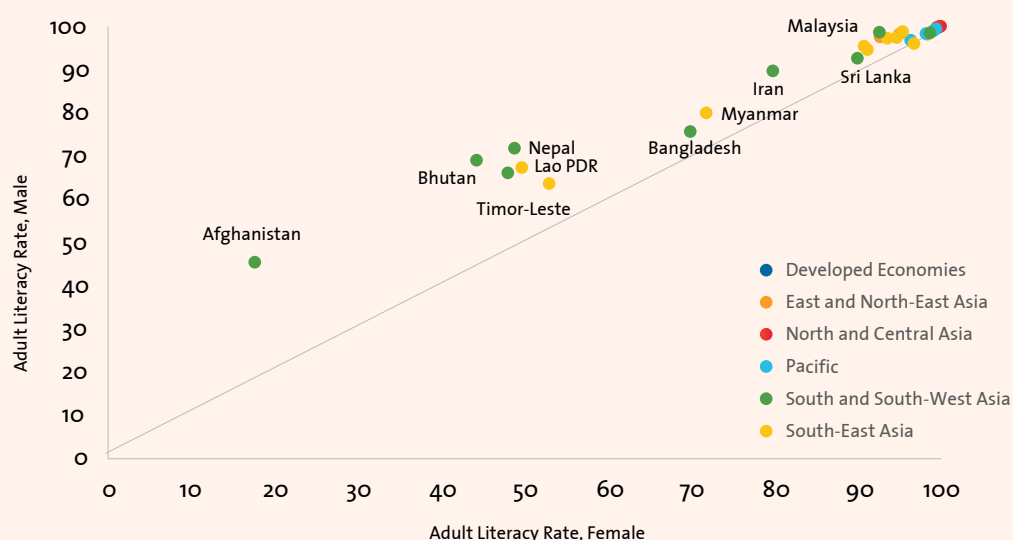
Indonesia to 94.1 per cent in Hong Kong, China on reading. Disparities persist in literacy rates across the region, as more men than women are literate (Box 2.5).

Box 2.5 Sex-based disparities persist in literacy

Gender-based disparities in education are also reflected in literacy rates. Across most countries and territories in Asia and the Pacific, more men than women are able to read or write (Figure 2.9). While in Developed Economies, East and North-East Asia, North and Central Asia more than 90 per cent of

both women and men are literate, there are large disparities between countries in the South and South-West Asia and South-East Asia sub-regions – as well as the largest differences between women and men. Data for the Pacific sub-region remain relatively scarce.

Figure 2.9 Adult literacy rate by sex, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



Source: Based on UNESCO Institute for Statistics literacy data. Available at <http://uis.unesco.org/>. Accessed September 2017.
Note: Diagonal line represents perfect parity between women and men.

Girls are less likely than boys to be in organized learning before primary school in the region

Across Asia and the Pacific, participation rates in organized learning one year before the official primary entry age are higher for girls than boys in 46 per cent of countries and territories with data (18 of 39) (Annex 2: Statistical Table 4.2). The largest differences are in

three Pacific countries, with 100 per cent of primary age girls in Niue and the Cook Islands, and 82.3 per cent in Nauru enrolling in pre-primary school, compared to 23.2 per cent of boys in Niue, 87.2 per cent in the Cook Islands, and 61.6 per cent in Nauru. On the other hand, Palau and Pakistan have the largest disparity in favour of boys, who are enrolled at 100 per cent compared to 81.1 per cent and 87.2 per cent of girls, respectively.

Monitoring the availability of comprehensive sexuality education is a critical part of knowledge and skills to promote gender equality

The official global SDG indicator to monitor progress on the acquisition of knowledge and skills to promote sustainable development, including on gender equality and human rights, is under methodological and conceptual development, although one complementary indicator provides some insight into one key dimension for the advancement of gender equality norms in the region (Box 2.6).

Box 2.6 Comprehensive sexuality education as a marker of knowledge and skills for sustainable development, including on gender equality, needs to expand

One indicator that partially reflects efforts to impart essential life skills is the proportion of countries that integrate comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) into secondary school curricula. CSE is essential to equip both girls and boys with vital information on human reproduction, contraception and sexually transmitted infections. By going beyond basic sexual and reproductive health

information, CSE also contributes to challenging gender stereotyping, attitudes towards sexuality, respectful relationships, communication and decision-making skills. In the Asia and the Pacific region, 22 of 28 countries reported integrating sexuality education at secondary level.¹⁶ However, there is a lack of information about the quality and content of CSE where it is being delivered.



Photo: ADB/Eric Sales



GOAL 5: GENDER EQUALITY

Goal 5 is the stand-alone goal on gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. Its targets emphasize the removal of barriers to achieve gender equality and address issues that catalyze the achievement of the other goals in the framework.

State of data availability

For Goal 5, only 3 of 14 indicators are classified as Tier I, with data supposedly being regularly produced by countries and with agreed methodologies. However, data was found to be widely available for just one of these three indicators for the Asia and the Pacific region (See, Table 2.1).¹⁷ The other 11 indicators under Goal 5 are classified as Tier II or Tier III, with data not regularly produced by countries or the indicators being under methodological or conceptual development.¹⁸ As such, extensive investment in statistical capacity for monitoring Goal 5 is required.

Specifically, on measuring violence against women, while definitions of physical violence and sexual violence have been established, the guidelines for the measurement of psychological violence still have not been agreed upon. In addition, data for the region on violence against women is not regularly collected.

Unpaid care work is typically measured through time use surveys, either through a module in a household survey or a specialized survey. In Asia and the Pacific, less than half of the countries in the region have collected time-use data at least once, resulting in a substantial data gap.

Legal reform to remove discrimination and promote gender equality is unfinished

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

For Goal 5, the following analysis spotlights:

- 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
- 5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18
- 5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location
- 5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments
- 5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions
- 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
- 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

Complementary indicators used:

- Various constitutional and legislative provisions to protect women's rights drawn from the OECD SIGI database and the World Bank Women, Business and Law database (For SDG Target 5.1)
- Share of married or in-union women using modern contraceptive methods (For SDG Target 5.6)

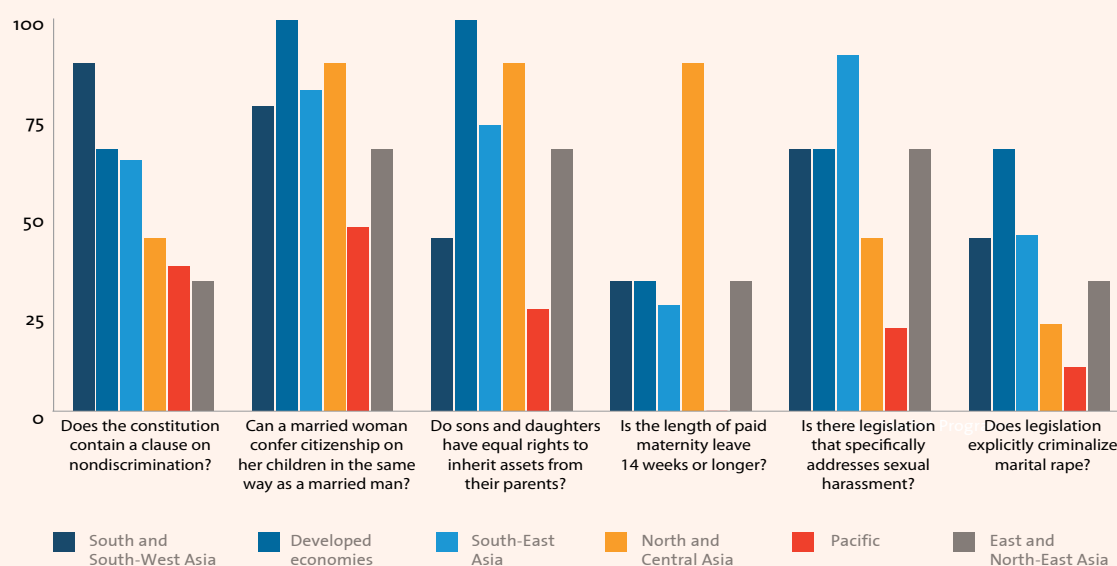
absence of data for the official SDG indicator, a set of complementary indicators shows that there has been uneven progress in legal reform to remove discrimination and promote gender equality across a range of areas (Box 2.7).

Box 2.7 There has been uneven progress in legal reform to remove discrimination and promote gender equality

The World Bank's Women, Business and the Law database provides cross-country comparison of the status of laws to promote gender equality and women's rights. Based on analysis for the region, there has been uneven progress in removing discrimination and introducing laws to promote gender equality. Less than 50 per cent of countries in North and Central Asia, the Pacific, and East and North-East Asia have constitutional protections on non-discrimination. Discrimination in inheritance

laws remains a concern for South and South-West Asia and the Pacific. The majority of countries and territories in the region do not meet the International Labour Organization (ILO) standard of 14 weeks paid maternity leave; less than 50 per cent of countries in North and Central Asia and the Pacific have laws to address sexual harassment; and marital rape is not explicitly criminalized in more than half of the countries in most sub-regions (Figure 2.10).

Figure 2.10 Proportion of countries and territories that have constitutional and legislative provisions to protect women's rights by sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



Source: Annex 2, Statistical Table 5.1.



As many as one in two women have experienced physical and/or sexual violence in the last 12 months in countries across the region for which data are available

Violence against women and girls remains one of the most pervasive barriers to women's equal enjoyment of their human rights (see Chapter 5).¹⁹ The proportions of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence, by an intimate partner, in the last 12 months, ranged from 50.7 per cent in Bangladesh, 46.4 per cent in Timor-Leste, 46.1 per cent in Afghanistan, 44 per cent in Vanuatu, and 41.8 per cent in Solomon Islands, to 6 per cent in the Lao PDR and 0.9 per cent in Singapore. The proportion of women who experienced sexual violence, regardless of the perpetrator, in their lifetime ranged from 4.2 per cent in Singapore to 35.6 per cent in Fiji.²⁰ Girls younger than 15 are at acute risk

in several Pacific countries: in Vanuatu and Solomon Islands, more than 30 per cent of women reported being sexually abused before 15 years of age.²¹ There is limited data on the proportion of women who experience psychological violence in their intimate relationships. However, the prevalence of psychological violence is generally higher than physical and sexual violence in women's lifetime and in the past 12 months.

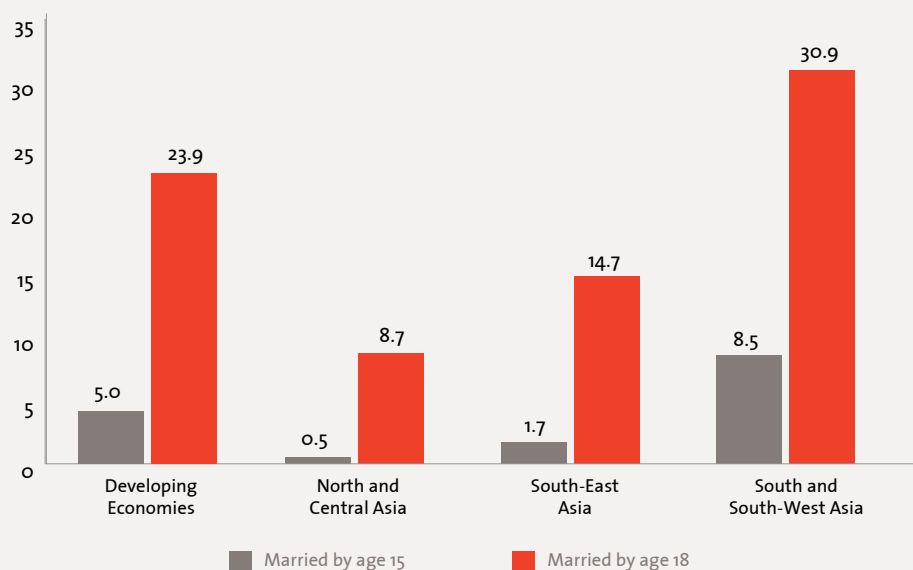
In most countries in the region, women are much more likely to have experienced intimate partner violence than to have experienced violence by someone other than a partner.

One in three women in South and South-West Asia are married or in a union by the age of 18

Rates of child marriage in South and South-West Asia are the highest in the region, with 8.5 per cent of women aged 20–24 married by the age of 15, and 30.9 per cent married by the age of 18 (Figure 2.11). The rates are also the highest in the world – above the global average of 5 per cent (married by the age of 15) and 21 per cent (married by the age of 18).²²



Figure 2.11 Proportion of women aged 20–24 years married by ages 15 and 18 by sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



Source: Annex 2, Statistical Table 5.6.

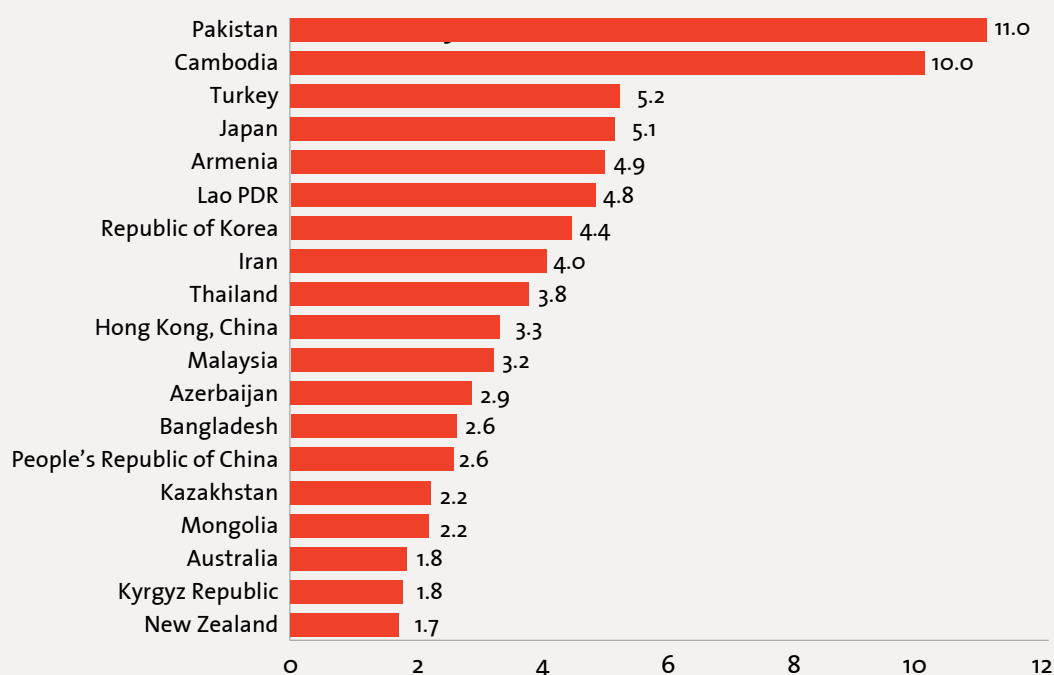
Note: Averages for Developed economies, East and North-East Asia, and the Pacific are not available.

Women and girls spend as much as 11 times more of their day than men and boys on unpaid care and domestic work

The unequal distribution of unpaid care and domestic work between women and men is a major barrier to gender equality and women's empowerment (see Chapter 4).²³ The data shows significant gaps between women and men in every country and territory in which time spent on this work is measured (Figure 2.12). Women spend 11 times more time than men in unpaid care and domestic work in Pakistan, compared to New Zealand where women spend 1.7 times more in unpaid care and domestic work. Many factors influence the unpaid time and relative burdens among women and men. These include not only social norms and demographic factors, but also public policies related to employment, subsidization of childcare and other care services, parental leave, and public infrastructure that saves time, such as water, sanitation and energy.



Figure 2.12 Women's time spent on unpaid care and domestic work, selected countries and territories in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (as a ratio of men's time)



Source: Calculated from Annex 2, Statistical Table 5.6.

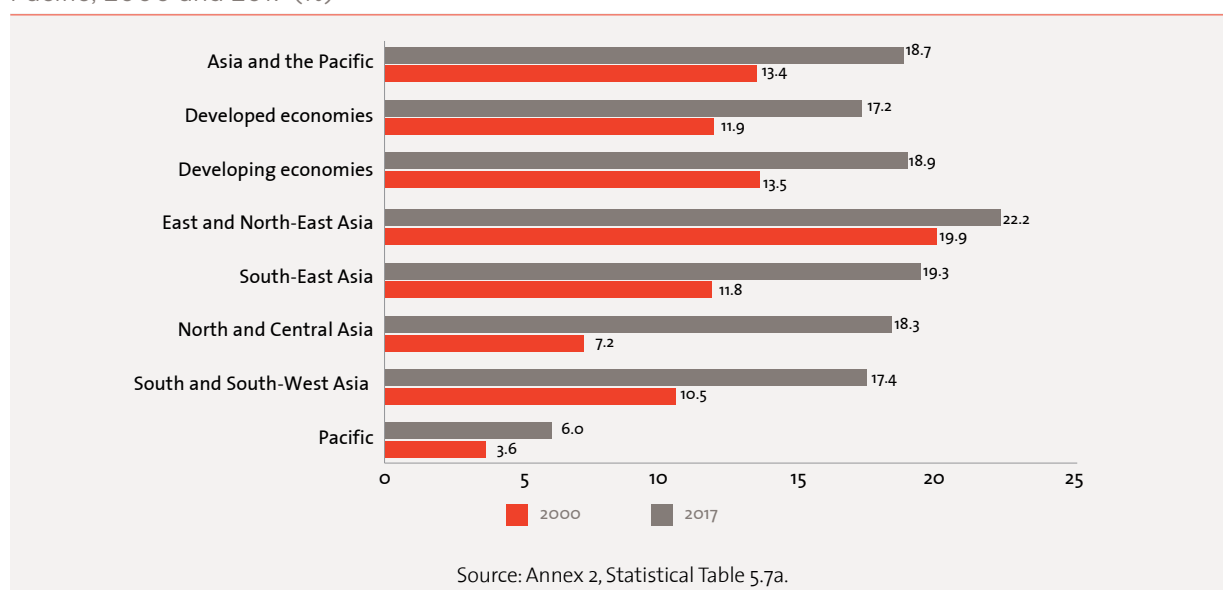
Fewer than one in five parliamentarians in the region are women and women's share of managerial positions varies widely

While the proportions of seats held by women in national parliaments has on average increased across the region since 2000, they stand well below parity: fewer than 1 in 5 parliamentarians in the region are women. The sub-region with the highest representation, East and North-East Asia, shows an average of 22.2 per cent of parliamentary seats held by women in 2017 (Figure 2.13). Women held just 6 per cent of seats in Pacific Island parliaments in 2017, representing a small increase from 3.6 per cent in 2000. At country level, quotas on minimum representation of women have had some success, with recent post-

conflict countries in the region holding comparatively higher representation: Timor-Leste leads at 38.5 per cent, followed by New Zealand (34.2 per cent), and Nepal (29.6 per cent) (Annex 2: Statistical Table 5.7a). The Federated States of Micronesia, and Vanuatu have no women represented in parliament.

At the workplace, women's share of managerial positions across Asia and the Pacific varies widely. While women fill 47.5 per cent of managerial positions in the Cook Islands, just 3 per cent of these positions are held by women in Pakistan (Annex 2: Statistical Table 5.7a). In an ILO survey of companies in the region, women represented 10 per cent or less of senior managers.²⁴ Women make up little more than 5 per cent of chief executive officers of publicly listed companies.

Figure 2.13 Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments by sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2000 and 2017 (%)



More data is needed to monitor women's decision-making with respect to sexual and reproductive health and rights

Only five countries in the region have data from population health surveys available on women aged 15–49 who make their own informed decision regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care between 2010 and 2014: Armenia with 64.3 per cent of women, Cambodia (75.6 per cent), the Kyrgyz Republic (76.6 per cent), Nepal (59.5 per cent) and Russian Federation (40.9 per cent) (Annex 2: Statistical Table 5.7a). To add to this limited picture, this report uses contraceptive use as a complementary indicator (Box 2.8).

Box 2.8 Two in three of married women in the region use a modern method of contraception

Contraceptive prevalence, collected through health surveys, gives an initial if partial sense of the share of women who make informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care. Using this proxy, 2 in 3 women aged 15–49 that are married or in a union in Asia and the Pacific use a modern contraception method. East and North-East Asia have the highest levels of contraceptive use, with 83.2 per cent of women married or in-union using

any modern contraceptive method between 2003 and 2015 (Annex 2: Statistical Table 5.7a). The Pacific is the sub-region with the lowest share of these women using modern contraceptive methods, at just 26.3 per cent, followed by South and South-West Asia at 44.1 per cent. As contraceptive prevalence only captures decision-making regarding sexual relations among women married or in a union, more data on the official indicator is urgently needed.

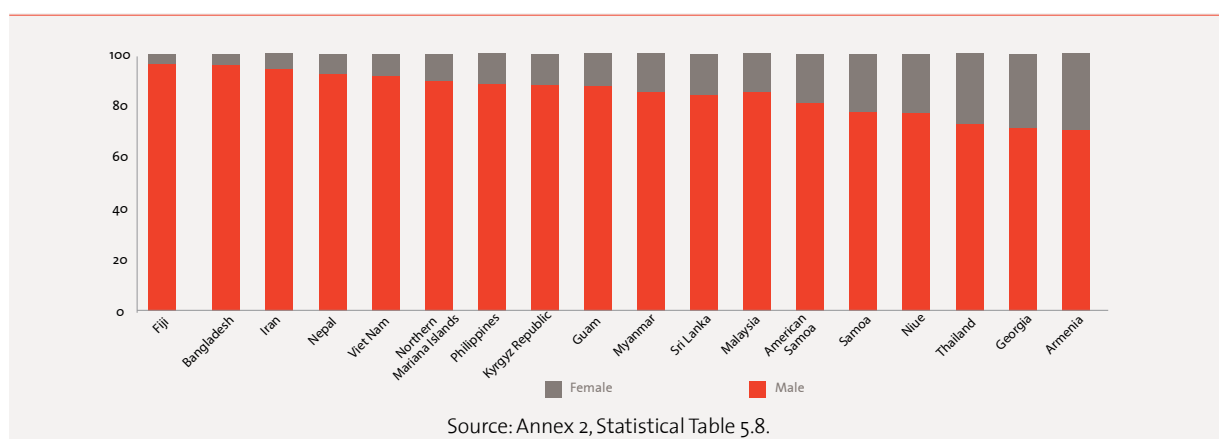
Source: Annex 2, Statistical Table 5.7a.

Women hold agricultural land at rates far lower than men in countries with data

In Asia and the Pacific, women have less access than men to productive assets, including land, capital, agricultural extension and training, and information technologies. In all 18 countries and territories in Asia and the Pacific with the most recent data for the 2001–2009 period, women hold agricultural land at far lower rates than men (Figure 2.14). The largest disparity is in Fiji, where women hold 3.6 per cent of agricultural land compared to men's share of 96.4 per cent. Even in Armenia, Georgia and Thailand, which have the smallest gender gaps, women still hold less than half the share of agricultural land compared to men.



Figure 2.14 Distribution of agricultural holders by sex, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



GOAL 6: CLEAN WATER AND SANITATION

Safe drinking water and sanitation are particularly important for women and girls who are most often the primary users, providers and managers of water in their households. Where running water is unavailable at home, women and girls are often forced to travel long distances to meet household water needs. Ill health caused by the lack of adequate water and sanitation increases the need to care for sick family members, a responsibility that falls primarily on women and girls. The lack of adequate sanitation facilities may also increase women's risk of violence and harassment – be it at school, at work or in their communities – hampering their ability to learn, earn an income and move freely.

State of data availability

Goal 6 does not include any gender-specific indicators, but two indicators (6.1.1 and 6.2.1) from the official list of indicators can provide some insight into women's access to water and sanitation, even they do not explicitly call for sex-disaggregation. These indicators therefore do not shed light on intra-household inequality in access to and use of water and sanitation. The indicator on the distance to safe drinking water is also an important gender-related indicator, as it can shed light on the time women spend collecting water.²⁵

While access to clean water and sanitation has increased in the region, sub-national disparities remain, and women and girls are more likely to be responsible for collecting water

Asia and the Pacific has made progress in connecting more people to safely managed drinking water, with the share of people with access increasing from 82.8 per cent in 2000 to 93.4 per cent in 2015 (Annex 2: Statistical Table 6.1a). Access to safely managed sanitation has also improved, from 62.1 per cent in 2000 to 75.9 per cent in 2015 (Annex 2: Statistical Table 6.1a). Despite this progress, wide rural-urban disparities exist across sub-regions, with 38.3 per cent of the rural population in the Pacific using safely managed sanitation facilities compared to 75.7 per cent in urban areas in 2015.

For Goal 6 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 6.1.1 Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water sources

Complementary indicator used:

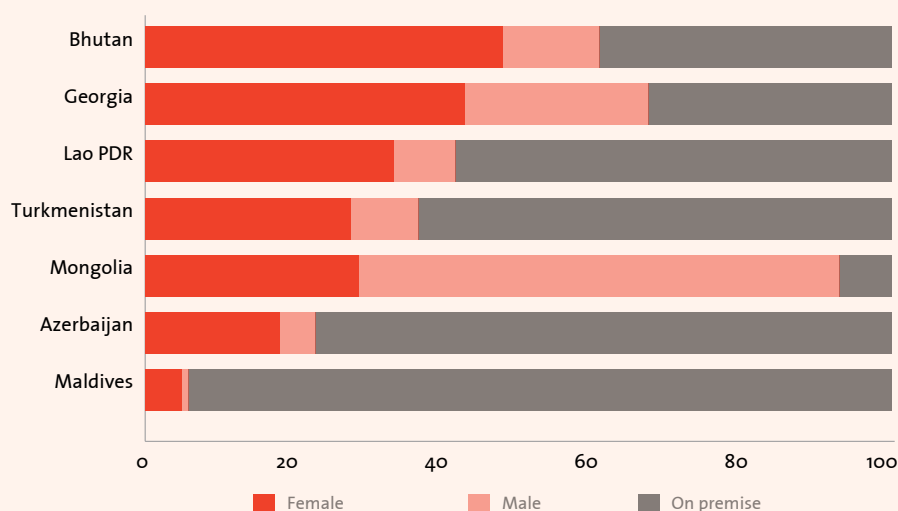
- Proportion of households where males/females are usually in charge of water collection

Box 2.9 Women and girls are more likely to bear responsibility for collecting water across the region

Of countries with data, the share of girls and women with responsibility for collecting water, a complementary measure to the global SDG indicators, is two to six times greater than the share of boys or men (Figure 2.15). Mongolia is an exception, where boys and men have a greater responsibility for collecting water for the home.

Providing accessible clean water is essential for enabling women and girls to devote more time to education, generating income and improving well-being. Indeed, community water and sanitation projects that are designed and run with the full participation of women are more sustainable and effective than those that are not.²⁶

Figure 2.15 Distribution of households by person responsible for water collection, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



Source: Calculated from Annex 2, Statistical Table 6.1b.



GOAL 7: AFFORDABLE AND CLEAN ENERGY

Lack of access to affordable and clean energy has a significant gendered impact on time use, health, and economic opportunities for women and men. As women are primarily responsible for household activities such as cooking and cleaning, access to clean energy shapes the amount of time they spend on these activities (as opposed to other paid activities), as well as their health. Exposure to indoor air pollution from unclean cooking energy is a cause of a range of diseases, such as chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, lung cancer and heart disease, adversely impacting upon women more than men.²⁷ Costs of energy may also adversely impact on poor women, and consultation about different payment options should also consider gender differences.²⁸

State of data availability

Goal 7 does not include any gender-specific indicators, but two official indicators are important for tracking women's access to energy. These indicators, however, do not explicitly call for sex-disaggregation, which would enable monitoring intra-household gender differences in access to electricity and reliance on clean fuel.

For Goal 7 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 7.1.1 Proportion of population with access to electricity
- 7.1.2 Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology

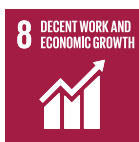
While more than 95 per cent of the region is connected to electricity, only 56 per cent access clean energy

In rural households, women are often the primary energy managers, spending hours each day collecting fuel to cook and to heat their homes. In the Asia and the Pacific region, the full benefits of access to electricity are enjoyed only in the Developed Economies and in North and Central Asia. In other sub-regions in 2014, 80 per cent or more of the population had access to electricity, except in the Pacific, where a little over a third had access. While Papua New Guinea has more than doubled the share of people accessing electricity since 2000, it still has the least access, at 20.3 per cent (Annex 2: Statistical Table 7.1a). The lack of access to electricity across Asia and the Pacific adds to women's time burden, impacting upon the time available for their schooling and economically productive opportunities. The lack of access to energy also increases women's reliance on traditional cook stoves, which are a major source of respiratory diseases and death.²⁹

Similar trends can be observed in access to clean fuels and technology. While more than 95 per cent of the population in Developed Economies relied on clean fuels and technologies in 2014, and 91.9 per cent in North and Central Asia, the percentage of the population relying on clean fuels and technologies is much lower in the Pacific (27.7 per cent) and in East and North-East Asia (57.4 per cent) (Annex 2: Statistical Table 7.1a). In some countries such as Kiribati, the Lao PDR and Timor-Leste, less than 5 per cent of the population rely primarily on clean fuels and technology.



Photo: UN Women/Betsy Davis



GOAL 8: DECENT WORK AND ECONOMIC GROWTH

Inclusive and sustainable growth is critical for contributing to sustainable development, poverty eradication and reducing inequality. From a gender perspective, the extent to which the benefits of growth are distributed between women and men is important, as well as the risks and costs of economic decline. In the Asia and Pacific region, the benefits of growth have not accrued equally to women and men, with the region standing out as the only one where women's labour force participation is falling (see Chapter 4). Enabling women to access more and better jobs is crucial for gender equality and sustainable development more broadly. A regular and independent source of income not only provides women with greater voice and agency in the household, but has also been shown to improve investment in the wellbeing of other household members, particularly children, with benefits for long-term growth.

State of data availability

Four of the seven gender-related indicators on Goal 8 are readily available. Even when data for SDG indicators are available, the timeliness of several indicators is less than desirable since data are not regularly updated. More effort is needed to provide more comprehensive data on the gender wage gap. This is calculated from the wages and salaries of employees, thus covering only paid employment, and does not take into account self-employment (including own account workers and contributing family workers).

For Goal 8 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non agriculture employment, by sex
- 8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities
- 8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities
- 8.10.2 Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider

Complementary indicator used:

- Average monthly gender wage gap (For Target 8.5)

Women are better represented than men in informal non-agricultural jobs in half of Asia and the Pacific

In half of the countries and territories with data the proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment is greater for women than men. Timor-Leste has the greatest gap, with double the share of women (26.5 per cent) compared to men (13.5 per cent) in 2010 (Annex 2: Statistical Table 8.1). While several other countries show small differences between women and men, the proportion of non-agricultural informal employment is 70 per cent or higher among both women and men in Indonesia, Pakistan and the Philippines.

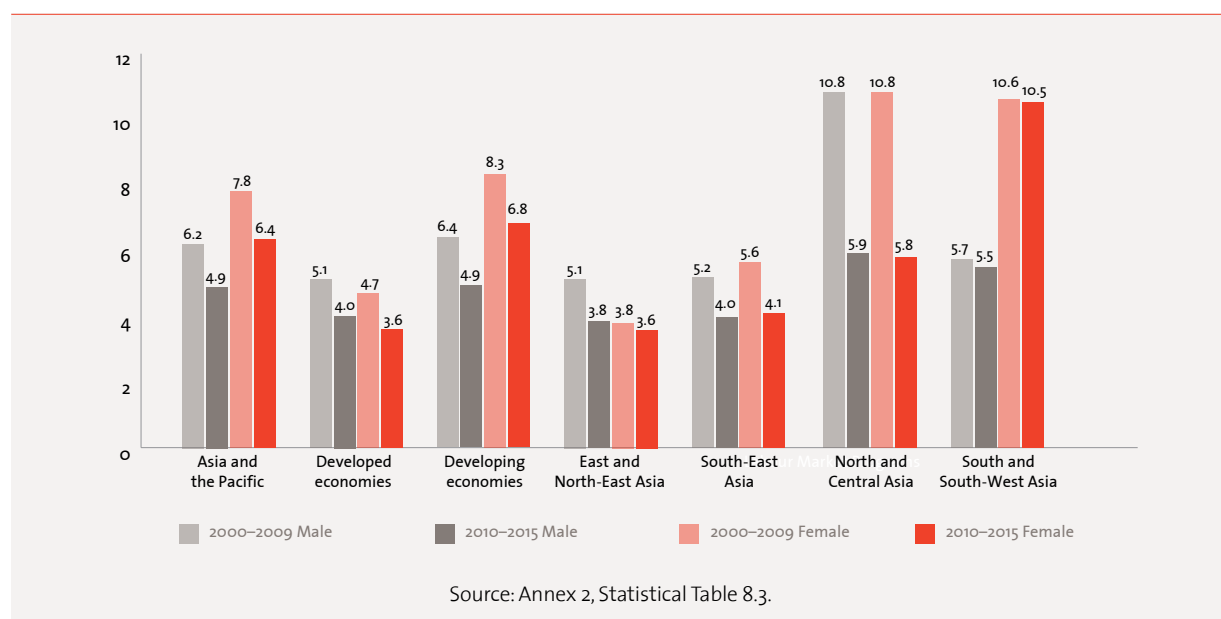
Long-term decline in unemployment points to a positive trend, while women in formal jobs earn much less than men

The gap in unemployment rates between men and women has decreased gradually over time, reaching parity just before the financial crisis of 2008 (Figure 2.16). Following the crisis, unemployment rates among men remained higher until reaching close to parity again from 2011 onwards. In East and North-East Asia, North and Central Asia, and Developed Economies unemployment rates among women are lower than for men.

Within age groups, unemployment rates for youth (15–24 years old) are higher than for people 25 years or older (Annex 2: Statistical Table 8.3).³⁰ Gender differences within youth unemployment rates also vary across regions. In South-East Asia, North and Central Asia, South and South-West Asia unemployment rates among female youth are higher than those of men while it is the opposite in East and North-East Asia and Developed Economies regions.

Progress towards decent work for all women and men can also be tracked by assessing sex-based disparities in earnings. In most countries for which data on the official SDG indicator on “Average hourly earnings of female and male employees” are available, women earn less than men. However, as only 14 per cent of countries and territories in the region have data on this official indicator, a complementary indicator on differences in monthly wages shows a more comprehensive picture of the gender gap in wages across the region (Box 2.10).

Figure 2.16 Unemployment rate by sex and sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2000–2009 and 2010–2015 (%)



Box 2.10 Women in formal employment earn much less than men

Of countries and territories with data, the gender wage gap is highest in Azerbaijan, Pakistan and Democratic People's Republic of Korea (Figure 2.17). However, the gender wage gap is tipped in favour of women in the Philippines and Turkey. The lack

of data limits a more complete understanding of the gender wage gap, particularly for women in informal work, which makes up a significant portion of employment in the region.

Figure 2.17 Gender wage gap (difference of male and female monthly earnings as a proportion of male monthly earnings), selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



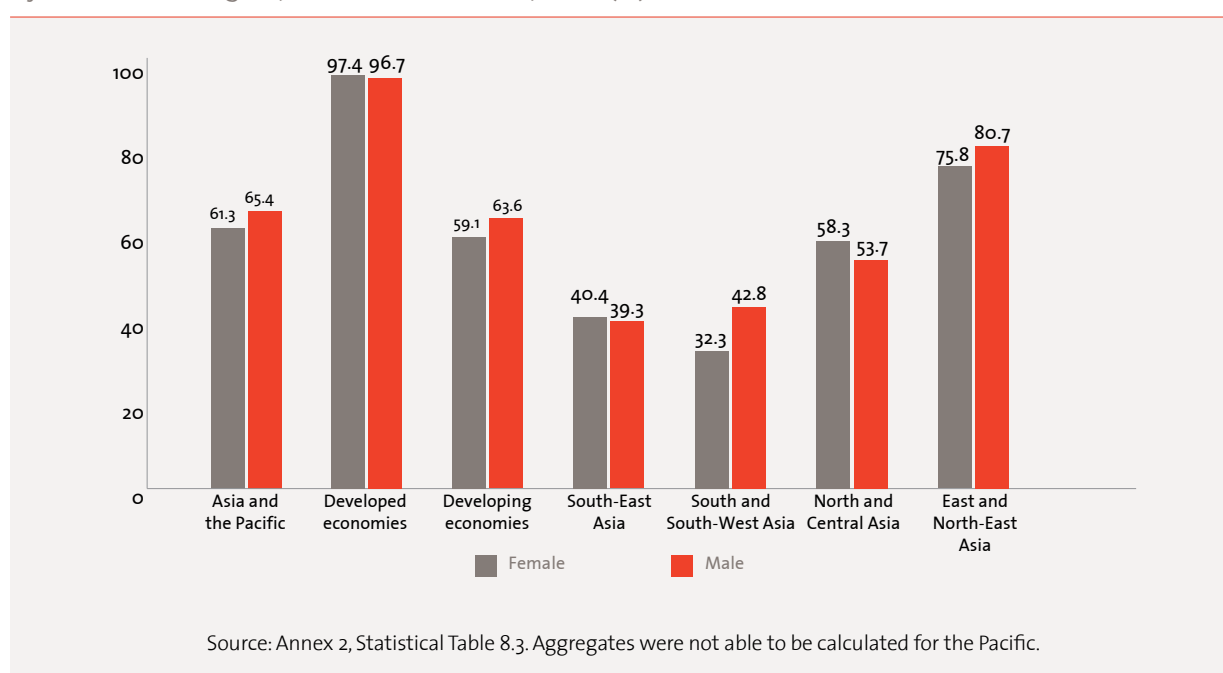
Source: Annex 2, Statistical Table 8.2.

Women have less access to financial services than men

Across most countries and territories in the region, women lag behind men when it comes to access to finance. On average, 61.3 per cent of women aged 15 and older have an account at a financial institution, compared to 65.4 per cent of men for the same age group in 2014 (Annex 2: Statistical Table 8.3). Financial access is lowest for women in South and South-West Asia at 32.3 per cent, compared to 42.8 per cent for men (Figure 2.18). This is largely driven by restrictions on opening a bank account such as requirements for a

male family member's permission, and lack of financial education for women. Of the remaining sub-regions, access is highest in Developed Economies, East and North-East Asia, and North and Central Asia where the relatively high rates are driven by higher access by women in the Russian Federation, and in South-East Asia by rates in Malaysia and Thailand, where three quarters of women have access, and Singapore, where 96.1 per cent have access. Access to finance does not only lead to greater economic opportunities for women; opening accounts at financial institutions also provides them with a platform to benefit from additional financial services.

Figure 2.18 Proportion of population aged 15 years and older with an account at a financial institution by sex and sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2014 (%)





GOAL 9: INDUSTRY, INNOVATION AND INFRASTRUCTURE

Structural transformation in the region has led to significant changes with gender equality implications. For example, recent decades have seen the expansion of export-oriented industrialization strategies. This has created new employment opportunities for women in manufacturing, although the terms and conditions of this employment have been a concern in many countries. Research and innovation that is driving technological change remains male-dominated, despite women's increasing educational attainment.

Ensuring that infrastructure responds to the needs of women is also critical for gender equality. For example, affordable public transport and roads enable women to travel for education, earning an income and participation in public life.

State of data availability

While there are no gender-specific indicators in the official SDG indicator framework for this goal, the indicators focused on ICT coverage and access to roads are important for gender equality in the region. However, disaggregation of ICT indicators

by sex remains a challenge, with only 21 countries and territories out of 57 in the region able to provide information on individuals using the Internet, by sex. With respect to access to road infrastructure, the Rural Access Index currently provides data dating back to 2009 (see Annex 2: Statistical Table 9.1), and is under discussion as an official SDG indicator (Box 2.11).

Data on women's participation in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) and research can be collected through education surveys, and is critical for monitoring the gender dimensions of this goal, but remains limited for the region.

For Goal 9 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 9.c.1 Proportion of the population covered by a mobile network by technology

Complementary indicator used:

- Share of women using the Internet as a proportion of men using the Internet (For SDG Target 9.c)

Box 2.11 Policies informed by emerging measures on access to roads to reach essential services must be gender-responsive

In late 2016, the World Bank published a revised Rural Access Index (RAI), piloting new global spatial data and GIS techniques in eight countries, two of which are relevant to Asia and the Pacific: Bangladesh and Nepal. The RAI was proposed in the 47th session of the United Nations Statistical Commission as a contribution to the measurement of global SDG indicator 9.1.1 on the share of the rural population who live within 2 km of an all-season road. Although not yet finalized, the inclusion of the RAI in the SDG indicators underscores

the importance of having a cross-country and regionally comparable measure of transport access. As the discussion to advance the indicator moves forward, it is critical that policy decisions based on the RAI focus on extending and maintaining roads to facilitate the access of women and girls to the services they need. (For currently available data dating to 2009 on the RAI in Asia and the Pacific, see Annex 2: Statistical Table 9.1.)

Source: Transport and ICT. 2016. *Measuring Rural Access: Using New Technologies*. Washington DC: World Bank, License: Creative Commons Attribution CC BY 3.0. <http://documents.worldbank.org/curated/en/367391472117815229/pdf/107996-REVISED-PUBLIC-MeasuringRuralAccessweb.pdf>. Accessed August 16, 2017.

Mobile-cellular subscription rates for both sexes increased 15-fold since 2000

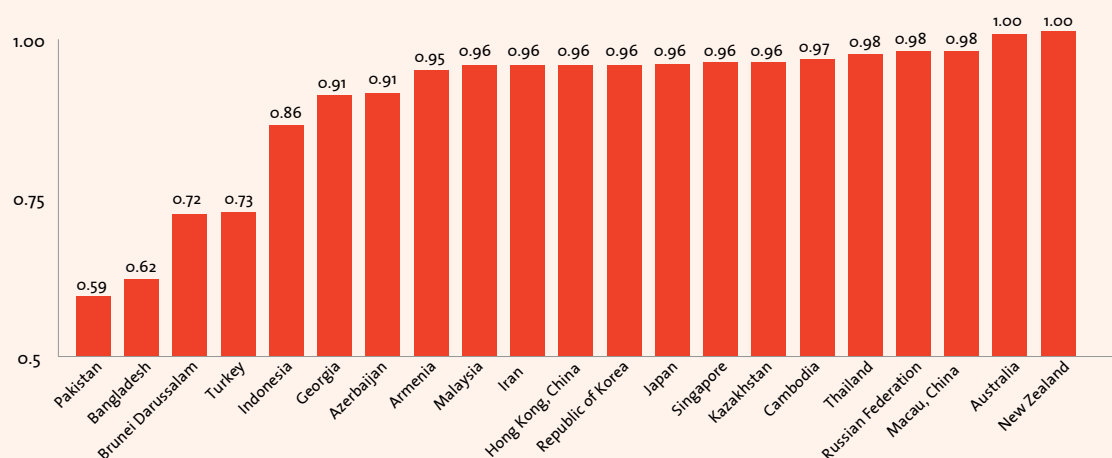
At the regional level, mobile-cellular subscriptions have seen a momentous increase, from 6.2 per 100 people in 2000 to 95 in 2015 (Annex 2: Statistical Table 9.1). Looking at access to the Internet reveals gender differences in some countries (Box 2.12).



Box 2.12 Women's access to the Internet is lower than that of men

An additional indicator that enables the assessment of gender-based inequality in access to technology is Internet use disaggregated by sex. More men access the Internet than women except in Australia and New Zealand, while women in Pakistan and Bangladesh have far less access than men (Figure 2.19).

Figure 2.19 Women using the internet as a ratio of men using the Internet, selected countries and territories in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year



Source: Calculated from Annex 2, Statistical Table 9.1.

Note: 1.00 = parity line, where women's and men's access are equal.



GOAL 10: REDUCED INEQUALITY

Goal 10 aims to reduce inequality in its different forms – from income inequality to inequality based on age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic status. Reducing inequality is particularly important for women, because they are the ones usually at a disadvantage as a result of gender-based discrimination, and because gender intersects with many other axes of discrimination, resulting in inequality among women. There is growing evidence of a relationship between gender inequality and greater income inequality.³¹ The determinants vary; in developed economies, increase in income inequality is associated with higher gender gaps in labour force participation, while in developing economies it is mainly associated with higher gender gaps in education, political empowerment and health.³² Gender-responsive fiscal and social policies that are critical for reducing income inequality, both between households and between women and men, are also needed.

the proportion of people living on below 50 per cent of the median income, by age, sex and persons with disabilities, which measures how far individuals are from the median standard of living. Another indicator which is yet to be developed is the percentage of the population having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the last 12 months, based on a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law.

For Goal 10 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 10.1.1 Growth rates of household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40 per cent of the population and the total population

State of data availability

Official Goal 10 indicators and their scarce data availability hamper the monitoring of gender equality outcomes. For example, there is limited data to monitor

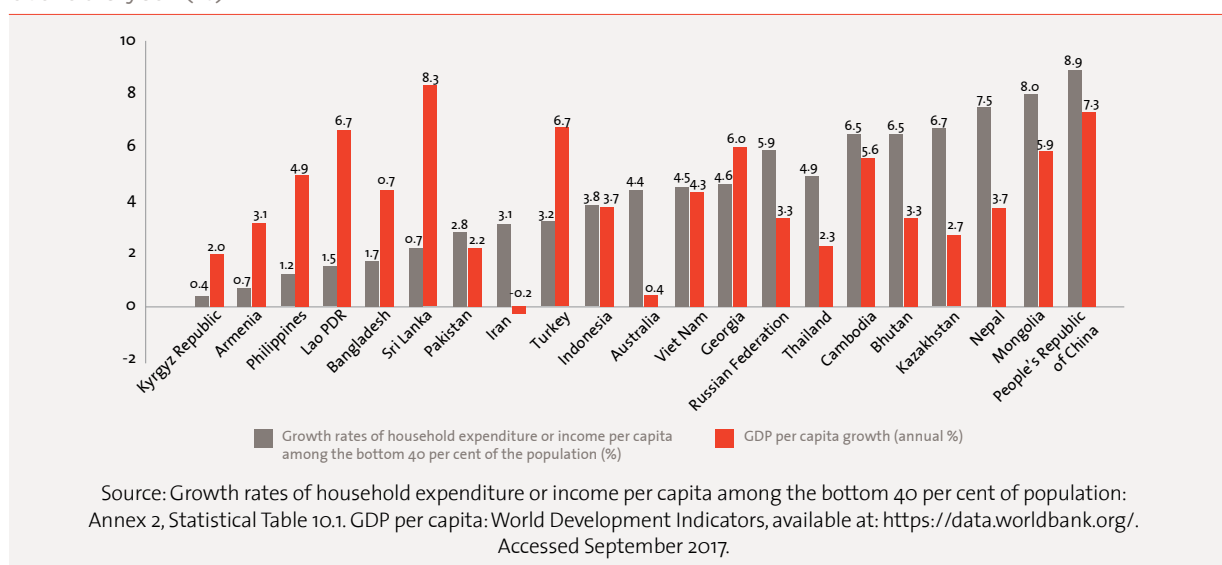


Income growth for the poorest 40 per cent is slower than national averages

In many contexts, especially the least developed countries in Asia and the Pacific, household surveys are the main data source on expenditure and income per capita for the bottom 40 per cent of households. Of the 21 countries and territories with data, the growth rates for the 2010–2014 period vary considerably, from the Kyrgyz Republic (0.4 per cent), Armenia (0.7 per

cent), and the Philippines (1.2 per cent), to the People's Republic of China (8.9 per cent), Mongolia (8 per cent) and Nepal (7.5 per cent), which have experienced the highest growth rates. To contextualize the data, comparison of average per capita income illustrates where economic growth is pro-poor (Figure 2.20). While this indicator provides an overall picture of the distribution of growth, it does not provide any insight into the position of women, which would require sex-disaggregated individual level data.

Figure 2.20 Change in household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40 per cent and annual change in GDP per capita, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



GOAL 11: SUSTAINABLE CITIES AND COMMUNITIES

Urbanization is expected to continue as a trend in the region, with estimates showing that in 2018, half of the region's population will live in cities.³³ For women and girls, urbanization is often associated with greater access to education, employment opportunities and independence. Yet at the same time, rapid urbanization also leads to increased air pollution, lack of affordable housing, lack of access to quality services, unsafe public spaces and overcrowded and inadequate public transport. For women, the lack of personal safety, barriers to finding affordable housing and the lack of services present important barriers. Overcrowding, safety and health are of particular concern in urban slums.

State of data availability

No national data collection systems exist yet in Asia and the Pacific to measure the global SDG indicators 11.2.1 (Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities), and 11.7.1 (Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities). Similarly, global indicator 11.7.2 (Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months) is under development, although some countries have collected data through national surveys.

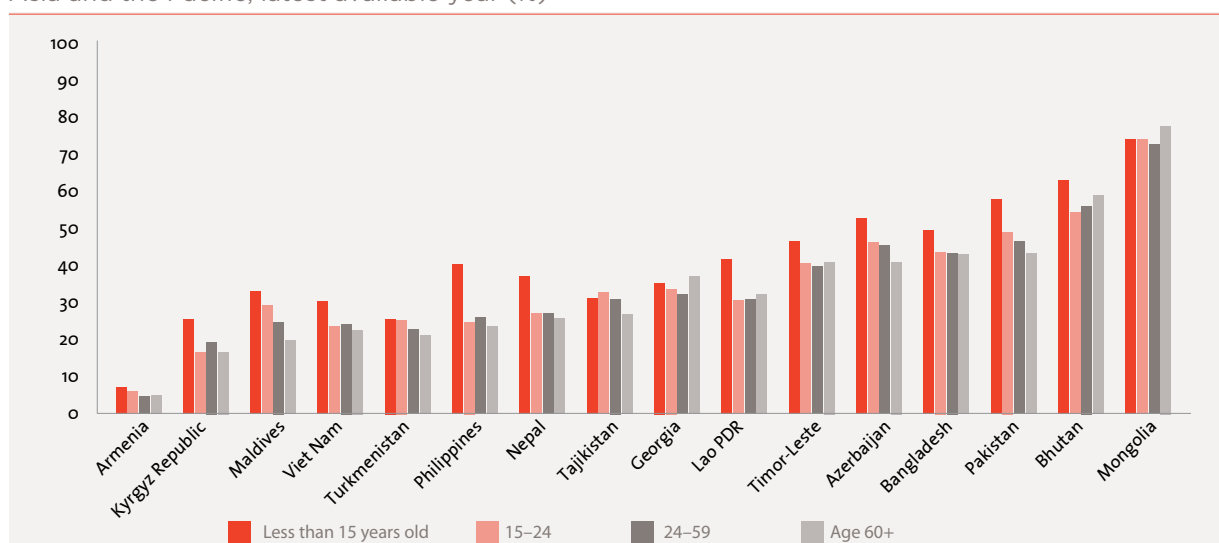
For Goal 11 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 11.1.1 Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing

Girls aged under 15 are over-represented amongst those living in slums

Among the Asia and the Pacific countries with available data, the proportion of people in cities that live in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing ranges from 11.9 per cent in Turkey to 62.7 per cent in Afghanistan (Annex 2: Statistical Table 10.1). Women and girls are disproportionately at risk, as lack of housing and security of tenure in slums increases their vulnerability to eviction and exploitation.³⁴ Without basic infrastructure and services, women and girls' unpaid care and domestic work is intensified, and this deprives them from education, jobs and free time. Girls aged under 15 are especially at risk of the consequences of living in urban slums, as they are largely over-represented among females in countries with data (Figure 2.21).³⁵

Figure 2.21 Proportion of female urban population living in slums by age group, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)



Source: Annex 2, Statistical Table 10.2.

Note: "Slums" in this indicator is based on the definition in the Demographic and Health Survey as "a group of individuals living under the same roof lacking one or more of the following conditions: access to improved water; access to improved sanitation; sufficient-living area; durability of housing; security of tenure".



GOAL 12: RESPONSIBLE CONSUMPTION AND PRODUCTION

Unsustainable production and consumption patterns are the key driver behind climate change, which has a disproportionate impact on women (see Part II Chapter 6). Consumption and production patterns that deplete environmental resources and prevent others from accessing the benefits of modern energy, food security and health are usually concentrated in countries and groups with the highest standards of living. Patterns can also produce immense waste, particularly food waste. Women in developing countries are often at the forefront of efforts to promote responsible consumption through waste-picking and recycling. While it is commonly assumed that women are more eco-conscious, systemic change in consumption and production for sustainable development will require going beyond individual-level consumption to ensure that all public and private actors play a role in promoting sustainable production practices.

State of data availability

Goal 12 does not have any gender-related indicators. More work is needed to understand the relationship between gender equality and sustainable consumption and production beyond individual-level consumption, for example how shifts towards sustainable production impact on women's employment outcomes. At individual level, further research and data are also needed to assess how greater levels of gender equality and women's participation in decision-making, in particular within households, can have a positive knock-on effect on consumption patterns.



GOAL 13: CLIMATE ACTION

Asia and the Pacific is one of the regions most affected by the harmful impacts of climate change (see Chapter 6). As women in developing countries are more likely to rely on agriculture, be responsible for collecting water and involved in small-scale fisheries, climate change affects women's livelihoods, income and employment prospects, while putting their health at risk and increasing their time burdens. At the same time, women also play a key role in mitigating and adapting to climate change risks. This role must be recognized, supported and strengthened if sustainable development is to be achieved in the region.³⁶ Natural disasters also have a disproportionately negative impact on women and children, who are at an increased risk of violence in the aftermath of a disaster and more likely to die during a disaster. Disaster-induced migration and displacement are on the rise in many Asian and the Pacific countries and territories, as are women's risk of exploitation, trafficking and violence. Women's outcomes post-disaster are directly linked to their status prior to the disaster. Where there is greater gender equality, disasters cause comparable

numbers of deaths across sexes, boys and girls are equally likely to attend school during displacement, and food distribution is equal even in situations of shortage.

State of data availability

While there are two gender-relevant indicators under Goal 13, there is virtually no data to monitor this goal from a gender perspective in the region. There is a general dearth of gender statistics to further and better understand the disproportionate impacts of climate change on women, including their use of natural resources and time spent in collecting fuel, and their engagement in conservation practices, for example in relation to forests and oceans. Collecting and using sex-disaggregated data to track the number of people killed, missing or affected in natural disasters by sex is a priority action area, as well as sex-disaggregated data on the social and economic outcomes following disasters.



GOAL 14: LIFE BELOW WATER

Rising sea levels are having significant impacts on communities – most especially in Bangladesh, Maldives and other low-lying areas in Asia and the Pacific. Those most at risk include families living in coastal communities and those who depend on oceans for their livelihood. In the Pacific, women are preliminary involved in fish harvesting and gleaning from inshore and coastal areas – the areas most heavily affected by climate change.³⁷ Increasing levels of pollution in oceans also impact on women's and men's livelihoods, their health, and the health of their children.

In the Asia and the Pacific region, women play an important role in fishery value chains. In the Mekong river basin for instance, almost 5,000 fish markets are

run by women, and women account for approximately 56 per cent of the annual small-scale fishery catches in the Pacific Islands.³⁸ However, overall, women are often confined to low-skilled, vulnerable jobs, putting their health at risk, and earn less than men for the same level of work in areas such as aquaculture.³⁹

State of data availability

Goal 14 does not have any gender-related indicators. More work is needed to understand the relationship between gender equality and the sustainable management of oceans, seas and marine resources.



GOAL 15: LIFE ON LAND

Between 2000 and 2015, roughly 135,333 square kilometers of natural forest area was lost in the region, roughly three times the size of Denmark, and accounting for 10.6 per cent of the world's total natural forest loss. Although the loss of forest and commons impact the livelihoods of both women and men, the impact is felt differently due to gender differences in the nature of their dependence on these resources for their livelihoods. Women, particularly those from landless and land-poor households, use forests mainly for the collection of short-gestation products such as firewood, fodder, food items and other non-timber products (due to their roles in cooking, cattle care, supplementing household nutrition and related tasks). Men on the other hand are more involved in timber logging for house construction, house repair

and agricultural implements.⁴⁰ Research also shows that women's participation in community forest management bodies yields positive outcomes for both forest sustainability and gender equality.⁴¹ As such, ensuring women's participation in the governance of natural resources is critical for sustainable development.

State of data availability

Goal 15 does not have any gender-related indicators. More work is needed to understand the relationship between gender equality and terrestrial ecosystems, forests, desertification, land degradation and biodiversity loss.



GOAL 16: PEACE, JUSTICE AND STRONG INSTITUTIONS

Peaceful and inclusive societies uphold the rule of law and ensure equal access to justice. Effective, accountable and inclusive institutions are also important for protecting against corruption, violence and creating more equal societies. There are significant impacts on women when institutions weaken or break down. In times of conflict and crisis, women are more affected when public services deteriorate, for example health and education services. They are also more likely to be trafficked and are at greater risk of violence from intimate partners and non-partners. Against this background, remarkable normative commitments have been made globally to promote women's equal participation in conflict prevention, resolution and peacebuilding, address gender-based violence in conflict, end impunity and ensure equal access to justice and services.

State of data availability

Reports on victims of intentional homicide are widely available in Asia and the Pacific. Estimates of the number and causes of death among children and adolescents, in both conflict and non-conflict settings, however, may not be systematically collected by criminal justice or vital registration systems. Determining cause of death, particularly when victims are very young, can be challenging even in countries with advanced and well-functioning health and registration systems. Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause is of clear relevance to monitoring Goal 16. However, as the methodology for calculating the share of conflict-related deaths has not yet been internationally agreed,

the indicator reported in Annex 2: Statistical Table 12.1 serves as a proxy measure pertaining only to direct deaths.

Data on trafficked population is somewhat available, although commonly underreported as a result of difficulties in the measurement of illicit activity and hidden populations. Similarly, violence data is available for a number of countries but also believed to be severely underreported. While specialized violence surveys and other household surveys such as Demographic and Health Surveys are commonly used to collect information on women's experience of violence in many developing countries, the availability and timeliness of data remain a serious challenge, particularly in conflict and post-conflict countries. To date, many data collection efforts in these countries have been ad-hoc and have used non-internationally agreed statistical standards and definitions – thus limiting the comparability and reliability of the estimates.

For Goal 16 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 16.1.1 Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age
- 16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation



Photo: UN Women/Allison Joyce

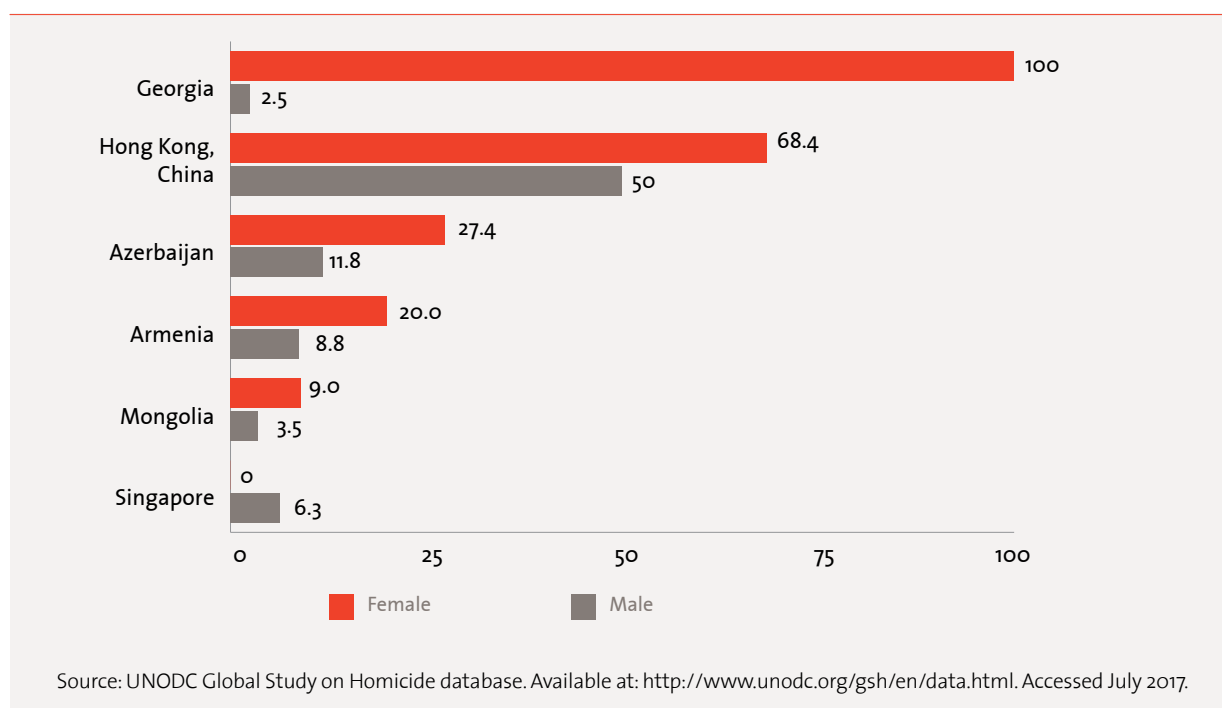
Women homicide victims are more likely to be killed by a current or former intimate partner

Men are the primary victims of homicide in countries across Asia and the Pacific with sex-disaggregated data available for the 2009–2015 period, representing as much as 87.7 per cent of intentional homicides victims (Annex 2: Statistical Table 12.1). An available complementary measure to highlight the impact of violence on women and girls in the region is the share of homicide victims killed by intimate partners or family members, disaggregated by sex. All the homicides of women and girls in Georgia were perpetrated by intimate partners or family members, 40 times the 2.5 per cent of male homicide victims killed by intimate partners or family members (Figure 2.22). Underreporting of intimate partner homicide, female infanticide and other key dimensions of violence against women and girls would suggest that actual shares are even higher.

Among countries with data, women are more likely to be the victims of trafficking than men. Girls are more vulnerable than boys in five countries where data is available

Data on human trafficking is available for 13 countries in the region. Among five of eight countries in the region with data on human trafficking for both men and women aged 18 years or older, the victimization rate per 100,000 population was much higher for women than men. In the other three countries namely, Tajikistan, Thailand, and Uzbekistan, per 100,000 population, more men were victims of human trafficking than women. For children, in all five countries for which data are available, girls are more vulnerable than boys (Annex 2: Statistical Table 12.3).

Figure 2.22 Intentional homicide victims killed by intimate partners or family members by sex, selected countries and territories in Asia and the Pacific, 2010 (% of total homicide victims)



GOAL 17: PARTNERSHIPS FOR THE GOALS

Achieving the gender equality commitments in the SDGs requires an enabling environment at national and global level. Each aspect of the “means of implementation” (the enabling policies, investments, technology and partnerships for achieving the SDGs) has gender implications, whether they be decisions about budgets and spending, trade agreements or investments in technology or data. Ensuring that sex-disaggregated data is regularly collected and analyzed, and that gender statistics are periodically produced and disseminated is an urgent regional priority for the implementation and monitoring of the SDGs from a gender perspective.

Measurement challenges and data gaps

Despite the importance of Goal 17 for gender equality, most of its indicators are not gender-specific. Moreover, the methodology to assess the proportion of SDG indicators produced at national level with full disaggregation in accordance with the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics is still under development. Advancing this indicator is crucial to ensure the collection, analysis and use of evidence-based insights to guarantee the SDGs leave no woman or girl behind.

For Goal 17 and gender equality, the following analysis spotlights:

- 17.19.2 Proportion of countries that have conducted at least one population and housing census in the last 10 years

Some countries lack a recent decadal census

Population and housing censuses are primary sources of sex-disaggregated data and are essential for the monitoring of all SDGs, as they provide sampling frames for population surveys. All countries and territories in East and North-East Asia, the Developed Economies, North and Central Asia, the Pacific, and South-East Asia, have conducted at least one population and housing census during the 10-year period spanning 2006 to 2015. However, only 78 per cent of South and South-West Asian countries conducted one population and housing census during this period. Countries with no recent census in that 10-year period 2006–2015 included Afghanistan, Bhutan, and Pakistan. Population and Housing censuses were conducted in Bhutan and Pakistan in 2017 after more than a decade.



Photo: UN Women/Nicky Kuautonga

The need to significantly boost investment in gender statistics to effectively monitor the SDGs

Of the 88 gender-related SDG indicators used in this report, 59 per cent have at least one data point to develop an initial picture of the status of gender and the SDGs in Asia and the Pacific. Investment in data is needed across the region to effectively monitor the whole SDG framework, with particular attention to gender statistics.

The main challenges for gender statistics include:

- **Sex-disaggregation.** Many indicators are not disaggregated by sex, although this is essential to understanding gender differences and the different impacts of policies and interventions on women and men.
- **Advancing methodological development.** Many gender-related SDG indicators are new and as such require methodological development, new data collection efforts, and the testing of new data collection instruments.
- **Multidimensional disaggregation and identifying groups of women and girls that are at risk of being left behind.** Countries must identify the most deprived population groups and monitor the SDGs in a fully comprehensive manner, ensuring that disaggregation beyond sex is used to determine whether national policies and programmes reach the furthest behind.
- **Coordination and statistical capacity building.** Coordination among researchers, national statistical offices, line ministries, gender ministries, donors and policymakers is needed to identify priorities for investment, including for the development of new methodologies, surveys and data collection instruments to fill data gaps.
- **Data dissemination and policy use.** Sharing and effectively communicating data analysis will help to make evidence-based decisions and to hold decision-makers to account.

Advancing gender statistics to effectively monitor the SDGs requires work on several fronts. Priority actions include reinforcing the capacity of national statistical systems to improve data production, through training, technical and financial support, and strengthening the capacity of public institutions, civil society organizations and academics to use statistics to inform policies through the on-going Asia and the Pacific dialogues to define priorities and share learning experiences (Box 2.13). Better communication between data users and producers is needed to enable data to be used effectively for decision-making, not only to inform the effective design of policies and the allocation of resources, but also to hold decision-makers accountable.

Box 2.13 Advancing SDG data availability requires coordinated action

SDG data are particularly scarce on new indicators not previously available under the MDG framework. On-going dialogues, including the 2017 Asia and Pacific Forum on Sustainable Development, recognize several key steps that need to be taken:

- Governments must align their national legal and policy frameworks with the SDGs to target population groups at risk of being left behind.
- Maximize the use of existing data sources, from administrative data to under-utilized micro-data.
- Advance capacity to produce analytical work focused on disparity analysis.
- Increase user-producer dialogue to ensure data are relevant to guide evidence-based SDG action.

Source: UNESCAP. 2017. Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2016: SDG Baseline Report. p. 52.

Technological advances mean that crowdsourcing and big data analytics can bring new forms of data and information to complement official statistics to monitor the SDGs. Crowdsourcing entails the collection of information from the public, while big data analytics is the analysis of the digital traces that mobile device and Internet users leave behind in their daily use of information technologies. The growing use of digital technology, including smart phones, tablets and laptops, and tracking devices such as climate sensors and global positioning systems, has brought about significant levels of digital data. New insights are now possible, including: poverty profiling in small areas using mobile data usage; prediction of population movement after a disaster; geo-mapping diseases such as malaria and the H1N1 virus; and tracking economic performance and inflation at sub-national level using tweets.⁴² However, the use of these technologies to strengthen gender data collection is yet to be systematically undertaken and should not replace investment in official statistics. There are useful lessons to be drawn from *Safetipin*, a mobile application crowdsourcing safety data especially for women (Box 2.14).

Box 2.14 *Safetipin* – an innovative example of crowdsourcing data for women’s safety

Safetipin provides users – especially women – with information on safe areas in a city. Friends and family can monitor one another’s location and take and use photographs as part of assessing the safety in a city area. A 2016 pilot launched in Manila,

supported by the Asian Development Bank and Civil Society Centre, mobilized 150 youths to conduct safety audits in parts of Quezon City – collecting over 2,000 points of information on lighting, accessibility and security presence.

Source: *Safetipin* website. www.safetipin.com; <http://asiafoundation.org/2016/05/11/safetipin-tool-build-safer-cities-women/>.



Photo: ADB/M R Hasan

Availability of data for gender-related SDG indicators

Table 2.1 describes the state of data availability of the 85 unique gender-related SDG indicators (as of December 2017 if the data are available in the Global SDG Database, or July 2017 if the data were collected from other sources). Table 2.1 lists the 88 gender-related SDG indicators (noting the two indicators that repeat across the framework), with the 54 core indicators tagged as follows ●. Country and territory data availability is given by broad description of availability based on the following cut-offs:

- Widely available = 2/3 or more (67 per cent+) of the region.
- Moderately available = 1/3 to 2/3 (34–66 per cent) of the region.
- Somewhat available = At least 1 data point but less than 1/3 (up to 33 per cent) of the region.
- No data available in the region (0 per cent).

The state of data availability of the 85 unique gender-related SDG indicators (excluding the two that repeat) for Asia and the Pacific is as follows:⁴³

- Widely available: 26 per cent
- Moderately available: 21 per cent
- Somewhat available: 12 per cent
- No data: 41 per cent

The Table also provides information on the classification of the three indicator tiers, based on an updated classification developed by the Inter-Agency Expert Group on the SDGs at the 6th Meeting in November 2017, as follows:

- Tier I: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant.
- Tier II: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries.
- Tier III: No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but methodology/standards are being (or will be) developed or tested.

Multiple gender-related SDG indicators cut across tiers. The 85 unique gender-related SDG indicators for this report (including the two that repeat across the framework) are classified as follows:

Tier classification	Number of gender-related SDG indicators	Proportion of gender-related SDG indicators (%)
Tier I	25	29
Tier II	37	44
Tier III	20	24
Tier I/II	1	1
Tier II/III	1	1
Tier I/II/III	1	1

Moving the gender data agenda forward in Asia and the Pacific requires fast-tracking the methodological development of Tier III gender-related SDG indicators.

Several patterns emerge from a review of gender-related SDG indicator data availability:

- Limited Goal 5 data overall, particularly for some sub-regions. Data for Goal 5 indicators is widely available for only one of the 14 indicators, signalling the significant investment needed to monitor gender equality in the SDGs. In particular, data for countries and territories in North and North-East Asia are limited across multiple indicators in Goal 5. There are no data for this sub-region on intimate partner physical or sexual violence against women or female land holders, and only Mongolia has data on child marriage rates.
- More gender-related data is needed for the Pacific Islands on many SDGs. There are no data for any Pacific country on 22 indicators – with particular deficits in economic indicators, including poverty rates, gender wage gaps and food insecurity. In turn, the Pacific has better country data coverage for disaster impacts on both sexes, and violence against women indicators.
- Developed Economies must collect or make available more gender data. Developed Economies are missing a large number of indicators. Developed Economies have data for just 27 of the 55 indicators. This undermines regional monitoring of the development agenda, which must include both developed and developing countries and economies, and highlights the scale of new data collection and sharing efforts necessary in Developed Economies.

Table 2.1 Gender-related SDG indicators and data availability (as of December 2017)

Gender-related SDG Indicator	Annex 2: Statistical Table	Asia and Pacific Regional Coverage	Data availability (% of region with at least 1 data observation)	Earliest Year (2000–2010)	Latest Year (2011–2015)	IAEG-SDG classification
Goal 1						
1.1.1 Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)		Varies	65–67			Tier I
Proportion of population below the international poverty line of US\$1.90 per day in 2011 PPP prices (%)	1.1	Moderately available	65	✓	✓	
Proportion of employed population below the international poverty line of US\$1.90 per day in 2011 PPP prices, by sex and age	1.2a	Widely available	67	✓	✓	
1.2.1 Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age	1.3	Moderately available	61	✓	✓	Tier I
1.2.2 Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions		No data	0			Tier II
1.3.1 Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable		Varies	19–35			Tier II
Proportion of the population covered by labour market programmes (%)	1.5a	Somewhat available	19	✓	✓	
Proportion of the population covered by social assistance programmes (%)	1.5a	Somewhat available	32	✓	✓	
Proportion of the population covered by social insurance programmes (%)	1.5b	Somewhat available	32	✓	✓	
Proportion of unemployed receiving unemployment benefits (%)	1.5b	Moderately available	35	✓	✓	
Complementary indicator: Social Protection Index, by sex and programme, 2015	1.5c	Moderately available	61–63	✓	✓	
1.4.1 Proportion of population living in households with access to basic services		No data	0			Tier III
1.4.2 Proportion of total adult population with secure tenure rights to land, with legally recognized documentation and who perceive their rights to land as secure, by sex and by type of tenure		No data	0			Tier II
1.5.1 Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population***		See 13.1.1				Tier II
1.a.2 Proportion of total government spending on essential services (education, health and social protection)		No data	0			Tier II
1.b.1 Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to sectors that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups		No data	0			Tier III

How to read this table:

- Corresponds to the core list of 54 Inter-Agency and Expert Group on SDG Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) global gender-related indicators including 1. all indicators under SDG 5; and 2. indicators across the framework that explicitly refer to sex, gender, women and girls and/or are specifically or largely targeted at women and girls. The criteria used in defining the core list of IAEG-SDG global gender-related indicators compilation is narrow and meant to capture instances where the indicator is explicitly gender-related.
- Corresponds to the revised global indicator framework that was agreed by the Statistical Commission at its 48th session in March 2017.

Widely available is defined as 2/3 or more (67%+) countries or territories in Asia and the Pacific have at least 1 data point;

Moderately available 1/3–2/3 (34–66%) of countries or territories;

Somewhat available At least 1 data point but less than 1/3 (up to 33%) of countries or territories have data;

No data available in the region (0%).

IAEG-SDG classification refers to the IAEG-SDG agreed classification of indicators into three categories). Tier I: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant; Tier II: Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries; Tier III: No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but methodology/standards are being (or will be) developed or tested. Please note that the IAEG-SDG classification reflected in the last column in this table is as of December 2017.

Asterisks (**) and (***) denote the two IAEG-SDG global gender-related indicators that repeat across the framework; status of indicator data availability is, however, presented only once.

† denotes a regionally-relevant complementary indicator used to fill-in data gaps and to provide a more robust sense of the status of gender in the SDGs in Asia and the Pacific.

