

1 **Gender equality in science, medicine, and global health: where are we at and why does it matter?**

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33 **Abstract**

34
35 The purpose of this review is to provide evidence for why gender equality in science, medicine and
36 global health matters for health and health-related outcomes. We present a high-level synthesis of
37 global gender data, summarise progress towards gender equality in science, medicine and global
38 health, review the evidence for why gender equality in these fields matters in terms of health and
39 social outcomes, and reflect on strategies to promote change. Notwithstanding the evolving
40 landscape of global gender data, the overall pattern of gender equality for women science, medicine
41 and global health is one of mixed gains and persistent challenges. Gender equality in science,
42 medicine and global health has the potential to lead to significant health, social, and economic gains.
43 The current gender reckoning in our field highlights both missed and future opportunities, the need
44 to situate gender analyses in the context of political influences and structural inequalities, and to
45 draw upon contemporary social movements to advance the field. With the evolving landscape, we
46 are in the position to demand more from the evidence, to innovate beyond current discourses, and
47 to realise true gender equality for everyone, everywhere.
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50 Introduction

51

52 We are in the midst of a gender reckoning in the fields of science, medicine, and global health.¹ Four
53 contemporary social movements have helped shape the global gender and health landscape: online
54 movements against violence, including #MeToo and #NiUnaMenos; intersectional feminism; the
55 evolving recognition of men and masculinities; and, the global trans rights movement. These
56 movements are transforming the health sciences, forcing us to grapple with “...questions of agency,
57 vulnerability, and the dynamic and changing realities of gendered power relations.”² We are living
58 through transformative and challenging times.

59

60 It is in this context that we review the evidence for why gender equality matters in science, medicine
61 and global health. The purpose of this review is to provide a high-level synthesis of global gender
62 data, summarise progress towards gender equality in science, medicine and global health, and
63 review the evidence for why gender equality matters in terms of health and social outcomes. We will
64 situate the current #LancetWomen theme issue in the context of global movements transforming
65 our field, drawing inspiration from trans, feminist, and intersectional scholarship.

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67 Gender, health and society

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69 Restrictive gender norms affect everybody. As a *shared determinant*³ of health for men, women,
70 boys, girls and gender diverse people, gender inequalities drive large-scale excess in mortality and
71 morbidity globally.^{4,5} Gender inequality is transformed into health risk through discriminatory values,
72 norms, beliefs and practices, differential exposures and vulnerabilities to disease, disability and
73 injuries, biases in health systems, and biases in health research.⁴ Gender discrimination at any of
74 these levels detrimentally impacts health and social outcomes.^{4,5} For example, interpersonal
75 violence, including violence against women, is influenced by harmful gender norms and broader
76 systems of oppression;^{6,7} confronting these gendered structures is relevant to all people. More
77 insidiously, gender inequalities contribute to increased levels of stress and anxiety: among women
78 through their socially-prescribed role as caregivers,⁸ among men through their socially-prescribed
79 role as breadwinners,⁹ and among trans people where non-conformity to gender norms are often
80 socially penalised.^{10,11} Table 1 provides a summary of some key literature which outlines the
81 relationship between gender and health.

82

83 Gender equality is a human right.^{12,13} It is essential “to achieve peaceful societies, with full human
84 potential and sustainable development.”¹⁴ After more than a century of feminist advocacy,^{14,15} 40
85 years of international discourses on gender in development,^{2,17} and a mounting body of evidence,^{1,18}
86 gender equality is recognised as one of the most significant determinants of health and economic
87 development.^{4,19,20} Despite this recognition, gender equality remains a complex issue in health and
88 development. For one, the term gender is a “widely used and often misunderstood term. It is
89 sometimes conflated with sex or used to refer only to women,”²¹ and also categorically excludes
90 trans and non-gender-binary people.^{18,19} Here, we use the Global Health 5050 definition of gender¹⁹
91 and the United Nations (UN) definition of gender equality²² (Panel 1). While gender equality has
92 been positioned as key to achieving the Sustainable Development Goals,^{23,24} there is “a distinct lack
93 of clarity about how such a goal should be defined or about how it might be achieved.”²⁵ Gender is
94 an inherently political issue that “is missing from, misunderstood in, and only sometimes

