Consideration of funding proposals – Addendum XVIII
Gender assessments and action plans

Summary
This addendum contains the gender documentation for funding proposals submitted for the consideration of the Board at its twentieth meeting (FP082 – FP090). The documents are included as provided by the accredited entities in the respective annex to each funding proposal.
Table of Contents

Gender documents for FP082
Gender documents for FP083
Gender documents for FP084
Gender documents for FP085
Gender documents for FP086
Gender documents for FP087
Gender documents for FP088
Gender documents for FP089
Gender documents for FP090
Annex 6 through 10: Gender analysis, action plan and gender budget

Annex 6. Overview of gender issues in the Facility's countries ................................................................. 2
Annex 7. Gender strategy advisory services in the Green Cities Facility ...................................................... 44
Annex 8. Gender Action Plan: Gender Advisory Services activities and expected results ......................... 47
Annex 10. Case studies on the promotion of gender equality in green city investments ......................... 55
Annex 6. Overview of gender issues in the Facility’s countries

Disclaimer: The gender profiles were prepared, using publicly available sources. EBRD does not guarantee the accuracy or completeness of the information provided in the Briefing. The text is copyrighted, and to the extent that it reflects opinions, they are the opinions of the individual authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the EBRD, its staff or Directors. Nothing in this summary should be taken as legal advice. No part of the text may be copied, reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means without the prior written consent of EBRD.

Purpose and scope: This is a short summary of a gender profile prepared in 2015 for EBRD and updated in 2016, using publicly available sources. It is not intended to be an exhaustive overview of all gender-related issues in this country.

6.1 Albania gender profile

Key points
- The Republic of Albania has a population of 2.8 million (2011 census). Some 70% of the population are Muslim, although there are sizeable Albanian Orthodox (20%) and Roman Catholic (10%) minorities (OECD, 2012). Albania is also home to an estimated 80,000-150,000 Roma and 200,000 ethnic Egyptians.
- Unemployment is a key concern for Albanian women and men alike. However, the 2013 election saw a marked improvement in women’s political representation.
- The traditional gender paradigm places women’s responsibility mainly within the private sphere (as wife, mother and carer) and men’s in the public sphere (as household head). Albania’s gender divide is most evident in rural areas where women are less likely to attend school and less likely to be employed.

Access to services
- **Rural-urban divide:** In rural areas, FAO (2014) notes that women have difficulties in accessing credit because they lack education in the areas of finance and farm business management. Some 87% of rural employed women are either self-employed or unpaid agricultural workers, the majority of whom work unpaid on small scale family farms (USAID, 2010).
- **Water and sanitation:** Despite Albania’s abundance of water, the country faces significant problems in ensuring households have reliable access to safe water. In rural areas, infrastructure is largely underdeveloped, and there are frequent interruptions to supplies (IDM/ GADC, 2010). In urban areas, internal migration to cities has resulted in a strain on water and sewage systems, leading to health and environmental problems (USAID, 2011). As a consequence, 78% of households have access to piped water but the service is intermittent, the quality is often low and gastrointestinal illnesses caused by contaminated water are common (USAID, 2011). This is likely to put a particular strain on women who hold primary responsibility for caring for sick family members. A lack of safe drinking water and adequate sanitation facilities has also been identified as a key factor which causes girls to drop out of school prematurely.
- **Transport:** In rural areas access to transportation is particularly problematic because of a lack of sufficient transport infrastructure (including road and rail networks) (IDM/ GADC, 2010). Household
surveys suggest that women are more frequent users of public transport services than men, with 38% of women compared with 23% of men reporting using public transportation as their primary means of commuting to work (Pojani, 2011).

- **Education**: According to the latest figures for primary school girls’ enrolment was 90% while boys’ enrolment was 93% (UNESCO, 2003), while at secondary school level girls’ enrolment was 64% while boys’ enrolment was 66% (UNESCO, 2001).

More recently, CEDAW (2010) expressed concerns regarding the education of girls in rural or remote areas, as well as that of girls belonging to ethnic or linguistic minorities. These concerns particularly related to high dropout rates at secondary school level. World Bank (2013b) reports that while overall gender differences in education are low, poor rural girls are still less likely to be enrolled in primary school than any other group.

Boys are much more likely than girls to be enrolled in TVET education at the secondary school level – enrolment rates are 18.2% and 6.1% respectively (UNESCO, 2012).

Although schooling is ostensibly free, parents are expected to pay for uniforms, textbooks and even school heating costs. This has a disproportionate impact on girls since families are less willing to bear the costs of educating them, and often consider that they are more useful working at home (OECD, 2012). UNFPA (2014) report that in some communities girls are taught from an early age that learning how to cook, clean and be a good wife is more important than getting a good education.

CEDAW (2010) reports that further barriers to girls’ education include early marriage, traditional sex-role stereotypes, and a lack of means of transportation. UN Women (2013) report a lack of ‘girl-friendly’ schools in Albania and that many girls are forced to drop-out because of a lack of safe sanitation facilities, a lack of drinkable water, and a lack of safe travelling options. OECD (2012) reports that in rural areas parents are reluctant to send older girls for school because of the very real threat of kidnapping.

Girls face more constraints on their time than boys and this can impede their ability to attend and succeed at school. Girls (10-14 years), spend close to four times more time on unpaid work than boys (one and a half hours vs. less than half an hour) (Institute of Statistics, 2013).

- **Health**: The government is currently implementing a National Strategy on Safety of Contraceptives (2012-2016) which aims to increase usage of modern contraceptives by 30% compared to 2008 and to ensure that all men and women have access to high quality family planning services (UN Women, 2013). More than 99% of all births in Albania are attended by a skilled health professional (Institute of Statistics, 2013).

- **Childcare**: Women are overwhelmingly responsible for carrying out unpaid work within the household, including caring for children, the sick and the elderly, as well as domestic work such as cleaning and cooking (GADC, 2010) and this affects their ability to participate fully in the labour market. Nursery provisions are of poor quality, insufficient in number and financially inaccessible for most women (GADC, 2010).

**Access to employment**

- **Labour Force Participation (LFP)**: Women in Albania have a lower labour force participation rate than men (44.3% vs 61.8% for men) (Institute of Statistics, 2013). Women’s labour force participation is also below the average for the Europe and Central Asia region (50.7% in 2012, ILO KILM). By comparison, in 1989 women’s labour force participation rate was 85% (GADC, 2010b). During the transition period, public sector employment fell by over 70% and this had a disproportionate impact
on women, both in terms of lost employment in public sector enterprises and the loss of state-provided services such as childcare (WB, 2014). Although the overall economy subsequently recorded high growth rates (particularly between 1993 and 2001) and achieved good rates of job creation, women have not managed to fully recover their position in the labour market (UN Women, 2011). This can be partly explained by the fact that women’s employment tends to be concentrated in agriculture and in other sectors which have not experienced significant employment growth (WB, 2013b).

- **Horizontal segregation:** Women’s employment in Albania is concentrated in low-paid sectors including education, health and social work, and agriculture. More than half of all women in employment (53.5%) are employed in agriculture, compared to 37.4% of men in employment (Institute of Statistics, 2013). Wages in these sectors are significantly lower compared with other sectors - such as construction (12.9% of men in employment compared to 0.5% of women), mining (3.4% of men in employment compared to 0.7% women) and transport / administrative service (25.2% of men in employment compared 16.7% of women) - which predominantly employ men (MoLSAE0, 2011).

- **Vertical segregation:** Within particular sectors and occupations women are poorly represented in management positions (ITUC, 2010). For example, although women make up the majority of public sector employees, men are twice as likely to have senior positions in law-making and as senior executives, while women are mostly regular employees (UN Women, 2013). Women are also more likely than men to be ‘under-employed’ in jobs which are not commensurate with their educational attainment (ITUC, 2010).

- **Gender pay gap:** The gender pay gap stands at 28% (UNECE).

- **Women in informal employment:** Women are more frequently employed in more insecure forms of employment, including in the informal sector, in part-time jobs, and domestic services (GADC, 2010). Women in employment are twice as likely to be employed as ‘contributing family workers’ (51.9% of employed women, compared with 25.9% of employed men) (Institute of Statistics, 2013).

**Access to finance**

- **Land ownership:** There are low levels of land ownership among women. Overall, CEDAW (2010) reports that just 8% of women in Albania own property, while UN Women (2013) report that two-thirds of all new property titles issues between 2011 and 2013 were issued to men. OECD (2012) notes that even when women do legally own land it is usually considered to belong to the entire family meaning that women are not free to administer the land as they choose. In rural areas, CEDAW (2010) notes that only 6% of farms are owned or managed by women, despite the fact that around 70% of rural women work in agriculture. Although men and women have equal legal rights, land can only be registered in the name of the household head, which generally means the husband (over 90% of households are male-headed – MoLSAE0, 2011) (OECD, 2012). During the privatisation of land which followed the collapse of communism, the vast majority of cooperative land was titled in the name of men even when women had primary responsibility for working on it (USAID, 2011). Women are also less likely to inherit property from their families.

- **Access to credit:** Data from the Bank of Albania shows that, although 31.4% of business loans are taken out by women-owned or -managed businesses, these represent only 11.5% of the total value of business loans, indicating that loans taken out by women tend to be much smaller (UN Women,
There are several reasons for this discrepancy. First, immovable property is generally registered in the name of the male spouse only, which makes it difficult for women to meet the collateral requirements for obtaining credit (GADC, 2010). This is further exacerbated by the fact that husbands and male relatives who do own property are usually reluctant to support loan applications on behalf of their wives or female relatives (OECD, 2012). Second, women’s access to credit is further limited in practice by the fact that women’s businesses are generally smaller and less well established than those of men as banks in Albania generally only offer credit to businesses that have existed for more than two years (MoLSAEQ, 2011).

- **Women's entrepreneurship:** In 2012, women owned or administered 27.4% of all active enterprises in Albania (compared to 22.9% in 2005). These are disproportionately small – women own 29% of enterprises with 1-4 employees, compared to just 14% of enterprises with 50+ employees (Institute of Statistics, 2012). Women’s enterprises are concentrated by sector: 33% of all enterprises in the retail sector are run by women, and 28% of all enterprises in the hospitality sector are women-owned. By contrast, women own just 9% of enterprises in the transport and communications sector, and 8% of construction enterprises (Institute of Statistics, 2012). USAID (2010) reports that women-owned businesses tend to be clustered around services such as hairdressing, child-care and tailoring. Women's entrepreneurship is not evenly distributed throughout the country – 61% of women-registered businesses are concentrated in the cities of Tirana and Elbasan. Women in rural areas are particularly under-represented – despite the fact that more than 50% of women in rural areas work in agriculture, they only own and manage 6% of farms, making agriculture the sector with the lowest % of enterprises run by women, despite the fact that over 50% of female employment is in this sector (Institute of Statistics, 2012).

**Decision making**

- **Representation in national parliaments:** Out of 140 parliament seats, 32 are occupied by women (23%) (IPU database).

### Table 1. Key indicators: Women and men in the Albanian economy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Labour force participation</th>
<th>Self-employment</th>
<th>Contributing family workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(% of population aged 15+ who are economically active) Institute of Statistics, 2013</td>
<td>(% of female, male and combined employed population who are self-employed Institute of Statistics, 2012)</td>
<td>(% of female, male and combined employed population aged 15+ years who are contributing family workers) Institute of Statistics, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>51.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female &amp; Male</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>37.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topic</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female &amp; Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unemployment rate (15+ years)</strong></td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) Institute of Statistics, 2013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Youth not in employment or education</strong></td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of female, male aged 16-24 who are neither in employment or education) ILO STAT, 2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public sector employment</strong></td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% employee distribution by sex and institutional sector) ILO STAT, 2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child labour</strong></td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of children aged 5-17 who are engaged in child labour i.e. working in contravention of ILO C138 or 182), Institute of Statistics / ILO, 2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender pay gap</strong></td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% gap between the average earnings of men and women) WEF Global Gender Gap, 2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Business</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enterprises with female participation in ownership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of all active enterprises) Institute of Statistics, 2012</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bank account at formal financial institution</strong></td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% female and male population aged 15+) WB Global Financial Inclusion Database, 2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loans in the past year from a financial institution</strong></td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% female and male population aged 15+) WB Global Financial Inclusion Database, 2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political Participation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Representation in national parliaments</strong></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>[100]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2014²</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1. For information on women’s employment in other sectors, refer to Annex 1.
2. For further information on women’s representation in parliament, refer to Annex I.
6.2 Armenia gender profile

Key points

- Armenia has a population of 3.2 million, the vast majority of which belong to the Armenian Apostolic Church. The most significant minority group is the Yezidis, which comprise approximately 1.3% of the population.
- There is a strong legal framework that provides for formal gender equality; however, these are not always sufficiently enforced and there is evidence of serious gender inequality in several spheres, including access to finance, employment and services.
- Gender inequality is entrenched in Armenian society. A key indicator is high levels of son bias: Armenia has the third highest boy-girl birth ratio in the world after China and Azerbaijan. On average, 115 boys are born to every 100 girls (UNFPA, 2013).

Access to services

- **Water and sanitation:** Although Armenia has abundant water supply, insufficient investments in water supply systems, together with a lack of routine maintenance, has resulted in deteriorated infrastructure that is in need of major repairs (Torres, 2013). This has a disproportionate impact on women who are the primary users of water, particularly for domestic usage such as cooking, cleaning and washing (WECF, 2012). An assessment carried out by AVAG Solutions (2014) into access to water supply in 3 cities (Masis, Ashtarak and Echmiatsin) found that women were usually responsible for collecting water, unless the water source was a long distance from home in which case men would usually go by car.
- **Transport:** There is evidence to suggest that women can sometimes face sexual harassment on public transport. Women are reported to also face sexual harassment on their commute, particularly if they have to stay late at work WRC (2011). However, there is no data available to indicate the extent of the problem.
- **Fuel and electricity:** Fuel scarcities have meant that many poorer families in urban areas have resorted to burning municipal waste for cooking and home-heating, resulting in increased exposure to hazardous and toxic chemicals. This presents particular health hazards to women who are disproportionately responsible for these tasks within the household (WHO, 2010).
- **Health:** Armenia has high rates of abortion, many of which take place at home without proper medical supervision. This suggests a very high unmet need for contraception. There are significant concerns regarding the prevalence of sex-selective abortion, particularly in rural areas. The South Caucasus has the highest sex imbalances at birth in the world after China. The ratio of boy-to-girl births in Armenia is approximately 115-100, compared to 118-100 in China and 117-100 in Azerbaijan.
- **Childcare:** Many pre-schools were closed down during the transition period and as a result approximately 80% of pre-school age children do not attend pre-school.
- **Education:** The equality gap in education relates to the fact boys are significantly less likely than girls to enrol in schools, achieve lower on school assessments and are more likely to drop out of education.

Access to employment

- **Labour Force Participation (LFP):** Women in Armenia have lower rates of labour force participation than men (55% vs. 73%). These figures are broadly in line with the average figures for Central &
South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS (ILO KILM, 2013). Women’s LFP rate in Armenia is influenced by a number of factors:

- **Education**: Women with higher levels of education are much more likely to participate in the labour market. This same trend is also evident for men, although with higher overall LFP rates (ILOSTAT, 2012).
- **Geographic location**: Women in rural areas have a LFP rate of 60%, while women in urban areas have a LFP rate of 45% (ILOSTAT, 2011).
- **Social norms and values**: Following the collapse of the Soviet Union Armenia entered a period in which values and norms which were considered to be of ‘Soviet origin’ were rejected, including women’s right to equal participation in employment and economic relations. Society reverted back to more traditional views regarding women’s place in society and emphasised women’s role in the family rather than the workplace (UN Women 2012).
- **Family and marital status**: Women have primary responsibility for childcare and this restricts their LFP.
- **Different expectations and goals**: In line with social norms, young men and women report different priorities in life and this is likely to affect their employment decisions. Young men are much more likely than young women to identify ‘having a successful career’ and ‘having lots of money’ as their primary life goal (Serriere, 2014).

- **Horizontal segregation**: There are significant levels of gender-based segregation in the workforce, with strong social norms regarding ‘acceptable jobs’ for women and men (Serriere, 2014). More than two thirds of women work in two sectors: agriculture and public administration where wages tend to be lower than in other sectors (Armstat, 2013).
- **Vertical segregation**: Women are under-represented in all branches of leadership and do not enjoy the same opportunities for career advancement and promotion (USDoS, 2014). This is underpinned by persistent gender stereotypes which regard women as lacking leadership skills and better suited to administrative positions (LBIHR, 2011) despite the fact that women generally have higher levels of education (USAID, 2013).
- **Gender pay gap**: There is a significant gender pay gap and women’s average monthly earnings are approximately 65.6% of men’s (Armstat, 2013). In both the public and the private sector women are clustered in low paid jobs while men are clustered in the highest pay bracket.
- **Women in informal employment**: Estimates suggest that the incidence of informal employment is a little higher among women at 53.4%, than among men at 51% (NSS and ADB, 2010). The nature of informal employment differs between men and women. Almost half of women in informal employment are engaged in agriculture (47% vs 35.6% of men), followed by education (15.8%), health (9.3%), and wholesale and retail trade (7.8%) (NSS and ADB, 2010). Women are particularly likely to be engaged as unpaid family workers – 18.4% of women in employment compared to 6.5% of men are classified as contributing family workers (ILOStat, 2013).