Gender-related SDG Indicator	Annex 2: Statistical Table	Asia and Pacific Regional Coverage	Data availability (% of region with at least 1 data observation)	Earliest Year (2000–2010)	Latest Year (2011–2015)	IAEG-SDG classification
Goal 2						
2.1.1 Prevalence of undernourishment	2.1	Widely available	68	✓	✓	Tier I
Complementary indicator: Prevalence of anemia among women of reproductive age of 15–49 years (%) ¹	2.1	Widely available	79	✓	✓	
2.1.2 Prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity in the population, based on the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES)	2.1	Moderately available	54		✓	
2.2.1 Prevalence of stunting (height for age <2 standard deviation from the median of the World Health Organization (WHO) Child Growth Standards among children under 5 years of age	2.2	Moderately available	51	✓	✓	Tier I
2.2.2 Prevalence of malnutrition (weight for height >+2 or <-2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age, by type (wasting and overweight)		Varies	49–57			Tier I
● Proportion of wasted children (weight for height below minus two standard deviations from the median) under the age of 5 years	2.3	Moderately available	57	✓	✓	
● Proportion of overweight children (weight for height above plus two standard deviations from the median) under the age of 5 years	2.4	Moderately available	49	✓	✓	
● 2.3.2 Average income of small-scale food producers, by sex and indigenous status		No data	0			Tier III
Goal 3						
● 3.1.1 Maternal mortality ratio	3.1	Widely available	77	✓	✓	Tier II
● 3.1.2 Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	3.1	Widely available	74	✓	✓	Tier I
3.2.1 Under-five mortality rate	3.2a	Widely available	88	✓	✓	Tier I
3.2.2 Neonatal mortality rate	3.3	Widely available	88	✓	✓	Tier I
● 3.3.1 Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations	3.4	Moderately available	40	✓	✓	Tier II
3.4.1 Mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease	3.5	Widely available	68	✓	✓	Tier II
3.4.2 Suicide mortality rate	3.5	Widely available	67	✓	✓	Tier I
● 3.7.1 Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods	3.6a	Moderately available	49	✓	✓	Tier I
● 3.7.2 Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group	3.6a	Widely available	100	✓	✓	Tier I
● 3.8.1 Coverage of essential health services (defined as the average coverage of essential services based on tracer interventions that include reproductive, maternal, newborn and child health, infectious diseases, noncommunicable diseases and service capacity and access, among the general and the most disadvantaged population)		No data	0			Tier III
3.9.2 Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene (exposure to unsafe Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for All (WASH) services)	3.6a	Widely available	89			Tier II

Gender-related SDG Indicator		Annex 2: Statistical Table	Asia and Pacific Regional Coverage	Data availability (% of region with at least 1 data observation)	Earliest Year (2000–2010)	Latest Year (2011–2015)	IAEG-SDG classification
Goal 4							
●	4.1.1 Proportion of children and young people: (a) in grades 2/3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex		Varies	5–28		✓	Tier III (a)/ Tier II (b,c)
●	Proportion of children at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in mathematics	4.1	Somewhat available	30	✓	✓	Tier II (b,c)
●	Proportion of children at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in reading	4.1	Somewhat available	28	✓	✓	
●	Proportion of children at the end of primary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in mathematics	4.1	Somewhat available	25	✓	✓	
●	Proportion of children at the end of primary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in reading	4.1	Somewhat available	16	✓	✓	
●	4.2.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial wellbeing, by sex		No data	0			Tier III
●	4.2.2 Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex	4.2	Widely available	68	✓	✓	Tier III
●	4.3.1 Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex		No data	0			Tier I
	4.4.1 Proportion of youth and adults with information and communications technology (ICT) skills, by type of skill		No data	0			Tier II
●	4.5.1 Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated		Varies	16–68			Tier II
●	Gender parity index for participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age)	4.3a	Widely available	68	✓	✓	Tier I/II/III depending on index
●	Gender parity index for achievement in reading by the end of primary	4.3a	Somewhat available	16		✓	
●	Gender parity index for achievement in mathematics by the end of primary	4.3a	Somewhat available	25		✓	
●	Gender parity index for achievement in mathematics by the end of lower secondary	4.3a	Somewhat available	32	✓	✓	
●	Gender parity index for achievement in reading by the end of lower secondary	4.3a	Somewhat available	26		✓	
●	Gender parity index of teachers in lower secondary education who are trained	4.3b	Moderately available	42	✓	✓	
●	Gender parity index of teachers in pre-primary education who are trained	4.3b	Moderately available	39	✓	✓	
●	Gender parity index of teachers in primary education who are trained	4.3b	Moderately available	60	✓	✓	
●	Gender parity index of teachers in upper secondary education who are trained	4.3b	Somewhat available	32	✓	✓	

Gender-related SDG Indicator		Annex 2: Statistical Table	Asia and Pacific Regional Coverage	Data availability (% of region with at least 1 data observation)	Earliest Year (2000–2010)	Latest Year (2011–2015)	IAEG-SDG classification
●	4.6.1 Per centage of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex		No data	0			Tier II
	Complementary indicator: Adult literacy rate [†]		Moderately available	54		✓	
●	4.7.1 Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in: (a) national education policies, (b) curricula, (c) teacher education and (d) student assessment		No data	0			Tier III
	Complementary indicator: Extent to which comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) is integrated into school curricula [†]		Moderately available	49			
●	4.a.1 Proportion of schools with access to: (a) electricity; (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes; (c) computers for pedagogical purposes; (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities; (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities (as per the WASH indicator definitions)		No data	0			Tier II
	4.c.1 Proportion of teachers in: (a) pre-primary; (b) primary; (c) lower secondary; and (d) upper secondary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (e.g. pedagogical training) pre-service or in-service required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country	4.4	Varies	32–60	✓	✓	Tier II
Goal 5							
●	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*		No data	0			Tier III
	Complementary indicators: Gender discrimination and legal frameworks [†]	5.1	Widely available	79		✓	
●	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	5.5a	Moderately available	44–53	✓	✓	Tier II
●	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	5.5b	Somewhat available	14	✓	✓	Tier II
●	5.3.1 Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18	5.6	Moderately available	60		✓	Tier II
●	5.3.2 Proportion of girls and women aged 15–49 years who have undergone female genital mutilation/cutting, by age		No data	0			Tier II
●	5.4.1 Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location	5.6	Somewhat available	33	✓	✓	Tier II
●	5.5.1 Proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments and (b) local governments		See component indicator				Tier I (a)/ Tier II (b)
●	(a) Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments	5.7a	Widely available	84	✓	✓	Tier I (a)/
●	(b) Proportion of seats held by women in local governments		No data				

*5.1.1 is classified as Tier II indicator as of May 2018, see Tier Classification of Global SDG indicators. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/iaeg-sdgs/tier-classification/>

Gender-related SDG Indicator		Annex 2: Statistical Table	Asia and Pacific Regional Coverage	Data availability (% of region with at least 1 data observation)	Earliest Year (2000–2010)	Latest Year (2011–2015)	IAEG-SDG classification
●	5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions	5.7a	Moderately available	60	✓	✓	Tier I
●	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	5.7a	Somewhat available	9		✓	Tier II
	Complementary indicator: Contraceptive prevalence rate ¹		Widely available	75		✓	
●	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		No data	0			Tier III
●	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		No data	0			Tier II
●	5.a.2 Proportion of countries where the legal framework (including customary law) guarantees women's equal rights to land ownership and/or control		No data	0			Tier II
●	5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex	5.8	Somewhat available	11		✓	Tier I
●	5.c.1 Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment		No data	0			Tier II
Goal 6							
	6.1.1 Proportion of population using improved drinking water sources	6.1a	Widely available	93	✓	✓	Tier II
	Distribution of households by person responsive for water collection ¹	6.1b	Somewhat available	12	✓	✓	
	6.2.1 Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services, including a hand-washing facility with soap and water	6.1a	Widely available	95			Tier II
Goal 7							
	7.1.1 Proportion of population with access to electricity	7.1a	Widely available	100		✓	Tier I
	7.1.2 Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology	7.1a	Widely available	88	✓	✓	Tier I
Goal 8							
●	8.3.1 Proportion of informal employment in non agriculture employment, by sex	8.1	Somewhat available	21	✓		Tier II
●	8.5.1 Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities	8.2	Somewhat available	14			Tier II
	Complementary indicator: Gender Wage Gap ¹	8.2	Moderately available	46		✓	
●	8.5.2 Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities	8.3	Varies	56–68	✓	✓	Tier I
●	8.7.1 Proportion and number of children aged 5–17 years engaged in child labour, by sex, urban/rural, wealth	8.1	Moderately available	39		✓	Tier II
●	8.8.1 Frequency rates of fatal and nonfatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status		No data	0			Tier II

Gender-related SDG Indicator		Annex 2: Statistical Table	Asia and Pacific Regional Coverage	Data availability (% of region with at least 1 data observation)	Earliest Year (2000–2010)	Latest Year (2011–2015)	IAEG-SDG classification
●	8.8.2 Level of national compliance with labour rights (freedom of association and collective bargaining) based on International Labour Organization (ILO) textual sources and national legislation, by sex and migrant status		No data	0			Tier III
●	8.9.2 Proportion of jobs in sustainable tourism industries out of total tourism jobs		No data	0			Tier III
	8.10.2 Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider	8.3	Moderately available	56		✓	Tier I
Goal 9							
	9.1.1 Proportion of the rural population who live within 2km of an all season road		No data	0			Tier III
	Complementary indicator: Rural Access Index [†]	9.1	Moderately available	56	✓		
	9.c.1 Proportion of the population covered by a mobile network by technology	9.1	Widely available	88	✓	✓	Tier I
	Complementary indicator: Proportion of population using the Internet by sex, latest year available (%) [†]	9.1	Moderately available	37			
Goal 10							
	10.1.1 Growth rates of household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40 per cent of the population and the total population	10.1	Moderately available	37	✓	✓	Tier II
●	10.2.1 Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by age, sex and persons with disabilities		No data	0			Tier III
	10.3.1 Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law**		See 16.b.1				Tier III
Goal 11							
	11.1.1 Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing	10.1	Moderately available	26	✓	✓	Tier I
●	11.2.1 Proportion of population that has convenient access to public transport, by sex, age and persons with disabilities		No data	0			Tier II
	11.5.1 Number of deaths, missing persons and persons affected by disaster per 100,000 people***		See 13.1.1				Tier II
●	11.7.1 Average share of the built-up area of cities that is open space for public use for all, by sex, age and persons with disabilities		No data	0			Tier III
●	11.7.2 Proportion of persons victim of physical or sexual harassment, by sex, age, disability status and place of occurrence, in the previous 12 months		No data	0			Tier III
Goal 12							
Goal 13							
	13.1.1 Number of deaths, missing persons and persons affected by disaster per 100,000 people***		Varies	23–44			Tier II
●	Number of persons killed by disaster per 100,000 people	11	Moderately available	44	✓	✓	

Gender-related SDG Indicator	Annex 2: Statistical Table	Asia and Pacific Regional Coverage	Data availability (% of region with at least 1 data observation)	Earliest Year (2000–2010)	Latest Year (2011–2015)	IAEG-SDG classification
● Number of persons missing due to disasters per 100,000 people	11	Somewhat available	23	✓	✓	
● Number of persons affected by disaster per 100,000 people	11	Moderately available	42	✓	✓	
● 13.b.1 Number of least developed countries and small island developing States that are receiving specialized support, and amount of support, including finance, technology and capacity-building, for mechanisms for raising capacities for effective climate change-related planning and management, including focusing on women, youth and local and marginalized communities		No data	0			Tier III

Goal 14

Goal 15

Goal 16

● 16.1.1 Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age	12.1	Widely available	83		✓	Tier I
● 16.1.2 Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause		No data	0			Tier III
16.1.3 Proportion of population subjected to physical, psychological or sexual violence in the previous 12 months	12.1	Moderately available	42	✓	✓	Tier II
16.1.4 Proportion of population that feel safe walking alone around the area they live		No data	0			Tier II
16.2.1 Proportion of children aged 2–14 years who experienced any physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month	12.2	Somewhat available	28	✓	✓	Tier II
● 16.2.2 Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation	12.3	Somewhat available	23		✓	Tier II
● 16.2.3 Proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18	12.3	Somewhat available	12	✓	✓	Tier II
16.3.1 Proportion of victims of violence in the previous 12 months who reported their victimization to competent authorities or other officially recognized conflict resolution mechanisms		No data	0			Tier II
● 16.7.1 Proportions of positions (by sex, age, persons with disabilities and population groups) in public institutions (national and local legislatures, public service, and judiciary) compared to national distributions		No data	0			Tier III
● 16.7.2 Proportion of population who believe decision-making is inclusive and responsive, by sex, age, disability and population group		No data	0			Tier III
16.9.1 Proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority by age	12.4	Moderately available	56	✓	✓	Tier I
16.10.1 Number of verified cases of killing, kidnapping, enforced disappearance, arbitrary detention and torture of journalists, associated media personnel, trade unionists and human rights advocates in the previous 12 months	12.4	Widely available	100	✓	✓	Tier II
16.b.1 Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law**		No data	0			Tier III

Gender-related SDG Indicator	Annex 2: Statistical Table	Asia and Pacific Regional Coverage	Data availability (% of region with at least 1 data observation)	Earliest Year (2000–2010)	Latest Year (2011–2015)	IAEG-SDG classification
Goal 17						
17.18.1 Proportion of sustainable development indicators produced at the national level with full disaggregation when relevant to the target, in accordance with the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics		No data	0			Tier III
17.19.2 Proportion of countries that (a) have conducted at least one population and housing census in the last 10 years; and (b) have achieved 100 per cent birth registration and 80 per cent death registration	12.4	Widely available	95		✓	Tier I

PART II:

**KEY CATALYSTS FOR PROGRESS TOWARDS
THE ADVANCEMENT OF GENDER EQUALITY
AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN ASIA
AND THE PACIFIC**



Chapter 3

Realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights as a catalyst for achieving sustainable development

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights as a priority for the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The human rights of women to have control over and decide freely and responsibly on matters related to their sexuality and reproduction, free of coercion, discrimination and violence, and regardless of marital status are essential for achieving gender equality.

While Asia and the Pacific has made significant progress in realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights, gaps and challenges remain. Maternal mortality fell by 44 per cent between 2000 and 2015 globally, and the greatest reduction (72 per cent) was achieved in East Asia. Of the nine countries¹ that met the Millennium Development Goal 5 target of reducing the maternal mortality ratio by at least 75 per cent, seven are in the Asia Pacific region.² The majority of women in the region live in countries where abortion is permitted, including the People's Republic of China, Nepal, Cambodia and Viet Nam.

Despite this progress, the absence of sexual and reproductive health and rights continues to be a significant concern in the region, particularly for marginalized women such as those in low-income groups, rural women, persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples, racial and ethnic minorities, people living with HIV, and persons of diverse sexual orientation and gender identity. Women's unequal socioeconomic status, their lack of voice in decision-making, persistent violence against women, discriminatory social norms, gender stereotypes and

gendered power relations are key factors in the denial of their sexual and reproductive health and rights.

Achieving such health and rights is critical for women's empowerment, and a matter of justice (Box 3.1). It can unleash benefits for women, expanding their education and economic opportunities and improving their health outcomes. Its benefits to families, communities and the economy include better child and maternal health outcomes, fewer unintended pregnancies, greater family savings and productivity and better child education outcomes.³ As such, realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights is a transformational priority for gender equality and the SDGs.

This chapter focuses on how progress towards realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights can be accelerated in the context of implementing the SDGs. It starts with an overview of how sexual and reproductive health and rights are related to progress towards the SDGs, followed by a discussion of the key dimensions of such health and rights for the region, and ends with recommendations for accelerating their realization.



Photo: ADB/M R Hasan

Box 3.1 Defining sexual and reproductive health and rights

Sexual and reproductive health and rights includes four different yet interlinked terms – sexual health, sexual rights, reproductive health and reproductive rights.⁴ These encompass both the health and rights aspects of reproduction and sexuality, and comprise: the freedom to choose one's partner; when, if and whom to marry; the ability to make informed choices about the number, spacing and timing of children; the right to be free from coercion and violence; and the right to attain the highest standards of sexual and reproductive health.⁵

Sex refers to the biological characteristics that define humans as female or male. While these sets of biological characteristics are not mutually exclusive, as there are individuals who possess both, they tend to differentiate humans as males and females.

Sexual health is a state of physical, emotional, mental and social well-being in relation to sexuality; it is not merely the absence of disease, dysfunction or infirmity. Sexual health requires a positive and respectful approach to sexuality and sexual relationships, as well as the possibility of having pleasurable and safe sexual experiences, free of coercion, discrimination and violence. For sexual health to be attained and maintained, the sexual rights of all persons must be respected, protected and fulfilled.

Sexual rights include the right of all persons, free of coercion, discrimination and violence, to the highest attainable standard of health in relation to sexuality, including access to sexual and reproductive health-care services; seek, receive, and impart information in relation to sexuality; sexuality education; respect for bodily integrity; choice of partner; decision to be sexually active or not; consensual sexual relations; consensual marriage; decide whether or not, and when to have children; and pursue a satisfying, safe and pleasurable sexual life.

Reproductive health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters relating to the reproductive system and to its functions and processes. Reproductive health therefore implies that people are able to have a satisfying and safe sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so. Implicit in this last condition are the right of men and women to be informed and to have access to safe, effective, affordable and acceptable methods of family planning of their choice, as well as other methods of their choice for regulation of fertility which are not against the law, and the right of access to appropriate health-care services that will enable women to go safely through pregnancy and childbirth and provide couples with the best chance of having a healthy infant. (International Conference on Population and Development [ICPD], Paragraph 7.2).

Reproductive rights rest on the recognition of the basic right of all couples and individuals to decide freely and responsibly the number, spacing, and timing of their children and to have the information and means to do so, and the right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health. It also includes their right to make decisions concerning reproduction free of discrimination, coercion and violence, as expressed in human rights documents (ICPD, Paragraph 7.3).

Sources: Definitions of sexual health, sexual rights, and reproductive health adapted from World Health Organization (WHO), 2006. Defining Sexual Health (Geneva: WHO, 2006). Definition of reproductive rights from ICPD Cairo Programme of Action, United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), 2014

Why does realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights matter for sustainable development?

Realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights is critical for the achievement of the SDGs, as a stand-alone priority, a critical dimension of gender equality and a catalyst for change across the SDGs. The inclusion of Goal 5-Target 5.6 and Goal 3-Target 3.7 for achieving universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights and universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, respectively, provides a strong mandate to accelerate progress towards achieving universal access to these benefits (Box 3.2).

Further, Goal 5 reflects targets that address the inequalities that women and girls face in all fundamental aspects of their lives. The SDGs recognize the interdependence between sexual and reproductive health and rights and other aspects of gender inequality, including women's socioeconomic disadvantage, violence against women and girls and participation in decision-making. Many adolescent girls and young women, especially among poor households, drop out of school when they reach puberty, for multiple reasons including difficulties in managing menstruation, pregnancy, early marriage, restriction of movement because of the fear of violence or the risk of pregnancy, and taking on domestic care work in the family.⁶

A lack of access to sexual and reproductive health and rights impacts on women's economic opportunities, particularly to engage in decent work (Goal 8), and the lack of economic resources impacts on women's access to quality health and rights. Multiple and unwanted pregnancies add significantly to the time women spend in unpaid care and domestic work. As well as negatively impacting on women's health and well-being (Goal 3), labour-intensive care work diminishes options for education (Goal 4), economic participation, financial security and social security (Goals 1, 5 and 8).⁷

Sexual and reproductive health and rights are linked to progress across several of the SDGs, including those related to poverty (Goal 1), nutrition (Goal 2), health (Goal 3), education (Goal 4), and water and sanitation (Goal 6). Evidence from Bangladesh, for example, shows how investing in voluntary family planning and maternal and child health not only improved the health and nutrition of women and girls, but also improved the standard of living of households and increased school attendance.⁸

Sexual and reproductive health and rights are also related to broader health and well-being outcomes. If the contraceptive needs of every woman were met and if all pregnant women and newborns received the recommended World Health Organization (WHO) standards of health care, unintended pregnancies

Interlinkages between universal access to sexual and reproductive health and rights and the achievement of other Goals.



would decline by 70 per cent, and maternal and neonatal deaths would decrease by 67 per cent, and 77 per cent, respectively.⁹ These investments would very nearly eliminate vertical transmission of HIV during pregnancy. However, climate change increases the risk of vector-borne diseases such as malaria. Pregnant women are particularly vulnerable to malaria infection, and maternal malaria contributes to the risk of spontaneous abortion, premature delivery, stillbirth and low birth weight.

What is the status of sexual and reproductive health and rights in Asia and the Pacific?

Asia and the Pacific has made significant progress in advancing sexual and reproductive health and rights, including reducing maternal mortality, increasing access to family planning, and decreasing the number of AIDS-related deaths. However, challenges remain in meeting the unmet need for contraception, the lack of access to safe abortion, realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights for adolescents and marginalized communities and tackling HIV/AIDS. Culture and religious barriers are a key challenge in the region.

While progress has been made in realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights at the population level, sub-groups of women, particularly those from marginalized groups, continue to experience greater barriers to accessing such health and rights. There are also newly emerging concerns such as reproductive cancers, and many countries have limited availability of screening and treatment programmes.

Box 3.2 Targets focused on sexual and reproductive health and rights in the Sustainable Development Goals and relevant international normative standards

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

Target 3.7 by 2030 ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes

Targets 3.1 and 3.8 on essential medicines and health coverage, and Targets 5.1 on ending all forms of discrimination against women and girls, 5.2 on violence against women, and 5.3 on ending harmful practices including early, child and forced marriage

The commitments in the SDGs to advance sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights build on decades of normative advances at international level. In 1994 at the ICPD, 179 countries adopted the Cairo Programme of Action (PoA). ICPD represented a paradigm shift – from a narrow focus on attaining demographic targets to a more holistic agenda grounded on the needs and rights of individuals. In 1995, the Beijing

Declaration and Platform for Action at the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women endorsed these principles. In addition to the ICPD PoA and the Beijing Programme of Action, there are many international human rights instruments and agreements that protect a wide range of sexual and reproductive rights.¹⁰ In 1979, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was the first convention to specifically address discrimination against women based on their reproductive role by asserting that “the role of women in procreation should not be a basis for discrimination.”¹¹

In 2014, the Asian and Pacific Ministerial Declaration on Population and Development emphasized the need for “a rights-based, gender-sensitive, and non-discriminatory approach to population and development strategies”, and called “for universal and equitable access to comprehensive sexual and reproductive health services and information, access to contraceptive services for all couples and individuals, further reductions in maternal deaths, and universal access to HIV prevention, treatment, care and support”.¹² By calling for a rights-based approach, countries in the region recognized once again their responsibility to respect, protect and fulfill the sexual and reproductive health and rights of all people.



Photo: UN Women/Piyavit Thongsa-Ard

Uneven progress in reducing maternal mortality

Asia and the Pacific has achieved progress in maternal mortality reduction, cutting the rate in half from 178 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2000 to 86 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2015. However, this progress has been uneven, with regional and sub-national disparities. For instance, the Pacific sub-region reports the highest maternal mortality ratio of 187 per 100,000 live births (see Chapter 2 and Statistical Annex). In 2015, an estimated 85,000 women in the region died giving birth.¹³

The main causes of death in pregnancy and childbirth are severe bleeding, infections, unsafe abortion, hypertensive disorders (pre-eclampsia and eclampsia), and medical complications including cardiac disease, diabetes and HIV/AIDS. Most of these deaths can be prevented by providing skilled care at childbirth and emergency obstetric care.

Reducing maternal morbidity due to injuries caused during delivery is critical, yet this requires increased monitoring and data, which remain sparse.¹⁴ The most prevalent instances of morbidity are obstetric fistula and uterine prolapse. WHO estimates that “for every woman who dies because of pregnancy-related causes, 20 or 30 others experience acute or chronic morbidity, often with permanent sequelae that undermine their normal functioning”.¹⁵ For example, in Pakistan about 3,500 cases of obstetric fistula are reported every year.¹⁶ Morbidity is not only a cause of physical discomfort; it leads to women experiencing social segregation, exclusion, depression and even destitution.¹⁷

Unmet need for contraception

The ability to make informed reproductive choices and use modern contraceptive methods for family planning can empower women. It enables women to decide not only if, but also when, to have children, serving both the need to avoid and space pregnancies. Despite increases in the use of modern contraceptive methods, gaps remain in the total fertility rate (TFR) and wanted fertility rate (WFR), indicating that women’s need for family planning remains unfulfilled. For example, the WFR for Vanuatu was 2.9 while the TFR was 4.2 for Samoa the WFR was 4, but the TFR was 5.1.¹⁸ Similarly, with a TFR of 3.8 children per woman, Pakistani women reported having one child more than they desired.¹⁹

Apart from its accessibility, availability and cost, there are several reasons why women may not use contraception even when they intend to postpone or stop childbearing. These include lack of comprehensive knowledge about modern contraceptive methods, including how to use them; the fear of side effects and discomfort; health provider bias against certain types of contraception; opposition from family; and citing infrequent sex or postpartum amenorrhea

or breast-feeding.²⁰ Some service providers require parental consent before giving adolescents access to contraception.

Gendered norms and power relations within a relationship, as well as cultural and religious values, may also impede on women’s agency to make contraceptive choices. In many countries in the region, a male child is accorded greater value than female children (see Chapter 2). These norms, along with trends and policies to reduce family size, put pressure on women to produce a male heir, and lead to unwanted, multiple and closely-spaced pregnancies, increasing the risk of maternal death and disability, unsafe abortions, gender-biased sex selection, violence, disownment and even death.²¹

Condoms provide protection against unwanted pregnancy and are the single most effective way of preventing HIV transmission and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs). The prevalence of male contraception – condom use and male sterilization – is low in the region with responsibility for contraception falling largely on women. Female condoms, although less common, offer an option for avoiding unintended pregnancy and reducing the risk of transmission of HIV and STIs, especially when male condoms are not available or used. Male condom use can be hampered when the perceived risk of becoming pregnant and contracting HIV is low, especially when individuals trust their partner. Barriers to the use of condoms include social and cultural norms, an unsupportive environment within and outside the family, lack of knowledge and confidence regarding use, and negative attitudes towards them. Cost, availability and accessibility are other constraints.²²

Lack of access to safe abortion services

In 2014, an estimated 6 per cent of maternal deaths in Asia were attributed to unsafe abortion.²³ Causes of death due to unsafe abortion include severe bleeding, and damage to organs or severe infection.²⁴ For several socioeconomic reasons, women may either want to avoid or delay pregnancy. However, when women and girls are unable to access modern methods of contraception, or due to contraceptive failure, pregnancy resulting from sexual violence, and being unable to access safe abortion services, their only option may be an unsafe abortion.

Most countries in Asia and the Pacific provide legal sanction for the medical termination of pregnancy, and the majority of women, including those who live in the most populated countries in the region have access to legal abortion.²⁵ The grounds on which an abortion is granted range from restrictive (only to save the life of the woman), to very liberal (where a woman can request an abortion). Clauses include parental and spousal consent, or stipulate a time within which abortion is allowed. Abortion laws are most

permissive in countries in East and Central Asia, and most restrictive in the Pacific. Only 18 countries* allow abortion on request. Even when legally permitted, safe abortion services are out of reach for many women.²⁶

When abortion is made legal, safe and accessible, women tend to have better access to services and improved health outcomes. Despite concerns that it may lead to rising rates of unintended pregnancy and increased demand for abortion, evidence proves the contrary based on the experience of Tunisia, Turkey and Nepal, where abortion laws have been liberalized. For example, after legalizing abortion in 2002, Nepal witnessed a decline in maternal mortality from 580 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births in 1995 to 190 per 100,000 in 2013.²⁷

In contrast, legal barriers to the provision of safe abortion services force women to resort to unsafe abortion and can lead to a disproportionately high share of abortion-related maternal deaths, even in countries with better access to health care and emergency obstetric care. Ensuring women's access to safe abortion also reduces medical costs for the health system. In countries including Viet Nam and the People's Republic of China, population policies have led to forced abortion, morbidity and mortality.²⁸

Realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights for adolescents

Overall, the number of adolescent girls giving birth in Asia and the Pacific has declined over the past 15 years (see Chapter 2). However, this trend has not been uniform across the region or among countries. Despite the declines in South and Southwest Asia and the Pacific, the adolescent birth rate has increased in some South-East Asia (Cambodia, Thailand and Viet Nam) and North and Central Asia (Azerbaijan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan) countries.²⁹ Adolescence is a critical period of transition to adulthood, accompanied by rapid psychosocial and physical change.

Various factors can contribute to unintended pregnancy among adolescents, including a lack of comprehensive sexuality education to allow young people to make responsible and autonomous decisions, a lack of power to negotiate contraceptive use, discriminatory gender norms and unequal power relations that constrain the capacity of adolescent girls to negotiate safe sex.

Access to contraception and HIV testing can also be difficult when parental consent is a pre-requisite. While contraception is easily available over-the-counter in Thailand, cultural attitudes hamper access for adolescents, especially girls, who are expected to safeguard their virginity.³⁰ However, the Government

of Thailand has responded to the need of adolescents to avoid unwanted pregnancy with the passing of the Prevention and Remedial Measures for Adolescent Pregnancy Bill in 2016. The law calls for the provision of sexual and reproductive health information to young people aged between 10 and 19, comprehensive sexuality education in schools, pregnancy prevention, and allowing continued education for teenage mothers.³¹

One of the drivers of high rates of teenage pregnancy, particularly in South Asia, is early marriage. Child, forced and early marriage are defined by CEDAW Article 16(2) as forms of discrimination and defined as marriage that takes place before the legal age of marriage in a country.³² Child, forced and early marriage are also considered forms of violence, especially against girls. Bangladesh has one of the highest rates of child marriage, with 58.6 per cent of girls being married before the age of 18 in 2014.³³ While the Child Marriage Restraint Act 2017 in Bangladesh increases the punishment for committing or assisting in child marriage, Section 19 of the Act states that child marriage would not be considered an offence if it was in the "interest of the underage girl". This last provision has raised concerns from the local, regional and international community over its potential use to justify early and forced marriage. In contrast, Nepal has raised the legal age of marriage to 20 and developed a comprehensive plan to address child marriage that considers the driving factors behind parents allowing marriage before 20.

Even for the unmarried, adolescence is a time when people first engage in sexual activity and enter into intimate relationships. Therefore, the provision of comprehensive information and life skills relating to sexuality and reproduction, providing adolescents with friendly and universal access to contraception and other sexual and reproductive health and rights services, keeping girls in school and delaying marriage and pregnancy are all necessary for improving the health and well-being of adolescents. They are also central to safeguarding their rights and future opportunities in education and employment, and for the overall development of countries, especially low- and middle-income countries.³⁴

Tackling HIV and AIDS

The HIV epidemic remains a challenge in Asia and the Pacific despite the remarkable decline in new infections in most countries. However, Cambodia, Pakistan and the Philippines have increasing infection rates. Between 2011 and 2015, newly diagnosed HIV cases in the Philippines increased by 230 per cent among men who have sex with men and transgender people. Of the 5.1 million people living with HIV in the region, 1.8 million are women and girls.³⁵

* Australia, the People's Republic of China, Mongolia, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Turkey, Nepal, Cambodia, Singapore, Viet Nam.

While men in the region are more likely to live with HIV, women's vulnerability to the disease is exacerbated by a multitude of systemic social, economic and cultural factors. These include gender norms and inequality; lower status accorded to women and girls; social and cultural practices; violence against women; lack of comprehensive information and understanding of HIV; poverty and economic dependency; lack of access to contraception; and lack of autonomy to make sexual and reproductive choices, which in turn makes it difficult for many women and girls to negotiate safe sex. As of 2015, nearly half of the new infections in Cambodia were through a spouse, who may have belonged to key male population groups. 'Key populations' in the context of HIV includes men who have sex with men, transgender people, sex workers, people who inject drugs, and people living with HIV.³⁶

The groups of women and girls who are at particular risk of HIV are female sex workers, women who inject drugs, transgender women, migrant women, women in "serodiscordant relationships" and female partners of men living with HIV.³⁷ Transgender women have some of highest prevalence of HIV, especially among transgender women sex workers, compared with male and female sex workers.³⁸ Furthermore, discriminatory and restrictive laws and policies that particularly affect key populations living with HIV, including women and girls, fuel stigma and discrimination by health-care providers, which makes it difficult for them to access voluntary HIV testing, treatment and counseling services.

About 72,000 women living with HIV gave birth in Asia and the Pacific in 2014, and as of 2015 an estimated 29,560 received antiretroviral therapy (ART) for the prevention of mother-to-child transmission (PMTCT), with an estimated coverage of 39 per cent of HIV infected pregnant women in the region.³⁹ This represents a marginal increase from 35 per cent in 2014.⁴⁰ Diagnosis, treatment and care of pregnant women living with HIV is critical to prevent vertical transmission of HIV and syphilis.⁴¹ Thailand is the first country in the region to be validated for reaching the target of eliminating vertical transmission of HIV and syphilis. This can be attributed to a strong political will to end HIV and AIDS, policies and targeted programmes that encourage voluntary testing, treatment and counselling, high utilization of maternal, newborn and child health care, and HIV PMTCT services.⁴²

Cultural and religious barriers to sexual and reproductive health and rights

Culture and religion play an important role in influencing human beliefs and behaviour, including those related to gender, education and health, including sexual and reproductive health. While no religion is inherently opposed to women's well-being and wide diversity exists in the way religious texts are interpreted and religion is practiced in the region, there

are some aspects of sexual and reproductive health and rights that are denied in the name of "culture" or "religion". These include the provision of family planning and contraception information and services and other sexual and reproductive health and rights services only to married women, and views on induced abortion.⁴³

Even though violence against women is not sanctioned by any religion, in practice "religion" is often misused to justify it, particularly in the context of marriage and relationships. Sex, according to most religions, is permitted only within marriage, and girls and women are expected to abstain from sex before marriage.⁴⁴ These attitudes and beliefs often impede women's access to and use of health-care information and services, modern methods of contraception, and the right to safely terminate an unwanted pregnancy.

Conservative interpretations of culture and religious texts are also misused to entrench traditional gender roles, sexuality and ideas about family structures. Harmful practices such as early and forced marriage, female genital circumcision, virginity tests, stigma and taboos may all contribute to the violation of women's rights to sexual and reproductive health and autonomy.

Leaving no one behind in realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights

"Leaving no one behind" is a key feature of the SDGs, and reflects a commitment to ensure that every target is met for every population group. However, there remain sub-groups in the region and within countries where additional barriers impede the enjoyment of sexual and reproductive health and rights.

In the absence of universal services, poor women in lower-income groups experience significant barriers to accessing services, for example, having to pay out-of-pocket expenses and health financing reforms that can limit access to health care. Out-of-pocket expenditure for health care can lead to debt, impoverishment, inaccessibility to gainful employment and inability to retain a job, further entrenching economic inequality.⁴⁵ Research shows that in lower middle-income countries in the region, reproductive health services such as childbirth have become unaffordable for vulnerable groups of women, and in extreme cases women have been denied care or been imprisoned because they are unable to pay for services.⁴⁶

Discrimination and exclusion based on sexual orientation and gender identity can also be a major barrier to accessing sexual and reproductive health and rights.⁴⁷ Such health and rights for lesbian, bisexual and transgender women are often overlooked by services, but they also need screening, testing, treatment and counselling for a wide range of sexual and reproductive health problems. Fear of discrimination by health providers also prevents access to services.⁴⁸

Article 25 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities declares that people with disabilities should have access to a range of health services including sexual and reproductive health. Women and girls living with disabilities have the same rights as all women, and yet they have greater unmet needs for sexual and reproductive health and rights because of the numerous barriers, discrimination and stigma they face in accessing such services.⁴⁹ An estimated 350 million women and girls live with disabilities in this region. Women with disabilities experience around 1.5 times more physical and sexual violence than those without disabilities.⁵⁰ Although limited data exists, there is some evidence of cases of rights violations ranging from denial of reproductive health services to forced sterilization, including in the Philippines.⁵¹

The focus on women of reproductive age in sexual and reproductive health and rights policies can often neglect the sexual health concerns of older women. Older women too may be sexually active and still require regular screening and treatment for reproductive cancers.⁵² They can also experience sexual violence. Post-menopausal women are particularly at risk of STIs and pelvic infections, and may have weaker immune systems. Older women living with HIV often miss out on ART coverage, especially in low- and middle-income countries.⁵³

Reproductive cancers as a new challenge

As non-communicable diseases grow as a concern in the region, reproductive cancers among women are likely to become more prevalent, posing significant challenges. Breast cancer is the most common cancer among women in the region, and a leading cause of cancer-related death. In 2012, an estimated 1.7 million women globally were diagnosed with breast cancer, including about 404,000 cases (24 per cent) in this region.⁵⁴

Cervical cancer is the fourth most common cancer in women and follows breast cancer among reproductive cancers. An estimated 528,000 new cases were detected in 2012 worldwide. In the same year, about 266,000 deaths from cervical cancer accounted for 7.5 per cent of all cancer deaths among women.⁵⁵ Women living with HIV are at higher risk of contracting cervical cancer.⁵⁶ While HPV immunization programmes cannot treat existing cancers, they can prevent infections from becoming cancerous when given before first sexual activity.

Apart from breast and cervical cancer, women can also develop cancer of the uterus. Most countries in this region are not prepared to respond effectively to this growing problem. Data collection is poor and unsystematic because few countries have a cancer registry. Another key barrier is the lack of understanding the need for and use of screening

for breast and cervical cancer. Regular breast and cervical screening tests facilitate early detection of abnormalities, leading to more effective treatment and higher likelihood of survival.

What can be done to accelerate progress towards realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights?

Without the full realization of sexual and reproductive health and rights, women and girls will be unable to equally benefit from and contribute to sustainable development. Realizing such health and rights requires a multipronged set of actions to ensure universal access to services; provide comprehensive sexuality education and implement community education programmes; create a supportive legal framework; and build strong data and monitoring systems to track progress.

Given the links between sexual and reproductive health and rights and different dimensions of gender equality, any action to realize such health and rights should be implemented in tandem with a broader range of strategies to improve women's socioeconomic status, political participation and the elimination of violence. For example, to be effective, sexual and reproductive health and rights strategies need to be implemented in parallel with other national plans to advance gender equality, including those on violence against women, HIV, education and economic empowerment.

Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health services

Universal access to health care is defined as the equal ability of those who need health care to obtain it. With regard to sexual and reproductive health and rights, this includes the timely provision of a range of information and services relating to contraception, maternal health, STIs, HIV and AIDS, reproductive tract infections and morbidity, abortion and post-abortion care, and sexual health, across the reproductive life course of an individual, regardless of age, social class, place of living or ethnicity.⁵⁷

On the supply side, ensuring universal access to sexual and reproductive health services requires addressing the affordability, accessibility and quality of services by removing financial barriers to health care; improving infrastructure including roads, health facilities and transport; ensuring quality of care; building and retaining a sufficient number of healthcare professionals; improving medicine supply chains; and the provision of contraceptives and other products.

In order to remove financial barriers, governments need to expand investment in public health services,

especially for sexual and reproductive health. In the region, the People's Republic of China has reached universal coverage of basic health insurance, and Malaysia and Thailand have reached near-universal health coverage, while Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam are nearing 50 per cent of the universal health coverage target.⁵⁸ With political will, countries can reach both targets of universal coverage of health and universal access to sexual and reproductive health care.

Comprehensive packages of sexual and reproductive health services must ensure that a wide mix of contraceptive options is provided (with complete information about proper use, including side effects) to married couples, single women and young people in a non-discriminatory and non-judgmental manner. Capacity-building and training of health-care workers is also important to address stigma and discrimination in sexual and reproductive health and HIV services.

Sexual and reproductive health services should also respond to the growing challenge of reproductive cancers through provision of the HPV vaccine. The Malaysian Government launched the three-dose HPV immunization programme for 13-year-olds in 2010, and is said to have reached 94 per cent coverage of the targeted population in 2013.⁵⁹ To overcome the barrier of cost, the Government has allocated a budget of 30 million ringgit (roughly over US\$7 million), enabling free immunization of girls.⁶⁰ Fiji, too, offers free immunization to adolescents in Grade 8.⁶¹ Bhutan was the first developing country in the region to launch a national programme, introducing the HPV vaccine into the routine immunization schedule for 12- to 18-year-old girls through school-based and health center programmes.⁶² HPV immunization has been included in the national immunization plans of 10 Pacific countries.⁶³

Sexual and reproductive health services should be integrated within primary health-care centers, include safe motherhood and childbirth, and deal with obstetric complications. They should cover comprehensive family planning services; safe abortion and post-abortion treatment and care; screening for cervical and breast cancer and maternal diabetes; comprehensive services for HIV testing, treatment and counselling services; and treatment, counselling and provision of emergency contraception for survivors of sexual violence.

On the demand side, widening women's access to sexual and reproductive health services requires better education to empower women as well as strategies to tackle unequal power dynamics in relationships. Realizing sexual and reproductive health and rights also requires ensuring access to information that will enable women to exercise their autonomy in sexual and reproductive health decision-making. Addressing the stigma, discrimination and gender stereotypes that

underlie the denial of sexual and reproductive health and rights in the broader community is also essential, as is work with men and boys to address gender stereotypes and to provide information relating to sexual and reproductive health and rights.

Provide comprehensive sexuality education

Comprehensive sexuality education is defined as an age-appropriate, culturally relevant approach to teaching about sexuality and relationships by providing scientifically accurate, realistic, non-judgmental information.⁶⁴ This education is essential to equip young girls and boys with vital information, knowledge and skills relating to human reproduction, contraception, healthy relationships, gender equality and STIs, as they step into adult life. This will enable them to make informed decisions about sexual and reproductive health, and to protect themselves from STIs including HIV, and unintended pregnancies. It can contribute to reducing the risk of HIV and other STI transmission, unsafe abortion, gender-based violence, and to adolescents demanding better access to quality sexual and reproductive health services. An evaluation of comprehensive sexuality education programmes found that those including an understanding of gender norms and power relationships contributed to reducing unintended pregnancies and STIs five times more successfully than those that did not.⁶⁵

Not all countries in Asia and the Pacific have integrated comprehensive sexuality education at the secondary level.⁶⁶ Evidence shows continued resistance to including information on sexual and reproductive health and rights and HIV and AIDS in the school curriculum.⁶⁷ However, more recently positive changes are being seen in some countries. The Cambodian Government has made a new commitment to introduce comprehensive sexuality education in all primary and secondary schools.⁶⁸ Cambodia has also developed an HIV policy for the education sector.⁶⁹ Similarly, in Papua New Guinea the "Husband Schools" programme is under way to take sexuality education to those outside school, especially engaging with men, with the objective of addressing gender-based violence and family planning.⁷⁰ Papua New Guinea has also developed HIV policies for the education sector.⁷¹

Comprehensive sexuality education should be delivered in a comprehensive manner both in schools and at community level to foster mature decision-making and address gender inequality. Any such programme should be accompanied by capacity-building of teachers to help them deliver information related to sexuality and reproduction to young people without discrimination or stigma, and with a focus on the principles of equality, dignity and respect.

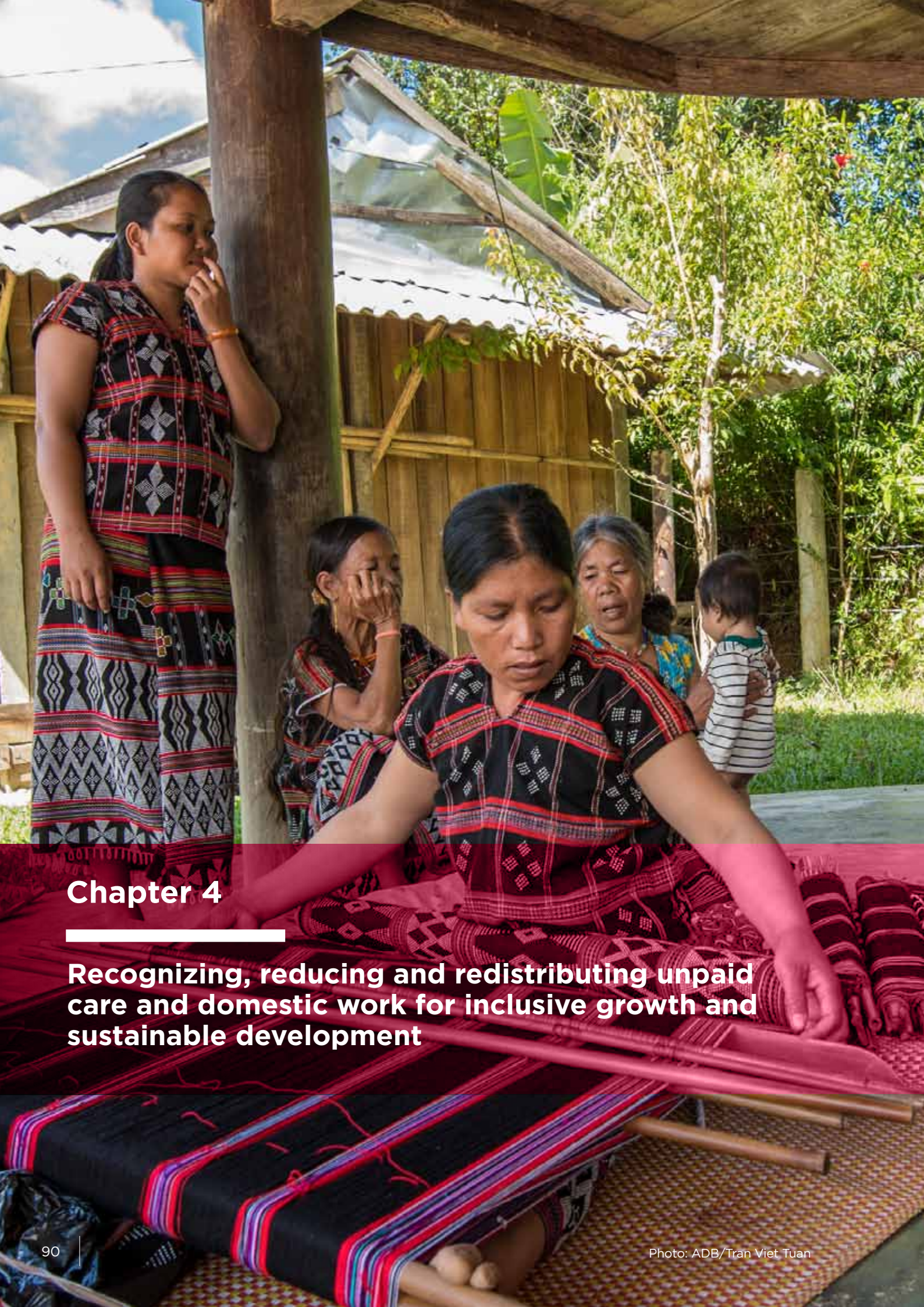
Create a supportive legal environment for sexual and reproductive health and rights

Enabling legal frameworks are needed to promote, protect and fulfill sexual and reproductive health and rights. National laws need to prohibit practices that violate the sexual and reproductive health and rights of women and adolescent girls, such as spousal or parental consent requirements to receive health services, including (i) sexual and reproductive health services; (ii) denial of access to sexual and reproductive health services; (iii) violence in health-care settings, including sexual harassment, humiliation and forced medical procedures or those conducted without informed consent, and which may be irreversible, such as forced hysterectomy, forced caesarean section, forced sterilization and forced abortion and forced use of contraceptives, as well as mandatory HIV testing; (iv) early and forced marriage; (v) female genital mutilation and other harmful traditional practices; and (vi) discrimination in education and employment due to pregnancy and motherhood.

Strengthen data and monitoring systems

Data should be regularly collected through surveys to monitor sexual and reproductive health and rights, including access to services, adolescent sexual and reproductive health and rights, women's experiences of sexual and reproductive decision-making, and violence against women and girls. Proper civil and vital registration systems (or, in their absence, maternal death surveillance and response systems that include maternal death identification, reporting, review and response) can provide essential information for the measurement of maternal mortality and inform action to prevent future maternal deaths. Strengthening national civil registration and vital statistics should be a priority to gather better data on maternal mortality, including disaggregation by cause of death.

Little evidence is available regarding the sexual and reproductive health experiences of the marginalized and particular population groups with specific needs and burdens of disease, including adolescents; sexual minorities, especially lesbian, bisexual and intersex; older people; and women and girls with disabilities, especially those with mental health issues. This makes shaping policies and laws that will protect their rights and access to sexual and reproductive health care and services a challenge. Hence, there is a need to collect and analyze data disaggregated by sex and other dimensions including age, geographic location and ethnicity, to capture a wide range of information about the marginalized groups that may face multiple forms of discrimination, and which have historically been omitted from research, policies and programmes.



Chapter 4

Recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work for inclusive growth and sustainable development

Unpaid care and domestic work – the care of children, the elderly, the sick and people with disabilities, cooking, cleaning and provision of water and fuel – not only supports the well-being and daily lives of individual people, but is critical for the functioning of households, communities and economies.¹ Despite its importance, unpaid care work is not counted in key economic statistics and data, and as a result its economic and social value remains invisible to policymakers.

Women perform the bulk of unpaid care and domestic work in Asia and the Pacific (see Chapter 2). The disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work has wide-ranging impacts, including limiting the time women have to engage in decent work and economic opportunities, participate in education and training, participate in politics and undertake self-care and leisure activities. In the context of poverty and limited access to infrastructure and services, the unpaid care and domestic work borne by women and girls is particularly intense and time-consuming, which also takes a toll on their health and well-being.

Addressing unpaid care and domestic work is a priority under the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. This includes recognizing its value to societies and economies, reducing the quantity and drudgery of unpaid care and domestic work, and redistributing the activities within households and societies.

This chapter outlines the major challenges to women's economic empowerment in the region and their implications for regional economies and sustainable development. It then discusses the multiple factors contributing to gender inequality in the economic domain, before focusing on the issue of unpaid care and domestic work. The rest of the chapter addresses the different dimensions of unpaid care and domestic work in the region and concludes with the action needed to recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid care and domestic work.

Women's economic empowerment in Asia and the Pacific

The disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work carried out by women has implications across all spheres of life, including the economic, social and political domains. One area where women's unequal responsibility for unpaid care and domestic work presents a significant barrier towards progress on gender equality is in the economic domain.

Ensuring that women can enjoy equal rights, opportunities and outcomes compared to men in the labour market is widely proven to catalyse positive outcomes for their own well-being and livelihoods, as

well as for their families, communities and economies. However, in the Asia and Pacific Region, as well as globally, gender gaps in labour force participation and wages, gender segregation of the labour market and the concentration of women in informal and vulnerable work all point to deeply entrenched gender inequality in the economic sphere.²

Women and girls in Asia and the Pacific have not benefited equally from the decades of growth in the region. Yet achieving better economic outcomes for women will yield widespread benefits: The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that closing the gender gap in economic participation could add US\$3.2 trillion to the Asia and the Pacific regional economies.³ However, this requires challenging the status quo, with women's current social and economic position demonstrating that economic growth and higher human capital do not automatically lead to greater equality.⁴

While the region has made significant progress with respect to universal primary education and gender parity in education, this has not translated into women enjoying equal economic outcomes. Indeed, the Asia and the Pacific region is the only region globally where the gender gap in labour force participation is increasing, with women's participation dropping from 56 per cent in 1990 to 49 per cent in 2013. This trend largely reflects declines in East Asia from 71 per cent to 63 per cent and in South Asia from 36 per cent to 31 per cent between 1990 and 2013.⁵

Even when women do access the labour market, they are more likely to be in informal and vulnerable employment, and concentrated in certain "feminized" sectors characterized by low wages and insecure conditions with little prospect of progression. Informal employment accounts for two thirds of non-agricultural employment in Indonesia, the Philippines, Pakistan and Viet Nam, and between 30 and 65 per cent in the People's Republic of China, Sri Lanka and Thailand.⁶ In most countries and territories for which data are available, similar percentages of men and women are informally employed, without access to benefits such as sick pay, maternity leave and pensions.⁷

Despite similar levels of women and men in informal employment, there are gendered hierarchies within this kind of work. Women are concentrated in the most vulnerable and poorest forms of informal employment, where they have low, irregular or no cash returns, face a high level of job insecurity, and have no access to social protection during periods of low economic demand, or when they cannot work or cannot find work.

In seven out of nine countries for which data is available, the bulk of informal employment of men is concentrated in informal enterprises where they are employers or employees.⁸ This type of informal employment, although insecure, attracts better pay. Women are more likely to be own-account workers and contributing family workers; two categories of informal work that are more likely to be poorly paid and insecure.⁹ Women who are own-account workers and contributing family workers are also much more likely than men to work from their own homes, where their invisibility and inability to join collective action increases their vulnerability.¹⁰ Home-based informal work is also associated with poor health outcomes due to dangerous conditions and particularly poor earnings.¹¹

While agriculture remains the predominant source of employment for both women and men in many countries, especially in South and South-West Asia, employment opportunities have shifted over time to the industry and services sectors. Within the service sector – which is highly heterogeneous in terms of earnings and employment conditions – transport and telecommunications are more male-dominated and public administration and services are more female-dominated.¹² Men have benefited more from new employment opportunities generated in the higher-paid construction, mining and manufacturing sectors, resulting in industrial segregation by sex.

Moreover, within the same industry, there remains gender segregation across roles. For example, in transport services, men tend to work more as motor vehicle operators whereas women are administrative workers. In short, women in Asia and the Pacific do not benefit from emerging higher-paid job opportunities and remain relegated to lower paid and lower status work.

Widespread gender wage gaps persist across the region. Women receive significantly lower wages. The pay disparity between women and men is partly explained by the type of industry or occupation. Individual characteristics, including differences in educational attainment and years of work experience, also play a significant role.¹³ Yet after taking into account these variances, a significant share of the gender wage gap remains unexplained.¹⁴ These unexplained differences often partly reflect discrimination against women in the workplace.

South Asia, especially Nepal and Pakistan, have particularly wide gender pay gaps. Countries in South-East Asia have smaller gaps except for Cambodia, Indonesia and Singapore. Even in developed countries, women's average wages are significantly lower than those of men, for instance in Australia and New Zealand, where many women work in part-time jobs.¹⁵

Gender wage gaps are sensitive to wage distribution. The largest gaps are usually found at the top of the wage distribution, for highly skilled women workers, and at the bottom, for women working in low-paid and low-status jobs. Countries with greater inequality in the distribution of wages tend to have larger gender wage gaps.¹⁶

Even at the higher-wage and skilled end of the employment spectrum, women remain disadvantaged compared to men – the “glass ceiling”. In a recent survey of companies in Asia and the Pacific, about 55 per cent responded that women represented 10 per cent or less of senior managers, or that no women were appointed at senior management level.¹⁷ Women make up little more than 5 per cent of chief executive officers of publicly listed companies in the region. When women are managers, they often have low- and middle-management posts, an example of vertical occupational segregation by sex. This is a missed economic opportunity: Evidence shows that increased gender balance in leadership positions significantly contributes to better business performance.¹⁸

Multiple constraints on women's economic empowerment

The lack of progress for women in the economic domain, despite increasing educational attainment, can be attributed to a range of constraints. The decline in women's labour force participation, particularly in South Asia, is often explained by their increasing participation in education. While this may partly explain the trend, there are a range of factors at play, including the lack of decent work opportunities for women and the mechanization of agriculture.¹⁹ The lack of decent quality work also creates a “discouraged worker effect”, which is another contributing factor to women's low labour force participation.²⁰ In addition, prevailing discriminatory social norms around women's roles and capabilities also restrict their ability to engage in paid work.

The concentration of women in vulnerable forms of employment is set against a backdrop of a lack of progress in increasing the number of decent jobs in the region.²¹ The lack of decent jobs means that women and men are forced into poor-quality work, often in the informal economy.

The broader policy framework plays a critical role in influencing the quantity and quality of jobs, for example when deflationary macroeconomic policies and financialization depress investment, or structural change limits the expansion of productive sectors where there is potential for growth in decent jobs.²² Monetary policies are often narrowly focused on lowering inflation, which tends to reduce demand for labour overall.²³ While trade policies and agreements in the region have created new jobs, the large majority of these jobs are concentrated in low-paid and insecure segments of the global value chain, for example, where women work in factories making garments.²⁴

A variety of factors are known to feed into gender-based occupational segregation, including social norms and gender stereotypes regarding “appropriate work” for women and men. Gender differences in fields of study are another contributing factor, with women generally more likely to be in humanistic fields while men are more likely to specialize in technical and scientific subjects. Women are also under pressure to “choose” occupations that offer more flexibility in terms of working hours and other pecuniary benefits, to facilitate the reconciliation of work with caring responsibilities – even if these occupations generally pay less.

Given the importance of agriculture to women’s employment in the region, particularly in rural areas, their lack of rights, access and control over land and other productive resources is another constraint on their economic empowerment. Women are less likely than men to have a bank account at a financial institution in most countries throughout Asia and the Pacific (see Chapter 2). Yet having a bank account is the first step to be able to borrow from commercial banks for private and commercial use.

The absence of enabling legal and regulatory frameworks to protect women’s right to work and rights at work also impedes progress on their economic empowerment. This includes minimum wage legislation, paid maternity and parental leave, and the extension of social protection to informal workers such as domestic workers.

A significant constraint on women’s economic empowerment is the disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work they undertake, which limits their capacity to engage in paid work. This is particularly the case in the context of limited infrastructure and essential services, including care services, where there is greater intensity and time spent in unpaid care and domestic work. The rest of this chapter will focus on unpaid care and domestic work.



Photo: UN Women/Pornvit Visitoran

Focusing on unpaid care and domestic work as a priority: why does it matter for sustainable development?

Addressing unpaid care and domestic work is defined as a specific target in the SDGs (SDG Target 5.4). Recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work is also a catalyst for achieving many of the other Goals, especially the eradication of poverty and hunger (Goals 1 and 2), better health, well-being and learning outcomes (3 and 4), decent work and economic growth (8), and reducing inequality (10). Several priorities across the SDGs are essential to reducing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work, including the universal provision of essential health and education (Goals 3 and 4), social protection (1 and 10) and infrastructure (6, 7 and 9), and access to decent work (8). Unpaid care work is also intensified in contexts of economic crisis (Goals 8 and 10), health crisis (3), and environmental degradation and natural disasters (11, 12 and 13).

The SDG commitments build on several existing normative frameworks that have called for action on unpaid care and domestic work. In 1995, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action highlighted the importance of addressing the unequal distribution of paid and unpaid work between women and men, as an essential step towards achieving gender equality. Moreover, a number of international human rights treaties establish legally binding obligations that compel States to address the issue. In her report to the 68th session of the United Nations General Assembly on 23 October 2013, the United Nations Special Rapporteur on Extreme Poverty and Human Rights concluded that heavy and unequal care responsibilities are a major barrier to gender equality and to women's equal enjoyment of human rights.²⁵

The international human rights framework, as established by treaties such as these, is complemented by labour standards, in particular ILO Convention No. 156 on workers with family responsibilities, Convention No. 183 on maternity protection, and Convention No. 189 concerning decent work for domestic workers.²⁶ Another important step was taken at the 53rd session of the Commission on the Status of Women, which in its agreed conclusions recognized that “the costs of unequal sharing of responsibilities include weaker labour market attachment for women (foregone jobs, shorter working hours, confinement to informal work, and lower wages), weaker access to social security benefits, and less time for education/training, leisure and self-care and political activities”.²⁷

What are the dimensions of unpaid care and domestic work in Asia and the Pacific?

There are different dimensions of unpaid care and domestic work in Asia and the Pacific (see Box 4.1). Reflecting global patterns, data for the region shows that women and girls carry out a disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work. This has significant impacts, particularly in terms of economic participation. Lack of access to services and infrastructure intensify the time and drudgery of unpaid care and domestic work. At the same time, population ageing in some countries and major health crises will continue to intensify the need for care.

Women undertake a disproportionate share of unpaid care and domestic work in the region

Women and girls spend as much as 11 times more of their day than men and boys on unpaid care and domestic care work, although there is some variation across the region. For the countries where data is available, women undertake the greatest share of unpaid care and domestic work in Pakistan, followed by Cambodia and Turkey. The share of unpaid care and domestic work undertaken by women in Australia, the Kyrgyz Republic and New Zealand is less than the rest of the region, but still disproportionate at nearly twice the time spent by men (see Chapter 2).

There is also a gendered division of labour within unpaid care and domestic work. Women's main tasks are food and household management, including cooking, serving food and cleaning. Men's participation in domestic work is high in shopping for the household and travelling for household upkeep. As for childcare, women participate mainly in physical care for children, whereas men participate mainly in teaching children and accompanying them to places.

Table 4.1 compares the average time spent on unpaid domestic and care work by women and men. Across four Asian countries for which the breakdown of the data is available, around 90 per cent of women perform unpaid care and domestic work overall compared with 31–75 per cent of men.²⁸ Some 40–44 per cent of women respondents perform care work alone, compared with 10–22 per cent of men. Men and women spend about the same hours on average undertaking unpaid care work for older persons, the sick and persons with disabilities. However, women spend significantly more time on childcare than men.

The consequences of the unequal share of unpaid care and domestic work include women having less time for paid work, participation in political and public life, leisure, learning and enjoying personal and social activities.

Interlinkages between addressing unpaid care and domestic work and the achievement of other Goals



Box 4.1 Defining unpaid work, unpaid care work and paid care work²⁹

The terms “unpaid work” and “unpaid care work” are sometimes used interchangeably. This is wrong and misleading, even though there is some overlap between them.

Unpaid work covers a broad spectrum of work that is not directly remunerated. It includes: (i) unpaid work on the household plot or in the family business; (ii) activities such as the collection of water and firewood; and (iii) cooking, cleaning and care of one’s child, elderly parent or friend. The first two items are counted as “economic activities” and should, in theory, be included in calculations of gross domestic product (GDP).

Unpaid care work (item iii above) includes the direct care of persons (nurturance) for no explicit monetary reward. Direct care (e.g., bathing a child, accompanying an elderly parent or friend to the doctor) is often seen as separate from the

other activities that provide the preconditions for caregiving, such as preparing meals, shopping and cleaning (i.e., domestic work). But such boundaries are arbitrary, especially since those who need intense care are often unable to perform such tasks themselves. Until the 2013 International Conference of Labour Statisticians, both direct and indirect care were not considered an “economic activity”.

Paid care work refers to occupations where workers provide direct face-to-face care, or indirect forms of care that provide the preconditions for caregiving.³⁰ It thus includes the work carried out by nurses, childminders, and elderly care assistants as well as domestic workers, cooks and cleaners, among others. Care workers perform their tasks in a variety of settings: public, market setting and not-for-profit as well as private homes.

Furthermore, total paid and unpaid workloads show the particular toll paid by women. When the time spent in paid work and unpaid care and domestic work is combined, women work longer hours than men on average across Asia and the Pacific, regardless of the level of development, which impacts on women’s health, well-being and time for self-care.³¹

The unequal sharing of unpaid care and domestic work is a significant barrier to women’s economic participation

The link between unpaid care and domestic work and women’s economic participation is particularly important in Asia and the Pacific, the only region worldwide where women’s labour force participation is falling. Over 20 per cent of women in Asia and the Pacific cite “work/family balance” as a major challenge to labour force participation. Around 22 per cent of respondents in East Asia – more than any other region – cite “lack of affordable care” as a challenge faced by women.³²

Some 83 per cent of Bangladeshi women and 73 per cent of Pakistani women report that responsibility for household work is the reason why they are not engaging in paid work, while 10 per cent of Bangladeshi and 3 per cent of Pakistani men responded the same.³³ One third of women interviewees in a Sri Lanka study stated having considered leaving their jobs because of the difficulties in meeting childcare responsibilities, and this was the reason many reported that husbands and family members pressured them to leave work.³⁴

In the People’s Republic of China, urban women between the ages of 25 and 50 living with their parents or in-laws who can provide care support were 12 per cent more likely to participate in the labour market than other groups of women.³⁵

In addition to limiting participation in the labour market, unpaid care and domestic work has an impact on the type and quality of work that women engage in, and on gender wage gaps. The difficulty of balancing care responsibilities with paid work leads to women being forced to choose low-status and low-quality work leading to “occupational downgrading”, which progressively limits women’s access to the labour market, relegating them to low-income and insecure employment.³⁶

Cross-country analysis shows that countries with a high share of unpaid care work performed by women compared to men have a higher share of women in part-time and vulnerable jobs.³⁷ In countries where women spend twice as much time as men in caring activities, they earn only 65 per cent of what their male counterpart earns for the same job. This drops to 40 per cent when women are spending five times the amount of time on unpaid care work (for full-time employees).³⁸

It is commonly argued that addressing unpaid care and domestic work would lift women out of poverty because they would have more time for paid work. In developing countries, it is the case that many households would be able to escape income poverty if

Table 4.1. Participation rate (%) and average time spent (minutes per day) on unpaid care and domestic work by sex, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year

	Average time spent on unpaid care and domestic work by all respondents (minutes per day)			% of population performing unpaid care and domestic work		Average time spent by participants (minutes per day)	
	Women	Men		Women	Men	Women	Men
People's Republic of China (2008)	237	94	Care and domestic work ^{a,b}	97	68	245	127
Mongolia (2011)	286	131	Domestic work ^a	94	75	275	135
			Care work ^c	44	22	117	67
Bangladesh (2012)	216	84	Care and domestic work ^{a,b}	96	71	351	127
			Domestic work	95	68	301	114
			Child care	40	10	103	65
Pakistan (2007)	287	28	Care and domestic work ^{a,b}	88	31	321	93
			Domestic work	87	19	270	90
			Child care	40	14	133	57

Source:

Average time spent on unpaid household and care work by all respondents: the People's Republic of China and Mongolia (United Nations Development Programme 2015 Human Development Report), Bangladesh and Pakistan (UN Women 2015 Progress of the World's Women).

Participation rates and average time spent on unpaid household and care work by participants: the People's Republic of China (Fengdan, Xuhua, Bruyere and Floro 2016), Mongolia (Terbish and Floro 2016), Bangladesh (Hirway, Rudranarayan and Chatterjee 2017a), Pakistan (Hirway, Mishra and Chatterjee 2017b).

Note:

a Includes household chores such as cooking and cleaning as well as housework for households' own consumption.

b Includes care for dependents (children, older persons, sick and disabled), and help to other households and community volunteer services.

c Includes care for children, the sick, older persons and persons with disabilities for own household.

all eligible adults living in poor households who are not in the labour force (mostly women) were able to access decent work opportunities. However, studies also show that many of these households would then enter into time poverty, impinging on the time available for caregiving.³⁹ Thus, the reduction and redistribution of unpaid care and domestic work through investment in services and infrastructure is key to expanding women's choices and economic participation.

Demographic changes are increasingly shifting the landscape of unpaid care and domestic work

Demographic changes are adding new dimensions to the issue of unpaid care work in the region, which has seen its overall profile shift from high birth and death rates to low birth and death rates since the 1950s.⁴⁰

Most countries in Asia presently have a relatively young population, yet the majority of the elderly in the world will be living in Asia by 2035.⁴¹ United Nations projections estimate that, globally, the number of persons aged 60 or above is expected to more than double by 2050, growing from 962 million in 2017 to 2.1 billion. Asia will account for 65 per cent of this global increase.⁴² By 2050, over 30 per cent of the population in the People's Republic of China, Japan, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam will be aged 60 and over.

In addition to increasing educational attainment for women, and shifting social norms around the roles of women, delaying marriage is a factor in falling fertility rates, particularly in the context of a lack of access to affordable childcare services.⁴³ The decline in fertility rates has also increased the age-dependency ratio, especially in East and South-East Asia.⁴⁴

The patterns of population ageing in the region increase the demand for care and pressure on health services as people live longer but may need assistance in many activities of daily living. This demographic transition is also unfolding against a context where patterns of urbanization and migration are rapidly changing the traditional safety net of the family as a source of care.⁴⁵ While care for ageing partners, spouses, parents and parents-in-law has historically been delegated to female family members, this becomes increasingly impracticable as family members are more likely to live apart. A review of 13 Asian countries found that 60–90 per cent of the elderly who were living with children during the 1990s no longer do so.⁴⁶

Where care for elderly people continues to be provided by family members, it is most commonly women who provide care, and continue to face a penalty by giving up economic opportunities, particularly in rural areas. A survey of long-term care arrangements in the People's Republic of China found that the principal caregivers of care-dependent older people households had to cut back on paid work in 48 per cent of rural households, compared to 4 per cent in urban households, in order to provide unpaid care work.⁴⁷

The system of aged care in the region relies on women's unpaid care work and informally employed domestic workers or caregivers. A major challenge for the elder care sector is to improve the working

conditions of caregivers and increase the share of formal employment in the sector. In addition, the same system is less responsive to the care needs of older women, particularly as they tend to live longer than men. Adequate, gender-responsive and dignified care provision for care-dependent older persons, also known as long-term care, is therefore an urgent policy issue for the region.

What can be done to recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid care and domestic work?

A comprehensive set of strategies is needed to recognize, reduce and redistribute unpaid care and domestic work. Policies must position unpaid care work as a social and collective responsibility rather than an individual problem.

The recognition of unpaid care and domestic work requires making this work visible through time-use studies and as a priority in public policies. The reduction of unpaid care work requires action to reduce the time and drudgery associated with unpaid care and domestic work through investment in technology, services and infrastructure, particularly in low-income settings. The redistribution of unpaid care and domestic work requires policies that ensure that the provision of care is shared more equitably among families, states, markets and the non-profit sector, as well as between women and men within families.



Photo: UN Women/Allison Joyce

Box 4.2 The social and economic impacts of global and regional care chains

The term “global care chain” reflects the transnational division of reproductive labour or the international transfer of caretaking.⁴⁸ Typically, a global care chain involves a situation where a woman from a developing country migrates and cares for the children or members of a family in a wealthier country, and where female family members care for the children of the woman who has migrated. The concept of the care chain is particularly relevant for the Asia and Pacific region because it includes many of the sending countries that supply migrant domestic workers.

While the concept of global care chains has typically focused on women from developing countries travelling to developed regions such as Europe, there is growing focus on migration within the region between poor and rich countries to undertake care and domestic work.⁴⁹ Household work has been one of the main drivers of this migratory trend, particularly for women.⁵⁰

The underlying drivers of care chains are complex. While women in wealthier countries have been increasingly entering the paid labour force, a lack of access to affordable care services has increased demand for the private provision of care through nannies and domestic workers. The care chain is also driven by inequality whereby the increasing incomes in wealthier countries create the capacity to pay for labour from developing countries. At the same time, domestic workers are often pushed to migrate because of a lack of decent work opportunities in their home countries.⁵¹

Care chains have significant impacts. Domestic workers often earn and send their income back home, often to support their family’s well-being, including children’s education. While there is commonly a focus on the value of remittances sent back to developing countries, there are often significant personal costs for those workers who migrate. Domestic work often lacks labour protection, and workers are vulnerable to exploitation and job insecurity, particularly in the context of restrictive migration laws and stigma.⁵²

Regional care chains also have wider social and economic impacts. The care of families left behind by migrant care and domestic workers is commonly transferred to another female family member, whose opportunities are then limited. At a wider level, care chains enable destination countries to avoid investing in care services because of the reliance on migrant labour. The lack of public investment in care services in both sending and recipient countries fails to generate decent work and conditions in the domestic service sector.

As the region faces an ageing population, the increasing demand for care is likely to intensify care chains. Japan, the most advanced in its transition to an ageing population, is facing a general labour shortage, in particular of care workers. Japan has included the receipt of nurses and workers for elderly care temporarily in its bilateral Economic Partnership Agreement with Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam. As a result, during the last 10 years, nearly 4,000 trainees – mostly women – have come to work in Japan.⁵³

Recognize unpaid care and domestic work by investing in data collection and monitoring

In order to increase policy support for caregivers and care receivers, unpaid care must emerge from the private realm and become a public issue. An important step in this direction is to make care work more visible through statistics and in public debates. Time-use data can reveal the details of how individuals spend their time and can paint an integrated picture of how and for how long various activities – paid and unpaid work, volunteer work, domestic work, leisure and personal activities – are carried out (see Box 4.3). Disaggregating

time-use data by sex and other factors enables analysis of the number of hours spent on different types of unpaid care work by women and men across various groups in the population (e.g., urban and rural, income group, age).

This data can help inform local and national economic policymaking, ranging from debates on welfare programmes to infrastructure needs.⁵⁴ Less than half of the countries in the region have collected time-use data at least once, and only six Asian countries have mainstreamed time-use surveys in their national statistical systems and collected the data regularly.⁵⁵

Box 4.3 Investing in time-use surveys to make unpaid care and domestic work visible

Less than half of the countries in the region have collected time-use data at least once. Thus, the majority of women's work remains invisible and excluded from local and national economic policymaking, ranging from debates on welfare programmes to infrastructure needs.⁵⁶ Among these countries, only six Asian countries have so far mainstreamed their time-use surveys into their national statistical systems and collected the data regularly.⁵⁷

Time-use data show how individuals allocate their time to specific activities over a specified period – typically over the 24 hours of a day and over the seven days of a week (United Nations, 2005). These data are generally obtained through two types of survey instruments: 24-hour time diaries and the stylized analogues of these diaries. In time diaries, the respondents report all activities undertaken during a prescribed

period of time and the beginning and ending time for each activity. In stylized versions of diaries, respondents are asked to recall the amount of time allocated to certain activities during a specified period of time. Compared to stylized questions, diaries can be a more reliable tool for measuring time use and therefore a more reliable tool in obtaining gender statistics; however, the resources required and the burden on the respondents are considerably higher.

Time-use data are the basis for obtaining gender statistics related to several topics: time allocation patterns; unpaid work; participation in all forms of paid work; working time, work locations and the scheduling of economic activities; work-family balance; the investment of time in education and health; welfare and quality of life; and intra-household inequality.

Source: United Nations. 2005. *Guide to Producing Statistics on Time Use: Measuring Paid and Unpaid Work*, Series F, No. 93. Sales No. E.04.XVII.7.

Leave policies should recognize unpaid care and domestic work

Paid family leave enables workers to take time off work to care for dependents without jeopardizing their job and income security. Maternity leave allows mothers to recover from childbirth and provide care to infants during the first weeks of their lives, while paternity leave enables fathers to support their partners in the weeks following the birth. Parental leave can be taken by mothers or fathers to care for small children in the period after maternity leave expires. In addition to maternity, paternity and parental leave, some countries enable workers to take time off for other family contingencies, such as caring for a sick parent or spouse.

Globally, only 28 per cent of working women are effectively covered by cash benefits in the event of maternity.⁵⁸ In the Asia and Pacific region, less than 15 per cent of women workers are effectively protected with maternity leave cash benefits.⁵⁹ While countries in the region have introduced maternity leave legislation, a key challenge is the coverage of women in informal employment. The People's Republic of China, Mongolia, Singapore and Viet Nam are among the countries that meet or exceed the ILO minimum standard of 14 weeks paid maternity leave. In 2013, the highest minimum length of paid maternity leave was in Viet Nam, at 26 weeks. The extension of paternity or shared parental leave has been very limited, with most countries offering just a few days of leave, and often unpaid.