95 mainstreamed into global health policies and programmes.”¹⁸ There has been sluggish progress
96 towards international gender equality targets,^{18,19} and conservative campaigns against ‘gender
97 ideology’ threaten to undermine progress.^{26,27}

98

99 **The global state of gender equality data**

100

101 Gender data matter for women in science, medicine, and global health: to both monitor progress
102 and reflect critically on research processes and outputs. A range of gender data has emerged in the
103 last two decades.²⁸⁻³¹ The Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) reports
104 aggregate gender data on employment, education, entrepreneurship, health development, and
105 governance.³² The World Bank’s Gender Data Portal contains over 500 indicators on agency,
106 socioeconomic context, economic opportunities, education, health, public life, and decision-
107 making.³³ The UN Statistics Division’s Minimum Set of Gender Indicators contain 52 quantitative and
108 11 qualitative indicators over the domains of economic structures and access to resources,
109 education, health, public life and decision-making, and human rights.³⁴ In addition, there are
110 numerous international gender indexes, reflecting composite data over various aspects of gender,
111 health and development.³⁵⁻³⁷

112

113 Despite the proliferation of indicators, methodological and conceptual shortfalls significantly limit
114 the use of gender data.^{29,35,36,39,40} Methodological limitations include unequal country coverage, lack
115 of international standards for comparability, insufficient complexity of indicators across gender
116 domains, and insufficient granularity for disaggregation.⁴¹⁻⁴³ Conceptual shortfalls include
117 assumptions of heteronormativity, exclusion of non-gender-binary persons and men, lack of
118 meaningful information about within-household gender dynamics, and inadequate quantification of
119 unpaid and domestic labour.^{18,44-46} Initiatives such as Data2X and Equal Measures 2030 aim to fill
120 these gaps and transform gender data collection systems through conceptualising and collecting
121 new data, and reorganizing existing data so it is more actionable by policy makers.^{42,43} The Gender
122 Equitable Men Scale (GEMS) offers survey tools that explore attitudes to gender norms, violence,
123 masculinities, and sexual health.⁴⁷ With massive national epidemiological and demographic
124 transitions – combined with the growing recognition of sub-national and intra-urban heterogeneity
125 and the need for intersectional approaches to the quantification of relative advantage or
126 disadvantage⁴⁸ – gender metrics are moving towards individual-level approaches.^{49,50}

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128 Notwithstanding the changing landscape of global gender data, the overall pattern of gender
129 equality for women science, medicine and global health is one of mixed gains and persistent
130 challenges.

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132 **Gender equality in science, medicine and global health**

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134 **Progress**

135

136 In science, the “knowledge gender divide continues to exist in all countries, even those which have a
137 highly-developed knowledge society.”⁵¹ UNESCO Women in Science data demonstrate that less than
138 30% of the world’s researchers are women, comprising only 19% in South and West Asia, 23% in East

139 Asia and the Pacific, 30% in Sub-Saharan Africa, 32% in North America and Western Europe and 45%
140 in Latin America⁵² (Figure 1). The proportion of women researchers is increasing worldwide (Figure
141 2), although they publish fewer research papers on average than men and are less likely to
142 collaborate internationally.⁵³ In Europe and North America, men are still more likely to graduate
143 from the natural sciences, mathematics, and information and communication technologies, and to
144 translate higher degrees into employment.⁵⁴ Women are often ‘squeezed out’ of science careers by
145 structural barriers: SAGE (Science in Australia Gender Equity), the American Association of University
146 Women (AAUW), and the European Commission (She Figures) report that gender inequality is a
147 function of systemic factors unrelated to ability, including bias, organisational constraints,
148 organisational culture, and differential effects of work and family demands.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ Analysis of
149 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) data found, paradoxically, that countries
150 with high levels of gender equality have some of the largest STEM gaps in secondary and tertiary
151 education.⁵⁸