### Access to finance

- **Land ownership**: Ownership and access to land is partly determined by gender. Following Armenia’s independence from the Soviet Union the government privatised land by distributing land plots previously administered by collective farms between private households. Land ownership was awarded to the head of the family meaning that in reality women only gained ownership of land in the
absence of a male head of family. Consequently, it is thought that there are low levels of female land ownership although there are no statistics on the percentage of land currently owned by men and women (OECD, 2012).

- **Access to credit:** There exist several barriers to women-owned firms accessing credit. First, women tend to be concentrated in smaller firms and face difficulties in accessing credit because banks generally prefer to focus on larger clients. This also results in women-owned firms having to put up more collateral as a percentage of the value of loans than men-owned firms. Second, because banks tend to have less experience in lending to women-owned firms, they often have limited understanding of their needs and do not reflect women’s preferences in decisions about the pricing or design of credit products ADB (2012).

- **Women’s entrepreneurship:** The 2013 WB IFC Enterprise Survey found that 24.7% of surveyed firms have female participation in ownership, below the average for Eastern Europe and Central Asia (31.4%). Official statistics based on all registered MSMEs in Armenia suggest that women’s rates of ownership may be even lower: only 11% of all active MSMEs are owned by women. There are also some reports that men sometimes register their businesses in the names of their wives or daughters either to reduce their potential exposure to debt payments (since women tend to have lower levels of income and wealth) or to access financial products which are targeted at women. There is limited information about the sectoral distribution of women’s entrepreneurship. On the whole, women entrepreneurs are thought to be concentrated in less prestigious, less capital-intensive and smaller business enterprises, especially subsistence-based activities in trade and retail activities. Other fields where reports suggest there are high levels of women entrepreneurs include services (especially beauty salons, catering and tailoring) and agriculture (especially horticulture and vegetable cultivation). By contrast, relatively few women are engaged in ‘growth sectors’ such as agro-processing and tourism.

**Decision making**

- **Representation in national parliaments:** The Electoral Code (2011) sets a 20% quota for women’s representation in party lists and specifies that there must be a woman within the first 6 places on the list and that thereafter at least every fifth person on the list must be a woman (Article 100). However, the new law has had limited impact: women’s representation in parliament increased from 9% in 2007 to only 10.6% in 2012. A key reason for this is that the electoral law allows parties to replace women candidates who withdraw after the election with men. Women often face several barriers to participating in politics including societal opposition, lack of access to patronage networks, a lack of grass-roots pressure in favour of women’s participation and the fact that few women have the financial independence necessary to run for office.

- **Patriarchal norms and values related to the sexual division of labour:** Traditional gender roles dominate the Armenian family structure (OECD, 2012). There is widespread societal acceptance that men are the main breadwinners and exercise sole control over family decision-making. This is clearly reflected in the fact that evidence suggests that family planning decisions are often made by husbands and the husbands’ family.
Table 2. Key indicators: Women and men in the Armenian economy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( % of population that are economically active) World Bank 2014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employment</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( % of female, male and combined employed population who are own-account workers) ArmStat, 2013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal employment</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( % of female, male and combined employed population in informal employment) ADB and NSS, 2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpaid family work</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( % of all employees who are classified as ‘contributing family workers, by gender) ILOStat, 2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (15+ years)</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( % of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) ArmStat, 2013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public sector employment</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(distribution of all employees by gender and institutional sector) ILO Stat, 2012</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender pay gap</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Women’s average earnings as a % of men’s average earnings), ArmStat, 2013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firms with female participation in ownership</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( % of all enterprises which are registered) WB Enterprise Survey, 2013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank account at formal financial institution</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( % of population with an account at a bank, credit union, other financial institution or the post office) WB Findex, 2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loans in the past year from a financial institution</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( % of population who report borrowing money from a bank, credit union, microfinance institution, or other financial institution such as a cooperative) WB Findex, 2011</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political participation</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>89.3%</td>
<td>[100%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representation in national parliaments ( % of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) IPU, 2014²</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.3 FYR Macedonia gender profile

Key points

- The Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia has a population of 2.1 million, with ethnic minority populations of 25% Albanian and 3.9% Turkish.
- FYR Macedonia has the second highest in Europe (after Kosovo) level of unemployment at 35% and 54% among young people, 3.8 times above the EU level. As one in every two young persons in the national labour force is unemployed, youth unemployment and underemployment represent a major challenge for the country (ILO, 2015).
- Stereotypes concerning the roles and responsibilities of women and men in the family and society, which overemphasize the traditional role of women as mothers and wives, indirectly restrict women’s economic opportunities (CEDAW, 2013).

Access to services

- **Rural-urban divide**: FYR Macedonia is a highly urbanized country, with 68% of the population living in cities, whereby more than a quarter of the total population resides in Skopie. Urbanization largely takes place in the form of unplanned urban sprawl, which necessarily increases the costs of infrastructure services, such as water, electricity, transportation, sewage and waste disposal (World Bank, 2014). The CEDAW Committee is concerned about rural women’s disadvantaged position in terms of limited access to services, including education, health and social services, participation in decision-making processes, and the formal labour market. The percentage of rural women who own land and who have access to microcredit schemes is low (CEDAW, 2013).
- **Education**: The literacy rates are very high among both men and women (98.8% vs. 96.8%). There is considerable improvement in terms of educational attainment among 18-24 year olds in FYR Macedonia, as drop-outs at the level up to junior secondary school decreased from 31% in 2000 to 20% in 2008 (comparable with the EU average at 15%) (World Bank, 2014). Women tend to enrol in and graduate from health sciences (77%), humanities (63%) and law (59%), while men tend to enrol in and graduate from mining (100%), mechanical engineering (95%) and electrical engineering (88%).
- **Health**: Almost all births are attended by a skilled health staff and there is a low maternal mortality rate. The CEDAW Committee, however, is concerned about the ‘financial, cultural and physical barriers to gynaecological services faced by Roma and rural women’ (CEDAW, 2013).
- **Childcare**: Maternity leave is 270 days, and is fully paid by the government. Employed fathers enjoy up to 7 days of paid paternity leave following the birth of their child (Article 146 of the Law on Labour Relations) in parallel to their wives.

Access to employment

- **Labour Force Participation (LFP)**: Females constitute 40% of the total labour force. Women in FYR Macedonia have lower rates of labour force participation than men (43.2% vs. 67.6%). Unemployment rate for females (28.1%) is similar to that of male’s (27.7%). The CEDAW committee is concerned about the ongoing vertical and horizontal occupational segregation, the overrepresentation of women in low-paid jobs and the high unemployment rates (2013).
- **Horizontal segregation**: There is high occupational segregation in the labour market, with women predominantly employed in health services (75.2%) and education (62%) and men employed in...
traditionally male-dominated sectors, such as mining (92%), electricity and gas (80%) and transportation and storage (85%) (Republic of FYR Macedonia, 2016).

- **Gender pay gap:** The law does not mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value (WBL, 2016). There is a medium gender pay gap and women’s average monthly earnings are approximately 8.8% of men’s (UNECE, 2014), which is lower as compared to other countries in the region such as Serbia (13.1%) and Croatia (11.3%).

- **Women in informal employment:** The share of informal employment is estimated at over 22.5% of the total employment in the country (51,328 out of a total 282,078 employed women are in some form of informal employment; and 89,314 out of a total 334,599 employed men) (Republic of FYR Macedonia, 2016).

### Access to finance / property

- **Land ownership:** Women and men have equal rights to own and access land, as well as property other than land, under Articles 8 and 30 of the Constitution. According to Cozzarelli (2010), most land and property in FYROM is owned by men, mainly due to ‘traditional cultural practices’ that see land and property ownership as a male characteristic.

- **Access to credit:** Gender disparities are observed in terms of women’s access to finance. Data indicates that 64% of women compared to 80% of men have a bank account at a formal financial institution (WB Findex, 2014).

- **Women’s entrepreneurship:** About 30% of firms have female participation in ownership and 25.7% of firms have a female top manager (WB Enterprise Survey, 2013).

### Decision making: Women’s position within the home / family / community / society

- **Representation in national parliaments, local government and the judiciary:** Women are well represented at the highest level of the judiciary: out of the 9 justices on the constitutional court, 4 are women and the chief justice is also a woman.
  
  There are no quotas for women on corporate boards, in parliament or local government. However, there is a 33% quota for women on candidate lists for parliament, as well as 33% quota on candidate lists for local government. (WBL, 2016). The percentage of women in Parliament is high, as out of 120 parliamentary seats, 38 are occupied by women (IPU, 2016).

- **Labour legislation / industry restrictions:** Women cannot work in certain occupations the same way as men, such as mining, factory work or construction (WBL, 2016).

### Table 3. Key indicators: women and men in the Macedonian economy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Labour force participation (%) of female/male population aged 15+ years that are economically active</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World Bank 2014</td>
<td></td>
<td>43.2</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Vulnerable employment (unpaid family workers and own-account workers)

(\% of male/female employment, by gender) *ILOStat, 2014*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Unemployment rate (15+ years)

(\% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) *World Bank 2014*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Gender pay gap

(Women’s average earnings as a \% of men’s monthly average earnings) *UNECE 2011*

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Business

**Firms with female participation in ownership**

(\% of all enterprises which are registered) *WB Enterprise Survey, 2013*

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bank account at formal financial institution**

(\% of population with an account at a bank, credit union, other financial institution or the post office) *WB Findex, 2014*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Loans in the past year from a financial institution**

(\% of population who report borrowing money from a bank, credit union, microfinance institution, or other financial institution such as a cooperative) *WB Findex, 2011*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Political participation

**Representation in national parliaments**

(\% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) *IPU, 2016*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td>[100]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.4 Georgia gender profile

Key points

- Georgia is a representative democratic semi-presidential republic, with the President as the head of state, and Prime Minister as the head of government.
- Patriarchal attitudes and stereotypes regarding the roles and responsibilities of women and men in the family and in society remain deeply rooted, which compromises the social status, participation in public life and professional careers of women.
- A recent World Bank study (2015) showed that a high share of people prefer having a son to having a daughter manifested in a highly skewed ratio at birth in Georgia (111) is among the highest in the world.4

Access to services

- Women and men have equal rights to own and access land in Georgia. Marital status does not affect women’s rights to property, as property acquired during the course of a marriage is commonly owned. The sale of jointly owned property requires the consent of both spouses. Nevertheless, in its Concluding Observations, CEDAW regrets the lack of sex-disaggregated data on land ownership.
- There are significant inequalities between Georgia’s urban and rural women with regard to their access to social and health-care services, access to economic opportunities and participation in political and public life, including in decisions relating to the agricultural sector. The lack of childcare facilities in rural areas is particularly acute.

Access to employment

- Women’s labour force participation rates are lower as compared to men’s in Georgia. According to 2014 World Bank data5, the proportion of women in the labour force was 61% as compared to 79% for men. Similarly, young women’s (ages 15-24) labour force participation rate stood at 26% as compared to young men’s labour force participation rate at 42%. According to the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE), in 2012 women earned on average 39.8% less than men, when median monthly earnings were taken into account.
- Georgia has the third largest gender pay gap in the Central Asia region, after Azerbaijan (53.1% in 2012) and Tajikistan (50.9% in 2011). Vertical segregation is highly noticeable in Georgia, meaning that women rarely occupy managerial positions, have less opportunity for career advancement and tend to occupy lower-paying positions within a sector. Even in sectors where most employees are women, such as education, healthcare and hospitality the pay is lower for women.
- According to UNESCO data6, in 2014 the proportion of women tertiary education graduates in Georgia was higher as compared to that of men (62.2% for women and 37.8% for men). Of note, however, is that in 2014, 14% of all male graduates were in the field of engineering, manufacturing and construction as compared to 3.6% of female graduates in these fields.
- This is because many occupations in Georgia are considered traditionally “male” or “female,” which results in horizontal segregation. Reversely, 22.5% of women graduated from humanities and arts

4 http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2015/04/09/090224b082d7a2a3/1_0/Rendered/PDF/0Missing0girls000and0policy0options.pdf
5 http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.UEM.TOTL.MA.ZS/countries
programmes as compared to 9% of men graduates in these fields. This gender segregation in education results in occupational segregation in the labour market.

- The mandatory minimum length of fully paid maternity leave is 183 days, paid at 100% of the salary by the government, and unpaid maternity leave is 547 days. The law does not provide for paternity leave.
- According to the 2016 Women, Business and the Law Report, there are no laws or constitutional provisions mandating equal pay for equal work in Georgia. Neither exist laws mandating non-discrimination in hiring practices on the basis of gender nor is the dismissal of pregnant women prohibited by law. It is noteworthy that Georgia is one of the three countries, Tunisia and Uzbekistan being the others, in the EBRD region that does not have equal-pay-for jobs of equal value legislation. The lack of these labour rights in the workplace may partially explain the unexpectedly high gender pay gap, alongside noticeable gender differences in the fields of study and subsequent occupational segregation in the labour market, cultural perceptions on what is considered an acceptable and desirable occupation for women to work in as well as the need to balance work with family responsibilities.

Table 4. Gender segregation in employment (Source: Laborsta, ILO, 2008\(^7\))

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Georgia: total employment by economic activity</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport, Storage and Communications</td>
<td>92%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining and Quarrying</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, Gas and Water Supply</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real Estate, Renting and Business Activities</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture, hunting and forestry</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Intermediation</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and Restaurants</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human health and social work activities</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Access to finance

- The absolute number of people owning a bank account at a formal financial institution in Georgia is low for both men and women. According to the World Bank’s Global Financial Inclusion database in 2014, 39.6% of men and 39.8% of women in Georgia owned an account at a formal financial institution. However, according to 2014 data from The EBRD of Georgia, only 25% of women-led SMEs received loans from formal financial institutions as compared to 75% men-led SMEs, thus pointing to a significant gender gap in access to finance for women entrepreneurs.

\(^7\) [http://laborsta.ilo.org/STP/guest](http://laborsta.ilo.org/STP/guest)
There are low to moderate levels of female entrepreneurship: According to the 2015 Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey (BEEPS), 34% of firms surveyed in Georgia had women among the owners and 32% had women top managers. Of the firms surveyed, women comprised 44% of full-time workers. Of all the firms surveyed, 25% had at least 50% women ownership.

**Decision making: Women’s position within the home / family / community / society**

- Significant gender differences persist in Georgia, influenced by the patriarchal culture and traditions. Even though women are highly educated and participate in the workforce (mostly in small business and self-employed), prevailing norms still dictate that women primarily are responsible for household duties and childcare. This restricts women’s role in the public sphere, especially in formal decision-making. This is particularly acute in rural areas, where most women are engaged in unpaid domestic labour.
- In general, women are significantly underrepresented in top leadership positions in business and politics (specifically legislative and executive branches), but instead are overrepresented in supportive and assisting roles. The number of women in local legislative bodies is continuously decreasing.
- Georgia has not established binding quotas for women candidates or elected members in either national or local government levels. The voluntary quota system adopted by the Parliament provides 30% more funding if at least three representatives of the minority sex are included among each 10 candidates in the list of political parties. This may explain why women members of parliament hold only 11% of the seats since the last elections in 2012. Women are better represented in the judiciary, where three out of nine constitutional judges are women.
- No quota has been introduced for women on corporate boards.

**Table 5. Key indicators: women and men in the Georgian economy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female &amp; Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation&lt;sup&gt;8&lt;/sup&gt; (labour force as a % of population over 15 years old) <em>WB 2014</em></td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth labour force participation rates (ages 15-24) (labour force as a % of population between 15-24 years old) <em>WB, 2014</em></td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender pay gap (Women’s average monthly earnings as a % of men’s average monthly earnings in the formal private sector) <em>UNECE</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all firms) <em>BEEPS, 2015</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>8</sup> Labor force participation rate is the proportion of the population ages 15 and older that is economically active: all people who supply labor for the production of goods and services during a specified period.
### Key national gender equality laws, documents and enforcement agency:

- The Constitution of Georgia upholds the principle of equal rights for men and women at article 14.
- There were amendments to the Labour Code, enhancing the protection of the rights of women in the workplace (2013) and to the Criminal Code, criminalizing the use of services of (statutory) victims of trafficking in persons (2007) and introducing provisions defining the scope and categories of domestic violence (2012).
- There were amendments to the Election Code and the Organization Act on the Political Unions of Citizens, providing for financial incentives to political parties that nominate women candidates for parliamentary elections, in 2011 and 2013, respectively;
- In 2010, the Act on Gender Equality defined the legal mechanisms and conditions for the implementation of equal rights and opportunities of women and men.
- The draft Non-discrimination Law was adopted in 2014. This Law clearly states the unacceptability of discrimination on the basis of one’s gender identity and sexual orientation along with race, skin colour, language, national, ethnic or social belonging, sex, pregnancy or maternity, marital or health status, disability, age, nationality, origin, place of birth, place of residence, internal displacement, material or social status, religion or belief, political or any other ground (Article 2, of the draft Law).
- Key enforcement agencies: The Office of the Public Defender is the body responsible for the implementation of the Act on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination (2014).