The lack of coverage of informal workers is a major challenge in the region, given that a large majority of women (and men) are in informal work. For example, in Cambodia and Thailand, maternity leave laws exclude wage labourers in the informal sector. These gaps in legislation primarily affect women, as domestic work is a common type of female employment in the region.⁶⁰ In the absence of basic income security, women in the informal economy often keep working far too long into their pregnancy or start working too soon after childbirth.⁶¹ Combined with the hazardous and physically straining working conditions of many jobs in the informal economy (e.g., street vending and domestic service), continuous work exposes them and their children to significant health risks.

Evidence from selected developed countries suggests that leave policies can also be used to foster gender equality by incentivizing men to take more parental leave, thus contributing to the redistribution of unpaid care work between women and men. In contexts where maternity leave benefits are available to most women, many developed countries have introduced parental leave as well as measures to proactively involve fathers. While mothers still take the large majority of parental leave in most developed countries, fathers' uptake has increased, particularly in countries where specific incentives such as "bonus months" or "daddy quotas" are in place that reserve a non-transferable portion of the leave for fathers on a "use-or-lose" basis.

Gender-responsive social protection needs to be responsive to care work

Social protection is linked to unpaid care and domestic work in many ways. The demand of unpaid care and domestic work often forces women into informal jobs where they have no access to social protection such as paid maternity leave, unemployment insurance and pensions. The Asian Development Bank's (ADB) Social Protection Index reveals that women in the region are less likely to take part in social insurance programmes, which can be attributed to lower participation rates in formal sector employment (see Chapter 2). As pension systems are often linked to participation in paid work and the level of earnings, women are disadvantaged due to a double penalty from time spent out of paid work due to caring responsibilities, and lower earnings due to the gender wage gap. Some forms of social protection that are conditional transfers can also reinforce gender roles and increase women's time burden by targeting women and requiring additional responsibilities as a condition of receiving a payment or benefit.

Gender-responsive social protection is designed to be responsive to women, including taking into account the disproportionate share of unpaid care work they carry out. Examples include avoiding conditional cash transfers that add to the pressures and care burden on women, and integrating gender-responsive elements in public works programmes, such as crèches. For example, Bangladesh's Rural Employment Opportunities for Public Assets, female workers are provided maternity leave, and are included in needs

assessments that take their household and care responsibilities into consideration.

Given the ageing population trend in the region, pensions are an urgent priority. Active pension scheme contribution rates of the working-age population are low for both women and men in some countries. For example, only 17 per cent of women and 18 per cent of men in Viet Nam contribute to a pension. In other countries, gender gaps are wide, with almost three times more men than women contributing in Solomon Islands, for example.⁶²

Non-contributory social pensions are a powerful tool to prevent women's poverty in older age, particularly as there is no penalty for women who undertake caring responsibilities over their life cycle. In Thailand, access to pensions is granted as a universal right to older persons. Civil society advocacy led by older people in the Philippines has proved highly effective for improving and extending the coverage of social pensions.

Maternity benefits provided in the form of cash transfers is another option to support pregnant women and mothers of young children who have no access to formal social security. In Mongolia, maternity cash benefits under the Social Welfare Scheme are provided to all pregnant women and mothers of infants through a universal tax-funded health-care system, regardless of their contribution to the social insurance scheme, status in employment or nationality.⁶³



Photo: ADB/Eric Sales

In the Asia and the Pacific region, extending social protection to the significant proportion of women in informal work is an urgent priority, particularly in the case of maternity benefits, in line with ILO Recommendation No. 202 on Social Protection Floors. This is particularly important as informal workers are commonly not covered under maternity leave provisions. For instance, the Philippines, after ratifying ILO Convention No. 189, now has the Domestic Workers Act, which mandates both minimum age and minimum wage, daily and weekly rest periods and access to employer-funded social security and health insurance. Thailand has the migrant health insurance scheme, which both documented and undocumented migrants can join by contributing about US\$100 for a two-year coverage. About one third of the estimated number of migrants are enrolled in the programme, which offers benefits similar to the universal health-care schemes for Thai people.⁶⁴

Coverage for women in informal self-employment who do not have a defined employer or a regular salary, where they have less capacity to make contributions, is a challenge. In the absence of significant state subsidies to substitute for employers' contributions, giving workers the option of voluntarily contributing to social insurance has limited success. For example, in the Lao PDR, voluntary coverage was introduced in 2014 for a range of social security benefits, including a maternity cash benefit at 80 per cent of the reference wage for 90 days. However, by 2015 it had enrolled only about 1,600 members from a national population of almost 2.5 million informal workers.⁶⁵ While voluntary affiliation may be an option for self-employed workers with some contributory capacity, the successful extension of leave and benefits to women in more precarious types of informal self-employment will require governments to fully or partially subsidize their contributions or combine contributory and non-contributory benefits.

Similarly, in Mongolia, herders, self-employed and informal workers can join the social insurance scheme on a voluntary basis, and receive maternity cash benefits for four months at a replacement rate of 70 per cent of their reference wages. However, formal employees join the scheme as mandatory and receive 100 per cent of their covered wage.⁶⁶

Invest in affordable, accessible and quality care services for child, disability and elderly care

Limited access to affordable care services, including child and elderly care, is a key factor that contributes to women's unpaid care and domestic workload, particularly for low-income women and women in rural areas, where they are unable to pay high costs for care. While there is limited data on access to and

use of care services, one indicator that provides some insight into the availability of care is participation in early childhood education and care. Access to early childhood education and care for children aged 3 to 6 varies across the region, with high participation (over 90 per cent) in countries including Australia, Japan and Thailand, and very low participation (below 10 per cent) in others such as Bhutan, Cambodia, the Lao PDR and Myanmar. However, country income level is not a determining factor in access to early childhood education and care, with high participation rates (over 80 per cent) in low-income countries such as Nepal and Sri Lanka.⁶⁷ This demonstrates that investment in childcare services is possible even in income-constrained contexts.

High quality, affordable and accessible care services, such as childcare and elderly care services, are needed to reduce and redistribute unpaid care work, which is predominantly carried out by women. Attention is needed to ensure the accessibility, quality and affordability of these services, particularly for the most marginalized groups. Public investment in care services not only frees women's time and improves their employment prospects but can also strengthen the capabilities of care recipients and generate decent job opportunities for both women and men through an expanding care sector.⁶⁸ Ensuring the quality of these services goes hand-in-hand with decent pay and conditions for workers in care services, who are predominantly women.

In Mongolia, the Law on Pre-school Education (2008) provides for universal access for young children aged 2 to 6. In practice, formal kindergartens (which account for more than two thirds of enrolment) are open to children aged 6 months to 5 years, and operate 9–10 hours per day, 36 weeks a year. Besides the expansion of the kindergarten infrastructure, a key policy initiative has been the introduction of mobile programmes that target children in rural areas and nomadic communities.⁶⁹

Thailand has emphasized improving the quality of early childhood education and care services. National Standards for Early Childhood Care Centres were developed, and around 950 Model Early Childhood Centres have been established across the country as examples of high-quality facilities and services. They also serve as training centres for teachers and teacher assistants. Thailand has enjoyed high levels of enrolment, with a net enrolment rate of 100 per cent in 2011.⁷⁰

Given the dynamics of population ageing and family change, there is a need for greater attention to elderly care services. Many countries in the region, including emerging economies such as the People's Republic of China and Thailand, are deploying considerable efforts to develop elder care policies and systems that are responsive to changing family dynamics and older

people's needs. These are designed to rely in great part on home and community-based care as their base.⁷¹ This fits with people's preference for ageing in place and with the needs of the majority of older persons. It also helps to provide affordable care services, as residential care is more expensive and not required for most elderly people if sufficient community and home-based services are developed.

In 2015, the Japanese Government announced the new care services policy, which includes an injection of public expenditure to increase the number of child and elderly care facilities and services, and raise the wages of preschool teachers and elderly care workers to meet demand. The Republic of Korea has enacted a long-term care insurance policy that finances home and institutional care for older people. As well as reducing the out-of-pocket expenses of care, the policy has reduced the share of care that family members (predominantly women) provide on an unpaid basis by 15 per cent.

Focusing on quality of care and the conditions of workers in the sector, several countries in the region are developing training programmes for caregivers (including certified programmes), and seeking to create pathways towards higher-skilled professions (e.g., nursing and rehabilitation specialists). Thailand, for example, has developed a range of training programmes for caregivers and nursing assistants, targeting family members, volunteer and migrant workers, as well as informal workers.⁷² The ADB is providing support to the People's Republic of China in several provinces for the development of human resources in the elder care sector. In Hebei Province, for instance, an ADB-supported project is helping a local university to develop a new elderly care training centre that will coordinate across the different sectors and offer a wide range of training programmes including caregiving and nursing, geriatric psychology and counselling, occupational therapy, elderly care facilities and services management, and information, technology and communications to support development of the sector.⁷³ In the municipality of Nanning in Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region and in Liaoning Province, the ADB is providing assistance to technical and vocational education and training and tertiary nursing programmes to introduce new curricula for elderly care and geriatric nursing.⁷⁴

Invest in infrastructure – water, sanitation, energy and transport

Limited access to water, energy, basic services and infrastructure intensifies women and girls' unpaid work burden. Where communities lack access to infrastructure and technology – such as clean fuel and technology for heating and cooking, drinking water, sanitation, roads and safe transportation – women tend to spend more time on the daily tasks associated with domestic work. Data for the region shows that

adult females are overwhelmingly responsible for water collection, except in Mongolia where adult men share the responsibility with adult women (see Annex 2: Statistical Table 6.1b). The evidence points to significant time savings for women and girls when there is improved access to water supply.⁷⁵ Women are also often responsible for foraging, which is crucial for providing food and income security for the household, but environmental changes related to climate change can further intensify the time burden of these activities.⁷⁶

Improved access to basic infrastructure, including safe water, cooking fuel and electricity, allows women and girls to reallocate and reprioritize their time use. Policies on water, sanitation, energy and transport should prioritize the specific needs of women and girls, with special attention to the accessibility, quality and affordability of these resources.

Evaluation of infrastructure projects found that improved access to water did not necessarily automatically increase women's time in income-generating activities.⁷⁷ However, improved access to water does reduce the drudgery of unpaid care and domestic work, particularly when water is brought either close to home or within the home.⁷⁸ There is also a need to focus on the quality of water to reduce the time spent by women in caring for family members who become ill due to contaminated water. Improving access to sanitation should focus on women's safety and well-being to reduce the time they spend seeking sanitation facilities where they are safe.

Based on evidence from Bangladesh and Nepal, increased access to electricity also contributes to reducing the time women spend collecting fuelwood, as well as increasing their time engaging in income-generating activities.⁷⁹ For example, evaluation of ADB assistance to rural electrification in Bhutan shows that it led to a reduction in the time spent collecting firewood of 27.6 minutes per day for women and 21.6 minutes for men.⁸⁰ In Bangladesh, a study found that 70 per cent of women reported a reduction in housework after electrification.⁸¹ In the Lao PDR, electrification introduced electric water pumps and rice mills, which contributed to reducing women's housework.⁸²

Furthermore, improving road infrastructure and transport services should result in the reduction of travel time and increased access to social services, markets and employment opportunities for women. Therefore, they should be designed with consideration of the needs of women, including their safety and daily travel routines.



Chapter 5

Eliminating violence against women and girls as a cross-cutting priority for sustainable development

Violence against women and girls is a pervasive violation of human rights and a global health problem. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development identifies the elimination of violence against women and girls as a crucial priority for achieving gender equality and sustainable development.

Violence against women and girls is a cause and consequence of gender inequality and recognized as a major obstacle to women and girls' enjoyment of all human rights and their full participation in society and the economy. Eliminating violence against women and girls is also a cross-cutting priority across the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and vital for achieving the SDGs in areas including poverty eradication, health, education, sustainable cities and just and peaceful societies.¹

Box 5.1 Defining violence against women and girls

Violence against women and girls is defined as “any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life”.³ The various forms of violence against women and girls and settings within which they occur are manifest across different contexts – in times of conflict, post-conflict or so-called peace – and in diverse spheres – perpetrated by families, communities, States, and a range of actors operating transnationally.⁴ Violence can occur in physical, sexual, psychological and economic forms.

The 2030 Agenda builds on existing international frameworks that address violence against women and girls, particularly the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform for Action, the agreed conclusions of the Commission on the Status of Women at its 57th session, and the ASEAN Regional Plan of Action on the Elimination of Violence against Women.²

Against this background, this chapter focuses on how progress towards eliminating violence against women and girls can be accelerated in the context of implementing the SDGs. It begins with an overview of why eliminating violence against women matters for the SDGs, and then turns to an assessment of violence against women in the region, before discussing priority action for accelerating progress on eliminating violence against women and girls.

Why does eliminating violence against women and girls matter for sustainable development?

Eliminating violence against women and girls is considered one of the four transformative policy areas for achieving gender equality and the SDGs. Of particular relevance are Goal 5 to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls, Goal 11 to make cities and human settlements safe, resilient and sustainable, and Goal 16 to promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all, and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels. In addition to these goals where the violence is specifically addressed, violence against women is a cross-cutting priority across the SDGs.

Interlinkages between ending violence against women and girls and the achievement of other Goals



Violence against women and girls is one of the most serious manifestations of the gender inequality and discrimination that persist worldwide, depriving women and girls of their basic rights and opportunities (see Box 5.2).⁵ Thus, eliminating it is essential for catalysing progress towards gender equality on all fronts. Violence against women and girls exists on a continuum that ranges from verbal and sexual harassment to the gender-related killings of women (femicide). Complex and context-specific factors underpin different forms of violence, but the root causes are unequal gender power relations and discrimination against women and girls.

Violence against women and girls is closely linked to other dimensions of gender inequality and sustainable development. For example, it is prevalent among all socioeconomic groups; however, there is evidence that poverty (Goal 1) can be both a contributing factor to and consequence of it. This violence also limits the ability of women and girls to complete their education (Goal 4) and to participate in paid labour, causing women to lose income, which can lead to economic vulnerability (Goals 1, 5 and 8).⁶

Box 5.2 The economic costs of violence against women and girls

Violence against women and girls generates huge economic costs for women and families, and communities and societies. Several studies have sought to measure the economic costs of this violence by considering its consequences and its direct and indirect costs.⁷ Direct costs represent expenditure on services and measures for preventing and responding to the violence (medical treatment, police support, legal support, counselling and judicial support). Indirect costs result from the physical and psychological trauma and lifelong effects that such violence has on those experiencing it.

A global review of studies of the economic costs of domestic violence found that it costs between 1.2 and 2 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP).⁸ In the Asia and Pacific Region, a number of countries have carried out costings of domestic violence. In Bangladesh, its cost was an estimated US\$1.8 billion, or 2.05 per cent of GDP.⁹ In Australia, its cost was an estimated US\$8.1 billion, or 1.2 per cent of GDP.

In Viet Nam, its cost was an estimated US\$1.71 billion, or 1.41 per cent of GDP, and the estimated productivity loss due to violence indicates that women experiencing violence earn 35 per cent less than those not abused.¹⁰

Violence against women and girls increases women's risks of physical health problems, and can lead to poor health and well-being (Goal 3). The risks to physical health include short-term injuries and long-term health problems. There are also sexual and reproductive health risks (Goals 3 and 5), including unwanted and early pregnancy (either through rape or by reducing a women's ability to negotiate contraceptive use with their sexual partners), and increased risk of sexually transmitted diseases. In the most extreme cases, women who experience violence are at risk of disfigurement, disability and even death.

Violence against women and girls is linked to educational and economic outcomes for girls and women. Some countries and communities have high rates of gender-based violence in and around schools and universities, including sexual violence and harassment from male teachers and students, which creates an unsafe educational environment for girls and young women (Goal 4). In such situations, the combination of gender discrimination and violence can lead to lower attendance, lower academic achievement and higher dropout rates for girls, with negative consequences for economic opportunities in the future.

Women who experience violence, including domestic violence, are more likely to miss paid work and to be unable to perform household chores and childcare responsibilities.¹¹ For instance, in Cambodia, 20 per cent of women who experienced domestic violence reported they missed paid work and their children missed school because of it.¹² Within informal and unprotected labour markets, women are also at increased risk of experiencing workplace harassment, violence and exploitation.

Violence against women and girls in public spaces is an everyday occurrence in urban and rural areas, and in developed and developing countries.¹³ Women and girls experience various types of violence in public spaces (Goal 11), particularly sexual violence and harassment, as it happens in and around public transportation, schools and universities, workplaces, marketplaces, parks, public toilets, and water and food distribution sites (Goal 6).¹⁴ This impacts negatively on women and girls' health and well-being, and their sense of safety and security (Goal 16).

What is the status of violence against women and girls in Asia and the Pacific?

Numerous forms of violence against women and girls occur regularly in the public and private spheres throughout Asia and the Pacific. These must be understood by those involved in policymaking and decision-making processes related to ending this violence and women's human rights.

Box 5.3 How do we leave no one behind in ending violence against women and girls?

The 2030 Agenda also commits to “leaving no one behind”, which means prioritizing human beings’ dignity and placing the progress of the most marginalized communities first, with women and girls at the top of the list. It also reinforces the need to address the structural causes of inequality and marginalization that affect women.¹⁵

Leaving no one behind obliges United Nations Member States to turn greater attention to how violence is experienced by women and girls, including the specific experiences of violence and vulnerability experienced by women and girls located at the margins of society due to their intersectional identities. Intersectional identities that affect women and girls’ experience of violence include race, ethnicity, social class or caste, nationality, sexual orientation, religion, age, disability and other factors such as migration and location (urban vs. rural and remote).

Leaving no one behind commits Member States to understanding and improving the responses of service providers, police and justice officials to survivors of violence from marginalized groups. First, there is the responsibility to provide services to all survivors within communities, regardless of their identity. Then it is necessary to analyse the different experiences among women and the impacts of multiple inequalities on survivors’ ability to access available services in communities.

Services are not always responsive to women and girls who experience multiple layers of inequality, and where women do not feel accepted because of their identities or status as defined within communities and society, they may be reluctant to access services aimed at all women. Therefore, understanding intersectional identities as they affect women and girls’ experience of violence and access to essential services is important to leaving no one behind as work to end the violence progresses.

Prevalent forms of this violence in Asia and the Pacific include intimate partner violence; non-partner violence; sexual harassment; acid violence; “honour killings”; violence against lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer and intersex (LGBTQI) persons; femicide; early and forced marriage; female genital mutilation; human trafficking; and violence in the context of conflict, disaster and emergency settings.¹⁶

While the indicators for Target 5.2 are limited to intimate partner violence and non-partner sexual violence, the target is broadly defined. Thus, effectively implementing this target requires addressing all forms of violence against all women and girls.

Intimate partner violence is a widespread form of violence against women in the region

Based upon data for 39 countries, intimate partner violence is a widespread form of violence against women in Asia and the Pacific. Common forms include physical, sexual, psychological and economic violence.¹⁷ The majority of women who experience violence in intimate relationships often experience multiple forms of violence and endure repeated acts of violence at the hands of their current and/or former husbands and partners.

For Asia and Pacific countries with data, the proportion of women who experienced intimate partner physical and/or sexual violence in their lifetime ranged from 6.1 per cent in Singapore, and 9.5 per cent in Armenia, to 64.1 per cent in Fiji, 67.2 per cent in Bangladesh, 67.5 per cent in Papua New Guinea and 67.6 per cent in Kiribati (see Table 5.1). Some of the highest documented rates of violence against women and girls and intimate partner violence are in Pacific countries.

Understanding the lifetime prevalence of physical and sexual intimate partner violence is important because it demonstrates the proportion of women in a country who have experienced such violence. Moreover, looking at the prevalence over the last 12 months over time can provide an indication of whether this violence is increasing or decreasing.

The prevalence of intimate partner violence in the past 12 months ranges from 50.7 per cent in Bangladesh, 44 per cent in Vanuatu, and 41.8 per cent in Solomon Islands, to 0.9 per cent in Singapore. There is limited data on the proportion of women who experience psychological violence in their intimate relationships, as challenges remain around a cross-cultural definition and measurement standards to produce data that can be compared between countries. However, the prevalence of psychological violence is generally higher than physical and sexual violence in women’s lifetimes and in the past 12 months.

Box 5.4 Data on violence against women and girls

Over the past decade, global attention has shifted to more and better data collection related to violence against women and girls. Two of the most common types of data are violence prevalence data collected through surveys and administrative data. Surveys are the only way to collect data on prevalence. Violence prevalence data is generated from population-based surveys that gather data from a representative sample of the population (national or subnational), so that survey results can represent how the violence affects the general population.¹⁸ Some countries have also invested in surveys to measure attitudes towards the violence.

Administrative data, on the other hand, is an important source of data and information that

can often (but not always) be readily accessed and used to complement population-level data collection, such as violence prevalence surveys. Government agencies (e.g., social welfare, child protection, health, police, prosecutors and courts), non-governmental service providers, and public and private health-care facilities possess a wealth of information on this violence and how survivors are using such services (e.g., type of service accessed), as well as how service providers serve survivors in their efforts to seek health care, psychosocial support/counselling, protection, shelter and justice. This information can also be used to map flow charts as to where survivors access services (e.g., which sectors and agencies) and referrals between service providers.

Intimate partner violence is a manifestation of gender inequality in intimate relationships, families and wider society. Entrenched attitudes and norms around gender roles underlie its persistence. Cross-cultural research reveals that in many societies, both men and women, young and old, subscribe to cultural attitudes and social norms that justify wife domestic violence on various grounds (e.g., a wife burns food, argues with her husband, goes out without telling him, neglects the children, or refuses to have sex with him).¹⁹ For

example, 76 per cent of women in Kiribati believe that under certain circumstances a man is justified in beating his wife and 58 per cent of women in the Lao PDR believe a husband is justified in beating his wife if she makes a mistake.²⁰ In addition to being culturally accepted, women who experience intimate partner violence are often subject to shame and stigma, making it difficult for them to speak out and seek support and to leave violent relationships.



Photo: UN Women/Allison Joyce

Table 5.1 Proportion of women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner in their lifetime and the past 12 months, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)

Country	Year	Age Group	Physical and/or sexual violence	
			Lifetime	Past 12 months
Developed economies				
Australia ¹	2012	18+	16.9	---
East and North-East Asia				
People's Republic of China ³	2012	15–49	38.7	8.7
North and Central Asia				
Armenia ¹	2008	15–59	9.5	---
Pacific				
Cook Islands	2012	15–64	33.0	9.1
Fiji	2010	15–64	64.1	23.7
Kiribati	2008	15–49	67.6	36.1
Marshall Islands	2012	15–64	50.9	18.2
Micronesia, Federated States of	2014	15–64	32.8	24.1
Nauru	2013	15–64	48.1	22.1
Palau	2013	15–64	25.2	8.4
Papua New Guinea ³	2012	15–49	67.5	32.9
Samoa	2000	15–49	46.1	22.4
Solomon Islands	2008	15–49	63.5	41.8
Tonga	2009	15–49	39.6	18.9
Tuvalu	2007	15–49	36.8	25.0
Vanuatu	2011	15–49	60.0	44.0
South and South-West Asia				
Afghanistan	2015	15–49	50.8	46.1
Bangladesh ¹	2011	All	67.2	50.7
Bhutan	2012	15–49	26.5	13.0
Maldives	2006	15–49	19.5	6.4
Nepal	2011	15–49	28.2	14.3
Sri Lanka	2012	15–49	27.8	18.4
Turkey ¹	2014	15–59	38.0	11.0
South-East Asia				
Cambodia	2015	15–64	20.9	7.7
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2014	15–64	15.3	6.0
Myanmar	2015	15–49	17.3	11.0
Philippines	2013	15–49	16.9	7.1
Singapore ¹	2009	18–69	6.1	0.9
Thailand ²	2000	15–49	44.0	22.0
Timor-Leste	2015	15–49	58.8	46.4
Viet Nam	2010	18–60	34.4	9.0

Source:

United Nations Population Fund, <http://asiapacific.unfpa.org/en/publications/violence-against-women-regional-snapshot-2017> (accessed in December 2017).

¹ United Nations, 2015. The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics, table 6.3 (chapter 6_d), <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/chapter6/chapter6.html>, Accessed in November 2017.

Note:

“---” indicates data not collected or not available.

² The prevalence rates are calculated as average for two sites where the survey was carried out.

³ Data is for one rural area only.

Women in the region are at risk of violence from non-partners

Women and girls are at risk of physical and sexual violence by non-partners. For Asia and Pacific countries with data, the proportion of women who experienced physical violence in their lifetime, from a non-partner, ranged 4.7 per cent in Japan and 5.1 per cent in the Lao PDR to 62 per cent in Fiji and 67.8 per cent in Tonga. Rates of lifetime experiences of physical violence were highest among women in Pacific countries, followed by South-East and South Asian countries. The proportion of women who experienced sexual violence in their lifetime, from a non-partner, ranged from 2.3 per cent

in Viet Nam and 16.9 per cent in Japan, to 33 per cent in Vanuatu and 47.3 per cent in Nauru. Rates of sexual violence experienced by women were again highest in Pacific countries (see Table 5.2).

Rape perpetrated by a non-partner is criminalized in most countries, but sexual violence that occurs in the context of intimate relationships and marriage (i.e., date rape and marital rape) is often condoned. Marital rape and other types of sexual violence by intimate partners are rarely acknowledged and not all countries have laws that criminalize marital rape (see Chapter 2).²¹

Table 5.2 Proportion of women who experienced sexual violence since age 15 years by a non-partner in their lifetime and the last 12 months, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)

Country	Year	Age Group	Sexual Violence	
			Lifetime	Past 12 months
Developed economies				
Japan ¹	2012	18+	16.9	---
Pacific				
Cook Islands	2012	15–64	7.4	0.5
Fiji	2010	15–64	8.5	---
Kiribati	2008	15–49	9.8	---
Marshall Islands	2012	15–64	13.0	0.8
Micronesia, Federated States of	2014	15–64	8.0	2.7
Nauru	2013	15–64	47.3	12.2
Palau	2013	15–64	15.1	3.4
Samoa	2000	15–49	10.6	---
Solomon Islands	2008	15–49	18.0	---
Tonga	2009	15–49	6.3	---
Vanuatu	2011	15–49	33.0	---
Tuvalu	2007	15–49	36.8	---
Vanuatu	2011	15–49	60.0	---
South and South-West Asia				
Bhutan	2012	15–49	12.5	---
Maldives	2006	15–49	6.2	---
South-East Asia				
Cambodia	2015	15–64	3.8	0.0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2014	15–64	5.3	0.0
Thailand ²	2000	15–49	4.4	---
Timor-Leste	2015	15–49	13.9	10.0
Viet Nam	2010	18–60	2.3	---

Source:

United Nations Population Fund, <http://asiapacific.unfpa.org/en/publications/violence-against-women-regional-snapshot-2017> (accessed in December 2017).

Notes:

“---” indicates data not collected or not available.

1 Data is for one urban area only.

2 The prevalence rates are calculated as average for the two sites.

South Asia has the highest rate of child, early and forced marriage in the world

Early marriage (before the age of 18) and forced marriage is a harmful traditional and cultural practice and a human rights violation and form of violence against women and girls. Girls are disproportionately vulnerable.²² Early and forced marriage often occur in societies that place less value on girls, and in situations of poverty and other forms of vulnerability. For vulnerable and disadvantaged families (particularly families living in poverty²³ and in rural areas²⁴) seeking to secure a future for girls, early and forced marriage often seems like the best option; however, the practice places girls at high risk of experiencing violence from their husbands and in-laws, and of having negative sexual and reproductive health outcomes.

South Asia has the highest rates of early and forced marriage in the world, with 45 per cent of all women aged 20–24 years reporting marriage before the age of 18, and 17 per cent by the age of 15.²⁵ This is despite declines in the proportion of girls married before 18 years from 63 per cent in 1985 to 45 per cent in 2010, and in the proportion of girls married by 15 years from 32 per cent in 1985 to 17 per cent in 2010.²⁶ Nevertheless, it is estimated that at least 130 million girls in South Asia will be married before the age of 18 by 2030.²⁷

In South Asia, Bangladesh has the highest rates of early and forced marriage, with 58.6 per cent of women aged 20–24 years married before 18 in 2014, and 22.4 per cent married by the age of 15. In Nepal, 36.6 per cent of girls are married before the age of 18, and 10.4 per cent by the age of 15. In Afghanistan, 34.8 per cent of girls are married before 18 years of age, and 8.8 per cent by the age of 15.²⁸ The Afghanistan Independent Human Rights Commission reported that 60–80 per cent of all marriages in Afghanistan are forced.²⁹

Pacific countries also report high rates of marriage of girls by the age of 15 and before the age of 18. The highest rates were in Nauru and the Marshall Islands, followed by Solomon Islands, Vanuatu, Papua New Guinea and Kiribati. The rates were lowest in Tonga and Tuvalu, among countries with available data.³⁰

Girls in early and forced marriages often face difficulties in freely making decisions about safe sex and family planning, placing them at increased risk of sexual violence. They are also less likely to receive proper medical care while pregnant, resulting in high-risk pregnancies that increase the risk of maternal morbidity.³¹ Complications during pregnancy and childbirth are reportedly the second leading cause of death for girls aged 15–19 years.³² In addition, babies born to mothers under 20 years of age are 1.5 times more likely to die during the first 28 days of life, compared to babies born to mothers in their 20s and 30s.³³ In Bangladesh and Nepal, women married before

the age of 15 are nearly two times more likely to deliver their most recent baby outside of a health facility, compared to those married as adults.³⁴

Girls in early and forced marriages also face limited opportunities for education. With their education cut short, they lose the chance to obtain the knowledge and skills needed to secure a well-paid job that will enable them to provide for themselves and their families or to escape abusive relationships, and are at increased risk of living in poverty.³⁵

Acid violence is prevalent in countries in South-East and South Asia

Acid violence is another form of physical violence that is most often perpetrated against women and girls and is common in many South-East and South Asian countries. In South Asia, acid violence is committed against women who reject marriage proposals and sexual advances, and as a result of dowry-related conflict. Acid attacks constitute a hidden form of violence against women and girls, as many cases go unreported.

Many survivors of acid violence, particularly women and girls in rural and remote areas or living in poverty, do not have access to adequate medical care and psychological support, or adequate legal assistance. Survivors are often ashamed of how they look and are ostracized by the community for their disfigurement; as a result, they are unable to work or support their families. Survivors of acid violence are at increased risk of suicide.³⁶

LGBTQI people experience increased risk of violence

In 2015, United Nations agencies called on Member States to act urgently to end violence and discrimination against lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, and intersex (LGBTQI) adolescents and adults. In Asia and the Pacific, violence against LGBTQI persons goes largely undocumented; nevertheless, violence against lesbian and bisexual women, and transgender women, occurs within families, intimate partner relationships, schools and institutions, and communities. LGBTQI persons are also at increased risk of experiencing violence and discrimination when seeking refuge from persecution and during humanitarian emergencies.³⁷

The combination of isolation from families and marginalization within communities and societies contributes to the violence LGBTQI persons experience; it also inhibits their access to protection, support services and justice. As a result, LGBTQI persons who experience violence are at increased risk of self-harming and suicidal behaviour, engagement in risky behaviour that increases the risk of HIV infection, and

social and economic exclusion. Failure of countries to uphold human rights protections for LGBTQI persons, and to protect them from violence and discriminatory practices and laws, constitutes a violation of international human rights law.

Violence against women and girls can be fatal

Gender-related killing of women and girls is generally understood to refer to the intentional murder of women and girls because they are female, whether the killing occurs in public or private.³⁸ The United Nations Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences identified active or direct forms of gender-related killing, including killing as a result of intimate partner violence, honour killings, killings during armed conflict, and killing related to sorcery and witchcraft, dowry, gender identity and sexual orientation, and ethnic and indigenous identity.³⁹

In 2012, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) revealed intimate partner/family-related violence as a major cause of female homicide, with almost half of all female victims of murder (47 per cent) killed by family members or intimate partners, compared to 6 per cent of male homicide victims.⁴⁰

Collecting accurate data on gender-related killings of women and girls is challenging in most countries because police and medical administrative data often do not record the victim-perpetrator relationship or the gender-related motivation for murder.⁴¹ In Asia and the Pacific, data and statistics on gender-related killings of women and girls are lacking, which is a pervasive problem that needs to be studied and documented.⁴²

In some countries, “honour killings” are a culturally accepted form of killing of women and girls. Honour killings entail the premeditated murder of a woman or girl by her family or intimate partner for an alleged, perceived or actual behaviour that involves some form of sexual impropriety or socially and culturally taboo or behaviour considered to be immoral that tarnishes the family’s honour.⁴³ Honour killings are perceived as a way to restore or save a family’s honour. In some societies, the sociocultural roots of honour killings are so deep that legal systems fail to deter them, and even blame the victim rather than the perpetrators.⁴⁴

Afghanistan and Pakistan have particularly high rates of honour killings. However, the annual figures are unreliable. To a large extent, there remains a culture of impunity. In 2015, the Human Rights Commission of Pakistan reported that 1,096 women were killed for honour (170 were minors aged under 18). With no official figures on honour killings in Pakistan, it is estimated that the real figure could be much higher as many are believed to be disguised as accidents or go unreported by family members.

Another form of violence against women and girls is dowry-related deaths, which are linked directly to gender inequality in marriage, families and societies. Dowry-related killings are still widespread in South Asian countries, where dowry is provided by the bride’s family.⁴⁵ Dowry-related deaths typically involve newly married women who are killed by their in-laws over conflicts related to dowry, particularly for bringing insufficient dowry to the marital family. Documented incidents of dowry-related deaths vary significantly, and data is often unreliable.

Human trafficking is a concern for the region, with women and girls at greater risk

Human trafficking⁴⁶ is a violation of human rights addressed in the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (2000). In 2012, the International Labour Organization estimated 20.9 million victims of human trafficking globally, including as many as 18.7 million (90 per cent) in forced labour in the private economy. Of these, 4.5 million (22 per cent) are in forced sexual exploitation and 14.2 million (68 per cent) in forced labour exploitation in activities such as agriculture, construction, domestic work and manufacturing.⁴⁷ Not only do women and girls represent the greater share of human trafficking victims in forced sexual exploitation, they are also the greater share in forced labour (55 per cent).⁴⁸

According to UNODC, women and girls accounted for 71 per cent of the 17,752 victims of human trafficking detected in 85 countries in 2014; 51 per cent were women and 20 per cent were girls. In East Asia and the Pacific, females accounted for 77 per cent of victims, of whom 51 per cent were women and 26 per cent girls.⁴⁹ In Central Asia, 35 per cent of detected trafficking victims were female, of whom 31 per cent were women and 4 per cent girls.⁵⁰ In countries including Australia, Kazakhstan and Singapore, females are reportedly two times more likely to be trafficked than males; the rates of trafficking of women and girls were even higher in countries including Armenia, the People’s Republic of China, Japan, Myanmar and Nepal.⁵¹ In recent years, trafficking of women and girls for marriage has become more prevalent, accounting for at least 4 per cent of detected female trafficking victims in East Asia and the Pacific between 2012 and 2014.⁵²

In Asia and the Pacific, there are a multitude of factors that increase women and girls’ risk of being trafficked and exploited, including poverty, low levels of education, and experience of violence and discrimination. In some cases, parents and family members are involved in trafficking their own girls. Human trafficking and exploitation are forms of violence against women and girls in and of themselves, but within the context of the crime, trafficking victims experience psychological, physical and sexual violence

at the hands of their traffickers and exploiters.⁵³ Transgender trafficking victims are also vulnerable to violence; however, this group is often overlooked.⁵⁴

Women are more vulnerable to violence during conflict and natural disasters

Women and girls' vulnerability to and experience of violence increases significantly in emergency situations, such as during armed conflicts and natural disasters.⁵⁵ Although more men than women are typically killed during armed conflicts, women are disproportionately affected by sexual violence, particularly rape, which is often used as a weapon and strategy of war, systematically targeting women in the so-called "enemy group" to achieve the political objectives of ethnic cleansing, genocide and occupation of territory. At the same time, armed conflict tends to weaken systems of protection and security for women. The intersections of gender, patriarchy, militarism, and ethnic, religious and political identities fuel war rape as part of a continuum of violence against women and girls and pre-existing gender inequalities and sociocultural norms that support this violence within societies.⁵⁶

After natural disasters, women often live in makeshift and temporary accommodation or camps, where they become vulnerable to sexual violence. They may also be forced to rely on perpetrators of violence for survival or to access critical services.⁵⁷ In 2010, a Gender Needs Assessment Survey conducted in Pakistan found that among 253 flood victims in Balochistan and Sindh (of which 55 per cent were female and 45 per cent male), 25 per cent were fearful of using latrine and bathing facilities, and 13 per cent reported that violence occurred mostly in tents or temporary residence shelters following the flood (see Chapter 6). Women also reported being fearful of collecting aid because they could not make their way to the distribution centre.⁵⁹ Women who live in refugee camps after fleeing armed conflict are also at increased risk of experiencing violence, including sexual violence.

What can be done to accelerate progress to eliminate violence against women and girls?

Ending violence against women and girls requires achieving gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls. However, more vigorous effort is required to improve the response to this violence through comprehensive laws and services, and to prevent violence before it happens by tackling gender inequality as its root, as well as other underlying factors at different levels.⁶⁰

Also needed alongside government leadership and the enactment of legal and policy frameworks is an effort to monitor progress and hold governments

accountable for ending violence against women and girls.⁶¹ Women's organizations have historically played a catalytic role in trying to stop the violence by advancing laws and developing models for best practice service delivery. Therefore, it is vital that women's organizations are supported to participate in the development of laws and policies to end this violence.

Implement and enforce comprehensive laws on violence against women and girls

Although most countries have enacted legislation to end violence against women and girls, (particularly domestic and family violence laws), significant gaps remain. One is that the legislation does not effectively address all types of violence against women and girls. Some types, such as marital rape, are not criminalized in many countries, and other types (e.g., honour killings, dowry-related deaths, acid violence) are not effectively addressed by legislation.

It is crucial that every country adopts comprehensive laws to criminalize acts of violence against women and girls that include provisions to provide justice, support, protection and remedies to survivors, and hold perpetrators accountable.⁶²

Governments do not effectively or consistently implement this legislation. Implementation of the laws is often hampered by a lack of political will to end violence against women and girls; inadequate resource allocation; insufficient enforcement by police and justice officials; insufficient monitoring of legislation implementation and its impact on violence against women and girls; and lack of coordination and collaboration among actors working to end it.⁶³

Another challenge for many Asia and Pacific countries is that law enforcement officials lack the training to effectively respond to violence against women. In most countries in the region, police lack resources to combat it and are perceived as ineffective. In Timor-Leste, despite the implementation of the 2010 Law Against Domestic Violence, less than one quarter of the cases reported to the police are investigated.⁶⁴

Measures to strengthen the effective implementation of legislation and policies should include a commitment of adequate human and financial resources to effectively implement legislation against this violence. They should also include training on this legislation for front-line service providers, police and judiciary who handle violence against women and girls cases, and the development of mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating the implementation and effectiveness of legislation.

Protection from violence and the right to a life free from violence should be a principle not only in legislation on violence against women, but also in all relevant areas of law, including family, divorce and immigration law. This enables women to have expanded options for leaving abusive relationships without fearing negative consequences in terms of child custody arrangements, property settlement and immigration status.⁶⁵

Develop, implement and monitor National Action Plans to end the violence

National Action Plans on ending violence against women and girls are also important because they demonstrate the commitment of governments to implementing legislation and policies that address gender equality and end the violence. These plans often outline a “whole of” or “all of” government approach, with designated responsibilities, commitments and time frames.⁶⁶ Only 25 per cent (14 out of 55) countries in Asia and the Pacific currently have such plans, while 35 per cent (19) do not have a current plan, and it is unknown whether the remaining 40 per cent (22) have one.

Comprehensive National Action Plans to end violence against women should be introduced as part of SDG implementation. They should provide for the establishment of implementation mechanisms, including budgets, that enable a coordinated response from key government agencies, with provision for monitoring progress and evaluation with specific timelines and benchmarks. The plans should also outline the engagement of and coordination and dialogue with women’s civil society organizations.⁶⁷

Guarantee access to essential services for survivors of violence against women and girls

In Asia and the Pacific, most women and girls who experience violence lack access to women-centred quality essential services that can keep them safe and prevent violence from reoccurring. Essential services include police assistance, protection and restraining orders, and shelter; health care; support that addresses victims’ sexual and reproductive health needs, including provision of post-rape care and counselling; and support that facilitates women and girls’ access to police and the justice system.

Vulnerable and marginalized women, including women who experience multiple forms of discrimination and disadvantage related to race, ethnicity, social class, nationality, sexual orientation, religion, age, disability, migration and location (including rural and remote areas), often lack access to basic and essential services for survivors of violence. In Asia and the Pacific, challenges include a lack of quality services and services in general, as well as poor coordination and case management among service providers.

Box 5.5 Global standards for services to respond to violence against women and girls

The United Nations Joint Global Programme on Essential Services for Women and Girls Subject to Violence is a partnership of UN Women, United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), World Health Organization (WHO), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and UNODC. It aims to provide greater access to a coordinated set of essential and quality multisectoral services for all women and girls who have experienced violence. The Essential Services Package put forward by the Programme includes a manual and guide and a resource kit of best practice for the delivery of high-quality, essential services by the health, social service, police and justice sectors, as well as guidelines for the coordination of essential services, the governance of coordination processes and mechanisms, and implementation.⁶⁹

Efforts to provide greater access to a coordinated set of essential and quality multisectoral services for all survivors requires strengthening multisectoral coordination among government and non-government service providers, health workers, social workers, police, and justice officials to ensure effective responses to the violence and service provision to survivors.⁶⁸

Establishing mechanisms that encourage women and girls to access essential services and to report violence is integral to addressing and ending violence against women and girls. In some countries in the region, one-stop crisis centres have been established to provide survivors with access in one place to a range of essential services, such as health care, post-rape care, psychological counselling, police assistance, DNA testing, legal assistance and shelter services. One-stop crisis centres can be found in Bangladesh, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, Sri Lanka and Thailand. They may be a promising practice but there has not yet been rigorous evaluation of their effectiveness or the quality of services they provide to survivors, and they may have limitations in rural or remote areas where services are scarce overall.

Ensure all relevant sectors contribute to women’s and girls’ safety

All services that aim to progress sustainable development, particularly in the context of the SDGs, must be responsive to the safety of women and girls. For example, ensuring girls and young women have access to safe schools and quality education – universal primary and secondary education, as well as vocational training and university education – is crucial

to combating child, early and forced marriage and improving girls and women's educational attainment (Goal 4), literacy rates, employment opportunities and earning power (Goal 8). In many countries, this requires policies that eliminate harmful traditional practices and social norms that devalue girls and their education. It also requires that education officials ensure schools and universities are safe places for girls and young women. This requires that schools and universities have policies that address gender-based violence, and curricula that support gender equality and girls' empowerment. Improving girls' and young women's access to safe schools and universities and quality education improves women's educational attainment and economic opportunities, which can reduce their risk of experiencing poverty, hunger and violence.

Understanding the special needs of women and girls is essential in the selection, design and provision of water and sanitation facilities (Goal 6). Programmes to provide safe drinking water and sanitation facilities are important to reducing vulnerability to violence against women and girls, for example by ensuring they are located in safe places for women and girls and do not require them to walk long distances or to access unsafe areas.⁷⁰ Similarly, ensuring that public spaces and transport are designed to keep women safe should be a priority for SDG implementation. For example, the majority of Asian Development Bank (ADB) urban development and public transport projects integrate gender measures, including gender-responsive physical design features, aimed at preventing violence against women and girls and increasing their safety. These include safety audits and quotas for women's participation in infrastructure planning and design (Goal 9), for example location choices, adequate lighting and pavements, emergency phones and buttons, separate bus and train carriages and reserved seats.⁷¹

Increasing women's economic independence is an important element of the response to violence against women and girls. The role of economic activity has been recognized as a key to choice in women's lives that can enable abused women the ability to decide to leave an abusive, violent relationship and to build an independent life.⁷² Thus, ensuring women have access to decent work, social protection and gender-sensitive policies is important to reducing gender inequality in the labour market.⁷³ This requires a commitment to legislation, policies and actions that improve labour market conditions for women, and programmes that support survivors of violence to learn vocational skills and to participate in income-generating opportunities. Effective laws, policies and programmes to stop violence against women and girls can lead to increased workplace participation and productivity for women.

Prevent violence against women and girls before it happens

Discrimination against women and gender inequality are the root causes of violence against women and girls. Gender inequality shapes discriminatory social norms that can influence the development of attitudes and beliefs leading to such violence. Social norms, including attitudes and beliefs that justify it, create barriers to the effective prevention of and responses to this violence. Therefore, prevention requires holistic, multisectoral approaches that attempt to address underlying structural causes and risk factors, and change social norms, attitudes and beliefs at every level of society.⁷⁴

Four key areas of intervention are proving promising in the area of prevention: community mobilization; strategically engaging men and boys in prevention; prioritizing education and youth; and utilizing policy and legal reform to address structural inequality.⁷⁵

The goal of community mobilization is twofold: to empower women and engage with men to change gender stereotypes and norms at community level.⁷⁶ Over the past decade, prevention initiatives that strategically engage men and boys have gained momentum. Initiatives to strategically engage men and boys are based on three key premises: men and boys are the ones who perpetrate violence against women and girls; social constructions of masculinity and manhood play a central role in the violence; and men and boys have a positive role to play in ending it.⁷⁷

The aim of prioritizing education and youth interventions is to prevent violence in schools, and to use schools as a point of entry for preventing violence against women and girls. It involves improving knowledge and awareness and changing social norms among youth related to gender equality, gender norms and violence against women and girls. Initiatives also include out-of-school activities that provide youth and adolescents with life skills training, and encourage youth participation in advocacy activities to end this violence.⁷⁸

A supportive policy and legislative environment is needed to establish frameworks around ending violence against women and girls, to combat its normalization, and to change social norms and address violence prevention.⁷⁹

Box 5.6 Regional initiatives to prevent violence against women and girls

For a number of years, UN Women and UNFPA, along with the wider United Nations network, have been working on prevention of violence against women and girls in Asia and the Pacific. Their initiatives have expanded evidence-based programming and the availability of tools to address and prevent violence against women and girls. Central to this work have been targeted strategies and approaches that aim to effectively and sustainably challenge social norms and gender stereotypes, as well as attitudes and behaviours that perpetuate gender inequality and violence against women and girls.⁸⁰

Since 2013, UN Women Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific has implemented the project Leveraging Technical Tools, Evidence, and Community Engagement to Advance the Implementation of Laws and Provision of Services to Women Experiencing Violence in South-East Asia. The project has a strong

prevention component and provides an opportunity to develop and test new tools for the positive transformation of social norms at the community level. UN Women has also developed and tested related youth-focused tools and strategies.⁸¹

Partners for Prevention is a United Nations Regional Joint Programme for the prevention of violence against women and girls in Asia and the Pacific. Four United Nations agencies – UNDP, UNFPA, UN Women and United Nations Volunteers – have combined their strengths to work with governments and civil society groups to promote and implement more effective violence prevention programmes and policies. Partners for Prevention Phase 1 (2008–2013) focused on research, capacity development and networking, and communication for social change. Phase 2 (2014–2017) focused on prevention interventions, capacity development and policy advocacy.⁸²

Strengthen data collection to monitor violence against women and girls

Over the past decade, global attention has shifted to more and better data collection related to violence against women and girls. Such data can be used for advocacy purposes by showcasing the magnitude of the problem in a given context, highlighting the groups of women and girls at highest risk of violence, and presenting associated risk and protective factors as well as the consequences of such violence. This data and evidence can inform policy change and the development of interventions. Furthermore, data can be used to monitor trends and changes over time and assess the impact of the policies and programmes in place.

As shown in the sections above, data on violence against women and girls is not widely available for the region, signalling the need for further investment in surveys. Further, collection of such data faces a number of methodological and ethical challenges. Although methodological and ethical standards exist for the collection of data for some forms of this violence (e.g., intimate partner violence), gaps exist for other forms (e.g., femicide).⁸³ Efforts are under way at global, regional and country level to address these challenges and gaps, particularly in the context of the SDGs, which is an opportunity not only to improve the methods and standards of collecting these data, but also to increase data collection and use.



Photo: UN Women/Piyavit Thongsa-Ard



Chapter 6

Empowering women to build climate resilience and reduce disaster risks for sustainable development

Asia and the Pacific is the region most vulnerable to climate change and disaster impacts.¹ Livelihoods are under threat due to increasing temperatures, rising sea levels, melting glaciers and the loss of biodiversity.² The year 2016 was the hottest on record.³ In recent years, climate changes have produced unprecedented shocks, stresses and disasters – reflected in extreme weather events including floods, cyclones, droughts and extreme heat. In Asia and the Pacific, climate-related disasters now account for more than 80 per cent of all disaster events.

Climate change and its related disasters can affect anyone, but women and girls are disproportionately affected due to underlying gender inequality and socio-economic disadvantage. Women who are particularly dependent on climate-sensitive natural resources for their livelihoods, and who have less access to resources and services, are least able to cope. Women's unpaid care and domestic work responsibilities and other discriminatory gender norms often restrict their physical mobility during a disaster response. During and after disasters, many women and girls face heightened gender-based violence. Vulnerability to climate change is not only determined by gender, but also by factors including income, disability, age, ethnicity, race and geographic location.

Addressing the disproportionate impact of climate change on women and girls and supporting their participation in and benefits from climate action are priorities for achieving the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and Goal 13 in particular. Enabling women's voice and agency and addressing gender inequality are necessary for building climate resilience and sustainable development. The SDGs reveal considerable opportunities to harness synergies between gender equality and climate action across five key sectors: energy; transport; agriculture; urban development; and natural disasters.⁴ The role that women already play in mitigating and adapting to climate change risks must be further recognized, supported and strengthened to achieve sustainable development in the region. Critical to this end are investing in women's economic and political empowerment, social and care infrastructure and services, more robust data and evidence for better planning, monitoring and implementation of gender-responsive climate action.

This chapter first provides an overview of measures to integrate gender equality considerations in climate change action for sustainable development, including key areas that require stronger effort. It then discusses the critical linkages between gender equality, climate change and disaster risk reduction in the context of the SDGs, and the need to address gender equality as

Box 6.1 Defining climate change adaptation and mitigation

Adaptation to Climate Change refers to adjustment in natural or human systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli or their effects, which moderates harm or exploits beneficial opportunities.

Mitigation of Climate Change is defined as "An anthropogenic intervention to reduce the sources or enhance the sinks of greenhouse gases."

Source: IPCC. 2015. *Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (IPCC), Geneva, Switzerland

fundamental to strengthening resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and disasters in the region. The chapter concludes with proposed action to ensure that gender equality is at the heart of climate change response and disaster risk management.

Overview of efforts to integrate gender equality considerations in climate change action

Addressing the disproportionate impact of climate change on women and supporting their participation in climate change action are already enshrined in international norms and agreements. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action called for building on progress made at the 1992 United Nations Conference for Environment and Development (UNCED), and for the full and equal participation of women and men as agents and beneficiaries of sustainable development. Recent progress towards integrating gender into action on climate is demonstrated by the efforts to adopt and implement the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC), and the gender equality

considerations in the UNFCCC Paris Agreement adopted by UN member states in 2015.⁵ The Paris Agreement represents a major achievement in climate action that acknowledges that including gender in at the forefront of climate change action is essential. At the annual United Nations climate change conference in 2016, parties decided to extend and enhance the 2014 Lima Work Programme on Gender for three years. This programme aims to advance the implementation of gender-responsive climate policies and mandates in every area of negotiation.

Box 6.2 Key drivers of climate change and implications for Asia and the Pacific

Based on the fifth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), a group of 1,300 independent scientific experts under the auspices of the United Nations concluded that greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from human activities are driving climate change, and at the highest levels in history. Without any action, the world's average surface temperature is projected to rise. Major increases in global GHG emissions have been associated with rising CO₂ emissions from fossil energy. Improvements in the energy intensity of gross domestic product during the last four decades have been outpaced by a persistent upward trend in gross domestic product per capita, population growth and production and consumption based on fossil fuels.

Although most countries in the region have played a limited role in the causes of climate change, Asia and the Pacific accounts for nearly half of global GHG emissions. The People's Republic of China is one of the world's top three GHG emitters, accounting for approximately one quarter of all emissions, and Japan and the Republic of Korea are among the top 10 largest global emitters.

The effects of population growth on energy use and emissions are generally greater in Least Developed Countries (LDCs) and emerging economies than in developed countries. Almost 90 per cent of LDC GHG emissions are generated by agriculture, forestry and land use activities. The future trend of GHG emissions in LDCs depends heavily on the pace of urbanization and industrialization. Although most of the region's LDCs are predominantly rural, urbanization has been rapid, and is expected to lead to increasing energy consumption and emissions.

Source: IPCC. 2014. Climate Change 2014. Mitigation of Climate Change. Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change; World Resources Institute, 2016.

Despite this progress, however, challenges remain to comprehensively integrate gender equality and women's empowerment strategies in the climate change response at global, regional, national and local level. Addressing these challenges requires both mitigation and adaptation measures.

The adaptation costs to enhance resilience are modest, partly because green technologies have recently become significantly cheaper.⁶ There is strong potential for larger efficiency savings and co-benefits in four priority areas: carbon pricing; ending fossil fuel subsidies; renewable energy; and energy efficiency.⁷ Stronger efforts are required to integrate gender into the energy sector to establish a more sustainable path for mitigating climate change (see Box 6.2).

Why does addressing gender equality in climate change and disaster risk reduction matter for sustainable development?

This issue is a priority outlined in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, particularly Goal 13 on taking urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts. SDG Target 13.1 calls for strengthening resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters.

Addressing gender equality in climate change and disaster risk management cuts across the SDGs. For example, climate change increases vulnerability to poverty (Goal 1), especially among women, who are economically disadvantaged. Their lack of access to decent work (Goal 8), and unequal access to productive resources (Goal 5) limit their ability to respond to climate change. During disaster recovery, it is difficult for women to secure new housing (Goal 11), especially in urban areas where there is an absence of land and housing rights.

Climate change also adversely impacts upon food security (Goal 2). In South Asia, women and girls are overrepresented among the food insecure.⁸ Climate change also affects health, and exacerbates disease (Goal 3). Women are typically more vulnerable to some diseases and often face barriers to accessing healthcare services. Women and girls are disproportionately responsible for unpaid care and domestic work (Goal 5), which increases in the context of climate change. Climate change seriously affects the quality and availability of water (Goal 6), which increases the time burden for women, who are responsible for water collection. Coastal and marine resources (Goal 14) are extremely vulnerable to climate change, and women fishers and traders who mainly engage in offshore fishing face particular hardship in the context of depleting fish stocks.

The gender gap in quality education (Goal 4) that persists in many countries makes it harder for women to engage in adaptation and mitigation efforts, and to understand early warning information systems. Responsible consumption and production (Goal 12) are key to climate change mitigation, and women in developing countries are pioneering recycling and waste reduction efforts. Stronger engagement of women in renewable energy and energy efficiency (Goal 7) is also needed to mitigate climate change.⁹

Interlinkages between empowering women to build climate resilience and reduce disaster risks and the achievement of other Goals



What are the gender dimensions of climate-related disasters in Asia and the Pacific?

Asia and the Pacific is the world's most disaster-prone region, a situation that is projected to worsen due to climate change. The incident of climate-related hazards in the region has tripled, while the number of people living in flood-prone areas and cyclone exposed coastlines has doubled.¹⁰ Since 1970, people living in the region have become five times more likely to be affected by natural disasters.¹¹ The Global Climate Risk Index ranks Bangladesh, Myanmar, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand and Viet Nam among the top 10 countries most affected by weather-related loss events, including floods, storms and heatwaves, between 1996 and 2015.¹² The World Risk Index concludes that 9 of the 15 countries most at-risk of disaster are in Asia and the Pacific, which is also home to 22 of the 58 Small Island Developing States – recognized to be acutely vulnerable to climate change.¹³

Disaster risks vary between women and men, girls and boys. While gender-differentiated impact of climate change and disasters is increasingly recognized in policy and research, women and girls are still seen only as a 'vulnerable group', even though they are also important actors of change.

Women and men have different capacities in relation to risk management. Disaster risk management plans, systems and investments need take into account these differences to strengthen climate resilience and reduce disaster risk. This section explores various gender dimensions of climate-related disasters: gender as a key factor in men and women's mortality rates; increased vulnerability of women and girls to gender-based violence during and after disasters; climate-induced diseases and their implications for women and girls; adverse effects on women's agricultural livelihoods and food security; workloads and time poverty; and women's contribution, participation and leadership in combating climate change and disaster risks. If handled well, there are many opportunities to enhance gender equality and women's empowerment through climate change adaptation and mitigation (see Figure 6.1).

Disasters disproportionately affect the life expectancy of women due to their poorer social and economic position

Natural disasters tend to lower the life expectancy of women more than that of men, especially where women are socially and economically disadvantaged.¹⁴ The reasons for this pattern include: women's responsibility for taking care of children, and elderly and sick household members hinders their ability to escape; limited literacy hinders access to early warning information; and restricted decision-making power in the household may force them to stay behind.¹⁵ Discriminatory social norms can make it more difficult for women to cope with and escape floods, for example, where they are expected to wear clothes that hamper their movement.

Disaster-related data from Asia and the Pacific, including mortality rates, is often not disaggregated by sex, making it impossible to clearly identify those most at risk. Where collected data is disaggregated by sex locally, this crucial information is often lost in translation into national-level statistics. The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030 only refers to the collection of data disaggregated by sex and age as part of its guiding principles. The SDG indicators do not require aggregation of these statistics by sex. However, data that has been collected by individual stakeholders in the region, including UN organizations and NGOs, confirms that women's mortality in disasters is higher than men's (Table 6.1).

Figure 6.1 Pathways of women-specific impacts of climate change and disasters in Asia and the Pacific

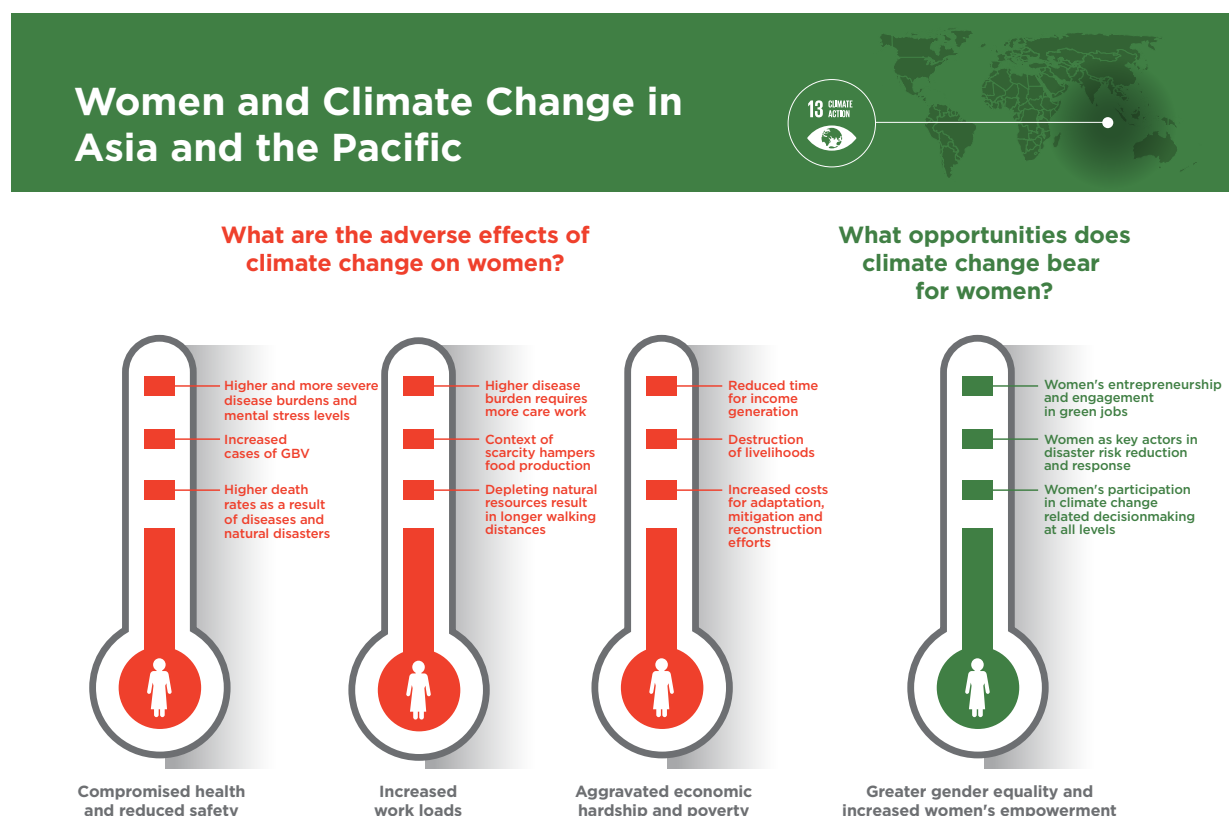


Table 6.1. Female mortality rates of major disasters, Asia and the Pacific, various years (%)

Year	Disaster/ Country	Female Mortality (Share of women amongst those who died)
1991	Cyclone OB2 – Bangladesh	90
2004	Tsunami – Aceh, Indonesia**	77
2008	Cyclone Nargis – Myanmar	61
2009	Tsunami – Samoa and Tonga**	70
2013	Typhoon Haiyan – the Philippines	60
2014	Solomon Islands Floods	96 women and children*
2015	Nepal Earthquake**	55
2016	Cyclone Winston – Fiji	50

Source: UN Women, 2016, *Action Not Words: Confronting Gender Inequality through Climate Change Action and Disaster Risk Reduction in Asia*. UN Women: Bangkok.

Notes:

* Based on real and anecdotal evidence from partners working in the humanitarian response.

** These disasters were caused by non-climate-related hazards. They are included as they represent major disasters in the region for which sex-disaggregated mortality rates are available.

Gender-based violence rises during and in the aftermath of disasters

Disasters also lead to a series of secondary impacts, most of which especially affect women and girls, including gender-based violence, which tends to rise during and after disasters. For example, in New Zealand after the 2004 Whakatane flood, police call-outs doubled and the workload of domestic violence agencies tripled.¹⁶ Similarly, incidence rates of violence against women were found to be extremely high after the 2007 floods in Bangladesh.¹⁷

Gender-based violence is also exacerbated where disasters cause significant population displacement. For example, women displaced by the 2010 floods in Pakistan reported sexual harassment and those practicing purdah (screening themselves from men) described feeling vulnerable, exposed and threatened by the presence of unknown men.¹⁸

Links between disasters and specific forms of gender-based violence have also emerged. Transactional sex is often a direct consequence of disaster-related food insecurity.¹⁹ Human trafficking is another example, where the heightened vulnerability of women, especially young women, and girls is often exploited, and may result in their being sold into forced labour or even marriage.²⁰

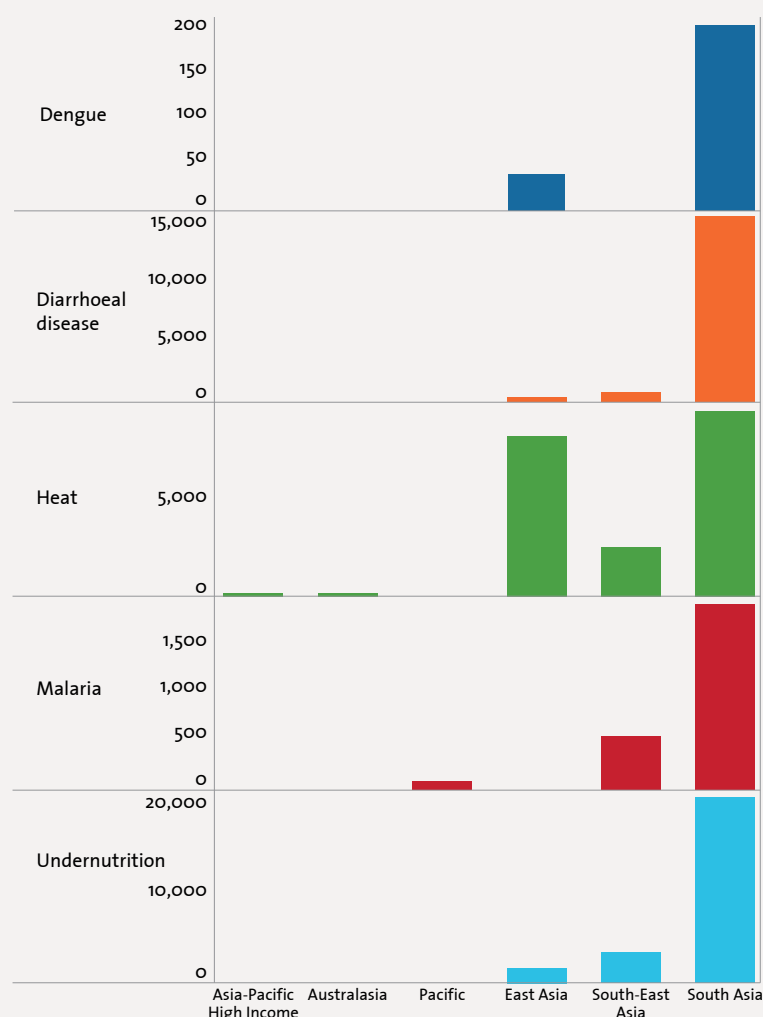
Climate-induced rise of diseases hits women harder

Climate change, considered “the biggest human health threat of the 21st century”, adversely affects human health in many ways.²¹ It is associated with increased mortality related to heat and cold, contributes to undernourishment and malnutrition, and aggravates air pollution and the concentration of pollen and other allergens, exacerbating respiratory disorders. A common consequence, especially in rural areas, is back pain and other physiological issues due to having to walk further to access the diminishing natural resources that enable survival.

Climate change can also increase the frequency or severity of health problems. Rising temperatures and other climatic changes can affect the reproduction, survival and distribution of disease hosts and pathogens, and the seasonal and geographic patterns, frequency and severity of disease.²² For instance, low- and middle-income countries are expected to experience a greater incidence of dengue fever due to expansion in the geographical ranges of its vector, the *Aedes* mosquito.²³ Climate change may have also contributed to the recent outbreaks of the Zika virus.²⁴

Disease related to climate change will result in many deaths in the region (Figure 6.2).²⁵ By 2050, South Asia is expected to be the sub-region most affected by

Figure 6.2. Projected additional annual deaths due to climate change by sub-region, Asia and the Pacific, 2030



Source: UNEP. 2015. “Environment and Health Linkages in Asia Pacific.” Paper presented at the First Forum of Ministers and Environment Authorities of Asia Pacific, Bangkok, 19–20 May 2015.

Accessed December 2017. <http://www.asiapacificrcem.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/Environment-and-Health-Linkages-in-Asia-Pacific.pdf>

Note: The figures are the mean, based on five global climate model runs. Undernutrition estimates are for children aged under 5 years. Diarrhoeal disease estimates are for children aged under 15 years. Heat estimates are for people aged over 65 years. Estimates are based on a future with no adaptation.

adverse health effects due to global climate change. Predictions for the Pacific indicate significant mortality costs – under a high emission scenario for this sub-region, approximately 80 per cent of the total projected mortality costs in 2100 will be caused by respiratory disorders due to climate change, and 14 per cent by vector-borne diseases, particularly malaria.²⁶

Women are more vulnerable than men to climate-related diseases, with biology, behaviour and sociocultural norms driving the differences in impact. For example, pregnant women are at twice the risk of disease carrying mosquitoes for reasons including decreased immunity and increased exposure from leaving mosquito net-protected areas at night to urinate. Malaria also poses a significant risk to unborn children, and can lead to low birth weight, premature delivery and stillbirth.²⁷ Pregnant women and women of childbearing age are especially at risk of the effects of the Zika virus, especially when combined with a lack of access to contraceptives. Dengue fever, which typically affects children, follows a similar risk pattern, with girls more likely to have more severe symptoms.²⁸ Women are also more exposed to the contaminated water they fetch after floods and during droughts, and to corresponding diseases, such as leptospirosis.

Adverse effects of climate change on women's agricultural livelihoods and food security

Agricultural production and food security are interlinked, so the adverse effects of climate change will greatly affect Asia and the Pacific.²⁹ Food security in the region significantly differs between sub-regions and countries. While much progress has been achieved over recent decades, 490 million people suffered from chronic hunger in 2015. In the same year, 62 per cent of all undernourished people globally were in Asia and the Pacific.

Undernourishment is particularly prevalent in the highly populated countries of Southern Asia. At the same time, the number of overweight and obese people is rising rapidly, especially in Asian middle-income countries and the Southwest Pacific Islands. A key challenge therefore is increasing food production where the availability of natural resources is decreasing, while achieving more equitable access to food across the region.³⁰

Climate change constitutes a serious threat to food security, and is recognized as the major threat to the global food supply, especially in developing countries. In Fiji, for example, a 30 to 40 per cent reduction in agricultural production is expected by 2050 due to climate-induced change.³¹ Similarly, climate change is predicted to lead to decreases in the production of wheat, rice and maize of 49 per cent, 14 per cent and 9 per cent, respectively, in South Asia by 2050.³²

Typically, those affected most by food insecurity live in poverty and belong to disadvantaged groups, such as landless farmers, indigenous people, people with disabilities and ethnic minorities.³³ Women and girls are also overrepresented among people who are food insecure; they make up about 60 per cent of the world's undernourished people, and single women and woman-headed households are often particularly affected.³⁴ When food is scarce, intra-household food distribution patterns gain importance. In some countries, especially in South Asia, such patterns favour men and boys, leaving women and girls with the leftovers, which are often insufficient in quantity and quality. This is particularly problematic for pregnant women, and can lead to low birth weight and other severe consequences for the mental and physical development of the unborn child.³⁵

Small-scale farmers typically do not have the resources or – sometimes – the knowledge to cope with harvests and income lost due to climate change. Women farmers, especially, tend to be poorer and have less adaptive capacity, while being more dependent on climate-sensitive natural resources.³⁶ Women's greater dependency on agriculture for survival is also connected to their limited access to non-farming jobs; a growing trend.³⁷

The problem is compounded by restrictions on women's rights in statutory and customary law to own, access and control assets such as land, property, finance and agricultural technology. Without land rights, it is more difficult for women to benefit from agricultural extension schemes on climate-resilient strategies and inputs, such as climate-resilient seeds.³⁸

In many countries in the region, women's economic contribution to the sector remains undervalued, which further impedes their participation in relevant capacity-building initiatives. This, in conjunction with their limited inclusion in decision-making processes (for example, on land use and services that sustainably increase productivity, enhance resilience, and reduce or remove greenhouse gases), presents a major barrier in a region that urgently needs agricultural practices that are resilient to climate change.

Climate change also drives rising food prices, which tend to hit women harder. Many countries cannot afford high food subsidies and do not provide other social safety nets, leaving consumers directly exposed to price spikes. Poor rural households are among those particularly affected, because even when engaged in agricultural production, they are usually not self-sufficient. Women are highly represented among the world's poor, so high food prices disproportionately affected them.³⁹ High food prices also impact upon household decisions about purchasing nutritious food. For example, increased food prices in Asia have been associated with an increase in maternal anemia by 10 to 20 per cent due to a reduced intake of iron-rich foods.⁴⁰

Workloads and time poverty increase for women and girls

Negative climate impacts mean that women and girls face increased workloads, including looking for clean water for household consumption, looking after the sick and injured, and undertaking emergency cleaning of homes and fields. With climate-related impacts such as droughts, activities such as agriculture become even more burdensome for women and girls, who are largely responsible for food security. Increased workloads make it even more difficult for women to generate income and erase the time they could use for education, leisure and rest. Less income and education due to performing unpaid care work exacerbate poverty, which is a significant determinant of health.