152

153 In health, issues of occupational segregation, wage and working conditions, and leadership
154 disparities remain pronounced. The health workforce is feminising, and women’s participation is
155 consistently higher than in science or the general workforce (Figures 1 and 2), but this is occurring
156 unequally: approximately 75% of the global health workforce is female, yet women
157 disproportionately represent lower cadres of health workers.⁵⁹ In medicine, there are persistent
158 imbalances in specialist training participation with women remaining the minority in surgical
159 specialties⁶⁰ and gender pay gaps across all specialties, which are not wholly explained by seniority,
160 career breaks, and part-time work.⁶¹ Further, wage conditions may deteriorate as more women join
161 the ranks of health professions.⁶² The High-Level Commission on Health Employment and Economic
162 Growth recognised that working conditions of health workers were affected by poor wages and
163 benefits, the absence of social protection and unsafe working conditions.⁶³ Although women
164 comprise the majority of the health workforce around the world, they hold a small fraction of
165 leadership positions.^{1,64} The WHO Global Health Workforce Network Gender Equity Hub recognises
166 that, across the health and social care workforce, women are significantly under-represented in
167 management, leadership and governance.⁶⁵

168

169 Global Health is defined as “collaborative trans-national research and action for promoting health
170 for all,”⁶⁶ and encompasses international governance, research, and health financing. Despite this
171 inclusive definition, global health as a field remains gender unequal or gender-blind. For example,
172 among 140 global health organizations, only 40% mention gender in their governance documents.¹⁹
173 Only 20% of global health organisations had gender parity on their governing boards,¹⁹ and only two
174 UN Agencies related to health have women heads.⁶⁴ Despite recent commitment by The WHO’s
175 Director General to gender equality, only a quarter of Member State chief delegates to the World
176 Health Assembly or Ministers of Health are women.⁶⁷ Gender has only recently been explicitly
177 recognised by philanthropic bodies and research funders, with organisational commitments to
178 gender equality from the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, Caterpillar Foundation, Ford
179 Foundation, National Institutes of Health, Rockefeller Foundation, and Open Society Foundations.¹⁹
180 In health financing, gender is insufficiently addressed, despite the purported emphasis placed on
181 equity by proponents of universal health coverage.⁶⁸

182

183 **Limits**

184 Gender biases in the health sector “...undermine inclusive economic growth, full employment,
185 decent work and the achievement of gender equality. They also create inefficiencies in health
186 systems by limiting the productivity, distribution, motivation and retention of female workers, who
187 constitute the majority of the health workforce.”⁶⁹ Gender discrimination is linked to low morale,
188 low self-esteem, and lower productivity.^{65,70} In many countries, women lack access to productive
189 resources – including land, finance, technology and education – necessary to support engagement in
190 science.⁷¹ Research from East Africa suggests that women scientists face higher burdens of unpaid
191 work and gender violence, with serious sequelae for mental and physical health.⁷⁰⁻⁷⁴ Systematic
192 gender inequality leads to health workforce maldistribution, and inefficiencies in or barriers to
193 healthcare for those who need it most.^{70,75} Unless gender – and its intersections with other social
194 stratifiers – is explicitly recognised, progress towards UHC may fail to address or even exacerbate
195 gender inequality.⁶⁸

196 Although men face fewer barriers to career progression in science, medicine and global health, they
197 also lack systematic support for transforming existing workplace gender structures. Resources such
198 as Men Advocating Real Change (MARC, by Catalyst) exist to support gender equality initiatives,
199 although there are few targeted policies supporting men as carers or other policies supporting men
200 in transforming workplace gender cultures.⁷⁶ An EU report found that, despite positive effects of
201 paternity leave on economic, social and demographic outcomes, uptake of leave remained low, due
202 to poor compensation, lack of affordable childcare, inflexibility of leave arrangements, gender norms
203 and cultural expectations.⁷⁷