### International instruments:

- **CEDAW**: Georgia ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1994, and the Optional Protocol to CEDAW in 2002. The most recent CEDAW report (2014) highlights the following concerns: Stereotypical attitudes regarding the roles and responsibilities of women and men in the family and society; growing number of murders of women by their husbands and other forms of domestic violence; trafficking in women and girls; women’s participation in political and public life; concentration of women in low-paid jobs, lack of equal pay for
work of equal value and lack of childcare facilities; sex-selective abortions, according to SIGI index. The male/female sex ratio for the working age population in 2013 is 0.94 while the sex ratio at birth is 1.01; child marriage: Early marriage appears to be increasingly common in Georgia, according to SIGI index 2016. This may indicate that the law on minimum age of marriage is not effectively enforced. An UNICEF report states that early marriages primarily affect girls aged 14 and over, but girls as young as 12 are married as well. In some cases, early marriage is associated with the practice of bride kidnapping.

- ILO Conventions: Georgia has ratified ILO Conventions 100 (equal remuneration) and 111 (discrimination).

### Table 6. Gender indices in Georgia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index / %</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Development Index</td>
<td>0.754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Inequality Index</td>
<td>0.382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIGI index</td>
<td>0.2035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEF Global Gender Gap Index</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population living below PPP $1.25/day (2002-2011):</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population living below national poverty line (2002-2011)</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---


10 **GII:** The Gender Inequality Index (GII) reflects gender-based disadvantages in three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market. The index shows the loss in potential human development due to inequality between female and male achievements in these dimensions. It varies between 0, where women and men fare equally, and 1, where either gender fares as poorly as possible in all measured dimensions.

11 **SIGI:** The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) is a composite measure of gender equality based on the OECD's Gender, Institutions and Development Database. The index uses 12 indicators on social institutions, which are grouped into 5 categories: Family Code, Physical Integrity, Son Preference, Civil Liberties and Ownership Rights. Each of the SIGI indicators is coded between 0, meaning no or very low inequality, and 1, indicating very high inequality.

12 **WEF Global Gender Gap Index:** measures the gap between men and women in four fundamental categories: Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational Attainment, Health and Survival and Political Empowerment. It varies between 1 – indicating no gap between men and women, and 0, meaning a very high gap between men and women.
6.5 Jordan gender profile

Key points

- The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan is a constitutional monarchy, with a high degree of legislative and executive authority vested in the monarch. It has a population of approximately 6.7 million that mostly reside in urban areas (WB, 2015). The population is predominantly Muslim (92%), with minority groups of Christians (6%), Druze and Shi’a Muslims (2% together).
- Women’s labour force participation in Jordan is one of the lowest in the world (16%). This is attributed to the central importance of family in society and associated traditional gender roles, which locate women’s primary responsibilities in the private sphere (reproduction, family care, household responsibility) and men’s in the public (employment, entrepreneurship, political representation).
- Jordan continues to be deeply affected by the Syrian crisis: the ongoing influx of refugees (women and men) is placing a considerable strain on Jordan’s labour market, educational and healthcare services, scarce natural resources and infrastructure. As of December 2015, more than 690,000 Syrians were registered with the United Nations Refugee Agency in Jordan. Eighty-four percent of these Syrians live in host communities as opposed to refugee camps. Women and girls refugees are particularly vulnerable.

Access to services

- **Transport:** Constraints on women’s access to transport in Jordan include costs, personal safety and cultural perceptions of ‘womanly’ conduct (WB, 2009). Travelling alone on public transportation, particularly after dark, is often seen as unacceptable conduct for women (WB, 2011). Overcrowded trains and buses represent risks for women’s personal safety as well as for their moral reputation. The lack of accessible transport services in rural and isolated areas primarily affects women (UNDP, 2013). Constraints on mobility also affect job searches: women are more likely to use indirect, impersonal methods of job searches, such as sending applications by post or registering with the government job service, rather than contacting employers in person (WB, 2013a). Women, especially unskilled women, generally live closer to work than men (WB, 2009). On average, only 5% of women travel more than 60 minutes to get to work, while only 11% of women (cf 27% of men) work in a different governorate than the one in which they live (WB, 2013a).

- **Water and irrigation:** Water scarcity is a major challenge in Jordan, one of the driest countries in the world. People living in rural areas are particularly affected by water scarcity as they generally pay more for their water, depend on fewer and more vulnerable water sources and earn much of their income from water-dependent agriculture (USAID, 2012). Problems are worse in the summer. Moreover, the large number of Syrian refugees in Jordan is placing considerable pressure on Jordan’s already scarce water resources (NCCP, 2013). The governorate of Mafraq, whose population has doubled as result of refugee arrivals (including the Zaatari camp), has been particularly affected. This has included a rise in the cost of water for households, as a result of pipes running dry and households needing to buy more water from the tankers (Oxfam, 2013). Most households in northern Jordan are connected to piped water which is topped up by water trucks (Oxfam, 2013). The pipe system is old and it is estimated that as much as 50% is lost through leaks and people siphoning off water illegally (Oxfam, 2013). Many Jordanians pay extra for filtered water, claiming that piped water is not of drinking quality (Oxfam, 2013). Strain on water resources is expected to have a gendered impact in the country, where women are considered to have primary responsibility for household water consumption (USAID, 2010).
women do not work outside the home and so are responsible for household tasks (e.g. bathing, washing) involving water consumption (USAID, 2010). The care of those who fall sick as a result of waterborne illness caused by poor water quality is also likely to fall to women (USAID, 2010). Poor women in particular may need to exert more effort in order to secure and manage scarce natural resources, while men may be under pressure to migrate to urban areas to seek additional income sources (UNDP, 2013), leaving rural women at home.

Despite their overall household management of water, men are more likely to be responsible for decisions regarding purchase of water or water-saving devices (USAID, 2010). Men tend to be the point of contact for water utility companies; however, there is some evidence that women have increasingly been making decisions about buying extra water and lodging complaints with the water utility (USAID, 2010). In general, women report difficulties with access to water and dealing with water utilities (USAID, 2010). Women tend to be less aware of how water bills are calculated (USAID, 2010).

- **Waste services**: There is very little information available about gender and waste management in Jordan. It is thought that women are primarily responsible for waste generated in the household (USAID, 2010). Waste dumping in landfill site and open dumpsites represents a major health hazard for neighbouring communities. The large influx of Syrian refugees has aggravated this situation, both in the camps and in surrounding communities (MPIC, 2013).

- **Internet access**: While more people and more women are getting connected, the gender gap in internet users remains at 6.9 percent for internet users (UN Women 2014). Internet users who are economically active (both employed and unemployed) are mostly males and social norms can restrict women's access to the internet, which affects their agency and access to finance, employment and services.

- **Education**: Access to education is characterized by relatively higher gender equality. Jordan has achieved gender parity in primary and secondary education and the literacy rate is 99% for both female and male youth (UNICEF, 2011). However, young women's access to education becomes limited when they marry (CEDAW, 2012) and women are under-represented in vocational and technical training. Educational curricula perpetuate conservative views regarding women's place in society. If women represent just over 50% of undergraduate students in universities, they are less likely to enrol in courses which lead to better-paid positions (JNCW, 2011).

- **Health**: Health outcomes have improved markedly in the last 30 years, notably due to a result of increases in government spending on health (WB, 2013a). Women are legally free to choose their own physicians, visit health clinics, and make decisions about most aspects of their health care (Husseini, 2010). However, social restrictions on women's movement may affect women's ability to travel to health services, especially in rural areas. Issues of sexual and reproductive health are highly taboo.

- **Childcare**: Women are majorly responsible for childcare. The requirement to provide crèches in workplaces with more than 20 women employees is often not respected in practice (AWO, 2012) and the lack of access to childcare is a major barrier to women's employment.

### Access to employment

- **Labour market participation**: Women's labour force participation is low (16%), even by regional standards, despite high levels of education. In nearly half of all sectors, women represent less than 15% of the workforce (WB, 2013a). There are 5.6 times as many men as women working in the private sector (MPIC/UNDP, 2011). More traditional families will not allow their daughters and wives to work in the private sector unless it is a completely female environment, a family-owned business or
a firm where they personally know the business owner (MPIC/UNDP, 2011). Women’s employment is concentrated in the public sector, which is seen as a socially acceptable employer for women, with working hours and facilities that make it easier to combine family and work responsibilities. Women in rural areas are particularly affected by unemployment: unemployment rates amongst women in the north and south of Jordan are more than twice or three times the rate in the centre (WB, 2013a).

- **Migration:** Female migrant workers are particularly vulnerable to economic and physical exploitation, including sexual harassment and assault in the workplace (US Dept of State, 2014). CEDAW (2012) attributes this vulnerability to a lack of government oversight (i.e. lack of regular inspection visits to factories and private homes (where women work as domestic workers) to monitor working conditions and support (i.e. lack of shelters for victims). Syrians and Iraqis are particularly susceptible to poor terms and conditions of employment. According to a joint report by the Ministry of Planning and the UN, Syrian women are mostly employed in home-based informal sectors and businesses (e.g. cooking, baking, tailoring, jewellery-making, petty commerce), which were previously dominated by low-income Jordanian women (MPIC, 2013). As a result of financial necessity, Syrian children as young as 7 years of age are reportedly working long hours for little pay, sometimes in highly exploitative conditions (UNHCR, 2013). Some girls are employed, notably in domestic service and agriculture, but working refugee children are predominantly boys (estd 97%) working in services and retail (UNHCR, 2013).

- **Youth unemployment:** Youth unemployment represents a major issue for Jordan’s economy, politics and society as a whole. Unemployment rates in the early stages of life affect the job prospects across the working life span of young people (ILO, 2013a). Despite having good access to education, the number of youth in the labour market in Jordan is very low, especially among young women (ILO, 2014). Indeed, 54.7% of young women aged 15-24 are unemployed compared to 26.7% of their male counterparts (ILO STAT, 2014).

- **Horizontal segregation:** The majority of women are employed in the public sector (48%, UNECE 2012), followed by the education sector that employs 41.8% of working women, while the health and social work sector attracts 14.3% of them (JDoS, 2012a). In 2011, women represented 34.2% of employees in financial institutions (JDoS, 2012a). Women are under-represented in scientific and technical fields where there are more job opportunities, mostly because they are under-represented in these fields of education and training (WB, 2013a).

- **Vertical Segregation:** The glass ceiling is still firmly in place for women in Jordan (ILO, 2013). Women constitute an important proportion of managers (40%) and professionals (58.2%) (JDoS, Q4/2013); however, men still hold the top posts, including in the public sector (MPIC/UNDP, 2011). Men earn 23% more than women in management positions (MPIC/UNDP, 2011).

- **Informal employment:** According to UNDP (2012), 45% of all waged employment in the private sector is informal (NB this is significantly higher than official figures cited in ‘Key Indicators’). Men are more likely to be in informal employment: 48% of all working men are in informal employment, compared to 26% of working women. Men in informal employment are most likely to work in retail/services (32%), while women are more likely to work in medical/social services (17%).

- **Gender Pay Gap:** There is a gender pay gap in Jordan and women’s average monthly earnings are 9.3% of men’s (UNECE, 2012). The relatively small overall gap can be explained by the large proportion of working women in the public sector where the wage gap is lower (JWU, 2012). However, the gender pay gap is 40.3% in manufacturing, 21.1% in education and 26% in health and social work activities (JDoS, 2012). The average monthly salary in Jordan is around JOD 315 (€325)
for men and JOD 277 (€286) for women (JWU, 2012). The principle of equal pay for work of equal value is not implemented thus resulting to a persistent gender pay gap.

Access to finance/credit

- **Access to credit**: If there are no legal restrictions on women's access to credit or bank accounts, access to finance remains an issue, in great part as a result of collateral requirements to secure a loan. More than 97% of loans in Jordan require collateral, compared to 72% in the rest of MENA (IFC Enterprise Surveys). Collateral requirements for loans are typically limited to immovable assets, while movable assets (such as jewellery) are rarely acceptable (WB, 2013b). Women are less likely to own property (incl. land) because of inheritance rights and divorce rules that favour men. As such, microfinance is a popular source of credit for women.

- **Land ownership**: Despite the absence of legal restrictions on the ownership, women represent a small proportion of land owners in Jordan. In practice, property acquired jointly by a couple is most often registered in the husband’s name. This makes women more vulnerable in the event of divorce, as it gives the husband control over the division of assets once the marriage is over (SIGI, 2012).

- **Women’s entrepreneurship**: There are low levels of women’s entrepreneurship in Jordan: only 15.7% of firms have female participation in ownership. Women entrepreneurs are predominantly involved in SMEs in services and non-durable manufacturing (garments and clothes). The proportion of women business owners and self-employed women is very low. Only 3.6% of firms in Jordan have a woman as the majority shareholder (IFC Survey, 2013). According to JNCW (2011), low levels of business ownership are due to obstacles in accessing credit, lack of administrative skills and expertise and generally low levels of self-esteem and self-confidence among women.

- **Inheritance rights**: Although the Personal Status Law prohibits social practices that deprive women of their right to inheritance, it is not uncommon for women to waive part or all of their inheritance in favour of a male relative (a process known as takharoj) as a result of social pressure. In some cases this happens after pressure (sometimes physical violence) from brothers and other male relatives (Husseini, 2010). In general, women are thought to face considerable pressure to renounce their rights, particularly in rural areas (WB, 2013b). This pressure is often justified on the grounds that men are expected to provide for their families. Some families circumvent inheritance rules by transferring assets to their sons before their death (SIGI, 2012). A 2010 amendment to the Personal Status Law was introduced to offer protection for women's inheritance rights. This means that there is now a 3 month ‘cooling off’ period after the division of rights, during which time heirs cannot renounce their rights (WB, 2013a). Many rural women may not be aware of their inheritance rights or how to defend their rights in court (Husseini, 2010).

Decision-making

- **Representation in national parliaments, local government and the judiciary**: Jordan introduced parliamentary quotas for women in 2003. There is a 10% (15 seats) quota for women in the lower house of parliament (1 for each of the 12 governorates and 1 for each of the 3 tribal councils) and a 30% (297 seats) quota in municipal councils (quotaProject, 2014). In the 2013 parliamentary elections, 18 women were elected to the lower house (3 of whom won outside the quota system). There are 9 female senators, appointed by the King (US Dept of State, 2014).

- **Labour legislation/industry restrictions**: The Constitution provides for ‘special conditions’ for women’s employment: women are prohibited from working at night, as well as undertaking a list of jobs specified by legislation, including mining.

- **Decision making in households**: In addition to legal provisions, social norms strongly position the father or husband as the head of household, giving him the role of family guardian and the responsibility to provide financial maintenance and make major decisions affecting the family (WB,
2013a). In return for financial maintenance, women are expected to defer to male family members in decision-making and control of economic assets (2013a).

**Table 7. Key indicators: women and men in the Jordan economy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour force</th>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female &amp; male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Labour force participation rate (15+ years)</strong></td>
<td>(% of population aged 15+ who are economically active)</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>41.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>World Bank, 2014</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-employment (15+ years)</strong></td>
<td>(% of female/male population aged 15+ years that are economically active)</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>World Bank, 2012</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unemployment rate (15+ years)</strong></td>
<td>(Share of labour force that is without work but available for and seeking employment)</td>
<td>21.2%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ILO STAT, 2014</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Youth unemployment rate (15-24 years)</strong></td>
<td>(Share of labour force aged 15-24)</td>
<td>54.7%</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ILO STAT, 2014</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Informal employment</strong></td>
<td>(% of female, male and all workers without a contract or social security coverage)</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>MOL, 2011</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public sector employment (15+ years)</strong></td>
<td>(% of workforce that is employed by government)</td>
<td>51.4%</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
<td>38.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Q4/2013 figures, JDoS</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender pay gap</strong></td>
<td>(Women’s average earnings as a % of men’s average earnings)</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>UNECE, 2012</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unpaid family workers</strong></td>
<td>(% of female, male and combined employed population who work in family businesses without payment)</td>
<td>&lt;0.5%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Q4/2013, JDoS</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child labour</strong></td>
<td>(% of workforce that is employed by government)</td>
<td>9.3% of child labour</td>
<td>90.7% of child labour</td>
<td>1.6% (of all children)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Q4/2013 figures, JDoS</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Business</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Firms with women as majority shareholders</strong></td>
<td>(% of all firms)</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>IFC Enterprise Survey, 2013</em></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Firms with female participation in ownership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Indicator</td>
<td>Female (%)</td>
<td>Male (%)</td>
<td>Female &amp; Male (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female &amp; Male</td>
<td>(% of all firms) (IFC Enterprise Surveys, 2013)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank account at formal financial institution</td>
<td>(% female and male population aged 15+) <em>World Bank 2014</em></td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>33.7%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loans in the past year from a financial institution</td>
<td>(% female and male population aged 15+) <em>World Bank 2014</em></td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Participation</td>
<td>Representation in national parliaments</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>[100%]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) (2013 figures from WB Databank)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.6 Moldova gender profile

Key points

- Moldova has a population of 2.9 million, with 45% of the total population living in urban areas. The country has ethnic Russian (6%) and Ukrainian (8.4%) populations.
- There is a strong legal framework that follows the general principles of gender equality. Legislation in Moldova guarantees women and men equal access to property, courts and credit. However, there are gender gaps in terms of access to economic opportunities, as the labour market is characterized by gender segregation by sector, occupation and leadership positions (World Bank 2014).
- Patriarchal attitudes and deep-rooted stereotypes regarding the roles and responsibilities of women and men in the family and in society still persist, according to the latest CEDAW report (2013). Moldova has one of the highest rates of human trafficking among neighbouring countries and is a source country (World Bank 2014).