In many settings in Asia and the Pacific, rural-urban migration is a highly gendered process whereby men leave and women stay behind. This leads to the feminization of rural economies, with women responsible for most productive (paid work and income generation) and reproductive (necessary for the maintenance and survival of human life) activities. One prominent example is Nepal's Himalayan region, where up to 40 per cent of men are absent in some areas.⁴¹

Women significantly contribute to combating climate change

Research finds that women and men affect the climate differently, including through different CO₂ footprints and consumption patterns. The perceptions and attitudes of women and men towards climate change differ, too. Overall, women are often more concerned about environmental and social issues than men.⁴²

Women's engagement in waste management provides a good illustration of this. For example, in Maldives, sweeping, collecting, segregating and disposing of waste is carried out by women. Men are involved in waste management only rarely, when transportation is required. The small budget available for women who engage in waste management on their islands is negligible, especially if measured against the time spent on the task. The main reasons for women's engagement in the sector are that waste management is traditionally seen as a women's task, and women reportedly feel a huge responsibility for preserving their habitat.⁴³

Women also contribute to combating climate change through 'waste picking' – the collection of commercial, industrial and household waste – an important source of income generation, especially urban slums. However, the sector is characterized by gender-related discrimination; women consistently earn significantly less than men (see Chapter 4). Waste pickers, often

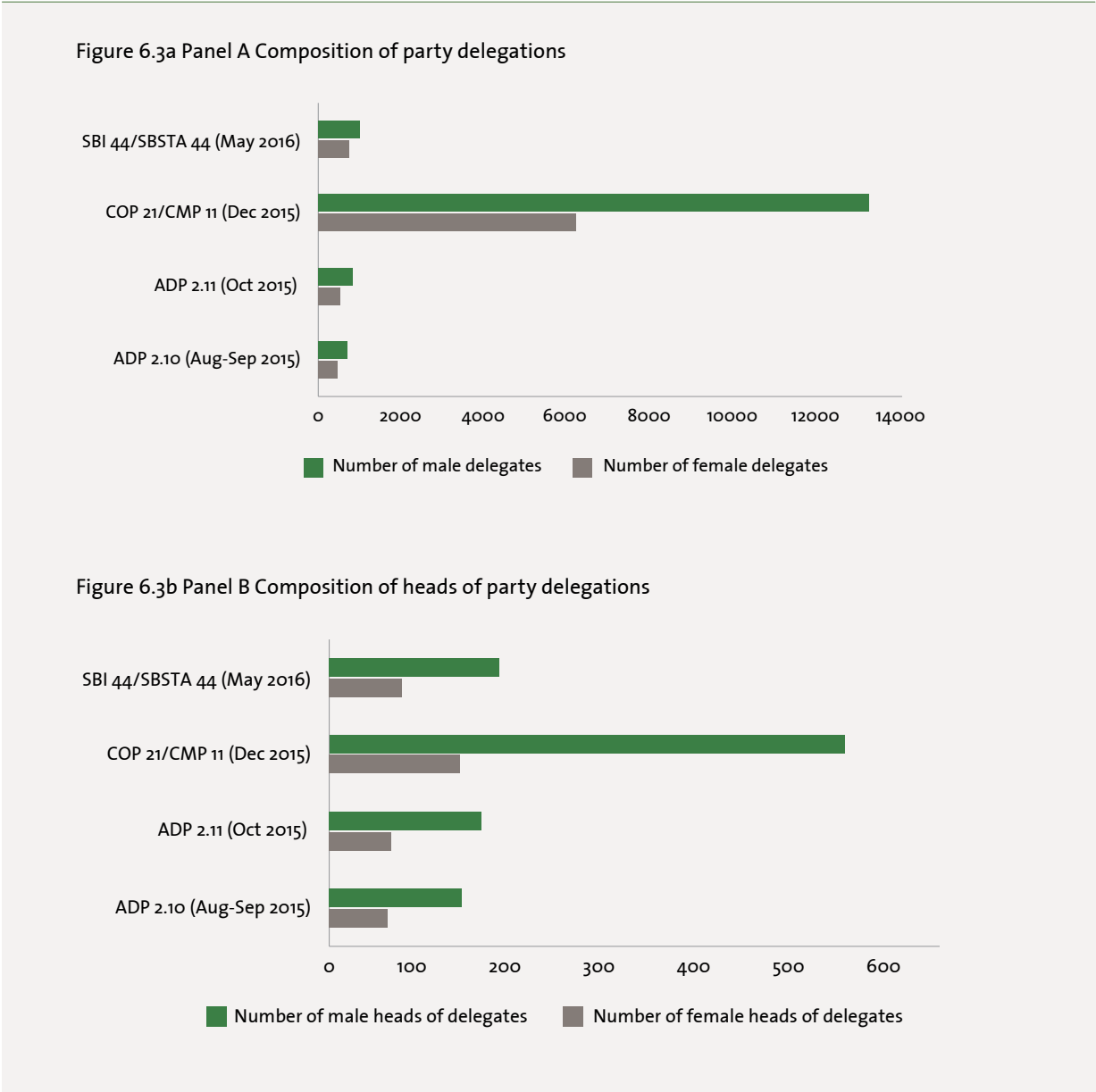
operating through microenterprises and family businesses, are heavily engaged in recycling processes. They reduce air and water pollution and support the conservation of natural resources.⁴⁴ Nevertheless, their contributions are often unseen and undervalued. Waste picking also often goes hand in hand with low social status, stigma, poor working conditions and occupational hazards including exposure to health and injury risks, harassment and even violence, which will be experienced differently by women than men. Women lack voice and participation in climate change and disaster risk management discussions

Women are still underrepresented in the political arena.⁴⁵ Although much progress has been made, women made up only 38 per cent of the national delegations representing the UNFCCC at the 2015 Paris Climate Change Conference, and only 24 per cent of the Heads of Delegation to the UNFCCC and its Kyoto Protocol were women in that year's Conference of the Parties (Figure 6.3). Most women in national delegations came from the 'Western Europe and Others' category. The share of women in delegations from Asia and the Pacific was just below 30 per cent.⁴⁶ Only one woman from the region is represented in 3 of the 12 key management bodies and the bureau of the Convention and its Kyoto Protocol.⁴⁷ Analysis of 13 countries in Asia showed that only one third reported women's participation in national disaster risk reduction platforms. Women, women's organizations, and civil society organizations often do not have access to government policy-makers.⁴⁸ Therefore, women are underrepresented in the political process related to climate change and disaster risk management, despite their right to participate and the important roles they have to play.

What can be done to place gender equality at the heart of climate change and disaster risk reduction responses?

To reach the SDGs, countries need to integrate strategies to achieve gender equality and combat climate change. This requires action to: integrate gender equality into global, regional and national climate and disaster risk reduction policies; invest in data and evidence to support better planning, monitoring and implementation of gender-responsive climate action; support women as actors in tackling climate change; strengthen women's capacity to prevent, prepare for and recover from natural hazards in a changing climate; ensure that women benefit from the expansion of 'green jobs'; and integrate gender into climate finance.

Figure 6.3 Formal representation in sessions of the governing bodies of the Convention and its Kyoto Protocol by sex



Integrate gender into global, regional and national climate and disaster risk reduction policies

This is fundamental to providing the enabling environments that facilitate action. It is also necessary to match policies that integrate gender with sector-specific policies, plans and strategies that explicitly address gender inequality, support women’s equal participation and identify opportunities for women’s contributions.

At the seventh Conference of the Parties of the UNFCCC in 2001 in Marrakesh, national adaptation programmes of action (NAPAs) were proposed as part of a process for LDCs to adapt to climate change. A

recent review of NAPAs, which covered selected Asian countries, found that women were recognized as a vulnerable group and that most countries have made an effort to integrate gender.⁴⁹ However, while most NAPAs in Asia and the Pacific stress that women are most vulnerable to the impact of climate change, only a few see them as key stakeholders in NAPA activities.⁵⁰ With regards to mitigation, Bhutan provides nearly the only example of good practice in the inclusion of gender considerations, with gender reflected in its Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Action plan.⁵¹

Disaster risk reduction policies are generally better at integrating gender than national climate policies. The implementation of the Sendai Framework, the global framework for preventing and reducing disaster risk,

is guided and supported at the national level by Asia and Pacific regional plans. The Asia Regional Plan for Implementation of the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction 2015–2030 is particularly gender-responsive, and includes the integration of a gender perspective in all policies and practices as a guiding principle. Moreover, its priorities for national and local action include ensuring women's full and effective participation, and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making.⁵² The Framework for Resilient Development in the Pacific also advocates for the equitable participation of men and women in the planning and implementation of resilience-building activities.⁵³ The urgent priority is to integrate these regional frameworks into national plans and policies. ADB has supported a successful gender-responsive model that integrates institutional engagement, policy formulation and project development, and which is being implemented by national, sector and sub-national climate change and gender mainstreaming agencies in the Greater Mekong Sub-region. The model is being replicated in other regions.⁵⁴

Invest in data and evidence

Investing in the collection, analysis and use of sex- and age-disaggregated data at the regional, national and local levels is crucial to understanding gender-differentiated risks and impacts. Furthermore, analyzing how these risks and impacts are defined by income, particularly for poor and marginalized groups, and location (rural or urban) is equally important to informing national policy to prioritize the most vulnerable groups. For example, as many major cities in the region are vulnerable to climate change and are becoming rapidly urbanized, a better understanding of

issues of women's differentiated risks and vulnerability in urban and peri-urban areas becomes a major priority, given the inadequate capacity and infrastructure to deliver basic services to cope with climate-related disasters.⁵⁵

Combining technical hazard analysis, geographic information systems and climate and disaster risk assessment with vulnerability assessment and gender analysis will provide deeper insights into the links between climate change, natural hazards and disasters, vulnerability, capacity, gender and resilience. Women and women's organizations need to be empowered to engage in disaster risk assessments, including capacity development. There is still very limited data and evidence on gender-differentiated risk. This needs to be made readily available to support decision-makers and to guide national planning and budget allocations.

Support women as equal participants and actors

Without women's contribution at all levels, climate change cannot be addressed effectively and efficiently.⁵⁶ Their participation in climate action is important from a rights perspective and a strategic action for addressing climate change. For example, women's greater participation in the governance structure of an institution protecting a community resource, such as a forest, leads to better resource conservation and regeneration, and women's presence on the executive committees of community forest management groups helps improve forest quality due to the adoption of more acceptable rules of extraction and protection.⁵⁷



However, the presence of women at the decision-making table on its own is not enough to challenge cultural or institutional factors that entrench inequality, such as the assumption that women will assume a supporting role. There is a need to move from simple representation to effective influencing and participation, whereby structures and processes enable gender equality concerns to be prioritized and acted upon in decision-making. For instance, Cambodia's Gender and Climate Change Action Plan 2014–2018 demonstrates a vision and commitment from the Ministry of Women Affairs and the Ministry of Environment to promote gender mainstreaming and strategic pilot interventions. It has an explicit aim to promote women in decision making on climate change adaptation and mitigation and disaster management at all levels and domains, while increasing awareness of gender, climate change and disasters among key stakeholders.⁵⁸

ADB and UN Women have supported the development and adoption of gender-responsive climate change policy, strategy and action plans at regional, country and local level. For example, with ADB support, the Lao Women's Union, a women-led organization with the largest nationwide women's membership, is now a permanent member of the inter-ministerial national Technical Working Group on Climate Change, responsible for the review of climate action plans, screening and approving Green Climate Fund proposals. As a result, the Lao PDR National Climate Change Action Plan 2013–2020 incorporates a gender perspective in all of its key areas, ensuring that climate finance distribution in the Lao PDR is more equitable.⁵⁹ In Viet Nam, at local level, Dong Hoi City Action Plan for Climate Change Mitigation and Adaptation (2016–2020), implemented by the line Ministry's Department of Natural Resources and Environment, specifically addresses gender concerns because the Women's Union has been included in planning and implementation.

Strengthen women's capacity to prevent, prepare for and recover from disasters in a changing climate

Strengthening women's capacity to cope with climate change impacts through adaptation and mitigation action is critical to managing risks and building climate resilience. IPCC's Fifth Assessment Report outlined interventions and policy responses to strengthen adaptive capacity systems, including measures that provide large benefits at low cost and address other development goals to improve livelihood options, well-being and biodiversity, and minimize the scope of maladaptation. These measures include: early warning systems; risk communication between decision makers and local citizens; sustainable land and ecosystem management; and improved health surveillance, water

and sanitation. These efforts can benefit from new tools and significant reductions in the cost of green technologies.⁶⁰

Women need to be able to participate in and lead the development of early warning and early action, including protection mechanisms, to be better prepared when disaster strikes. For example, in Le Thuy district in the high-risk flood zone of central Viet Nam, UN Women supported local women to lead their communities in disaster preparedness and response, including early warning systems, long-term planning for harvesting crops and disaster-proof infrastructure. The villagers were able to mitigate losses and save lives during the floods.⁶¹

Furthermore, access to recovery services and products such as micro-insurance, disaster compensation and social protection, is critical to enhancing women's adaptive capacity. It is equally important to enhance women's access to sustainable and alternative livelihoods that can withstand hazards, by engaging actors providing agricultural, livelihood and entrepreneurial services and vocational training, and enabling supportive local infrastructures and technologies.

Ensure women benefit from the expansion of 'green jobs'

A transformation of the energy sector to sustainable energy could boost women's empowerment, particularly through the growth of 'green jobs', 'green employment opportunities' and 'sustainable entrepreneurship'.⁶² However, this potential can only be met if these jobs increase women's access to decent work and social protection, and work conditions that include them. The production of green brick kilns in Bangladesh is one of many examples reflecting this potential (see Box 6.3).

Sustainable energy solutions can be used to advance women's empowerment and, in addition to their climate mitigation effects, can benefit women directly. In Indonesia, where many households lack access to modern energy, the Nusantara Development Initiative has empowered rural women through training and support to set up small businesses to sell solar lamps. In addition to securing women's livelihoods, the co-benefits of these lamps include improved health due to reduced ambient air pollution, illumination that enables additional hours for education and income-generation, and household savings due to reduced spending on kerosene for lighting. In Viet Nam, the first women-led biogas mason enterprises have been established with female biogas masons being trained and accredited to the National Biogas Program.⁶³ This demonstrates women's direct contribution to the reduction of greenhouse gases and diversification of

Box 6.3 Women's role in the Bangladesh green brick kiln industry

Brick-making in Bangladesh used to be unregulated and among the country's most highly polluting industries. While men have historically dominated the sector, gender roles are changing. The recent shift towards energy-efficient production using 'green' brick kilns has generated many benefits, illustrated by production in Savar, 35 kilometers outside Dhaka.

The factory applies semi-automatic Hybrid Hoffman Kiln technology, which significantly cuts down on emissions and reduces the need for heavy manual labour. This means that women can be employed in large numbers. Many women in nearby villages have quit their low-paid farming jobs to become skilled brick makers. One, Salma Begum, says "I used to toil nine hours at a stretch daily on a potato farm just to earn about 1,400 Bangladeshi taka (US\$17) a month. Now, working six hours daily as a supervisor at the loading section of this modern brick factory, I earn (US\$64 dollars) as a monthly salary."

Source: UNDP. 2014. Gender in focus: Piloting gender support in energy efficient brick kiln. Completion report: UNDP; and Haq, N. 2012. Green bricks pave future for female workers. *Inter Press Service*. Accessed December 2017. <http://www.ipsnews.net/2012/07/green-bricks-pave-future-for-female-workers/>

Flexible working hours and lunch breaks provide women with more opportunity to undertake the care and domestic work that they are required to do in addition to paid labour. Modern facilities, including toilets and changing rooms, and provisions for breastfeeding, further contribute to a gender-friendly environment.

The valuable contribution of women is acknowledged by the factory management: "Women are preferred in certain sections where heavy work is not involved and where they perform far better than men because they have more patience," said the marketing manager, Md Murtoja Ali. Monwar Islam from the Government of Bangladesh added: "We want to see more women working in this industry. In fact, we are in the process of formulating a policy to encourage women to find jobs in brick making."

livelihood sources, and enhances women's visibility and professional authority in a traditionally male-dominated sector.

Improved stoves and cookers, such as those based on solar power, are another sustainable energy solution that has multiple co-benefits. They are more time efficient, which affords women and girls more time for leisure, education and other activities. Using the stoves also supports job opportunities, including manufacture and sale, which may go to women. Arguably most important is that improved stoves and cookers reduce the morbidity and mortality caused by toxic indoor air pollution – a problem that affects many women in the region. In its rural energy project in Cambodia, ADB supports the promotion of improved cook stoves (with expected sales of up to 90,000 benefiting at least 63,000 women).⁶⁴

Integrate gender equality into climate finance

The gender-responsiveness of any climate action often depends on whether finance mechanisms include gender provisions as funding criteria – and how strictly they are followed.

Gender provisions remain missing from most climate financing mechanisms. A review of progressive climate finance policy instruments found that historically

there has been little connection with sustainable development and gender equality outcomes.⁶⁵ Notably, a carbon finance market-driven approach to mitigation finance failed to deliver on its sustainable development objective, with only 5 of 3,864 projects listing gender issues in their project documents.⁶⁶ Fundamental challenges to counting the number of inclusive measures and monitoring actual financial flows are due to the lack of a common understanding of what constitutes gender-responsive climate action, and widespread institutional disconnect between gender and climate change agencies. This occurs both within governments and multilateral development banks, and the multilateral executing agencies managing climate funds.

To the extent that they are included, gender considerations are incorporated retroactively and – despite recent progress – still not fully realized.⁶⁷ For example, the Global Environment Facility is an operating entity of the UNFCCC financial mechanism. Its 2015 progress report on the implementation of the Gender Equality Action Plan concludes that only 56 per cent of 102 projects reviewed reported on gender-specific information. However, this is an improvement over previous years, and reporting on gender-specific information has consistently increased.⁶⁸ A comprehensive gender review of the Climate Investment Funds (CIF), administered by multilateral development banks, concluded that

programmes financed under its Clean Technology Fund (which supports large-scale mitigation and makes up 70 per cent of the Fund's pledged funding portfolio) did not systematically address gender considerations.⁶⁹ Only 25 per cent of all Clean Technology Fund projects consider gender.⁷⁰ While gender dimensions may have fallen short, a gender expert was recruited in the CIF Administrative Unit/Secretariat and the CIF Gender Action Plan FY2015-FY2016 was developed in response to this review. Slightly better news comes from the ADB Climate Investment Fund Portfolio, where 68 per cent of the portfolio is gender-mainstreamed.⁷¹ ADB conducted a review of its CIF-financed projects that are gender-mainstreamed and shared good practices about the integration of gender elements at the project design stage.⁷²

The Green Climate Fund financial mechanism established under UNFCCC became fully operational in 2015. It is well-financed and represents a milestone in integrating gender into climate finance. Due to joint advocacy and awareness-raising initiatives by United Nations entities, NGOs and other gender advocates, the Green Climate Fund was the first climate fund to consider gender from the onset, including in its governing instrument. The Fund has a dedicated gender policy and action plan, and calls for gender parity among its Board members and Secretariat staff.⁷³ Despite this, gender parity has not been fully achieved. Most projects approved to date lack strong gender components, and many challenges remain in the full operationalization of the Fund's gender commitments. ADB seeks to fill this operational guidance gap for policy makers and proposal developers by increasing the gender-responsive climate proposals brought for consideration.⁷⁴

Many middle-income countries no longer need Official Development Assistance contributions for their climate change efforts. Instead, the focus is on their Intended Nationally Determined Contributions (INDCs). INDCs communicate internationally the goals and steps to be taken by countries to address climate change within their specific national context after 2020. While countries are invited to include a component on climate change adaptation, the focus remains on climate change mitigation plans. A recent, multi-step analysis examining how far governments have accounted for gender and climate change linkages in their INDCs came to a clear conclusion: the documents fall far short of the required gender commitments to effectively address climate change, advance gender equality and empower women. Only 64 of the 190 INDCs reviewed reference women or gender, and several only did so in the context of a broader sustainable development strategy. Furthermore, women were most frequently mentioned in the context of adaptation and largely presented as a vulnerable group. Only 15 were found to highlight

women as important decision-makers, and only six as drivers or agents of change. Gender-responsive budgeting was found to be absent in almost all reviewed INDCs.⁷⁵

Engaging both the public and private sector in the financing of climate adaptation, especially climate mitigation activities, is an important strategy. The private sector offers outstanding opportunities for climate-related entrepreneurship and innovation, and climate goals cannot be achieved through public financing alone.⁷⁶ For example, the 2016 Global Trends in Renewable Energy Investment Report shows that the public and private sector in Asia invested over US\$160 billion in 2015 alone. However, investment in energy and other mitigation sectors is largely gender-blind.⁷⁷ Ensuring that this investment benefits women equitably, including through employment in emerging businesses and industries, can significantly help create transformational change, while the environmental, economic and social costs of failing to be more gender-responsive will be high.

PART III:

KEY PATHWAYS AND POLICY ACTIONS FOR TRANSFORMATIVE CHANGE

A full-page background image showing the silhouettes of a woman holding a baby, a man reaching out to the baby, and a dog, all set against a bright orange sunset sky.

Chapter 7

Turning commitments into results: Action plan to accelerate progress on gender equality and sustainable development

This Report has provided an overview of where the Asia and Pacific region stands in respect to its commitments to gender equality within the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development framework. While the region has made great strides in reducing gender inequality, there remain stark challenges ahead to ensure that development is inclusive and leaves no one behind. Gender equality is at the core of the 2030 Agenda – as a standalone Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) and mainstreamed across the other 16 goals. This development framework is unprecedented in its transformative potential.

Nevertheless, achieving the 2030 Agenda and SDGs will require coordinated action, strong ownership and capacity to deliver results, and renewed political commitment at the national, regional and global levels towards ensuring that this ambitious agenda translates into real progress on the ground. This Report has focused on providing the baseline data on gender equality and identified four transformative policy areas that can catalyze progress towards the SDGs and make a difference for women and girls in the Asia Pacific region. Data analysis indicates that major gaps remain in data available for Goal 5 and gender-relevant targets and indicators. Policy analysis of the four transformative areas indicates that laws, policies and development interventions still do not systemically recognize or prioritize the interests and rights of women and girls, often exacerbating entrenched attitudes, social norms and practices that perpetuate gender inequality.

Yet, as the chapters in this Report have also demonstrated, there has been progress and innovation on many fronts, and lessons learnt that can guide future implementation. This concluding chapter highlights key entry points and priority actions for the acceleration of gender equality commitments under the 2030 Agenda.

Emerging lessons and priority actions for gender-responsive implementation and monitoring of the SDGs in the Asia Pacific region

Gender-responsive implementation and monitoring of the 2030 Agenda and the SDGs necessitates an integrated and comprehensive approach. This requires as a key step, embedding gender equality as a cross-cutting priority into national development plans and related policies, legislation and frameworks, including those for the production and use of gender statistics. Below are several lessons and recommended action points for gender-responsive implementation and monitoring of the SDGs in the Asia Pacific region, which emerged from the assessment of the status of gender equality across the SDGs and analysis of transformative policy areas in the previous chapters.

Gender equality must be addressed in its own right and as a catalyst of progress across the SDGs

The pervasive nature of gender inequality across all domains of sustainable development – economic, social and environmental – signals the need to address gender equality as a priority in its own right, as a matter of human rights and as a catalyst for sustainable development. In other words, securing women's rights can lead to a domino effect with a positive impact on other SDGs and development outcome areas. Yet, at the same time, the reverse relationship is not true: as Asia and the Pacific shows, higher levels of education attainment or economic growth do not automatically lead to higher levels of gender equality in the labour market or in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) subjects.

The SDG's integrated approach to sustainable development reinforces the principle that there is no single intervention or "magic bullet" to achieve gender equality. Better results for the advancement of gender equality and the SDGs are generated when the multi-faceted nature of inequality is jointly addressed. The integrated nature of the SDGs is an instrumental lever for change since it tackles the many ways that gender inequality is perpetuated in the household, the economy, and the public and private spheres, recognizing also that multiple and intersectional discrimination will further exacerbate such inequality. Practical insights on how integrated approaches and actions can accelerate progress on both gender equality and sustainable development include:

- **Sexual and reproductive health and rights and health and well-being outcomes:** Ensuring that all women have autonomy to make decisions over their sexual and reproductive health and rights is linked to a wide range of positive development outcomes, and is essential for their own well-being and the enjoyment of rights. Yet, in the Asia and the Pacific region, unmet need for contraception remains a challenge, with women in many countries reporting having more children than they desired (see Chapter 3). Expanding women's access to affordable

contraception not only helps women decide if and when to have children, but also opens opportunities to pursue or continue their education and access decent work, and has positive correlations with children's health outcomes.

- » In 2013, Myanmar committed to increasing women's access to contraception in order to support greater gender equality in health outcomes. In 2016–2017, the government doubled its annual budget (to US\$2.7 million) to this effect and has initiated a nation-wide campaign to improve health facilities and information on sexual and reproductive health and rights and outreach with youth, and is working with civil society organizations to improve delivery of services to hard-to-reach populations.¹
- **Unpaid care and domestic work and economic empowerment:** Women's vulnerable and poor employment status across many of the economies of the Asia and Pacific region demonstrate that current efforts to increase women's access to employment have had limited effect on their economic empowerment. Social norms around unpaid care work are an important contributory factor in this regard. In Pakistan, for example, expectations that women are responsible for caring activities see women carry out 10 times more unpaid care work than men. Recognizing, reducing and redistributing unpaid care and domestic work can expand women's choices to engage in decent work and education, and to enjoy higher levels of well-being.
 - » In Japan and the Republic of Korea, the provision of long-term care services for elderly people driven by government policies has contributed to changing expectations about the traditional role of families in providing elderly care. It has helped support families and led to a greater acceptance of outsourcing or off-loading part of their care "responsibility" to paid non-family care providers.²
 - » In Viet Nam, three laws aim to promote greater sharing of unpaid care work: The Gender Equality Law (2006) states that domestic and care work are the shared responsibility of both women and men; the Law of Marriage and Family (2014) recognizes women's domestic work as labour income contributing to the household; and there is a target in the National Strategy on Gender Equality 2011–2020 to "reduce women's time involvement in housework by half by 2015 and by one and a half times by 2020 as compared to men's".³
 - » In Cambodia, businesses and agriculture plantations employing more than 100 women must set up child care facilities or provide payment in lieu in order to help reduce and redistribute women's unpaid care responsibilities.⁴

- **Climate change and gender equality:** The chapter on climate change (see Chapter 6) highlights that despite the fact that women are disproportionately affected by climate change, gender equality is not an explicit priority of climate change and disaster risk reduction policies across the board, and that women are not equal participants in decision-making related to climate change. However, project experience to date suggests that applying a gender lens to climate change adaptation and mitigation efforts can improve results for both women and their communities.
 - » In Nepal, the High Mountain Agribusiness and Livelihood Improvement (HIMALI) Project supported by the Asian Development Bank aimed to increase the income and employment of high mountain people through the value chain development of their agricultural livestock, and medicinal and aromatic plants. Women are typically less likely to own their own agribusinesses and have less opportunities for income generation and training in climate change adaptation. The project supported women to own and manage small enterprises and cooperatives, particularly in cardamom and fruit. This increased employment opportunities, with 40 per cent of employment generated benefiting women.⁵ Training and introduction of climate change adaptation measures, such as drip irrigation or bio-briquette production, also enabled women to reduce time spent in water and fuelwood collection, and to improve vegetable production.

Removing discrimination from legal frameworks and promoting change in social norms are essential for gender equality

The region will not be on track to achieve the SDGs without paying urgent attention to discriminatory laws, norms and practices, which drive gender inequality. As the Report highlights, legal discrimination against women persists across the region, curtailing women's rights in areas ranging from inheritance and asset ownership to early and child marriage and violence against women and girls. Legal discrimination in turn perpetuates discriminatory norms and practices. For example, laws that allow marriage of a girl child reinforce discriminatory perceptions of girls, and differentiated treatment by their families. SDG indicator 5.1.1 recognizes that eliminating all forms of legal discrimination against women and girls is a basic criterion for achieving formal equality and an entry point to influencing change in social norms. Achieving this target and other SDG gender-related indicators will require policymakers to review and revise existing legislation and policies, strengthen implementation mechanisms (e.g., capacity building of judicial systems and government agencies), and engage private sector and

community actors (e.g., civil society organizations, women's associations) to promote long-term change in norms and practices. A comprehensive approach that encompasses legal reform as well as working with communities and a wide spectrum of stakeholders, including men and boys, will be required to transform social norms in favour of gender equality. Areas requiring action include:

- **Promote gender-inclusive and transformative legislation:** Gender-neutral laws are often insufficient to guarantee equality due to the underlying discriminatory social norms and structural barriers that women face, which limit their agency to claim or to access their rights without the medium of a male head of household. Gender-inclusive laws and pro-active implementation measures can strengthen women's rights and support their ability to claim their rights (e.g., legal literacy campaigns).⁶
 - » In the Philippines, the government was able to bolster women's land rights through administrative guidelines issued by the Department of Agrarian Reform to implement the 1988 Comprehensive Agrarian Legislation, which provides for joint land titling to both women and men, and ensures both spouses' consent is needed for the sale of land and any other transactions.⁷ This helps ensure that women retain a say in the administration and management of assets within the household, and reinforces their legal rights.
- **Meet international standards and harmonize domestic legislation:** Many countries in the region have pluri-legal frameworks which often increase women's legal vulnerability. Personal status laws, for example, can often weaken or contradict constitutional or civil provisions on gender equality, notably in areas of land, marriage, property and inheritance. Moreover, the quality of the law matters: international guidelines and recommendations provide useful standards and good practices for countries to emulate.
 - » ILO Recommendation 183 recommends 14 weeks of paid maternity leave.⁸ Most countries in the region do not yet meet these provisions, though there are some positive trends. In 2012, the People's Republic of China enacted "Provisions on Female Labor Protection under Special Circumstances (State Council Decree No. 619)", which extended paid maternity leave to 14 weeks (98 days) from the previous 90 days.
- **Ensure quality and implementation of laws:** Laws are only as effective as their quality and the resources allocated for their implementation. In many countries in the Asia and Pacific region, legislation addressing violence against women and girls does not cover marital rape, or offers narrow definitions of or only civil penalties for sexual harassment (see Chapter 5). Action plans,

appropriate budgets and other mechanisms (e.g., legal literacy training, legal aid centres) are vital to making sure that laws can deliver their intended impact for women and girls, and create an enabling environment for women and girls to claim their rights.

- » In Pakistan, the Asian Development Bank has supported the Lahore High Court to challenge norms on gender-based violence and strengthening women survivors' access to justice. Judicial training on gender sensitization was provided to 225 judges, with modules focusing on gender-based violence. In addition, the first specialized gender-based violence court was established to process cases in a more gender-sensitive manner.⁹
- » In Australia, the 1984 Sex Discrimination Act was strengthened in 2011 with additional provisions to prevent sexual harassment in schools as well as through new technology, such as the Internet (e.g., cyberbullying).

Strengthening the production, analysis and use of gender data and statistics is a key priority

This includes better understanding inter-sectional issues related to gender inequality (such as age, ethnicity, sexual identity, geographic location), to ensure that "no-one is left behind". This Report exposed the shortfall in the availability of gender data for Asia and the Pacific. Only three of the indicators to monitor Goal 5 have international standards to define statistical concepts and methodologies and adequate country coverage to monitor progress for the region. Furthermore, it is a challenge to obtain greater granularity of data to accurately capture multiple and intersectional discrimination, such as by age, location, income or sexual orientation. For example, this Report has showed that data on women often focuses on their reproductive age, and "leaves out" women in younger or older age cohorts. The absence of a robust body of gender statistics is partly the consequence of weak statistical systems, with often limited technical capacity and resources to collect data disaggregated by sex and other factors. However, gaps in gender statistics – widespread in developed and developing countries alike in the region – also arise from failure to prioritize the collection of these data. As data is the bedrock of monitoring and tracking progress on SDG targets, greater investment and innovation are needed.

- **Prioritize gender statistics:** Laws provide a mandate for national statistical offices to collect gender statistics and to disaggregate data by sex.¹⁰
 - » In Cambodia and the Philippines, gender assessments that review and identify data gaps and monitor progress are conducted every five years.

- **Bridge the divide between producers and users of data:** National policy bodies, including the national women's machineries, civil society including women's organizations, and producers of relevant statistics, should use and enhance existing mechanisms to regularly communicate and discuss their needs in order to establish a common understanding of policy priorities that are translated into data requirements for SDG and national policy implementation.
 - » In Vanuatu, a strong coordination structure for gender statistics led by the national women's machinery works closely with the National Statistical Office, providing basic statistics training to all stakeholders.
 - » In Timor-Leste, an SDG Secretariat was set up under the Prime Minister's office with a mandate to coordinate policymaker and statisticians' work.
 - » Indonesia has a "one data" policy, whereby ministries and stakeholders agree on data, norms, standards and coordination mechanisms. SDG data mapping and identification of responsible parties and use of big data are underway.¹¹
- **Think outside the box:** New data sources, including "big data", offer promising potential to reduce data gaps and garner new insights into otherwise unmeasurable areas. For example, new technologies can support data collection in difficult areas such as birth registration (35 per cent of births worldwide are unaccounted for in civil registration; 60 per cent in developing countries).¹² Blending big

data with official statistics will require safeguards. Collaboration between national statistical systems, women's rights organizations and policymakers will be important to ensure that quality and integrity of data is maintained, and privacy is secured.

- » The UN Foundation's Data 2x initiative has piloted several initiatives on big data for gender equality.¹³ For example, in Bangladesh, Data 2x and the Flowminder Foundation used satellite data to complement DHS surveys in order to get more localized data on issues such as women's mortality, morbidity, malnutrition, contraceptive access and freedom of movement.

Effective implementation of the SDGs will need gender-responsive institutions and localization which mainstream and prioritise gender equality across all policy sectors

Implementation of gender equality commitments will be dependent on strong and effective institutional arrangements for implementing and monitoring, including systems for gender mainstreaming and robust gender statistics to track progress. Some countries have a "national women's machinery", or a policy coordinating unit inside the government, dedicated to developing and implementing gender equality policies and playing a catalytic role in coordinating and ensuring gender mainstreaming across government policies and plans. Yet national gender equality machineries are often poorly resourced and lack the mandate, clout, institutional location and capacity to hold other government departments to



Photo: ADB/Ariel D. Javellana

account on their gender equality commitments.¹⁴ Action areas to mainstream gender equality in decision-making processes include:

- **Institutionalize gender equality in SDG-specific structures:** Many countries have established SDG-specific structures such as inter-ministerial coordinating offices, committees and commissions to coordinate SDG implementation across government departments.¹⁵ All government departments should be required to assess the impact of their policies and programmes on gender equality, as part of their efforts to implement the SDGs. Responsibility and resources for the achievement of gender equality goals and targets should be clearly defined and open to public scrutiny, including by parliaments, national human rights institutions and civil society, including women's organisations.
 - » Thailand has established a National Committee for Sustainable Development, chaired by the Prime Minister, which brings together the public and private sectors, academia and civil society, to design and implement SDG policies. This has led to developing roadmaps for all SDGs (including Goal 5) and performing data mapping of national statistical needs. In addition, the Women Development Strategy 2017–2021 will incorporate some of the Goal 5 targets.¹⁶
- **Localize SDGs into national frameworks:** National implementation of the SDGs will require localization of the agenda by adopting nationally specific targets and indicators that will be monitored and reviewed. The adaptation of the SDGs into national targets ensures ownership and relevance at national level.
 - » The Philippines has been building awareness through briefings on the SDGs for various national government agencies, universities and NGOs, combined with thematic workshops. Data gaps have been assessed through a participatory process. The SDGs have been integrated into the Philippines Development Plan (2017–2022) and included in the Philippines Statistical Development Programme Update (2011–2017). A multi-sectoral coordinating and monitoring mechanism has also been established, with an SDG Implementation Roadmap outlining actions, resources, responsibilities and partnerships in development. Capacity building efforts are also underway among local leaders and communities, and to strengthen statistical agencies.¹⁷

- **Ensure women's active and equal participation and leading role in decision-making in relation to setting national SDG priorities, implementation and monitoring processes, (particularly women from the marginalized groups):** Women's organizations will also play a critical role in ensuring that global commitments are translated into national priorities. Comparative research on 70 countries over four decades recognizes the role of autonomous feminist organizations in advancing women's rights as the most critical factor in the implementation of gender equality policies.
 - » Azerbaijan has established a National Coordination Council for Sustainable Development to support SDG implementation at national level. In addition to Thematic Working Groups, whose responsibility it is to draft government action plans, the Council has also organised consultations with a range of stakeholders, including women's civil society organisations.¹⁸

Achieving the SDG gender agenda will need increased financing and investment

The ambitious SDG vision comes with a high price tag. In 2017, Bangladesh estimated that US\$928 billion will be needed to achieve the SDGs – equivalent to 18.5 to 20 per cent of its gross domestic product annually.¹⁹ Many of the areas where transformative action for gender equality is needed, such as the provision of quality time-saving infrastructure, the universal provision of sexual and reproductive health services and support services for survivors of violence against women, will require significant investment. Yet, to date national budget allocated for gender equality will not be able to match such ambition. A UN Women review of gender-responsive budgeting in the region found that national women's machineries in 15 countries were allocated less than 1 per cent of the national budget, with allocations varying from 0.5 per cent to 21.9 per cent. Financing gaps for implementing national action plans on gender equality are as high as 90 per cent.²⁰ Based on OECD-DAC donor data for 2014–2015, 35 per cent of official development assistance (ODA) globally targeted gender equality as either a principal (primary) or significant (secondary) objective. However, only 5 per cent of ODA targeted gender equality as a principal objective.²¹ Solutions and strategies rely on political will at the national and international levels to ensure that commitments to gender equality translate into better financing and accountability for women and girls.

Good practices include:

- **Make gender equality a priority in domestic resource mobilization:** Macroeconomic policies, including tax policy, government expenditure and debt management, directly affect the level of resources available to achieve gender equality. Additional domestic resources can be mobilized by improving the efficiency of revenue collection, broadening the range of taxes used to generate revenues (including by requiring corporations to pay their fair share), and borrowing to finance investments with significant social and economic returns.²²
 - » For example, the Government of Sri Lanka has reduced defense and security expenditure in order to increase social spending. Similarly, Thailand was able to reduce its debt servicing costs, partly by reducing its reliance on external debt and devoting one third of the resources freed into funding social programmes. It also expanded the resources available for universal health coverage through budget reprioritization.²³
- **Introduce gender-responsive budgeting:** Participatory and gender-responsive budgeting, social audits and public hearings are important tools for enhancing the transparency and accountability of spending decisions and assessing their gender impact.²⁴
 - » In Nepal, all sector ministries are responsible for implementation as well as monitoring and evaluation, working with the Ministries of Finance and Women. While most local units have conducted gender-responsive budgeting assessments, these have not yet been implemented at village level. Gender-responsive budgeting is driving budgetary practice for line ministries (particularly Education and Health). Nepal has many mechanisms for women's empowerment, including its Gender Action Plan. However, no costing mechanism for the plan is in place.
- **Integrate and scale up gender equality focus in other ODA priority areas:** Development budgets for gender equality represent a small fraction of overall ODA, despite political commitments. Given that gender equality cuts across all areas of sustainable development, strategically mainstreaming and focusing on gender in other development interventions which attract higher levels of financing can significantly boost the amount of gender-targeted aid.
 - » US\$8 billion of climate funds went towards gender equality in 2014, representing 31 per cent of bilateral ODA to climate change. However, only 3 per cent specifically targeted gender equality while the remaining 28 per cent had gender equality as a secondary objective.²⁵
 - » Financing women's economic empowerment remains a "drop in the ocean". Only 2 per cent of bilateral ODA to the economic and productive sectors targets gender equality as a principal objective (US\$861 million) between 2013 and 2014, with a very low proportion of this for supporting gender equality within the energy and infrastructure sub-sectors.²⁶

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Note to Statistical Tables

Data Summary and Sources

1. The publication “*Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals in Asia and the Pacific. Baseline and pathways for transformative change by 2030*” provides a baseline for gender-related Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Global indicators to support 57 economies in Asia and the Pacific (comprising 47 ADB member economies and 10 other economies),¹ regional organizations, and other stakeholders to identify key issues and track progress towards gender equality and women’s empowerment under the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

This note describes the data collection process for gender-related targets and indicators under the SDG framework, including information on the availability of the indicators (with more details on this in Chapter 2) and the sources of data in the tables presented in the report.

2. Data collection was guided by information from the following references and sources:
 - (a) The UN Statistics Division “Tier Classification for Global SDG Indicators, 15 December 2017” following the 6th Meeting of the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators (IAEG-SDGs) in November 2017.²
 - (b) *Report of the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators. Note by the Secretary-General (E/CN.3/2017/2)*, Annex III of the Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators.³
 - (c) “Compilation of Metadata for the Proposed Global Indicators for the Review of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”, an IAEG-SDGs output of metadata received as of July 2017 from UN agencies, Funds and programmes, other UN offices, Regional Commissions, and other international and regional organizations, relating to the then-suggested indicators to the United Nations Statistical Commission.⁴
3. For this publication, a list of gender-related targets and indicators for Asia and the Pacific was developed that acknowledges the linkages among SDGs, the need to address the structural causes of gender inequality, and the importance of affirmative action to overcome the effects of

long-standing discrimination. This list comprises 62 targets and 88 indicators. Included on this list are 54 Global SDG indicators that explicitly refer to sex, gender, women and girls, and/or specifically or largely target women and girls (the core list of gender-specific indicators). In addition to this list, 34 Global SDG indicators relevant to benchmarking the status of gender equality and women’s empowerment in the Asia and Pacific region were identified for baseline assessment in this report. Of this combined list of 88 gender related indicators, 85 are unique (since indicator 1.5.1 is the same as indicators 11.5.1 and 13.1.1; while indicator 10.3.1 is the same as indicator 16.b.1).

Of the 85 unique indicators, 59 per cent could be included in the analysis and Statistical Tables of this report (with data being “somewhat” to “widely” available). Based on the updated classification of the three indicator tiers developed by the IAEG-SDGs at the 6th Meeting in November 2017, the 85 unique gender-related indicators are classified as follows:

- **Tier 1:** Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, and data are regularly produced by countries for at least 50 per cent of countries and of the population in every region where the indicator is relevant.
- **Tier 2:** Indicator is conceptually clear, has an internationally established methodology and standards are available, but data are not regularly produced by countries.
- **Tier 3:** No internationally established methodology or standards are yet available for the indicator, but methodology/standards are being (or will be) developed or tested.

Classification of the 85 unique gender-related SDG indicators by tier:

Tier classification	Number of gender-related SDG indicators	Proportion of gender-related SDG indicators (%)
Tier I	25	29
Tier II	37	44
Tier III	20	24
Tier I/II	1	1
Tier II/III	1	1
Tier I/II/III	1	1

4. Data collection focused on these 85 unique indicators, drawing on publicly available, well-established official data sources. The primary source of data was the Global SDG Indicators Database, updated on 30 November 2017 by the UN Statistics Division as the dissemination platform of the “Global SDG Indicators”.⁵ The platform provides access to data compiled through the UN system in preparation for the Secretary-General’s annual report on “Progress towards the Sustainable Development Goals”.⁶ Publicly available websites and reports by custodian agencies of data on SDG indicators, and other involved agencies (including ADB, UNESCAP and the World Bank) that maintain extensive databases of relevant information were also mined for internationally comparable data. Direct contact with the custodian entities was established to clarify issues, while the SDG indicators continue to evolve as a global development framework monitoring system (for example, for clarifying seeming inconsistencies with national sources of information).
5. Data from international sources were also supplemented by information gathered from publicly available household surveys (including Demographic and Health Surveys, and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys). The results of these surveys were further evaluated to obtain either disaggregation of indicators (for example, by sex, sex of household head, urban-rural location, wealth quintile, age group, ethnicity, or other demographic characteristics), or sub-components of these indicators. Complementary indicators were also explored and compiled to fill data gaps for indicators classified as “Tier 2” or “Tier 3”. A few additional indicators that provide supplementary information for some of the SDG indicators were also included in the Statistical Tables.
6. A uniform system for obtaining additional information from countries and economies was also conducted through a country questionnaire designed to supplement the information already gathered from the Global SDG Indicators Database and other international sources. The questionnaire also enabled data gaps to be filled, allowing the status of women and girls to be tracked, and further disaggregation to be made, where feasible. The questionnaire asked country and economy respondents to provide information on a small selection of gender-related SDG indicators: (a) for which there was no available data (especially disaggregated data) from UN custodian agencies, national statistical websites or reports, or the standardized databases resulting from the Demographic Health Surveys and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys; and (b) where it was believed that the indicator could be populated with new data from respondents, or with information on efforts towards its collection and estimation. Eighteen countries and territories responded to this survey, providing information relevant to the status of gender data collection and statistical development.
7. The SDGs allow countries and territories to address a host of inter-related but complex sustainable development issues. Regions and economies will, however, need to prioritize action to respond to challenges in tracking progress towards attaining the SDGs. Countries and territories were also asked to provide key information on plans and special studies already conducted on gender statistics development, for example, time use surveys, and studies on violence against women and asset ownership. In view of the 2030 Agenda to leave no one behind, countries and economies were also asked for information on any study or special survey to obtain information about persons with disability, the well-being of migrants, and racial and ethnic minorities. Countries and economies were also asked for information about recent, ongoing, and proposed donor-supported projects and technical assistance for the development and improvement of gender statistics, and the area(s) for which National Statistics Offices intend to seek donor support or technical assistance for capacity building towards the generation and improvement of gender-related SDG indicators.
8. The Statistical Tables in Annex 2 present 50 of the 85 unique gender-related SDG indicators, spanning 17 SDG goals (except Goals 12, 14 and 15). A set of nine complementary gender-related indicators are also presented to enrich the picture of gender equality and women’s empowerment in Asia and the Pacific presented by the baseline status provided in Chapter 2 of this report.

Data sources for indicators. Unless otherwise specified, data used for compilation of the Statistical Appendix tables are from international agencies with the mandate, resources and expertise to collect, harmonize and compile national data for cross-country comparison. The main sources are presented at the bottom of each table. This Report reflects the status of the official SDG indicators in Asia and the Pacific as of December 2017, for indicators available at that time in the Global SDG Database, and July 2017 for other indicators.

Discrepancies between national and international data sources. In some cases, national estimates for an indicator differ from those made by international agencies and presented in the tables. These discrepancies arise from three main factors: harmonization processes to make data comparable across countries; updates and revision periods of international agencies not coinciding with the release of data by national statistical systems; and international agencies making estimates for

missing data. Efforts by international agencies and their national counterparts to improve national coordination of data collection aim eventually to eliminate these discrepancies.

Sub-regional groupings and aggregates for Asia and the Pacific. Sub-regional groupings are based on the classification of these 57 economies in ADB and UN joint publications (such as the ADB/UN Women MDG gender review of 2006, and the UNDP/UNESCAP/ADB MDG annual reports). Where possible, population-weighted sub-regional averages for indicators are presented in the tables. Generally, an average is presented when data are available for at least 50 per cent of countries in a sub-region, and represent about two thirds of the sub-region's population.

Symbols. The following symbols are used in the tables:

... indicates that data are not available.

— indicates where a regional aggregate is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive a regional aggregate.

o or o.o indicates “nil” or “negligible”.

CORE denotes indicators on the list of 54 Core gender-specific Global SDG indicators that explicitly refer to sex, gender, women and girls and/or are specifically or largely targeted at women and girls. (See Chapter 2 and the Annex to Chapter 2 for more information.)

SD denotes Global SDG indicators identified as gender-relevant in the Asia and Pacific region, in addition to the Core list of 54.

List of Sub-regional Groupings

Developed Economies (3)

Australia
Japan
New Zealand

East and North-East Asia (6)

People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Democratic People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea

Pacific (19)

American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Federated States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu

North and Central Asia (9)

Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic
Russian Federation
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan

South- and South-West Asia (9)

Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Turkey

South-East Asia (11)

Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Viet Nam

Annex 2: Statistical Tables

- Table 1.1 Selected SDG 1 indicators: Population below international poverty line
- Table 1.2a Selected SDG 1 indicators: Employed population below international poverty line (US\$1.90 per day)
- Table 1.2b Additional indicators related to SDG 1: Employed population below international poverty line (US\$3.10 per day)
- Table 1.3 Selected SDG 1 indicators: Population and households living below national poverty line
- Table 1.4 Complementary SDG 1 indicators: Population in multidimensional poverty
- Table 1.5a Selected SDG 1 indicators: Population covered by social protection (labour market and social assistance programmes)
- Table 1.5b Selected SDG 1 indicators: Population covered by social protection (social insurance, unemployment benefits, prenatal care and maternity benefits)
- Table 1.5c Complementary SDG 1 indicators: Social Protection Indicator by sex and programme (Social Protection Index)
- Table 2.1 Selected SDG 2 indicators: Prevalence of undernourishment and food insecurity
- Table 2.2 Selected SDG 2 indicators: Prevalence of stunting among children
- Table 2.3 Selected SDG 2 indicators: Prevalence of wasting among children
- Table 2.4 Selected SDG 2 indicators: Prevalence of overweight among children
- Table 3.1 Selected SDG 3 indicators: Maternal mortality
- Table 3.2a Selected SDG 3 indicators: Under-five mortality
- Table 3.2b Additional indicators related to SDG 3: Infant mortality
- Table 3.3 Selected SDG 3 indicators: Neo-natal mortality
- Table 3.4 Selected SDG 3 indicators: New HIV infections
- Table 3.5 Selected SDG 3 indicators: Mortality from non-communicable diseases and suicide mortality
- Table 3.6a Selected SDG 3 indicators: Reproductive health services and mortality due to unsafe WASH
- Table 3.6b Selected SDG 3 indicators: Age-specific fertility rate
- Table 4.1 Selected SDG 4 indicators: Proficiency in reading and mathematics
- Table 4.2 Selected SDG 4 indicators: Participation in organized early childhood learning
- Table 4.3a Selected SDG 4 indicators: Gender parity in participation and achievement in education
- Table 4.3b Selected SDG 4 indicators: Gender parity in trained teachers
- Table 4.4 Selected SDG 4 indicators: Teachers with organized teacher training
- Table 5.1 Complementary SDG 5 indicators: Gender discrimination and legal frameworks
- Table 5.2a Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Decision-making and opinions on wife-beating by age, residence and wealth
- Table 5.2b Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Decision-making and opinions on wife-beating by education and employment

- Table 5.3 Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Women who experience domestic violence
- Table 5.4a Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Married women aged 15-49 who prefer a girl birth
- Table 5.4b Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Married women aged 15-49 who prefer a boy birth
- Table 5.4c Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Married women aged 15-49 with equal preference for a boy or girl birth
- Table 5.5a Selected SDG 5 indicators: Women who experienced violence from a current or former intimate partner
- Table 5.5b Selected SDG 5 indicators: Women who experienced violence from a non-intimate partner
- Table 5.6 Selected SDG 5 indicators: Early marriage and time spent on unpaid care work
- Table 5.7a Selected SDG 5 indicators: Women in parliament and managerial position, and proportion of women making own decision regarding sexual and reproductive health
- Table 5.7b Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Reproductive health laws and regulations
- Table 5.8 Selected SDG 5 indicators: Agricultural land and mobile phone ownership
- Table 5.9 Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Women's access to credit, land ownership and property, and legislation on violence against women
- Table 6.1a Selected SDG 6 indicators: Population using improved drinking water and sanitation facilities
- Table 6.1b Additional indicators related to SDG 6: Distribution of households by person responsible for water collection
- Table 7.1a Selected SDG 7 indicators: Access to electricity and clean fuels and technology
- Table 7.1b Selected SDG 7 indicators: Access to electricity by sex, residence and wealth
- Table 8.1 Selected SDG 8 indicators: Informal employment and child labour
- Table 8.2 Selected SDG 8 indicators: Gender wage gap
- Table 8.3 Selected SDG 8 indicators: Unemployment rate and proportion of adults with an account at a financial institution
- Table 8.4a Additional SDG 8 indicators: Distribution of employment by sector
- Table 8.4b Additional SDG 8 indicators: Distribution of self-employment by status of employment
- Table 8.4c Additional indicator related to SDG 8: Employment sex ratio
- Table 9.1 Selected SDG 9 indicators: Rural road access and access to internet and mobile technology
- Table 10.1 Selected SDG 10 and SDG 11 indicators: Growth of household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40 per cent and proportion of urban population living in slums
- Table 10.2 Additional indicators related to SDG 10: Urban population living in slums by sex and age
- Table 11 Selected SDG 13 indicators: Deaths, affected and missing persons due to disasters
- Table 12.1 Selected SDG 16 indicators: Violence, intentional homicide and conflict-related deaths
- Table 12.2 Selected SDG 16 indicators: Children who experienced physical punishment and/or psychosocial aggression by caregivers
- Table 12.3 Selected SDG 16 indicators: Victims of human trafficking
- Table 12.4 Selected SDG 16 and 17 indicators: Inclusive institutions

Table 1.1: Selected SDG 1 indicators: Population below international poverty line

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Target 1.1: By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than US\$1.25 a day

Indicator 1: Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)

	CORE Proportion of population below the international poverty line of US\$1.90 per day in 2011 PPP prices (%)						Proportion of population below the international poverty line of US\$3.10 per day in 2011 PPP prices (%)					
	Earliest Year			Latest Year			Earliest Year			Latest Year		
Developed economies												
Australia	0.7	●	(2001)	0.4	●	(2010)	1.0	●	(2001)	0.7	●	(2010)
Japan	...			0.4	●	(2008)	...			0.7	●	(2008)
New Zealand		
East and North-East Asia												
People's Republic of China	32.0	● ■	(2002)	1.9	● ■	(2013)	56.4	● ■	(2002)	11.1	● ■	(2013)
Hong Kong, China		
Macau, China		
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		
Mongolia	10.6		(2002)	0.2		(2014)	33.6		(2002)	2.7		(2014)
Republic of Korea	0.3		(2006)	0.3		(2012)	0.7		(2006)	0.7		(2012)
North and Central Asia												
Armenia	19.3		(2001)	1.9		(2015)	53.1		(2001)	12.3		(2015)
Azerbaijan	...			0.5		(2008)	16.3		(2001)	2.5		(2008)
Georgia	21.0		(2000)	8.3		(2015)	45.1		(2000)	23.7		(2015)
Kazakhstan	10.5		(2001)	0.0		(2015)	31.2		(2001)	0.3		(2015)
Kyrgyz Republic	42.2		(2000)	2.5		(2015)	75.7		(2000)	21.0		(2015)
Russian Federation	2.3		(2000)	0.0		(2015)	9.2		(2000)	0.2		(2015)
Tajikistan	30.8		(2003)	4.7		(2015)	64.8		(2003)	18.6		(2015)
Turkmenistan		
Uzbekistan	68.1		(2000)	66.8		(2003)	88.7		(2000)	87.8		(2003)
Pacific												
American Samoa		
Cook Islands		
Fiji	4.9		(2002)	1.5		(2013)	20.3		(2002)	13.3		(2013)
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati	12.9		(2006)	...			32.7		(2006)	...		
Marshall Islands		
Micronesia, Fed. States of	10.6		(2005)	15.2		(2013)	61.7		(2000)	35.9		(2013)
Nauru		
New Caledonia		
Niue		
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau		
Papua New Guinea	...			38.0		(2009)	...			64.0		(2009)
Samoa	...			0.6		(2008)	...			8.4		(2008)
Solomon Islands	45.6		(2005)	25.1		(2013)	69.3		(2005)	56.7		(2013)
Tonga	2.8		(2001)	1.1		(2009)	7.7		(2001)	7.9		(2009)
Tuvalu	...			3.3		(2010)	...			16.8		(2010)
Vanuatu	...			13.1		(2010)	...			37.3		(2010)
South and South-West Asia												
Afghanistan		
Bangladesh	33.7		(2000)	18.5		(2010)	70.1		(2000)	56.8		(2010)
Bhutan	35.2		(2003)	2.2		(2012)	60.9		(2003)	13.3		(2012)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	0.4		(2005)	0.3		(2013)	3.0		(2005)	2.3		(2013)
Maldives	10.0		(2002)	7.3		(2009)	36.5		(2002)	23.3		(2009)
Nepal	46.1		(2003)	15.0		(2010)	73.8		(2003)	48.4		(2010)
Pakistan	28.7		(2001)	6.1		(2013)	70.0		(2001)	36.9		(2013)
Sri Lanka	8.3		(2002)	1.9		(2012)	33.9		(2002)	14.6		(2012)
Turkey	1.7		(2002)	0.3		(2014)	9.9		(2002)	2.0		(2014)
South-East Asia												
Brunei Darussalam		
Cambodia		
Indonesia	39.8	■	(2000)	6.8	■	(2016)	78.5	■	(2000)	29.9	■	(2016)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	33.8		(2002)	22.7		(2012)	70.3		(2002)	56.2		(2012)
Malaysia	0.4	●	(2004)	0.3	●	(2009)	2.3	●	(2004)	2.7	●	(2009)
Myanmar	...			6.5		(2015)	...			28.3		(2015)
Philippines	14.5		(2000)	8.3		(2015)	41.2		(2000)	31.8		(2015)
Singapore		
Thailand	2.6		(2000)	0.0		(2013)	17.0		(2000)	0.9		(2013)
Timor-Leste	42.5		(2001)	43.5		(2007)	71.3		(2001)	78.9		(2007)
Viet Nam	38.0		(2002)	2.8		(2014)	69.2		(2002)	10.7		(2014)
Asia and the Pacific	25.4		(2002)	4.1		(2013)	48.9		(2002)	17.9		(2013)
Developed economies	—			0.3		(2013)	—			0.7		(2013)
Developing economies	26.9		(2002)	4.2		(2013)	51.7		(2002)	18.8		(2013)
East and North-East Asia	30.8		(2002)	1.8		(2013)	54.4		(2002)	10.7		(2013)
North and Central Asia	11.5		(2002)	4.3		(2013)	21.2		(2002)	11.9		(2013)
Pacific	—			—			—			—		
South and South-West Asia	21.9		(2002)	6.3		(2013)	50.3		(2002)	30.2		(2013)
South-East Asia	25.0		(2002)	7.5		(2013)	54.0		(2002)	28.2		(2013)

Source:

Columns 1 & 2: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017); Columns 3 & 4: World Development Indicators at: <http://www.data.worldbank.org>. (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

Both indicators are consumption-based unless otherwise noted. US\$3.1 dollar-a-day in 2011 prices is the comparable equivalent to the US\$2 dollar-a-day poverty line in 2005 PPPs, commonly used as a poverty line for middle-income countries.

Sub-regional aggregate estimates generated with World Bank's PovcalNet Database Online. <http://research.worldbank.org/PovcalNet/index.htm>. Accessed 1 January 2018.

● = Income-based. ■ = Weighted average of rural and urban estimates.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

PPP = purchasing power parity.

Table 1.2a: Selected SDG 1 indicators: Employed population below international poverty line (US\$1.90 per day)

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Target 1.1: By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than US\$1.25 a day

Indicator 1.1: Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)

	CORE Proportion of employed population below the international poverty line of US\$1.90 per day in 2011 PPP prices (%)											
	All ages				Youth 15 to 24 years old				Adults 25 years old and over			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Earliest Year (2000)		Latest Year (2016)		Earliest Year (2000)		Latest Year (2016)		Earliest Year (2000)		Latest Year (2016)	
Developed economies												
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia												
People's Republic of China	34.3	34.6	4.3	4.6	40.0	40.7	6.1	5.9	33.2	33.1	4.1	4.5
Hong Kong, China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Macau, China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	70.5	72.1	23.7	23.8	73.2	74.1	29.7	30.1	69.9	71.6	22.6	22.6
Mongolia	10.5	10.3	2.9	3.0	15.6	11.2	3.8	3.8	9.1	10.1	2.8	2.9
Republic of Korea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
North and Central Asia												
Armenia	5.3	7.5	2.1	2.0	7.6	6.6	3.4	1.3	5.0	7.6	2.0	2.0
Azerbaijan	2.8	2.1	0.8	0.5	2.5	2.8	0.4	0.7	2.8	2.0	0.8	0.5
Georgia	7.1	5.7	4.5	3.1	7.3	6.4	4.2	3.1	7.1	5.7	4.5	3.1
Kazakhstan	2.6	2.7	1.7	0.7	4.8	4.5	1.5	1.2	2.1	2.4	1.7	0.7
Kyrgyz Republic	28.1	18.2	4.4	1.7	26.3	21.8	4.2	2.0	28.6	17.3	4.5	1.6
Russian Federation	1.1	1.9	1.3	1.3	2.8	2.9	1.8	1.8	0.9	1.8	1.2	1.3
Tajikistan	49.4	53.0	3.2	2.7	53.6	57.2	2.1	3.1	48.1	51.8	3.4	2.6
Turkmenistan	18.0	11.7	3.7	1.6	18.1	13.3	3.9	2.0	18.0	11.4	3.7	1.5
Uzbekistan	44.9	41.9	5.8	3.2	48.6	44.5	6.6	4.0	43.9	41.3	5.6	3.1
Pacific												
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	5.6	6.3	3.9	4.8	7.5	6.1	5.1	4.4	5.1	6.3	3.6	4.8
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	62.0	63.0	15.4	13.8	66.1	67.0	19.0	17.7	60.5	61.4	14.3	12.7
Samoa
Solomon Islands	16.1	16.0	7.0	6.5	20.1	17.5	8.9	6.9	15.0	15.5	6.6	6.4
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia												
Afghanistan	81.8	87.2	82.0	87.2	83.7	87.5	84.1	87.6	81.0	87.1	81.2	87.0
Bangladesh	80.0	81.9	62.7	66.2	81.4	82.5	63.7	67.9	79.5	81.6	62.4	65.8
Bhutan	50.3	55.5	3.8	4.3	59.4	62.7	5.1	6.4	47.6	52.7	3.6	4.0
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	4.7	1.6	1.4	1.0	3.1	1.2	1.4	0.6	5.2	1.8	1.4	1.1
Maldives	12.3	16.8	5.4	6.5	17.4	18.3	7.5	7.3	11.0	16.2	5.1	6.3
Nepal	46.7	45.7	7.6	7.8	45.8	46.5	6.6	8.5	47.0	45.3	8.0	7.5
Pakistan	16.3	18.7	7.3	8.7	16.5	18.8	7.8	8.4	16.3	18.7	7.2	8.8
Sri Lanka	6.2	5.6	4.1	3.9	7.1	4.8	5.4	3.0	6.0	5.8	4.0	4.0
Turkey	1.6	0.8	0.6	0.6	1.6	0.6	0.8	0.3	1.6	0.8	0.5	0.6
South-East Asia												
Brunei Darussalam	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cambodia	67.7	68.4	20.5	20.2	71.3	69.1	24.3	21.9	66.2	68.1	19.1	19.6
Indonesia	46.6	49.4	10.4	10.6	50.8	49.1	11.9	9.4	45.5	49.5	10.2	10.8
Lao People's Democratic Republic	75.4	76.2	46.4	45.6	77.1	77.5	51.5	51.8	74.7	75.6	44.9	43.2
Malaysia	3.8	4.5	2.8	3.1	5.5	4.5	3.7	3.1	3.5	4.5	2.7	3.1
Myanmar	81.1	82.7	10.4	9.0	83.3	84.3	13.1	12.2	80.5	82.3	9.8	8.3
Philippines	16.5	13.0	9.8	6.6	20.8	13.4	13.3	6.5	15.3	12.9	9.0	6.6
Singapore	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Thailand	1.1	1.1	0.1	0.1	1.6	1.9	0.2	0.2	1.0	0.9	0.1	0.1
Timor-Leste	49.6	46.3	10.1	9.0	50.8	47.9	13.3	10.3	49.3	45.6	9.7	8.8
Viet Nam	35.8	37.0	3.7	4.0	41.8	43.8	6.3	7.6	33.8	34.8	3.2	3.3
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	33.0	34.2	8.9	7.8	38.8	41.2	13.2	11.2	31.7	32.5	8.3	7.3
East and North-East Asia	33.6	34.2	4.4	4.8	39.8	40.4	6.6	6.5	32.5	32.8	4.2	4.6
North and Central Asia	8.0	6.8	2.1	1.5	12.9	10.9	3.1	2.2	7.1	6.2	2.0	1.4
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	36.6	50.4	25.4	30.9	39.1	54.5	27.4	31.7	35.7	48.9	24.9	30.7
South-East Asia	36.6	38.8	8.2	7.5	42.4	43.4	11.0	9.7	35.0	37.6	7.6	7.2

Source:

All Columns: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

Sub-regional aggregate estimates provided by Staff of Data Production and Analysis Unit, International Labour Organization Department of Statistics.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

PPP = purchasing power parity.

Table 1.2b: Additional indicators related to SDG 1: Employed population below international poverty line (US\$3.10 per day)

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Target 1.1: By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than US\$1.25 a day

Indicator 1: Proportion of population below the international poverty line, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural)

	Proportion of employed population below the international poverty line of US\$3.10 per day in 2011 PPP prices (%)															
	All ages						Youth 15 to 24 years old				Adults 25 years old and over					
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female		
	Earliest Year			Latest Year			Earliest Year			Latest Year			Earliest Year			Latest Year
Developed economies																
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia																
People's Republic of China	54.0	53.7 (2002)		10.3	9.7 (2016)		61.6	60.8 (2002)	12.6	12.2 (2016)		52.6	52.1 (2002)	10.0	9.3 (2016)	
Hong Kong, China		0.8	0.5 (2016)		0.7	0.6 (2016)		0.8	0.5 (2016)	
Macau, China		0.7	0.5 (2016)		0.7	0.6 (2016)		0.7	0.5 (2016)	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	80.7	82.2 (2005)		47.0	46.5 (2016)		85.7	86.3 (2005)	55.4	54.9 (2016)		79.6	81.1 (2005)	45.3	44.8 (2016)	
Mongolia	27.4	26.8 (2002)		6.3	5.6 (2016)		29.3	29.8 (2002)	6.2	7.5 (2016)		26.9	26.0 (2002)	6.3	5.4 (2016)	
Republic of Korea		0.8	0.5 (2016)		0.7	0.6 (2016)		0.8	0.5 (2016)	
North and Central Asia																
Armenia	41.5	45.4 (2001)		12.4	12.1 (2016)		47.4	40.3 (2001)	13.3	10.5 (2016)		40.7	46.1 (2001)	12.3	12.2 (2016)	
Azerbaijan	11.5	10.2 (2001)		1.8	1.4 (2016)		9.4	13.8 (2001)	1.0	1.9 (2016)		11.8	9.5 (2001)	1.9	1.3 (2016)	
Georgia	21.7	21.4 (2002)		14.4	11.6 (2016)		17.7	23.3 (2002)	13.4	13.0 (2016)		22.1	21.2 (2002)	14.5	11.6 (2016)	
Kazakhstan	23.1	17.3 (2002)		4.5	2.0 (2016)		28.2	26.9 (2002)	4.4	3.6 (2016)		22.0	15.5 (2002)	4.5	1.8 (2016)	
Kyrgyz Republic	70.2	65.5 (2000)		15.0	9.0 (2016)		73.0	71.9 (2000)	17.3	11.4 (2016)		69.4	63.9 (2000)	14.5	8.5 (2016)	
Russian Federation	4.9	5.8 (2000)		3.8	3.4 (2016)		7.6	9.9 (2000)	4.3	5.2 (2016)		4.5	5.3 (2000)	3.8	3.3 (2016)	
Tajikistan	62.0	59.6 (2003)		13.0	12.7 (2016)		64.4	63.4 (2003)	10.6	15.3 (2016)		61.3	58.5 (2003)	13.6	12.1 (2016)	
Turkmenistan		8.5	4.5 (2016)		10.1	6.6 (2016)		8.1	4.1 (2016)	
Uzbekistan	71.3	69.3 (2000)		15.2	10.1 (2016)		76.5	75.1 (2000)	18.3	14.1 (2016)		69.9	68.0 (2000)	14.5	9.5 (2016)	
Pacific																
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	
Fiji	15.9	13.7 (2002)		11.3	10.1 (2016)		18.1	14.7 (2002)	12.2	10.7 (2016)		15.3	13.4 (2002)	11.1	10.0 (2016)	
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati	
Marshall Islands	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	
Nauru	
New Caledonia	
Niue	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau	
Papua New Guinea		38.6	35.5 (2016)		42.5	40.0 (2016)		37.5	34.1 (2016)	
Samoa	
Solomon Islands	55.7	48.8 (2005)		27.5	20.7 (2016)		54.5	50.2 (2005)	25.9	22.0 (2016)		55.9	48.5 (2005)	27.9	20.4 (2016)	
Tonga	
Tuvalu	
Vanuatu	
South and South-West Asia																
Afghanistan	89.3	92.8 (2005)		86.4	90.4 (2016)		91.9	93.8 (2005)	89.1	91.6 (2016)		88.3	92.3 (2005)	85.4	89.8 (2016)	
Bangladesh	88.3	90.0 (2000)		83.1	85.9 (2016)		90.6	91.5 (2000)	86.5	88.1 (2016)		87.4	89.3 (2000)	82.3	85.4 (2016)	
Bhutan	29.5	33.2 (2003)		8.3	9.5 (2016)		39.2	41.2 (2003)	9.9	12.9 (2016)		26.5	29.9 (2003)	8.1	8.9 (2016)	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	9.0	4.4 (2005)		3.6	2.2 (2016)		8.4	4.7 (2005)	3.4	2.0 (2016)		9.1	4.2 (2005)	3.6	2.2 (2016)	
Maldives	12.3	13.7 (2004)		11.1	11.9 (2016)		15.6	15.5 (2004)	14.6	13.7 (2016)		11.3	12.9 (2004)	10.5	11.4 (2016)	
Nepal	70.5	70.4 (2003)		34.2	32.6 (2016)		72.0	73.3 (2003)	34.0	33.2 (2016)		69.9	69.2 (2003)	34.3	32.3 (2016)	
Pakistan	65.9	73.1 (2002)		33.5	38.2 (2016)		70.1	73.5 (2002)	37.3	39.4 (2016)		64.4	72.9 (2002)	32.4	37.9 (2016)	
Sri Lanka	31.0	29.5 (2002)		11.8	9.9 (2016)		37.4	28.5 (2002)	15.2	9.2 (2016)		29.9	29.7 (2002)	11.3	9.9 (2016)	
Turkey	7.2	7.1 (2002)		3.5	3.8 (2016)		10.1	8.4 (2002)	5.5	3.9 (2016)		6.5	6.7 (2002)	3.1	3.7 (2016)	
South-East Asia																
Brunei Darussalam		0.7	0.5 (2016)		0.7	0.6 (2016)		0.8	0.5 (2016)	
Cambodia	84.1	84.7 (2004)		55.7	55.2 (2016)		87.6	85.8 (2004)	63.1	57.8 (2016)		82.0	84.0 (2004)	53.0	54.4 (2016)	
Indonesia	79.0	80.5 (2000)		35.5	34.6 (2016)		84.3	78.8 (2000)	38.6	31.1 (2016)		77.6	81.0 (2000)	34.9	35.2 (2016)	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	89.5	90.8 (2002)		72.3	73.8 (2016)		92.5	93.1 (2002)	78.4	79.1 (2016)		88.3	89.7 (2002)	70.5	71.7 (2016)	
Malaysia	7.4	7.0 (2007)		5.8	5.4 (2016)		8.7	7.1 (2007)	6.7	5.6 (2016)		7.1	6.9 (2007)	5.7	5.3 (2016)	
Myanmar	82.0	83.2 (2005)		35.8	35.0 (2016)		86.4	86.8 (2005)	40.1	38.2 (2016)		81.0	82.3 (2005)	34.9	34.3 (2016)	
Philippines	43.5	34.8 (2000)		26.8	17.9 (2016)		51.9	33.8 (2000)	33.9	16.8 (2016)		41.3	35.1 (2000)	25.2	18.1 (2016)	
Singapore		0.7	0.5 (2016)		0.7	0.6 (2016)		0.8	0.5 (2016)	
Thailand	13.9	13.3 (2000)		1.4	1.3 (2016)		17.1	15.0 (2000)	2.0	2.1 (2016)		13.3	13.0 (2000)	1.4	1.2 (2016)	
Timor-Leste	69.0	66.2 (2001)		43.9	39.6 (2016)		70.3	65.1 (2001)	48.6	39.5 (2016)		68.6	66.6 (2001)	43.3	39.6 (2016)	
Viet Nam	71.8	73.8 (2002)		11.1	11.2 (2016)		79.4	82.0 (2002)	17.3	18.7 (2016)		69.4	71.2 (2002)	9.9	9.9 (2016)	
Asia and the Pacific	
Developed economies	
Developing economies	57.1	57.8 (2000)		19.3	16.5 (2016)		65.0	65.7 (2000)	27.2	22.7 (2016)		55.3	55.9 (2000)	18.1	15.5 (2016)	
East and North-East Asia	59.7	60.5 (2000)		10.6	10.1 (2016)		67.7	67.5 (2000)	13.5	13.2 (2016)		58.2	58.8 (2000)	10.2	9.7 (2016)	
North and Central Asia	18.1	16.1 (2000)		6.2	4.5 (2016)		26.7	25.7 (2000)	8.8	7.6 (2016)		16.6	14.7 (2000)	5.9	4.2 (2016)	
Pacific	
South and South-West Asia	57.8	66.9 (2000)		42.3	49.1 (2016)		62.9	70.1 (2000)	48.2	52.1 (2016)		56.0	65.7 (2000)	40.9	48.3 (2016)	
South-East Asia	62.2	62.8 (2000)		25.5	23.1 (2016)		70.3	67.9 (2000)	31.5	26.8 (2016)		60.1	61.4 (2000)	24.4	22.4 (2016)	

Source:

Data for these indicators compiled from various international and national sources. Please see notes.

Note:

Sub-regional aggregate estimates provided by Staff of Data Production and Analysis Unit, International Labour Organization Department of Statistics.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. PPP = purchasing power parity.

Table 1.3: Selected SDG 1 indicators: Population and households living below national poverty line

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Target 1.2: By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

Indicator 1.2.1: Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex and age

	CORE Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex (%)												Proportion of households living below the national poverty line, by sex of household head (%)																				
	All ages												All ages																				
	Male				Female				Both Sexes				Male-headed				Female-headed																
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year														
Developed economies																																	
Australia												
Japan												
New Zealand												
East and North-East Asia																																	
People's Republic of China	13.2	a, b	(2008)	...		13.5	a, b	(2008)	...			5.7	b, c	(2015)												
Hong Kong, China	...			13.8	d	(2014)	...		14.6	d	(2014)												
Macau, China												
Dem. People's Republic of Korea												
Mongolia		36.1	c	(2002)	21.6	c	(2014)												
Republic of Korea				16.0	c, e	(2015)												
North and Central Asia																																	
Armenia	27.8	f	(2008)	29.9	f	(2014)	27.3	f	(2008)	30.0	d, g	(2014)	53.5	c	(2004)	29.8	c	(2015)	26.6	f	(2008)	29.4	f	(2014)	30.4	f	(2008)	31.5	f	(2014)			
Azerbaijan			49.0	c	(2001)	4.9	c	(2015)				
Georgia			24.6	h	(2004)	20.6	c	(2016)				
Kazakhstan			46.7	c	(2001)	2.6	c	(2016)				
Kyrgyz Republic			62.6	c	(2000)	25.4	c	(2016)	33.0	a	(2009)	...		28.0	a	(2009)			
Russian Federation			24.6	i	(2002)	13.3	i	(2015)				
Tajikistan			72.4	c	(2003)	31.0	c	(2015)				
Turkmenistan			
Uzbekistan			12.8	c	(2015)	28.0	d	(2000)	...		25.0	d	(2000)			
Pacific																																	
American Samoa			
Cook Islands			28.4	j, k	(2006)			
Fiji			35.0	c, k	(2002)	28.1	c, k	(2013)		
French Polynesia			
Guam			
Kiribati			21.8	j, k	(2006)			
Marshall Islands			
Micronesia, Fed. States of			27.9	j, k	(1998)	31.4	j, k	(2005)		
Nauru			25.1	j, k	(2006)			
New Caledonia			
Niue			13.0	j, k	(2002)			
Northern Mariana Islands			
Palau			24.9	j, k	(2006)			
Papua New Guinea			39.9	c, g	(2009)			
Samoa			22.9	c, k	(2002)	26.9	j, k	(2008)		
Solomon Islands			22.7	c, k	(2005)	12.7	j, k	(2013)		
Tonga			16.2	c, g	(2001)	22.5	j, k	(2009)		
Tuvalu			21.2	c, k	(2004)	26.3	j, k	(2010)		
Vanuatu			13.0	c, k	(2006)	12.7	j, k	(2010)		
South and South-West Asia																																	
Afghanistan			36.3	c	(2007)	39.1	c	(2014)	33.0	a	(2007)	...		38.0	a	(2007)	
Bangladesh			48.9	c	(2000)	31.5	c	(2010)	49.0	(2000)	32.1	a	(2010)	47.2	(2000)	26.6	a	(2010)			
Bhutan			23.2	c	(2007)	12.0	c	(2012)	23.9	(2003)	8.5	(2012)	26.3	(2003)	9.0	(2013)			
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	
Maldives			21.0	c, m	(2002)	15.0	c, m	(2009)
Nepal			25.2	c	(2010)	...		26.0	a	(2010)				24.0	a	(2010)		
Pakistan			64.3	i	(2001)	29.5	i	(2013)
Sri Lanka	...			6.8	(2012)	...	6.6	(2012)	22.7	c	(2002)	6.7	c	(2012)	
Turkey	...			22.0	a	(2012)	...		23.0	a	(2012)	30.3	i	(2002)	1.6	i	(2014)
South-East Asia																																	
Brunei Darussalam	

	CORE Proportion of population living below the national poverty line, by sex (%)										Proportion of households living below the national poverty line, by sex of household head (%)									
	All ages										All ages									
	Male		Female		Both Sexes		Male-headed		Female-headed		Male		Female		Both Sexes		Male-headed		Female-headed	
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year
Cambodia	47.8	c (2007)	14.0	c, o (2014)
Indonesia	19.1	c, o (2000)	10.9	c, p (2016)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	33.5	c (2002)	23.2	c (2013)	34.0	d (2003)	24.0	d (2013)	31.0	d (2003)	17.0	d (2013)
Malaysia	6.0	c (2002)	0.6	c (2014)	3.7	d (2009)	0.6	d (2014)	4.1	d (2009)	0.8	d (2014)
Myanmar	32.1	c (2005)	25.6	c (2010)
Philippines	...	26.6	p, q (2012)	...	25.6	p, q (2012)	26.6	c (2006)	21.6	c (2015)
Singapore
Thailand	42.3	c (2000)	7.2	c (2015)
Timor-Leste	50.4	c (2007)	41.8	c (2014)
Viet Nam	28.9	c (2002)	7.0	c (2015)
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

Data for these indicators compiled from various international and national Source. Please see footNote.