204

205 There is a paucity of information available about trans persons in the science, medicine and global
206 health workforce. However, a recent study of employment outcomes, using the American National
207 Transgender Discrimination Survey, found they experience greater discrimination in hiring, and
208 differential treatment once employed.⁷⁸ Research on the health burden and needs of gender
209 minorities is increasingly available, but trans issues remain marginalized: for example, much data
210 remains blind to trans identities due to the absence of survey items with which to identify as non-
211 gender-binary.⁷⁹

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213 **Why gender matters: opportunities in science, medicine and global health**

214

215 Gender equality in science, medicine and global health has the potential to lead to significant health,
216 social, and economic gains. There is widespread consensus that gender equality in the community
217 promotes economic growth, lowers fertility, reduces child mortality, and improves nutrition.^{75,80,81}
218 There is also evidence, primarily from business and management sectors, that gender-diverse
219 workplaces have improved productivity, innovation, decision-making, and employee retention and
220 satisfaction.⁸² Gender-diverse institutions are more likely to outperform those that are not gender-
221 diverse.^{83,84} If productivity and innovation can be improved by increasing gender diversity, then
222 there is an ethical imperative to do so. Any organisation that is not gender diverse is failing to access
223 and leverage talent.

224

225 A benefit of diversity in corporate settings is that the workforce better understands the diverse
226 consumer population can therefore create products and services tailored to clients, leading to
227 increased returns.⁸⁵ The same may be true in science, medicine and global health: a more diverse
228 research team may develop more nuanced and relevant research questions, resulting in research
229 that is applicable (and beneficial) to a broader population. In science research, ethnic diversity of
230 authors is associated with increased impact and citations.⁸⁶ A review article exploring the culture in
231 medicine toward sexual and gender minorities notes that increasing visibility of LGBT and gender-
232 diverse healthcare providers may promote a welcoming environment for staff and patients.⁸⁷ In
233 these ways, gender transformation in health and science sectors has the potential to contribute
234 significantly to gains in gender equality in the wider community.^{69,70,88}

235
236 A gender diverse medical workforce may also translate into improved patient outcomes. There is
237 evidence that different patients prefer to be treated by a certain gendered doctor,⁸⁹ which is
238 important for equity of access to care. A study investigating mortality of women patients with acute
239 myocardial infarction found higher mortality rates of women treated by male doctors.⁹⁰
240 Interestingly, the effect was attenuated if male doctors had higher exposure to female patients and
241 physician colleagues.⁹⁰ There is also emerging evidence of beneficial differences in the way women
242 doctors practice, leading to lower patient morbidity and mortality.^{91,92} For example, in a matched
243 cohort study performed in Canada, patients treated by female surgeons had a modest but
244 statistically significant decrease in a composite outcome of 30-day mortality, complications, and
245 readmission.⁹¹ Similarly, Tsugawa and colleagues found that hospitalised patients treated by women
246 internists had lower mortality and readmissions compared with those cared for by male doctors.⁹² A
247 Canadian study found that patients of women primary care physicians had more consistently
248 received recommended health screening, and had fewer emergency department visits than those
249 treated by male primary care physicians.⁹³ The authors of the papers conclude that gender is a
250 marker of other behaviours that lead to better outcomes, pointing to evidence that women doctors
251 tend to follow guidelines more closely, spend more time with patients, and may have more effective
252 communication skills.⁹³ In one meta-analysis of the gender effect in medical communication,⁹⁴
253 women primary care physicians had a more patient-centred communication style however there
254 was no gender difference in the quality of information conveyed to patients, and male obstetrics and
255 gynaecology specialists scored higher for emotionally-focused talk. Other gender differences in the
256 medical workforce have been described, from simulated surgical skills tasks to mentorship.⁹⁵ While
257 gender differences are apparent, it is important not to assume these are inherent and
258 unchangeable. Instead, we should investigate the drivers of these observed differences to elucidate
259 the positive behaviours that lead to improved outcomes, to optimise training and development for
260 the entire science and health workforce.