Access to services

- **Rural-urban divide:** Rural settlements are disadvantaged in terms of physical infrastructure, public amenities, living conditions and access to social services. On average, female-headed households face a higher risk of poverty and access to services than men, because the main sources of income such as pensions and average wages are lower for women. There is a deficit of healthcare staff in rural areas and excess of health care staff in the urban space (NBS, 2012).
- **Water and sanitation:** HBS (Household Budgets Survey) data indicate that the share of households from the Centre and South connected to the water pipe in 2010 almost doubled compared to 2007, hence living conditions of the population have considerably improved in terms of access to services related to water supply, bathroom or shower. The most deplorable situation is in the North region, where only 34% of the households are connected to the water pipe. Access to water supply for the Central (41.1%) and South (54.3%) regions is higher. The sewerage system, toilet and bathroom are least accessible for population from the Central region. Housing amenities do not seem to depend on the sex of the household head. Even if there are some minor differences in the share of households headed by men or women in terms of bathroom availability or hot water installation in homes, these are mainly determined by the availability of these services in that region, and to some extent the overall household ‘wellbeing’ (NBS, 2012).
- **Transport:** There is no data available to indicate women’s restricted access to public transport services.
- **Fuel and electricity:** The municipality of Chisinau is well connected to hot water (87.7%) and gas (90.1) services when compared to the rest of the country. Specifically, the North region population’s access to hot water (18.8%) and gas (29.7%) is the lowest, followed by the Centre (hot water: 21.1%; gas: 40.5%) and South (hot water: 31.4%; gas: 64.6%) regions (NBS, 2012).
- **Education:** Overall, gender gaps in net primary enrolment and completion rates are negligible, while net enrolment rates for both girls and boys at the secondary level are similar. However, boys and girls pursue different disciplines at the secondary level, leading to future occupational segregation. Gross enrolment rates for girls in higher education stood at 44% in 2010, compared to 33% for boys.
- **Health:** Male mortality in Moldova is high and of greatest concern; it is mainly attributed to road accidents and deaths resulting from alcohol abuse and homicides. In Moldova, alcohol consumption per capita for men is the highest in the world and is the leading health risk factor. In the past decade, 13

---

13 Data from NBS (2012) are analysed by region, as follows: Chisinau municipality, Centre, North and South regions.
female mortality declined in Moldova but still remains higher than that in ECA (147 versus 116 per 1000 in 2009). Notably, male mortality rate is still double the female mortality rate. Abortions are frequently conducted in unhygienic conditions using unsafe methods thus risking the health of Moldovan women, as a third of pregnancies end in abortion (World Bank, 2014).

- **Childcare:** Limited availability of childcare facilities for small children creates obstacles to women’s professional development and advancement (National Strategy for Gender Equality, 2008), as the vast majority of preschool institutions receive children from the age of 3 years and up. According to a recent survey, women seem to be confused between maternity leave and childcare leave and tend to not distinguish between the two: when asked about the length of maternity leave – 57.4% of women gave a wrong answer and 38.8% said they do not know its duration, compared to 3.8% who answered correctly (Women’s Law Centre, 2015). According to 2014 data, only 11.4% of children up to 3 years old are in preschool institutions.

**Access to employment**

- **Labour Force Participation (LFP):** Women in Moldova have lower rates of labour force participation than men (38% vs. 45%). According to the World Bank (2014), the causes for low male employment rates are poorly understood and require further analysis.

  Women’s LFP rate in Moldova is influenced by a number of factors:

  - **Education:** There is gender segregation in education with more women and girls students in the education (72%), health care (69%), economy (63%), and arts (62%) fields of study. Men and boys are concentrated in physical culture and sports (80%), industry (65%), law (57%) and agriculture (55%) fields of study (World Bank 2014)
  - **Geographic location:** There is about an eight percentage point difference between the activity rates of urban and rural women and about a six percentage point difference between the employment rates of urban and rural women. This is mainly because the majority of the rural population is engaged in subsistence agriculture (usually not captured by national statistics). According to government statistics in 2014, 15.5% of men and 7.8% of women of working age were working abroad or looking for work abroad (United Nations, 2015)
  - **Social norms and values:** Among the factors for women’s lower labour force participation in rural areas may are patriarchal norms that discourage women from actively seeking employment (World Bank, 2014)
  - **Family and marital status:** Employers have been said to discriminate against women with children (World Bank, 2014)

- **Horizontal segregation:** There is persistent gender segregation in traditionally female-dominated fields of study at the post-secondary level and women’s underrepresentation in engineering, technological and other fields of education, negatively affecting their chances of integration into higher-paying sectors of the labour market (CEDAW 2013).

- **Vertical segregation:** Women are overrepresented in the lowest paying sectors and jobs. Legislation stipulates different mandatory retirement ages for men and women (57 years for women and 62 years for men), resulting in unequal retirement, reinforcement of stereotypes and higher poverty rates among older women (CEDAW 2013). The overprotective maternity leave (126 days) in combination with the lack of paternity leave may reinforce the unequal division of family responsibilities between women and men.

- **Gender pay gap:** There is a high gender pay gap and women’s average monthly earnings are approximately 25.6% of men’s (UNECE, 2011), which is comparable to other countries in the region
such as Ukraine and Belarus. The principle of equal pay for work of equal value is not implemented thus resulting to a persistent gender pay gap.

- **Women in informal employment:** While men and women participated equally in the informal job sector in the early 2000s, in 2013 the share of informal employment as part of total employment was 34.7% for men compared to 27.1% for women. This is mainly due to the higher share of informality in traditionally-male sectors, for instance construction (ILO, 2016). Women are much more likely to be engaged as unpaid family workers – 3.5% of women in employment compared to 1.3% of men are classified as contributing family workers (World Bank, 2014).

**Access to finance/property**

- **Land ownership:** Women and men have equal rights to own and access land in Moldova. According to the General Agricultural Census in Moldova (2011), the share of agricultural farms managed by women is 36.3% and 63.7% by men. Women’s farms are mostly in the age group 65 years old and over (53.3%). Women’s right to own property is irrespective of their marital status or type of marriage. The partial community of property regime means that all property purchased during a marriage is jointly owned by the spouses, while each spouse retains individual ownership of any property purchased prior to the marriage. According to SIGI (2014), real estate property is often inherited by the youngest son in the family, who is expected to care for his parents in their old age.

- **Access to credit:** Access to finance is an issue for both female and male owned firms regardless of the sector in which they operate. Data indicates that 19% of women compared to 16.4% of men have a bank account at a formal financial institution (WB Findex, 2014). Women are slightly more likely than men to use informal sources of financing.

- **Women’s entrepreneurship:** The share of women-entrepreneurs in Moldova (27.5%) is comparable to the EU whereby on average women amount to 30% of the entrepreneurs (National Bureau of Statistics, 2012)

- The 2013 WB IFC Enterprise Survey found that 47.3% of surveyed firms have female participation in ownership, which is above the average for Eastern Europe and Central Asia (30.9%). Out of those, 56.9% are in the manufacturing sector. 25.7% of firms have a female top manager. Firms owned by women are more concerned about high levels of taxation and corruption than men are, but are still predominantly concerned about access to finance and a poorly educated labour force. The profiles of women and men entrepreneurs differ as follows: (a) Women entrepreneurs are less educated than men (64% of female and 70% of male entrepreneurs have higher education); (2) Unlike most men, women tend to have little or no prior experience in entrepreneurship (50% of women and 0.2% of men were mainly carrying out household tasks before becoming entrepreneurs) (3) Women tend to manage micro-enterprises and not engage in export; (4) Women usually borrow funds to start a business from relatives; (5) Women often establish enterprises in the following sectors: trade, hotel, restaurant and real estate; and (6) Women tend to work more at new or young enterprises (Aculai, 2009).

Women’s low representation in leadership positions in the private sector is indicative of the fact that fewer women than men are employed in the private sector, there is a lack of established equal opportunities policies and practices (i.e. performance evaluation and staff promotion mechanisms), bias against women in leadership positions, hidden discriminatory practices, and lack of role models (World Bank 2014)

**Decision Making**
• **Representation in national parliaments, local government and the judiciary:** No quotas have been introduced for women in either parliament or local government. Candidate lists of political parties are also not required to include female candidates. The representation of women in parliament is low, at 22.8% (IPU, 2014), but higher than other countries in the region in Azerbaijan (16.9%) or Armenia (10.7%). However, in 2012 the representation of women at local levels of government and the judiciary was low (World Bank 2014). There are no women justices on the constitutional court (WB/IFC, 2015).

• **Labour legislation/industry restrictions:** Women have limited decision-making power on the type of employment they can do. The Moldovan Labour Code prohibits women from heavy work and harmful working conditions, including underground work, with the exception of work in sanitary services and work not requiring physical effort. It is also forbidden for women to lift and carry heavy weights (according to Government Decision No. 264 of 6 October 1993). This limits the range of jobs that women can hold, leads to occupational segregation and women’s confinement to low-paying sectors and activities, which also further exacerbates gender pay gap.

### Table 8. Key indicators: Women and men in the Moldovan economy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Labour force participation ( % of female/male population aged 15+ years that are economically active) World Bank 2014</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Female &amp; Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour market</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employment</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>37.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informal employment</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpaid family work</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (15+ years)</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public sector employment</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender pay gap</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all enterprises which are registered) WB Enterprise Survey, 2013</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bank account at formal financial institution (% of population with an account at a bank, credit union,</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female &amp; Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other financial institution or the post office</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loans in the past year from a financial institution</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(%, population who report borrowing money from a bank, credit union, microfinance institution, or other financial institution such as a cooperative)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Government</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Representation in national parliaments</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>77.2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WB Findex, 2014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPU, 2014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.7 Mongolia gender profile

Purpose and scope: This is a short summary of a gender profile prepared in 2015 for EBRD and updated in 2016, using publicly available sources. It is not intended to be an exhaustive overview of all gender-related issues in this country.

Key points

- Mongolia is a multi-party parliamentary democracy. Its large territory is sparsely populated by a small population (under 3 million) that is mainly of Mongol descent (85%). Minority groups include Kazakhs (4%), Dorvod (3%) and Bayad (2%).
- The country has experienced rapid levels of economic growth in recent years (peaking at 17.5% in 2011), spurred on by the major expansion of the mining sector, which now represents around 20% of GDP (WB, 2014a). Agriculture (including livestock herding) remains a key sector, but is diminishing in importance, and large numbers of rural residents have migrated to urban areas as a result of deteriorating rural livelihoods.
- Mongolia’s legal framework is supportive of formal gender equality; however, there are still gaps in gender equality in practice. Deep-rooted social norms stem from nomadic-pastoralist traditions, in which there is a clear division of labour, with men in charge of economic production and women responsible for household responsibilities and childcare.

Access to services

Rural-urban divide

Rural populations’ needs and demands are often not met because of a lack of basic services, infrastructures and modern facilities, which are challenging to build and maintain over Mongolia’s vast but sparsely populated territory (Gov. of Mongolia, 2011). Overall mortality rates are higher among rural communities, which are attributed to a lack of access to medical services and clean water and sanitation facilities (UN Special Rapporteur, 2013).

Around half of the population lives in Ulaanbaatar (USAID, 2010), where access to services has been affected by a large wave of rural to urban migration. Many rural migrants have settled around Ulaanbaatar in gers, the traditional Mongolian herder tents: the population of the ger areas is now estimated to make up about 60% of the total population of UB (WB, 2010a). This large-scale migration has placed additional pressure on hospitals, schools, roads, water supply and engineering facilities, and has resulted in a shortage of housing.

Water and sanitation

Due to climate change and limited water resources, access to water is considered one of Mongolia’s biggest socio-economic problems, especially in rural areas. It is estimated that only 24% of the total population receive piped water directly in their homes (33% in urban areas); in rural areas, this proportion decreases to 2% (WHO/UNICEF JMP, 2014). An estimated 65% of the urban population and 100% of the rural population must collect water from sources outside their homes (Hawkins and Seager, 2009). Collecting water is largely regarded as a woman’s or child’s task in Mongolia. In practice, men and women are both significantly involved...
in water collection, but women perform the majority of water collection when done by hand, especially in rural areas (Hawkins and Seager, 2009).

Some 32% of the rural population do not have access to any type of sanitary facilities (WHO/UNICEF JMP, 2014). Households in ger districts use pit latrines that have no ventilation (WB, 2010a). Various donors have offered programmes to improve latrines in these areas, but these have had limited impact (WB, 2010a).

Transport
Transportation costs reportedly increased as a result of the global financial crisis. This has had an impact on poorer workers, including women, who left formal wage employment for informal activities because the costs of transportation to go to work were too high (Reva et.al, 2011).

Fuel and electricity
Given harsh weather conditions, reliable and affordable heating is a key issue for Mongolian households. However, inadequate heating systems and fuel sources are contributing to worsening air quality in Ulaanbaatar and serious health risks (UN Special Rapporteur, 2013). The main sources of energy used by women for cooking in Mongolia include wood (34%), dung (23.3%) and coal (19.4%) (WB, 2011). Collecting dung for heating and cooking is generally a female task (Reva et.al, 2011). Because they remain primarily responsible for cooking and other indoor tasks, women could face health risks from exposure to indoor pollutants.

Education
A gender gap is observable at the highest levels of education. Girl’s enrolment in tertiary education stands at 72%, compared to 50% for boys (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2012). Women are also reportedly more likely than men to seek additional training after leaving school (ADB, 2010). About two-thirds of the university graduates in 2009 were female (ADB, 2014). This is believed to reflect the general trend in Mongolia for families to invest more in girls’ education than boys’. Boys are more frequently withdrawn from school to help earn income (ADB, 2014). As a result, educational attainment tends to be lower among male youth (ADB, 2010).

Health
Women generally enjoy equal access to health services in Mongolia, but there are some barriers, especially in rural areas (Gov. of Mongolia, 2011). Both men and women are at a higher risk of suffering from high blood pressure compared to regional averages (WHO, 2014).

Childcare
Only 11% of poor families have children in preschool. According to some reports, Mongolian families have to pay bribes in order to secure a place for their children in a childcare facility (Bazilli, 2012). It is believed that women’s unpaid care workload
has increased since transition. Reductions in health and social services resulted in women having to spend more time caring for the young, sick, and elderly (ADB, 2010). Women spend roughly twice the amount of time as men on household and care duties, and this does not decline even when they are engaged in paid productive work in the labour market (WB, 2013).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to employment</th>
<th>Labour Force Participation (LFP)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>has increased since transition. Reductions in health and social services resulted in women having to spend more time caring for the young, sick, and elderly (ADB, 2010). Women spend roughly twice the amount of time as men on household and care duties, and this does not decline even when they are engaged in paid productive work in the labour market (WB, 2013).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female labour force participation stood at 57% in 2014 compared to 69.8% for men (LFS via ILOSTAT). This is a similar level to that of Central Asian countries (59%), but below the average for countries in the East Asia and the Pacific region (70%) (WB, 2012).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horizontal segregation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are strong patterns of gender-based occupational segregation: women are not encouraged to enter jobs that are deemed “unsuitable and unsafe” and it is considered that women should be protected from “hard jobs” (WB, 2013a). This tends to close off new employment opportunities for women in emerging sectors such as mining and mechanical engineering. In contrast, sectors with typically higher shares of female employment (such as the public sector) are currently shrinking (ADB, 2010).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vertical segregation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mongolian workplaces remain vertically segregated, although female representation in top management positions is relatively high by regional standards. A little more than 36% of businesses have a female top manager (vs 29.4% for East Asia and Pacific) (WB/IFC, 2013). The likelihood of having a woman as a female top manager is higher in small businesses (42%) than in medium-size businesses (32.4%) or large businesses (14.4%) (WB/IFC, 2013). Women are generally concentrated in mid-low level managerial and support staff positions both in the public and private sector (WB, 2013).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women in informal employment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a significant informal economy in Mongolia, with an estimated 66% of the economically active population working in the informal economy, mostly in agriculture (WB, 2013). There is no gender-disaggregated data on informal employment, but it is thought that women are more likely than men to work informally. Over a third (35.1%) of Mongolian women who take part in the labour force are unpaid family workers (vs 10.3% of men) (WB, 2013b). Also, women account for an estimated 65% of informal traders or ‘street vendors’ in Mongolia (ADB/ILO, 2011). The gender wage gap is thought to persist in the informal economy: it is estimated that informal women workers earn on average only half of men's wages (ADB, 2010).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender pay gap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| There is a persistent gender wage gap in Mongolia: on average, women earn 81% of men’s monthly wages (2011 data via ILOSTAT). The wage gap is particularly pronounced in manufacturing, mining and financial sectors (WB, 2013). Women in high-level positions such as managers, specialists and engineers earn on average
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to finance/property</th>
<th>Ownership of land and other assets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The law grants equal rights to men and women in terms of ownership of land and other assets. Women enjoy relatively high levels of land ownership, although the majority of land remains held by men (USAID, 2010). Approximately 49% of land titles in Ulaanbaatar and 36% of land titles in 8 regional aimag (provincial) centres have female participation in ownership (MCC, 2011). This is significantly higher than in Central Asian countries such as the Kyrgyz Republic (where 13% of land titles are owned by women), Kazakhstan (where 9% of farms are owned by women) and Tajikistan (where 8% of farms are owned by women) (UNESCAP, 2012; ADB, 2013; NAST, 2012). While titles in just one name are generally registered in the male name, most titles are registered in multiple names, indicating the value of continuing this practice to ensure women’s land rights (MCC, 2011). Despite the default property regime of joint ownership in marriage, assets acquired during marriage (including businesses) are more likely to be registered in the husband’s name: 58% of asset registrations are in the husband’s name, compared to 34% in the wife’s name (ADB, 2011; US Dept of State, 2014).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Access to credit and financial services
For women and men alike, lack of collateral is thought to be a major barrier to accessing credit. This is because bank lending in Mongolia is almost exclusively collateral-based, with immovable assets being the predominant form of collateral (Buckley and Rynhart, 2011). The required value of collateral to loans is high, which means that the size of loans is usually constrained by the value of collateral (Dulamragchaa and Izumida, 2011). Collateral requirements can pose particular challenges for women, as they are likely to own less land and other assets than men.