Note:

^a United Nations Statistics Division. World's Women Report 2015. Available at: <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/worldswomen.html>. Accessed July 2017.

^b Refers to rural areas only.

^c Asian Development Bank Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific 2017. Available at: <https://www.adb.org/publications/key-indicators-asia-and-pacific-2017>. Accessed December 2017.

^d Data provided by National Statistics Offices (NSOs) based on a survey conducted for this report.

^e Estimated using the equivalized disposable income based on 50% of the median income.

^f Armenia Poverty Profile 2008-2014. Available at: http://www.armstat.am/file/article/5_poverty_2015e_2.pdf. Accessed July 2017.

^g Refers to poverty headcount ratio using Papua New Guinea's upper poverty line.

^h Refers to registered poverty. For relative poverty or share of population under 60% of median consumption, the data are 24.6% for 2004 and 20.1% for 2015.

ⁱ World Bank World Development Indicators.

^j Secretariat of the Pacific Community.

^k Refers to percentage of population below the basic needs poverty line.

^l Household income and expenditure surveys for these economies were conducted in overlapping years. The table adopts the World Bank World Development Indicators approach of using the initial year of the survey as the reference period for the poverty estimates.

^m Weighted average of urban and rural estimates.

ⁿ Refers to poverty estimate for 2009/10.

^o Reference period is February 2000.

^p Reference period is March 2016.

^q Estimated using merged microdata of Philippines Family Income and Expenditure Survey and Labor Force Survey.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 1.4: Complementary SDG 1 indicators: Population in multidimensional poverty

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Target 1.2: By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

Indicator 1.2.2: Proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions

	Proportion of population in multidimensional poverty according to Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) (%) (Proxy Indicator) ^a					
	Earliest Year			Latest Year		
Developed economies						
Australia		
Japan		
New Zealand		
East and North-East Asia						
People's Republic of China	6.0	b, c	(2009)	5.2	b	(2012)
Hong Kong, China		
Macau, China		
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		
Mongolia	18.3		(2005)	11.1		(2010)
Republic of Korea		
North and Central Asia						
Armenia	...			0.6		(2010)
Azerbaijan	2.4		(2006)	...		
Georgia	2.2		(2005)	...		
Kazakhstan	1.8		(2006)	1.1		(2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	3.4		(2006)	2.2		(2014)
Russian Federation		
Tajikistan	14.7		(2005)	7.9		(2012)
Turkmenistan		
Uzbekistan	3.5		(2006)	...		
Pacific						
American Samoa		
Cook Islands		
Fiji		
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati		
Marshall Islands		
Micronesia, Fed. States of		
Nauru		
New Caledonia		
Niue		
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau		
Papua New Guinea		
Samoa		
Solomon Islands		
Tonga		
Tuvalu		
Vanuatu	31.2		(2007)	...		
South and South-West Asia						
Afghanistan	...			58.8	d	(2011)
Bangladesh	59.5		(2007)	40.7		(2014)
Bhutan	...			29.4		(2010)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)		
Maldives	2.0		(2009)	...		
Nepal	62.1		(2006)	26.6		(2014)
Pakistan	43.5	d	(2007)	45.6		(2013)
Sri Lanka		
Turkey		
South-East Asia						
Brunei Darussalam		
Cambodia	58.0		(2005)	33.8		(2014)
Indonesia	10.1	d	(2007)	5.9	d	(2012)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	55.0	e	(2006)	36.8		(2012)
Malaysia		
Myanmar		
Philippines	7.3	d, f	(2008)	6.3	d, f	(2013)
Singapore		
Thailand	1.0		(2006)	...		
Timor-Leste	...			64.3		(2010)
Viet Nam	...			3.9		(2014)
Asia and the Pacific		—			—	
Developed economies		—			—	
Developing economies		—			—	
East and North-East Asia		—			—	
North and Central Asia		—			—	
Pacific		—			—	
South and South-West Asia		—			—	
South-East Asia		—			—	

Source:
All Columns: United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2016. Human Development Report. Available at: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/data> (Accessed July 2017).

Note:
^a Some countries have developed multidimensional poverty tools assessments using national definitions. There are also a number of international multidimensional poverty measurements, including UNDP's MPI (a headline index summarizing the proportion of people in multidimensional poverty), which tracks deprivation across three dimensions and 10 indicators: health (child mortality, nutrition), education (years of schooling, enrollment), and living standards (water, sanitation, electricity, cooking fuel, floor, assets). More details about the general methodology of the MPI can be found in Alkire and Santos (2010) <http://www.ophi.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/OPHI-MPI-Brief.pdf>.

^b Missing indicator on type of floor.

^c Refers to only part of the country (nine provinces).

^d Missing indicators on nutrition.

^e Missing indicator on child mortality.

^f Missing indicator on school attendance.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 1.5a: Selected SDG 1 indicators: Population covered by social protection (labour market and social assistance programmes)

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable

Indicator 1.3.1: Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable

	CORE Proportion of the population covered by labour market programmes (%)								CORE Proportion of the population covered by social assistance programmes (%)							
	All population				Poorest quintile				All population				Poorest quintile			
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year	
Developed economies																
Australia	
Japan	
New Zealand	
East and North-East Asia																
People's Republic of China	
Hong Kong, China	
Macau, China	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	
Mongolia	5.3	(2007)	6.1	(2012)	8.5	(2007)	10.2	(2012)	83.2	(2007)	99.8	(2012)	91.7	(2007)	99.8	(2012)
Republic of Korea	
North and Central Asia																
Armenia	2.9	(2008)	0.9	(2014)	2.7	(2008)	0.8	(2014)	22.4	(2008)	28.4	(2014)	34.1	(2008)	40.1	(2014)
Azerbaijan	2.8	(2008)	...		4.7	(2008)	...		87.5	(2008)	...		87.0	(2008)	...	
Georgia	...		0.3	(2011)	...		0.1	(2011)	...		31.3	(2011)	...		51.6	(2011)
Kazakhstan		29.1	(2007)	30.6	(2010)	42.2	(2007)	40.4	(2010)
Kyrgyz Republic	23.9	(2011)	21.1	(2012)	...		17.4	(2012)	8.1	(2006)	7.3	(2012)	15.7	(2006)	11.4	(2012)
Russian Federation	0.7	(2007)	3.3	(2014)	1.4	(2007)	8.7	(2014)	28.2	(2007)	68.0	(2014)	46.8	(2007)	76.3	(2014)
Tajikistan	...		0.2	(2011)	...		0.0	(2011)	...		9.8	(2011)	...		13.0	(2011)
Turkmenistan	
Uzbekistan	
Pacific																
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	
Fiji		9.6	(2008)	...		11.2	(2008)	...	
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati		4.6	(2006)	...		4.8	(2006)	...	
Marshall Islands	
Micronesia, Fed. States of		6.3	(2000)	...		4.6	(2000)	...	
Nauru	
New Caledonia	
Niue	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau		2.9	(2006)	...		8.7	(2006)	...	
Papua New Guinea		3.4	(2009)	...		1.9	(2009)	...	
Samoa	
Solomon Islands		1.6	(2005)	...		1.1	(2005)	...	
Tonga	
Tuvalu	
Vanuatu	
South and South-West Asia																
Afghanistan		15.3	(2007)	8.8	(2011)	23.6	(2007)	12.5	(2011)
Bangladesh	4.3	(2010)	...		3.8	(2010)	...		12.4	(2005)	13.1	(2010)	22.5	(2005)	22.3	(2010)
Bhutan		1.0	(2007)	2.3	(2012)	1.6	(2007)	3.9	(2012)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	
Maldives		3.8	(2004)	...		3.1	(2004)	...	
Nepal		40.1	(2010)	...		49.0	(2010)	...	
Pakistan	0.1	(2009)	...		0.0	(2009)	...		2.6	(2007)	11.2	(2013)	1.1	(2007)	19.7	(2013)
Sri Lanka		29.7	(2006)	26.2	(2012)	52.1	(2006)	46.7	(2012)
Turkey	0.2	(2004)	0.8	(2012)	0.2	(2004)	0.5	(2012)	32.1	(2004)	21.2	(2012)	47.8	(2004)	57.6	(2012)
South-East Asia																
Brunei Darussalam	
Cambodia	...		1.2	(2013)	...		0.6	(2013)	0.5	(2008)	...		0.5	(2008)	...	
Indonesia	1.4	(2009)	4.2	(2014)	1.3	(2009)	4.4	(2014)	43.4	(2009)	62.4	(2014)	67.8	(2009)	88.7	(2014)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	
Malaysia		82.8	(2008)	...		93.9	(2008)	...	
Myanmar	2.3	(2009)	...		0.8	(2009)	
Philippines	...		0.1	(2013)	...		0.1	(2013)	...		27.4	(2013)	...		57.3	(2013)
Singapore	
Thailand		89.6	(2006)	89.4	(2013)	99.2	(2006)	98.6	(2013)
Timor-Leste		26.3	(2007)	35.2	(2011)	23.5	(2007)	41.4	(2011)
Viet Nam	6.1	(2006)	9.0	(2014)	18.9	(2006)	24.4	(2014)	26.4	(2006)	46.2	(2014)	56.4	(2006)	74.8	(2014)
Asia and the Pacific	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Developed economies	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Developing economies	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
East and North-East Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
North and Central Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Pacific	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
South and South-West Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
South-East Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	

Source:

All Columns: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

ILO World Social Protection Report 2014–15. Building Economic Recovery, Inclusive Development and Social Justice. Available at <http://www.ilo.org/global/research/global-reports/world-social-security-report/2014/lang-en/index.htm>.

Note:

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

PPP = purchasing power parity.

Table 1.5b: Selected SDG 1 indicators: Social protection coverage (social insurance, unemployment benefits, prenatal care and maternity benefits)

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable

Indicator 1.3.1: Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable

	CORE								CORE				CORE				Proportion of mothers receiving maternity benefits and benefits for newborns (%)
	Proportion of the population covered by social insurance programs (%)								Proportion of unemployed receiving unemployment benefits (%)				Proportion of pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%) ^a				
	All population				Poorest quintile				All population				All population				
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		2016
Developed economies																	
Australia		73.4 (2000)		52.7 (2014)		98.3 (2008)	
Japan		32.5 (2001)		20.0 (2014)	
New Zealand		28.0 (2007)		32.9 (2013)	
East and North-East Asia																	
People's Republic of China		9.9 (2000)		18.8 (2016)		89.4 (2000)		95.6 (2013)		15.1
Hong Kong, China		14.1 (2000)		16.9 (2009)	
Macau, China		26.9 (2016)	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		97.1 (2000)		100.0 (2009)		...
Mongolia	40.5 (2007)		43.3 (2012)		41.4 (2007)		45.0 (2012)		18.0 (2003)		20.5 (2016)		96.7 (2000)		98.7 (2014)		81.5
Republic of Korea		45.5 (2014)		45.5 (2016)	
North and Central Asia																	
Armenia	50.0 (2008)		54.8 (2014)		55.3 (2008)		57.0 (2014)		12.0 (2000)		15.8 (2012)		92.4 (2000)		99.1 (2010)		61.0
Azerbaijan	55.1 (2008)		...		58.5 (2008)		...		6.3 (2000)		1.6 (2016)		66.0 (2000)		91.7 (2011)		14.0
Georgia	...		56.3 (2011)		...		62.0 (2011)		2.4 (2000)		4.0 (2005)		96.3 (2005)		97.6 (2010)		24.0
Kazakhstan	29.2 (2007)		28.4 (2010)		28.8 (2007)		30.2 (2010)		0.5 (2000)		5.8 (2016)		99.9 (2006)		99.2 (2011)		44.6
Kyrgyz Republic	30.5 (2006)		41.6 (2012)		32.7 (2006)		46.3 (2012)		8.2 (2000)		1.7 (2016)		96.9 (2006)		98.4 (2014)		23.8
Russian Federation	41.9 (2007)		54.7 (2014)		45.5 (2007)		53.7 (2014)		11.8 (2000)		68.2 (2016)			69.0
Tajikistan	...		34.2 (2011)		...		39.0 (2011)		5.1 (2005)		19.4 (2016)		71.3 (2000)		78.8 (2012)		59.5
Turkmenistan		98.1 (2000)		99.1 (2006)		...
Uzbekistan		57.1 (2000)		39.5 (2008)		97.2 (2000)		99.0 (2006)		...
Pacific																	
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	5.3 (2008)		...		5.5 (2008)			100.0 (2008)	
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	0.3 (2006)		...		0.7 (2006)			100.0 (2008)		88.4 (2009)		...
Marshall Islands	23.0 (1999)		...		10.3 (1999)			81.2 (2007)	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	17.4 (2000)		...		7.6 (2000)			80.0 (2008)	
Nauru		94.5 (2007)	
New Caledonia		17.4 (2002)		28.4 (2014)	
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	36.4 (2006)		...		38.9 (2006)			100.0 (2007)		90.3 (2010)		...
Papua New Guinea	1.0 (2009)		...		0.2 (2009)			78.8 (2006)	
Samoa	33.6 (2008)		...		31.8 (2011)			93.0 (2009)		93.3 (2014)		...
Solomon Islands	1.2 (2005)		...		1.0 (2005)			73.9 (2007)	
Tonga	1.3 (2009)			99.0 (2008)		99.0 (2012)		...
Tuvalu		97.4 (2007)	
Vanuatu		84.3 (2007)		75.6 (2013)		...
South and South-West Asia																	
Afghanistan	0.5 (2007)		...		0.2 (2007)			36.9 (2000)		58.6 (2015)		...
Bangladesh	1.7 (2005)		1.5 (2010)		0.1 (2005)		0.3 (2010)			33.3 (2000)		63.9 (2014)		20.9
Bhutan	1.4 (2007)		0.7 (2012)		1.3 (2007)		0.3 (2012)			51.0 (2000)		97.9 (2012)		...
Iran (Islamic Republic of)		98.3 (2005)		96.9 (2010)		...
Maldives	4.7 (2004)		...		1.8 (2004)			81.0 (2001)		99.1 (2009)		...
Nepal	5.3 (2010)		...		0.6 (2010)			27.0 (2000)		68.3 (2014)		...
Pakistan	6.8 (2007)		6.0 (2013)		3.0 (2007)		1.7 (2013)			43.3 (2001)		73.1 (2013)		...
Sri Lanka	6.3 (2006)		7.4 (2012)		1.2 (2006)		1.8 (2012)			94.5 (2000)		99.4 (2007)		100.0
Turkey	29.4 (2004)		34.6 (2012)		10.2 (2004)		23.1 (2012)		8.7 (2004)		7.7 (2014)		80.9 (2003)		96.9 (2013)		...
South-East Asia																	
Brunei Darussalam		99.0 (2009)		...
Cambodia	2.7 (2008)		1.9 (2013)		1.3 (2008)		0.4 (2013)			37.7 (2000)		95.3 (2014)		...
Indonesia	...		9.3 (2014)		...		1.6 (2014)			88.3 (2000)		95.4 (2013)		...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.7 (2007)		...		0.3 (2007)			26.5 (2001)		54.2 (2012)		...
Malaysia	6.8 (2008)		...		3.7 (2008)			73.6 (2003)		98.0 (2013)		...
Myanmar		75.6 (2001)		83.1 (2010)		0.7
Philippines	7.5 (2006)		11.2 (2013)		1.1 (2006)		4.1 (2013)			85.9 (2000)		95.4 (2013)		9.0
Singapore
Thailand	34.8 (2006)		40.7 (2013)		8.2 (2006)		12.3 (2013)		4.2 (2005)		28.5 (2012)		91.8 (2000)		98.1 (2012)		...
Timor-Leste	...		1.2 (2011)		...		1.7 (2011)			42.5 (2002)		84.4 (2010)		...
Viet Nam	17.2 (2006)		15.3 (2014)		5.5 (2006)		3.1 (2014)		0.7 (2009)		45.0 (2016)		68.3 (2000)		95.8 (2014)		44.5

	CORE Proportion of the population covered by social insurance programs (%)				CORE Proportion of unemployed receiving unemployment benefits (%)		Proportion of pregnant women receiving prenatal care (%) ^a		CORE Proportion of mothers receiving maternity benefits and benefits for newborns (%)	
	All population		Poorest quintile		All population		All population			
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	2016	
							2000–2009	2006–2015		
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	72.0	85.5	—	
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	89.5	95.8	—	
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	91.6	96.8	—	
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	79.7	—	—	
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	57.6	74.3	—	
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	80.9	94.6	—	

Source:
Columns 1–4 & 9: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017); Columns 5–6: ILO World Social Protection Report 2014–15. Building Economic Recovery, Inclusive Development and Social Justice; Available at <http://www.ilo.org/global/research/global-reports/world-social-security-report/2014/lang--en/index.htm>; Columns 7–8: World Bank (data.worldbank.org) (Accessed 30 May 2016).

Note:
^a Aggregates are weighted by population for the respective year of data availability.
... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 1.5c: Complementary SDG 1 indicators: Social Protection Indicator by sex and programme (Social Protection Index)

Goal 1: End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Target 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable

Indicator 1.3.1: Proportion of population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, newborns, work-injury victims and the poor and the vulnerable

	Social Protection Index by sex and programme, 2015							
	Social Protection Index for Females				Social Protection Index for Males			
	Overall	Social Insurance	Social Assistance	Labour Market Programmes	Overall	Social Insurance	Social Assistance	Labour Market Programmes
Developed economies								
Australia
Japan	5.679	5.176	0.492	0.011	6.374	5.853	0.500	0.021
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia								
People's Republic of China	2.324	2.138	0.156	0.029	2.256	1.985	0.215	0.056
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia	1.689	1.182	0.501	0.006	1.795	1.390	0.398	0.007
Republic of Korea	2.443	1.793	0.622	0.028	2.936	2.310	0.527	0.100
North and Central Asia								
Armenia	2.900	2.100	0.800	0.000	2.600	1.700	0.800	0.100
Azerbaijan	3.100	2.000	1.000	0.100	5.200	4.000	1.200	0.000
Georgia	2.839	1.739	1.100	0.000	3.084	2.086	0.998	0.000
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	3.304	2.661	0.637	0.006	2.204	1.685	0.510	0.009
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	1.742	1.510	0.224	0.009	1.074	0.879	0.192	0.004
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	5.786	4.864	0.921	0.001	3.333	2.922	0.409	0.001
Pacific								
American Samoa
Cook Islands	1.700	0.100	1.600	...	1.600	0.100	1.500	...
Fiji	1.310	1.000	0.300	0.010	2.010	1.800	0.200	0.010
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	3.700	2.300	0.600	0.800	6.700	3.600	0.300	2.800
Marshall Islands	3.000	2.300	0.300	0.400	7.600	6.700	0.500	0.400
Micronesia, Fed. States of	3.700	3.100	0.600	0.000	5.700	5.000	0.700	0.000
Nauru	2.310	0.010	2.300	0.000	2.000	0.100	1.900	0.000
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	3.401	3.200	0.200	0.001	4.803	4.500	0.300	0.003
Papua New Guinea	0.310	0.300	0.000	0.010	0.520	0.500	0.000	0.020
Samoa	1.510	1.000	0.500	0.010	1.840	1.300	0.500	0.040
Solomon Islands	1.010	0.800	0.010	0.200	2.210	1.900	0.010	0.300
Tonga	0.610	0.400	0.200	0.010	0.640	0.400	0.200	0.040
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	0.510	0.300	0.200	0.010	0.820	0.600	0.200	0.020
South and South-West Asia								
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	0.300	0.100	0.100	0.100	0.658	0.400	0.158	0.100
Bhutan	0.200	0.000	0.100	0.100	0.524	0.395	0.129	0.000
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	2.650	1.450	1.200	0.000	2.988	1.800	1.188	0.000
Nepal	0.749	0.239	0.501	0.008	1.252	0.957	0.284	0.010
Pakistan	0.111	0.006	0.100	0.005	1.561	1.375	0.176	0.010
Sri Lanka	1.515	1.110	0.400	0.005	1.713	1.425	0.284	0.004
Turkey
South-East Asia								
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	0.308	0.036	0.261	0.012	0.280	0.057	0.200	0.023
Indonesia	0.987	0.587	0.400	0.000	1.074	0.797	0.277	0.000
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.383	0.282	0.100	0.001	0.445	0.409	0.034	0.001
Malaysia	2.016	1.935	0.080	0.000	2.359	2.300	0.059	0.000
Myanmar	0.034	0.030	0.004	0.000	0.042	0.036	0.007	0.000
Philippines	1.167	0.762	0.400	0.005	1.413	1.010	0.397	0.006
Singapore	2.146	1.871	0.150	0.125	4.095	3.000	0.900	0.195
Thailand	1.093	0.829	0.261	0.002	1.115	0.874	0.239	0.002
Timor-Leste	4.240	0.040	4.100	0.100	8.400	0.100	7.700	0.600
Viet Nam	2.029	1.720	0.209	0.100	2.147	1.898	0.212	0.037
Asia and the Pacific	1.969	1.341	0.569	0.060	2.562	1.793	0.640	0.133
Developed economies	5.679	5.176	0.492	0.011	6.374	5.853	0.500	0.021
Developing economies	1.868	1.238	0.571	0.061	2.459	1.684	0.643	0.136
East and North-East Asia	2.152	1.704	0.427	0.021	2.329	1.895	0.380	0.054
North and Central Asia	3.279	2.479	0.780	0.019	2.916	2.212	0.685	0.019
Pacific	1.923	1.234	0.568	0.132	3.037	2.208	0.526	0.330
South and South-West Asia	0.921	0.484	0.400	0.036	1.449	1.059	0.370	0.021
South-East Asia	1.440	0.809	0.597	0.034	2.137	1.048	1.002	0.086

Source:
ADB estimates based on 2015 SPI country reports.

Note:
The Social Protection Indicator is based on the formula of: Total social protection expenditures divided by total reference population and expressed as % of the GDP per capita. The indicator can be interpreted as social protection expenditures per potential beneficiary as a percentage of GDP per capita.

Sub-regional aggregates are unweighted averages.

... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.
0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 2.1: Selected SDG 2 indicators: Prevalence of undernourishment and food insecurity

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

Target 2.1: By 2030, end hunger and ensure access by all people, in particular the poor and people in vulnerable situations, including infants, to safe, nutritious and sufficient food all year round

Indicator 2.1.1: Prevalence of undernourishment

Indicator 2.1.2: Prevalence of moderate or severe food insecurity in the population, based on the Food Insecurity Experience Scale (FIES)

	SD Prevalence of undernourishment (%) ^a		Prevalence of anemia among women of reproductive age (% of women ages 15–49) ^b		SD Prevalence of food insecurity at the moderate level (2014–15) ^c		SD Prevalence of food insecurity at the severe level (2014–15) ^c	
	Earliest Year (1991–2001)	Latest Year (2014–2016)	Earliest Year (2000)	Latest Year (2016)	Male	Female	Male	Female
Developed economies								
Australia	<5.0	<5.0	9.6	9.1	11.5	8.7	2.5	2.2
Japan	<5.0	<5.0	20.5	21.5	2.7	1.4	0.9	0.1
New Zealand	<5.0	<5.0	8.6	11.6	8.1	5.7	2.8	1.9
East and North-East Asia								
People's Republic of China	16.2	9.3	20.8	26.4	4.4	3.9	0.5	0.5
Hong Kong, China	9.2	8.4	1.4	0.8
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	37.9	41.6	33.1	32.5
Mongolia	38.2	20.5	19.0	19.5	16.8	18.6	0.9	1.5
Republic of Korea	<5.0	<5.0	16.2	22.7	6.2	6.6	1.1	0.7
North and Central Asia								
Armenia	21.4	5.8	19.9	29.4	18.5	20.7	0.6	0.5
Azerbaijan	22.5	<5.0	37.9	38.5	5.7	6.1	0.1	0.1
Georgia	14.8	7.4	30.6	27.5	25.1	31.1	0.8	1.2
Kazakhstan	<5.0	<5.0	33.8	30.7	7.5	7.5	0.3	1.1
Kyrgyz Republic	15.2	6.0	34.1	36.2	19.1	22.3	5.1	4.2
Russian Federation	<5.0	<5.0	21.1	23.3	6.9	8.2	0.6	0.6
Tajikistan	38.8	33.2	38.6	30.5	12.8	13.1	2.7	2.6
Turkmenistan	9.0	<5.0	35.6	32.6
Uzbekistan	11.5	<5.0	48.2	36.2	11.9	15.0	1.1	2.7
Pacific								
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	<5.0	<5.0	33.8	31.0
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	<5.0	<5.0	26.8	26.1
Marshall Islands	25.7	26.6
Micronesia, Fed. States of	17.7	23.3
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	37.5	36.6
Samoa	6.6	<5.0	22.1	31.3
Solomon Islands	15.0	11.3	41.5	38.9
Tonga	20.5	21.3
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	8.1	6.4	37.2	24.0
South and South-West Asia								
Afghanistan	45.2	26.8	36.6	42.0	44.1	47.6	19.5	18.6
Bangladesh	23.1	16.4	48.1	39.9	29.1	29.8	11.2	13.2
Bhutan	52.3	35.6	2.7	2.5	0.2	0.3
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	5.2	<5.0	29.5	30.5	47.1	50.4	8.2	8.9
Maldives	11.8	5.2	51.0	42.6
Nepal	22.2	7.8	51.5	35.1	24.5	26.0	7.1	8.2
Pakistan	22.4	22.0	49.0	52.1	36.6	48.1	10.6	21.2
Sri Lanka	29.9	22.0	35.1	32.6	21.0	21.7	5.2	5.0
Turkey	<5.0	<5.0	32.7	30.9	32.0	31.6	6.2	5.3
South-East Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	<5.0	<5.0	12.5	16.9
Cambodia	32.0	14.2	55.0	46.8	46.3	50.2	17.5	19.5
Indonesia	17.2	7.6	32.8	28.8	16.6	17.4	4.8	5.6
Lao People's Democratic Republic	39.2	18.5	43.0	39.7
Malaysia	<5.0	<5.0	27.7	24.9	16.6	16.4	8.2	8.0
Myanmar	52.4	14.2	44.4	46.3	12.9	12.7	1.3	1.6
Philippines	21.3	13.5	36.1	15.7	45.9	42.4	11.5	10.3
Singapore	18.5	22.2	2.4	3.8	0.8	1.4
Thailand	19.0	7.4	22.2	31.8	5.1	8.0	1.5	2.8
Timor-Leste	43.9	26.9	34.4	41.3
Viet Nam	28.1	11.0	27.9	24.2	15.1	16.6	0.7	1.0
Asia and the Pacific	16.4	9.1	27.1	29.6	20.8	22.8	8.1	9.3
Developed economies	<5.0	<5.0	18.6	18.9	4.1	2.6	1.2	0.5
Developing economies	17.3	9.4	27.5	30.0	21.9	24.1	8.5	9.9
East and North-East Asia	16.2	9.6	20.8	26.4	6.0	6.3	1.0	0.7
North and Central Asia	8.4	<5.0	27.1	27.7	8.5	9.9	0.8	1.0
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	18.5	14.9	42.4	40.7	25.0	28.6	11.0	13.4
South-East Asia	22.9	9.6	32.4	28.1	19.6	20.0	4.9	5.3

Source: Columns 1 & 2: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017); Columns 3 & 4: World Bank, World Development Indicators. Available at: <http://www.data.worldbank.org> (Accessed December 2017); Columns 5 & 6: Data provided by FAO Statistics Division, August 2016.

Note:

The table includes one complementary indicator on the prevalence of anemia among women of reproductive age.

^a Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained for Columns 1 and 2 weighted by magnitudes given in SDG Indicators Global Database.

^b Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained for Columns 3 and 4 weighted by population of women of reproductive age (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/> (Accessed 1 January 2018)).

^c Sub-regional aggregate estimates provided by FAO Statistics Division (ESS) staff.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 2.2: Selected SDG 2 indicators: Prevalence of stunting among children

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

Target 2.2: By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons

	Prevalence of stunting, low height for age (% of children under 5), by sex ^a						Residence			
	Earliest Year			Latest Year			Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Male	Female
Developed economies										
Australia
Japan	7.6	6.5	(2010)
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China	18.5	17.1	(2000–2001)	9.9	8.9	(2010)
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	47.2	41.9	(2002)	29.9	25.8	(2012)
Mongolia	31.4	28.1	(2000)	16.4	14.7	(2010)	8.3	7.7	14.0	13.8
Republic of Korea	2.4	2.5	(2003)	2.4	2.7	(2008–2011)
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	18.2	17.0	(2000–2001)	21.7	19.9	(2010)	19.7	14.6	20.9	23.3
Azerbaijan	24.4	23.8	(2000)	18.2	17.7	(2013)	23.8	15.9	29.1	30.3
Georgia	15.8	13.5	(2005)	12.3	10.2	(2009)	12.4	8.8	15.2	15.4
Kazakhstan	17.9	16.9	(2006)	13.2	13.0	(2010–2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	18.7	17.5	(2005–2006)	19.9	15.5	(2012)	19.6	15.7	20.0	15.3
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	35.4	30.7	(2005)	26.7	26.8	(2012)	20.1	22.5	27.1	28.1
Turkmenistan		20.7	17.0	(2006)	15.5	11.4	16.7	14.7
Uzbekistan	26.2	24.3	(2002)	19.5	19.7	(2006)
Pacific										
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	8.0	6.9	(2004)
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	47.4	39.6	(2005)	50.9	47.9	(2009–2011)
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga		9.1	...	(2012)
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	31.2	20.0	(2007)
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan	60.0	58.5	(2004)
Bangladesh	58.8	55.5	(2000)	39.6	37.8	(2013)	30.3	31.2	38.8	36.9
Bhutan	37.7	31.8	(2008)	33.6	33.7	(2010)	25.6	27.0	32.8	33.5
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	32.6	31.0	(2001)	21.6	19.0	(2009)	18.0	13.3	21.1	19.0
Nepal	57.1	57.1	(2001)	41.3	39.5	(2011)	27.5	24.8	43.2	41.1
Pakistan	42.2	40.8	(2001)	48.4	41.7	(2012–2013)	39.1	35.2	51.7	44.7
Sri Lanka	17.0	19.9	(2000)	14.8	14.6	(2012)
Turkey	14.7	16.6	(2004)	10.9	8.0	(2013–2014)
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam	22.8	16.7	(2009)
Cambodia	49.6	48.9	(2000)	42.3	39.4	(2010–2011)	25.5	22.0	34.3	33.4
Indonesia	43.7	41.0	(2000)	37.2	35.5	(2013)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	49.8	46.7	(2000)	45.5	42.1	(2011–2012)	28.2	24.6	48.1	45.7
Malaysia	17.2	17.2	(2006)
Myanmar	42.1	39.5	(2000)	36.7	33.4	(2009–2010)	15.6	15.9	22.3	22.5
Philippines	35.5	31.9	(2003)	31.5	29.1	(2013–2014)
Singapore	4.9	3.9	(2000)
Thailand	16.5	15.0	(2005–2006)	16.4	16.3	(2012)
Timor-Leste	58.4	52.9	(2002)	53.1	47.2	(2013)	52.0	46.2	62.7	58.6
Viet Nam	44.2	42.5	(2000)	23.4	23.2	(2010–2011)
Asia and the Pacific	28.1	26.5	(2002)	22.8	20.6	(2011)	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—		—	—		—	—	—	—
Developing economies	29.1	27.4	(2002)	23.5	21.2	(2011)	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	18.7	17.2	(2002)	10.1	9.1	(2011)	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	11.6	10.7	(2002)	8.6	8.5	(2011)	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—		—	—		—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	38.7	38.4	(2002)	36.7	33.4	(2011)	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	38.6	36.1	(2002)	32.8	31.0	(2011)	—	—	—	—

Source:

Columns 1–4: World Bank, World Development Indicators. Available at <http://data.worldbank.org> (Accessed August 2016).

Columns 5–22: Estimates from Demographic Health Survey (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) micro datasets of countries or territories in Asia and the Pacific. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/> and <http://mics.unicef.org/> (Accessed July 2016).

Indicator 2.2.1: Prevalence of stunting (height for age < -2 standard deviation from the median of the World Health Organization (WHO) Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age

[illegible]

Note:

^a Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained from country data weighted by under-five population (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>). (Accessed 1 January 2018).

^b Estimates from DHS may not match with the WHO Global Database, which were adjusted for cross country comparability.

^c Information on mother's education not available for all children.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 2.3: Selected SDG 2 indicators: Prevalence of wasting among children

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

Target 2.2: By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons

	Prevalence of wasting, low weight for height (% of children under 5) ^a						Residence			
	Earliest Year			Latest Year			Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Male	Female
Developed economies										
Australia
Japan		2.9	1.7	(2010)
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China	2.8	2.1	(2000)	2.4	2.1	(2010)
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	9.3	8.1	(2002)	4.1	3.8	(2012)
Mongolia	7.3	6.9	(2000)	1.5	2.0	(2010)	1.1	0.7	1.3	0.7
Republic of Korea	0.9	1.0	(2003)	1.3	0.6	(2010)
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	2.6	2.5	(2000–2001)	4.9	3.3	(2010)	3.6	2.8	6.2	4.0
Azerbaijan	9.3	8.6	(2000)	4.0	2.0	(2013)	6.3	5.2	9.2	6.3
Georgia	3.0	3.0	(2005)	1.8	1.5	(2009)	2.7	1.9	2.4	2.5
Kazakhstan	5.3	4.5	(2006)	4.4	3.7	(2010)
Kyrgyz Republic	3.5	3.2	(2005–2006)	2.9	2.7	(2012)	3.7	2.8	2.6	2.5
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	9.0	8.3	(2005)	9.9	9.9	(2012)	10.6	9.1	9.7	10.4
Turkmenistan		7.9	6.2	7.6	5.7
Uzbekistan	8.7	9.1	(2002)	5.3	3.7	(2006)
Pacific										
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	4.7	8.2	(2004)
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	4.8	4.0	(2005)	14.9	13.7	(2010–2011)
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga		5.4	...	2009–2011
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	6.2	5.5	(2007)
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan	7.9	9.3	(2004)
Bangladesh	16.4	13.4	(2000)	18.2	18.0	(2013)	11.8	12.7	16.2	14.0
Bhutan	5.1	4.4	(2008)	6.2	5.5	(2010)	5.8	6.6	5.8	4.8
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	14.3	12.2	(2001)	13.5	10.2	(2009)	6.8	7.5	12.3	11.8
Nepal	12.4	10.3	(2001)	12.3	10.0	(2011)	11.5	5.3	12.1	10.7
Pakistan	15.1	13.2	(2001)	11.1	9.8	(2012–2013)	13.3	6.2	11.0	11.5
Sri Lanka	16.5	14.3	(2000)	22.3	20.5	(2012)
Turkey	1.5	0.6	(2003–2004)	1.4	2.1	(2013–2014)
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam	2.7	3.0	(2009)
Cambodia	18.0	15.8	(2000)	11.2	10.5	(2010–2011)	7.9	7.0	10.1	9.6
Indonesia	6.4	4.6	(2000)	14.2	12.7	(2013)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	18.8	16.1	(2000)	6.9	5.8	(2011–2012)	6.0	4.6	6.4	5.3
Malaysia
Myanmar	11.5	9.9	(2000)	8.7	7.1	(2009–2010)	5.6	5.3	6.6	6.1
Philippines	6.5	5.5	(2003)	7.5	7.1	(2011)
Singapore	3.8	3.3	(2000)
Thailand	4.6	4.8	(2005–2006)	7.4	6.1	(2012)
Timor-Leste	15.9	11.4	(2002)	12.9	9.0	(2013)	16.1	13.6	21.6	17.9
Viet Nam	7.1	5.1	(2000)	4.6	4.2	(2010)
Asia and the Pacific	6.3	5.1	(2002)	6.5	5.8	(2011)	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—		—	—		—	—	—	—
Developing economies	6.5	5.3	(2002)	6.8	6.0	(2011)	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	2.9	2.2	(2002)	2.4	2.1	(2011)	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	3.5	3.4	(2002)	2.4	2.0	(2011)	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—		—	—		—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	11.7	10.1	(2002)	10.8	10.3	(2011)	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	7.1	5.6	(2002)	9.9	8.8	(2011)	—	—	—	—

Source:

Columns 1–4: World Bank, World Development Indicators. Available at <http://data.worldbank.org> (Accessed August 2016).

Columns 5–22: Estimates from Demographic Health Survey (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) micro datasets of countries or territories in Asia and the Pacific. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/> and <http://mics.unicef.org/> (Accessed July 2016).

Indicator 2.2.2: Prevalence of malnutrition (weight for height $>+2$ or <-2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age, by type (wasting and overweight)

[illegible]

Note:

^a Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained from country data weighted by under-five population (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>. Accessed 1 January 2018).

^b Estimates from DHS may not match the WHO Global Database, which was adjusted for cross country comparability.

^c Information on mother's education not available for all children.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 2.4: Selected SDG 2 indicators: Prevalence of overweight among children

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

Target 2.2: By 2030, end all forms of malnutrition, including achieving, by 2025, the internationally agreed targets on stunting and wasting in children under 5 years of age, and address the nutritional needs of adolescent girls, pregnant and lactating women and older persons

	SD Prevalence of overweight, high weight for height (% of children under 5), by sex ^a						Residence			
	Earliest Year			Latest Year			Urban		Rural	
	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Male	Female
Developed economies										
Australia
Japan		1.9	1.1	(2010)
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China	3.9	2.8	(2000)	7.5	5.6	(2010)
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	0.7	1.1	(2002)
Mongolia	13.2	12.2	(2000)	8.2	5.1	(2010)	12.8	13.6	10.4	10.0
Republic of Korea	8.1	4.2	(2003)	8.2	5.1	(2011)
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	19.8	10.9	(2011)	18.8	14.6	(2010)	17.5	12.1	15.8	15.9
Azerbaijan	6.7	5.7	(2000)	14.9	12.7	(2006)	15.3	12.6	12.1	11.5
Georgia	21.2	20.7	(2005)	21.3	18.3	(2009)	22.5	24.0	24.0	25.4
Kazakhstan	17.5	16.4	(2006)	14.8	11.8	(2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	12.7	8.6	(2006)	9.8	8.2	(2012)	8.5	7.6	9.5	7.9
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	7.2	6.2	(2005)	6.9	6.3	(2012)	5.7	5.4	6.2	5.7
Turkmenistan		5.2	7.1	2.7	4.9
Uzbekistan	11.5	10.7	(2002)	13.1	12.5	(2006)
Pacific										
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	5.4	4.8	(2004)
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	4.2	2.5	(2005)	14.4	13.0	(2011)
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	5.4	4.0	(2007)
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan	6.3	2.6	(2004)
Bangladesh	1.0	0.8	(2000)	1.6	1.5	(2014)	1.6	2.1	1.4	1.1
Bhutan	4.8	4.0	(2008)	7.5	7.6	(2010)	14.5	12.2	12.3	11.3
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	3.6	4.2	(2001)	7.9	6.4	(2009)	5.5	9.4	6.1	4.6
Nepal	0.6	0.7	(2001)	1.5	1.6	(2011)	1.2	2.3	1.3	1.4
Pakistan	4.8	4.8	(2001)	4.7	4.8	(2012)	2.9	4.8	3.2	2.8
Sri Lanka	0.8	1.2	(2000)	0.7	0.4	(2012)
Turkey	10.6	7.5	(2004)	11.7	9.9	(2014)
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam		8.9	7.8	(2009)
Cambodia	4.1	3.9	(2000)	2.7	1.8	(2014)	3.2	2.9	2.1	1.3
Indonesia	1.7	1.3	(2000)	11.8	11.3	(2013)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2.4	2.9	(2000)	1.9	2.1	(2011)	7.1	5.8	4.6	5.9
Malaysia
Myanmar	2.2	2.6	(2000)	2.7	2.6	(2010)
Philippines	2.7	2.2	(2003)	5.4	4.6	(2014)
Singapore	3.1	2.0	(2000)
Thailand	8.8	7.2	(2006)	10.1	11.6	(2012)
Timor-Leste	5.0	6.5	(2002)	1.5	1.4	(2013)	4.4	4.1	4.5	5.1
Viet Nam	2.5	2.6	(2000)	5.5	3.8	(2011)
Asia and the Pacific	3.5	2.8	(2002)	6.3	5.3	(2011)	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—		—	—		—	—	—	—
Developing economies	3.7	2.9	(2002)	6.5	5.4	(2011)	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	4.0	2.8	(2002)	7.4	5.5	(2011)	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	5.8	5.2	(2002)	6.0	5.3	(2011)	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—		—	—		—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	3.6	3.0	(2002)	4.0	3.5	(2011)	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	2.6	2.3	(2002)	7.8	7.3	(2011)	—	—	—	—

Source:

Columns 1–4: World Bank, World Development Indicators. Available at <http://data.worldbank.org> (Accessed August 2016).

Columns 5–22: Estimates from Demographic Health Survey (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) micro datasets of countries or territories in Asia and the Pacific. Available at <https://dhsprogram.com/> and <http://mics.unicef.org/> (Accessed July 2016).

Indicator 2.2.2: Prevalence of malnutrition (weight for height $>+2$ or <-2 standard deviation from the median of the WHO Child Growth Standards) among children under 5 years of age, by type (wasting and overweight)

[illegible]

Note:

^a Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained from country data weighted by under-five population (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>. Accessed 1 January 2018).

^b Estimates from DHS may not match the WHO Global Database, which was adjusted for cross country comparability.

^c Information on mother's education not available for all children.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 3.1: Selected SDG 3 indicators: Maternal mortality

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

Target 3.1: By 2030, reduce the global maternal mortality ratio to less than 70 per 100,000 live births

Indicator 3.1.1: Maternal mortality ratio

Indicator 3.1.2: Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel

	CORE Maternal mortality ratio per 100,000 live births [lower to upper limit] ^{a, b}				CORE Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel ^b				Direct survey estimates of proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel ^b											
	Earliest Year (2000)		Latest Year (2015)		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Residence		Education		Wealth Quintile					Survey (Year)	Number of interviewed women	
									Urban	Rural	Secondary or higher	No education or primary	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5			
Developed economies																				
Australia	9	[8–10]	6	[5–7]	99.3	d (2000)	99.3	d (2013)				
Japan	10	[9–11]	5	[4–7]	99.8	d (2000)	99.8	d (2014)				
New Zealand	12	[10–14]	11	[9–14]	97.3	d (2000)	96.6	d (2014)				
East and North-East Asia																				
People's Republic of China	58	[52–65]	27	[22–32]	96.6	d (2000)	99.9	d (2014)				
Hong Kong, China		100.0	c (2005)				
Macau, China		100.0	c (2004)				
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	128	[63–262]	82	[37–190]	96.7	d (2000)	100.0	d (2009)				
Mongolia	161	[140–186]	44	[35–55]	96.6	d (2000)	98.9	c (2014)	99.5	98.9	98.1	99.4	99.6	99.2	100.0	MICS3 (2005)	7,459	
Republic of Korea	16	[14–18]	11	[9–13]	99.9	d (2000)	100.0	d (2015)			
North and Central Asia																				
Armenia	40	[35–46]	25	[21–31]	96.8	d (2000)	99.8	d (2016)	99.8	99.0	99.4	100.0	99.1	98.8	100.0	99.4	100.0	DHS (2010)	5,922	
Azerbaijan	48	[42–55]	25	[17–35]	80.7	d (2000)	99.9	d (2014)	96.5	79.5	88.1	86.0	76.2	83.7	89.5	97.3	99.6	DHS (2006)	8,444	
Georgia	37	[30–44]	36	[28–47]	95.5	d (2000)	99.9	d (2014)	98.9	97.6	95.1	99.0	98.8	99.4	98.5	MICS3 (2005)	9,847	
Kazakhstan	65	[57–75]	12	[10–15]	98.3	d (2000)	100.0	d (2014)	99.8	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.2	99.8	MICS3 (2006)	14,570	
Kyrgyz Republic	74	[64–84]	76	[59–96]	98.6	d (2000)	98.4	d (2014)	99.5	99.0	99.2	...	99.2	99.6	98.8	98.6	99.7	DHS (2012)	8,208	
Russian Federation	57	[50–64]	25	[18–33]	99.2	d (2000)	99.7	d (2014)			
Tajikistan	68	[58–80]	32	[19–51]	70.7	d (2000)	90.3	d (2014)	92.9	84.7	87.3	77.4	73.1	84.4	88.6	92.2	95.3	DHS (2012)	9,656	
Turkmenistan	59	[41–80]	42	[20–73]	97.2	d (2000)	99.5	d (2006)	98.2	96.6	97.3	93.9	96.8	97.7	96.2	97.3	98.3	DHS (2000)	7,919	
Uzbekistan	34	[30–39]	36	[20–65]	94.9	d (2000)	100.0	d (2014)	100.0	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.7	100.0	100	MICS3 (2006)	13,919	
Pacific																				
American Samoa		100.0	c (2002)			
Cook Islands		98.0	d (2000)	100.0	d (2009)			
Fiji	42	[33–53]	30	[23–41]	96.9	d (2000)	99.7	d (2013)			
French Polynesia		99.0	c (2000)			
Guam		99.4	c (2001)			
Kiribati	166	[113–241]	90	[51–152]	85.0	d (2000)	98.3	d (2010)			
Marshall Islands		86.2	d (2007)	90.1	d (2011)			
Micronesia, Fed. States of	153	[77–298]	100	[46–211]	82.8	d (2000)	100.0	d (2009)			
Nauru		97.4	d (2007)			
New Caledonia			
Niue		100.0	d (2000)	100.0	d (2011)			
Northern Mariana Islands		99.6	c (2000)			
Palau		100.0	d (2000)	100.0	d (2015)			
Papua New Guinea	342	[177–682]	215	[98–457]	39.0	d (2004)	53.0	d (2006)			
Samoa	93	[48–181]	51	[24–115]	80.0	d (2000)	82.5	d (2014)			
Solomon Islands	214	[146–321]	114	[75–175]	85.5	d (2007)			
Tonga	97	[50–190]	124	[57–270]	95.0	d (2000)	95.5	d (2012)			
Tuvalu		100.0	d (2000)	93.1	d (2007)			
Vanuatu	144	[73–276]	78	[36–169]	88.0	d (2000)	89.4	d (2013)			
South and South-West Asia																				
Afghanistan	1,100	[745–1570]	396	[253–620]	14.3	d (2003)	50.5	d (2015)			
Bangladesh	399	[322–496]	176	[125–280]	12.1	d (2000)	42.1	d (2014)	50.0	21.4	41.8	14.3	9.4	15.3	23.7	37.4	61.1	DHS (2011)	17,842	
Bhutan	423	[328–538]	148	[101–241]	23.7	d (2000)	81.0	d (2012)			
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	51	[43–60]	25	[21–31]	89.6	d (2000)	96.4	d (2010)			
Maldives	163	[120–221]	68	[45–108]	70.3	c (2001)	95.5	c (2012)			
Nepal	548	[412–713]	258	[176–425]	11.9	d (2000)	55.6	d (2014)	72.7	32.3	62.6	23.1	10.7	23.7	35.9	53.0	81.5	DHS (2011)	12,674	
Pakistan	306	[208–446]	178	[111–283]	23.0	d (2002)	52.1	d (2013)	71.0	44.4	80.9	42.1	29.8	38.1	51.2	68.9	85.2	DHS (2012–2013)	13,558	
Sri Lanka	57	[52–63]	30	[26–38]	96.0	d (2000)	98.6	d (2007)			
Turkey	79	[59–108]	16	[12–21]	83.0	d (2003)	97.4	d (2014)	90.3	68.9	97.4	78.3	58.4	80.6	91.8	96.0	99.2	DHS (2003)	8,075	
South-East Asia																				
Brunei Darussalam	31	[25–39]	23	[15–30]	99.5	d (2009)	100.0	d (2015)			
Cambodia	484	[396–596]	161	[117–213]	31.8	d (2000)	89.0	d (2014)	97.8	87.6	97.0	85.0	75.2	87.0	92.7	96.5	98.4	DHS (2014)	17,578	
Indonesia	265	[213–324]	126	[93–179]	66.3	d (2003)	87.4	d (2013)	91.8	74.6	91.4	67.3	57.5	81.8	89.7	93.2	96.6	DHS (2012)	45,607	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	546	[417–720]	197	[136–307]	16.7	d (2000)	40.1	d (2012)			
Malaysia	58	[50–66]	40	[32–53]	96.6	d (2000)	99.0	d (2014)			
Myanmar	308	[234–408]	178	[121–284]	57.0	d (2001)	60.2	d (2016)			
Philippines	124	[110–138]	114	[87–175]	58.0	d (2003)	72.8	d (2013)	83.2	63.6	80.7	46.3	42.2	71.0	83.8	92.4	96.2	DHS (2013)	16,155	
Singapore	18	[15–22]	10	[6–17]	99.7	d (2000)	99.6	d (2015)			

	CORE Maternal mortality ratio per 100,000 live births [lower to upper limit] ^{a, b}				CORE Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel ^b				Direct survey estimates of proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel ^b										
	Earliest Year (2000)		Latest Year (2015)		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Residence		Education		Wealth Quintile					Survey (Year)	Number of interviewed women
									Urban	Rural	Secondary or higher	No education or primary	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5		
Thailand	25	[22–28]	20	[14–32]	99.3	d (2000)	99.6	d (2012)	99.4	96.5	92.7	97.8	97.5	99.0	99.8	MICS3 (2005–2006)	36,960
Timor-Leste	694	[517–925]	215	[150–300]	24.0	d (2002)	29.3	d (2010)	59.1	20.7	49.6	17.7	10.6	14.2	21.5	37.5	69	DHS (2009–2010)	13,137
Viet Nam	81	[61–102]	54	[41–74]	58.8	d (2000)	93.8	d (2014)	98.3	84.5	52.8	86.9	94.9	100.0	99.4	MICS3 (2006)	9,473
Asia and the Pacific	178	[136–228]	86	[60–129]	71.0	(2000)	84.9	(2015)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developed economies	183	[140–236]	89	[62–133]	70.1	(2000)	84.5	(2015)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developing economies	10	[9–11]	6	[4–7]	99.6	(2000)	99.6	(2015)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
East and North-East Asia	59	[51–69]	27	[22–35]	96.7	(2000)	99.9	(2015)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
North and Central Asia	54	[46–62]	28	[19–42]	95.3	(2000)	99.1	(2015)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Pacific	292	[154–564]	187	[88–391]	51.6	(2000)	61.5	(2015)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South and South-West Asia	352	[258–476]	163	[107–259]	33.4	(2000)	59.6	(2015)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South-East Asia	203	[161–241]	110	[81–160]	64.8	(2000)	84.4	(2015)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		

Source:

Columns 1–4: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Columns 5–13: Estimates sourced from results of Demographic and Health Surveys through STATCOMPILER <http://statcompiler.com/en/> and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys through compiler <http://www.micscompiler.org/>.

Note:

^a Low and High estimates in brackets constitute the 95% confidence interval for the point estimate.

^b Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained from country data weighted by average number of births (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>. Accessed 1 January 2018).

^c World Bank.

^d UNSD SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 3.2a: Selected SDG 3 indicators: Under-five mortality

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

Target 3.2: By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births

Indicator 3.2.1: Under-five mortality rate and Survey-based under-five mortality rate

	SD	Under-five mortality rate ^a		Direct survey-based estimates of under-five mortality rate ^b										
	Earliest Year (2000)	Latest Year (2015)	Sex		Residence		Wealth Quintile					Survey (Year)		
			Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5			
Developed economies														
Australia	6.2	3.8		
Japan	4.5	2.7		
New Zealand	7.4	5.7		
East and North-East Asia														
People's Republic of China	36.9	10.7		
Hong Kong, China		
Macau, China		
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	60.0	24.9		
Mongolia	62.7	22.4	55	46	31	69	60	c	...	30	c MICS3 (2005)	
Republic of Korea	6.1	3.4		
North and Central Asia														
Armenia	30.1	14.1	21	22	18	26	25	29	17	14	21	41	DHS (2010)	
Azerbaijan	74.0	31.7	65	50	52	64	63	72	60	49	41	41	DHS (2006)	
Georgia	35.7	11.9	39	32	24	45	44	c	...	22	d MICS3 (2005)	
Kazakhstan	43.6	14.1	42	30	30	43	43	c	...	24	d MICS3 (2006)	
Kyrgyz Republic	48.7	21.3	32	34	33	33	36	34	40	...	27	28	DHS (2012)	
Russian Federation	23.2	9.6		
Tajikistan	93.0	44.8	51	46	42	50	58	56	50	36	38	38	DHS (2012)	
Turkmenistan	81.6	51.4	100	76	73	100	106	99	86	80	70	70	DHS (2000)	
Uzbekistan	63.2	39.1	66	47	51	59	63	c	...	46	d MICS3 (2006)	
Pacific														
American Samoa		
Cook Islands	16.8	8.1		
Fiji	24.5	22.4		
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati	70.6	55.9		
Marshall Islands	41.4	36.0		
Micronesia, Fed. States of	53.9	34.7		
Nauru	41.2	35.4		
New Caledonia		
Niue	23.2	23.0		
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau	26.8	16.4		
Papua New Guinea	78.5	57.3		
Samoa	21.7	17.5		
Solomon Islands	33.1	28.1		
Tonga	17.6	16.7		
Tuvalu	42.6	27.1		
Vanuatu	28.5	27.5		
South and South-West Asia														
Afghanistan	137.0	91.1		
Bangladesh	88.0	37.6	52	56	46	56	62	60	56	51	37	37	DHS (2014)	
Bhutan	79.6	32.9		
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	34.7	15.5		
Maldives	44.4	8.6		
Nepal	80.6	35.8	63	62	45	64	75	66	64	59	36	36	DHS (2011)	
Pakistan	112.3	81.1	98	96	74	106	119	115	98	84	48	48	DHS (2011)	
Sri Lanka	16.3	9.8		
Turkey	39.6	13.5		
South-East Asia														
Brunei Darussalam	9.4	10.2		
Cambodia	108.3	28.7	54	41	18	52	76	56	41	33	19	19	DHS (2014)	
Indonesia	52.3	27.2	48	37	34	52	70	43	39	34	23	23	DHS (2012)	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	117.7	66.7		
Malaysia	10.2	7.0		
Myanmar	82.3	50.0		
Philippines	39.7	28.0	34	31	25	38	52	33	22	23	17	17	DHS (2013)	
Singapore	4.0	2.7		
Thailand	22.5	12.3	9	13	12	13	16	c	...	5	d MICS3 (2005–2006)	
Timor-Leste	110.2	52.6	85	76	61	87	87	94	89	81	52	52	DHS (2009–2010)	
Viet Nam	33.8	21.7	28	25	16	30	31	c	...	21	d MICS3 (2006)	
Asia and the Pacific	54.4	27.8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developed economies	7.1	4.9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developing economies	55.2	28.1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
East and North-East Asia	36.6	10.8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
North and Central Asia	42.9	20.4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Pacific	74.3	54.8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South and South-West Asia	87.3	53.8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South-East Asia	48.9	27.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		

Source:

Columns 1 & 2: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed July 2017).

Columns 3–11: Estimates from results of the Demographic Health Surveys (DHS) through StatCompiler. Available at: <http://www.statcompiler.com/en/> (Accessed 15 August 2016).

Note:

^a Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained from country data and number of under-five deaths in SDG Indicators Global Database.

^b These estimates may not match the UNIGME estimates, which were adjusted for cross country comparability.

^c Poorest 60 per cent.

^d Richest 40 per cent.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 3.2b: Additional indicators related to SDG 3: Infant mortality

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

Target 3.2: By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births

Indicator 3.2.1: Under-five mortality rate

	Infant mortality rate ^a		Direct survey-based estimates of infant mortality rate ^b										
	Earliest Year (2000)	Latest Year (2015)	Sex		Residence		Wealth Quintile					Survey (Year)	
			Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5		
Developed economies													
Australia	5.1	3.0	
Japan	3.3	2.0	
New Zealand	6.1	4.7	
East and North-East Asia													
People's Republic of China	30.2	9.2	
Hong Kong, China	
Macau, China	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	44.5	19.7	
Mongolia	48.2	19.0	45	36	25	52	46	c	25	d MICS3 (2005)
Republic of Korea	5.2	2.9	
North and Central Asia													
Armenia	26.6	12.6	17	20	16	22	21		21	17	12	20	DHS (2010)
Azerbaijan	60.6	27.9	55	43	46	52	52		60	52	40	37	DHS (2006)
Georgia	31.2	10.6	34	28	21	39	38	c	20	d MICS3 (2005)
Kazakhstan	37.5	12.6	37	27	27	37	37	c	21	d MICS3 (2006)
Kyrgyz Republic	41.6	19.0	28	27	23	29	33		31	35	22	16	DHS (2012)
Russian Federation	19.7	8.2	
Tajikistan	74.3	38.5	41	36	35	39	45		43	40	30	30	DHS (2012)
Turkmenistan	66.1	43.7	83	60	60	80	89		79	68	62	58	DHS (2000)
Uzbekistan	52.7	33.9	56	40	44	50	53	c	40	d MICS3 (2006)
Pacific													
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	14.4	6.9	
Fiji	20.8	19.1	
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati	53.2	43.6	
Marshall Islands	33.5	29.6	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	42.2	28.6	
Nauru	33.3	29.1	
New Caledonia	
Niue	19.7	19.6	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau	22.9	14.2	
Papua New Guinea	58.3	44.5	
Samoa	18.5	15.0	
Solomon Islands	27.4	23.6	
Tonga	15.1	14.4	
Tuvalu	34.3	22.8	
Vanuatu	23.8	23.1	
South and South-West Asia													
Afghanistan	95.4	66.3	
Bangladesh	64.4	30.7	43	44	41	45	52		50	43	43	29	DHS (2014)
Bhutan	59.0	27.2	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	28.6	13.4	
Maldives	35.6	7.4	
Nepal	59.6	29.4	54	52	38	55	61		56	55	53	32	DHS (2011)
Pakistan	87.7	65.8	82	79	63	88	90		97	85	75	44	DHS (2012–2013)
Sri Lanka	14.0	8.4	40	25	34	32	
Turkey	32.1	11.6	39	36	31	52	63		44	31	25	17	DHS (2003)
South-East Asia													
Brunei Darussalam	7.6	8.6	
Cambodia	80.4	24.6	44	33	13	42	62		44	33	27	16	DHS (2014)
Indonesia	41.1	22.8	39	28	26	40	52		35	33	28	17	DHS (2012)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	83.2	50.7	
Malaysia	8.7	6.0	
Myanmar	60.7	39.5	
Philippines	29.9	22.2	25	22	19	28	36		22	17	21	13	DHS (2013)
Singapore	3.1	2.1	
Thailand	19.1	10.5	8	12	10	12	14	c	4	d MICS3 (2005–2006)
Timor-Leste	86.3	44.7	59	53	42	61	62		68	59	56	38	DHS (2009–2010)
Viet Nam	26.1	17.3	23	21	14	24	24	c	17	d MICS3 (2006)
Asia and the Pacific	42.0	22.6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Developed economies	5.7	4.1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Developing economies	42.8	23.0	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
East and North-East Asia	29.7	9.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
North and Central Asia	35.6	17.8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Pacific	55.0	42.5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
South and South-West Asia	65.9	43.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
South-East Asia	37.6	22.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	

Source:

Columns 1 & 2: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Columns 3–11: Demographic Health Surveys (DHS) StatCompiler. Available at: <http://www.statcompiler.com/en/> (Accessed 15 August 2016).

Note:

^a Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained from country data and number of under-five deaths in SDG Indicators Global Database.

^b These estimates may not match the UNIGME estimates, which were adjusted for cross country comparability.

^c Poorest 60 per cent.

^d Richest 40 per cent.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 3.3: Selected SDG 3 indicators: Neo-natal mortality

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

Target 3.2: By 2030, end preventable deaths of newborns and children under 5 years of age, with all countries aiming to reduce neonatal mortality to at least as low as 12 per 1,000 live births and under-5 mortality to at least as low as 25 per 1,000 live births

Indicator 3.2.2: Neo-natal mortality rate and Survey-based estimates of Neo-natal mortality rate

	SD	Neonatal mortality rate ^a		Direct survey-based estimates of neo-natal mortality rate ^b									
		Earliest Year (2000)	Latest Year (2015)	Sex		Residence		Wealth Quintile					Survey (Year)
				Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	
Developed economies													
Australia		3.5	2.2	
Japan		1.8	0.9	
New Zealand		3.5	3.1	
East and North-East Asia													
People's Republic of China		21.2	5.5	
Hong Kong, China		
Macau, China		
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		27.3	13.5	
Mongolia		25.7	11.1	
Republic of Korea		2.4	1.6	
North and Central Asia													
Armenia		15.9	7.4	9	10	9	10	9	14	7	10	7	DHS (2010)
Azerbaijan		33.4	18.2	37	19	34	23	19	35	30	32	29	DHS (2006)
Georgia		21.0	7.2	
Kazakhstan		20.1	7.0	33	24	25	31	37	21	35	18	32	DHS (1999)
Kyrgyz Republic		21.8	11.5	19	18	16	20	22	16	25	18	11	DHS (2012)
Russian Federation		12.5	5.0	
Tajikistan		30.1	20.5	21	18	18	20	18	25	22	18	15	DHS (2012)
Turkmenistan		30.6	22.6	37	29	32	33	45	26	39	20	36	DHS (2000)
Uzbekistan		29.0	20.4	24	19	23	21	27	16	16	22	29	DHS (1996)
Pacific													
American Samoa		
Cook Islands		9.1	4.4	
Fiji		13.9	9.6	
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati		28.9	23.7	
Marshall Islands		18.5	16.7	
Micronesia, Fed. States of		25.7	18.8	
Nauru		24.8	22.7	
New Caledonia		
Niue		12.5	12.5	
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau		14.6	9.0	
Papua New Guinea		30.1	24.5	
Samoa		11.7	9.5	
Solomon Islands		14.4	12.2	
Tonga		7.6	6.9	
Tuvalu		25.3	17.6	
Vanuatu		12.2	11.6	
South and South-West Asia													
Afghanistan		45.2	35.5	
Bangladesh		42.6	23.3	33	31	29	33	42	32	34	30	20	DHS (2014)
Bhutan		32.7	18.3	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)		19.2	9.5	
Maldives		25.7	4.9	18	15	20	15	12	20	21	10	18	DHS (2009)
Nepal		39.3	22.2	37	33	25	36	37	40	39	37	19	DHS (2011)
Pakistan		60.4	45.5	61	54	47	62	62	67	63	55	34	DHS (2012–2013)
Sri Lanka		10.1	5.4	
Turkey		20.1	7.1	22	20	18	27	28	24	20	19	10	DHS (2003)
South-East Asia													
Brunei Darussalam		4.9	4.3	
Cambodia		36.1	14.8	22	20	10	23	27	23	24	18	12	DHS (2014)
Indonesia		22.3	13.5	24	15	15	24	28	21	23	15	9	DHS (2012)
Lao People's Democratic Republic		43.3	30.1	
Malaysia		5.3	3.9	
Myanmar		37.3	26.4	34	29	18	36	35	46	29	22	17	DHS (2015–2016)
Philippines		16.8	12.6	13	14	9	18	19	13	8	15	9	DHS (2013)
Singapore		1.6	1.0	
Thailand		12.7	6.7	
Timor-Leste		37.4	22.3	28	24	21	28	24	30	29	25	22	DHS (2009–2010)
Viet Nam		15.7	11.4	18	17	9	19	26	20	14	12	11	DHS (2012)
Asia and the Pacific													
Developed economies													
Developing economies													
East and North-East Asia													
North and Central Asia													
Pacific													
South and South-West Asia													
South-East Asia													

Source:

Columns 1 & 2: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Columns 3–11: Demographic Health Surveys (DHS) StatCompiler. Available at: <http://www.statcompiler.com/en/> (Accessed 15 August 2016).

Note:

^a Sub-regional aggregate estimates obtained from country data and number of under-five deaths in SDG Indicators Global Database.

^b These estimates may not match the UNIGME estimates, which were adjusted for cross country comparability.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 3.4: Selected SDG 3 indicators: New HIV infections

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

Target 3.3: By 2030, end the epidemic of AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria, and neglected tropical diseases and combat hepatitis, water-borne diseases and other communicable diseases

Indicator 3.3.1: Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex, age and key populations

	Number of new HIV infections per 1,000 uninfected population, by sex				HIV Incidence in 15–49 year olds (per 1,000) [lower to upper limit] ^{a,b}							
	Earliest Year (2000)		Latest Year (2015)		Earliest Year (2000)				Latest Year (2015)			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		Female		Male		Female	
Developed economies												
Australia	0.10	0.01	0.09	0.01	0.18	[0.18–0.18]	0.02	[0.02–0.02]	0.18	[0.18–0.18]	0.02	[0.02–0.02]
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia												
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.01	<0.01	c [0.01–0.01]	<0.01	c [0.01–0.01]	0.06	c [0.01–0.01]	0.01	c [0.01–0.01]
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia												
Armenia	0.21	0.05	0.23	0.05	0.39	c [0.13–1.22]	0.09	c [0.03–0.27]	0.40	c [0.26–0.84]	0.09	c [0.06–0.19]
Azerbaijan	0.07	0.03	0.17	0.07	0.12	c [0.05–0.21]	0.05	c [0.02–0.09]	0.28	c [0.16–0.45]	0.12	c [0.07–0.19]
Georgia	0.10	0.05	0.52	0.06	0.18	c [0.14–0.23]	0.09	c [0.07–0.12]	0.88	c [0.61–1.24]	0.12	c [0.09–0.17]
Kazakhstan	0.10	0.02	0.29	0.13	0.18	c [0.15–0.22]	0.04	c [0.03–0.04]	0.49	c [0.37–0.66]	0.23	c [0.17–0.31]
Kyrgyz Republic	0.07	0.03	0.24	0.08	0.12	c [0.09–0.15]	0.05	c [0.04–0.07]	0.41	c [0.27–0.65]	0.15	c [0.1–0.24]
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	0.21	0.12	0.24	0.14	0.42	c [0.29–0.58]	0.24	c [0.16–0.33]	0.42	c [0.3–0.64]	0.24	c [0.17–0.36]
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	0.50	0.15	0.02	0.01	0.92	c [0.76–1.06]	0.27	c [0.22–0.31]	0.03	c [0.02–0.05]	0.01	c [0.01–0.02]
Pacific												
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	0.77	0.98	0.32	0.40	1.22	c [1.03–1.39]	1.64	c [1.39–1.87]	0.46	c [0.38–0.55]	0.63	c [0.53–0.76]
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia												
Afghanistan	0.02	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.04	[0.03–0.07]	0.02	[0.01–0.03]	0.08	[0.04–0.24]	0.03	[0.02–0.1]
Bangladesh	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	<0.01	c [0.01–0.01]	<0.01	c [0.01–0.01]	0.01	c [0.01–0.01]	<0.01	c [0.01–0.01]
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	0.11	0.06	0.12	0.06	0.19	c [0.13–0.28]	0.09	c [0.06–0.14]	0.19	c [0.12–0.44]	0.09	c [0.06–0.22]
Maldives
Nepal	0.45	0.20	0.07	0.03	0.87	c [0.76–0.99]	0.37	c [0.32–0.42]	0.11	c [0.1–0.13]	0.05	c [0.04–0.06]
Pakistan	0.02	0.01	0.13	0.06	0.03	c [0.02–0.05]	0.01	c [0.01–0.02]	0.22	c [0.01–0.4]	0.09	c [0.01–0.17]
Sri Lanka	0.01	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.02	c [0.01–0.06]	<0.01	c [0.01–0.03]	0.07	c [0.01–0.14]	0.03	c [0.01–0.06]
Turkey
South-East Asia												
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	0.71	0.92	0.05	0.05	1.19	c [1.06–1.32]	1.62	c [1.44–1.8]	0.08	c [0.07–0.09]	0.08	c [0.07–0.09]
Indonesia	0.11	0.03	0.36	0.22	0.19	c [0.16–0.21]	0.06	c [0.05–0.07]	0.63	c [0.54–0.72]	0.36	c [0.31–0.41]
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia	1.03	0.06	0.31	0.04	1.77	c [1.6–1.95]	0.11	c [0.09–0.12]	0.48	c [0.43–0.53]	0.07	c [0.06–0.07]
Myanmar	1.28	0.44	0.33	0.15	2.28	c [1.99–2.58]	0.74	c [0.65–0.83]	0.57	c [0.49–0.65]	0.25	c [0.22–0.29]
Philippines	0.01	0.01	0.12	0.01	0.02	c [0.01–0.04]	<0.01	c [0.01–0.02]	0.22	c [0.01–1.18]	0.02	c [0.01–0.1]
Singapore
Thailand	0.51	0.52	0.16	0.06	0.82	c [0.72–0.92]	0.84	c [0.74–0.95]	0.29	c [0.25–0.35]	0.12	c [0.1–0.14]
Timor-Leste
Viet Nam	0.55	0.13	0.22	0.09	0.99	c [0.86–1.12]	0.23	c [0.2–0.26]	0.39	c [0.33–0.45]	0.16	c [0.14–0.19]
Asia and the Pacific					0.23	[0.21–0.25]	0.10	[0.09–0.11]	0.29	[0.23–0.37]	0.13	[0.10–0.17]
Developed economies					—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies					0.24	[0.22–0.26]	0.11	[0.10–0.12]	0.30	[0.24–0.38]	0.14	[0.11–0.18]
East and North-East Asia					—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia					0.52	[0.48–0.56]	0.20	[0.19–0.22]	1.85	[1.77–1.94]	0.78	[0.74–0.81]
Pacific					—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia					0.09	[0.07–0.09]	0.04	[0.03–0.04]	0.12	[0.10–0.13]	0.05	[0.04–0.06]
South-East Asia					0.63	[0.58–0.69]	0.28	[0.25–0.30]	0.46	[0.37–0.59]	0.22	[0.17–0.28]

Source:

All Columns: Data provided by UNAIDS, September 2016.

Note:

^a Low and High estimates in brackets constitute the 95% confidence interval for the point estimate.

^b Estimates prepared by UNAIDS staff.

^c Countries where HIV estimates are available but not necessarily published.

^d Aggregate for Pacific not reported despite it meeting the aggregate criteria since only Papua New Guinea data is reported for the Pacific region.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 3.5: Selected SDG 3 indicators: Mortality from non-communicable diseases and suicide mortality

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

Target 3.4: By 2030, reduce by one third premature mortality from non-communicable diseases through prevention and treatment and promote mental health and well-being

Indicator 3.4.1: Mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease

Indicator 3.4.2: Suicide mortality rate

	SD Mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease ^a				SD Suicide mortality rate, by sex ^b			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Earliest Year (2000)		Latest Year (2015)		Earliest Year (2000)		Latest Year (2015)	
Developed economies								
Australia	16.0	9.9	10.8	7.1	21.0	5.8	17.2	6.3
Japan	15.5	7.5	11.7	5.9	35.5	13.8	27.3	12.4
New Zealand	18.8	13.0	12.0	8.9	20.6	4.7	18.9	6.6
East and North-East Asia								
People's Republic of China	25.5	19.3	20.9	15.2	9.6	12.5	8.7	11.5
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	38.0	20.7	34.8	19.0	21.4	16.8	16.3	15.4
Mongolia	42.6	33.9	38.1	22.1	43.2	11.0	47.8	9.1
Republic of Korea	22.6	10.7	11.8	4.9	20.3	9.3	46.0	18.1
North and Central Asia								
Armenia	34.2	20.7	29.8	17.6	6.4	1.8	8.8	2.4
Azerbaijan	37.4	22.7	30.6	17.3	4.2	0.9	5.3	1.2
Georgia	32.6	17.0	30.5	14.9	10.3	2.2	11.5	2.3
Kazakhstan	53.5	29.4	38.8	19.8	65.6	12.5	46.8	9.6
Kyrgyz Republic	39.3	23.8	31.9	17.0	20.4	4.3	11.7	3.2
Russian Federation	50.9	25.0	41.7	18.5	68.6	12.4	35.8	6.5
Tajikistan	35.8	24.9	31.6	19.8	6.4	1.9	5.8	2.2
Turkmenistan	41.9	27.6	44.1	25.5	13.9	3.4	15.2	5.1
Uzbekistan	35.7	24.2	32.9	21.4	11.5	4.0	13.3	5.5
Pacific								
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	41.6	29.9	37.6	24.9	12.2	5.3	12.8	4.1
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	35.8	25.6	33.5	23.4	22.5	7.1	22.5	6.3
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of	29.6	25.2	28.7	23.1	13.5	7.7	15.3	7.0
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	41.9	35.3	39.8	32.6	15.8	5.8	15.1	5.3
Samoa	36.5	21.2	28.5	15.2	13.7	4.1	8.9	2.4
Solomon Islands	29.8	27.4	28.5	24.2	15.6	7.6	11.3	4.4
Tonga	31.4	22.9	30.4	18.4	3.9	3.5	4.1	2.9
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	28.9	23.6	25.8	18.6	12.5	4.9	8.7	2.8
South and South-West Asia								
Afghanistan	35.1	33.2	31.7	30.4	7.8	1.7	8.3	2.6
Bangladesh	22.2	23.6	22.6	20.4	5.9	8.2	4.6	6.5
Bhutan	28.3	32.6	21.5	25.1	15.2	10.8	13.7	9.4
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	22.3	23.1	15.1	14.5	9.7	8.1	4.3	2.8
Maldives	22.3	19.9	15.5	9.3	16.2	12.8	10.7	6.6
Nepal	30.0	24.6	24.1	19.7	9.4	8.1	6.5	5.5
Pakistan	25.3	24.2	25.9	23.5	3.1	2.1	2.2	2.0
Sri Lanka	26.4	17.3	22.4	13.4	55.4	17.5	58.7	13.6
Turkey	29.8	16.0	22.5	11.6	18.7	8.2	12.9	4.7
South-East Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	23.2	19.0	14.2	10.9	1.5	0.6	1.6	0.9
Cambodia	27.7	25.2	25.9	21.3	13.8	9.4	16.0	8.1
Indonesia	29.3	24.9	30.2	22.9	4.4	1.8	4.2	1.5
Lao People's Democratic Republic	32.8	28.2	28.3	23.5	17.9	10.5	15.4	9.2
Malaysia	22.6	17.4	20.7	13.6	8.3	3.4	8.6	2.9
Myanmar	24.9	23.0	27.0	22.3	4.2	2.8	5.4	3.2
Philippines	32.8	23.2	34.7	22.4	3.7	1.5	5.0	1.7
Singapore	20.9	12.6	12.8	7.5	15.4	8.4	13.6	6.4
Thailand	23.4	15.8	20.6	12.0	13.6	7.8	22.6	9.5
Timor-Leste	26.5	26.1	21.8	19.5	14.1	7.2	9.5	4.6
Viet Nam	24.7	13.5	23.6	11.7	10.2	3.4	11.2	3.7
Asia and the Pacific	30.1	20.8	25.3	17.2	30.3	11.5	20.2	10.4
Developed economies	15.6	8.0	11.6	6.2	34.0	13.2	26.0	11.9
Developing economies	30.9	21.3	25.8	17.5	29.8	11.4	19.4	10.3
East and North-East Asia	25.8	19.2	21.1	15.1	11.0	12.5	14.9	11.9
North and Central Asia	49.4	25.0	40.2	18.9	64.7	11.4	35.0	6.6
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	25.9	23.0	23.5	20.1	20.4	8.6	22.0	5.9
South-East Asia	27.8	22.1	28.3	20.2	9.0	4.9	12.4	5.4

Source:

All Columns: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

^a Sub-regional estimates obtained as weighted averages of mortality rates using country data and number of deaths from cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease number of suicides (available in SDG Global Indicators Database).