261 262 **Promoting gender equality in science, medicine, and global health**

263
264 Specific strategies exist to promote women and girls in health and science. The WHO has catalogued
265 a range of tools to assist with gender analysis in health,⁹⁶ and outlines gender transformative
266 strategies for programmes and policies.⁹⁷ The Commission on the Status of Women 55th Session
267 adopted a report which recognised education and training in STEM, and the 2013 UN General
268 Assembly adopted a resolution on science, technology and innovation for development, recognising

269 the need for full and equal access by women and girls. The African Union’s Science, Technology and
270 Innovation Strategy for Africa 2024 recognises inclusion of women and youth in the industry,^{98,99} the
271 East African Community adopted a framework to promote gender in science, technology and
272 innovation, and the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC)’s Gender Policy supports equal
273 access to science education.⁹⁸ Policies such as these are supported by international advocacy
274 networks such as Gender in Science, Innovation, Technology and Engineering¹⁰⁰ and the
275 Organisation for Women in Science for the Developing World.¹⁰¹

276
277 However, these policies have not been sufficient to bring about the widespread social changes
278 needed to ensure gender equality in science, medicine and global health. Social movements, such as
279 the global trans rights movement and online movements against violence, contain important lessons
280 for current efforts for women within science, medicine and global health. Social movements work by
281 politicising issues, calling for the rights of marginalised or less powerful groups in ways that
282 transform power relations and create enabling environments for demands to be heard.¹⁰² At the
283 turn of the 20th century, women physicians were very much part of the women’s health movement,
284 which led to a groundswell of changes in the exclusionary practices of medical schools.¹⁰³ However,
285 as women became more integrated into medicine, the focus on feminist principles faded despite the
286 continuation of widespread inequalities in specialisation, pay and career advancement.¹⁰³ Social
287 movements played a critical role in drawing attention to the voices of women and marginalized
288 groups in global health, particularly in HIV and AIDS.¹⁰⁴ For instance, the Treatment Action Campaign
289 mobilised thousands of unemployed black women, medical professionals, students and academics
290 reaching across boundaries of race, education and class to successfully transform South Africa’s
291 HIV/AIDS policy.¹⁰² In science, social collectives and networks play an important role in encouraging
292 women to enter and remain in their careers¹⁰⁵ and may be more important than more individual
293 approaches such as mentorship or ‘girl-friendly’ curriculums.¹⁰⁶ Taken as a whole, this literature
294 highlights the critical importance of collective networks in bringing about fundamental changes in
295 gender inequalities, and the urgent need for feminist action to transform the position of women in
296 science, medicine and global health.

297 298 **Conclusion**

299
300 Our review has highlighted the evidence for why gender equality matters in terms of health and
301 health-related outcomes, positioning the #LancetWomen movement within a discussion of progress
302 towards gender equality worldwide. We found that better gender data are available, women are
303 making progress but remain considerably disadvantaged, men’s roles are expanding but are limited
304 by restrictive gender norms, and information on the trans community is limited. Despite this
305 progress, conceptual and methodological shortfalls in research - including outdated
306 conceptualisations of gender and gender inequalities – persist, meaning we only understand part of
307 a much more complex whole.

308
309 Gender equality matters for health. It is one of the most significant drivers of health and health
310 inequalities of our time. The current gender reckoning in science, medicine and global health
311 highlights both missed and future opportunities, the need to situate gender analyses in the context
312 of political influences and structural inequalities, and to draw upon contemporary social movements

313 to advance the field. Beyond quantitative gender equality, we must strive for a cultural
314 transformation that allows for the inclusion of values of transparency, honesty, fairness, and justice.
315 With the evolving landscape, we are in the position to demand more from the evidence, to innovate
316 beyond current discourses, and to realise true gender equality for everyone, everywhere. Achieving
317 gender equality is not simply instrumental for health and development; its impact has wide-ranging
318 benefits and is a matter of fairness and social justice for everyone.

