

Sample text for translation quality evaluation

The inequalities between men and women are best understood along a lifecycle perspective. In most cases, the gender gap becomes larger later in the lifecycle.

Disadvantages early on can increase the likelihood of subsequent deprivations. Women of reproductive age appear to be disadvantaged in the job search and have higher youth and overall unemployment rates than men in all regions except for East Asia and the Pacific. Women are also penalized in their wages because of “glass walls,” social norms that encourage men and women to work in different job categories. The typically female jobs (nurses) are usually paid less than the typically male jobs (engineers). In addition, there are many cases in which women are not paid the same wages for doing the same job as men, and in which female wages are lower than male wages after having children.

The core of the gender issue, however, can be observed on indicators that measure women’s representation in positions of power. Worldwide, women hold only 22.9 percent of seats in parliament, while only 28 percent of all legislators, senior officials, and managers are female. In all regions, women’s representation in these areas is much lower than men’s. In all regions except Latin America and the Caribbean and Sub-Saharan Africa, men’s representation in parliament is about four times as high as women’s. The proportion of male legislators, senior officials and managers is 11 times as high in the Arab States and seven times as high in South Asia. These positions are crucial to enable women to exercise power and influence decisionmaking that can change societies. When women do obtain these jobs, they face a wage gap that is generally much wider than in less senior positions (e.g. the gender wage gap among European chief executive officers is 40 percent, compared with an overall wage gap of 20 percent).

A wide gap between men and women is also seen in old-age pensions. In all regions except for East Asia and the Pacific, the share of men of statutory pension age receiving pensions is much higher than that of women. In the Arab States, it is more than seven times as high. The gender gap during working age is mainly an issue of discrimination in the labour market, coupled with unequal care responsibilities. In old age, it also reflects deficient social security schemes. For those women who contributed primarily to unpaid care work, social security schemes should provide noncontributory pension benefits.

With the current narrowing in educational access inequality between girls and boys, measured by enrolment rates, the inequalities may decline for the next generation. On average, adult men enjoyed one year more of schooling than women when they were children, whereas the current generation of school age girls can expect slightly longer schooling than their male peers. In the best case, improvements in gender parity during earlier stages of the lifecycle could lead to more empowerment of women in the future. But social norms would also have to change. Violence against women and the fact that the lion’s share of unpaid care work is carried out by females remain serious obstacles to expanding women’s capabilities.

Girls and women are especially vulnerable to deprivations, just because they are women. The first is deprivation of physical integrity. One in every three women worldwide has experienced either physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or non-partner sexual violence in their lifetime. This number is still highly underestimated because of the difficulty in collecting this particularly delicate and personal information. One of every two female victims of homicide are killed by her intimate partner or a family member, and at least 200 million women and girls alive today have undergone female genital mutilation.

Females are also more vulnerable to deprivations of opportunities and capabilities. Over 700 million women and girls alive today were married before their 18th birthday, which determines their way of life and—more often than not—undermines their opportunities of education, income and independence. Similarly, high adolescent birth rates can undermine young women’s opportunities, especially when pregnancies happen by chance and not by choice. Worldwide, the adolescent birth rate was 51 per 1,000 live births between 2006 and 2015; in the LDCs, it was 109.

Rural and urban areas

Inequalities in human development also exist between certain areas within countries. Typically, they are large between rural and urban areas. For example in Tanzania, the incidence of multidimensional poverty, as measured by the MPI, was more than twice as high in rural areas (65.8 percent) than in urban areas (29.3 percent) in 2016.

Stunting is more prevalent among rural children than among their urban peers in most countries. The highest rural stunting rates are in Burundi, Eritrea, Timor-Leste, Guatemala, Yemen and Madagascar, where more than half the children under five are stunted in rural areas. The consequences of stunting include delayed motor development, impaired cognitive function and poor school performance.

A large divide in rural and urban access to health services creates disadvantages for rural populations from a young age. China, for example, had 8.6 health professionals per 1,000 urban habitants in 2013, but only 3.4 in rural areas. Likewise, Pakistan has 1.5 physicians per 1,000 habitants in urban in areas, but only 0.4 in rural areas. The lack of access to health services also leads to higher maternal mortality ratios in rural areas.

In addition to barriers to learning such as insufficient nutrition intake and medical care, other obstacles stand in the way of education in rural areas. Schools are generally less accessible there, resulting in lower enrolment rates. On average, in rural areas of the world’s developing regions, 12 percent of adolescents have never attended primary school against only 5 percent in urban regions. The divide grows even larger at higher levels of education: in urban areas 51 percent of adolescents transition to upper secondary education, whereas in rural areas the rate is only 35 percent.

The digital divide reflects the rural–urban divide. Worldwide, mobile-broadband networks (3G or above) reach 84 percent of the population but only 67 percent of those in rural areas, depriving some rural people of access to information, general education and even jobs.

Different ethnicities

Large inequalities can typically be found among ethnic groups. In India, for example, Scheduled Tribes are more affected by poverty, especially in rural areas where their poverty rate is particularly

high (45.3 percent) and almost double that of the overall population (25.4 percent). Countries of high human development also show inequalities between different ethnicities. In the United Kingdom, for example, the share of individuals living in households with income below 60 percent of the median is 43 percent among Pakistani and Bangladeshi people and 17 percent among white people. The same groups also suffer from poorer health conditions, especially if they are women: in 1991, 2001 and 2011, their rates of long-term limiting illnesses were 10 percent higher than those of white women.

Another example is the Roma, one of the largest minority groups in Europe and Central Asia. Their unemployment is much higher than national averages in all the countries. Their youth unemployment is even higher, reaching almost 70 percent in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Those Roma who do manage to find work suffer from wage discrimination, with wages on average only 45-80 percent of non-Roma wages. Roma women's wages were only of 54 percent of those of non-Roma women's wages, and 45 percent of non-Roma men's.

Another area of ethnic inequalities is access to basic services for indigenous peoples in Latin America. In Panama, for example, 92 percent of non-indigenous households are connected to electricity. Among the indigenous population, the rate is only 40 percent. In Ecuador 79 percent of the non-indigenous population has access to sewage, but only 43 percent of the indigenous population. In Colombia 84 percent of non-indigenous households have running water, but only 41 percent of indigenous households enjoy this service. In Peru, 50 percent of the non-indigenous population has a mobile phone, but only 24 percent of indigenous people own one.

Fewer indigenous than non-indigenous children and adolescents go to school. In Costa Rica, the primary school attendance rate of non-indigenous children is 95 percent but among indigenous children ages 6-11 only 75 percent. In Venezuela, 75 percent of non-indigenous adolescents ages 12-18 regularly attend school, but only 56 percent of indigenous adolescents. This educational divide is also reflected in salaries in most Latin American countries. In Mexico, for example, indigenous peoples earn on average 13 percent less than the rest of the population, in Bolivia 11 percent less.