^b Sub-regional estimates obtained as weighted averages of mortality rates using country data and number of suicides (available in SDG Global Indicators Database).

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 3.6a: Reproductive health services and mortality due to unsafe WASH

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

Target 3.7: By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes

Target 3.9: By 2030, substantially reduce the number of deaths and illnesses from hazardous chemicals and air, water and soil pollution and contamination

Indicator 3.7.1: Proportion of women of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods

Indicator 3.7.2: Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group

Indicator 3.9.2: Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene (exposure to unsafe Water, Sanitation and Hygiene for All (WASH) services)

	CORE Proportion of women married or in a union of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods ^{a, b}				CORE Adolescent birth rate per 1,000 adolescent women aged 15–19 ^b				SD Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Latest Year (2012)
Developed economies									
Australia		17.8	(2000)	12.6	(2014)	<0.1
Japan		5.1	(2005)	4.4	(2014)	0.1
New Zealand		27.9	(2000)	19.0	(2015)	0.6
East and North-East Asia									
People's Republic of China	96.6	(2001)	...		8.0	(2000)	5.9	(2010)	0.4
Hong Kong, China		5.0	(2000)	3.0	(2014)	...
Macau, China		5.3	(2000)	2.9	(2011)	...
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	...		89.8	(2014)	...		0.7	(2008)	1.4
Mongolia	79.3	(2003)	68.3	(2013)	27.6	(2000)	26.7	(2014)	3.1
Republic of Korea		2.6	(2000)	1.6	(2014)	0.2
North and Central Asia									
Armenia	28.4	(2000)	40.2	(2016)	30.0	(2004)	22.7	(2013)	1.1
Azerbaijan	17.8	c (2001)	21.5	(2006)	38.0	(2000)	54.3	(2015)	2.1
Georgia	30.8	c (2000)	52.8	c (2010)	48.0	(2004)	46.5	(2014)	0.2
Kazakhstan	...		79.6	(2011)	33.0	(2000)	31.0	(2015)	1.2
Kyrgyz Republic	...		62.1	(2012)	34.7	(2000)	65.0	(2013)	1.8
Russian Federation	...		72.4	c (2011)	27.4	(2000)	24.0	(2015)	0.2
Tajikistan	...		50.8	(2012)	37.3	(2000)	54.0	(2011)	7.5
Turkmenistan	70.9	(2000)	75.6	(2016)	26.1	(2000)	21.0	(2006)	5.8
Uzbekistan		25.5	(2006)	29.5	(2010)	2.4
Pacific									
American Samoa		55.7	(2000)	44.8	(2011)	...
Cook Islands		47.0	(2001)	56.0	(2011)	0.0
Fiji		34.8	(2002)	27.5	(2008)	3.0
French Polynesia		51.1	(2000)	39.6	(2013)	...
Guam		57.1	(2001)	54.1	(2013)	...
Kiribati	...		35.8	(2009)	42.0	(2000)	49.0	(2010)	15.9
Marshall Islands	80.5	(2007)	...		71.9	(2002)	82.2	(2011)	7.6
Micronesia, Fed. States of	57.3	(2000)	59.6	(2017)	57.9	(2000)	32.6	(2010)	9.7
Nauru	42.5	(2007)	...		113.8	(2000)	105.3	(2011)	0.0
New Caledonia		28.7	(2000)	23.0	(2012)	...
Niue		34.9	(2001)	14.3	(2009)	0.0
Northern Mariana Islands		59.5	(2000)	53.4	(2010)	...
Palau		25.9	(2000)	27.0	(2010)	4.8
Papua New Guinea	40.6	(2007)	...		70.0	(2000)	65.0	(2004)	12.4
Samoa	34.9	(2009)	39.4	(2014)	33.6	(2001)	39.2	(2011)	3.7
Solomon Islands	60.0	(2007)	...		82.0	(2000)	62.0	(2008)	10.4
Tonga	...		47.9	(2012)	18.7	(2000)	30.0	(2011)	4.8
Tuvalu	41.0	(2007)	...		48.9	(2000)	42.0	(2007)	0.0
Vanuatu	...		50.7	(2013)	65.6	(2009)	78.0	(2011)	7.3
South and South-West Asia									
Afghanistan	...		42.1	(2016)	146.0	(2003)	51.9	(2011)	34.6
Bangladesh	60.7	(2000)	72.5	(2014)	134.0	(2000)	113.0	(2013)	6.0
Bhutan	...		84.6	(2010)	61.7	(2000)	28.4	(2012)	7.1
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	...		68.6	(2011)	34.7	(2000)	37.7	(2013)	0.9
Maldives	...		42.7	(2009)	28.9	(2000)	13.7	(2012)	0.6
Nepal	52.8	(2001)	56.0	(2011)	106.0	(2003)	71.0	(2013)	12.9
Pakistan	33.3	(2001)	47.0	(2013)	55.0	(2004)	44.0	(2011)	20.7
Sri Lanka	56.2	(2000)	69.4	(2007)	30.8	(2000)	20.3	(2008)	3.4
Turkey	53.5	(2004)	59.7	(2013)	51.0	(2001)	29.0	(2012)	0.8
South-East Asia									
Brunei Darussalam		31.8	(2000)	11.4	(2014)	0.0
Cambodia	33.1	(2000)	56.4	(2014)	47.0	(2004)	57.0	(2013)	5.6
Indonesia	77.1	(2003)	78.8	(2015)	54.0	(2000)	48.0	(2010)	3.6
Lao People's Democratic Republic	40.3	(2000)	61.3	(2012)	96.0	(2000)	94.0	(2010)	13.9
Malaysia		15.3	(2001)	12.7	(2012)	0.4
Myanmar	58.5	(2001)	75.0	(2016)	22.7	(2000)	22.0	(2013)	10.4
Philippines	46.6	(2003)	51.5	(2013)	55.0	(2001)	57.0	(2012)	5.1

	CORE Proportion of women married or in a union of reproductive age (aged 15–49 years) who have their need for family planning satisfied with modern methods ^{a, b}				CORE Adolescent birth rate per 1,000 adolescent women aged 15–19 ^b				Mortality rate attributed to unsafe water, unsafe sanitation and lack of hygiene
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Latest Year (2012)
Singapore		8.0 (2002)		2.7 (2015)		0.1
Thailand	94.8	(2006)	89.2	(2012)	33.1 (2000)		60.0 (2012)		1.9
Timor-Leste	62.3	(2003)	38.3	(2010)	78.3 (2001)		50.0 (2010)		10.3
Viet Nam	66.6	(2002)	69.7	(2014)	25.0 (2000)		36.0 (2013)		2.0
Asia and the Pacific	—		—		11.8 (2002)		8.6 (2012)		3.2
Developed economies	—		—		7.9 (2002)		11.3 (2012)		0.1
Developing economies	—		—		12.3 (2002)		8.9 (2012)		3.3
East and North-East Asia	—		—		7.5 (2002)		4.7 (2012)		0.4
North and Central Asia	—		69.1	(2012)	28.5 (2002)		28.0 (2012)		1.1
Pacific	—		—		58.3 (2002)		54.2 (2012)		10.6
South and South-West Asia	60.7	(2002)	71.1	(2012)	59.9 (2002)		48.3 (2012)		11.0
South-East Asia	70.0	(2002)	71.4	(2012)	30.5 (2002)		32.1 (2012)		4.0

Source:

Columns 1–4: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017); Column 5: Global Health Estimates 2013: Deaths by Cause, Age and Sex, by Country, 2000–2012. Geneva, World Health Organization (WHO), 2014. Available at: http://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/estimates/en/index1.html (Accessed 30 June 2016).

Note:

^a Coverage of population refers to women aged 20–49 years; Sub-regional estimates obtained from country data weighted by number of women of reproductive age (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>. Accessed 1 January 2018).

^b Sub-regional estimates obtained from country data weighted by population covered (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>. Accessed 1 January 2018).

^c Proportion of women covered are of ages 15–44 years only; sub-regional estimates obtained from country data weighted by number of women of reproductive age (<https://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/DataQuery/>. Accessed 1 January 2018).

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 3.6b: Selected SDG 3 indicators: Age-specific fertility rate

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

Target 3.7: By 2030, ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programmes

Indicator 3.7.2: Adolescent birth rate (aged 10–14 years; aged 15–19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group

	Age-specific fertility rate for the three years preceding the survey for age group 15–19, per 1,000 women												
	Residence		Education		Wealth Quintile					Ratio of rural to urban	Ratio of primary or no education to secondary or more	Ratio of poorest quintile to richest quintile	Survey
	Urban	Rural	No education or primary	Secondary or higher	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5				
Developed economies													
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia													
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia													
Armenia	18	42	40	27	50	31	23	20	12	2.3	1.5	4.2	2010 DHS
Azerbaijan	20	49	63	32	35	58	36	28	9	2.5	2.0	3.9	2006 DHS
Georgia
Kazakhstan	36	44	0	40	46	35	46	50	21	1.2	0.0	2.2	1999 DHS
Kyrgyz Republic	23	59	0	45	59	58	62	44	18	2.6	0.0	3.3	2012 DHS
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	52	54	95	51	42	49	63	52	61	1.0	1.9	0.7	2012 DHS
Turkmenistan	36	26	0	30	28	26	30	35	33	0.7	0.0	0.8	2000 DHS
Uzbekistan	60	62	0	62	56	54	77	70	45	1.0	0.0	1.2	1996 DHS
Pacific													
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia													
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	98	120	145	102	146	119	117	102	96	1.2	1.4	1.5	2014 DHS
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	6	12	32	9	11	12	13	6	8	2.0	3.6	1.4	2009 DHS
Nepal	42	87	152	49	103	105	95	72	32	2.1	3.1	3.2	2011 DHS
Pakistan	27	53	67	19	67	65	43	30	18	2.0	3.5	3.7	2012–13 DHS
Sri Lanka	34	32	0.9	1987 DHS
Turkey	44	47	76	13	67	32	50	34	49	1.1	5.8	1.4	2003 DHS
South-East Asia													
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	21	66	92	39	90	67	64	48	33	3.1	2.4	2.7	2014 DHS
Indonesia	32	70	97	34	93	72	45	35	13	2.2	2.9	7.2	2012 DHS
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines	52	63	139	49	89	73	68	48	24	1.2	2.8	3.7	2013 DHS
Singapore
Thailand	25	61	68	16	2.4	4.3	...	1987 DHS
Timor-Leste	35	57	89	34	60	51	74	48	30	1.6	2.6	2.0	2009–10 DHS
Viet Nam	11	24	57	11	2.2	5.2	...	2002 DHS
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: Demographic Health Survey (DHS) StatCompiler. Available at: <http://www.statcompiler.com/en/> (Accessed August 2016).

Note:

... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.
0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 4.1: Selected SDG 4 indicators: Proficiency in reading and mathematics

Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Target 4.1: By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.

Indicator 4.1.1: Proportion of children and young people: (a) in grades 2/3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex

	CORE						CORE						CORE						CORE					
	Proportion of children at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in mathematics						Proportion of children at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in reading						Proportion of children at the end of primary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in mathematics						Proportion of children at the end of primary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in reading					
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	2011		2012		2015		2012		2015		2011		2015		2011		2015		2011		2011		2011	
Developed economies																								
Australia	89.4	c, h	88.8	c, h	81.7	d, g	78.9	d, g	77.9	78.1	81.0	d, g	90.9	d, g	77.2	86.7	91.0	e, a	90.6	e, a	91.1	e, a
Japan	96.5	c, h	97.5	c, h	89.1	d, j	88.8	d, j	90.2	88.4	86.9	d, j	93.9	d, j	85.1	89.2	98.7	e, c	99.2	e, c
New Zealand	85.6	c, h	82.4	c, h	78.2	d, i	76.4	d, i	78.3	78.4	79.0	d, i	88.7	d, i	77.8	87.6	84.7	e, a	85.7	e, a	90.1	e, a
East and North-East Asia																								
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China	96.7	c, h	97.5	c, h	91.5	d, f	91.5	d, f	90.3	91.8	90.9	d, f	96.0	d, f	87.4	94.1	99.0	e, a	99.4	e	98.9	e, a
Macau, China	88.4	d, f	90.1	d	92.0	94.8	83.5	d, f	93.9	d, f	83.5	93.2
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea	98.2	c, h	98.9	c, h	90.8	d, f	90.9	d, f	82.3	87.0	89.6	d, f	95.5	d, f	80.8	92.4	99.6	e, c	99.7	e, c
North and Central Asia																								
Armenia	73.8	c, h	79.1	c, h	70.4	e, c	72.8	e, c
Azerbaijan	33.2	d, f	52.6	d, f	70.4	e, a	72.6	e, a	79.9	e, a
Georgia	61.8	c, h	62.3	c, h	40.1	46.0	37.1	60.9	70.9	e, a	74.9	e, a	83.4	e, a
Kazakhstan	84.9	c, h	85.9	c, h	54.5	d, f	55.0	d, f	89.7	91.9	33.2	d, f	52.6	d, f	87.2	e, c	88.9	e, c	96.4	96.5
Kyrgyz Republic
Russian Federation	94.3	c, h	95.5	c, h	75.4	d, f	76.7	d, f	81.6	80.6	70.4	d, f	85.0	d, f	79.4	88.0	96.6	e, a	97.1	e, a	98.2	98.3	98.7	e, a
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific																								
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia																								
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	55.4	c, h	54.0	c, h	61.9	64.9	63.8	e, a	65.0	e, a	71.9	e, a
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Turkey	65.5	c, h	67.7	c, h	59.2	d, k	56.8	d	69.0	71.0	69.1	d, k	87.8	d	76.5	e, c	78.2	e, c	80.9	82.0
South-East Asia																								
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
Indonesia	40.3	c, h	46.5	c, h	25.4	d, f	23.1	d	30.4	32.3	37.4	d, f	52.3	d	38.0	51.2	61.4	e, b
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia	59.7	c, h	71.0	c, h	45.9	d, f	50.4	d	73.5	78.1	37.1	d, f	56.8	d
Myanmar
Philippines
Singapore	98.3	c, h	99.5	c, h	90.3	d, h	93.3	d	98.6	99.3	86.6	d, h	93.8	d	98.7	e, a	99.0	e, a	95.7	e, a
Thailand	55.6	c, h	66.8	c, h	45.9	d, f	53.7	d	45.3	46.9	51.4	d, f	79.3	d	40.9	57.0	73.4	e, c	81.4	e, c
Timor-Leste
Viet Nam	85.8	d, f	85.7	d	79.2	82.5	86.0	d, f	94.6	d	80.9	91.2

	CORE						CORE				CORE				CORE	
	Proportion of children at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in mathematics						Proportion of children at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in reading				Proportion of children at the end of primary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in mathematics				Proportion of children at the end of primary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in reading	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	2011		2012		2015		2012		2015		2011		2015		2011	
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

^a Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)/Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS).

^b PIRLS.

^c TIMSS.

^d Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).

^e Grade 4.

^f Grade 9.

^g Grade 11.

^h Grade 8.

ⁱ Grade 10.

^j Unknown Grade.

^k Grade 7.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 4.2: Selected SDG 4 indicators: Participation in organized early childhood learning

Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Target 4.2: By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education

Indicator 4.2.2: Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex

	CORE Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age)^a							
	Earliest Year				Latest Year			
	Male	Year	Female	Year	Male	Year	Female	Year
Developed economies								
Australia	51.9	(2001)	53.2	(2001)	86.7	(2015)	86.9	(2015)
Japan	
New Zealand	90.1	(2000)	89.1	(2000)	98.4	(2015)	94.9	(2015)
East and North-East Asia								
People's Republic of China	
Hong Kong, China	91.7	(2002)	93.5	(2002)	100.0	(2011)	98.3	(2011)
Macau, China	89.4	(2000)	86.7	(2000)	93.2	(2015)	93.6	(2015)
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	94.0	(2009)	94.5	(2009)	
Mongolia	89.4	(2012)	51.9	(2000)	89.4	(2012)	89.3	(2012)
Republic of Korea	49.8	(2005)	...		90.5	(2015)	90.1	(2015)
North and Central Asia								
Armenia	
Azerbaijan	15.6	(2000)	16.1	(2000)	27.3	(2015)	28.0	(2015)
Georgia	47.0	(2004)	53.3	(2004)	49.7	(2007)	57.1	(2007)
Kazakhstan	74.8	(2001)	76.5	(2001)	87.1	(2016)	94.6	(2016)
Kyrgyz Republic	41.3	(2000)	42.9	(2000)	68.0	(2015)	70.5	(2015)
Russian Federation	87.6	(2008)	87.7	(2008)	95.4	(2015)	95.1	(2015)
Tajikistan	8.7	(2003)	7.9	(2003)	15.7	(2016)	14.0	(2016)
Turkmenistan	
Uzbekistan	36.1	(2008)	37.1	(2008)	31.2	(2016)	31.1	(2016)
Pacific								
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	96.8	(2013)	100.0	(2013)	87.2	(2015)	100.0	(2015)
Fiji	47.1	(2004)	50.2	(2004)	48.8	(2006)	50.6	(2006)
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati	
Marshall Islands	61.9	(2002)	62.4	(2002)	62.3	(2015)	70.3	(2015)
Micronesia, Fed. States of		79.7	(2015)	72.9	(2015)
Nauru	100.0	(2007)	78.5	(2007)	61.6	(2014)	82.3	(2014)
New Caledonia	
Niue		23.2	(2015)	100.0	(2015)
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau		100.0	(2014)	81.1	(2014)
Papua New Guinea	
Samoa	34.9	(2000)	43.5	(2000)	30.1	(2015)	31.0	(2015)
Solomon Islands		65.8	(2015)	66.3	(2015)
Tonga	
Tuvalu		94.0	(2015)	100.0	(2015)
Vanuatu	
South and South-West Asia								
Afghanistan	
Bangladesh	29.6	(2009)	30.6	(2009)	60.3	(2011)	59.6	(2011)
Bhutan	4.7	(2000)	4.5	(2000)	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	27.3	(2003)	30.4	(2003)	47.6	(2015)	46.6	(2015)
Maldives	69.1	(2000)	70.0	(2000)	99.3	(2016)	100.0	(2016)
Nepal	73.9	(2011)	82.2	(2011)	84.8	(2016)	82.5	(2016)
Pakistan	59.0	(2004)	56.1	(2004)	100.0	(2015)	87.2	(2015)
Sri Lanka	
Turkey	28.8	(2004)	28.0	(2004)	69.1	(2015)	66.9	(2015)
South-East Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	100.0	(2006)	97.5	(2006)	100.0	(2015)	99.1	(2015)
Cambodia	12.7	(2000)	13.1	(2000)	41.6	(2015)	43.9	(2015)
Indonesia	80.0	(2005)	78.5	(2005)	100.0	(2014)	98.6	(2014)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	9.1	(2000)	9.8	(2000)	51.5	(2015)	53.0	(2015)
Malaysia	74.7	(2002)	79.3	(2002)	97.7	(2015)	99.3	(2015)
Myanmar	5.1	(2006)	5.0	(2006)	22.5	(2014)	23.4	(2014)
Philippines	24.1	(2001)	23.8	(2001)	41.4	(2009)	43.0	(2009)
Singapore	
Thailand	98.2	(2006)	100.0	(2006)	100.0	(2015)	90.7	(2015)
Timor-Leste	55.3	(2013)	61.9	(2013)	69.2	(2015)	77.4	(2015)
Viet Nam		100.0	(2015)	97.4	(2015)
Asia and the Pacific	—		—		—		—	
Developed economies	—		—		—		—	
Developing economies	—		—		—		—	
East and North-East Asia	—		—		—		—	
North and Central Asia	—		—		—		—	
Pacific	—		—		—		—	
South and South-West Asia	—		—		—		—	
South-East Asia	—		—		—		—	

Source:
All Columns: UNSD SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:
^a Sub-regional estimates are not provided due to unavailability of population weights.
... = data not available.

Table 4.3a: Selected SDG 4 indicators: Gender parity in participation and achievement in education

Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Target 4.5: By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations

Indicator 4.5.1: Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status, indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated

	CORE Gender parity index* for participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age)		CORE Gender parity index* for achievement in reading by the end of primary		CORE Gender parity index* for achievement in mathematics by the end of primary		CORE Gender parity index* for achievement in mathematics by the end of lower secondary		CORE Gender parity index* for achievement in reading by the end of lower secondary	
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Latest Year	Latest Year	Latest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year ^b	Latest Year ^c	Latest Year ^c	Latest Year ^c
Developed economies										
Australia	1.02 (2001)	1.00 (2015)	1.04 (2011)		1.00 (2011)		0.99 (2011)	1.00 (2015)	1.12 (2015)	
Japan		1.01 (2011)		1.01 (2011)	1.00 (2015)	1.05 (2015)	
New Zealand	0.99 (2000)	1.00 (2015)	1.04 (2011)		1.01 (2011)		0.96 (2011)	1.00 (2015)	1.13 (2015)	
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China	
Hong Kong, China	1.02 (2002)	0.98 (2011)	1.01 (2011)		1.00 (2011)		1.01 (2011)	1.01 (2015)	1.08 (2015)	
Macau, China	0.97 (2000)	1.00 (2015)		1.02 (2012)	1.03 (2015)	1.12 (2015)	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	1.01 (2009)	
Mongolia	1.06 (2000)	1.00 (2012)	
Republic of Korea	1.02 (2005)	0.99 (2015)	...		1.00 (2011)		1.01 (2011)	1.01 (2015)	1.14 (2015)	
North and Central Asia										
Armenia		1.03 (2011)		...	1.07 (2011)	...	
Azerbaijan	1.03 (2000)	1.02 (2015)	1.05 (2011)		1.03 (2011)		
Georgia	1.13 (2004)	1.00 (2006)	1.08 (2011)		1.06 (2011)		1.01 (2011)	1.04 (2015)	1.64 (2015)	
Kazakhstan	1.02 (2001)	1.09 (2016)	...		1.00 (2015)		1.01 (2011)	1.02 (2015)	1.58 (2012)	
Kyrgyz Republic	1.04 (2000)	1.04 (2015)	
Russian Federation	1.00 (2008)	1.00 (2015)	1.01 (2011)		1.00 (2015)		1.01 (2011)	0.98 (2015)	1.11 (2015)	
Tajikistan	0.91 (2003)	0.89 (2016)	0.98 (2015)	...	
Turkmenistan	
Uzbekistan	1.03 (2009)	1.00 (2016)	
Pacific										
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	1.03 (2013)	1.15 (2015)	
Fiji	1.07 (2004)	1.04 (2006)	
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati	
Marshall Islands	1.01 (2002)	1.13 (2015)	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	0.91 (2015)	
Nauru	0.78 (2007)	1.34 (2014)	
New Caledonia	
Niue	...	4.32 (2015)	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau	...	0.81 (2014)	
Papua New Guinea	
Samoa	1.24 (2000)	1.03 (2015)	
Solomon Islands	...	1.01 (2015)	
Tonga	
Tuvalu	...	1.06 (2015)	
Vanuatu	
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan	
Bangladesh	1.03 (2009)	0.99 (2011)	
Bhutan	0.95 (2000)	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	1.12 (2003)	0.98 (2015)	1.11 (2011)		1.02 (2011)		...	1.05 (2015)	...	
Maldives	1.01 (2000)	1.01 (2016)	
Nepal	1.11 (2011)	0.97 (2016)	
Pakistan	0.95 (2004)	0.87 (2015)	
Sri Lanka	
Turkey	0.97 (2004)	0.97 (2015)	...		1.01 (2015)		1.03 (2011)	1.03 (2015)	1.27 (2012)	
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam	0.97 (2006)	0.99 (2015)	
Cambodia	1.03 (2000)	1.06 (2015)	
Indonesia	0.98 (2005)	0.99 (2014)	1.15 (2011)		...		1.15 (2011)	1.06 (2015)	1.35 (2015)	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.07 (2000)	1.03 (2015)	
Malaysia	1.06 (2002)	1.02 (2015)		1.19 (2011)	1.06 (2015)	1.53 (2012)	
Myanmar	0.99 (2006)	1.04 (2014)	
Philippines	0.99 (2001)	1.04 (2009)	
Singapore	1.02 (2011)		1.00 (2011)		1.01 (2011)	1.01 (2015)	1.08 (2012)	
Thailand	1.02 (2006)	0.99 (2011)	...		1.11 (2011)		1.20 (2011)	1.19 (2015)	1.39 (2015)	
Timor-Leste	1.12 (2013)	1.12 (2015)	
Viet Nam	0.94 (2014)	0.97 (2015)		1.00 (2012)	1.04 (2015)	1.13 (2015)	
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	
Developed economies	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	
Developing economies	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	
North and Central Asia	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	
Pacific	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	
South-East Asia	—	—	—		—		—	—	—	

Source:

All Columns: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

* a Gender parity index is the ratio of the indicator value of females to the indicator value of males.

^b Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS).

^c Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA).

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 4.3b: Selected SDG 4 indicators: Gender parity in trained teachers

Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Target 4.5: By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations

Indicator 4.5.1: Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintile and others such as disability status, indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated

	CORE Gender parity index of teachers in lower secondary education who are trained		CORE Gender parity index of teachers in pre-primary education who are trained		CORE Gender parity index of teachers in primary education who are trained		CORE Gender parity index of teachers in upper secondary education who are trained	
	Earliest Year ^a	Latest Year ^a	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year
Developed economies								
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia								
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China	0.99 (2000)	1.02 (2015)
Macau, China	1.30 (2000)	1.04 (2015)	0.94 (2000)	0.98 (2015)	1.36 (2000)	1.03 (2015)	1.26 (2000)	1.03 (2015)
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia	1.00 (2000)	1.00 (2007)	1.00 (2000)	1.10 (2012)	1.00 (2000)	1.00 (2014)	1.00 (2000)	1.00 (2006)
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia								
Armenia	1.96 (2009)	0.80 (2015)	0.79 (2004)	3.47 (2005)
Azerbaijan	1.58 (2000)	0.91 (2015)	1.00 (2000)	1.00 (2014)
Georgia	3.45 (2000)	1.03 (2009)	1.00 (2000)	1.03 (2009)	0.98 (2000)	1.03 (2009)
Kazakhstan	1.00 (2014)	1.00 (2016)	1.00 (2014)	1.00 (2016)
Kyrgyz Republic	1.09 (2003)	0.96 (2011)	1.01 (2000)	0.99 (2012)
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	1.00 (2016)	0.97 (2010)	1.00 (2016)
Turkmenistan	1.00 (2016)
Uzbekistan	1.00 (2006)	1.00 (2011)	1.00 (2006)	1.00 (2011)
Pacific								
American Samoa
Cook Islands	0.69 (2011)	1.00 (2007)	0.95 (2014)
Fiji	...	1.00 (2012)	1.00 (2008)	1.00 (2012)	1.04 (2008)	1.00 (2012)
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	0.96 (2005)	0.98 (2014)	1.05 (2005)	1.03 (2008)	1.05 (2005)	1.05 (2008)
Marshall Islands	1.00 (2002)
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru	1.54 (2007)
New Caledonia
Niue	...	1.00 (2015)	1.00 (2015)
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	...	1.52 (2016)	1.76 (2016)
Papua New Guinea	...	1.00 (2012)	1.00 (2012)	...	1.00 (2012)
Samoa	1.00 (2014)	1.00 (2015)	1.00 (2014)
Solomon Islands	0.99 (2010)	1.02 (2015)	0.84 (2011)	1.01 (2014)	0.96 (2010)	0.93 (2012)	1.03 (2010)	1.12 (2015)
Tonga	1.00 (2013)	0.99 (2014)
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	1.04 (2013)	1.04 (2015)	...	0.99 (2015)	...	1.13 (2015)	...	0.66 (2015)
South and South-West Asia								
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	1.59 (2000)	1.44 (2013)	1.03 (2005)	1.03 (2015)	1.43 (2000)	0.95 (2013)
Bhutan	1.02 (2005)	1.00 (2016)	0.88 (2000)	1.00 (2016)	1.00 (2000)	1.00 (2006)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	1.00 (2004)	1.00 (2015)	0.99 (2001)	1.00 (2015)	1.00 (2013)	1.00 (2015)
Maldives	1.08 (2000)	1.01 (2014)	2.03 (2000)	42.50 (2013)	0.97 (2000)	0.97 (2014)	0.80 (2002)	...
Nepal	1.03 (2000)	1.01 (2016)	0.97 (2008)	1.79 (2016)	0.85 (2001)	1.00 (2016)	0.52 (2002)	0.98 (2015)
Pakistan	...	0.71 (2015)	0.70 (2004)	0.79 (2015)
Sri Lanka	...	0.98 (2015)	0.95 (2015)
Turkey
South-East Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	1.01 (2014)	1.03 (2015)	0.66 (2005)	0.66 (2015)	0.91 (2005)	1.07 (2015)	1.02 (2014)	1.02 (2015)
Cambodia	1.00 (2012)	1.00 (2015)	1.00 (2012)	1.00 (2015)	1.00 (2012)	1.00 (2015)	1.00 (2007)	...
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.00 (2000)	1.00 (2015)	1.00 (2000)	0.93 (2015)	1.24 (2000)	0.99 (2015)	1.02 (2000)	1.02 (2006)
Malaysia	0.99 (2011)	1.00 (2015)	0.98 (2001)	1.00 (2015)
Myanmar	0.96 (2000)	1.00 (2010)	1.72 (2006)	1.04 (2010)	1.00 (2000)	1.00 (2010)	1.00 (2000)	0.97 (2014)
Philippines	1.00 (2013)
Singapore	1.02 (2007)	1.03 (2009)	1.03 (2007)	1.02 (2009)	1.01 (2007)	1.04 (2009)
Thailand	...	1.00 (2015)	1.00 (2015)	...	1.00 (2015)
Timor-Leste
Viet Nam	1.06 (2000)	1.00 (2015)	1.15 (2014)	1.02 (2015)	1.10 (2000)	1.00 (2015)

	CORE Gender parity index of teachers in lower secondary education who are trained				CORE Gender parity index of teachers in pre-primary education who are trained				CORE Gender parity index of teachers in primary education who are trained				CORE Gender parity index of teachers in upper secondary education who are trained			
	Earliest Year ^a		Latest Year ^a		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year	
Asia and the Pacific	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Developed economies	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Developing economies	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
East and North-East Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
North and Central Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Pacific	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
South and South-West Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
South-East Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	

Source:

All Columns: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

Gender parity index is the ratio of the indicator value of females to the indicator value of males.

^a UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat (UOE) Surveys of Formal Education.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 4.4: Selected SDG 4 indicators: Teachers with organized teacher training

Goal 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all

Target 4.c: By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States

Indicator 4.c.1: Proportion of teachers in: (a) pre-primary; (b) primary; (c) lower secondary; and (d) upper secondary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (e.g. pedagogical training) pre-service or in-service required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country

	Proportion of teachers who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (e.g. pedagogical training) pre-service or in-service required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country																							
	Pre-primary						Primary education						Lower secondary						Upper secondary					
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year	
	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year
Developed economies																								
Australia	
Japan	
New Zealand	
East and North-East Asia																								
People's Republic of China	
Hong Kong, China		88.2	87.4 (2000)		94.8	96.6 (2015)		
Macau, China	100.0	93.6 (2000)		100.0	98.0 (2015)		63.5	86.3 (2000)		93.6	96.6 (2015)		51.1	66.3 (2000)		85.1	88.6 (2015)		53.7	67.7 (2000)		86.2	88.4 (2015)	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	
Mongolia	100.0	100.0 (2000)		85.1	93.8 (2012)		100.0	100.0 (2000)		100.0	100.0 (2014)		100.0	100.0 (2000)		100.0	100.0 (2007)		100.0	100.0 (2000)		100.0	100.0 (2006)	
Republic of Korea	
North and Central Asia																								
Armenia	0.0	97.4 (2002)		100.0	80.0 (2015)		84.5	66.5 (2004)		22.5	77.9 (2005)		
Azerbaijan	50.0	79.2 (2000)		100.0	91.1 (2015)		100.0	99.9 (2000)		99.6	99.6 (2014)		
Georgia	...	99.1 (2000)		...	96.6 (2003)		94.9	94.7 (2000)		91.9	95.0 (2009)		26.7	92.1 (2000)		91.9	95.0 (2009)		94.3	92.6 (2000)		92.7	95.2 (2009)	
Kazakhstan	100.0	100.0 (2014)		100.0	100.0 (2016)		100.0	100.0 (2014)		100.0	100.0 (2016)		
Kyrgyz Republic	...	32.1 (2000)		48.0	46.2 (2011)		46.1	46.4 (2000)		72.8	72.0 (2012)		
Russian Federation	
Tajikistan	...	91.3 (2001)		100.0	100.0 (2016)		95.0	91.8 (2010)		100.0	100.0 (2016)		
Turkmenistan	
Uzbekistan	100.0	100.0 (2006)		100.0	100.0 (2011)		100.0	100.0 (2006)		100.0	100.0 (2011)		
Pacific																								
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	0.0	66.7 (2005)		100.0	83.9 (2015)		79.3	79.2 (2007)		92.9	88.7 (2014)		
Fiji		97.9	97.8 (2008)		100.0	100.0 (2012)			100.0	100.0 (2012)		92.6	96.2 (2008)		100.0	100.0 (2012)	
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati		90.5	95.1 (2005)		83.2	85.9 (2008)		85.6	81.8 (2005)		87.7	86.0 (2014)		42.3	44.3 (2005)		32.9	34.6 (2008)	
Marshall Islands	100.0	100.0 (2002)		
Micronesia, Fed. States of	
Nauru	...	77.5 (2006)		0.0	84.2 (2007)		50.0	76.8 (2007)		
New Caledonia	
Niue	100.0 (2015)		100.0 (2015)			100.0	100.0 (2015)			100.0	100.0 (2015)	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau		42.9	65.0 (2016)		
Papua New Guinea		100.0	100.0 (2012)			100.0	100.0 (2012)			100.0	100.0 (2012)	
Samoa	100.0	100.0 (2014)		100.0	100.0 (2015)			100.0	100.0 (2014)	
Solomon Islands	71.1	59.9 (2011)		58.9	59.6 (2014)		59.2	56.5 (2010)		60.9	56.7 (2015)		70.9	70.5 (2010)		79.8	81.3 (2015)		70.4	72.1 (2010)		60.8	68.0 (2015)	
Tonga	100.0 (2012)		99.5	99.6 (2013)		97.7	96.8 (2014)		
Tuvalu	74.6 (2014)		
Vanuatu		46.3	46.0 (2015)			26.0	29.4 (2015)		65.6	68.4 (2013)		21.1	22.0 (2015)			23.8	15.7 (2015)	
South and South-West Asia																								
Afghanistan	
Bangladesh		52.8	54.4 (2005)		46.9	48.1 (2015)		34.1	54.3 (2000)		54.8	78.9 (2013)		21.2	30.3 (2000)		56.8	54.1 (2013)	
Bhutan	100.0	87.5 (2000)		100.0	100.0 (2016)		94.8	94.8 (2000)		100.0	100.0 (2016)		92.8	94.9 (2005)		100.0	100.0 (2016)		
Iran (Islamic Republic of)		99.1	97.8 (2001)		100.0	100.0 (2015)		100.0	100.0 (2004)		100.0	100.0 (2015)		100.0	100.0 (2013)		100.0	100.0 (2015)	
Maldives	24.0	48.7 (2000)		0.0	73.25 (2014)		67.7	65.7 (2000)		87.8	85.5 (2014)		74.6	80.7 (2000)		92.3	93.5 (2014)		58.9	47.2 (2002)		
Nepal	74.8	72.5 (2008)		51.7	92.5 (2016)		16.0	13.6 (2001)		96.9	97.2 (2016)		32.5	33.4 (2000)		89.0	89.7 (2016)		30.5	15.9 (2002)		83.4	81.4 (2015)	
Pakistan		90.2	63.3 (2004)		92.4	72.7 (2015)			75.7	54.1 (2015)		
Sri Lanka		74.3	70.8 (2015)			58.1	56.9 (2015)		
Turkey	
South-East Asia																								
Brunei	
Darussalam	95.8	63.1 (2005)		87.5	57.7 (2015)		90.2	82.1 (2005)		78.4	83.5 (2015)		93.1	94.3 (2014)		90.0	93.1 (2015)		89.1	91.1 (2014)		88.7	90.8 (2015)	
Cambodia	100.0	100.0 (2012)		100.0	100.0 (2015)		100.0	100.0 (2012)		100.0	100.0 (2015)		100.0	100.0 (2012)		100.0	100.0 (2015)		99.7	100.0 (2007)		
Indonesia	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	83.3	83.1 (2000)		95.1	88.8 (2015)		69.6	86.0 (2000)		98.7	98.1 (2015)		98.3	98.8 (2000)		99.4	99.6 (2015)		95.0	96.5 (2000)		90.4	92.3 (2006)	
Malaysia	99.7	98.5 (2011)		100.0	99.6 (2015)		99.0	96.7 (2001)		99.9	99.9 (2015)		
Myanmar	29.5	50.6 (2006)		56.3	58.6 (2010)		62.7	62.7 (2000)		99.9	99.9 (2010)		64.3	61.5 (2000)		98.4	98.4 (2010)		97.2	97.1 (2000)		97.2	94.7 (2014)	
Philippines		100.0	100.0 (2013)		
Singapore		93.9	96.6 (2007)		93.2	94.6 (2009)		93.3	95.0 (2007)		89.6	92.6 (2009)		94.1	95.5 (2007)		89.5	92.8 (2009)	
Thailand		100.0	100.0 (2015)			100.0	100.0 (2015)			100.0	100.0 (2015)	
Timor-Leste	
Viet Nam	...	50.5 (2000)		96.6	98.7 (2015)		74.5	81.6 (2000)		99.6	99.6 (2015)		82.6	87.9 (2000)		99.3	99.6 (2015)		

	SD Proportion of teachers who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (e.g. pedagogical training) pre-service or in-service required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country																							
	Pre-primary						Primary education						Lower secondary						Upper secondary					
	Earliest Year			Latest Year			Earliest Year			Latest Year			Earliest Year			Latest Year			Earliest Year			Latest Year		
	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year
Asia and the Pacific	—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—	
Developed economies	—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—	
Developing economies	—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—	
East and North-East Asia	—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—	
North and Central Asia	—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—	
Pacific	—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—	
South and South-West Asia	—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—	
South-East Asia	—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—		—	—	

Source:

All Columns: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

... = data not available.
 — indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.
 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 5.1: Complementary SDG 5 indicators: Gender discrimination and legal frameworks

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

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

	OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index (Proxy Indicator)							Does the constitution contain a clause on non-discrimination?	Can a married woman confer citizenship on her children in the same way as a married man?
	SIGI category 2014	SIGI value 2014	Discriminatory family code value	Restricted physical integrity value	Son bias Value	Restricted resource and assets value	Restricted civil liberties value		
Developed economies									
Australia	—	...	0.1021	0.0000	0.1951	No	Yes
Japan	—	...	0.2053	0.0000	0.5399	Yes	Yes
New Zealand	—	...	0.0527	0.0000	0.1951	Yes	Yes
East and North-East Asia									
People's Republic of China	Medium	0.1310	0.2885	0.1246	0.5578	0.4076	0.2812	No	Yes
Hong Kong, China	—	...	0.0805	0.4076	0.1951	No	Yes
Macau, China	—
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	—	...	0.2417	0.0000	0.6093
Mongolia	Very Low	0.0345	0.0226	0.2584	0.1582	0.2048	0.1951	Yes	Yes
Republic of Korea	—	...	0.0025	0.4076	0.1951	Yes	Yes
North and Central Asia									
Armenia	High	0.2360	0.0497	0.1852	0.9880	0.2048	0.3539	Yes	Yes
Azerbaijan	High	0.2403	0.1301	0.2057	0.8587	0.1837	0.6093	No	Yes
Georgia	Medium	0.2035	0.3552	0.2112	0.6236	0.4076	0.5399	No	Yes
Kazakhstan	Low	0.1196	0.0282	0.2176	0.1126	0.4076	0.6093	Yes	Yes
Kyrgyz Republic	Medium	0.1598	0.1879	0.3771	0.2624	0.5913	0.4505	Yes	Yes
Russian Federation	—	...	0.0496	0.2891	...	0.0000	0.5399	No	Yes
Tajikistan	Medium	0.1393	0.3182	0.4138	0.5075	0.2028	0.3539	No	Yes
Turkmenistan	—	...	0.1703	0.3271	...	0.2048	0.6093
Uzbekistan	Medium	0.1475	0.2477	0.2966	0.1884	0.5913	0.4505	Yes	Yes
Pacific									
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	—	...	0.1998	0.5913	0.5399	Yes	Yes
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	Yes	No
Marshall Islands	Yes	Yes
Micronesia, Fed. States of	No	Yes
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	Yes	Yes
Papua New Guinea	—	...	0.4773	0.8044	0.5399	No	Yes
Samoa	Yes	Yes
Solomon Islands	Yes	Yes
Tonga	No	Yes
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	Yes	Yes
South and South-West Asia									
Afghanistan	High	0.3224	0.7316	0.5500	0.4644	0.5913	0.4601	Yes	Yes
Bangladesh	Very High	0.3900	0.9730	0.3323	0.5831	0.5913	0.4505	Yes	Yes
Bhutan	Low	0.1142	0.3238	0.2946	0.2964	0.0000	0.5399	Yes	Yes
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	—	...	0.7573	0.5913	1.0000	No	No
Maldives	Yes	Yes
Nepal	High	0.3222	0.1813	0.4083	1.0000	0.5913	0.2554	Yes	No
Pakistan	High	0.3013	0.6908	0.4127	0.6998	0.4076	0.4505	Yes	Yes
Sri Lanka	Medium	0.1894	0.4203	0.2681	0.1483	0.6207	0.5399	Yes	Yes
Turkey	Low	0.1032	0.1585	0.1913	0.4036	0.0000	0.5399	Yes	Yes
South-East Asia									
Brunei Darussalam	No	No
Cambodia	Low	0.0477	0.0684	0.2601	0.0000	0.2028	0.3539	Yes	Yes
Indonesia	Medium	0.1532	0.5612	0.2511	0.3891	0.1837	0.4505	Yes	Yes
Lao People's Democratic Republic	Medium	0.1445	0.2606	0.5321	0.0506	0.4076	0.4505	No	Yes
Malaysia	—	...	0.5267	0.2682	...	0.4076	0.7953	Yes	No
Myanmar	High	0.2935	0.4963	0.4891	0.0000	0.5913	0.7953	Yes	Yes
Philippines	Medium	0.1765	0.4929	0.2597	0.1392	0.5913	0.4505	No	Yes
Singapore	—	...	0.1396	0.2048	0.3539	Yes	Yes
Thailand	Low	0.1056	0.3770	0.2935	0.1533	0.3885	0.3539	No	Yes
Timor-Leste	High	0.2550	0.3882	0.5421	0.2271	0.5913	0.6552	Yes	Yes
Viet Nam	Medium	0.1865	0.3374	0.1857	0.4967	0.4076	0.6092	Yes	Yes
								Yes	Yes
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	40
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	3
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	28	37
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	4
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	8
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	9
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	7
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	9

Source:

 Columns 1–7: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Social Institutions and Gender Index database. Available at: <http://genderindex.org>. (Accessed May 2017).

 Columns 8–16: World Bank, Women, Business and the Law Database. Available at: <https://data.worldbank.org/> (Accessed May 2017).

Note:

*Indicator 5.1.1 measures whether or not: 1) national laws exist to promote gender equality and non-discrimination against women and girls and 2) there exist mechanisms to 'enforce and monitor' the implementation of legal frameworks for each area of law. As a Tier 3 indicator under development at the time of release of the Benchmark Publication, two proxy indicators

are provided: the OECD's Social Institutions and Gender index, which brings together quantitative and qualitative measures of institutions in terms of their discrimination in the forms of formal and informal laws, attitudes and practices that restrict women's and girls' access to rights, justice and empowerment opportunities. SIGI is a composite index of the five components listed in this table, weighted equally to produce an index value on a scale of 0 to 1; the higher the number, the more restrictive the institution is for women's and girls' rights. The other proxy measures are drawn from the World Bank's Women, Business and the Law dataset, which examines laws and regulations that prevent women from improving their own well-being and that of their families. The selection of measures from this dataset reflect only a few of the indicators available.

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^a

World Bank Women, Business and the Law Indicators (Proxy Indicator) ^b									
Do sons and daughters have equal rights to inherit assets from their parents?	Does the constitution contain a clause on equality?	Is there domestic violence legislation?	Are there criminal penalties for domestic violence?	Does the legislation explicitly criminalize marital rape?	Is there legislation that specifically addresses sexual harassment?	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in employment?	Are there criminal penalties for sexual harassment?	Are there criminal penalties for sexual harassment in employment?	What is the length of paid maternity leave (days per year)? ^c
Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	...
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	98
Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	112
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	128
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	70
...
...
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	120
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	90
Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	140
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	126
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	183
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	126
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	126
Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	140
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	140
...
Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	126
...
...
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	84
...
...
No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	84
...	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	...
Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	...
...
...
...
...	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	...
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	0
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	28
Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	84
No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	...
...
No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	84
No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	90
No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	112
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	56
No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	270
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	60
No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	52
No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	84
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	84
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	112
No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	91
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	90
No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	90
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	105
No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	60
Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	98
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	60
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	105
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	90
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	84
Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	180
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Average days
32	40	38	25	17	30	23	18	9	102
3	1	3	1	2	2	2	0	0	105
29	39	35	24	15	28	21	18	9	101
4	4	4	3	2	4	4	1	1	102
8	8	5	1	2	4	4	0	0	138
5	8	9	6	2	4	1	3	0	61
4	9	7	7	4	6	5	6	4	102
8	10	10	7	5	10	7	8	4	96

Aggregates in this table are the sum total number of countries in the sub-region or classification that answer "Yes" to the question in the indicator. There is a total of 46 countries or territories with information for which aggregates are calculated.

^bComplementary SDG Indicator 5.5.1b from World Bank Women, Business and the Law Indicators is based on 2016 Survey/Report.

^cAggregates are sub-regional averages of the number of days per year.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 5.2a: Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Decision-making and opinions on wife-beating by age, residence and wealth

	Proportion of married women participating in all three decisions (on her own health care, on major household purchases, and on visits to family or relatives) who consider that the number of reasons for which wife-beating is justified is zero															Survey	Year
	Age							Residence			Wealth Quintile						
	15–19	20–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	Total	Urban	Rural	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5		
Developed economies																	
Australia		
Japan		
New Zealand		
East and North-East Asia																	
People's Republic of China		
Hong Kong, China		
Macau, China		
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		
Mongolia		
Republic of Korea		
North and Central Asia																	
Armenia	48.6	65.3	75.8	83.8	90.4	93.0	91.4	83.6	85.9	79.9	78.6	82.9	86.2	83.5	86.0	DHS	(2010)
Azerbaijan	33.9	38.3	47.0	49.9	59.0	62.3	63.1	53.3	58.7	44.8	49.2	41.6	49.8	55.6	63.2	DHS	(2006)
Georgia		
Kazakhstan		
Kyrgyz Republic	57.6	71.2	79.1	89.8	90.1	91.8	95.5	85.0	87.2	83.5	80.8	83.6	80.2	88.2	88.9	DHS	(2012)
Russian Federation		
Tajikistan	24.3	37.7	40.8	53.2	63.4	65.5	65.8	52.3	59.4	48.9	47.3	41.6	55.0	52.3	58.3	DHS	(2012)
Turkmenistan		
Uzbekistan		
Pacific																	
American Samoa		
Cook Islands		
Fiji		
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati		
Marshall Islands		
Micronesia, Fed. States of		
Nauru		
New Caledonia		
Niue		
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau		
Papua New Guinea		
Samoa		
Solomon Islands		
Tonga		
Tuvalu		
Vanuatu		
South and South-West Asia																	
Afghanistan		
Bangladesh	30.4	44.1	52.0	56.7	59.3	54.2	52.2	50.0	54.6	48.1	48.7	47.9	49.0	48.9	54.2	DHS	(2014)
Bhutan		
Iran (Islamic Republic of)		
Maldives	34.6	44.4	53.8	54.6	54.1	54.5	51.5	51.9	56.6	48.9	48.4	48.0	50.3	53.0	56.9	DHS	(2009)
Nepal	13.0	26.9	46.4	54.5	59.9	56.9	54.7	45.6	52.5	44.5	40.2	41.4	43.2	45.2	56.5	DHS	(2011)
Pakistan	16.5	24.7	36.5	45.7	55.4	65.0	64.1	45.7	50.8	42.0	41.1	46.9	46.7	45.3	47.2	DHS	(2012–2013)
Sri Lanka		
Turkey		
South-East Asia																	
Brunei Darussalam		
Cambodia	80.3	84.5	88.5	86.2	89.8	88.2	89.2	87.3	81.5	88.7	89.6	88.0	89.4	87.0	83.9	DHS	(2014)
Indonesia	71.4	71.6	73.5	73.1	75.6	72.1	71.3	73.1	74.7	71.2	67.3	71.2	73.6	74.0	77.0	DHS	(2012)
Lao People's Democratic Republic		
Malaysia		
Myanmar		
Philippines	63.9	75.7	80.7	80.7	82.2	83.0	85.8	81.0	80.8	81.2	78.8	79.9	80.1	83.2	83.1	DHS	(2013)
Singapore		
Thailand		
Timor-Leste	90.3	66.4	71.9	86.3	76.8	84.1	81.6	78.5	64.8	81.7	88.2	78.7	82.8	71.8	70.1	DHS	(2009–2010)
Viet Nam		
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		

Source:
All columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) micro datasets. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/> (Accessed July 2016).

Note:
... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 5.2b: Additional indicators related SDG 5: Decision-making and opinions on wife-beating by education and employment

	Proportion of married women participating in all three decisions (on her own health care, on major household purchases, and on visits to family or relatives) who consider that the number of reasons for which wife-beating is justified is zero								
	Education		Employment				Survey	Year	
	Primary or none	Secondary or above	Currently unemployed	Unpaid work	Paid work (cash only)	Paid work (cash and in kind)			Paid work (in-kind only)
Developed economies									
Australia		
Japan		
New Zealand		
East and North-East Asia									
People's Republic of China		
Hong Kong, China		
Macau, China		
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		
Mongolia		
Republic of Korea		
North and Central Asia									
Armenia	81.9	83.6	79.8	86.7	92.0	91.0	84.6	DHS	(2010)
Azerbaijan	26.8	54.4	50.9	38.2	67.0	48.6	50.3	DHS	(2006)
Georgia		
Kazakhstan		
Kyrgyz Republic	54.4	85.1	81.9	90.0	91.6	85.6	100.0	DHS	(2012)
Russian Federation		
Tajikistan	35.5	52.7	47.2	56.8	66.7	64.2	47.9	DHS	(2012)
Turkmenistan		
Uzbekistan		
Pacific									
American Samoa		
Cook Islands		
Fiji		
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati		
Marshall Islands		
Micronesia, Fed. States of		
Nauru		
New Caledonia		
Niue		
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau		
Papua New Guinea		
Samoa		
Solomon Islands		
Tonga		
Tuvalu		
Vanuatu		
South and South-West Asia									
Afghanistan		
Bangladesh	51.7	48.4	47.9	44.4	55.1	55.8	60.8	DHS	(2014)
Bhutan		
Iran (Islamic Republic of)		
Maldives	50.7	53.3	50.6	50.4	54.0	45.8	24.4	DHS	(2009)
Nepal	45.7	45.2	42.8	39.7	62.8	65.7	45.4	DHS	(2011)
Pakistan	45.7	45.7	42.5	30.4	61.2	64.3	44.6	DHS	(2012–2013)
Sri Lanka		
Turkey		
South-East Asia									
Brunei Darussalam		
Cambodia	88.0	86.0	82.2	62.4	90.3	85.0	83.6	DHS	(2014)
Indonesia	69.1	75.9	71.6	70.8	75.5	74.3	62.8	DHS	(2012)
Lao People's Democratic Republic		
Malaysia		
Myanmar		
Philippines	79.0	81.6	77.6	83.0	84.7	80.4	83.9	DHS	(2013)
Singapore		
Thailand		
Timor-Leste	81.2	74.4	76.6	84.3	76.5	0.0	82.6	DHS	(2009–2010)
Viet Nam		
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		

Source:
All columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) micro datasets. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/> (Accessed July 2016).

Note:
... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.
0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 5.3: Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Proportion of women who experience domestic violence

	Age							Residence		
	15–19	20–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	Total	Urban	Rural
Developed economies										
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	7.8	9.8	8.2	9.9	8.6	10.3	10.6	9.3	8.0	11.4
Azerbaijan	39.1	49.1	50.3	53.9	52.0	52.8	49.1	49.0	40.0	60.7
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	24.6	31.6	38.9	36.9	41.4	33.0	36.0	33.7	22.1	40.7
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	46.5	61.7	64.2	66.4	62.8	63.2	59.5	59.6	50.8	62.5
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific										
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	28.8	27.3	28.1	27.4	29.0	29.1	29.6	28.3	24.8	29.6
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	40.7	31.3	26.3	25.8	29.4	37.7	40.5	30.9	17.7	37.4
Nepal	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.8	1.0	0.7
Pakistan	52.7	43.1	41.8	40.7	41.6	41.4	42.6	42.3	27.3	49.8
Sri Lanka
Turkey
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	45.5	44.2	45.8	51.3	53.9	57.2	56.9	49.8	37.0	52.7
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines	13.8	12.6	11.7	11.8	13.2	13.9	13.6	13.0	9.5	16.8
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste	81.1	87.3	89.2	87.7	87.5	87.7	86.9	86.2	89.4	85.1
Viet Nam
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) micro datasets. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/> (Accessed July 2016).

[illegible]

Table 5.4a: Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Proportion of married women aged 15–49 who prefer a girl birth

	Age							Residence		
	15–19	20–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	Total	Urban	Rural
Developed economies										
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	8.2	13.8	12.0	15.2	21.1	16.7	17.6	15.9	17.6	13.4
Azerbaijan	0.0	4.7	7.9	6.2	14.4	9.6	10.7	9.1	10.0	7.4
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	12.8	13.7	7.7	12.6	13.0	14.2	15.2	12.5	11.2	13.5
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	4.1	4.9	6.6	6.8	5.8	4.3	4.4	5.5	4.5	5.9
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific										
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	2.4	1.9	3.2	2.8	3.7	3.2	2.1	2.8	2.6	2.8
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	7.2	4.1	5.0	4.9	5.5	4.1	5.8	4.9	4.0	5.5
Nepal	0.9	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.8	1.4	1.9	1.3
Pakistan	1.9	1.8	2.9	1.8	3.9	2.2	3.7	2.7	3.3	2.1
Sri Lanka
Turkey
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	14.6	28.4	31.6	28.5	28.7	31.6	30.5	29.3	27.3	29.8
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines	18.0	19.7	21.0	19.9	20.9	25.3	23.5	21.6	20.2	23.2
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste	10.1	12.2	8.3	10.2	11.4	17.8	16.0	12.4	19.7	10.7
Viet Nam
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) micro datasets. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/> (Accessed July 2016).

Table 5.4b: Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Married women aged 15–49 who prefer a boy birth

	Age							Residence		
	15–19	20–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	Total	Urban	Rural
Developed economies										
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	16.9	20.6	20.7	22.1	22.6	24.0	27.2	22.9	20.6	26.4
Azerbaijan	9.8	17.0	13.8	22.3	19.4	17.4	18.2	17.9	17.1	19.5
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	20.2	16.5	15.5	17.1	11.0	15.3	13.8	15.1	13.8	16.1
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	7.2	13.0	15.8	12.6	14.4	19.8	13.2	14.6	15.4	14.2
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific										
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	6.0	5.9	10.2	9.7	14.7	13.1	14.6	10.1	7.7	11.0
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	8.1	6.4	6.9	8.7	8.8	11.0	5.9	7.9	7.4	8.2
Nepal	21.4	18.6	21.5	26.9	34.0	32.6	38.0	26.6	17.2	28.0
Pakistan	24.3	24.3	26.6	29.4	27.3	29.1	26.4	27.1	23.5	29.8
Sri Lanka
Turkey
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	8.0	7.9	9.5	10.9	14.0	12.9	13.5	11.0	7.6	11.8
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines	16.8	15.1	15.9	15.1	15.6	17.4	15.4	15.8	14.2	17.4
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste	7.3	12.7	10.7	16.3	16.3	11.7	17.9	14.2	11.2	14.9
Viet Nam
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) micro datasets. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/> (Accessed July 2016).

[illegible]

Table 5.4c: Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Married women aged 15–49 with equal preference for boy or girl birth

	Age							Residence		
	15–19	20–24	25–29	30–34	35–39	40–44	45–49	Total	Urban	Rural
Developed economies										
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	74.9	65.6	67.3	62.8	56.4	59.3	55.2	61.2	61.8	60.2
Azerbaijan	90.2	78.3	78.3	71.5	66.2	73.0	71.1	73.0	73.0	73.1
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	67.0	69.8	76.8	70.3	76.0	70.5	71.0	72.4	75.1	70.5
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	88.7	82.1	77.6	80.6	79.8	75.9	82.4	79.9	80.1	79.9
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific										
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	91.6	92.2	86.7	87.5	81.6	83.8	83.3	87.2	89.7	86.1
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	84.7	89.5	88.1	86.4	85.7	84.9	88.3	87.2	88.5	86.3
Nepal	77.8	80.0	77.3	71.9	64.7	65.7	60.2	72.0	80.9	70.7
Pakistan	73.9	73.9	70.5	68.9	68.8	68.7	69.9	70.2	73.2	68.1
Sri Lanka
Turkey
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	77.4	63.7	58.9	60.6	57.3	55.5	56.0	59.7	65.0	58.4
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines	65.2	65.2	63.1	65.1	63.6	57.3	61.1	62.6	65.6	59.5
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste	82.6	75.1	81.0	73.5	72.3	70.6	66.1	73.4	69.1	74.5
Viet Nam
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) micro datasets. Available at: <https://dhsprogram.com/> (Accessed July 2016).

Note:
... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.
0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 5.5a: Selected SDG 5 indicators: Women who experienced violence from a current or former intimate partner

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

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

	Age Group	CORE Proportion of women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence, by an intimate partner, in the past 12 months, 2000–2015 (latest available year)	CORE Proportion of women who experienced physical violence, by an intimate partner, in the past 12 months, 2000–2015 (latest available year)	CORE Proportion of women who experienced sexual violence, by an intimate partner, in the past 12 months, 2000–2015 (latest available year)	Survey Year
Developed economies					
Australia
Japan	18–49	3.8	3.1	1.3	2000
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia					
People's Republic of China ¹	15–49	8.7	6.8	1.9	2012
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia					
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic
Russian Federation
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific					
American Samoa
Cook Islands	15–64	9.1	6.7	4.6	2012
Fiji	15–64	23.7	19.4	14.2	2010
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	15–49	36.1	32.4	33.7	2008
Marshall Islands	15–64	18.2	16.2	5.9	2012
Micronesia, Fed. States of	15–64	24.1	19.4	12.9	2014
Nauru	15–64	22.1	20.6	9.9	2013
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	15–64	8.4	6.5	3.5	2013
Papua New Guinea	15–49	32.9	21.9	13.4	2012
Samoa	15–49	22.4	17.9	11.5	2000
Solomon Islands	15–49	41.8	2008
Tonga	15–49	18.9	12.5	11.0	2009
Tuvalu	15–49	25.0	23.8	5.1	2007
Vanuatu	15–49	44.0	33.0	33.0	2011
South and South-West Asia					
Afghanistan	15–49	46.1	45.8	6.1	2015
Bangladesh	15–49	50.7	18.4	11.0	2007
Bhutan	15–49	13.0	10.1	5.3	2012
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	15–49	6.4	5.7	2.0	2006
Nepal	15–49	14.3	2011
Pakistan
Sri Lanka	15–49	18.4	2012
Turkey ²	15–59	11.0	2014
South-East Asia					
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	15–64	7.7	4.7	4.1	2015
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic	15–64	6.0	4.0	3.1	2014
Malaysia
Myanmar	15–49	11.0	10.2	2.2	2015
Philippines	15–49	7.1	5.3	3.2	2013
Singapore ³	18–69	0.9	2009
Thailand ³	15–49	22.0	10.7	16.4	2000
Timor-Leste	15–49	46.4	35.8	31.4	2015
Viet Nam	18–60	9.0	6.4	4.2	2010
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—

Source: All Columns: United Nations Population Fund, <http://asiapacific.unfpa.org/en/publications/violence-against-women-regional-snapshot-2017> (accessed in December 2017) unless otherwise noted.

Note:

¹ The prevalence rates are calculated as average for one site where the survey was carried out.

² United Nations, 2015. The World's Women 2015: Trends and Statistics, table 6.3 (chapter 6_d), <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/chapter6/chapter6.html>, Accessed in November 2017.

³ The prevalence rates are calculated as average for two sites where the survey was carried out.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 5.5b: Selected SDG 5 indicators: Women who experienced violence from a non-intimate partner

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

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 5.2.2: 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

	CORE Proportion of women who experienced physical and/or sexual violence, by a non-intimate partner, in the past 12 months, 2000–2015 (latest available year)		
	Age Group	Proportion of women (%)	Survey Year
Developed economies			
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia			
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia			
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic
Russian Federation
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific			
American Samoa
Cook Islands	15–64	0.5	2012
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands	15–64	0.8	2012
Micronesia, Fed. States of	15–64	2.7	2014
Nauru	15–64	12.2	2013
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	15–64	3.4	2013
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia			
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives
Nepal
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Turkey
South-East Asia			
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	15–64	0.0	2015
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic	15–64	0.0	2014
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste	15–49	10.0	2015
Viet Nam
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: United Nations Population Fund, <http://asiapacific.unfpa.org/en/publications/violence-against-women-regional-snapshot-2017> (accessed in December 2017) unless otherwise noted.

Note:

... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.
0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 5.6: Selected SDG 5 indicators: Early marriage and time spent on unpaid care work

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

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

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 5.3.1: Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married or in a union before age 15 and before age 18

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

	CORE Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married by age 15 (%) ^a		CORE Proportion of women aged 20–24 years who were married by age 18 (%) ^a		CORE Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex (%) ^b						
	Latest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year			Latest Year			
					Male	Female	Year	Male	Female	Year	
Developed economies											
Australia		11.4	20.8	(2006)	
Japan		3.1	14.9	(2001)	2.9	14.9	(2011)	
New Zealand		10.6	18.1	(2010)	
East and North-East Asia											
People's Republic of China		6.3	16.3	(2008)	
Hong Kong, China		4.6	13.8	(2002)	3.3	10.8	(2013)	
Macau, China		
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		
Mongolia	0.1	(2013)	5.2	(2013)	9.0	20.1	(2000)	9.1	19.9	(2011)	
Republic of Korea		2.7	14.4	(2004)	3.3	14.4	(2014)	
North and Central Asia											
Armenia	0.0	(2010)	7.2	(2010)	4.6	24.0	(2004)	4.4	21.7	(2008)	
Azerbaijan	1.9	(2011)	11.0	(2011)		8.9	25.4	(2008)	
Georgia	1.1	(2010)	14.0	(2010)		
Kazakhstan	0.2	(2015)	7.0	(2015)	13.8	27.7	(2000)	7.7	17.1	(2012)	
Kyrgyz Republic	0.9	(2014)	11.6	(2014)	13.8	27.7	(2000)	9.5	16.8	(2015)	
Russian Federation		
Tajikistan	0.1	(2012)	11.6	(2012)		
Turkmenistan	0.0	(2016)	5.7	(2016)		
Uzbekistan	0.3	(2006)	7.2	(2006)		
Pacific											
American Samoa		
Cook Islands		
Fiji		
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati	2.8	(2009)	20.3	(2009)		
Marshall Islands	5.5	(2007)	c	26.3	(2007)	c		
Micronesia, Fed. States of		
Nauru	1.9	(2007)	26.8	(2007)		
New Caledonia		
Niue		
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau		
Papua New Guinea	2.1	(2006)	21.3	(2006)		
Samoa	0.7	(2014)	10.8	(2014)		
Solomon Islands	3.1	(2007)	c	22.4	(2007)	c		
Tonga	0.3	(2012)	c	5.6	(2012)	c		
Tuvalu	0.0	(2007)	c	9.9	(2007)	c		
Vanuatu	2.5	(2013)	21.4	(2013)		
South and South-West Asia											
Afghanistan	8.8	(2015)	34.8	(2015)		
Bangladesh	22.4	(2014)	58.6	(2014)		
Bhutan	6.2	(2010)	25.8	(2010)		5.1	13.3	(2007)	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2.7	(2010)	16.7	(2010)		5.2	21.0	(2009)	
Maldives	0.3	(2009)	3.9	(2009)		
Nepal	10.4	(2014)	36.6	(2014)		
Pakistan	2.8	(2013)	21.0	(2013)		1.8	19.9	(2007)	
Sri Lanka	1.7	(2007)	11.8	(2007)		
Turkey	1.1	(2013)	14.7	(2013)	6.1	d	25.8	(2006)	3.7	19.2	(2015)
South-East Asia											
Brunei Darussalam		
Cambodia	1.9	(2014)	18.5	(2014)		1.3	12.5	(2004)	
Indonesia	1.1	(2013)	13.6	(2013)		
Lao People's Democratic Republic	8.9	(2012)	35.4	(2012)	2.5	10.4	(2003)	2.5	10.4	(2013)	
Malaysia		6.0	19.1	(2003)	
Myanmar		
Philippines	2.0	(2013)	15.0	(2013)		
Singapore		
Thailand	3.8	(2012)	22.1	(2012)		3.4	12.8	(2009)	
Timor-Leste	3.0	(2010)	18.9	(2010)		
Viet Nam	0.9	(2014)	10.6	(2014)		
	(2006–2016)		(2006–2016)								
Asia and the Pacific	—		—		—	—		—	—		
Developed economies	—		—		—	—		—	—		
Developing economies	5.0		23.9		—	—		—	—		
East and North-East Asia	—		—		—	—		—	—		
North and Central Asia	0.5		8.7		—	—		—	—		
Pacific	—		—		—	—		—	—		
South and South-West Asia	8.5		30.9		—	—		—	—		
South-East Asia	1.7		14.7		—	—		—	—		

Source: Columns 1–2: United Nations Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017). Columns 3–6: United Nations Statistics Division Time use data portal (unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/timeuse/index.html) (Accessed May 2016).

Note: ^a Sub-regional aggregates calculated as weighted averages using the population weight for the year of the country or territory data available.

^b Sub-regional aggregates were not calculated due to sparseness of data.

^c Not included in sub-regional average due to lack of population data for the age group.

^d For Turkey, Age group disaggregation data availability includes: 2006 Age 15+: 1.47 (Male), 6.18 (Female) and Age 20–74: 0.85 (Male), 5.28 (Female). Source: United Nations Statistics Division Time use data portal (unstats.un.org/unsd/gender/timeuse/index.html).

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 5.7a: Selected SDG 5 indicators: Women in parliament and managerial position, and proportion of women making own decision regarding sexual and reproductive health

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

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

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

Indicator 5.5.2: Proportion of women in managerial positions

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

	CORE Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%) ^a		CORE Proportion of women in managerial positions (%) ^a		CORE Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care		Survey year	Contraceptive prevalence of married or in-union women using any modern method (%) (Proxy Indicator)	Survey year
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year					
Developed economies									
Australia	22.5 (2000)	28.7 (2017)	30.0 (2000)	36.2 (2014)	b	...	64.3	d	(2012)
Japan	4.6 (2000)	9.3 (2017)	10.7 (2009)	12.5 (2015)		...	44.4	e	(2005)
New Zealand	29.2 (2000)	34.2 (2017)	38.2 (2000)	40.0 (2008)			
East and North-East Asia									
People's Republic of China	21.8 (2000)	23.7 (2017)	16.8 (2005)	84.0		(2006)
Hong Kong, China	24.2 (2000)	33.2 (2015)		...	71.9		(2012)
Macau, China	19.2 (2000)	32.6 (2015)			
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	20.1 (2000)	16.3 (2017)	65.3	e	(2010)
Mongolia	7.9 (2000)	17.1 (2017)	30.2 (2000)	37.8 (2015)		...	48.2		(2013)
Republic of Korea	3.7 (2000)	17.0 (2017)	5.0 (2000)	10.5 (2015)		...	70.1	f	(2009)
North and Central Asia									
Armenia	3.1 (2000)	9.9 (2017)	23.9 (2001)	29.1 (2015)		64.3 (2010)	26.8		(2010)
Azerbaijan	10.4 (2000)	16.8 (2017)	47.7 (2003)	35.1 (2015)		...	14.3		(2006)
Georgia	7.2 (2000)	16.0 (2017)	19.0 (2000)	34.0 (2007)		...	34.7	f	(2010)
Kazakhstan	10.4 (2000)	27.1 (2017)	33.0 (2001)	37.1 (2015)		...	49.8		(2011)
Kyrgyz Republic	1.4 (2000)	19.2 (2017)	27.7 (2002)	35.7 (2015)		76.6 (2012)	40.0		(2014)
Russian Federation	7.7 (2000)	15.8 (2017)	35.6 (2000)	38.7 (2015)		...	55.0	f	(2011)
Tajikistan	2.8 (2000)	19.1 (2017)		40.9 (2012)	25.8		(2012)
Turkmenistan	26.0 (2000)	25.8 (2017)	46.9		(2006)
Uzbekistan	6.8 (2000)	16.0 (2017)	61.9		(2006)
Pacific									
American Samoa		
Cook Islands	36.1 (2001)	47.5 (2011)			
Fiji	11.3 (2000)	16.0 (2017)		
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati	4.9 (2000)	6.5 (2017)	27.3 (2005)	36.5 (2010)		...	18.0		(2009)
Marshall Islands	3.0 (2001)	9.1 (2017)	42.4		(2007)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	0.0 (2000)	0.0 (2017)		
Nauru	0.0 (2000)	10.5 (2017)	25.1		(2007)
New Caledonia		
Niue	31.9 (2001)		
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau	0.0 (2000)	12.5 (2017)	29.7	f	(2003)
Papua New Guinea	1.8 (2000)	2.7 (2017)	24.3		(2007)
Samoa	8.2 (2000)	10.0 (2017)	28.5 (2001)	47.3 (2014)			
Solomon Islands	2.0 (2000)	2.0 (2017)	27.4		(2007)
Tonga	0.0 (2000)	3.9 (2017)	26.6 (2003)	28.4		(2012)
Tuvalu	0.0 (2000)	6.7 (2017)	24.6 (2002)	22.4		(2007)
Vanuatu	0.0 (2000)	0.0 (2017)	...	28.5 (2009)		...	37.1		(2013)
South and South-West Asia									
Afghanistan	27.3 (2006)	27.7 (2017)	20.3		(2011)
Bangladesh	9.1 (2000)	20.3 (2017)	23.4 (2003)	5.4 (2011)		...	53.9		(2014)
Bhutan	2.0 (2000)	8.5 (2017)	11.3 (2009)	18.5 (2015)		...	65.4		(2010)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	4.9 (2000)	5.9 (2017)	16.2 (2005)	16.4 (2015)		...	57.0		(2011)
Maldives	6.0 (2001)	5.9 (2017)	15.4 (2000)	13.4 (2010)		...	27.0		(2009)
Nepal	5.9 (2000)	29.6 (2017)	13.8 (2001)	18.3 (2008)		59.5 (2011)	47.1		(2014)
Pakistan	21.6 (2003)	20.6 (2017)	2.9 (2001)	3.0 (2008)		...	26.1		(2013)
Sri Lanka	4.9 (2000)	5.8 (2017)	21.7 (2002)	24.8 (2014)		...	52.5		(2007)
Turkey	4.2 (2000)	14.9 (2017)	8.0 (2001)	13.2 (2015)		...	47.4		(2013)
South-East Asia									
Brunei Darussalam	...	9.1 (2017)	25.7 (2001)	33.8 (2014)			
Cambodia	8.2 (2000)	20.3 (2017)	12.6 (2000)	18.0 (2010)	c	75.6 (2014)	38.8		(2014)
Indonesia	8.0 (2000)	19.8 (2017)	19.7 (2007)	22.0 (2015)		...	59.5		(2015)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	21.2 (2000)	27.5 (2017)	42.7		(2012)
Malaysia	7.3 (2000)	10.4 (2017)	21.8 (2001)	22.5 (2015)	c	...	34.3		(2014)
Myanmar	4.3 (2011)	10.2 (2017)	45.8	g	(2010)
Philippines	12.4 (2000)	29.5 (2017)	59.0 (2001)	46.6 (2015)		...	37.4		(2013)
Singapore	4.3 (2000)	23.8 (2017)	25.0 (2000)	34.0 (2015)			
Thailand	5.6 (2000)	4.9 (2017)	25.5 (2001)	33.9 (2014)		...	76.9		(2012)
Timor-Leste	26.1 (2003)	38.5 (2017)	...	14.3 (2010)		...	20.6		(2010)
Viet Nam	26.0 (2000)	26.7 (2017)	16.8 (2000)	25.8 (2015)		...	57.0		(2014)

	CORE Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%) ^a		CORE Proportion of women in managerial positions (%) ^a		CORE Proportion of women aged 15–49 years who make their own informed decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive health care	Survey year	Contraceptive prevalence of married or in-union women using any modern method (%) (Proxy Indicator)	Survey year
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year				
Asia and the Pacific	13.4	18.7	—	—	—		66.7	h
Developed economies	11.9	17.2	—	—	—		68.9	h
Developing economies	13.5	18.9	—	—	—		47.9	h
East and North-East Asia	19.9	22.2	—	—	—		83.2	h
North and Central Asia	7.2	18.3	—	—	—		51.0	h
Pacific	3.6	6.0	—	—	—		26.3	h
South and South-West Asia	10.5	17.4	—	—	—		44.1	h
South-East Asia	11.8	19.3	—	—	—		54.9	h

Source:

Columns 1–2: Inter-Parliamentary Union. Women in Parliaments database. Available at: <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>. (Accessed July 2017). Columns 3–4: United Nations Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed July 2017). Columns 5–6: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2016). World Contraceptive Use 2016 (POP/DB/CP/Rev2016).