Women's entrepreneurship
The World Bank / IFC Enterprise Survey indicates that women have an ownership share in 39% of Mongolia’s businesses, which is low by East Asian standards (the average is 55% for East Asia and Pacific) but closer to the Central Asian average of 36% (WB / IFC, 2013; WB, 2012). According to the WB/IFC Enterprise Survey, 35% of small businesses and 39% of medium-size businesses have female participation in ownership. This proportion rises to 88.4% for large businesses,
which is very high compared to other countries in the region such as Kazakhstan (12.5%) and the Kyrgyz Republic (45.3%) (WB and IFC, 2013).

Types of small business activities performed by women in Mongolia are thought to include running food stores, cafes and motorbike parts stores as well as spinning wool, producing souvenirs or making shoes (Reva et. al, 2011). In urban areas such as Ulaanbaatar, women entrepreneurs are reportedly actively involved in activities including tourism, manufacturing and trade (Aramand 2013).

Women entrepreneurs have repeatedly identified insufficient access to finance and business development services as major constraints to doing business in Mongolia (IFC, 2014). Because of limited employment opportunities for women, Mongolian women are also less likely to have acquired the necessary managerial skills and experience to start a business in their previous careers (WB, 2013).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision making</th>
<th>Representation in national parliaments:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women’s political representation sharply decreased following the transition, from 25% of women Parliamentarians in 1990 to less than 5% in 2010. There is now a 20% legal quota policy in the 2012 Electoral law for women in Parliament, although there are no penalties for non-compliance (UNDP, 2012). There is a 40% quota for women in local government (WB, 2014).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of parental status</td>
<td>There is evidence to suggest that parental status has an impact on Mongolian women’s participation in the labour force. Research indicates that the presence of children aged 15 years or younger in a household reduces the probability of female labour force participation (WB, 2013). According to Pastore (2009), the share of long-term and very long-term unemployment is significantly higher for young women with children. Parental status also influences the type of jobs chosen by women. Following the global financial crisis, some organisations reportedly chose to hire men over women for fear of incurring losses due to women’s entitlement to maternity leave (Reva et.al, 2011).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 9. Key indicators: Women and men in the Mongolian economy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Labour force participation</th>
<th>Self-employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(% of women, men and combined working age population that are economically active) (2014 LFS data via ILOSTAT)</td>
<td>(% of female, male and combined employed population who are self-employed) (2011 data via WB, 2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employment</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Informal employment</strong></td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of women, men and combined working age population that work in the informal economy) (2009 LFS via WB, 2013)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unpaid family work</strong></td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of active population that are unpaid family workers) (2011 data via WB, 2013)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unemployment rate (15+ years)</strong></td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) (2014 LFS via ILOSTAT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public sector employment</strong></td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of workforce that is employed by government) (2012 LFS via ILOSTAT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child labour</strong></td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of girls &amp; boys who are child labourers – i.e. those aged 5-17 working in contravention of ILO C138 or 182) (UNICEF, 2012)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender pay gap</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(unadjusted and calculated as the difference between average earnings of men and average earnings of women expressed as a percentage of average earnings of men) (2015 data via ILOSTAT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Business</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Firms with female participation in ownership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of all firms) (WB Enterprise Surveys, 2013)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bank account at formal financial institution</strong></td>
<td>93.2</td>
<td>90.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% female and male population aged 15+) (WB FINDEX database, 2014)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loans in the past year from a financial institution</strong></td>
<td>43</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% female and male population aged 15+) (WB FINDEX database, 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Government</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Representation in national parliament</strong></td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>82.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) (IPU, 2016)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.8 Serbia gender profile

Purpose and scope: This is a short summary of a gender profile prepared in 2015 for EBRD and updated in 2016, using publicly available sources. It is not intended to be an exhaustive overview of all gender-related issues in this country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• The Republic of Serbia is a unitary parliamentary constitutional republic, with a population of 7 million.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The gender equality index in the Republic of Serbia is 40.6%, and the index of the EU-28 Member States is 52.9%. This number indicates that Serbia is lagging behind in achieving gender equality when compared to European standards. The greatest success in terms of gender equality has been achieved in the domain of decision-making power at the national level, which shows that the introduction of quotas for women’s political participation has been successful. On the other hand, the biggest setback in achieving gender equality in relation to the EU-28 was recorded in terms of women’s participation in the labour market and women’s access to financial resources.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to services</th>
<th>Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The gap in the participation rates in tertiary education has been growing in favour of women. Gender segregation in educational fields remains high though, with much more concentrated female students in the areas of social sciences, humanities and arts.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are not prominent gender gaps in terms of access to health care. In 2014 among women was recorded slightly more persons with unmet needs for medical examinations (0.7 percentage points).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Childcare:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rates drop for women in childbearing years, and only 13% of children under the age of three in Serbia were enrolled in child care centres between 2010 and 2011 (UNECE 2010). This situation is even more pressing among the Roma population, where women’s employment rates are particularly low.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to employment</th>
<th>Labour Force Participation (LFP)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female labour force participation at 44.6% is particularly low, in part due to legislation on social security contributions, to the lack of affordable access to early childhood education and childcare for women during childbearing years and to cultural attitudes about gender equality. While achieving universal access to early childhood education is an essential long term developmental goal, increased access for low-income groups and Roma should be given priority. Measures addressing constraints to part-time work, however, can be taken in the short term. While primary and secondary enrolment rates are similar, in labour markets gender gaps become more salient.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Horizontal segregation**
Gender differences in time use, limited child care enrolment, and skills profiles contribute to employment segregation and act as constraints on women’s ability to work and become entrepreneurs (USAID 2010).

**Vertical segregation**
Serbia is ranked higher than half of the EU Member States in terms of women’s decision-making power. This is partly the consequence of the introduction of legal quotas for the representation of lower represented gender (women) in the legislative bodies – National and Provincial Parliaments which is still not achieved in a number of EU Member States. However, this should not distract the attention for still prominent gender gaps in this domain: women’s representation in the national parliament stands at 34%, while 21% of Ministers are women and 19% of the regional assemblies are women. Only 15% of members of boards in largest quoted companies are women.

**Gender pay gap**
A gender wage gap exists at 16.7% and is highest among low skilled workers, where it is more than 20 percent (Avlijas et al. 2013).

**Women in informal employment**
In 2014, the female share of the informally employed in total employment was 23.5% for women and 20.9% for men (EIGE, 2016).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Access to finance/property</th>
<th>Land ownership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women and men have equal rights to own and access land and property other than land, under the Constitution (CEDAW, 2006), but respect for traditional customs might sometimes restrict women’s ownership rights. In rural areas, women often do not have de facto access to land, as if women buy or inherit land, tradition obliges them to register it in the name of their husband or another close male relative. The 2011 CEDAW report notes that a survey conducted in 2008 in one rural area found that women made up 10% of landowners. In Serbia, 18% of agricultural holdings were held by women (Cozzarelli, 2010). According to the official CEDAW report (2011), just 0.2% of property registered to Roma is registered in the name of Roma women.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to credit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>According to USAID, women often experience difficulty in obtaining credit, because few women own property or land to act as collateral (USAID/Cozzarelli, 2010).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s entrepreneurship</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2013 WB IFC Enterprise Survey found that 29.8% of surveyed firms have female participation in ownership, below the average for Eastern Europe and Central Asia (30%). Only 14.3% of firms have a female top manager.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Decision making

#### Representation in national parliaments:
Under the Law on Election of Members of Parliament, for every three candidates on an electoral list, one must be of the underrepresented sex. This is the case for national elections and local elections (SIGI, 2014).

#### Patriarchal norms and values related to the sexual division of labour
Stereotypes relating to gender roles remain strong in Serbia, with men considered to be the head of the household, and the role of breadwinner closely linked with that of being a ‘real’ man (World Bank, 2011). Women are seen as primarily responsible for childcare and domestic work in the home. Reflecting this, mothers receive an allowance from the state for their first, second, third, and fourth children (CEDAW, 2011).

### Table 10. Key indicators: Women and men in the Serbia economy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Labour force participation (% of population that are economically active)</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>World Bank 2014</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Unemployment rate (15+ years) (% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed but available for and seeking employment) World Bank 2014 | 25.9 | 19.4 | -   |

| Gender pay gap (women's average earnings as a % of men's average earnings), UNECE 2015 | 16.7 |

| Business | Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all enterprises which are registered) WB Enterprise Survey, 2013 | 29.8 |

| Bank account at formal financial institution (% of population with an account at a bank, credit union, other financial institution or the post office) WB Findex, 2014 | 83 | 83.2 | -   |

| Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% of population who report borrowing money from a bank, credit union, microfinance institution, or other financial institution such as a cooperative) WB Findex, 2014 | 8.2 | 9.6 | -   |

| Political participation | Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) IPU, 2016[^12] | 34 | 66 | [100%] |
6.9 Tunisia gender profile

Key Points

- The Republic of Tunisia is a constitutional republic with a multi-party system. Islam is the State religion, and 98% of the population is Muslim. The country is still undergoing a political transition initiated by the 2011 Revolution, which led to the removal of President Ben Ali and marked the beginning of the political transition.

- In general, Tunisia is regarded as the most progressive country on women’s rights in the SEMED region; in practice, however, Tunisian society also remains governed by social norms that define women as caregivers and homemakers and men as breadwinners. Despite the Tunisian Code of Personal Status has been one of the most liberal in the region, its enforcement remains challenging for certain aspects. Women’s access to the public sphere is often conditional on their ability to simultaneously continue to fulfil their domestic responsibilities.

- Tunisian women’s socio-economic status is strongly affected by their place of residence and level of education. Rural women are more likely to be illiterate than their urban counterparts and less likely to be economically active or have access to prenatal care.

Access to services

Transport

Access to transport is reportedly most difficult in rural areas, with a negative impact on rural women and girls’ access to education and health services. Lack of access to transport is one of the main obstacles in reducing maternal mortality rates in rural areas, mainly because it impedes the delivery of emergency health services. (UN DSEA, 2011). Sexual harassment is also a concern for women who use public transport in Tunisia. This can affect women’s economic opportunities, as fear of being harassed or assaulted in public transport may discourage some women from being economically active (EconoWin, 2013).

Education

Young women (15-29 years old) with tertiary education have a 90% participation rate (WB, 2013). However, the reverse is true for unemployment rates: women who have not completed primary education generally face lower levels of unemployment than women with tertiary-level education (WB, 2013). This may be attributed in part to the fact that women with primary education tend to work in lower skilled occupations such as domestic work or in the agricultural sector, which are less costly for employers in terms of wages and benefits (Baliamoune, 2011).

Health

Tunisia has accomplished significant improvements in human development since gaining independence in 1956, and investments in women’s health have been considered key to the success of the national development strategy (Baliamoune, 2011). Today, women’s health indicators in Tunisia are usually above international recommended averages (Euromed, 2010). However, in rural regions of the country’s interior, residents still lack convenient access to health care, compared to their counterparts living in urban centres and coastal areas (WB, 2012).

Childcare

Pre-primary education is free for children aged 3 to 6 years (Loi d’orientation sur l’éducation et l’enseignement scolaire, art.4; 16). An estimated 44.3% of Tunisian children are enrolled in pre-primary education (MISC4, 2013). Ben Salem (2010) reports that women in modern Tunisia have less opportunity to benefit from the traditional support of their mothers, mothers-in-law, or sisters to help with childcare and housework, in part because these women may have their own careers or live some distance away. As a result, women who are strongly attached to their traditional domestic role reportedly suffer career
setbacks, and those who concentrate on their career rely on paid domestic help when they cannot count on family support (Ben Salem, 2010).

**Access to Finance**

Access to credit

According to a 2011 IFC survey, while 75% of Tunisian women business owners have sought bank credit for their business, the percentage of female entrepreneurs that obtained financing from banks only reaches 47% (IFC, 2011). Some 55% of Tunisian businesswomen report having encountered obstacles when seeking finance. High interest rates were the main obstacle mentioned by women (36%), followed by lack of collateral (11%). The relationship between women entrepreneurs and financial institutions is also influenced by bias and discrimination deriving from prejudices based on the traditional roles and responsibilities of men and women (Drine and Grach, 2010). Due to these obstacles, women tend to turn towards informal sources of finance instead, such as personal savings and family (Drine and Grach, 2010). Tunisian businesswomen generally report a higher level of use of personal and business bank accounts compared to their MENA counterparts (Vital Voices, 2013). Microcredit loans are available to women, and the government has taken measures to encourage women’s economic participation through access to financial credit (UNICEF, 2011). In 2007, 43.9% of microcredit clients were women (Euromed, 2010).

Land ownership

Although both Tunisian law and Islam recognise women’s right to own property, including land, women rarely exercise this right in practice (Ben Salem, 2010). There are thought to be low levels of female land ownership, although official data on the subject is lacking. In rural areas, women represent only 6.4% of farm owners, and hold approximately 4% of agricultural land. This suggests women farmers own on average less land than their male counterparts (UNDP/CAWTAR, 2010). In practice, land and real estate are rarely registered in the woman’s name, and rental contracts for family residences are usually under a man’s name as well (Ben Salem, 2010). This makes women more vulnerable in the event of divorce, as it gives the husband control over the assets once the marriage is over under the default separate ownership regime.

Women’s entrepreneurship

There are low levels of female entrepreneurship: only 13% of Tunisian entrepreneurs are women. Trade (40%) is the main sector for female-owned businesses, followed by industry (31.4%) and services (28.6%). Some 55% of Tunisian businesswomen are sole owners of their firms, and most operate in urban areas.

Inheritance rights

Due to inheritance laws derived from Shari’a principles, women are not always entitled to inherit equal shares of land and property compared to male heirs, in line with traditional views that emphasise the importance of keeping family land and property within the patrilineal line. This leads to low levels of land ownership amongst women, which affects their ability to apply for loans that require collateral. UN HRC (2013) describes Tunisian inheritance laws as ‘profoundly unequal’. In rural areas, women who inherit land sometimes renounce their inheritance in favour of male family members to ensure that it stays within the patrilineal family (Ben Salem, 2010).
Access to employment

Labour market participation

Women account for about a quarter (27%) of the active employed population (ILO estimate, 2015). The main sectors for women’s employment are services (47.8%), manufacturing (30.77%) and agriculture (19.62%) (MFPE, 2012). Evidence shows that levels of female labour force participation are lower in regions with high unemployment rates, which suggests that many women have become discouraged from looking for work, and dropped out of the labour force (WB, 2013). Women with family responsibilities reportedly find it particularly difficult to enter the labour force, partly because they must continue to fulfill their domestic responsibilities. The proportion of married women in work in 2008 was 16% lower than the national average for women as a whole (UN HRC, 2013). Young women (15-29 years old) with tertiary education have a 90% participation rate (WB, 2013). However, the reverse is true for unemployment rates: women with lower levels of education are less likely to be unemployed than women with tertiary-level education (WB, 2013).

Discrimination in recruitment

There are reports that the extra costs arising from special measures required for women workers (e.g. nursing facilities for employers with more than 50 women employees) represent a disincentive for employers to hire women workers (EconoWin, 2013).

Unemployment

Women (22.6%) are more likely to be unemployed than men (12.5%). National unemployment has risen by approximately 19% between 2011 and 2013 (UN HRC, 2013). Unemployment is not uniformly distributed between regions and between age and gender categories; youth and women have far more trouble finding jobs than male adults (UN HRC, 2013). Women who have not completed primary education generally face lower levels of unemployment than women with tertiary-level education (WB, 2013).

Horizontal segregation

Tunisian women’s employment tends to be concentrated in a few sectors, where they work in lower-skilled positions and/or in occupations that are deemed socially acceptable for women. These include garment manufacturing, agriculture, education and health, ICT and domestic work.

Vertical Segregation

Social norms and traditional views about women’s roles and abilities are a disadvantage for women when it comes to attaining managerial positions. Nevertheless, the numbers of women in decision-making positions has increased in recent years. In 2008, only 13% of the 30 largest Tunisian companies had women on their supervisory boards, but female representation increased to 37% for executive boards. Across all sectors, Tunisian women held 10% of executive directorships. Sectors with the highest proportion of women executive directors were the beauty services and banking sectors (Singh, 2008).

Informal employment

The informal economy accounts for one third of the Tunisian economy and employs nearly 54% of its workforce (African Manager, 2014; French Embassy in Tunisia, 2012). 73.5% of workers in the informal economy are men, which represents 57.9% of the total male workforce. 41% of all women workers are employed in the informal economy (French Embassy in Tunisia, 2012).