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321 **Author contributions**

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323 All authors contributed equally to the conceptualisation of the study. GS, KW, MJ, and JM performed
324 the literature search. CC and AM contributed to insights on masculinities and transgender
325 communities, while AE and AO contributed country-specific insights and supporting case-studies. GS
326 drafted the article and collated the figures, with inputs from JM, KW, MJ, CC, AM, AE and AO.

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329 **Declaration of interests**

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331 We declare no competing interests. No funding sources to disclose.

332 **Panels, Tables and Figures**

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Panel 1: Key terms and definitions

Gender refers to the “socially constructed norms that impose and determine roles, relationships and positional power for all people across their lifetime. Gender interacts with sex, the biological and physical characteristics that define women, men and those with intersex identities” (Global Health 5050, 2018)

Gender Data are data disaggregated by sex or reporting gendered phenomena**

Gender Equality means “equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys, when the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men.” (UN Women, 2010)

Trans is “an umbrella term that is used to describe people whose gender is not the same as, or does not sit comfortably with, the sex they were assigned at birth” (Stonewall UK, 2017)

** We have used the Global Health 5050 definition because the definition put forward by the WHO does not explicitly recognise trans or non-gender-binary identities*

*** However, some agencies define gender data as data disaggregated by sex or as data that affects women exclusively*

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Panel 2: Search strategy and selection criteria

We identified published and grey literature on gender equality and women in science medicine and global health using Medline, Embase, GoogleScholar, Greenfile, and Scopus search engines. Search terms included: gender, gender equ*, gender inequ*, gender disparit*, male, female, gender diversity; combined with patient outcomes, research outcomes, morbidity and mortality, differences in practice. Reference lists of relevant papers were then also searched to identify further relevant papers. The first 30 hits were looked at on Google and Google Scholar searches.

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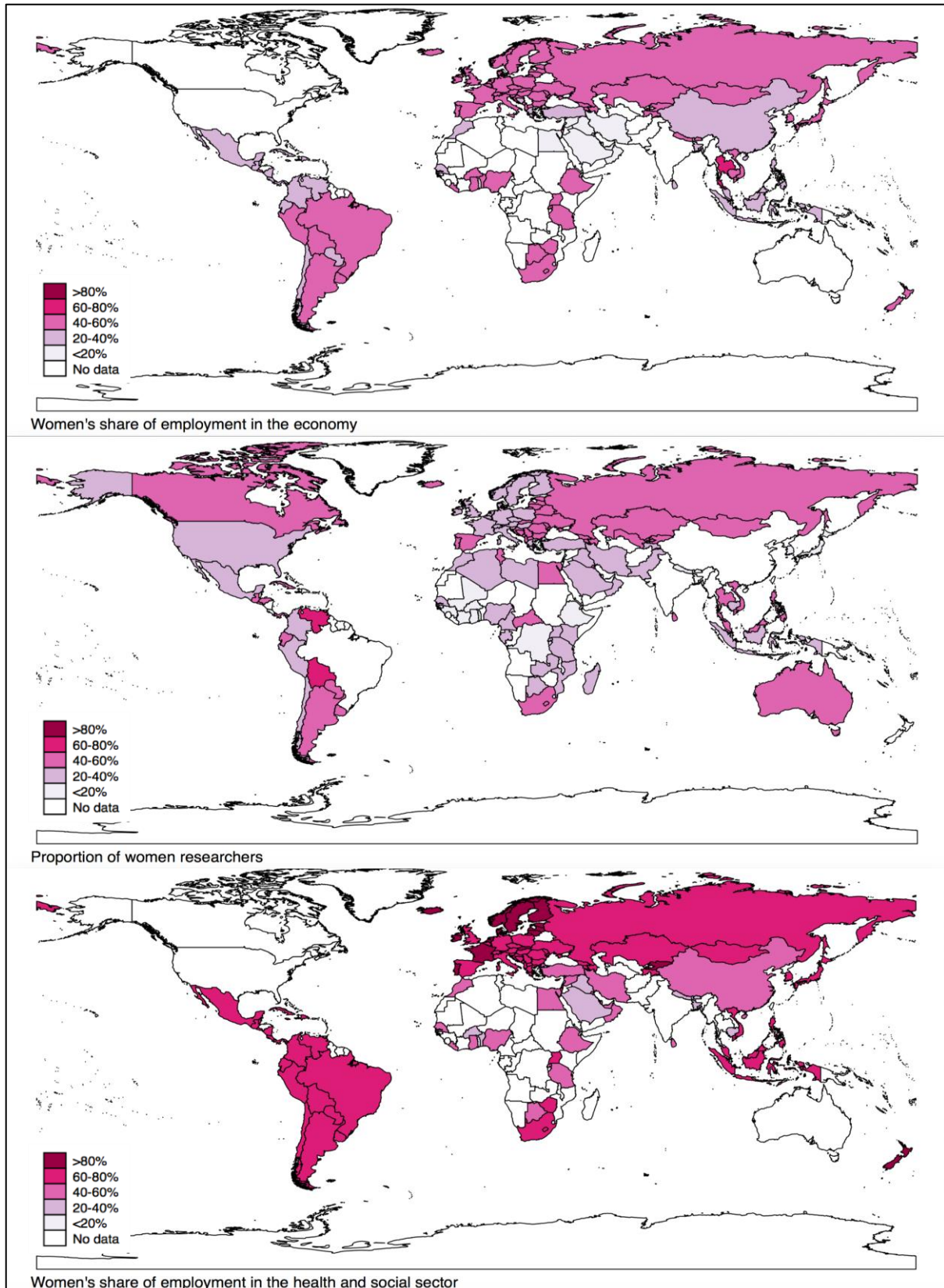
345 Table 1: The relationship between gender and health: summary of key literature