Note:

^aSub-regional aggregates for indicator were not calculated due to lack of population weights. Data are for population 15 years or older if not otherwise noted.

^aSub-regional aggregates for indicator were calculated using number of seats in parliament sourced from <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>.

^b Refers to age group 16 years and older.

^c Refers to age group 15–64 years.

^d Refers to age group 15–45 years.

^e Refers to age group 18–45 years.

^f Refers to age group 15–44 years.

^g As a proportion of ever-married women.

^h Sub-regional aggregates calculated based on the population weights of married or in-union women for the specific year country or territory data are available.

... = data not available.

— : indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 5.7b: Additional indicators related to SDG: Reproductive health laws and regulations

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

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 5.6.2: 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 grounds for abortion													
	To save a woman's life		To preserve a woman's physical health		To preserve a woman's mental health		In case of rape or incest		Because of foetal impairment		For economic or social reasons		On request	
	1996	2013	1996	2013	1996	2013	1996	2013	1996	2013	1996	2013	1996	2013
Developed economies														
Australia	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X
Japan	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	X	—	—	X	X	—	—
New Zealand	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia														
People's Republic of China	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Mongolia	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Republic of Korea	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia														
Armenia	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Azerbaijan	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Georgia	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Kazakhstan	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Kyrgyz Republic	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Russian Federation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Tajikistan	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Turkmenistan	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Uzbekistan	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Pacific														
American Samoa
Cook Islands	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	—	—
Fiji	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	X	—	X	—	X	—	—
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Marshall Islands	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Micronesia, Fed. States of	...	X	...	—	...	—	...	—	...	—	...	—	...	—
Nauru	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Caledonia
Niue	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Papua New Guinea	X	X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Samoa	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Solomon Islands	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tonga	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tuvalu	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanuatu	X	X	X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia														
Afghanistan	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bangladesh	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bhutan	X	X	—	—	—	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	—	—
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	X	—	—	—	—
Maldives	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nepal	X	X	—	X	—	X	—	X	—	X	—	X	—	X
Pakistan	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sri Lanka	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Turkey	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
South-East Asia														
Brunei Darussalam	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cambodia	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Indonesia	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	X	—	X	—	—	—	—
Lao People's Democratic Republic	X	X	—	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Malaysia	X	X	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Myanmar	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Philippines	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Singapore	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Thailand	X	X	X	X	—	X	X	X	X	X	—	—	—	—
Timor-Leste	X	X	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Viet Nam	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Asia and the Pacific	49	50	31	32	28	30	21	26	20	24	18	20	16	18
Developed economies	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	2	0	1
Developing economies	46	47	28	29	25	28	18	23	18	22	16	18	16	17
East and North-East Asia	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3
North and Central Asia	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
Pacific	13	14	7	6	6	6	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	0
South and South-West Asia	9	9	3	4	2	4	1	3	1	3	1	2	1	2
South-East Asia	11	11	5	6	4	5	4	5	4	5	3	3	3	3

Source:

All Columns: UN Population Division, 2014. Abortion Policies and Reproductive Health around the World, <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/publications/pdf/policy/AbortionPoliciesReproductiveHealth.pdf>.

Note:

"X" denotes the country or territory has instituted the legislation. "—" denotes the legislation has not been adopted.

Sub-regional aggregates count the number of countries or territories that provide legal provisions for abortions based on the reason stated by the year indicated.

... = data not available.

— : indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 5.8: Selected SDG 5 indicators: Agricultural land and mobile phone ownership

Goal 5: Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

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

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

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

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

	Distribution of total agricultural holders by sex (%)				Distribution of total landowners by sex (%)				CORE Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex (%)		
	Latest Year				Latest Year				Latest Year		
	Male	Female	Year		Male	Female	Year		Male	Female	Year
Developed economies											
Australia	
Japan	
New Zealand	
East and North-East Asia											
People's Republic of China	
Hong Kong, China			95.5	94.2	(2014)
Macau, China	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	
Mongolia	
Republic of Korea			89.4	83.7	(2015)
North and Central Asia									
Armenia	70.3	29.7	(2007)	a	
Azerbaijan	
Georgia	70.9	29.1	(2004)	b	
Kazakhstan	
Kyrgyz Republic	87.6	12.4	(2002)	b	
Russian Federation	
Tajikistan			82.9	17.1	(2007)	c, d	
Turkmenistan	
Uzbekistan	
Pacific											
American Samoa	80.6	19.4	(2008)	b	
Cook Islands	
Fiji	96.0	3.6	(2009)	b	
French Polynesia	
Guam	87.5	12.5	(2007)	b	
Kiribati	
Marshall Islands	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	
Nauru	
New Caledonia	
Niue	76.8	23.2	(2009)	b	
Northern Mariana Islands	88.3	11.7	(2007)	b	
Palau	
Papua New Guinea	
Samoa	77.1	22.9	(2009)	b	
Solomon Islands	
Tonga	
Tuvalu	
Vanuatu	
South and South-West Asia											
Afghanistan	
Bangladesh	95.4	4.6	(2008)	b	77.4	22.6	(2011–2012)	c, d	
Bhutan	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	94.1	5.9	(2002)	b			76.0	63.2	(2015)
Maldives	
Nepal	91.9	8.1	(2002)	b	
Pakistan	
Sri Lanka	83.7	16.3	2002	b	
Turkey	
South-East Asia											
Brunei Darussalam	
Cambodia	
Indonesia	91.2	8.8	(1993)	b			63.4	50.4	(2015)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	90.9	9.1	(1999)	b	
Malaysia	77.0	18.0	(2005)	b			96.4	92.5	(2015)
Myanmar	85.0	15.0	(2003)	b	
Philippines	89.2	10.8	(2002)	b	
Singapore	
Thailand	72.6	27.4	(2003)	b			77.2	77.1	(2014)
Timor-Leste	
Viet Nam	91.2	8.8	(2001)	b	62.7	37.3	(2004)	e, d	

	Distribution of total agricultural holders by sex (%)				Distribution of total landowners by sex (%)				CORE Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex (%)		
	Latest Year				Latest Year				Latest Year		
	Male	Female	Year		Male	Female	Year		Male	Female	Year
Asia and the Pacific	—	—			—	—			—	—	
Developed economies	—	—			—	—			—	—	
Developing economies	—	—			—	—			—	—	
East and North-East Asia	—	—			—	—			—	—	
North and Central Asia	—	—			—	—			—	—	
Pacific	—	—			—	—			—	—	
South and South-West Asia	—	—			—	—			—	—	
South-East Asia	—	—			—	—			—	—	

Source:

Columns 1–4: FAO, Available in <http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/data-map/statistics/en/> (Accessed July 2017). Columns 5–8: International Telecommunications Union (ITU) Database, <http://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/stat/default.aspx> (Accessed August 2016).

Note:

^a Household Integrated Living Conditions Survey.

^b Agricultural Census.

^c Documented ownership.

^d Living Standard Measurement Study (LSMS).

^e Certified land use rights.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 5.9: Additional indicators related to SDG 5: Women's access to credit, land ownership and property, and legislation on violence against women

	Women's Access Index (2012)			Legislation on violence against women (2012)		
	Women's access to credit ^a	Women's access to land ownership ^b	Women's access to other property ^c	Sexual harassment ^d	Domestic violence ^e	Rape violence ^f
Developed economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia						
People's Republic of China	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.0
Hong Kong, China	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.0
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0
Mongolia	0.0	0.5	0.0	1.0	0.3	0.5
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia						
Armenia	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.8	0.5
Azerbaijan	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.5
Georgia	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.5
Kazakhstan	0.0	0.5	0.0	1.0	0.3	0.3
Kyrgyz Republic	0.5	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.5	0.5
Russian Federation	0.0	0.0	0.0	...	0.8	0.5
Tajikistan	0.5	0.5	0.0	...	0.8	0.5
Turkmenistan	0.0	0.5	0.0	1.0	0.3	0.3
Uzbekistan	0.5	0.5	0.0	...	1.0	0.5
Pacific						
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	0.5	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.8	0.3
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia						
Afghanistan	0.5	...	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.8
Bangladesh	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3
Bhutan	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.5
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	1.0	1.0
Maldives
Nepal	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.3
Pakistan	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.8	0.5
Sri Lanka	0.0	1.0	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.5
Turkey
South-East Asia						
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.0
Indonesia	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.5	0.5
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.5	0.5
Malaysia	0.0	0.0	0.0	...	0.3	0.5
Myanmar	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.5
Philippines	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.3
Singapore	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.5
Thailand	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.3
Timor-Leste	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.5
Viet Nam	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.0
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: ESCAP Statistics Division. Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2014, Available at http://data.unescap.org/escap_stat (Accessed 15 May 2016)
<http://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/16.6%20-%20Women%20access%20to%20credit%20and%20property%2C%202012.xlsx>
<http://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/16.7%20-%20Legislation%20on%20Violence%20against%20women%2C%202012.xlsx>

Note:

^a Women's access to bank loans is assessed at between 0=full and 1=impossible.

^b Women's access to land ownership is assessed at between 0=full and 1=impossible.

^c Women's rights to own property other than land, especially immovable property (i.e., buildings, dwellings or other property), is assessed at between 0=full and 1=no.

^d Reflects the existence of laws against sexual harassment. The index is scored as follows: 0 if specific legislation is in place; 0.25 if specific legislation in place, but there are widespread reported problems with implementation; 0.5 if general legislation in place, or specific

legislation is inadequate (e.g. rape laws do not criminalise marital rape); 0.75 if legislation is being planned, drafted or reviewed or existing legislation is highly inadequate; 1 if no legislation.

^e Reflects the existence of laws against domestic violence. The index is scored as follows: 0 if specific legislation is in place; 0.25 if specific legislation in place, but there are wide spread reported problems with implementation; 0.5 if general legislation in place, or specific legislation is inadequate (e.g., rape laws do not criminalise marital rape); 0.75 if legislation is being planned, drafted or reviewed or existing legislation is highly inadequate; 1 if no legislation.

^f Reflects the existence of laws against rape. The index is scored as follows: 0 if specific legislation is in place; 0.25 if specific legislation in place, but there are wide spread reported problems with implementation; 0.5 if general legislation in place, or specific legislation is inadequate (e.g. rape laws do not criminalise marital rape); 0.75 if legislation is being planned, drafted or reviewed or existing legislation is highly inadequate; 1 if no legislation.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 6.1a: Selected SDG 6 indicators: Population using improved drinking water and sanitation services

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

Target 6.1: By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all

Target 6.2: By 2030, achieve access to adequate and equitable sanitation and hygiene for all and end open defecation, paying special attention to the needs of women and girls and those in vulnerable situations

Indicator 6.1.1: Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services

Indicator 6.2.1: Proportion of population using safely managed sanitation services, including a hand-washing facility with soap and water

	SD Proportion of population using improved drinking water services (%)						SD Proportion of population using improved sanitation services (%)					
	2000			2015			2000			2015		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Developed economies												
Australia	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Japan	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
New Zealand	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
East and North-East Asia												
People's Republic of China ¹	70.8	97.2	80.3	93.0	97.5	95.5	49.6	75.3	58.9	63.7	86.6	76.5
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.4	99.9	99.7	54.7	65.1	60.9	72.5	87.9	81.9
Mongolia	32.4	72.2	56.3	59.2	66.5	64.4	25.8	65.1	48.2	42.6	66.4	59.7
Republic of Korea	75.3	98.1	93.4	88.0 ^a	99.7	97.6 ^a	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
North and Central Asia												
Armenia	81.7	98.5	92.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	78.3	95.4	89.3	78.2	96.2	89.5
Azerbaijan	59.0	88.3	74.1	77.8	94.7	87.0	53.5	77.0	65.6	86.7	91.6	89.4
Georgia	80.6	97.1	89.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	94.9	96.4	95.7	75.9	95.2	86.3
Kazakhstan	88.5	98.0	93.8	85.6	99.4	92.9	97.2	96.5	96.8	98.1	97.1	97.5
Kyrgyz Republic	68.8	96.2	78.4	86.2	96.7	90.0	91.8	91.8	91.8	95.6	89.2	93.3
Russian Federation	85.6	98.3	94.9	91.3	98.9	97.0	58.5	77.5	72.5	58.8	77.0	72.2
Tajikistan	47.8	92.3	59.6	66.7	93.1	73.8	89.7	92.4	90.4	95.5	93.8	95.0
Turkmenistan	34.6	89.1	59.6	34.6 ^b	89.1	60.4 ^b	49.9	77.0	62.3	49.9 ^b	77.0	62.7 ^b
Uzbekistan	83.4	97.6	88.7	80.9 ^a	98.5	87.3 ^a	86.9	97.5	90.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Pacific												
American Samoa	97.8	97.8	97.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	61.5	61.5	61.5	62.5	62.5	62.5
Cook Islands	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	92.1	92.1	92.1	97.6	97.6	97.6
Fiji	85.2	96.6	90.7	91.2	99.6	95.7	61.3	89.1	74.6	88.4	93.4	91.1
French Polynesia	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	98.1	98.1	98.1	98.5	98.5	98.5
Guam	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.5	99.5	99.5	89.2	89.2	89.2	89.8	89.8	89.8
Kiribati	42.7	80.3	58.9	50.6	87.4	66.9	24.7	46.9	34.2	30.6	51.2	39.8
Marshall Islands	95.8	91.9	93.1	97.7	93.5	94.6	47.6	80.4	70.1	56.2	84.5	76.9
Micronesia, Fed. States of	89.0	94.1	90.1	87.4	94.8	89.0	25.0	63.7	33.6	49.0	85.1	57.1
Nauru	...	93.0	93.0	...	96.5	96.5	...	65.7	65.7	...	65.6	65.6
New Caledonia	94.0	94.0	94.0	98.5	98.5	98.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Niue	99.0	99.0	99.0	98.6	98.4	98.5	79.3	79.3	79.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Northern Mariana Islands	95.6	95.6	95.6	97.5	97.5	97.5	73.7	73.7	73.7	79.7	79.7	79.7
Palau	80.4	97.3	92.2	86.0 ^c	97.0	95.3 ^c	63.4	88.6	81.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Papua New Guinea	27.1	87.5	35.1	32.8	88.0	40.0	13.0	59.9	19.2	13.3	56.4	18.9
Samoa	92.3	99.3	91.8	93.9	92.2	91.1	93.3	91.5
Solomon Islands	77.2	93.2	79.7	77.2	93.2	80.8	15.0	81.4	25.5	15.0	81.4	29.8
Tonga	99.0	97.4	98.6	99.6	99.7	99.6	91.7	97.3	93.0	89.0	97.6	91.0
Tuvalu	93.0	95.1	94.0	97.0	98.3	97.7	76.0	81.1	78.4	80.2 ^d	86.3	83.31 ^d
Vanuatu	70.3	95.7	75.8	92.9	98.9	94.5	38.1	54.4	41.7	55.4	65.1	58.0
South and South-West Asia												
Afghanistan	24.3	52.2	30.3	47.0	78.2	55.3	21.3	31.2	23.4	27.0	45.1	31.9
Bangladesh	73.7	83.2	76.0	87.0	86.5	86.9	43.7	51.1	45.4	62.1	57.7	60.6
Bhutan	79.0	98.2	83.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	21.6	58.5	31.0	33.1	77.9	50.4
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	86.8	98.3	94.1	92.1	97.7	96.2	69.5	84.1	78.9	82.3	92.8	90.0
Maldives	93.2	99.9	95.2	97.9	99.5	98.7	72.5	97.7	79.4	98.3	97.5	97.9
Nepal	74.5	94.3	77.1	91.8	90.9	91.6	18.3	43.6	21.7	43.5	56.0	45.8
Pakistan	85.1	95.4	88.5	89.9	93.9	91.4	19.6	71.6	36.9	51.1	83.1	63.5
Sri Lanka	76.3	94.8	79.7	95.0	98.5	95.6	80.3	85.1	81.2	96.7	88.1	95.1
Turkey ²	84.7	96.8	92.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	72.0	96.9	88.1	85.5	98.3	94.9
South-East Asia												
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	38.1	57.1	41.6	69.1	100.0	75.5	10.2	43.3	16.3	30.5	88.1	42.4
Indonesia	68.2	91.3	77.9	79.5	94.2	87.4	33.6	65.8	47.1	47.5	72.3	60.8
Lao People's Democratic Republic	37.9	72.2	45.5	69.4	85.7	75.7	17.2	66.1	28.0	56.0	94.5	70.9
Malaysia	88.6	97.4	94.1	93.0	100.0	98.2	88.5	92.9	91.2	95.9	96.1	96.0
Myanmar	59.9	84.6	66.6	74.4	92.7	80.6	55.8	78.6	61.9	77.1	84.3	79.6
Philippines	82.5	92.0	87.1	90.3	93.7	91.8	55.9	72.5	63.8	70.8	77.9	73.9
Singapore ²	...	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	...	99.7	99.7	...	100.0	100.0
Thailand ²	89.7	96.6	91.9	98.0	97.6	97.8	92.2	89.4	91.3	96.1	89.9	93.0
Timor-Leste	49.7	68.9	54.3	60.5	95.2	71.9	32.5	52.7	37.4	26.8	69.0	40.6
Viet Nam	72.2	93.6	77.4	96.7	99.1	97.6	45.2	76.7	52.9	69.7	94.4	78.0
Asia and the Pacific	71.1	96.0	82.8	92.6	96.9	93.4	50.2	79.0	62.1	63.9	85.8	75.9
Developed economies	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Developing economies	71.1	95.6	81.8	92.6	96.6	93.0	50.2	76.5	59.9	63.9	84.5	74.6
East and North-East Asia	71.1	97.3	81.0	92.6	97.6	95.6	50.2	76.8	60.3	63.9	87.2	77.3
North and Central Asia	79.8	97.6	91.1	85.4	98.5	93.1	73.0	80.9	77.4	80.2	81.5	80.2
Pacific	40.7	92.9	52.4	52.8	94.1	54.8	24.7	75.9	34.5	38.3	75.7	34.4
South and South-West Asia	78.4	93.1	82.8	89.2	94.0	90.2	41.6	75.7	52.6	65.4	81.5	69.0
South-East Asia	72.6	91.8	79.5	86.5	95.5	90.3	52.0	73.7	58.5	68.9	80.9	72.2

Source:

All Columns: United Nations Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

Sub-regional aggregates are weighted averages.

^a Data refer to year 2012.

^b Data refer to year 2006.

^c Data refer to year 2011.

^d Data refer to year 2013.

... = data not available.

Table 6.1b: Additional indicators related to SDG 6: Distribution of households by person responsible for water collection

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

Target 6.1: By 2030, achieve universal and equitable access to safe and affordable drinking water for all

Indicator 6.1: Proportion of population using safely managed drinking water services

	Distribution of households by person responsible for water collection, by residence															Source (Survey Year)
	On premises	Total				On premises	Urban				On premises	Rural				
		Age below 15 years	15 years or older	Female	Male		Age below 15 years	15 years or older	Female	Male		Age below 15 years	15 years or older	Female	Male	
		Female	Male	Female	Male		Female	Male	Female	Male		Female	Male	Female	Male	
Developed economies																
Australia	
Japan	
New Zealand	
East and North-East Asia																
People's Republic of China ¹	
Hong Kong, China	
Macau, China	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	
Mongolia	6.3	3.0	6.9	25.8	58.1	4.8	3.5	8.7	25.3	57.7	8.0	2.4	4.7	26.3	58.7	MICS (2010)
Republic of Korea	
North and Central Asia																
Armenia	
Azerbaijan	76.3	0.6	0.6	17.8	4.7	90.8	0.3	0.3	5.8	2.9	55.3	1.2	1.1	35.2	7.2	DHS (2006)
Georgia	32.2	0.5	0.6	42.3	24.4	51.6	0.4	1.1	30.3	16.7	28.7	0.5	0.5	44.5	25.9	MICS (2005)
Kazakhstan	
Kyrgyz Republic	
Russian Federation	
Tajikistan	
Turkmenistan	61.6	1.6	1.2	26.8	8.8	45.4	1.3	3.7	36.2	13.6	64.3	1.7	0.8	25.2	8.0	MICS (2006)
Uzbekistan	
Pacific																
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	
Fiji	
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati	
Marshall Islands	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	
Nauru	
New Caledonia	
Niue	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau	
Papua New Guinea	
Samoa	
Solomon Islands	
Tonga	
Tuvalu	
Vanuatu	
South and South-West Asia																
Afghanistan	
Bangladesh	
Bhutan	38.1	1.7	0.9	46.6	12.7	49.8	2.2	2.9	32.9	12.2	36.8	1.7	0.7	48.1	12.8	MICS (2010)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	
Maldives	93.9	0.2	0.1	4.8	1.0	98.9	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	91.6	0.4	0.2	6.8	1.1	DHS (2009)
Nepal	
Pakistan	
Sri Lanka	
Turkey ²	
South-East Asia																
Brunei Darussalam	
Cambodia	
Indonesia	
Lao People's Democratic Republic	55.4	3.8	1.4	31.6	7.8	80.5	1.1	0.9	12.7	4.7	51.3	4.3	1.4	34.7	8.3	MICS (2011)
Malaysia	
Myanmar	
Philippines	
Singapore ²	
Thailand ³	
Timor-Leste	
Viet Nam	
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	

Source:

All Columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) micro datasets. Available at <https://dhsprogram.com/> and <http://mics.unicef.org/>.

Note:

... = data not available.

— : indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 7.1a: Selected SDG 7 indicators: Access to electricity and clean fuels and technology

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

Target 7.1: By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services

Indicator 7.1.1: Proportion of population with access to electricity

Indicator 7.1.2: Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology

	SD Proportion of population with access to electricity (%)				SD Proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology (%)*			
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year	
Developed economies								
Australia	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Japan	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
New Zealand	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
East and North-East Asia								
People's Republic of China	94.8	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	50.3	(2005)	57.2	(2014)
Hong Kong, China	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	
Macau, China	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	16.3	(2000)	32.4	(2014)	<5	(2005)	6.6	(2014)
Mongolia	67.3	(2000)	85.6	(2014)	29.2	(2005)	31.9	(2014)
Republic of Korea	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
North and Central Asia								
Armenia	98.9	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	88.8	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Azerbaijan	98.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	80.4	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Georgia	99.8	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	53.0	(2005)	55.0	(2014)
Kazakhstan	99.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	86.5	(2005)	91.9	(2014)
Kyrgyz Republic	99.8	(2000)	99.8	(2014)	66.9	(2005)	76.4	(2014)
Russian Federation	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Tajikistan	98.4	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	66.0	(2005)	71.7	(2014)
Turkmenistan	99.6	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Uzbekistan	99.8	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	84.3	(2005)	90.3	(2014)
Pacific								
American Samoa	52.5	(2000)	59.3	(2012)	
Cook Islands	97.5	(2000)	99.9	(2014)	82.2	(2005)	80.1	(2014)
Fiji	74.8	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	33.4	(2005)	36.5	(2014)
French Polynesia	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	
Guam	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	
Kiribati	75.8	(2000)	48.1	(2014)	5.1	(2005)	<5	(2014)
Marshall Islands	68.1	(2000)	90.0	(2014)	35.7	(2005)	41.3	(2014)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	46.0	(2000)	71.7	(2014)	18.9	(2005)	24.8	(2014)
Nauru	99.9	(2000)	99.2	(2014)	83.5	(2005)	>95	(2014)
New Caledonia	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	
Niue	...		99.0	(2011)	79.7	(2005)	91.0	(2014)
Northern Mariana Islands	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	
Palau	98.4	(2000)	99.8	(2014)	56.1	(2005)	58.3	(2014)
Papua New Guinea	12.3	(2000)	20.3	(2014)	20.1	(2005)	31.3	(2014)
Samoa	87.2	(2000)	97.9	(2014)	26.2	(2005)	27.5	(2014)
Solomon Islands	9.5	(2000)	35.1	(2014)	7.6	(2005)	8.9	(2014)
Tonga	85.4	(2000)	95.3	(2014)	55.3	(2005)	63.5	(2014)
Tuvalu	94.2	(2000)	98.5	(2014)	25.4	(2005)	29.7	(2014)
Vanuatu	22.2	(2000)	34.5	(2014)	14.2	(2005)	16.1	(2014)
South and South-West Asia								
Afghanistan	0.2	(2000)	89.5	(2014)	21.0	(2005)	17.3	(2014)
Bangladesh	32.0	(2000)	62.4	(2014)	10.6	(2005)	10.1	(2014)
Bhutan	32.1	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	49.0	(2005)	68.0	(2014)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	97.9	(2000)	99.4	(2014)	93.5	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Maldives	83.8	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	64.0	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Nepal	27.2	(2000)	84.9	(2014)	14.0	(2005)	26.1	(2014)
Pakistan	75.2	(2000)	97.5	(2014)	31.5	(2005)	44.8	(2014)
Sri Lanka	69.4	(2000)	92.2	(2014)	20.0	(2005)	19.3	(2014)
Turkey	94.4	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	0.0	(2005)	0.0	(2014)
South-East Asia								
Brunei Darussalam	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Cambodia	16.6	(2000)	56.1	(2014)	8.0	(2005)	13.4	(2014)
Indonesia	86.3	(2000)	97.0	(2014)	18.2	(2005)	56.6	(2014)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	43.1	(2000)	78.1	(2014)	<5	(2005)	<5	(2014)
Malaysia	96.7	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Myanmar	45.9	(2000)	52.0	(2014)	6.2	(2005)	9.1	(2014)
Philippines	73.6	(2000)	89.1	(2014)	41.2	(2005)	44.9	(2014)
Singapore	100.0	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	>95	(2005)	>95	(2014)
Thailand	82.1	(2000)	100.0	(2014)	66.1	(2005)	75.9	(2014)
Timor-Leste	24.2	(2000)	45.4	(2014)	<5	(2005)	<5.0	(2014)
Viet Nam	86.1	(2000)	99.2	(2014)	33.6	(2005)	50.9	(2014)
Asia and the Pacific	88.7		95.0		49.0		56.0	
Developed economies	100.0		100.0		95.0		95.0	
Developing economies	88.0		94.7		46.0		54.0	
East and North-East Asia	96.7		98.8		50.7		57.4	
North and Central Asia	99.5		100.0		90.2		91.9	
Pacific	21.6		35.5		19.5		27.7	
South and South-West Asia	69.3		87.3		28.7		33.0	
South-East Asia	78.6		91.4		31.4		52.5	

Source:
All Columns: United Nations Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:
Sub-regional aggregates are weighted averages.

... = data not available.
0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

* Country-level estimates for clean fuel use are reported as <5% if clean fuel use is less than 5%, and >95% if clean fuel use is greater than 95%. Aggregates were calculated based on the 5% and 95% values in these cases.

Table 7.1b: Selected SDG 7 indicators: Access to electricity by sex, residence and wealth

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

Target 7.1: By 2030, ensure universal access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services

Indicator 7.1.1: Proportion of population with access to electricity

	Proportion of population with electricity access by sex, and by residence and wealth status*																Source	Survey Year
	Total		Residence				Wealth Quintile											
			Urban		Rural		Q1		Q2		Q3		Q4		Q5			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
Developed economies																		
Australia		
Japan		
New Zealand		
East and North-East Asia																		
People's Republic of China		
Hong Kong, China		
Macau, China		
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		
Mongolia	80.0	82.0	97.8	98.0	50.4	52.9	16.6	19.0	89.8	90.2	98.6	98.7	98.9	99.0	99.6	99.7	MICS	(2010)
Republic of Korea		
North and Central Asia																		
Armenia	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.3	99.4	99.9	99.8	100.0	99.7	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	DHS	(2010)
Azerbaijan	99.4	99.5	99.7	99.8	99.1	99.0	97.9	97.8	99.4	99.6	99.7	99.8	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	DHS	(2006)
Georgia	98.3	98.1	98.6	98.4	98.1	97.8	96.3	95.4	98.8	98.6	99.0	98.9	98.3	98.1	99.4	99.4	MICS	(2005)
Kazakhstan	95.8	97.1	99.2	99.4	93.1	94.1	DHS	(1999)
Kyrgyz Republic	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.7	99.8	99.8	99.6	99.6	99.8	99.9	100.0	100.0	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.7	DHS	(2012)
Russian Federation		
Tajikistan	99.1	99.1	99.9	99.8	98.9	98.8	95.9	95.6	99.9	99.8	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	DHS	(2012)
Turkmenistan	99.9	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	99.7	99.5	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.8	100.0	100.0	99.8	99.8	MICS	(2006)
Uzbekistan	99.7	99.7	99.9	99.9	99.5	99.5	DHS	(2002)
Pacific																		
American Samoa		
Cook Islands		
Fiji		
French Polynesia		
Guam		
Kiribati		
Marshall Islands		
Micronesia, Fed. States of		
Nauru		
New Caledonia		
Niue		
Northern Mariana Islands		
Palau		
Papua New Guinea		
Samoa		
Solomon Islands		
Tonga		
Tuvalu		
Vanuatu		
South and South-West Asia																		
Afghanistan	42.0	42.3	82.8	82.9	31.9	32.0	27.7	26.7	34.6	34.4	33.5	34.3	33.8	35.3	79.7	80.8	DHS	(2010)
Bangladesh	62.3	62.4	91.0	90.7	51.5	51.4	5.6	6.2	37.7	38.5	78.1	79.5	90.7	91.1	98.8	99.0	DHS	(2014)
Bhutan	71.2	72.1	99.3	99.3	60.6	61.7	8.7	9.3	60.8	61.0	90.5	91.5	97.2	97.8	99.7	99.7	MICS	(2010)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)		
Maldives	99.9	99.8	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	99.3	99.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	DHS	(2009)
Nepal	75.7	76.4	97.1	97.0	72.2	72.9	29.1	28.3	63.7	63.4	85.1	87.3	97.5	97.8	99.9	99.8	DHS	(2011)
Pakistan	93.4	93.6	99.8	99.8	90.2	90.5	70.6	71.4	96.8	97.1	99.3	99.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	DHS	(2012)
Sri Lanka	20.3	23.5	55.0	59.4	14.0	16.5	DHS	(1987)
Turkey		
South-East Asia																		
Brunei Darussalam		
Cambodia	57.2	55.9	97.2	96.9	49.8	49.1	5.7	5.9	32.1	32.0	63.0	61.4	86.9	86.8	98.4	98.4	DHS	(2014)
Indonesia	96.1	95.9	99.3	99.1	92.9	92.9	82.2	83.4	98.8	98.8	99.6	99.6	99.7	99.7	99.9	99.9	DHS	(2012)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	73.7	74.2	97.4	97.7	65.8	65.9	18.0	18.3	61.3	61.0	91.6	92.0	98.7	99.0	99.6	99.7	MICS	(2011)
Malaysia		
Myanmar	99.9	99.8	MICS	(2010)
Philippines	86.8	87.7	93.7	94.1	80.6	81.7	46.3	45.4	91.7	91.0	99.0	99.0	99.6	99.5	99.9	99.9	DHS	(2013)
Singapore		
Thailand	71.7	76.5	97.5	97.9	67.4	71.6	DHS	(1987)
Timor-Leste	39.4	37.7	84.9	83.2	24.8	23.9	1.2	0.9	8.7	9.1	25.9	27.3	60.7	61.2	96.9	97.0	DHS	(2009)
Viet Nam	88.2	89.2	99.5	99.4	85.4	86.8	DHS	(2002)
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		

Source:
All Columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) micro datasets. Available at <https://dhsprogram.com/> and <http://mics.unicef.org/> (Accessed 15 August 2016).

Note:
* Sex-disaggregated estimates derived based on number of household members by sex, weighted by household survey weights.
... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 8.1: Selected SDG 8 indicators: Informal employment and child labour

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

Target 8.3: Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services

Indicator 8.3.1: Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex (%)

Target 8.7: Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms

Indicator 8.7.1: Proportion and number of children aged 5–17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age

	CORE Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex (%)			CORE Proportion of children aged 5–17 years engaged in labour (%), by sex, residence and wealth quintile*											Latest Year	
	Male	Female	Year	Total	Sex		Place of residence		Wealth quintile							
					Male	Female	Rural	Urban	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5			
Developed economies																
Australia			
Japan			
New Zealand			
East and North-East Asia																
People's Republic of China ^a	30.1	35.7	(2010)			
Hong Kong, China			
Macau, China			
Dem. People's Republic of Korea			
Mongolia		15.2	(2013)	c	
Republic of Korea			
North and Central Asia																
Armenia	24.8	12.7	(2009)	3.9	4.7	2.9	2.4	6.0	6.9	4.1	3.2	2.4	2.4	(2010)		
Azerbaijan		6.5	7.5	5.4	2.1	10.7	(2007)	c	
Georgia		18.4	20	16.6	16.1	20.4	17.8	21.5	19.7	17.8	15	(2005)		
Kazakhstan		2.2	2.4	2.1	2.5	1.9	1.8	2.1	2.8	2.4	2.2	(2006)		
Kyrgyz Republic	65.4	50.7	(2009)	25.8	29.9	21.5	12.3	30.9	26.2	28.8	32.9	27.1	11	(2014)	c	
Russian Federation	13.3	10.9	(2010)			
Tajikistan		10.0	9.4	10.6	8.1	10.6	13.6	12.2	9.0	8.0	6.0	(2005)		
Turkmenistan			
Uzbekistan			
Pacific																
American Samoa			
Cook Islands			
Fiji			
French Polynesia			
Guam			
Kiribati			
Marshall Islands			
Micronesia, Fed. States of			
Nauru			
New Caledonia			
Niue			
Northern Mariana Islands			
Palau			
Papua New Guinea			
Samoa			
Solomon Islands			
Tonga			
Tuvalu			
Vanuatu		15.2	14.8	15.7	11.7	16.5	19.2	15.1	14.6	14.1	12.0	(2013)	c	
South and South-West Asia																
Afghanistan		29.4	34.1	24.2	(2014)	c	
Bangladesh		4.3	4.6	3.9	(2013)	c	
Bhutan		2.9	2.6	3.1	1.7	3.3	4.5	3.2	2.2	2.4	2.2	(2010)	c	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)		11.4	12.5	10.2	9.5	15.0	(2010)	c	
Maldives			
Nepal		37.4	36.5	38.3	16.2	40.9	60.8	45.2	34.4	24.8	10.8	(2014)	c	
Pakistan	78.7	75.7	(2009–10)			
Sri Lanka	65.2	55.7	(2009)	2.5	3.3	1.6	3.2	2.4	(2009)	c	
Turkey	30.1	32.6	(2009)	5.9	7.9	3.7	3.9	9.7	(2012)	c	
South-East Asia																
Brunei Darussalam			
Cambodia		19.3	19.8	18.8	(2014)	c	
Indonesia	72.3	72.9	(2009)	6.9	7.9	5.8	(2009)	c	
Lao People's Democratic Republic		10.1	9.0	11.2	(2010)	c	
Malaysia			
Myanmar			
Philippines	69.9	70.2	(2008)	11.1	14.1	7.9	(2011)	c	
Singapore			
Thailand	41.2	43.5	(2013)	8.3	8.3	8.2	8.0	8.4	8.6	8.5	9.0	8.1	7.0	(2006)		
Timor-Leste	13.5	26.5	(2010)	4.2	4.1	4.4	(2002)		
Viet Nam	69.4	66.8	(2009)	16.4	16.6	16.2	9.6	19.3	33.6	18.7	13.2	8.4	4.0	(2014)		

	CORE Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex (%)			CORE Proportion of children aged 5–17 years engaged in labour (%), by sex, residence and wealth quintile*										
	Male	Female	Year	Total	Sex		Place of residence		Wealth quintile					Latest Year
					Male	Female	Rural	Urban	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	
Asia and the Pacific	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Developed economies	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Developing economies	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
East and North-East Asia	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
North and Central Asia	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Pacific	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
South and South-West Asia	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
South-East Asia	—	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	

Source:

Columns 1–2: ILO, 2012, Statistical update on employment in the informal economy. Available at http://laborsta.ilo.org/informal_economy_E.html (Accessed 15 May 2016) TABLE II. 47
 Countries: Employment in the informal economy in non-agricultural activities by component and sex, latest year available. Columns 4–13: UNICEF global databases, 2016, based on DHS, MICS and other nationally representative surveys.

Note:

DHS = Demographic and Health Survey, KFR = Key Findings Report, MICS = Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, MIDHS = Multiple-Indicator Demographic and Health Survey, NFHS = National Family Health Survey.

^a Refer to six cities only.

^b Refer to Banten and Yogyakarta only.

^c According to UNICEF, data differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of a country.

* Data from the fourth round of MICS (MICS4, 2009–2012) included in the table have been recalculated according to the indicator definition used in MICS3 surveys, to ensure cross-country comparability. In this definition, the activities of fetching water or collecting firewood are classified as household chores rather than as an economic activity. Under this approach, a child between the ages of 5 and 14 would have to be engaged in fetching water or collecting firewood for at least 28 hours per week to be considered as a child labourer. Sub-regional aggregates were not able to be calculated due to lack of data on population ages 5–17.

... = data not available.

— : indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 8.2: Selected SDG 8 indicators: Gender wage gap

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

Target 8.5: By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value

Indicator 8.5.1: Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities

	Average hourly earnings of employees by sex (in national currency)								Average monthly earnings of employees by sex (in US\$)				Gender Wage Gap (Difference of male and female monthly earnings as a proportion of male monthly earnings (%))			
	Earliest Year				Latest Year				Latest Year							
	Male	Year	Female	Year	Male	Year	Female	Year	Male	Year	Female	Year	Earliest	Year	Latest	Year
Developed economies																
Australia	
Japan		3,081.0	(2016)	2,248.0	(2016)	36.5	(2000)	27.0	(2016)
New Zealand		3,780.0	(2016)	2,652.0	(2016)	33.2	(2000)	29.8	(2016)
East and North-East Asia																
People's Republic of China	
Hong Kong, China	
Macau, China	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea		3,342.0	(2015)	2,088.0	(2015)	...		37.5	(2015)
Mongolia		434.0	(2015)	386.0	(2015)	7.6	(2000)	11.1	(2015)
Republic of Korea	16,312.9	(2009)	10,589.0	(2009)	20,734.0	(2015)	13,545.0	(2015)	
North and Central Asia																
Armenia		249.0	(2015)	166.0	(2015)	48.1	(2000)	33.3	(2015)
Azerbaijan		395.0	(2016)	199.0	(2016)	54.2	(2000)	49.6	(2016)
Georgia		555.0	(2014)	350.0	(2014)	45.7	(2000)	36.9	(2014)
Kazakhstan		684.0	(2015)	451.0	(2015)	39.2	(2003)	34.1	(2015)
Kyrgyz Republic		223.0	(2016)	168.0	(2016)	...		24.7	(2016)
Russian Federation		217.0	(2015)	164.0	(2015)	
Tajikistan	
Turkmenistan	
Uzbekistan	
Pacific																
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	
Fiji	
French Polynesia		2,133.0	(2003)	1,906.0	(2003)	...		10.6	(2003)
Guam	
Kiribati	
Marshall Islands	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	
Nauru	
New Caledonia	
Niue	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau	
Papua New Guinea	
Samoa		653.0	(2012)	560.0	(2012)	...		14.2	(2012)
Solomon Islands	
Tonga	
Tuvalu	
Vanuatu	
South and South-West Asia																
Afghanistan	
Bangladesh		169.0	(2015)	155.0	(2015)	...		8.3	(2015)
Bhutan	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	
Maldives		718.0	(2010)	509.0	(2010)	...		29.1	(2010)
Nepal		110.0	(2008)	74.0	(2008)	40.5	(2008)	32.7	(2008)
Pakistan	3,653.8	(2002)	2,029.9	(2002)	14,079.4	(2014)	8,209.9	(2014)	151.0	(2016)	93.0	(2016)	39.5	(2000)	38.4	(2016)
Sri Lanka		131.0	(2010)	107.0	(2010)	12.2	(2000)	18.3	(2010)
Turkey		11.1	(2014)	11.3	(2014)	1,058.0	(2014)	1,065.0	(2014)	1.4	(2006)	-0.7	(2014)
South-East Asia																
Brunei Darussalam		1,708.0	(2014)	1,577.0	(2014)	...		7.8	(2014)
Cambodia		131.0	(2012)	106.0	(2012)	11.6	(2004)	19.1	(2012)
Indonesia	1,254,865.0	(2008)	973,642.0	(2008)	2,061,258.0	(2013)	1,615,889.0	(2013)	207.0	(2016)	165.0	(2016)	...		20.3	(2016)
Lao People's Democratic Republic		116.0	(2010)	95.0	(2010)	...		18.1	(2010)
Malaysia	9.3	(2009)	9.3	(2011)	12.0	(2015)	12.3	(2015)	603.0	(2016)	578.0	(2016)	...		4.1	(2016)
Myanmar	
Philippines		150.0	(2016)	155.0	(2016)	-3.9	(2001)	-3.3	(2016)
Singapore		2,995.0	(2015)	2,723.0	(2015)	28.1	(2000)	9.0	(2015)
Thailand		102.0	(2016)	124.0	(2016)	394.0	(2016)	388.0	(2016)	9.5	(2001)	1.5	(2016)
Timor-Leste	
Viet Nam		28,000.0	(2016)	25,000.0	(2016)	237.0	(2016)	213.0	(2016)	12.6	(2007)	10.1	(2016)
Asia and the Pacific	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Developed economies	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Developing economies	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
East and North-East Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
North and Central Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
Pacific	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
South and South-West Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	
South-East Asia	—		—		—		—		—		—		—		—	

Source:

All Columns: ILO, ILOSTAT. Available at: <http://www.ilo.org/ilostat/> (Accessed July 2017).

Note:

One complementary indicator is included in this table: Gender wage gap (difference of male and female monthly earnings as a proportion of male monthly earnings)

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 8.3: Selected SDG 8 indicators: Unemployment rate and proportion of adults with an account at a financial institution

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

Target 8.5: By 2030, achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men, including for young people and persons with disabilities, and equal pay for work of equal value

Target 8.10: Strengthen the capacity of domestic financial institutions to encourage and expand access to banking, insurance and financial services for all

	CORE Unemployment Rate for age group 15+ (%)					
	Earliest year			Latest Year		
	Male		Female	Male		Female
Developed economies						
Australia	6.5 (2000)		6.1 (2000)	6.1 (2015)		6.1 (2015)
Japan	4.9 (2000)		4.5 (2000)	3.6 (2015)		3.1 (2015)
New Zealand	6.3 (2000)		6.0 (2000)	5.3 (2015)		6.3 (2015)
East and North-East Asia						
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China	5.6 (2000)		4.0 (2000)	3.4 (2015)		3.1 (2015)
Macau, China	8.6 (2000)		4.6 (2000)	2.0 (2015)		1.6 (2015)
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia	6.2 (2002)		6.2 (2002)	8.2 (2015)		6.7 (2015)
Republic of Korea	5.0 (2000)		3.6 (2000)	3.7 (2015)		3.6 (2015)
North and Central Asia						
Armenia	14.4 (2008)		18.6 (2008)	15.8 (2014)		19.5 (2014)
Azerbaijan	10.9 (2000)		12.7 (2000)	4.1 (2015)		5.9 (2015)
Georgia	11.1 (2000)		10.5 (2000)	13.5 (2015)		10.2 (2015)
Kazakhstan	8.9 (2001)		12.0 (2001)	4.3 (2015)		5.7 (2015)
Kyrgyz Republic	11.2 (2002)		14.3 (2002)	6.5 (2015)		9.0 (2015)
Russian Federation	10.8 (2000)		10.4 (2000)	5.8 (2015)		5.3 (2015)
Tajikistan	12.3 (2009)		10.5 (2009)
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific						
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	4.1 (2004)		6.0 (2004)	6.4 (2007)		12.9 (2007)
French Polynesia	10.6 (2002)		13.4 (2002)	21.1 (2012)		22.8 (2012)
Guam	13.7 (2000)		12.4 (2000)	11.9 (2012)		10.8 (2012)
Kiribati	12.3 (2005)		18.2 (2005)	27.6 (2010)		34.1 (2010)
Marshall Islands	4.9 (2011)		4.5 (2011)
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru	17.0 (2002)		29.7 (2002)	21.4 (2011)		25.5 (2011)
New Caledonia	12.1 (2009)		16.3 (2009)
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea	4.3 (2000)		1.3 (2000)
Samoa	4.4 (2001)		6.2 (2001)	7.8 (2012)		10.3 (2012)
Solomon Islands
Tonga	3.6 (2003)		7.4 (2003)
Tuvalu	4.9 (2002)		8.6 (2002)
Vanuatu	4.9 (2009)		6.2 (2009)
South and South-West Asia						
Afghanistan	6.4 (2011)		16.5 (2011)
Bangladesh	3.2 (2000)		3.3 (2000)	3.0 (2013)		7.2 (2013)
Bhutan	1.3 (2001)		3.2 (2001)	1.8 (2015)		3.2 (2015)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	11.2 (2002)		22.4 (2002)	9.3 (2015)		19.5 (2015)
Maldives	7.9 (2006)		23.8 (2006)	4.8 (2014)		5.9 (2014)
Nepal	2.3 (2008)		2.0 (2008)	2.6 (2014)		3.4 (2014)
Pakistan	5.5 (2000)		15.8 (2000)	5.0 (2015)		9.0 (2015)
Sri Lanka	5.9 (2000)		11.4 (2000)	3.0 (2015)		7.6 (2015)
Turkey	6.6 (2000)		6.3 (2000)	9.2 (2015)		12.6 (2015)
South-East Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	1.3 (2011)		2.4 (2011)
Cambodia	2.1 (2000)		2.8 (2000)	0.1 (2014)		0.1 (2014)
Indonesia	5.7 (2000)		6.7 (2000)	5.8 (2014)		6.3 (2014)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.3 (2005)		1.4 (2005)
Malaysia	3.0 (2000)		3.1 (2000)	2.9 (2015)		3.4 (2015)
Myanmar	0.7 (2015)		0.9 (2015)
Philippines	11.0 (2000)		11.5 (2000)	6.6 (2015)		5.8 (2015)
Singapore	3.9 (2000)		3.5 (2000)	2.6 (2014)		3.0 (2014)
Thailand	2.4 (2000)		2.3 (2000)	0.9 (2014)		0.8 (2014)
Timor-Leste	8.0 (2001)		13.7 (2001)	2.8 (2010)		4.8 (2010)
Viet Nam	2.4 (2000)		2.1 (2000)	2.3 (2015)		2.0 (2015)
	(2000–2009)		(2000–2009)	(2010–2015)		(2010–2015)
Asia and the Pacific	6.2		7.8	4.9		6.4
Developed economies	5.1		4.7	4.0		3.6
Developing economies	6.4		8.3	4.9		6.8
East and North-East Asia	5.1		3.8	3.8		3.6
North and Central Asia	10.8		10.8	5.9		5.8
Pacific	4.6		2.8
South and South-West Asia	5.7		10.6	5.5		10.5
South-East Asia	5.2		5.6	4.0		4.1

Source:

Columns 1–12: United Nations Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed July 2017); Column 13–14: World Bank, World Development Indicators. Available at: <http://data.worldbank.org/data-catalog/world-development-indicators>. (Accessed July 2017).

Indicator 8.5.2: Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities

Indicator 8.10.2: Proportion of adults (15 years and older) with an account at a bank or other financial institution or with a mobile-money-service provider

CORE Unemployment Rate for age group 15–24 (%)								CORE Unemployment Rate for age group 25+ (%)								SD Account at a financial institution, by sex (% total population aged 15+)	
Earliest year				Latest Year				Earliest year				Latest Year				2014	
Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
12.9	(2000)	11.2	(2000)	14.3	(2015)	11.9	(2015)	5.1	(2000)	4.7	(2000)	4.5	(2015)	4.8	(2015)	98.7	99.0
10.2	(2000)	7.9	(2000)	5.9	(2015)	5.1	(2015)	4.3	(2000)	3.9	(2000)	3.4	(2015)	2.9	(2015)	96.2	97.0
14.6	(2000)	12.4	(2000)	14.6	(2015)	14.7	(2015)	4.6	(2000)	4.6	(2000)	3.4	(2015)	4.7	(2015)	99.9	99.2
...			81.4	76.4
11.9	(2000)	10.4	(2000)	10.4	(2014)	8.1	(2014)	4.8	(2000)	3.0	(2000)	3.0	(2014)	2.5	(2014)	96.0	96.3
14.2	(2000)	6.7	(2000)	5.9	(2014)	4.5	(2014)	8.0	(2000)	4.1	(2000)	1.6	(2014)	1.0	(2014)
...	
12.7	(2002)	12.3	(2002)	16.8	(2015)	19.4	(2015)	4.5	(2002)	4.9	(2002)	7.0	(2015)	5.3	(2015)	90.3	93.2
13.6	(2000)	9.0	(2000)	11.3	(2015)	10.0	(2015)	4.3	(2000)	2.7	(2000)	3.3	(2015)	2.9	(2015)	95.4	93.4
32.1	(2008)	43.1	(2008)	30.7	(2014)	44.9	(2014)	11.3	(2008)	15.4	(2008)	13.6	(2014)	16.2	(2014)	20.7	14.3
18.2	(2007)	10.4	(2007)	11.4	(2015)	15.8	(2015)	6.2	(2007)	4.3	(2007)	3.0	(2015)	4.6	(2015)	32.6	25.9
21.6	(2000)	20.5	(2000)	28.6	(2015)	35.2	(2015)	9.8	(2000)	9.5	(2000)	11.6	(2015)	8.5	(2015)	39.6	39.8
15.7	(2002)	19.3	(2002)	3.6	(2013)	4.3	(2013)	6.0	(2002)	9.9	(2002)	4.7	(2013)	6.1	(2013)	52.0	55.6
19.3	(2002)	21.2	(2002)	12.5	(2015)	19.1	(2015)	8.8	(2002)	12.4	(2002)	5.1	(2015)	7.0	(2015)	17.9	18.9
19.5	(2000)	22.2	(2000)	15.3	(2015)	16.9	(2015)	9.3	(2000)	8.6	(2000)	4.8	(2015)	4.3	(2015)	63.8	70.2
19.2	(2009)	13.7	(2009)		10.1	(2009)	9.3	(2009)		13.9	9.1
...			2.0	1.6
...			42.2	39.3
...	
...	
14.8	(2007)	25.4	(2007)
29.3	(2002)	39.1	(2002)	54.5	(2012)	59.7	(2012)	6.6	(2002)	7.8	(2002)	14.6	(2012)	15.6	(2012)
29.1	(2002)	27.1	(2002)	29.7	(2011)	28.9	(2011)	10.3	(2002)	7.1	(2002)	8.2	(2011)	13.3	(2011)
37.2	(2005)	41.6	(2005)	47.6	(2010)	61.8	(2010)	6.5	(2005)	10.1	(2005)	19.2	(2010)	22.8	(2010)
...	
...			7.2	(2016)	9.0	(2016)
31.6	(2002)	46.1	(2002)		8.6	(2002)	20.7	(2002)
...	
...	
...	
...	
10.6	(2001)	15.5	(2001)	15.6	(2012)	25.3	(2012)	2.6	(2001)	3.0	(2001)	6.0	(2012)	7.1	(2012)
...	
9.9	(2003)	15.1	(2003)		2.0	(2003)	5.8	(2003)
...	
10.2	(2009)	11.2	(2009)		3.2	(2009)	4.5	(2009)
...			15.8	3.8
11.1	(2000)	10.3	(2000)	9.5	(2013)	9.4	(2013)	1.0	(2000)	0.7	(2000)	1.6	(2013)	6.2	(2013)	32.9	25.2
5.5	(2001)	7.2	(2001)	8.2	(2015)	12.7	(2015)	2.0	(2005)	1.7	(2005)	1.1	(2015)	1.6	(2015)	39.0	27.7
21.2	(2005)	34.0	(2005)	22.3	(2015)	42.8	(2015)	7.0	(2005)	11.5	(2005)	7.6	(2015)	16.0	(2015)	97.1	87.1
15.4	(2006)	30.5	(2006)	29.1	(2010)	21.4	(2010)	4.9	(2006)	20.4	(2006)	4.7	(2010)	9.9	(2010)
4.2	(2008)	2.9	(2008)		1.6	(2008)	1.6	(2008)		36.7	31.3
11.1	(2000)	29.2	(2000)	9.4	(2014)	12.9	(2014)	3.4	(2000)	12.3	(2000)	2.8	(2014)	7.1	(2014)	14.2	3.0
19.9	(2000)	30.8	(2000)	16.5	(2015)	27.3	(2015)	2.2	(2000)	6.2	(2000)	1.3	(2015)	4.8	(2015)	82.2	83.1
13.7	(2000)	11.9	(2000)	16.5	(2015)	22.2	(2015)	4.7	(2000)	3.9	(2000)	7.8	(2015)	10.3	(2015)	69.0	44.3
...	
...		...		0.7	(2010)	0.4	(2010)		0.3	(2010)	0.2	(2010)	14.9	10.7
19.7	(2000)	20.1	(2000)	21.2	(2013)	22.1	(2013)	2.3	(2000)	2.8	(2000)	2.9	(2013)	2.9	(2013)	34.6	37.2
...	
8.3	(2000)	8.3	(2000)	9.9	(2015)	11.8	(2015)	1.5	(2000)	1.2	(2000)	1.4	(2015)	1.6	(2015)	83.0	78.1
...			28.6	17.1
22.9	(2000)	29.5	(2000)	14.3	(2014)	16.9	(2014)	7.4	(2000)	6.6	(2000)	4.8	(2014)	3.4	(2014)	22.0	33.9
...		...		5.4	(2013)	9.0	(2013)	2.5	(2003)	2.3	(2003)	2.4	(2014)	2.4	(2014)	96.6	96.1
7.0	(2000)	6.0	(2000)	3.8	(2014)	5.4	(2014)	1.4	(2000)	1.5	(2000)	0.5	(2014)	0.4	(2014)	81.2	75.4
20.9	(2001)	27.9	(2001)	11.1	(2010)	20.0	(2010)		1.9	(2010)	2.7	(2010)
5.0	(2000)	4.6	(2000)	6.8	(2015)	7.3	(2015)	1.6	(2000)	1.5	(2000)	1.4	(2015)	1.1	(2015)	29.8	31.9
(2000–2009)	(2000–2009)	(2010–2015)	(2010–2015)	(2000–2009)	(2000–2009)	(2010–2015)	(2010–2015)	(2000–2009)	(2000–2009)	(2010–2015)	(2010–2015)	(2000–2009)	(2000–2009)	(2010–2015)	(2010–2015)		
14.8		14.8		13.0		12.4		4.3		5.1		—		—		65.4	61.3
10.7		8.4		7.9		6.3		4.4		4.0		3.6		3.2		96.7	97.4
15.1		18.6		13.4		17.0		4.3		5.4		3.5		5.0		63.6	59.1
13.4		9.3		11.5		10.3		5.3	a	2.8	a	3.3	a	2.9	a	80.7	75.8
19.4		21.2		14.1		16.4		9.0		8.8		5.0		4.8		53.7	58.3
...	
13.4		20.4		12.3		20.0		0.0		0.1		0.0		0.1		42.8	32.3
15.6		16.7		14.5		15.7		2.7		2.8		2.4		2.1		39.3	40.4

Note:

In estimating sub-regional aggregates, the year for population weight (2000, 2005, 2010 or 2015) used was that closest to the year available for the data.

* Sub-regional aggregate does not include China.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 8.4a: Additional SDG 8 indicators: Distribution of employment by sector

	Male employment in agriculture (%)		Female employment in agriculture (%)		Male employment in industry (%)		Female employment in industry (%)		Male employment in services (%)		Female employment in services (%)	
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year
Developed economies												
Australia	6.0 (2000)	3.5 (2016)	3.4 (2000)	1.7 (2016)	31.3 (2000)	29.4 (2016)	10.6 (2000)	8.0 (2016)	56.6 (2000)	67.2 (2016)	79.9 (2000)	90.5 (2016)
Japan	4.7 (2000)	3.9 (2015)	5.5 (2000)	3.2 (2015)	38.0 (2000)	33.9 (2015)	21.5 (2000)	14.6 (2015)	56.7 (2000)	60.8 (2015)	72.4 (2000)	80.6 (2015)
New Zealand	11.1 (2000)	8.4 (2016)	5.9 (2000)	4.4 (2016)	32.3 (2000)	30.2 (2016)	12.2 (2000)	9.0 (2016)	56.0 (2000)	61.4 (2016)	81.4 (2000)	86.7 (2016)
East and North-East Asia												
People's Republic of China	4.5 (2003)	3.6 (2007)	4.2 (2003)	3.5 (2007)	43.5 (2003)	47.0 (2007)	39.3 (2003)	40.5 (2007)	48.9 (2003)	46.2 (2007)	53.3 (2003)	52.5 (2007)
Hong Kong, China	0.3 (2000)	...	0.2 (2000)	...	27.5 (2000)	19.4 (2016)	10.4 (2000)	3.9 (2016)	72.1 (2000)	80.2 (2016)	89.3 (2000)	95.1 (2016)
Macau, China	0.2 (2000)	0.0 (2014)	0.1 (2000)	0.0 (2014)	26.5 (2000)	22.1 (2016)	30.2 (2000)	4.7 (2016)	73.3 (2000)	77.8 (2016)	69.6 (2000)	95.2 (2016)
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia	50.6 (2000)	32.5 (2016)	46.5 (2000)	28.0 (2016)	16.8 (2000)	24.7 (2016)	11.3 (2000)	12.7 (2016)	32.6 (2000)	42.9 (2016)	42.2 (2000)	59.3 (2016)
Republic of Korea	9.5 (2000)	5.0 (2016)	12.2 (2000)	4.8 (2016)	34.5 (2000)	33.4 (2016)	19.2 (2000)	13.3 (2016)	56.1 (2000)	61.7 (2016)	68.6 (2000)	81.8 (2016)
North and Central Asia												
Armenia	47.6 (2002)	31.1 (2015)	42.6 (2002)	40.0 (2015)	22.1 (2002)	23.4 (2015)	11.3 (2002)	7.6 (2015)	30.3 (2002)	45.5 (2015)	46.1 (2002)	52.4 (2015)
Azerbaijan	36.4 (2000)	31.0 (2015)	46.1 (2000)	42.1 (2015)	13.9 (2000)	21.8 (2015)	7.5 (2000)	5.9 (2015)	49.7 (2000)	47.2 (2015)	46.4 (2000)	52.1 (2015)
Georgia	47.0 (2000)	48.0 (2014)	57.5 (2000)	54.1 (2014)	15.2 (2000)	15.1 (2014)	4.1 (2000)	4.4 (2014)	37.8 (2000)	36.9 (2014)	38.2 (2000)	41.5 (2014)
Kazakhstan	36.8 (2001)	18.9 (2015)	34.2 (2001)	17.1 (2015)	22.5 (2001)	29.1 (2015)	9.7 (2001)	11.5 (2015)	40.8 (2001)	52.1 (2015)	56.1 (2001)	71.4 (2015)
Kyrgyz Republic	51.7 (2000)	27.5 (2015)	54.8 (2000)	31.9 (2015)	13.0 (2000)	27.8 (2015)	7.3 (2000)	10.8 (2015)	35.3 (2000)	44.7 (2015)	38.0 (2000)	57.3 (2015)
Russian Federation	17.1 (2000)	8.3 (2016)	11.7 (2000)	5.0 (2016)	34.7 (2000)	37.2 (2016)	21.7 (2000)	16.1 (2016)	48.2 (2000)	54.5 (2016)	66.5 (2000)	78.9 (2016)
Tajikistan	41.8 (2004)	41.1 (2009)	75.1 (2004)	68.5 (2009)	27.1 (2004)	23.4 (2009)	4.8 (2004)	5.4 (2009)	30.8 (2004)	35.0 (2009)	19.7 (2004)	25.9 (2009)
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific												
American Samoa
Cook Islands	...	6.4 (2011)	...	1.8 (2011)	...	17.7 (2011)	...	5.0 (2011)	...	75.9 (2011)	...	93.3 (2011)
Fiji	1.9 (2000)	1.3 (2007)	0.7 (2000)	0.4 (2007)	28.4 (2000)	27.7 (2007)	35.5 (2000)	22.0 (2007)	69.6 (2000)	71.0 (2007)	63.8 (2000)	77.6 (2007)
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	3.7 (2000)	32.1 (2010)	1.1 (2000)	9.0 (2010)	10.0 (2000)	9.1 (2010)	3.1 (2000)	25.3 (2010)	81.1 (2000)	58.8 (2010)	95.8 (2000)	65.7 (2010)
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue	11.4 (2001)	...	5.8 (2001)	...	28.7 (2001)	...	8.7 (2001)	...	59.4 (2001)	...	85.1 (2001)	...
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	9.6 (2000)	...	3.1 (2000)	...	20.7 (2000)	...	2.6 (2000)	...	69.7 (2000)	...	94.4 (2000)	...
Papua New Guinea
Samoa	50.3 (2001)	6.5 (2014)	15.8 (2001)	3.5 (2014)	14.8 (2001)	19.0 (2014)	30.9 (2001)	7.6 (2014)	33.3 (2001)	74.5 (2014)	51.2 (2001)	89.0 (2014)
Solomon Islands
Tonga	50.6 (2003)	...	4.6 (2003)	...	13.5 (2003)	...	55.3 (2003)	...	35.8 (2003)	...	40.0 (2003)	...
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	59.2 (2009)	...	62.3 (2009)	...	10.5 (2009)	...	2.5 (2009)	...	29.4 (2009)	...	33.3 (2009)	...
South and South-West Asia												
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	53.3 (2000)	41.7 (2012)	76.9 (2000)	53.5 (2012)	11.0 (2000)	19.6 (2012)	9.0 (2000)	23.7 (2012)	30.3 (2000)	38.7 (2012)	12.1 (2000)	22.8 (2012)
Bhutan	71.0 (2003)	51.3 (2015)	88.7 (2003)	65.7 (2015)	4.1 (2003)	10.1 (2015)	1.3 (2003)	9.2 (2015)	24.9 (2003)	38.6 (2015)	10.0 (2003)	25.1 (2015)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	22.6 (2005)	17.1 (2015)	33.6 (2005)	22.8 (2015)	30.8 (2005)	34.2 (2015)	28.3 (2005)	23.8 (2015)	46.5 (2005)	48.7 (2015)	38.0 (2005)	53.4 (2015)
Maldives	17.9 (2000)	19.6 (2010)	5.4 (2000)	6.6 (2010)	16.4 (2000)	15.1 (2010)	24.1 (2000)	16.6 (2010)	55.8 (2000)	62.2 (2010)	39.0 (2000)	56.1 (2010)
Nepal	60.2 (2001)	62.1 (2008)	72.8 (2001)	84.3 (2008)	13.1 (2001)	15.5 (2008)	13.7 (2001)	6.8 (2008)	26.4 (2001)	22.4 (2008)	13.3 (2001)	9.0 (2008)
Pakistan	44.4 (2000)	32.0 (2015)	72.9 (2000)	71.8 (2015)	19.5 (2000)	26.8 (2015)	9.0 (2000)	14.7 (2015)	36.1 (2000)	41.2 (2015)	18.1 (2000)	13.6 (2015)
Sri Lanka	31.8 (2002)	25.3 (2016)	40.0 (2002)	30.4 (2016)	21.5 (2002)	26.9 (2016)	24.3 (2002)	25.4 (2016)	28.0 (2002)	47.8 (2016)	25.0 (2002)	44.2 (2016)
Turkey	27.0 (2000)	15.5 (2016)	60.5 (2000)	28.7 (2016)	28.0 (2000)	31.6 (2016)	13.2 (2000)	15.9 (2016)	45.0 (2000)	53.0 (2016)	26.4 (2000)	55.4 (2016)
South-East Asia												
Brunei Darussalam	2.1 (2001)	0.6 (2014)	0.3 (2001)	0.4 (2014)	28.6 (2001)	24.3 (2014)	11.2 (2001)	11.0 (2014)	69.3 (2001)	74.9 (2014)	88.4 (2001)	88.5 (2014)
Cambodia	72.4 (2000)	52.9 (2010)	74.9 (2000)	55.4 (2010)	7.1 (2000)	17.0 (2010)	9.6 (2000)	15.5 (2010)	20.4 (2000)	30.1 (2010)	15.5 (2000)	29.1 (2010)
Indonesia	44.4 (2000)	32.9 (2016)	46.7 (2000)	30.1 (2016)	19.0 (2000)	25.0 (2016)	15.0 (2000)	15.2 (2016)	36.7 (2000)	42.1 (2016)	38.3 (2000)	54.7 (2016)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	69.2 (2010)	...	73.5 (2010)	...	9.9 (2010)	...	6.7 (2010)	...	21.0 (2010)	...	19.5 (2010)	...
Malaysia	20.7 (2000)	14.2 (2016)	14.0 (2000)	6.8 (2016)	33.9 (2000)	32.1 (2016)	28.9 (2000)	20.0 (2016)	45.4 (2000)	53.7 (2016)	57.0 (2000)	73.1 (2016)
Myanmar	...	52.6 (2015)	...	50.0 (2015)	...	18.4 (2015)	...	14.4 (2015)	...	28.6 (2015)	...	34.9 (2015)
Philippines	45.0 (2000)	33.2 (2016)	23.9 (2000)	17.3 (2016)	18.0 (2000)	22.2 (2016)	13.3 (2000)	10.0 (2016)	37.0 (2000)	44.6 (2016)	62.8 (2000)	72.8 (2016)
Singapore	1.2 (2001)	...	0.5 (2001)	...	13.3 (2001)	29.2 (2016)	20.0 (2016)	20.7 (2001)	11.8 (2015)	69.6 (2001)	78.6 (2015)	78.8 (2001)
Thailand	49.5 (2000)	35.3 (2016)	47.3 (2000)	30.7 (2016)	18.5 (2000)	25.2 (2016)	17.1 (2000)	19.7 (2016)	32.0 (2000)	39.3 (2016)	35.5 (2000)	49.3 (2016)
Timor-Leste	82.3 (2001)	37.7 (2013)	79.9 (2001)	45.9 (2013)	4.3 (2001)	15.4 (2013)	3.1 (2001)	7.4 (2013)	9.6 (2001)	45.3 (2013)	15.1 (2001)	44.6 (2013)
Viet Nam	64.2 (2000)	40.3 (2016)	66.3 (2000)	43.5 (2016)	14.7 (2000)	28.5 (2016)	10.1 (2000)	20.8 (2016)	21.1 (2000)	31.2 (2016)	23.6 (2000)	35.7 (2016)
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 9th ed. (available from <http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/research-and-databases/kilm/lang-en/index.htm>). (Accessed August 2016).

Note:

... = data not available.
— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.
0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 8.4b: Additional SDG 8 indicators: Distribution of self-employment by status of employment

	Male Employers ¹		Female Employers ²		Male Own Account Worker ³		Female Own Account Worker ⁴		Contributing Family Workers, Male ⁵		Contributing Family Workers, Female ⁶	
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year
Developed economies												
Australia	4.4 (2000)	3.4 (2008)	2.8 (2000)	2.1 (2008)	11.8 (2000)	10.6 (2008)	6.9 (2000)	6.6 (2008)	0.6 (2000)	0.2 (2011)	1.1 (2000)	0.3 (2011)
Japan	3.9 (2000)	5.1 (2008)	1.3 (2000)	1.0 (2008)	12.0 (2000)	...	6.5 (2000)	4.6 (2008)	1.7 (2000)	1.0 (2011)	10.6 (2000)	5.6 (2011)
New Zealand	9.1 (2000)	6.7 (2008)	4.5 (2000)	3.1 (2008)	15.9 (2000)	13.8 (2008)	8.8 (2000)	8.1 (2008)	0.5 (2000)	0.7 (2011)	1.3 (2000)	1.3 (2011)
East and North-East Asia												
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China	7.2 (2000)	5.1 (2012)	1.7 (2000)	1.4 (2012)	7.2 (2000)	9.3 (2012)	2.2 (2000)	3.5 (2012)	0.1 (2000)	0.1 (2012)	1.2 (2000)	0.8 (2012)
Macau, China	5.6 (2000)	4.6 (2011)	0.9 (2000)	...	9.3 (2000)	5.7 (2011)	4.2 (2000)	2.2 (2011)	0.2 (2000)	0.1 (2011)	2.9 (2000)	0.6 (2011)
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	1.5
Mongolia	1.7 (2000)	1.6 (2011)	0.8 (2000)	0.8 (2011)	43.9 (2000)	26.2 (2011)	16.3 (2000)	18.2 (2011)	14.0 (2000)	30.9 (2011)	38.6 (2000)	34.2 (2011)
Republic of Korea	9.6 (2000)	...	3.0 (2000)	3.5 (2008)	24.1 (2000)	22.0 (2008)	16.2 (2000)	14.5 (2008)	2.0 (2000)	1.2 (2011)	19.2 (2000)	10.7 (2011)
North and Central Asia												
Armenia	0.7 (2008)	1.0 (2012)	0.1 (2008)	0.3 (2012)	28.9 (2008)	30.2 (2011)	30.0 (2008)	29.3 (2011)
Azerbaijan	4.5 (2003)	4.9 (2008)	4.3 (2003)	0.9 (2008)	43.5 (2003)	47.4 (2008)	43.5 (2003)	62.1 (2008)	17.2 (2003)	16.8 (2005)	20.7 (2003)	16.8 (2005)
Georgia	2.6 (2000)	2.0 (2010)	0.4 (2000)	0.5 (2010)	35.4 (2000)	44.4 (2010)	25.1 (2000)	26.5 (2010)	22.7 (2000)	16.1 (2010)	36.7 (2000)	34.2 (2010)
Kazakhstan	1.2 (2001)	2.9 (2012)	0.5 (2001)	1.4 (2012)	35.0 (2001)	28.0 (2012)	43.2 (2001)	29.5 (2012)	0.9 (2001)	0.5 (2012)	1.2 (2001)	0.4 (2012)
Kyrgyz Republic	2.0 (2002)	1.5 (2006)	1.0 (2002)	0.6 (2006)	45.6 (2002)	38.6 (2006)	34.8 (2002)	27.8 (2006)	6.5 (2002)	8.8 (2006)	15.9 (2002)	19.3 (2006)
Russian Federation	1.3 (2000)	1.8 (2008)	0.6 (2000)	1.1 (2008)	7.3 (2000)	5.8 (2008)	8.0 (2000)	5.3 (2008)	0.2 (2000)	0.1 (2008)	0.1 (2000)	0.1 (2008)
Tajikistan	0.6 (2009)	...	0.1 (2009)	...	17.9 (2003)	51.2 (2009)	18.9 (2003)	40.8 (2009)	24.5 (2003)	0.5 (2009)	33.5 (2003)	0.3 (2009)
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific												
American Samoa
Cook Islands	1.4 (2006)	1.1 (2011)	1.1 (2006)	0.7 (2011)
Fiji	1.7 (2002)	1.6 (2008)	1.0 (2002)	0.9 (2008)	28.8 (2002)	28.9 (2008)	20.0 (2002)	16.4 (2008)	9.8 (2002)	10.5 (2008)	26.9 (2002)	26.2 (2008)
French Polynesia	19.2 (2002)	18.0 (2007)	13.4 (2002)	12.0 (2007)	2.1 (2002)	0.4 (2007)	3.0 (2002)	0.4 (2007)
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands	0.0 (2000)
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa	4.6 (2001)	1.3 (2011)	5.2 (2001)	1.8 (2011)	6.0 (2008)	...	1.3 (2008)	...	51.2 (2001)	45.2 (2008)	35.7 (2001)	4.3 (2008)
Solomon Islands
Tonga	1.3 (2003)	...	0.9 (2003)	...	34.2 (2003)	...	40.1 (2003)	...	18.0 (2003)	...	19.4 (2003)	...
Tuvalu	2.2 (2002)	...	0.8 (2002)	...	2.0 (2002)	...	1.5 (2002)	...	0.2 (2002)	...	0.1 (2002)	...
Vanuatu	1.8 (2009)	...	1.0 (2009)	...	58.1 (2009)	...	65.3 (2009)	...	8.5 (2009)	...	9.2 (2009)	...
South and South-West Asia												
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	0.3 (2000)	0.3 (2005)	0.1 (2000)	0.1 (2005)	49.6 (2000)	74.8 (2005)	11.0 (2000)	26.4 (2005)	10.1 (2000)	9.7 (2005)	73.2 (2000)	60.1 (2005)
Bhutan	0.3 (2006)	20.8 (2012)	0.0 (2006)	18.2 (2012)	13.4 (2006)	34.6 (2012)	15.0 (2006)	64.3 (2012)	46.0 (2006)	3.4 (2012)	64.7 (2006)	3.2 (2012)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	6.4 (2007)	5.7 (2008)	0.9 (2007)	0.9 (2008)	34.4 (2007)	35.1 (2008)	23.4 (2007)	22.7 (2008)	5.4 (2007)	4.8 (2008)	32.7 (2007)	29.7 (2008)
Maldives	4.5 (2000)	4.8 (2006)	1.1 (2000)	1.1 (2006)	54.9 (2000)	11.6 (2006)	35.1 (2000)	24.1 (2006)	1.3 (2000)	7.9 (2006)	3.4 (2000)	22.9 (2006)
Nepal	3.9 (2001)	...	3.7 (2001)	...	56.7 (2001)	...	70.6 (2001)	...	5.7 (2001)	...	12.9 (2001)	...
Pakistan	0.9 (2000)	1.2 (2008)	0.1 (2000)	0.0 (2008)	46.4 (2000)	39.6 (2008)	16.7 (2000)	12.8 (2008)	16.7 (2000)	19.7 (2008)	50.1 (2000)	65.0 (2008)
Sri Lanka	3.1 (2000)	3.8 (2012)	0.8 (2000)	0.9 (2012)	33.8 (2000)	35.9 (2012)	17.2 (2000)	23.6 (2012)	6.5 (2000)	3.7 (2012)	26.5 (2000)	19.4 (2012)
Turkey	6.8 (2000)	6.5 (2012)	0.7 (2000)	1.3 (2012)	29.4 (2000)	22.3 (2012)	11.8 (2000)	10.8 (2012)	10.4 (2000)	4.6 (2012)	52.1 (2000)	33.6 (2012)
South-East Asia												
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	0.3 (2000)	0.0 (2012)	0.0 (2000)	0.0 (2012)	54.3 (2000)	50.0 (2012)	28.9 (2000)	60.4 (2012)	26.6 (2000)	8.8 (2012)	59.0 (2000)	9.3 (2012)
Indonesia	4.2 (2001)	3.9 (2009)	1.1 (2001)	1.3 (2009)	52.1 (2001)	53.6 (2009)	31.1 (2001)	34.5 (2009)	8.1 (2001)	8.1 (2009)	38.6 (2001)	32.4 (2009)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.4 (2005)	...	0.2 (2005)	...	57.4 (2005)	...	26.7 (2005)	...	26.8 (2005)	...	65.0 (2005)	...
Malaysia	4.2 (2000)	5.0 (2012)	0.8 (2000)	1.5 (2012)	20.1 (2000)	18.7 (2012)	11.6 (2000)	12.9 (2012)	2.7 (2000)	2.6 (2012)	11.1 (2000)	8.5 (2012)
Myanmar
Philippines	6.1 (2000)	5.3 (2008)	2.6 (2000)	2.4 (2008)	33.8 (2000)	32.8 (2008)	29.9 (2000)	28.8 (2008)	9.4 (2000)	9.0 (2008)	16.8 (2000)	17.4 (2008)
Singapore	7.3 (2001)	7.9 (2012)	2.1 (2001)	3.7 (2012)	11.8 (2001)	10.7 (2012)	5.3 (2001)	6.1 (2012)	0.4 (2001)	0.4 (2012)	2.0 (2001)	1.0 (2012)
Thailand	4.7 (2000)	3.6 (2012)	1.7 (2000)	1.5 (2012)	38.7 (2000)	36.3 (2012)	19.6 (2000)	25.9 (2012)	16.4 (2000)	15.3 (2012)	39.8 (2000)	29.8 (2012)
Timor-Leste	...	1.7 (2010)	...	1.7 (2010)	45.7 (2010)	...	27.3 (2010)	...	32.4 (2010)
Viet Nam	0.3 (2000)	3.6 (2012)	0.1 (2000)	1.7 (2012)	55.7 (2000)	44.3 (2012)	30.2 (2000)	46.1 (2012)	21.2 (2000)	12.0 (2012)	53.1 (2000)	23.0 (2012)
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: Statistical Yearbook for Asia and the Pacific 2017, ESCAP Statistics Division, www.unescap.org/stat/data/.