The gender pay gap

There is a persistent gender wage gap. Women earn on average 75% of men’s wages: women’s average monthly wages are estimated at 459 TND (€ 207), compared to 615 TND (€277) for men. The 165 TND (€ 74) difference corresponds to 34% of women’s wages (ILO/CRES, 2012). Research on the distribution of salaries suggests that, while the gap between men and women is not significant for small earners (those
who earn between 200 and 400 TND (€90-180) per month), it widens as salaries increase. Moreover, far more women than men earn less than 200 TND (€90) per month (Ben Salem, 2010).

Agriculture

The agricultural sector is also an important employer of women: 32% of the agricultural workforce is female (UNDP/CAWTAR, 2010). However, most of women's employment in the sector is vulnerable. The share of women among unpaid agricultural family workers is estimated at 58% (UNDP/CAWTAR, 2010). Women working in agricultural enterprises are mostly employed as seasonal workers (Ben Salem, 2010). 38% of seasonal agricultural wage workers are women; in governorates such as Nabeul and Gabes, this proportion reaches 75-80% (UNDP/CAWTAR, 2010).

Decision Making

Representation in national parliaments, local government and the judiciary

Since 2011, there must be an equal number of men and women on electoral party lists (WB, 2013). In practice, however, few parties put women at the top of their electoral lists, which limited the impact of the reforms. As a result, the law has not yet translated into significant results for more women in Parliament and women are under-represented in top decision-making positions (UN HRC, 2013). There are ongoing reports of negative stereotyping and comments, verbal harassment, and aggressive behaviour toward women MPs (NDI, 2014).

Labour legislation/industry restrictions

Women are prohibited from working at night, i.e. for at least 12 consecutive hours that must include the period between 10pm and 6am (LC, art.66). This restriction does not apply to women working in establishments where the work involves raw materials, materials in elaboration or perishable agricultural products, women in managerial positions and women working in social services and who do not carry out manual work (LC, art.68). The Ministry of Social Affairs can modify the hours during which women are prohibited from carrying out night work or revoke the prohibition in certain sectors or professions (LC, art.68-2). It is also prohibited to employ women in underground work in mines and quarries (LC, art.77) and in the recuperation, transformation or storage of scrap metals (LC, art.78).

Decision making in households

The law establishes the husband as head of household (Personal Status Law, art.23). UN HRC (2013) considers that this legal status, combined with customs and traditional practices, entrenches the dominant decision-making role of men in their households, even though Article 23 also states that husband and wife should cooperate in family matters. In practice, husbands and male relatives often exert control over household income. For example, there are reports that women entrepreneurs are frequently pressured to turn over the management and benefits of their businesses to male family members (Ben Salem, 2010).

Table 11. Key indicators: Women and men in the Tunisian economy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour market</th>
<th>Labour force participation</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female &amp; Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(labour force as a % of population over 15 years old)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(ILO estimation, 2015)</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female &amp; Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Informal employment</strong></td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>57.9%</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of female, male and combined employed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>population who are informally employed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2009 data via French Embassy in Tunisia)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-employment</strong></td>
<td>19.8%</td>
<td>31.4%</td>
<td>28.2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of female, male and combined employed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>population who are self-employed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(WB World Development Gender Indicators, 2014)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unemployment rate (15+ years)</strong></td>
<td>22.6%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of labour force who are unemployed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Q4/2015 figures from INS)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public sector employment</strong></td>
<td>37.4%</td>
<td>62.6%</td>
<td>[100%]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of workforce that is employed by government)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Tunisian Secretariat for women and family issues (SEFF), 2014)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child labour (NB age 5-14)</strong></td>
<td>36.77%</td>
<td>63.23%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of children aged 5-14 engaged in child labour i.e. working in contravention of ILO C138 or 182) (MICS4, 2011-2012 figures)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender pay gap in the formal private sector</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Women’s average earnings as a % of men’s average earnings in the formal private sector) (via ILO/CRES, 2012)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Business</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Firms with female participation in ownership</strong></td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of all firms) (SEFF, 2013)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Bank account at formal financial institution</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% female and male population aged 15+) (World Bank Financial Inclusion Database, 2014)</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>34.1%</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loans in the past year from a financial institution</strong></td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% female and male population aged 15+) (World Bank Financial Inclusion Database, 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Government</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Representation in national parliaments</strong></td>
<td>31.34%</td>
<td>78.6%</td>
<td>[100]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) (Inter-parliamentary union 2014)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Note: See Annex I for further data on women in decision-making roles and information on parliamentary quotas)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** For further statistical data see Annex I. No data for % of women on boards.
Annex 7. Gender strategy advisory services in the Green Cities Facility

The benefits of adopting greener practices will not be achieved and sustained unless the approach incorporates the needs and concerns of both men and women. The EBRD’s experience from municipal infrastructure investments demonstrates that gender inequalities exist with regards to access to services, such as urban transport or the provision of water and the management of solid waste, which can impact upon men and women’s lives in different ways. If not provided in a customer-responsive manner, more often than not it is women who are disproportionately affected. For example, in many countries women, girls and boys often suffer harassment on public transport as a result of inadequate lighting, poor security, crowded carriages or unsuitable infrastructure. It is typically women who spend time collecting water, waiting for refuse collection etc. This is time that could otherwise be spent in employment or being involved in some form of economic activity. Importantly, women are often excluded from ‘green’ jobs due to gender-segregated employment patterns as the bulk of these jobs, such as those involving reducing energy intensity, minimizing waste, improving public transport infrastructure or retrofitting buildings are often male-dominated.

The proposed activities, which are in line with and contribute to the implementation of the Green Cities Facility aim to address multiple barriers that women face in accessing municipal services and employment opportunities by relevant service providers through a combination of the following steps:

1. Gender assessment and baseline setting
2. Technical support to service providers and municipalities to ensure greater gender equality in access to and use of municipal services and access to employment
3. Policy support to foster an enabling environment for green city investments and actions via policy dialogue on gender equality
4. Networking and learning opportunities through the Green Cities Facility’s knowledge platforms

1. **Gender assessment and baseline data setting:**

1.1. Municipal sector gender assessments that further contextualise gender profiles (Annex 5) relevant to the Facility will be developed in order to better understand the distinct vulnerabilities of women and men and ensure that the Facility’s activities address the different needs and priorities of women and men in beneficiary cities. The assessments will complement the existing profiles by providing more nuanced information on gender inequalities in terms of the sub-sectors in which the investments are envisaged.

1.2. Mainstream gender in the preparation and development of Green City Action Plans: the objective is to ensure that the planned work under GCAP (e.g. technical assessment which looks at social impacts amongst others as well as stakeholder-based prioritization) integrates the needs and priorities of men and women where relevant. The EBRD will ensure that the consultant teams contracted to prepare GCAPs include a suitably qualified social/gender expert.

1.3. At an investment level: all EBRD investments are subject to environmental, social and gender due diligence. MEI projects require systematic gender assessments within feasibility studies so as to better inform design; the requirement that all stakeholder engagement plans be gender-responsive to better inform delivery; and that corporate development plans address the needs of men and women for enhanced sustainability. It is assumed that standard due diligence, which
accompanies each investment, will in most cases be sufficient to develop a gender baseline. Should the gender assessment not be robust enough due to lack of data, which is sometimes the case especially in the area of municipal services, GCF funding will be used to undertake a detailed assessment (1.1) and to enhance the analysis.

2. **Technical support to service providers and municipalities to ensure greater gender equality in access to and use of municipal services and access to employment**

2.1. Technical support to service providers: subject to the results of the gender assessment, through its investments the EBRD will support its clients to develop a process to include gender considerations in the design and delivery of demand driven municipal services and to promote equal opportunities in Human Resources (HR) policies and practices, identify specific actions as may be appropriate and support clients with their implementation. This is to ensure greater gender equality in their HR policies and practices and in their services provision so that the Facility’s benefits are more equally distributed between men and women. This will be done through specialised technical support to clients including staff training (training will be context specific and may cover various issues from basic gender awareness of staff to more tailored ones aimed at enhancing gender responsiveness of staff in planning and delivery of services in those specific areas in which they operate, non-discrimination and sexual harassment, etc.), study tours, etc. Please see the Annex 10 for EBRD project examples.

3. **Policy dialogue on gender equality to foster an enabling environment for green city investments**

3.1. Policy support on gender equality to foster an enabling environment for green city investments: facilitating access to employment or services via direct investments is not often sufficient to economically empower women unless institutions, laws, policies and social norms allow women to access and benefit from arising economic opportunities on the same footing as men. For example, women, girls and boys often suffer harassment on public transport as a result of inadequate lighting, poor security, crowded carriages or unsuitable infrastructure. There are numerous policy issues that create impediments to equality of economic opportunities and include discriminatory laws and discriminatory norms which adversely affect women’s ability to participate in the economy; legal restrictions relating to women’s working hours and the professions women can pursue or the absence of legislation, which penalises all forms of harassment or gender-based violence in the work place and public spaces, which affect women’s rights and capabilities. For example, women in many countries across the world including in 6 countries of the Facility’s region face some sort of legal barrier to employment, such as partial or complete employment bans in a number of occupations\(^{15}\), or restrictions on working hours, sectors and occupations that limit the range of jobs that women can hold and which lead to occupational segregation and women’s confinement to low-paying sectors and activities. Most of these industries with employment bans for women are also the highest paid, which further exacerbates existing gender pay gap.

\(^{15}\) such as mining or construction, jobs requiring lifting objects above a certain weight, jobs considered too hazardous for women, jobs considered too arduous or morally inappropriate for women
In order to be effective in achieving ‘greener’ practices, diverse groups of citizens, women and men alike, need to be able to fully participate in and benefit from the Green Cities investments. The Facility proposes to provide policy support to foster an enabling environment for the Green Cities investments via policy dialogue on gender equality and women’s economic empowerment. In line with the anticipated pipeline and the results of the GCAP assessment, the EBRD will engage in policy dialogue with relevant stakeholders at national, regional and municipal levels. Key themes for policy dialogue might include safe transport for all and increasing their awareness of gender-specific needs in transport; the importance of incorporating gender concerns into the design and delivery of municipal services; including provision of inclusive transport, water, waste water services and district heating and cooling systems.

4. Networking and learning opportunities through the Green Cities Facility’s knowledge platforms

4.1. The Facility, as part of Component 3 (see Section C.3), provides knowledge building opportunities to share best practice amongst the Facility's beneficiaries and to tap into a larger network of urban sustainability initiatives and associated stakeholders. Gender will be mainstreamed into the activities provided under Component 3. Events such as an annual Green Cities forum will include panels and discussions focused on the gender challenges cities face, while providing beneficiary cities a chance to share their experience of incorporating gender considerations into the design of GCAPs and green city investments. GCAPs will also feature stakeholder engagement and capacity building workshops, where gender can be an area of discussion. Within the wider Global Platform for Sustainable Cities, the Facility’s efforts on gender will be a valuable example to bring to international forums, where the Facility can demonstrate how integrating gender considerations can contribute to urban sustainability objectives.

Reporting and evaluation:
Assessing and reporting the progress towards the objectives of this Facility will require ongoing monitoring to be carried out by a consultant (most likely to be housed in the EBRD) with close supervision of the EBRD’s Gender team. The activities and results of the Gender Advisory Services programme will be reported annually to the GCF as a part of EBRD’s regular reporting responsibilities. The EBRD will be responsible for providing information in line with the indicators and targets described in the Facility’s Gender Action Plan in Annex 8. The proposed results framework will be revisited and further refined based on the lessons learned from the first interventions and as and when needed. The reporting timing and format will be agreed with the GCF upon approval of this proposal.
Annex 8. Gender Action Plan: Gender Advisory Services activities and expected results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact Statement:</strong></td>
<td>Gender considerations integrated in EBRD clients’ business delivery (municipalities and municipal service providers) in terms of (a) access to employment in the clients’ workforce and (b) access to and use of gender-sensitive municipal infrastructure and services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcome Statement:</strong></td>
<td>EBRD municipal clients (a) ensure they are equal opportunities employers and provide gender sensitive infrastructure and services, (b) participate in policy dialogue activities to enhance women’s access to employment and access to services and (c) enhance learning in the area of promoting gender equality in access to services and employment through information sharing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output 1:</strong> Gender Analysis: Sector specific country-level gender assessments GCAP gender-sensitive public consultations and gender-sensitive pre-investment due diligence:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Municipal sector gender assessments will be undertaken to better understand the different needs and perspectives of women and men in terms of access to services and infrastructure (by sector) and relevant recommendations will be made to address them in beneficiary cities.</td>
<td>Number of gender assessments developed.</td>
<td>On a rolling basis within eight months from the signing of the ‘trigger project’</td>
<td>EBRD Consultant with support from local stakeholders funded by GCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Findings of the gender assessments will be presented and discussed at country-level multi-stakeholder workshops and will help develop recommendations on the design of the GCAPs</td>
<td>Number of multi-stakeholder workshops held</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of participants at the multi-stakeholder workshops</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enhanced understanding of different needs and priorities of men and women in each city of intervention to inform the design of policy dialogue and investment activities (data to be obtained through Workshop Evaluation Forms)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on the findings of the gender assessments:</td>
<td>Number and % of women and men attending GCAP public consultations;</td>
<td>(i) On a rolling basis, as public consultations</td>
<td>EBRD GCAP and Gender consultants funded by GCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Public consultations held to prepare GCAPs will</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
be gender-sensitive.16

(ii) GCAPs developed will include gender considerations

Concerns and questions raised by women and men are documented and addressed in GCAP, where appropriate.

Evidence of gender reflected in social analysis undertaken for the preparation of GCAP (evidenced in GCAP technical assessments and stakeholder-based prioritisation).

Gender assessments will be undertaken for all investments in pre-investment due diligence (i.e. within feasibility studies, environmental and social due diligence, stakeholder engagement) and will:

(i) Identify any investment-specific potential gender adverse impacts and develop measures to mitigate17 them; evidence of the assessments delivered as part of the due diligence.

(ii) Collect and present sex-disaggregated employment statistics of the service provider companies (e.g. number and % of women and men both in absolute terms and across positions).

(iii) Analyse the infrastructure and services provision of the service provider companies from a gender perspective.

Number of pre-investment due diligence deliverables (reports or other) that include a gender assessment, sex-disaggregated employment statistics and an analysis of gender-sensitive service provision

On a rolling basis, at the time of the pre-investment due diligence

EBRD’s E&S consultants who undertake Environment and Social Due diligence for each investment funded by GCF

EBRD Gender Consultant funded by GCF

---

16 Both GCAP and project-level public consultations will ensure adequate information dissemination including modifying “standard” approach in terms of the format of the consultations (timing/location/language) as and when needed in order to ensure that both men and women end users are reached through the appropriate communications channels.

17 In addition to the mitigation of potential gender adverse impacts in all GCF-supported investments, these gender assessments undertaken during pre-investment phase are expected to identify opportunities to enhance positive gender impact of projects by promoting gender equality with respect to access to services and employment (See the output 2 below)
Output 2: Gender Advisory Services provided to service providers and municipalities to promote gender equality in their operations (both in terms of gender-sensitive service provision and women’s access to employment)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>At the investment level, based on the findings of the pre-investment gender assessment Technical Co-operation (TC) programmes will be designed and implemented to support municipal service providers promote equal access to employment for women and men in their respective workforce</th>
<th>Up to 4 investments in the Facility introduce a gender component to promote women’s access to employment in the relevant sub-sector.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number and % of women and men (employees as well as future recruits of the service provider companies) benefiting from capacity building and training opportunities provided by the Facility.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number and % of people trained is women (to be benchmarked against the baseline).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved HR policies and practices with respect to gender (e.g. gender action plans approved and implemented by the service providers; improved/new HR policies and practices) (evidence provided by the clients).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased female representation in the service providers’ workforce, both in absolute terms and across positions including high skilled roles that are male-dominated such as drivers and technical maintenance (% - to be benchmarked against baseline).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On a rolling basis, as sub-projects come through</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBRD Consultant funded by GCF</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
At the investment level, based on the findings of the pre-investment gender assessment Technical Co-operation (TC) programmes will be designed and implemented to support municipal service providers introduce gender-responsive infrastructure and services. Up to 4 investments in the Facility introduce a gender component in the area of gender-sensitive infrastructure and services. On a rolling basis, as sub-projects come through EBRD Consultant funded by GCF

| Number of recommendations provided to municipal service providers implemented | Improved infrastructure design and service delivery that integrates gender considerations (measured against the baseline data collected during the pre-investment due diligence and recommendations provided). |

Output 3: Policy dialogue activities to help foster an enabling environment to realise women’s economic opportunities

| Areas for future policy dialogue activities to promote women’s economic opportunities identified | Number of relevant policy dialogue roadmaps produced | Increased awareness of relevant |

Where and as applicable, the EBRD will work closely with eligible clients on policy dialogue activities to improve the regulatory and policy environment with a view to promoting women’s economic opportunities. Specifically the EBRD will support eligible sub-project clients to:

(i) Based on findings from the gender assessments and through advisory services support, undertake a legal, regulatory and policy review at sub-

| By the Facility’s end date | EBRD supported by the EBRD Consultant funded by GCF |