346 *Please see Supplementary File for full article references*

Author, Year	Summary
Artazcoz, L. et.al. 2007	A framework for occupational epidemiological research combining classic occupational epidemiology and the consideration of structural gender inequalities in health
Barker, Ricardo & Nascimento (2007)	Programmatic evidence on how to engage men and boys in changing gender-based inequity in health
Bates, Hankivsky & Springer (2009)	A comment on the Final Report of the WHO Commission on the Social Determinants of Health, promoting a discussion on gender and health beyond women's health alone.
Ballantyne, PJ. (1999)	A contribution to the analysis of gender differences in health and illness using a social determinants of health framework
Benagiano, G. et.al. (2011)	An article that attempts to expand concepts of gender and explore sexual identity, sexual behaviour, and sexual expression, with a focus on sexual minorities
Connell, R. (2012)	An in-depth exploration of the theoretical underpinnings of gender and health, outlining post-structuralist, relational theories of gender, and positioning gender analysis in both local and global arenas
Courtenay, WH. (2000)	An examination of constructions of masculinity and health within a relational context, outlining structures of gender and power
Denton & Walters (1999)	Research exploring the gender differences in structural and behavioral determinants of health
Doyal, L. (2001)	A call for a much clearer approach to sex, gender and health, which highlights the the impact of both sex and gender on health for both men and women
Galdas, Cheater & Marshall (2005)	A literature review on men and health help-seeking behaviours
Garcia-Moreno, C. et.al. (2006)	A multi-country study on the health impacts of intimate partner violence
Hankivsky, O. (2012)	The implications for research, policy, and practice of intersectionality on women's health, men's health, and gender and health
Hawkes & Buse (2013)	A survey of the evidence for the role of gender in health status, responses by global health actors, and strategies for mainstreaming gender evidence in policies/programmes
Hosseinpoor AR, et.al. (2013)	An investigation of the social determinants of self-reported health in women and men, and male-female differences in health
Institute of Medicine (US) (2011)	A comprehensive review of the health of lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender people, as well as identification of research gaps and opportunities related to LGBT health
Krieger, N. (2003)	The paper draws on ecosocial theory to present examples of how gender and sex are relevant as independent or synergistic determinants of health outcomes
Macintyre, Hunt & Sweeting (1996)	A paper exploring the direction and magnitude of sex differences in health according to symptoms or conditions, and according to the phase of the life cycle
Manandhar M, et.al. (2018)	A conceptual framework reflecting on the relationship between gender and health in the context of the sustainable development goals (SDGs)
Matthews, Manor & Power (1999)	A paper that explores the magnitude of gender difference in socioeconomic inequalities in health
McDonough & Walters (2001)	A review of gender differences in health, and a revised framework for conceptualizing pathways linking gender and health
Payne, S. (2015)	This article focuses on the health of women and girls, and the need to address gender equality and gender equity in promoting health.
Phillips, SP. (2005)	An exploration of how gender is defined and measured as a social determinant of health, as well as a model for incorporating gender into epidemiologic analyses is proposed.
Reisner SL, et.al. (2016)	A review of the global health burden and needs of transgender populations
Sen G, Ostlin P. (2007)	A comprehensive report that provides an overview of gender inequity in health, as well as a clear conceptual framework linking gendered social and structural determinants and health outcomes
Verbrugge, L. (1985)	An early article that outlines the evidence of the relationship between gender and health
Vissandjee, B, et.al. (2013)	A review of sex, gender, ethnicity and migration as social determinants of women's health
Vlassoff, C. (2007)	Employs a framework developed for gender and tropical diseases for the analysis of non-communicable diseases and conditions in developing and industrialized countries
World Health Organization (1998)	A technical paper outlining some of the implications of the shift from 'women in development' to 'gender and development' on the analysis of health and healthcare