Note:

¹ **Definition:** Male workers working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as "self-employment jobs" (that is, jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced), and, in this capacity, have engaged on a continuous basis one or more persons to work for them as employee(s).

² **Definition:** Female workers working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of jobs defined as "self-employment jobs" (that is, jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced), and, in this capacity, have engaged on a continuous basis one or more persons to work for them as employee(s). System (QUIPUSTAT), with additions from websites of national statistical offices.

³ **Definition:** Male workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as "self-employment jobs", and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them.

⁴ **Definition:** Female workers who, working on their own account or with one or more partners, hold the type of jobs defined as "self-employment jobs", and have not engaged on a continuous basis any employees to work for them.

⁵ **Definition:** Male workers who hold "self-employment jobs" as own account workers in a market-oriented establishment operated by a relative living in the same household.

⁶ **Definition:** Female workers who hold "self-employment jobs" as own account workers in a market-oriented establishment operated by a relative living in the same household.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 8.4c: Additional indicator related to SDG 8: Employment sex ratio

	Employment sex ratio, overall employment		Employment sex ratio, non agricultural employment		Employers Sex Ratio		Female employees, % of employed females		Male employees, % of employed males	
	2000	2015	Employed females per 100 employed males		Female employers per 100 male employers					
	2000	2015	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year
Developed economies										
Australia	77.7	83.8	81.2 (2000)	85.9 (2013)	89.3 (2000)	91.9 (2013)	83.4 (2000)	87.8 (2013)
Japan	68.8	75.4	68.4 (2000)	75.1 (2013)	81.4 (2000)	89.1 (2013)	84.3 (2000)	87.2 (2013)
New Zealand	82.8	90.2	88.4 (2000)	92.3 (2013)	85.2 (2000)	88.4 (2013)	74.1 (2000)	81.4 (2013)
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China	83.1	79.1	61.1 (2003)	60.6 (2007)
Hong Kong, China	73.2	90.9	73.0 (2000)	81.0 (2014)	16.8 (2000)	25.3 (2013)	95.0 (2000)	94.4 (2013)	85.5 (2000)	85.6 (2013)
Macau, China	86.7	95.5	89.3 (2000)	90.8 (2014)	13.8 (2000)	34.5 (2013)	92.0 (2000)	96.1 (2013)	84.8 (2000)	90.5 (2013)
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	90.6	91.5
Mongolia	85.9	84.9	101.8 (2000)	94.3 (2012)	38.9 (2000)	62.6 (2012)	43.6 (2000)	49.4 (2012)	39.3 (2000)	45.7 (2012)
Republic of Korea	69.0	71.6	68.6 (2000)	71.9 (2013)	61.5 (2000)	74.7 (2013)	64.3 (2000)	71.0 (2013)
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	85.4	86.7	98.7 (2002)	71.2 (2013)	14.0 (2008)	19.4 (2013)	...	52.1 (2013)	63.1 (2008)	61.9 (2013)
Azerbaijan	85.8	93.8	77.3 (2000)	76.5 (2013)	86.2 (2003)	71.7 (2013)	31.0 (2003)	29.2 (2013)	34.3 (2003)	37.5 (2013)
Georgia	86.7	86.6	75.1 (2000)	80.6 (2007)	13.6 (2000)	23.8 (2013)	36.9 (2000)	38.4 (2013)	37.5 (2000)	38.5 (2013)
Kazakhstan	92.4	94.4	96.8 (2001)	97.6 (2013)	37.4 (2001)	42.1 (2013)	54.1 (2001)	70.2 (2013)	61.0 (2001)	68.7 (2013)
Kyrgyz Republic	79.3	65.8	74.7 (2000)	64.1 (2013)	38.5 (2002)	38.9 (2013)	44.1 (2002)	54.9 (2013)	41.7 (2002)	51.2 (2013)
Russian Federation	94.1	95.4	99.9 (2000)	98.6 (2014)	40.3 (2000)	50.4 (2013)	90.3 (2000)	93.6 (2013)	89.5 (2000)	91.9 (2013)
Tajikistan	81.6	78.0	29.7 (2004)	40.7 (2009)	13.4 (2009)	...	47.6 (2003)	58.5 (2009)	57.6 (2003)	47.5 (2009)
Turkmenistan	68.4	64.7
Uzbekistan	69.2	67.6
Pacific										
American Samoa
Cook Islands	91.4 (2011)	59.3 (2006)	62.0 (2011)	87.1 (2006)	87.9 (2011)	82.4 (2006)	81.4 (2011)
Fiji	47.4	48.2	49.7 (2000)	51.5 (2007)	26.6 (2002)	26.6 (2008)	59.7 (2002)	58.9 (2008)	59.7 (2002)	58.9 (2008)
French Polynesia	63.8	68.7	78.7 (2002)	81.7 (2007)	78.7 (2002)	81.7 (2007)
Guam	70.5	77.8
Kiribati	63.3 (2000)	102.9 (2010)	100.0 (2000)	44.3 (2010)	96.6 (2000)	40.1 (2010)	96.6 (2000)	40.1 (2010)
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia	63.2	63.3
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	65.4 (2000)
Papua New Guinea	93.1	92.5
Samoa	40.3	37.0	73.9 (2001)	60.4 (2012)	49.1 (2001)	52.3 (2012)	44.2 (2001)	64.6 (2012)	44.2 (2001)	64.6 (2012)
Solomon Islands	77.5	80.9
Tonga	64.4	70.7	133.9 (2003)	...	46.7 (2003)	47.5 (2003)	...
Tuvalu	20.7 (2002)	95.5 (2002)	...
Vanuatu	79.9	76.2	68.2 (2009)	...	43.7 (2009)	...	29.4 (2009)	...	29.4 (2009)	...
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan	16.0	20.2
Bangladesh	60.5	52.4	30.6 (2000)	24.8 (2010)	12.8 (2000)	9.4 (2011)	8.3 (2000)	49.2 (2011)	15.2 (2000)	26.5 (2011)
Bhutan	61.7	65.6	38.3 (2003)	56.0 (2013)	74.1 (2009)	91.5 (2012)	21.1 (2006)	14.3 (2012)	40.9 (2006)	41.2 (2012)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	16.7	19.9	20.4 (2005)	16.1 (2014)	3.2 (2007)	4.8 (2014)	42.2 (2007)	56.5 (2014)	53.4 (2007)	55.8 (2014)
Maldives	49.3	70.5	44.0 (2000)	72.2 (2010)	12.5 (2000)	9.1 (2010)	28.8 (2000)	67.7 (2010)	21.3 (2000)	63.9 (2010)
Nepal	95.3	103.9	52.2 (2001)	47.2 (2008)	74.0 (2001)	...	12.8 (2001)	...	33.7 (2001)	...
Pakistan	16.0	26.8	7.9 (2000)	10.2 (2008)	2.1 (2000)	0.4 (2008)	33.1 (2000)	22.1 (2008)	36.0 (2000)	39.5 (2008)
Sri Lanka	46.4	42.2	48.2 (2002)	47.8 (2014)	12.5 (2000)	13.3 (2013)	55.5 (2000)	51.2 (2013)	56.6 (2000)	55.1 (2013)
Turkey	38.7	43.6	19.9 (2000)	33.8 (2014)	6.3 (2003)	8.7 (2014)	35.3 (2000)	60.2 (2014)	53.5 (2000)	68.5 (2014)
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam	68.2	63.4	71.7 (2001)	74.9 (2014)
Cambodia	105.8	95.4	98.1 (2000)	96.4 (2010)	11.7 (2000)	76.6 (2008)	12.1 (2000)	30.3 (2012)	18.6 (2000)	41.2 (2012)
Indonesia	59.8	60.0	59.4 (2000)	62.4 (2013)	15.0 (2001)	30.4 (2013)	29.3 (2001)	33.0 (2013)	35.6 (2001)	38.5 (2013)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	102.9	105.0	83.8 (2010)	...	44.9 (2005)	29.2 (2010)	8.0 (2005)	10.9 (2010)	15.5 (2005)	20.4 (2010)
Malaysia	53.5	64.4	57.6 (2000)	65.4 (2013)	11.1 (2000)	17.9 (2014)	76.4 (2000)	74.9 (2014)	73.0 (2000)	75.3 (2014)
Myanmar	98.7	98.4
Philippines	59.8	64.6	82.6 (2000)	84.2 (2012)	24.9 (2000)	32.2 (2013)	50.8 (2000)	55.9 (2013)	50.7 (2000)	59.7 (2013)
Singapore	68.2	78.9	20.1 (2001)	42.5 (2013)	90.6 (2001)	89.5 (2013)	80.6 (2001)	81.5 (2013)
Thailand	84.4	82.2	85.1 (2000)	90.4 (2013)	30.3 (2000)	31.5 (2013)	38.8 (2000)	40.7 (2013)	40.2 (2000)	42.0 (2013)
Timor-Leste	48.1	45.9	47.2 (2010)	...	46.2 (2010)	19.9 (2010)	...	32.2 (2010)
Viet Nam	94.2	93.5	93.2 (2000)	88.0 (2013)	55.4 (2000)	41.8 (2013)	15.1 (2000)	29.4 (2013)	21.7 (2000)	39.9 (2013)
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: ESCAP Online Statistical Database based on data from the ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM), Ninth Edition, 14 March 2016. Available from http://data.unescap.org/escap_stat/. Accessed July 2017.

Note:

Definition: All male workers who hold the type of jobs defined as "paid employment jobs", where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work.

Definition: All female workers who hold the type of jobs defined as "paid employment jobs", where the incumbents hold explicit (written or oral) or implicit employment contracts that give them a basic remuneration that is not directly dependent upon the revenue of the unit for which they work.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 9.1: Selected SDG 9 indicators: Rural road access and access to internet and mobile technology

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

Target 9.1: Develop quality, reliable, sustainable and resilient infrastructure, including regional and transborder infrastructure, to support economic development and human well-being, with a focus on affordable and equitable access for all

Target 9.c: Significantly increase access to information and communications technology and strive to provide universal and affordable access to the Internet in least developed countries by 2020

Indicator 9.1.1: Proportion of the rural population who live within 2km of an all season road

Indicator 9.c.1: Proportion of the population covered by a mobile network, by technology

	SD Rural Access Index		SD Internet users per 100 population		SD Fixed (wired)-broadband subscriptions per 100 population			SD Proportion of population using the Internet by sex, latest year available (%)		SD Mobile-cellular subscriptions per 100 population	
	Value	Survey Year	Earliest Year (2000)	Latest Year (2015)	Earliest Year		Latest Year	Male	Female	Earliest Year (2000)	Latest Year (2015)
Developed economies											
Australia	...		46.8	84.6	0.6	(2001)	28.5 (2015)	84.2	84.9 (2015)	44.5	132.8
Japan	99.0	(2002)	30.0	91.1	0.7	(2000)	30.7 (2015)	92.9	89.3 (2015)	53.1	126.5
New Zealand	83.0	(2003)	47.4	88.2	0.1	(2000)	31.6 (2015)	81.2	82.2 (2012)	40.0	121.8
East and North-East Asia											
People's Republic of China	97.0	(2003)	1.8	50.3	0.0	(2000)	19.8 (2015)	6.7	93.2
Hong Kong, China	...		27.8	84.9	6.5	(2000)	32.1 (2015)	86.8	83.3 (2015)	80.3	228.8
Macau, China	...		13.6	77.6	0.9	(2000)	29.1 (2015)	82.5	80.9 (2016)	32.7	324.4
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	44.0	(1999)	0.0	(2000)	0.0	12.9
Mongolia	36.0	(2003)	1.3	21.4	0.0	(2001)	7.1 (2015)	6.4	105.0
Republic of Korea	89.0	(2003)	44.7	89.6	8.4	(2000)	40.2 (2015)	94.6	90.8 (2016)	58.3	118.4
North and Central Asia											
Armenia	...		1.3	58.2	0.0	(2001)	9.6 (2015)	60.8	57.8 (2015)	0.6	115.2
Azerbaijan	...		0.1	77.0	0.0	(2002)	19.8 (2015)	81.7	74.7 (2016)	5.2	111.3
Georgia	...		0.5	47.6	0.0	(2001)	14.7 (2015)	49.9	45.5 (2015)	4.1	128.9
Kazakhstan	...		0.7	70.8	0.0	(2003)	13.7 (2015)	76.0	73.3 (2016)	1.3	187.2
Kyrgyz Republic	...		1.0	30.2	0.0	(2002)	3.7 (2015)	0.2	132.8
Russian Federation	...		2.0	70.1	0.0	(2002)	18.9 (2015)	77.2	75.7 (2016)	2.2	160.0
Tajikistan	...		0.0	19.0	0.0	(2003)	0.1 (2015)	0.0	98.6
Turkmenistan	...		0.1	15.0	0.0	(2008)	0.1 (2015)	0.2	145.9
Uzbekistan	57.0	(2000)	0.5	42.8	0.0	(2003)	6.0 (2015)	0.2	73.3
Pacific											
American Samoa	3.5	...
Cook Islands	0.2	(2003)	13.1 (2013)
Fiji	76.0	(1999)	1.5	46.3	0.9	(2005)	1.4 (2015)	6.8	108.2
French Polynesia	...		6.4	64.6	0.0	(2001)	18.4 (2015)	16.8	94.9
Guam	...		16.1	73.1	1.1	(2001)	1.8 (2014)	17.5	...
Kiribati	...		1.8	13.0	0.4	(2005)	0.1 (2015)	0.4	38.8
Marshall Islands	...		1.5	19.3	2.4	(2013)	1.9 (2015)	0.9	29.2
Micronesia, Fed. States of	82.0	(1999)	3.7	31.5	0.0	(2003)	3.1 (2015)	0.0	...
Nauru		9.5 (2010)	12.0	...
New Caledonia	...		13.9	74.0	0.1	(2001)	21.0 (2015)	23.6	93.5
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands	4.4	...
Palau	111.5
Papua New Guinea	68.0	(1996)	0.8	7.9	0.0	(2008)	0.2 (2015)	0.2	46.6
Samoa	71.0	(1999)	0.6	25.4	0.0	(2004)	1.1 (2015)	1.4	58.5
Solomon Islands	77.0	(1999)	0.5	10.0	0.0	(2004)	0.2 (2015)	0.3	72.7
Tonga	86.0	(1999)	2.4	45.0	0.0	(2002)	2.3 (2015)	0.2	65.6
Tuvalu	...		5.2	42.7	0.5	(2004)	10.1 (2015)	0.0	40.3
Vanuatu	77.0	(1999)	2.1	22.4	0.0	(2003)	1.6 (2015)	0.2	66.2
South and South-West Asia											
Afghanistan	22.0	(2003)	...	8.3	0.0	(2004)	0.3 (2015)	0.0	61.6
Bangladesh	37.0	(2000)	0.1	14.4	0.0	(2007)	3.1 (2015)	8.2	5.1 (2013)	0.2	83.4
Bhutan	47.0	(2003)	0.4	39.8	0.3	(2008)	3.6 (2015)	0.0	87.1
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	66.0	(2002)	0.9	45.3	0.0	(2000)	10.9 (2015)	54.3	52.1 (2016)	1.5	93.4
Maldives	...		2.2	54.5	0.1	(2002)	6.5 (2015)	2.8	206.7
Nepal	17.0	(2003)	0.2	17.6	0.0	(2006)	1.1 (2015)	0.0	96.7
Pakistan	61.0	(2004)	...	18.0	0.0	(2005)	1.0 (2015)	19.7	11.7 (2016)	0.2	66.9
Sri Lanka	92.0	(2003)	0.6	30.0	0.0	(2001)	2.9 (2015)	2.3	112.8
Turkey	69.0	(2003)	3.8	53.7	0.0	(2000)	12.4 (2015)	67.6	49.2 (2016)	25.4	96.0
South-East Asia											
Brunei Darussalam	81.0	(1999)	9.0	71.2	0.6	(2001)	8.0 (2015)	75.0	54.3 (2016)	29.0	108.1
Cambodia	81.0	(2003)	0.0	19.0	0.0	(2002)	0.5 (2015)	6.5	6.3 (2015)	1.0	133.0
Indonesia	94.0	(2003)	0.9	22.0	0.0	(2000)	1.1 (2015)	27.2	23.5 (2016)	1.7	132.3
Lao People's Democratic Republic	64.0	(2002)	0.1	18.2	0.0	(2003)	0.5 (2015)	0.2	53.1
Malaysia	82.0	(2001)	21.4	71.1	0.0	(2001)	10.0 (2015)	80.0	76.7 (2016)	21.9	143.9
Myanmar	23.0	(1999)	...	21.8	0.0	(2005)	0.1 (2015)	0.0	76.7
Philippines	80.0	(2003)	2.0	40.7	0.0	(2001)	4.8 (2015)	8.3	118.1
Singapore	...		36.0	82.1	1.8	(2000)	26.4 (2015)	80.5	77.6 (2015)	70.1	146.1
Thailand	33.0	(2000)	3.7	39.3	0.0	(2001)	9.2 (2015)	48.1	47.0 (2016)	4.8	125.8
Timor-Leste	90.0	(2001)	...	13.4	0.0	(2003)	0.1 (2015)	117.4
Viet Nam	84.0	(2004)	0.3	52.7	0.0	(2002)	8.1 (2015)	1.0	130.6
Asia and the Pacific	—		3.8	39.0	0.1		9.6	—	—	6.2	95.0
Developed economies	—		46.8	91.7	0.1		30.1	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—		—	—	—		—	—	—	40.9	126.1
East and North-East Asia	—		3.4	50.9	0.3		19.1	—	—	8.7	93.4
North and Central Asia	—		1.6	64.1	0.0		14.6	—	—	2.0	144.0
Pacific	—		1.8	14.9	0.1		0.9	—	—	2.3	53.9
South and South-West Asia	—		0.6	25.7	0.0		2.2	—	—	1.5	79.7
South-East Asia	—		2.2	34.1	0.0		3.9	—	—	3.8	124.1

Source:

Column 1: World Bank, World Development Indicators. Available at: <https://datacatalog.worldbank.org/dataset/rural-access-index-rai>. Columns 3–13: International Telecommunications Union (ITU) Database, <http://www.itu.int/en/ITU-D/Statistics/Pages/stat/default.aspx> (Accessed August 2016).

Note:

Aggregates are weighted averages of the country entries, weighted by respective base population. Two complementary indicators are included in this table: 1) rural access index; and 2) proportion of population using the Internet by sex, latest year available (%)

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 10.1: Selected SDG 10 and SDG 11 indicators: Growth of household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40 per cent and proportion of urban population living in slums

Goal 10: Reduce inequality within and among countries

Goal 11: Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

Target 10.1: By 2030, progressively achieve and sustain income growth of the bottom 40 per cent of the population at rate higher than the national average

Target 11.1: By 2030, ensure access for all to adequate, safe and affordable housing and basic services and upgrade slums

Indicator 10.1.1: Growth rates of household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40 per cent of the population and the total population

Indicator 11.1.1: Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing

	SDG 10: Growth rate of household expenditure or income per capita among the bottom 40 per cent of the population (%)		SDG 11: Proportion of urban population living in slums, informal settlements or inadequate housing (%)			
	Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year	
Developed economies						
Australia	4.4	(2010)	
Japan	
New Zealand	
East and North-East Asia						
People's Republic of China	8.9	(2012)	37.3	(2000)	25.2	(2014)
Hong Kong, China	
Macau, China	
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	
Mongolia	8.0	(2014)	64.9	(2000)	42.7	(2014)
Republic of Korea	
North and Central Asia						
Armenia	0.7	(2014)	...		14.4	(2014)
Azerbaijan	
Georgia	4.6	(2014)	
Kazakhstan	6.7	(2013)	
Kyrgyz Republic	0.4	(2014)	
Russian Federation	5.9	(2012)	
Tajikistan	
Turkmenistan	
Uzbekistan	
Pacific						
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	
Fiji	
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati	
Marshall Islands	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	
Nauru	
New Caledonia	
Niue	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau	
Papua New Guinea	
Samoa	
Solomon Islands	
Tonga	
Tuvalu	
Vanuatu	
South and South-West Asia						
Afghanistan		62.7	(2014)
Bangladesh	1.7	(2010)	77.8	(2000)	55.1	(2014)
Bhutan	6.5	(2012)	
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	3.1	(2013)	
Maldives	
Nepal	7.5	(2010)	64.0	(2000)	54.3	(2014)
Pakistan	2.8	(2013)	48.7	(2000)	45.5	(2014)
Sri Lanka	2.2	(2012)	
Turkey	3.2	(2013)	17.9	(2000)	11.9	(2014)
South-East Asia						
Brunei Darussalam	
Cambodia	6.5	(2012)	78.9	(2005)	55.1	(2014)
Indonesia	3.8	(2014)	34.4	(2000)	21.8	(2014)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.5	(2012)	79.3	(2005)	31.4	(2014)
Malaysia	
Myanmar	...		45.6	(2005)	41.0	(2014)
Philippines	1.2	(2012)	47.2	(2000)	38.3	(2014)
Singapore	
Thailand	4.9	(2013)	26.0	(2005)	25.0	(2014)
Timor-Leste	
Viet Nam	4.5	(2013)	48.8	(2000)	27.2	(2014)
Asia and the Pacific	—		—		—	
Developed economies	—		—		—	
Developing economies	—		—		—	
East and North-East Asia	—		—		—	
North and Central Asia	—		—		—	
Pacific	—		—		—	
South and South-West Asia	—		—		—	
South-East Asia	—		—		—	

Source:

Column 1: United Nations Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017). Columns 2–3: UN HABITAT, <http://unhabitat.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/03/Table-2.3-Proportion-of-urban-population-living-in-slums-and-urban-slum-population-by-country-1990-2014.pdf> (Accessed May 2016).

Note:

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 10.2: Additional indicators related to SDG 10: Proportion of urban population living in slums by sex and age

	Percentage of urban population in slums, by sex and age group (%)															
	Total	Male	Female	Age below 15 years			Age 15–24 years			Age 24–59			Age 60+			Survey Year
				Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Developed economies																
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia																
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia ^a	74.4	75.2	73.7	74.9	76.1	73.6	75.9	77.6	74.2	72.9	73.1	72.8	78.6	79.6	77.8	(2010)
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia																
Armenia	5.2	5.5	5.1	6.6	6.0	7.2	6.6	7.0	6.2	4.9	5.1	4.7	5.1	4.8	5.1	(2010)
Azerbaijan	42.1	45.1	41.8	50.9	49.1	52.9	44.6	42.5	46.3	44.6	43.6	45.5	41.2	44.6	41.1	(2006)
Georgia ^a	34.0	34.2	33.9	34.2	33.0	35.4	34.1	34.5	33.8	32.8	33.6	32.2	37.5	37.9	37.2	(2005)
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	17.6	22.1	17.2	25.9	26.3	25.5	17.8	19.5	16.7	20.1	20.8	19.5	16.8	18.2	16.8	(2012)
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	27.6	31.0	27.3	31.3	31.3	31.2	30.7	28.4	32.9	31.1	31.2	31.1	26.8	34.9	26.8	(2012)
Turkmenistan ^a	24.7	25.5	24.0	27.0	28.2	25.7	25.1	24.6	25.4	23.4	24.1	22.8	22.4	24.1	21.2	(2006)
Uzbekistan
Pacific																
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia																
Afghanistan
Bangladesh	43.5	45.6	43.3	49.7	49.8	49.6	43.9	44.0	43.8	43.2	43.0	43.5	43.1	45.3	43.1	(2014)
Bhutan ^a	58.9	59.7	58.2	64.4	65.7	63.0	55.3	56.2	54.5	56.5	56.8	56.2	57.5	55.9	59.1	(2010)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives	21.6	28.8	20.8	30.7	28.2	33.1	32.1	35.4	29.3	25.0	25.0	24.9	19.9	31.4	19.8	(2009)
Nepal	26.3	29.2	26.1	36.0	35.1	37.1	27.0	26.7	27.2	26.6	26.1	27.1	25.8	26.2	25.8	(2011)
Pakistan	44.5	50.8	44.0	58.7	59.5	57.9	48.2	47.1	49.2	46.3	46.1	46.6	43.4	38.9	43.4	(2012)
Sri Lanka
Turkey
South-East Asia																
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic ^a	34.7	35.4	34.1	42.2	42.6	41.8	32.8	35.3	30.6	31.0	31.2	30.9	32.5	32.7	32.3	(2011)
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines	25.4	32.0	24.5	40.8	41.4	40.3	27.2	29.5	24.9	26.9	27.8	26.1	23.6	20.1	23.6	(2013)
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste	41.6	42.8	41.4	45.4	44.2	46.7	41.7	42.7	40.7	38.9	38.0	39.9	41.3	56.8	41.1	(2009)
Viet Nam	23.4	26.0	23.1	30.4	30.5	30.4	26.7	29.8	23.6	24.0	23.6	24.3	22.7	19.3	22.7	(2002)
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:
All Columns: Estimates using Demographic Health Survey (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) micro datasets. Available at <https://dhsprogram.com/> and <http://mics.unicef.org/> (Accessed 15 August 2016).

Note:
^a No data on tenure.
 ... = data not available.
 — indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 11: Selected SDG 13 indicators: Deaths, affected and missing persons due to disasters

Goal 13: Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts

Target 13.1: Strengthen resilience and adaptive capacity to climate-related hazards and natural disasters in all countries

Indicator 13.1.1: Number of deaths, missing persons and directly affected persons attributed to disasters per 100,000 population*

	SD Number of deaths due to disasters		SD Number of missing persons due to disasters		SD Number of persons affected by disasters per 100,000 people	
	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year	Earliest Year	Latest Year
Developed economies						
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia						
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia	104 (2006)	2 (2016)	1 (2006)	...	128 (2006)	5 (2016)
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia						
Armenia
Azerbaijan
Georgia
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic
Russian Federation
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific						
American Samoa	6 (2003)	4 (2015)
Cook Islands	1 (2001)	3 (2010)	832 (2001)	4,443 (2010)
Fiji	7 (2000)	25 (2012)	1 (2010)	3 (2012)	250 (2000)	34,165 (2012)
French Polynesia	20 (2007)
Guam	1 (2002)	4 (2004)
Kiribati	208 (2014)
Marshall Islands	6 (2000)	27 (2008)	80 (2014)
Micronesia, Fed. States of	19 (2000)	10 (2015)	7,885 (2002)	45,692 (2004)
Nauru
New Caledonia	4 (2003)	3 (2011)	100 (2003)	...
Niue	3 (2004)	...	2 (2004)	...	54 (2004)	...
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau	436 (2012)
Papua New Guinea	11 (2000)	30 (2015)	30 (2002)	35 (2012)	24,268 (2000)	316 (2013)
Samoa	2 (2004)	1 (2014)	18 (2009)	...	6,411 (2001)	7,663 (2009)
Solomon Islands	7 (2002)	22 (2014)	6 (2007)	4 (2013)	352 (2002)	5,864 (2013)
Tonga	97 (2009)	1 (2014)	2,854 (2001)	410 (2011)
Tuvalu	18 (2000)
Vanuatu	5 (2001)	11 (2015)	...	2 (2014)	1,729 (2001)	174 (2014)
South and South-West Asia						
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan	26 (2009)	4 (2011)	27,002 (2009)	4,046 (2013)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	609 (2000)	6 (2011)	10 (2000)	3 (2010)	10,676 (2000)	26,768 (2011)
Maldives	1 (2000)	4 (2008)	27 (2004)	...	3,067 (2000)	79 (2008)
Nepal	708 (2000)	626 (2013)	19 (2000)	111 (2013)	23,128 (2000)	48,397 (2013)
Pakistan	2,817 (2000)	1,443 (2014)	229 (2000)	133 (2014)	280,662 (2000)	73,252 (2014)
Sri Lanka	123 (2000)	73 (2014)	33 (2003)	1 (2014)	344,235 (2000)	24,872 (2014)
Turkey	107 (2000)	164 (2014)	38,146 (2000)	847 (2014)
South-East Asia						
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	388 (2000)	9 (2016)	2 (2000)	...	44,106 (2000)	1,381 (2016)
Indonesia	875 (2000)	437 (2014)	574 (2001)	83 (2014)	7,798 (2000)	2,083 (2014)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	40 (2000)	19 (2012)	3 (2007)	31 (2012)	8,029 (2000)	2,500 (2012)
Malaysia
Myanmar	35,972 (2008)	118 (2016)	3,325 (2008)	15 (2015)
Philippines
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste	126 (2000)	4 (2016)	...	26 (2015)	573 (2001)	1,022 (2016)
Viet Nam	852 (2000)	60 (2010)	13 (2000)	32 (2010)	77,836 (2000)	642,646 (2010)
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: United Nations Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

*This indicator repeats three times in the Global SDG Indicator Framework, as 1.5.1, 11.5.1 and 13.1.1. It is presented in the Annex only once, as 13.1.1.

Note:

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 12.1: Selected SDG 16 indicators: Violence, intentional homicide and conflict-related deaths

Goal 16: Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Target 16.1: Significantly reduce all forms of violence and related deaths everywhere

Indicator 16.1.1: Number of victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 population, by sex and age

Indicator 16.1.2: Conflict-related deaths per 100,000 population, by sex, age and cause

Indicator 16.1.3: Proportion of population subjected to physical, psychological or sexual violence in the previous 12 months

	Proportion of intentional homicide victims, by sex (%)			Battle-related Deaths, 2000–2015				Proportion of population subjected to sexual violence (based on number of police recorded offences) at the national level (per 100,000 population)			
	Male	Female	Year	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year		Latest Year	
Developed economies											
Australia	64.1	35.9	(2015)		85.1	(2010)	89.2	(2015)
Japan	47.8	52.2	(2014)		9.9	(2003)	6.8	(2014)
New Zealand	73.9	26.1	(2013)		59.6	(2005)	83.2	(2014)
East and North-East Asia											
People's Republic of China	78.1	21.9	(2010)	36	(2008)	5	(2015)	
Hong Kong, China	40.3	59.7	(2013)		20.3	(2004)	24.9	(2013)
Macau, China	75.0	25.0	(2012)		8.5	(2008)	9.7	(2015)
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	77.1	22.9	(2010)	
Mongolia	75.2	24.8	(2014)		13.4	(2005)	12.1	(2015)
Republic of Korea	48.5	51.5	(2014)		28.5	(2006)	42.0	(2014)
North and Central Asia											
Armenia	71.6	28.4	(2015)	1	(2005)	4	(2016)	1.6	(2004)	4.0	(2015)
Azerbaijan	63.1	36.9	(2014)	24	(2005)	137	(2016)	2.4	(2007)	2.2	(2014)
Georgia	75.7	24.3	(2011)	27	(2004)	621	(2008)	2.2	(2004)	3.2	(2014)
Kazakhstan	77.2	22.8	(2013)		2.6	(2006)	2.6	(2015)
Kyrgyz Republic	68.7	31.3	(2009)	174	(2000)	...		0.3	(2003)	1.2	(2015)
Russian Federation	75.5	24.5	(2010)	2,907	(2000)	66	(2016)	11.4	(2004)	11.3	(2015)
Tajikistan	86.5	13.5	(2011)	46	(2000)	28	(2011)	2.4	(2006)	2.6	(2011)
Turkmenistan	83.8	16.2	(2010)	
Uzbekistan	82.4	17.6	(2010)	297	(2000)	37	(2004)	
Pacific											
American Samoa	
Cook Islands	
Fiji	61.3	38.7	(2010)	
French Polynesia	
Guam	
Kiribati	69.4	30.6	(2010)	
Marshall Islands	81.3	18.7	(2010)	
Micronesia, Fed. States of	74.2	25.8	(2010)	
Nauru	
New Caledonia	
Niue	
Northern Mariana Islands	
Palau	
Papua New Guinea	73.7	26.3	(2010)	
Samoa	81.2	18.8	(2010)	
Solomon Islands	74.8	25.2	(2010)		69.7	(2004)	24.2	(2008)
Tonga	0.0	100.0	(2012)	
Tuvalu	
Vanuatu	72.0	28.0	(2010)	
South and South-West Asia											
Afghanistan	87.0	13.0	(2010)	5,235	(2000)	17,980	(2016)	
Bangladesh	63.2	36.8	(2010)	62	(2005)	39	(2016)	
Bhutan	61.2	38.8	(2010)		5.8	(2008)	10.6	(2014)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	81.9	18.1	(2010)	40	(2000)	205	(2011)	
Maldives	63.3	36.7	(2010)		108.4	(2007)	163.2	(2013)
Nepal	77.3	22.7	(2010)	268	(2000)	457	(2006)	
Pakistan	76.7	23.3	(2010)	1	(2000)	761	(2016)	
Sri Lanka	78.3	21.7	(2013)	2,525	(2000)	10,165	(2009)	3.7	(2008)	4.8	(2013)
Turkey	81.2	18.8	(2012)	121	(2000)	1,398	(2016)	4.3	(2003)	7.4	(2012)
South-East Asia											
Brunei Darussalam	54.1	45.9	(2010)	
Cambodia	75.3	24.7	(2010)	...		10	(2011)	
Indonesia	80.3	19.7	(2010)	286	(2000)	213	(2005)	2.1	(2012)	2.0	(2015)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	79.4	20.6	(2010)	
Malaysia	72.6	27.4	(2010)	...		70	(2013)	
Myanmar	81.3	18.7	(2015)	215	(2000)	116	(2016)	0.4	(2009)	0.7	(2013)
Philippines	87.2	12.8	(2012)	1,567	(2000)	414	(2016)	1.5	(2006)	1.9	(2012)
Singapore	50.0	50.0	(2014)		30.3	(2006)	26.0	(2015)
Thailand	87.7	12.3	(2010)	8	(2000)	50	(2016)	2.9	(2010)	5.9	(2015)
Timor-Leste	73.1	26.9	(2010)	
Viet Nam	71.5	28.5	(2010)	
Asia and the Pacific	—	—		—		—		—		—	
Developed economies	—	—		—		—		—		—	
Developing economies	—	—		—		—		—		—	
East and North-East Asia	—	—		—		—		—		—	
North and Central Asia	—	—		—		—		—		—	
Pacific	—	—		—		—		—		—	
South and South-West Asia	—	—		—		—		—		—	
South-East Asia	—	—		—		—		—		—	

Source:

Columns 1–2, 5–6: Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), <https://data.unodc.org/> (Accessed 30 September 2017).

Columns 3–4: World Bank, World Development Indicators, <http://databank.worldbank.org/> (Accessed September 2017).

Note:

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Table 12.2: Selected SDG 16 indicators: Children who experienced physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers

Goal 16: Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Target 16.2: End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against torture of children

Indicator 16.2.1: Proportion of children aged 2–17 years who experienced any physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month

	SD		Proportion of children aged 2–14 years who experienced any physical punishment and/or psychological aggression by caregivers in the past month		Any violent discipline						
			Male	Female	Place of Residence		Wealth Quintile				
	Latest Year				Urban	Rural	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5
Developed economies											
Australia
Japan
New Zealand
East and North-East Asia											
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia ^a	46.9	(2013)	48.0	45.2
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia											
Armenia	69.9	(2010)	72.3	67.1	70.0	69.7	70.9	73.3	67.2	67.5	70.3
Azerbaijan	76.8	(2006)	80.0	73.8	76.0	77.6	80.5	76.1	75.9	75.0	74.4
Georgia	66.9	(2005)	70.1	63.3	67.9	65.9	67.7	67.6	66.3	65.6	67.2
Kazakhstan	49.4	(2011)	53.7	45.1	48.9	49.9	50.3	49.1	51.3	50.0	46.1
Kyrgyz Republic ^a	57.1	(2014)	59.9	54.4	60.0	56.0	55.1	58.1	54.7	56.5	62.5
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	77.7	(2005)	79.9	75.2	76.7	78.0	79.7	76.2	79.3	75.6	77.4
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan
Pacific											
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji ^a	72.0	(2008)
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati	81.0	(2008)
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands ^a	72.0	(2008)
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu	83.5	(2013)	83.3	83.6	82.9	83.7	80.1	84.8	85.6	84.4	82.4
South and South-West Asia											
Afghanistan	74.4	(2011)	74.8	74.1	77.5	73.8	73.9	73.5	74.8	74.0	76.2
Bangladesh ^a	82.3	(2013)	82.9	81.6	76.9	83.5	86.9	85.0	82.6	80.7	73.3
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives
Nepal ^a	81.7	(2014)	82.7	80.7	74.6	82.8	86.6	86.2	83.0	78.2	70.1
Pakistan
Sri Lanka
Turkey
South-East Asia											
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic	75.7	(2011)	77.1	74.3	74.3	76.1	76.7	76.5	75.2	76.2	72.5
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Viet Nam ^a	68.4	(2014)	71.6	65.0	66.8	69.1	71.9	72.5	72.5	64.6	60.2
Asia and the Pacific	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developed economies	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Developing economies	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
East and North-East Asia	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
North and Central Asia	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pacific	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South and South-West Asia	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South-East Asia	—		—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Source:

All Columns: UNICEF. Available at: <http://data.unicef.org/child-protection/violent-discipline.html> (Accessed September 2016), based on results of MICS (Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey), DHS (Demographic and Health Surveys), including MICS KFR (Key Findings Report) and UNICEF Protect Me With Love And Care Reports.

Note:

^a Data differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of a country.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 12.3: Selected SDG 16 indicators: Victims of human trafficking

Goal 16: Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Target 16.2: End abuse, exploitation, trafficking and all forms of violence against and torture of children

Target 16.3: Promote the rule of law at the national and international levels and ensure equal access to justice for all

Indicator 16.2.2: Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex, age and form of exploitation

Indicator 16.2.3: Proportion of young women and men aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18

Indicator 16.3.1: Proportion of victims of violence in the previous 12 months who reported their victimization to competent authorities or other officially recognized conflict resolution mechanisms

	CORE Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 population, by sex and age					CORE Proportion of young men or women aged 18–29 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18, by sex			
	Latest Year								Police reporting rate for total sexual offence*
	Adult (age 18 years or older)	Children (age under 18 years old)			Year	Female	Male	Year	
	Female	Male	Girls	Boys					
Developed economies									
Australia	25	5	2	1	(2014)		24.7 (2015)
Japan	18	...	7	...	(2014)
New Zealand		6.8 (2011)
East and North-East Asia									
People's Republic of China
Hong Kong, China		0.1 (2006)
Macau, China
Dem. People's Republic of Korea
Mongolia	2	(2014)
Republic of Korea
North and Central Asia									
Armenia	6	1	(2014)
Azerbaijan	51	3	(2014)	...	0.09	(2006)	...
Georgia	5	4	(2014)		60.0 (2010)
Kazakhstan
Kyrgyz Republic	0.00	(2012)	31.8 (2015)
Russian Federation
Tajikistan	2	4	13	1	(2014)	...	0.29	(2012)	...
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan	380	770	34	24	(2014)
Pacific									
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji	2	...	1	...	(2014)
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Fed. States of
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
South and South-West Asia									
Afghanistan
Bangladesh
Bhutan
Iran (Islamic Republic of)
Maldives
Nepal	199	(2014)	...	1.15	(2011)	...
Pakistan
Sri Lanka		1.0 (2013)
Turkey	48	...	2	...	(2014)
South-East Asia									
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia	1.70	(2014)	...
Indonesia
Lao People's Democratic Republic
Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines	680	105	261	37	(2014)	...	2.80	(2008)	...
Singapore
Thailand	26	139	90	48	(2014)		67.3 (2012)
Timor-Leste	0.95	(2010)	...
Viet Nam
Asia and the Pacific	—	—	—	—		—	—		—
Developed economies	—	—	—	—		—	—		—
Developing economies	—	—	—	—		—	—		—
East and North-East Asia	—	—	—	—		—	—		—
North and Central Asia	—	—	—	—		—	—		—
Pacific	—	—	—	—		—	—		—
South and South-West Asia	—	—	—	—		—	—		—
South-East Asia	—	—	—	—		—	—		—

Source:

Columns 1–8: United Nations Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed June 2018). Column 9: UNODC - UNODC Statistics, <https://data.unodc.org/> (Accessed September 2017).

Note:

* Data refers to total sexual offense only; based on the UN Survey on Crimes and Trends and the Operations of the Criminal Justice System (UNCTS), from the UNODC website. Link: <https://data.unodc.org/#state:2>.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive.

Table 12.4: Selected SDG 16 and 17 indicators: Inclusive institutions

Goal 16: Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Goal 17: Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development

Target 16.9: By 2030, provide legal identity for all, including birth registration

Target 16.10: Ensure public access to information and protect fundamental freedoms, in accordance with national legislation and international agreements

Target 17.19: By 2030, build on existing initiatives to develop measurements of progress on sustainable development that complement gross domestic product, and support statistical capacity building in developing countries

Indicator 16.9.1: Proportion of children under 5 years of age whose births have been registered with a civil authority, by age

Indicator 16.10.1: Number of verified cases of killing, kidnapping, enforced disappearance, arbitrary detention and torture of journalists, associated media personnel, trade unionists and human rights advocates in the previous 12 months

Indicator 17.19.2: Proportion of countries that (a) have conducted at least one population and housing census in the last 10 years; and (b) have achieved 100 per cent birth registration and 80 per cent death registration

	SD				SD				SD	
	Completeness of birth registration (%)				Number of verified cases of killing, kidnapping, enforced disappearance, arbitrary detention and torture of journalists, associated media personnel, trade unionists and human rights advocates in the previous 12 months*				Has country (a) conducted at least one population and housing census in the last 10 years	
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year, 2010		Latest Year, 2015		Latest Year	
					Male	Female	Male	Female		
Developed economies										
Australia	...		100.0	(2013)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
Japan	...		100.0	(2013)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2015)
New Zealand	...		100.0	(2014)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2013)
East and North-East Asia										
People's Republic of China		1	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Hong Kong, China		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
Macau, China		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
Dem. People's Republic of Korea	98.9	(2000)	100.0	(2009)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2008)
Mongolia	98.0	(2005)	99.3	(2013)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Republic of Korea		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2015)
North and Central Asia										
Armenia	96.0	(2005)	99.6	(2010)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2011)
Azerbaijan	93.6	(2006)	...		0	0	1	0	Yes	(2009)
Georgia	92.0	(2005)	99.6	(2013)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2014)
Kazakhstan	99.0	(2006)	99.7	(2015)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2009)
Kyrgyz Republic	95.7	(2006)	97.7	(2014)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2009)
Russian Federation	...		100.0	(2010)	3	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Tajikistan	88.0	(2005)	88.4	(2012)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Turkmenistan	95.5	(2006)	99.6	(2016)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2012)
Uzbekistan	99.9	(2006)	...		0	0	0	0	...	
Pacific										
American Samoa		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Cook Islands		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
Fiji		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2007)
French Polynesia		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2012)
Guam		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Kiribati	92.0	(2008)	93.5	(2009)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2015)
Marshall Islands	95.9	(2007)	...		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2011)
Micronesia, Fed. States of		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Nauru	82.6	(2007)	...		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2011)
New Caledonia		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2014)
Niue		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2011)
Northern Mariana Islands		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Palau		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2015)
Papua New Guinea		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2011)
Samoa	47.7	(2009)	58.6	(2014)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
Solomon Islands	80.0	(2007)	...		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2009)
Tonga	...		93.4	(2012)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
Tuvalu	49.9	(2007)	...		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2012)
Vanuatu	43.0	(2007)	43.4	(2013)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
South and South-West Asia										
Afghanistan	6.0	(2003)	42.3	(2015)	2	0	1	0	...	
Bangladesh	10.0	(2006)	20.2	(2014)	0	0	5	0	Yes	(2011)
Bhutan	...		99.9	(2010)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	...		98.6	(2010)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2016)
Maldives	73.0	(2000)	92.5	(2009)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2014)
Nepal	35.0	(2006)	58.1	(2014)	3	0	0	0	Yes	(2011)
Pakistan	26.6	(2007)	33.6	(2013)	1	0	4	0	...	
Sri Lanka	97.2	(2007)	...		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2012)
Turkey	84.0	(2003)	98.8	(2013)	0	0	3	0	Yes	(2011)
South-East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2011)
Cambodia	66.4	(2005)	73.3	(2014)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2008)
Indonesia	55.0	(2002)	68.5	(2013)	1	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Lao People's Democratic Republic	...		74.8	(2012)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2015)
Malaysia		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Myanmar	64.9	(2003)	72.4	(2010)	0	0	1	0	Yes	(2014)
Philippines	83.0	(2000)	90.2	(2010)	3	0	5	1	Yes	(2015)
Singapore		0	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Thailand	99.5	(2006)	99.4	(2012)	2	0	0	0	Yes	(2010)
Timor-Leste	53.0	(2003)	55.2	(2010)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2015)
Viet Nam	92.7	(2005)	96.1	(2014)	0	0	0	0	Yes	(2009)

	SD Completeness of birth registration (%)				SD Number of verified cases of killing, kidnapping, enforced disappearance, arbitrary detention and torture of journalists, associated media personnel, trade unionists and human rights advocates in the previous 12 months*				SD Has country (a) conducted at least one population and housing census in the last 10 years
	Earliest Year		Latest Year		Earliest Year, 2010		Latest Year, 2015		Latest Year
					Male	Female	Male	Female	
Asia and the Pacific	—		—		16	0	20	1	54
Developed economies	—		—		0	0	0	0	3
Developing economies	—		—		16	0	20	1	51
East and North-East Asia	—		—		1	0	0	0	6
North and Central Asia	—		—		3	0	1	0	8
Pacific	—		—		0	0	0	0	19
South and South-West Asia	—		—		6	0	13	0	7
South-East Asia	—		—		6	0	6	1	11

Source:

All Columns: UN Statistics Division, SDG Indicators Global Database. Available at: <http://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/> (Accessed December 2017).

Note:

* The figures included here concern only cases of killings of journalists and associated media personnel. UNESCO does not collect data on trade unionists and human rights advocates, nor does it collect data on the number of cases of kidnapping, enforced disappearance, arbitrary detention or torture of journalists and associated media personnel.

Aggregates for sub-regions are simply the sum of the country entries.

... = data not available.

— indicates where average is not applicable or where available data are insufficient to derive. 0 or 0.0 nil or negligible.

Endnotes

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. Technology areas with the potential for massive impact on how people live and work, and on industries and economies.
2. Two of the 85 indicators are repeated across targets in the SDG framework: indicator 1.5.1 (Number of deaths, missing persons and persons affected by disaster per 100,000 people), which is the same as indicators 11.5.1 and 13.1.1; and indicator 10.3.1 (Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law), which is the same as indicator 16.b.1.
3. SDG indicator 5.5.1a Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (data widely available), 5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions (data moderately available), and 5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone by sex (data somewhat available).
4. Australia, the People's Republic of China, Mongolia, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Turkey, Nepal, Cambodia, Singapore, and Viet Nam.
5. UNDP 2016.
6. Tacoli 2012.
7. UNDP 2016.
8. Ibid.
9. UN Women 2015a.
10. UN, ADB and UNDP 2017.
11. Financial technology ("FinTech" or "fintech") is the new technology and innovation that aims to compete with traditional financial methods in the delivery of financial services. The use of smartphones for mobile banking, investing services and cryptocurrency are examples of technologies aiming to make financial services more accessible to the general public.
12. World Bank 2016; United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific 2017a; "A gig economy is an environment in which temporary positions are common and organizations contract with independent workers for short-term engagements. Digitization has also contributed directly to a decrease in jobs as software replaces some types of work and means that others take much less time. Other influences include financial pressures on businesses leading to further staff reductions and the entrance of the Millennial generation into the workforce. The current reality is that people tend to change jobs several times throughout their working lives; the gig economy can be seen as an evolution of that trend. Source: <https://www.mckinsey.com/global-themes/employment-and-growth/independent-work-choice-necessity-and-the-gig-economy>.

CHAPTER 1

1. Harmful practices are a violation of human rights that put women's and adolescents' sexual and reproductive health and rights at great risk. "A variety of harmful practices exist, including female genital mutilation (FGM), child and/or forced marriage, polygamy, crimes committed in the name of so-called honour and dowry-related violence. Child and/or forced marriage and FGM have an especially significant impact on the enjoyment of sexual and reproductive health." Source: Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women and Committee on the Rights of the Child, Joint General Recommendation 31 / General Comment 18 (2014) on harmful practices, para. 7.
2. UNESCAP, ADB, and UNDP 2017.
3. Razavi 2016a.
4. UN, ADB and UNDP 2017.
5. UNDP 2016.
6. Tacoli 2012.
7. UNDP 2016.
8. Ibid.
9. UN Women 2015a.
10. UN, ADB and UNDP 2017.
11. OECD Development Centre 2016.
12. UN, ADB and UNDP 2017.
13. UN Women 2015b.
14. Chattopadhyay and Duflo 2004.
15. Agarwal 2010; Ray 2007.
16. FAO 2011.
17. Seguino 2000.
18. UN Women 2015a.
19. Stuart and Woodroffe 2016.
20. Crenshaw 1989.
21. Esquivel 2016.
22. UNSCEB 2017.
23. Ibid; also Mkandawire 2005.

CHAPTER 2

1. ECOSOC 2016a.
2. Out of the 88 gender-related indicators identified for this report, two are repeated across targets in the SDG framework: indicator 1.5.1 (“Number of deaths, missing persons and persons affected by disaster per 100,000 people”), which is the same as indicators 11.5.1 and 13.1.1; and indicator 10.3.1 (“Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law”), which is the same as indicator 16.b.1. Hence, we have a total of 85 unique gender-related SDG indicators for this report.
3. The femininity index is calculated as follows: $\Sigma(\text{female in poor households}) / (\Sigma(\text{male in poor households}) / \Sigma(\text{female in all households}) / (\Sigma(\text{male in all households})).$ Values above 103 indicate that women and girls are overly represented among the poorest.
4. Nieuwenhuis, Munzi, Neugschwender and Omar.
5. Please note that the grouping of countries or territories as “South Asia”, “Europe and Central Asia” and “East Asia and the Pacific” in this global study differs from that used in this report. Middle East and North Africa is not included in the regional analysis due to low coverage, with only 4.1 per cent of the population captured in the GMD database.
6. Based on World Bank calculations using Global Micro Database 2017. Probit regressions on poverty at the individual level point to differences among younger females and males as the driving force of this inequality. The bias against females varies by age and at the aggregate global level appears to fall and starts disappearing by age 40.
7. Chant 2006.
8. UN Women 2014a.
9. Brody 2016.
10. For methodological details, Naiken. Undated.
11. FAO 2015a.
12. Mawani et al. 2016.
13. OECD Development Centre. 2016.
14. OECD Development Centre. Undated.
15. Abbai et al. 2016.
16. UNESCO 2015.
17. SDG indicator 5.5.1a Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (data widely available), 5.5.2 Proportion of women in managerial positions (data moderately available), and 5.b.1 Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone by sex (data somewhat available). Table 2.1.
18. IAEG-SDG Tier classification is as of December 2017.
19. UN Women Undated(a).
20. Sexual violence consists of “any sort of harmful or unwanted sexual behaviour that is imposed on someone. It includes acts of abusive sexual contact, forced engagement in sexual acts, attempted or completed sexual acts with a woman without her consent, sexual harassment, verbal abuse and threats of a sexual nature, exposure, unwanted touching, and incest.” UN Statistics Division 2015.
21. Vanuatu Women’s Centre and Vanuatu National Statistical Office 2011; Secretariat of the Pacific Community 2009.
22. UNICEF 2018.
23. Hirway 2016.
24. ILO 2015.
25. ADB 2015a.
26. Van Wijk-Sijbesma 1998.
27. WHO 2016a; WHO. 2016b; ADB 2012a.
28. ADB 2012a.
29. UNIDO and UN Women Undated; Global Gender and UNDP Climate Alliance. Undated.
30. ILO 2016a.
31. Razavi 2016b.
32. Gonzales et al. 2015.
33. UNESCAP, ADB, and UNDP
34. ADB 2012b.
35. “Slums” in this indicator is based on the definition in the Demographic and Health Survey defined as a group of individuals living under the same roof lacking one or more of the following conditions: access to improved water; access to improved sanitation; sufficient-living area; durability of housing; security of tenure.
36. ADB and CIF 2016.
37. UN Women Undated(b).
38. FAO 2017.
39. FAO 2009.
40. Agarwal 2010.
41. Ibid.
42. Smith et al. 2013; Bengtsson et al. 2011; Wesolowski et al. 2012; Frias-Martinez et al. 2011; Letouzé 2012; Legara 2015.
43. In cases where the official SDG indicator holds multiple indicators in its series, the widest availability of the indicator component is used to assess the state of regional coverage. For example, SDG Indicator 4.1.1 “Proportion of children and young people: (a) in grades 2/3; (b) at the end of primary; and (c) at the end of lower secondary achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex” holds three indicators in its series, ranging in availability from 5 per cent–28 per cent of countries and territories in the region. The indicator with 28 per cent availability was used to assess the regional coverage.

CHAPTER 3

1. Bhutan, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Iran, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Maldives, Mongolia, Rwanda and Timor-Leste.
2. WHO 2015.
3. UNFPA and Guttmacher Institute 2015.
4. WHO 2006; UNFPA 2014.
5. Ibid.
6. House et al. 2012; UNFPA 2012a.
7. Esplen 2009.
8. Joshi and Schultz 2009; Schultz 2010; Schultz 2009.
9. Singh et al. 2014.
10. Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action 1995.
11. CEDAW 1979.
12. ibid.
13. UNFPA 2017a; UNFAP 1994
14. Firoz et al. 2013.
15. Fistula Foundation Undated.
16. Thanenthiran et al. 2013.
17. Vanuatu National Statistics Office and Secretariat of the Pacific Community 2014.
18. Government of Samoa 2015; National Institute of Population Studies and ICF International 2013.
19. Ravindran 2016.
20. According to UNFPA, some areas have 25 per cent more male births than female births. This rise in sex selection reflects the persistent low status of women and girls, and the resulting gender imbalance negatively affects countries and has led to increased sexual violence and trafficking.
21. WHO 2011; Lofti et al. 2012.
22. Guttmacher Institute 2016.
23. WHO 2012a.
24. UNDESA Population Division 2014.
25. Center for Reproductive Rights 2014.
26. Center for Research on Environment Health and Population Activities 2017.
27. Johansson et al. 1996.
28. Wu and Parish 1994; Johansson et al. 1996.
29. Lefevre 2013.
30. AFPPD 2016.
31. CEDAW, child marriage, article 16.
32. Statistical Table 5.6. Indicator 5.3.1 in Annex 2.
33. UNFPA 2017b.
34. HIV and AIDS Data Hub for Asia-Pacific. Undated (a).
35. UNAIDS 2015.
36. HIV and AIDS Data Hub for Asia-Pacific. Undated(b).
37. UNAIDS 2016.
38. Baral et al. 2013; UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office 2016.
39. EPTCT: The Asia-Pacific Prevention of Parent to Child Transition Task Force Undated.
40. "Vertical transmission" refers to HIV transmission during pregnancy, labour, delivery or breastfeeding.
41. UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office 2016.
42. UNFPA 2016a.
43. Ibid.
44. ILO 2016b.
45. Sen and Govender 2015.
46. SOGIE is a broad term used to include people of variant sexual orientation, gender identities and expression that particularly includes lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex.
47. ILGA 2006.
48. UNESCAP Undated.
49. Ibid.
50. Devine et al. 2017.
51. Lusti-Narasimhan and Beard 2013.
52. BMJ 2003.
53. Youlden et al. 2014.
54. International Agency for Research on Cancer and WHO 2012.
55. amfAR and Treat Asia 2016.
56. WHO 2008.
57. Thanenthiran et al. 2013.
58. amfAR and Treat Asia 2016.
59. AIA 2017.
60. Government of Fiji. Ministry of Health and Health Services Undated.
61. amfAR and Treat Asia 2016.
62. Ibid.
63. UNESCO, UNAIDS, UNFPA, UNICEF and WHO 2009.
64. Population Council 2015.
65. UNESCO 2015.
66. UNESCO 2012.
67. Khmer Times 2015.
68. UNESCO 2015.
69. ABC 2017.
70. UNESCO. 2015.
71. UNFPA. International Conference on Population and Development Programme of Action. 4.29, 7.37, 7.41 and 7.47.

CHAPTER 4

1. UN Women 2016a; UN Women 2015b.
2. Chen and Lund 2016.
3. ILO 2017a.
4. For a literature review on the relationship between gender equality and women's economic empowerment, Kabeer and Natali 2013.
5. ADB 2015b.

6. UN Women 2015b. Figure 2.10, p.103; ILO and WIEGO 2014; Statistical Table 8.1 in Annex 2.
7. UN Women 2015b; ILO 2014; ADB 2016. Social protection for informal workers in Asia. ADB: Manila. Accessed February 2018. <https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/203891/sp-informalworkers-asia.pdf>.
8. **Persons employed in the informal sector** (except those rare persons in the sector who may have formal employment) include: own-account (self-employed) workers in their own informal enterprises; employers in informal enterprises; employees of informal enterprises; contributing family workers working in informal sector enterprises; and members of informal producers' cooperatives. **Persons in informal employment outside the informal sector** are, specifically: employees in formal enterprises not covered by national labour legislation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefits such as paid annual or sick leave; contributing family workers working in formal sector enterprises; paid domestic workers not covered by national labour legislation, social protection or entitlement to certain employment benefit such as paid annual leave or sick leave; and own-account workers engaged in the production of goods exclusively for own final use by their household (e.g., subsistence farming, do-it-yourself construction of own dwelling). For the full definition, see International Conference of Labour Statisticians 1993; and International Conference of Labour Statisticians 2003.
9. Ibid.
10. Biggeri and Mehrotra 2002.
11. ILO and ADB 2011.
12. World Bank 2012.
13. Blau and Kahn 2016.
14. For example, World Bank 2012; Berik et al. 2004.
15. ILO 2016c.
16. UN Women 2015b.
17. ILO 2015.
18. Ibid. For example, Vietnamese companies with a female CEO in the aftermath of the financial crisis. The value of shares for the companies with a female CEO fell by 17.1 per cent - considerably less than they did under their male counterparts (38.8 per cent). When the stock market value doubled from 2009 to 2013, the value of companies run by women tripled.
19. Chandrasekhar and Ghosh 2014.
20. Ibid.
21. ILO 2017b.
22. UNRISD 2016.
23. UN Women 2015b.
24. Ibid.
25. United Nations General Assembly 2013.
26. UN Women 2015b.
27. Commission on Status of Women 2009.
28. Hirway et al. 2017a. Hirway et al. 2017b; For example, Terbish and Floro 2016; Fengdan et al. 2016; and Yokying et al. 2016.
29. UN Women 2018; Razavi 2007.
30. England et al. 2002; Duffy 2005.
31. UN Women 2015.
32. ILO 2017.
33. Hirway et al. 2017a; Hirway et al. 2017b; For East Asia and the Pacific, there is a clear correlation between gender gaps in unpaid care work and labour force participation (Figure 3.2.4 in OECD Development Centre 2016.).
34. Madurawala 2009.
35. Maurer-Fazio et al. 2011.
36. Ferrant et al. 2014.
37. Ibid.
38. Ibid.
39. Zacharias et al. 2014; Zacharias et al. 2013.
40. Yoon et al. 2014. For example, in recent years, the Government of the Republic of Korea has enacted policy changes to support family care, including the expansion of childcare subsidies and the introduction of national long-term care insurance. These policies intend to reduce the burden on families of this unpaid care. Estimates show that the share of unpaid family care for both children and elderly people is much larger than paid market care and state budget care. Public policies have contributed to a reduction in the care burden for the elderly.
41. Tsuno and Akira 2009.
42. UNDESA 2017a.
43. Jones 2007. Falling fertility rates have been brought on by the twin factors of delayed marriage and non-marriage.
44. Mujahid 2006.
45. Desai and Tye 2009; Devasahayam (Ed.) 2014.
46. Hermalin 1995. The 13 economies include Bangladesh; the People's Republic of China; Hong Kong, China; Indonesia; Japan; Malaysia; Pakistan; the Philippines; Singapore; the Republic of Korea; Sri Lanka; Taipei, China; and Thailand; Tsuno and Akira 2009. p. 1–14.
47. UN Women 2015b.
48. Parrenas 2000.
49. Brooks and Devasahayam 2011.
50. Yamanaka and Piper 2006; Ministry of Labour, Thailand 2010. For example, 30 per cent of female migrant workers from the Lao PDR and 17 per cent of those from Myanmar work as domestic helpers. In Thailand, household work is the top occupation among female migrants from the Lao PDR and Myanmar.
51. Yeates 2005.

52. Vaughan et al. 2015. For example, a study conducted amongst women who have resettled in Australia found that immigrant women face barriers to accessing services aimed at preventing and responding to family violence. Evidence suggests that these include language, limited awareness of legal rights and services, fear of police or that their families will be broken up, social isolation, and shame.
53. Milly 2017.
54. Hirway 2016.
55. Hirway 2017. They are Australia, Japan, Mongolia, New Zealand, the Republic of Korea, and Thailand.
56. Hirway 2016.
57. Hirway 2017.
58. UN Women 2015b.
59. Ibid.
60. OECD Development Centre 2016.
61. ILO 2016d.
62. UN Women 2015b.
63. Ibid.
64. Government Public Relations Department 2016.
65. ILO 2016d.
66. Ibid.
67. OECD 2014.
68. ADB 2015a.
69. UNESCO 2016.
70. Ibid.
71. For example, the People's Republic of China has set the "90/7/3" framework for the development of its elder care system. The objective is for 90 per cent of seniors to receive home-based care, 7 per cent to benefit from community-based care and 3 per cent from residential care.
72. Sasat 2013.
73. ADB 2017a.
74. ADB undated (a); ADB undated (b).
75. ADB 2015a.
76. Kanika 2014.
77. ADB 2015a.
78. Koolwal and van de Walle 2009.
79. ADB 2015a; UNDP 2011.
80. ADB 2010.
81. Barkat et al. 2002.
82. Korkeakoski 2009.
7. World Bank 2013.
8. Ibid.
9. Ibid.
10. UN Women Viet Nam 2012.
11. Sabia et al. 2013.
12. Ministry of Women's Affairs of Cambodia 2014.
13. UN Women undated(c).
14. Ibid.
15. UN Women Fund for Gender Equality 2017.
16. UN Statistics Division 2015.
17. Physical violence consists of acts aimed at physically hurting the victim and includes, but is not limited to, pushing, grabbing, twisting the arm, pulling the hair, slapping, kicking, biting or hitting with the fist or object, trying to strangle or suffocate, burning or scalding on purpose, or attacking with some sort of weapon, gun or knife; sexual violence consists of any sort of harmful or unwanted sexual behaviour that is imposed on someone. It includes acts of abusive sexual contact, forced engagement in sexual acts, attempted or completed sexual acts with a woman without her consent, sexual harassment, verbal abuse and threats of a sexual nature, exposure, unwanted touching and incest; psychological violence includes a range of behaviours, including acts of emotional abuse and controlling behaviours; emotional abuse includes insulting or making a woman feel bad about herself, belittling or humiliating her in front of others, deliberately scaring or intimidating her, threatening to hurt her or others she cares about; controlling behaviours include isolating a woman by preventing her from seeing family or friends, monitoring her whereabouts and social interactions, ignoring her or treating her indifferently, getting angry if she speaks with other men, making unwarranted accusations of infidelity, and controlling her access to health care, education or the labour market; economic violence is said to occur when an individual denies his intimate partner's access to financial resources, typically as a form of abuse or control or in order to isolate her or to impose other adverse consequences on her well-being.
18. UNFPA 2016b
19. UN Statistics Division 2015.
20. Secretariat of the Pacific Community 2010; UNICEF undated.
21. UN Women 2013.
22. Early and forced marriage is the formal marriage or informal union of children before 18 years of age, a harmful traditional and cultural practice that girls are disproportionately most vulnerable to; Forced marriages are different from arranged marriages, in that one or both partners cannot give free or valid consent to the marriage. Forced marriages involve varying degrees of force, coercion or deception, ranging from emotional

CHAPTER 5

1. United Nations General Assembly 2016.
2. Ibid.
3. United Nations 1993.
4. Manjoo 2012.
5. UNDESA undated.
6. WHO 2005a.

- pressure by family or community members to abduction and imprisonment. Emotional pressure from a victim's family can involve repeatedly telling the victim that the family's social standing and reputation are at stake, isolating the victim, or refusing to speak to her. In more severe cases, the victim can be subject to physical or sexual abuse, including rape. Source: Advocates for Human Rights 2010.
23. UNICEF 2016.
 24. In South Asia, 72 per cent of women aged 20–24 years living in the poorest households were married before 18 years of age, compared to 18 per cent of women in the same age group living in the richest households.
 25. In addition, 54 per cent of women aged 20–24 years living in rural areas were married before 18 years of age, compared to 29 per cent of women in the same age group living in urban areas. Research in Bangladesh also found that for women with a secondary or higher education the median age at first marriage was 20 years, whereas, for women with no education the median age at first marriage was 15 years. Source: UNICEF 2017.
 26. UNICEF 2016.
 27. UNICEF 2017.
 28. UNFPA 2012a.
 29. Annex 2: Statistical Table 5.6: Selected Indicators on SDG 5.
 30. UNFPA 2012b.
 31. Annex 2: Statistical Table 5.6.
 32. UNICEF 2016.
 33. Ibid.
 34. Ibid.
 35. UNICEF 2017.
 36. Ibid.
 37. Acid Survivors Trust international 2017.
 38. UN Women Asia and the Pacific 2015.
 39. UNODC 2014.
 40. Ibid.
 41. UNODC 2013.
 42. WHO undated; WHO 2012b.
 43. Intimate femicide is well documented in media reports in countries throughout Asia and the Pacific. However, research into issues of intimate femicide is limited, so the true nature and extent of the problem is unknown.
 44. WHO. 2012b.
 45. Sevrer and Gokcecek 2001; Shalhoub-Kevorkian 2002.
 46. UNiTE 2011.
 47. Human trafficking includes the “recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.” See, A/RES/55/25, United Nations General Assembly, United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime; Annex II: The Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 8 January 2001.
 48. ILO undated.
 49. Ibid.
 50. In Thailand, as many as 52 per cent of detected trafficking victims were girls, and in Indonesia, as many as 30 per cent of detected trafficking victims were girls; UNODC 2016.
 51. UNODC 2016.
 52. Ibid.
 53. Ibid; Trafficking of women for forced marriages is most prevalent in the Mekong Subregion, including Cambodia, the People's Republic of China, Myanmar and Viet Nam; whereas trafficking for sham marriages occurs mainly in affluent countries in the region. Source: UNODC 2016.
 54. Transgendered trafficking victims are also vulnerable to violence; however, this group is often overlooked because efforts to protect sex trafficking victims are almost exclusively focused on heterosexual girls and women. Source: Davis and Miles 2014.
 55. Ibid.
 56. Literature on humanitarian responses in emergency settings often considers violence against women and girls in a much broader context, including: pre-crisis (before disaster strikes); crisis (when the disaster strikes or conflict at its peak, often resulting in significant displacement); and during stabilization and return/recovery (when those who are displaced return home and/or focus on rebuilding systems and structures and transition to development). These three stages are often fluid and overlap. Source: Ward and UN Women 2013.
 57. Farwell 2004.
 58. WHO 2005b.
 59. UNIFEM 2010.
 60. Agreed Conclusions of the 57th Session of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women.
 61. ECOSOC 2016b.
 62. UN Women 2012a.

63. ECOSOC 2014.
64. Ferguson 2011.
65. UN Women 2012a.
66. UN Women 2012b.
67. UN Women and UNiTE 2012.
68. UN Women, UNFPA, WHO, UNDP and UNODC 2015.
69. Ibid.
70. The 2015 Inter-Agency Standing Committee Guidelines for Integrating Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Actions and the 2015 UN Women report on The Effect of Gender Equality Programming on Humanitarian Outcomes provide clear guidance for practitioners on how to include prevention of VAW in programmatic actions related to water and sanitation, as well as examples of lessons learned and best practices. Source: UNiTE 2016.
71. ADB 2013a; ADB 2013b; ADB 2015c.
72. United Nations General Assembly 2016.
73. UN Women 2017a.
74. UN Women 2015c; UN Women, UNFPA and Australian Government DFAT 2016.
75. Ibid.
76. Alvarado and Dastgir 2016; UN Women, UNFPA and Australian Government DFAT 2016.
77. Ibid.
78. Ibid.
79. Ibid.
80. Ibid.
81. Ibid.
82. Partners for Prevention 2017.
83. UNDESA Statistics Division 2014; UN Women and Office for the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights 2014.
14. Neumayer and Plümper 2007.
15. OXFAM 2005.
16. Parkinson and Zara 2013.
17. Global Gender and Climate Alliance 2016.
18. UNIFEM 2010.
19. International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies 2015.
20. Sur 2015.
21. Kazuyuki 2013.
22. Wu et al. 2016.
23. Ebi and Nealon 2016.
24. Milman 2016.
25. UNEP Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific 2015; IPCC 2015.
26. ADB 2013c.
27. WHO 2017.
28. WHO 2007.
29. IPCC 2015.
30. FAO 2015b.
31. ADB 2011.
32. ADB and FAO 2013.
33. FAO 2015b.
34. ADB and FAO 2013.
35. Ibid.
36. Habtezion 2013.
37. Agarwal 2012.
38. International Development Law Organization 2017.
39. ADB and FAO 2013.
40. Krishnamurthy et al. 2015.
41. ADB 2012c.
42. European Institute for Gender Equality 2016; Cadondon and Strohmeier 2015.
43. Beneficiaries of UN Women Low Emission Climate Resilient Development (LECRd) Programme 2016.
44. Bogner et al. 2007.
45. UN Women and Mary Robinson Foundation 2016.
46. WEDO 2016.
47. These three bodies are: the Adaptation Committee, Compliance Committee Facilitative Branch, and Executive Committee of the Warsaw International Mechanism for Loss and Damage associated with Climate Change Impacts.
48. Annex B, UN Women 2016b.
49. Daze and Dekens 2017.
50. UN Women 2016b.
51. Dutta 2015.
52. UNISDR 2017.
53. Pacific Community et al. 2016.
54. ADB. 2017b.
55. UNDP and UN Habitat 2014.

CHAPTER 6

1. UNESCAP 2017b.; UN Women 2016b.
2. World Meteorological Organization 2017.
3. Ibid.
4. UN Women 2016b.
5. Ibid; UN Women and Mary Robinson Foundation 2016.
6. UNESCAP 2017b.
7. Ibid.
8. ADB and FAO 2013.
9. Aguilar et al. 2015.
10. UNESCAP 2017b.
11. Ibid.
12. Kreft et al. 2016.
13. United Nations University and Bündnis Entwicklung Hilft 2016; UN-OHRLLS 2015.

56. Recommendations in UN Women and Mary Robinson Foundation 2016.
57. Agarwal 2010.
58. UN Women 2016b.
59. This country-driven approach for gender equitable climate policy decision-making is also being supported in Cambodia and Viet Nam. Source: ADB 2015d; Zusman et al. 2016.
60. IPCC 2015.
61. UN Women 2017b; UN Viet Nam and Oxfam 2015.
62. UNIDO and UN Women 2013.
63. SNV undated.
64. ADB undated(c).
65. Adams et al. 2014.
66. Ibid.
67. WEDO 2016.
68. Global Environment Facility 2015.
69. Schalteck and Nakhooda 2014.
70. ADB and CIF 2016.
71. Ibid.
72. Ibid.
73. Ibid.
74. Zusman et al. 2016.
75. WEDO 2016.
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CHAPTER 7

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