---

18 Recommendations will be based on the results of the gender assessment and may include but not be limited to the following: design transport infrastructure with gender-responsive physical design features; improve mobility and safety for all passengers, men and women alike who were less mobile/immobile due to unsafe/inconvenient transport; amend transport schedules and payment arrangements considering different travel patterns of women and men (off-peak hours, less affordability, etc.) (transport); Accessibility and design of solid waste collection points so that they meet the needs of both men and women (solid waste); to provide lay-out of streets, pedestrian areas and traffic control mechanisms that enhance personal safety and provide harassment-free and accessible public space for all, men and women (street lighting); to consider access, use and affordability questions in the delivery of water and wastewater infrastructure as well as district heating services for the most vulnerable groups of population (poor, female-headed households, etc.). Ensure that mechanisms to receive inquiries and complaints are designed to accommodate the needs of both men and women customers, reflecting their respective preferences in terms of channels for filing complaints (such as telephone hotline, mail or in person meetings) (water and sanitation, district heating as well as the rest of the municipal service providers). This is neither a comprehensive nor an accurate list of recommendations that will be applicable to all service providers but rather some of the indicative actions that may be recommended (alongside others) in line with the results of the gender assessment.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Output 4: Networking and learning opportunities through the Green Cities Facility’s knowledge platforms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enhance knowledge and learning of EBRD clients by providing knowledge building opportunities to integrate gender considerations in green city planning and investment, through:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) <strong>Green Cities forums where gender will be the focus of panels, workshops and discussions. An annual forum will include the Facility’s beneficiaries, potential future beneficiary city representatives, city representatives from beyond the Facility’s region and representatives from international and national organisations focused on sustainable urban development.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) <strong>Provision of gender focused capacity building workshops, facilitated through the development process for Green City Action Plans</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of panels and discussions focusing on gender held in association with an annual Green Cities forum</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of gender focused capacity building workshops conducted as a part of the GCAP process</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of gender professionals engaged through the Global Platform for Sustainable Cities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At the time of the delivery of workshops, on a rolling basis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(iii) Inclusion of gender topics and discussions as a part of the Global Platform for Sustainable Cities events
Annex 9. Indicative budget for the Gender Action Plan

**DIRECT EXPENSES**

The Fees section reflects all the consultancy work required to deliver all four outputs

1. **Fees (Remuneration):**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Titles</th>
<th>In the Field (days)</th>
<th>In Home Office (days)</th>
<th>Expert Rate</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Project managers</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>180,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior consultants</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>340,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior consultants</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>249,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facility support (mid-level)</td>
<td>This is a lump sum for the Facility’s duration (5 years)</td>
<td></td>
<td>130,000</td>
<td>130,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Fees** | 899,000 |

2. **Per Diem Allowance:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Per Diem</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In countries participating in the GrCF</td>
<td>240 (80 visits x three nights)</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>18,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Per Diem** | 18,000 |

**REIMBURSABLE EXPENSES**

3. **Air Travel: (Full Economy Class or Equivalent)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Routing</th>
<th>Air Fare</th>
<th>No. of Flights</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To and from the consultants’ origin and clients’ destination</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>36,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Air Travel** | 36,000 |

4. **Local Travel**

(Travel from home to departure airport and return, and reasonable local travel when abroad)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of travel</th>
<th>Cost</th>
<th>Number of journeys</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local travel</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Airport pick up/drop off</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Local Travel** | 8,700 |

5. Knowledge sharing platform, workshop,
### Knowledge Products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of a Product</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Fee</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workshops</td>
<td>3 workshops (regional)</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>120,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting materials for knowledge building activities</td>
<td></td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total knowledge sharing</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>150,000</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Miscellaneous:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Comment</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visas</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation/translation</td>
<td>Translation of all project documentation into local languages</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
<td>Communication costs incurred locally</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Miscellaneous Expenses</td>
<td>Any other miscellaneous costs that cannot be foreseen at this stage</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Miscellaneous Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>54,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Other

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. Contingencies</th>
<th></th>
<th>84,300</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contingencies, utilisation only after prior approval by the EBRD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total** EUR 1,250,000.00
Annex 10. Case studies on the promotion of gender equality in green city investments

EBRD’s urban infrastructure projects, which have incorporated gender, have covered sub-sectors such as urban planning, solid waste, water, public transport and district heating. The below includes projects already undertaken and those that are currently being implemented.

**Sfantu Gheorghe Street and Lighting Rehabilitation Project, Romania, 2010-11**

The Sfantu Gheorghe Municipality Project entailed modernisation of streets and public lighting in the centre of Sfantu Gheorghe in Romania. Gender issues investigated included the different travel patterns of men and women, access to transport provision, safety priorities and convenience issues. The objective of the gender assignment was to identify how and where the investment plans, with respect to the rehabilitation of the roads, lay out of streets and pedestrian areas and street lighting could be adapted to better take into account the respective needs and priorities of men and women in Sfantu Gheorghe. Based on the recommendations, the project design and sequencing was altered so as to take into account the priorities and needs of women and men at no additional financial cost to the client.

**Bishkek Water Project, Kyrgyz Republic, 2010-11**

The Project comprised of a sovereign loan to the Kyrgyz Republic for on-lending to the Bishkek Water Company. This was the first EBRD financing of a municipal operation in the Kyrgyz Republic. The investment involved the rehabilitation or replacement of the network and pumping infrastructure of the Bishkek Water Company as the system faces problems of interruption of supply, poor quality of drinking water and low cost recovery. The gender analysis identified differences in water use and consumption, perception of water quality as well as access to water sources. For example, women were more concerned with the quality of water while men valued permanent supply over quality. Recommended activities included strengthening the water company’s capacity to take into account gender differences when developing services, increasing women’s employment opportunities in the company, and designing and delivering a gender-differentiated communication strategy.

**Bishkek Public Transport Project, Kyrgyz Republic, 2010-11**

The Project involved improving the public transport system of Bishkek by introducing new trolleybuses and an automated fare collection system, and providing advice for restructuring the institutional and regulatory framework of public transport in Bishkek. The gender analysis assessed how men and women use public transport and their respective priorities and concerns. Based on the findings, the public transport company included the purchase of low-floor trolleybuses to allow easier access for passengers with prams and shopping bags, especially for women. The client made significant progress in incorporating the recommendations throughout its operations. Highlight progress includes (i) creation and support of a Women’s Committee responsible for auctioning the recommendations; (ii) trolleybus procurement tailored to needs of women and vulnerable populations; (iii) improved HR policy and practice, specifically aimed at supporting women employees; (iv) dedicated gender training including topic of workplace harassment; (v) workplace infrastructure improved to address women’s needs including building women’s shower and locker room, and (vi) operations policy updated to account for women’s needs and preferences including increased frequency of trolleybus arrivals/ reduction in waiting times; increased number of routes servicing larger parts of the city, etc.
Ivano Frankivsk District Heating Project, Ukraine, 2011-12

The investment involved priority capital expenditure programme for the Ivano Frankivsk District Heating Company in Ukraine, aimed at reducing energy losses, gas and electricity consumption and improving the quality of service of the heat and hot-water supply system. During the preparation phase EBRD and Sweden’s SIDA, which co-financed the investment, agreed with the Ivano Frankivsk District Heating Company to incorporate a gender component in its Corporate Business Plan and Customer Communication Strategy. Recommendations were made and actions agreed with respect to the Corporate Strategy. This included changing the language used in documents, revising the mission statement so as to include gender equality standards, addressing gender balance in the company work force and analysing the gender impact on tariff increases. In addition, the client agreed to pay more attention to gender, namely by making more effort to communicate with women since they are mainly responsible for paying the bills and more prone than men to raise complaints about poor levels of service.

Bishkek Municipal Advisory Services, Kyrgyz Republic, 2012-13

The objective of the advisory services was to help the City of Bishkek make services more demand driven and to improve human resource policies and practices both from an equal opportunities and commercially focused perspective. The gender assignment comprised of three components, which included developing processes to include gender considerations in the design and delivery of demand driven municipal services; promoting equal opportunities in HR policies and practices and adopting an approach for gender responsive budgeting and capacity building to deliver demand driven and customer response services. The assignment culminated in a three-day seminar, organised by EBRD, which brought together key staff of the Municipality and Bishkekvodakanal (Water), Tazalyk (Solid Waste) and the Trolley Bus Company to equip them with the latest tools, based on best international practice, focusing on employment policies and international human resource management practices, as well as inclusive service provision of water, solid waste and transport services.

Istanbul Ferries Project, Turkey, 2011 - 14

The investment involved privatisation of the municipally-owned Istanbul Deniz Otobusleri (IDO) in Turkey, which is one of the world’s largest commuter ferry companies. One of the aspects of The EBRD’s involvement in the privatisation was its support for equal opportunities at the Company. During the Project’s due diligence The EBRD identified that there were very few women working in the company. Of the 626 direct employees only 17 were women, all working in the office. It was agreed to take measures to promote international best HR practices and policies regarding equal opportunities and provide specific recommendations for the IDO to consider with respect to its own HR practices and policies with a view to improving the ratio of women not only in absolute terms but across different positions. As a result, IDO started implementing the recommendations. For example, IDO amended its management Policy and drafted a new sub-policy of “Diversity and Equality of opportunity”. Further improvements in the area of equal opportunities included improved communication methods in order to inform employees of the Company’s ongoing efforts in the area of equal opportunities. In 2013, the Company signed protocols with a number of Turkish universities agreeing to offer internships to young graduates in the Company and provided internship places to both female and male graduates. Furthermore, IDO joined the “Equality at Work platform”, a platform
established as part of the efforts of a task force formed under the umbrella of the World Economic Forum. Also, the Company signed up to a Gender Equality Certification program of Kagider, a Women Entrepreneurs Association in Turkey, and got certified after having met the criteria in the area of equal opportunities.

**District Heating projects in Kyzylorda, Aktau and Semei, Kazakhstan, 2014**
The assessment identified potential gender aspects and priorities in connection with district heating and other sources of heating in three projects in Kazakhstan. These projects were identified under the CTF (Clean Technology Fund) approved project frameworks. The study covered various aspects, such as preferred source of heating, the quality of district heating services and different interests in consumption-based energy regulation. The recommendations were made to include gender analysis in the feasibility studies of all future DH projects; conduct extensive consultations with both men and women residents; consider new payment modalities for low income households including female-headed households, and to promote employment in the provision of district heating services.

**Almaty Bus Sector reform, Kazakhstan, 2013-15**
The objectives of this programme were to (i) promote international best HR practices and policies regarding equal opportunities in the Almatyelectrotrans and (ii) provide training and appropriate support to enable women to become bus drivers at Almatyelectrotrans, leading to their subsequent employment in the Company. EBRD project team worked with the Client to identify legal barriers that prevent women from driving buses and engaged in policy dialogue with the authorities to demonstrate the business case for amending the existing licensing system, which was an obstacle to women's employment as bus drivers. It also mobilised donor funding to work with the Company to put in place a defined approach to human resources and equal opportunities, with a specific focus on addressing the existing gender gap. As a result of the policy dialogue, the Government of Kazakhstan issued an administrative order on a pilot basis permitting trolleybus drivers to become bus drivers. Further to that, the Company recruited first three female bus drivers. To showcase the importance that equality of opportunity represents both in terms of staffing and client service, a visit funded by the TaiwanBusiness-EBRD Technical Cooperation Fund allowed officials from Almatyelectrotrans to meet counterparts in Taipei and learn best practices in human resources and customer service. Also, The EBRD organised a regional event in Almaty, together with UNDP, on equal opportunities and public transport bringing together key stakeholders.

**Osh Public Transport Project, Kyrgyz Republic, 2015- present**
In 2015 EBRD developed a Gender Advisory Services Programme for the Osh Public Transport Company after pre-investment due diligence revealed that only 20 of the Company’s 236 workforce were women and that only one of the company’s 164 drivers was female. The Company expressed an interest in receiving Bank support to recruit more female drivers and to also make its services more responsive to the needs of all of its passengers, including women. Since the start of this programme, EBRD-supported consultants’ team has undertaken a number of activities, which included a training session to bring together key staff from the City administration and the Company to look at the following: (i) how gender perspectives can be incorporated into HR management with a view to increasing employment opportunities for women; and (ii) transport service delivery. Further to the workshop, the programme finalised an in-depth situational analysis on equal opportunity in the workplace at the Company and on gender-sensitive and inclusive service delivery, based on which a
set of recommendations has been developed. The recommendations have focused on recruiting female bus and trolley bus drivers as they are currently the most underrepresented at the Company. In cooperation with the recently established Equal Opportunities working group, EBRD Project team is currently drafting an Equal Opportunities action plan based on the study findings and recommendations. In addition, five employees from Osh Public Transport Company and the Osh Municipality have recently joined municipal transport companies from Tajikistan to take part in a four-day study tour in Taipei in April 2016, which allowed the participants to directly experience the results of public transport sector best practice in the fields of equal opportunity, workforce management and occupational health and safety, and to further cement the progress that The EBRD and the Osh authorities are making in this area.

I References for the Albania gender profile

Statistics
- Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2014, Women in national parliaments: www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm

Reports, Articles, books, websites
- Gender Alliance for Development Center (GADC), 2010, Shadow Report on the implementation of the CEDAW Convention in Albania: www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/ngos/GADC_Albania_46.pdf
• Institute for Democracy and Mediation (IDM)/ Gender Alliance for Development Centre (GADC), 2010, Empowering Albanian rural women: http://idmalbania.org/sites/default/files/publications/empowering_albanian_rural_woman_economic_and_social_perspectives.pdf


• International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC), 2010, Internationally Recognised Core Labour Standards in Albania: www.ituc-csi.org/IMG/pdf/Final_Albania_cls_report.pdf


• OECD, 2012, Social Institutions & Gender Index, Albania: http://genderindex.org/country/albania


• UN Women, 2011, Gender wage gap in Albania: www.unfem.sk/uploads/doc/GenderWageGapReport_Albania_EN.PDF


• USAID, 2011, Property Rights and Resource Governance, Albania: http://usaidlandtenure.net/sites/default/files/country-profiles/full-reports/USAID_Land_Tenure_Albania_Profile_0.pdf


ii References for the Armenia gender profile

Statistics


• ILO, Key Indicators of the Labour Market (KILM): http://kilm.ilo.org/KILMnetBeta/default2.asp

• ILOSTAT: http://www.iло.org/ilostat

• International Parliamentary Union (IPU), 2014, Women in Parliament: www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm


• MDG Monitor: http://www.mdgmonitor.org/index.cfm

• UNECE Gender Statistics: http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/?lang=1


World Bank, World Development Indicators Database: http://data.worldbank.org/country/tajikistan#cp_wdi

World Bank / IFC Enterprise Survey, 2013: www.enterprisesurveys.org/data/exploreTopics/Gender

World Bank Financial Inclusion Database (WB Findex), Armenia: http://datatopics.worldbank.org/financialinclusion/country/armenia

Reports, Articles, books, websites


OECD, 2012, Social Institutions and Gender Index – Armenia: http://genderindex.org/country/armenia


References for the FYR Macedonia gender profile

Statistics

ILOSTAT: http://www.ilo.org/ilostat

• UNECE Gender Statistics: http://w3.unece.org/pxweb/?lang=1
• World Bank Gender Database: http://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/
• World Bank, World Development Indicators Database: http://data.worldbank.org/country/tajikistan#cp_wdi
• World Bank / IFC Enterprise Survey, 2013: www.enterprisesurveys.org/data/exploreTopics/Gender

Reports, Articles, books, websites
• Cozzarelli, Catherine, 2010, Gender Assessment for USAID/FYROM, Washington, D.C., USAID
• UN CEDAW, 2013, Concluding observations on the combined fourth and fifth periodic reports of The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia adopted by the Committee at its fifty fourth session (11 February – 1 March 2013): http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/co/CEDAW.C.MKD.CO.4-5.pdf

iv References for the Georgia gender profile

International treaties

Statistics
• Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2014, Database of Women in National Parliaments: www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm
• OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI), Georgia, 2014: http://www.genderindex.org/sites/default/files/datasheets/GE.pdf
• World Bank, World Development Indicators Database: [http://data.worldbank.org/country/morocco#cp_wdi](http://data.worldbank.org/country/morocco#cp_wdi)

References for the Jordan gender profile

National Laws
- Decree issued by the Minister of Labour concerning the Occupations and Times for which Women may not be hired pursuant to Article 69 of the Labour Code No.8 of 1996, 2010 (unofficial English translation).