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Figure 1: Women's share of employment in the economy (top), share of women in science (middle), and share of employment in the health and social sector (bottom)
 Data on the share of women's employment in the economy and the health sector extracted from *Health Employment and Economic Growth: An Evidence Base* (Buchan J, Dhillon IS& Campbell J, eds. 2017) and checked against ILOSTAT database; data on the proportion of women researchers derived from UNESCO *Women in Science, Technology and Innovation* dataset (2016), SAGE (For Australian data, 2016), and *Gender and the Global Research Landscape* (Elsevier, 2016)



356
 357 Figure 2: Trends in women's participation in the general workforce (orange, solid line), science workforce
 358 (yellow, dashed line), and in the health workforce (grey, dotted line) across selected countries derived from
 359 international WageIndicator survey data.
 360

361 Data on participation in the general workforce was derived by calculating the gender ratio between women and men
 362 completing WageIndicator surveys by country and year. Participation in the science workforce was derived by extracting data
 363 from ISCO-08 categories beginning with 21 (Science and Engineering Professionals) and 31 (Science and Engineering Associate
 364 Professionals). Participation in the health workforce was derived by extracting data from ISCO-08 categories beginning with
 365 13 (Health Managers), 22 (Health Professionals), 32 (Associate Health Professionals) and 53 (Carers in health Services).
 366

367 WageIndicator is an online platform for information on the labour market as well as a survey tool to collect self-reported data
 368 on background, occupation, and wages. The questionnaire comparable across countries, and adapted to local languages and
 369 contexts. More detailed information on the survey tool as well as a discussion on the strengths and limitations of this
 370 approach can be found at: Tijdens K, de Vries D, Steinmetz S. Health workforce remuneration: comparing wage levels,
 371 ranking, and dispersion of 16 occupational groups in 20 countries. *Human Resources for Health*. 2013; 11(11). We were
 372 granted access to WageIndicator data for free for the purpose of academic research from the IZA, Germany, at
 373 <http://idsc.iza.org/?page=27&stid=1025.16>

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377 2017;390(10111): p2423-2424
- 378 2. Hilhorst D, Porter H, Gordon R. Challenging humanitarianism beyond gender as women and
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Supplementary materialTable 1: *The relationship between gender and health: summary of key references*

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