Statistics
  - Employees by Economic Activity, Nationality and Sex for Year 2011 for Both Public and Private Sectors, 2014.
  - Percentage Distribution of Employed Jordanians Age (15+) Years by Employment Status and Sex, 2013: [www.dos.gov.jo/dos_home_a/jorfig/2012/5_2.pdf](http://www.dos.gov.jo/dos_home_a/jorfig/2012/5_2.pdf)
- UNHCR, Jordan – Statistics: [http://reporting.unhcr.org/node/2549](http://reporting.unhcr.org/node/2549)

Reports, articles, books, websites
- Jordanian National Commission for Women (JNCW), National Strategy for Women in Jordan 2012-2015, 2012: www.women.jo/admin/document%D9%85%D9%84%D8%AE%D8%B5%20%D9%8A%87%D9%84%D8%A7%D8%B3%8A%D8%B1%87%D8%AA%9D%8A%8D%AC%9D%8A%8D%9A%20-%20%D8%A7%D9%86%D8%AC%D9%84%D9%8A%D8%B2%D9%8A.pdf
- Jordanian Women’s Union (JWU) and CEDAW Coalition, Jordan Shadow NGO Report – Submitted to CEDAW Committee, 2012: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/bodies/cedaw/docs/ngos/JordanianCoalitionforthesession.pdf
- OECD Social Institutions & Gender Index (SIGI), Jordan, 2012: http://genderindex.org/country/jordan
- UN High Commissioner on Refugees (UNHCR), “Jordan study finds tough living conditions among Syrian urban and other non-camp refugees”, 2014a: www.unhcr.org/532821556.html

vi References for the Moldova gender profile

Statistics

• International Parliamentary Union (IPU), 2014, Women in Parliament: www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm
• UNECE Gender Statistics: http://w3.unesc.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE__03-WorkAndeconomy/017_en_GE_GPG2_r.px/table/tableViewLayout1/?rxid=57b6d944-8732-4639-96c9-9584d511039c
• World Bank Gender Database: http://datatopics.worldbank.org/selected/
• World Bank, World Development Indicators Database: http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/all
• World Bank / IFC Enterprise Survey, 2013: www.enterprisesurveys.org/data/exploreTopics/Gender

Reports, Articles, books, websites


References for the Mongolia gender profile Statistics

- ILOSTAT, Mongolia: [www.ILO/IloStat/faces/home/statisticaldata/data_by_country/country-details?country=MNG&afrLoop=110877208713215#%40%3F_afrLoop%3D110877208713215%26country%253D%2%MNG%26_adf.ctr-state%3Dsip9juny_747](http://www.ILO/IloStat/faces/home/statisticaldata/data_by_country/country-details?country=MNG&afrLoop=110877208713215#%40%3F_afrLoop%3D110877208713215%26country%253D%2%MNG%26_adf.ctr-state%3Dsip9juny_747)
- www.icnl.org/research/journal/vol15iss1/art_4.html#_ftnref5


World Bank (WB), 2010a, *Managing Urban Expansion in Mongolia*: [https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10988/2464550280/PUB0Urba100Box34943B01PUBLIC1.pdf?sequence=1](https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10988/2464550280/PUB0Urba100Box34943B01PUBLIC1.pdf?sequence=1)

viii References for Serbia gender profile

Reports, Articles, books, websites

- Avlijas (2013). Gender pay gap in the Western Balkan countries: evidence from Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia. FREN – Foundation for the Advancement of Economics.

ix References for Tunisia gender profile

Legislation - National Laws


Statistics

- ILOSTAT Database, Tunisia: http://www.ilo.org/ilostat/faces/home/statisticaldata/data_by_country/country-details?country=TUN&afrLoop=156400423570683%26%40%3F_afrLoop%3D156400423570683%26country%3DTUN%26_adf.ctrl-state%3Dy3n0ukg86_502

Reports, articles, books, websites

## Gender Action Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Budget</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the Achievement of Targets</th>
<th>Potential Risk and Barriers in the Delivery of Targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Output 1. Battery Energy Storage System in Tongatapu</td>
<td>• During design and implementation, all community consultations will have a target of at least 50% female participation, including women only consultations in all the sites (baseline: 0)</td>
<td>Q2 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>USD 4,000 (estimated)</td>
<td>Implementing Agency (TPL) and through SGS during implementation</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated data of attendees in semi-annual GAP progress reports</td>
<td>Community stakeholders such as village chiefs may not see gender as a priority and discourage women only consultations</td>
<td>In addition to SGS, female members to the project team will assist in community consultation, information and training activities and ensure separate women meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Requirement for contractors to hire at least 20% women in both technical and non-technical work <strong>(baseline: 0)</strong></td>
<td>Q3 2018 - Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated pay sheets</td>
<td>Contractor considers it is hard to source women</td>
<td>Advertisements should encourage women to apply and head hunt if necessary through community leaders/chiefs and women’s NGOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Provide toilet and sanitation facilities for men and women, separately if necessary* Ensure women-friendly design by providing reliable water supply, proper lock and lighting (baseline: 0)</td>
<td>Q3 2018 - Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visits and site maps include separate male and female toilets</td>
<td>This requirement will be included in the contract.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Ensure equal pay for equal work between male and female workers</td>
<td>Q3 2018-Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated pay sheets</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Output 2: Grid-connected renewable energy generation on 'Eua and Vava'u islands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirement</th>
<th>Time Frame</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Action Details</th>
<th>Responsible Party</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 - Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor's budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During design and implementation, all community consultations will have a target of at least 50% female participation, including women only consultations (baseline: 0)</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>USD 4,000 (estimated)</td>
<td>Implementing Agency (TPL) and through SGS during implementation</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated data of attendees in semi-annual progress reports</td>
<td>In addition to SGS, female member to the project team will assist in community consultation, information and training activities and ensure separate women meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q3 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output 3: Renewable - based hybrid system and mini-grids on outer islands.</td>
<td>· Ensure equal pay for equal work between male and female workers</td>
<td>Q4 2018 – Q2 2020</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated paysheets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· During design and implementation, all community consultations will have a target of at least 50% female participation, including women only consultations in all the sites (baseline: 0)</td>
<td>Q2 2017 – Q1 2021 -</td>
<td>USD 8,000 (estimated)</td>
<td>Implementing Agencies (TPL and MEIDECC) and through SGS during implementation</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated data of attendees in reports</td>
<td>Community stakeholders such as village chiefs may not see gender as a priority and discourage women only consultations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Requirement for the contractor to hire 20% women in both technical and non-technical work**</td>
<td>Q1 2019 – Q1 2021</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated paysheets</td>
<td>Contractor considers it is hard to source women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Provide support to women such as toilet and sanitation facilities and separately if required.* Ensure women-friendly design by providing reliable water supply, proper lock and lighting</td>
<td>Q1 2019 – Q1 2021</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visits and site maps include separate male and female toilets</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>· Ensure equal pay for equal work between male and female workers</td>
<td>Q1 2019 – Q1 2021</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated paysheets</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output 4: Capacity Building and Project Management Support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job</td>
<td>Q1 2019 – Q1 2021</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Prioritize the electricity connection of at least 10% women headed households and businesses</td>
<td>By Q1 2021</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor with supervision from TPL</td>
<td>Records of newly connected households with verification on women-headed households/businesses</td>
<td>No issue is foreseen unless no women-headed households/businesses are present in the project area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Enhance community electric societies’ management capacities through facilitation of inclusion of at least 30% women in Electric Management Committees (baseline: 0)</td>
<td>Q2-Q4 2018</td>
<td>MEIDECC and TPL operating budget</td>
<td>All the tasks to be implemented by the Implementing Agency through the SGS</td>
<td>Report from sexual harassment awareness training. Sexual harassment policy</td>
<td>Lack of full participation from staff. This will be a mandated requirement by MEIDECC, TPL and contractor management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Provide yearly business skills training on income opportunities from increased electricity supply with 50% women participation in each of the project sites** (baseline:0)</td>
<td>Q4 2018 – Q4 2021</td>
<td>USD 6,000 (estimated)</td>
<td>Principal contractor /TPL</td>
<td>Sex disaggregated data of trainees in reports</td>
<td>Contractor reports difficulty sourcing interested women. Require liaison with community chief/leaders and women’s NGOs to source interested women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• A minimum of 30% women in key decision-making committees for the project</td>
<td>Q4 2018</td>
<td>No budget required.</td>
<td>Implementing Agency - TPL</td>
<td>Key reports listing committee members</td>
<td>Lack of community enthusiasm or interest to include women. Women membership will be made as a requirement in forming project committees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Include training on intrahousehold decision-making and sharing household labor, financial access and control with indicators to be built into the monitoring and evaluation framework to track women's and men's perceptions and behavior on economic and personal empowerment measures before, and after business skills trainings</td>
<td>Q4 2018 – Q4 2021</td>
<td>USD 5,000 (estimated)</td>
<td>SGS to lead the perception study and engage an expert to assist</td>
<td>Perception study report pre-project, during project and on project completion Training reports</td>
<td>Lack of cooperation from the communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conduct at least 2 consumers' training on power budget management with a minimum of 50% female participation for each of the project community** (baseline: 0)</td>
<td>Q4 2018 – Q4 2021</td>
<td>USD 5,000 (estimated)</td>
<td>Implementing Agency (TPL and MEIDECC) and through SGS and qualified trainer to be engaged</td>
<td>Training reports with sex disaggregated data</td>
<td>Difficulty sourcing interested women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conduct annual workshop with a minimum of 30% female participation on demand side management for community electric societies' customers (Ha'apai and Niuafo'ou)**</td>
<td>Q4 2018 – Q4 2021</td>
<td>Contractor’s budget</td>
<td>Principal contractor</td>
<td>Workshop participant reports with sex disaggregated data</td>
<td>Contractor reports difficulty sourcing interested women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conduct at least 2 trainings per year on project planning and asset management maintenance for MEIDECC, TPL staff and the community electric societies (Ha’apai and Niuafo’ou) with a minimum of 30% female participants.</td>
<td>2018 -2021</td>
<td>USD 8,000 (estimated)</td>
<td>Resource Persons from TPL or qualified training to be engaged by TPL</td>
<td>Training reports with sex disaggregated data</td>
<td>Contractor reports difficulty sourcing interested women</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- Conduct workshop in the beginning of the project with a minimum of 30% female participants from MEIDECC and TPL staff on procurement, anticorruption and safeguards.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Timeframe</th>
<th>Responsible Agency</th>
<th>ADB Working Budget</th>
<th>Notes/Reminders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conduct workshop in the beginning of the project with a minimum of 30% female participants from MEIDECC and TPL staff on procurement, anticorruption and safeguards</td>
<td>Q3 2018</td>
<td>MEIDECC and TPL</td>
<td>ADB working closely with MEIDECC and TPL</td>
<td>Workshop participant reports with sex disaggregated data. None or lacking interested women participation. Women participation from MEIDECC and TPL to be mandated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Train the Implementing Agency in collecting sex disaggregated data and include in the progress, monitoring and evaluation reports</td>
<td>Q3 2018</td>
<td>SGS or expert to be engaged by MEIDECC</td>
<td>Training report and all progress, monitoring and evaluation reports</td>
<td>Lack of application of trainings in the report submission. Mandated requirement of reporting, if not included, reports need to be resubmitted with required information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (*) Based on the experience from existing project, not all sites may require separate toilets for men and women due to very limited number of women staff (1-2 part-time staff). (**) Priorities will be given to women headed households. A Social Development and Gender Specialist (SGS) will be engaged to assist the implementing agency in implementing and monitoring GAP implementation and providing capacity building activities. In addition to the Specialist, there will be at least one female member to the project team in charge of community consultation, information and training activities. A project brief will be held among traditional women and men leaders on the project including gender targets and their rationale. A dedicated semi-annual GAP progress and monitoring report will be submitted with gap performance indicators disaggregated by gender. Project performance reporting and annual reports will also collect and include gender disaggregated data.

1 The estimated budget to implement the activities of the GAP will be made available by the Government and the Contractor as part of their legal commitment to the project. Other activities will be funded by existing MEIDECC or TPL operational budget.
Initial Poverty and Social Analysis

Project No. 49450-012
March 2018

TON: Renewable Energy Project

The Initial Poverty and Social Analysis is a document of the borrower. The views expressed herein do not necessarily represent those of ADB’s Board of Directors, Management or staff, and may be preliminary in nature.

In preparing any country programme or strategy, financing any project, or by making any designation of or reference to a particular territory or geographic area in this document, the Asian Development Bank does not intend to make any judgments as to the legal or other status of any territory or area.
Poverty, Social and Gender Assessment
Tonga Renewable Energy Project

## CONTENTS

1. Introduction  
   1.1 Purpose and Rationale of the Poverty, Social and Gender Assessment  

2. Background  
   2.1 Country overview  
   2.2 Population and Ethnicity  

3. Poverty Assessment  
   3.1 National Economic Development  
   3.2 Poverty status  
   3.3 Employment  

4. Social Context in Tonga  
   4.1 Education  
   4.2 Health  
   4.3 Gender based violence  
   4.4 Civil society partnerships  

5. Gender specific issues  
   5.1 Institutional framework for gender  

6. Disability specific issues  

7. Sector specific issues  
   7.1 Climate change and disaster risk reduction  
   7.2 Energy  
   7.2.1 Energy, poverty and social issues  
   7.2.2 Women in the energy sector  
   7.2.3 Regional networks/mandates on gender and energy in the Pacific  
   7.2.4 National policy on energy  
   7.2.5 Solar and wind initiatives in the Pacific  

Project Gender Action Plan Summary  

Annex 1: Summary Poverty and Social Strategy  
Annex 2: References
1 Introduction

This Poverty, Social and Gender Assessment addresses the issues for Tongans and mainstreams gender and disability issues, as well as dedicating a stand-alone section to each issue. It focuses on identifying the most vulnerable Tongans which include those living in the outer islands, single headed households, the elderly, youth, women and people living with disabilities. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) people are not recognized in any government documents and homosexuality is illegal, rendering this group possibly the most marginalized.

Lack of diversity and opportunities in employment, reliance in imports (especially fuel and food stuffs), and the high vulnerability to disaster all place Tongans at risk of hardships. Even so, Tonga has a high level of literacy and very little gender disparity in education. The maternal and infant mortality rates are low; however non-communicable diseases are rampant with obesity, diabetes and cardiovascular diseases causing a drastic decline in life expectancy.

High levels of remittances, cultural reciprocity, and services from non-governmental organizations and the church provide a safety net where government services are under-funded or do not have capacity to address the needs of the vulnerable. However traditional, and conservative cultural and religious mores limit the role of women in active decision making and access to resources such as land, which by law cannot be owned by women. Women also suffer from strong stereotyping in employment, there is a serious gender pay gap and the incidence of domestic violence is high with a social stigma attached to it.

Tonga has been addressing most of these issues (albeit land ownership for women and LGBTI issues) in recent policies including the current *Tonga Strategic Development Framework II (2015-2015)*, and other significant policy such as the *National Policy on Disability Inclusive Development 2014–2018 (NPDID)*, *Revised National Policy Statement on Gender and Development and Strategic Action Plan 2014 – 2018 (RNPGAD)*.

1.1 Purpose and Rationale of the Poverty, Social and Gender Assessment

The purpose of a Poverty and Social Analysis includes:

- identifying the structural causes of poverty and inequality (including gender inequality), social exclusion, disempowerment and insecurity, and other obstacles to inclusive growth and development;
- determining the effectiveness of existing laws, policies, and institutional mechanisms to promote inclusive growth and development and enable stakeholder participation;
- identifying inclusive development outcomes linked to the developing member country’s own development goals;
- collecting poverty and/or social information necessary to inform project design; and
- identifying inclusive development objectives, outcomes, and indicators.²

This Poverty, Social and Gender Assessment (PSGA) identifies the men, women, girls and boys, social and demographic groups and communities that are likely to benefit and/or be adversely affected by the renewable energy project. The data will identify those most affected by poverty and social exclusion as well as other relevant factors such as land ownership, energy usage, livelihood patterns and access to decision making.

The assessment mainstreams issues of isolated and remote rural villagers, women and girls (including women headed households, elderly women, youth and single women) and disability in the analysis of poverty and social issues. As stated later in the social analysis, issues of lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex (LGBTI) people are not addressed at all in Tongan government policy and as such, may be identified as one of the most at-risk group in terms of decision making and access to services.

A Gender Action Plan has been prepared as additional document to this assessment.

2 Background

2.1 Country Overview
The Kingdom of Tonga comprises 177 islands, 36 of which are inhabited. Tongatapu is the largest island in Tonga where 75 per cent of the total population live with 34 per cent of these living in Nuku’alofa, the capital and its peri-urban areas. In addition to Tongatapu, there are three other major island groups: Ha'apai and Vava'u and the Niuas. The country's total surface area is about 750 km.

Tonga is a Polynesian country, predominantly Christian and has been a constitutional monarchy since 1875; being the only country in the Pacific to have a monarchy. It is a former British protectorate which gained its independence in 1970. King Tupou VI came to power in 2015 and is the Head of State and Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. A reformed constitution was passed by legislation in April 2010 which decreases the power of the monarchy and delegates more decision making to the Cabinet which answers to the Legislative Assembly; however the King retains the right to veto legislation. The current Prime Minister, the Hon. Samuela ‘Akilisi Pohiva, was elected in 2014 and was appointed by the King on the recommendation of the Legislative Assembly. The Legislative Assembly includes nine Noble Representatives elected from the Tonga's 33 men of noble title, 17 representatives from the general population, and up to four members who may be appointed by the King on the advice of the Prime Minister.

As a small island economy and lower middle income country, Tonga faces geographic isolation with limited human resources, a high level of imports and low exports (mainly from agriculture and fisheries and cultural items) and is vulnerable to external economic shocks as well as natural disasters. High levels of remittances are necessary to boost domestic revenue. The ADB Member Factsheet for Tonga states that its “medium-term development depends on the continued implementation of structural reforms to improve productivity, remove bottlenecks to growth, and strengthen macroeconomic resilience.”

2.2 Population and Ethnicity
The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Population Division cites the population of Tonga as 106,776 as of 1st January 2017, with 37.2 per cent under 15; 56.7 per cent between 16 and 64 and 6.1 per cent over 65.

Male life expectancy is 73.8 years and female is 76.6 years. The population of Tonga is stable with a growth rate of 0.2 per cent. The average birth rate is 3.8 with emigration accounting for the difference as almost as many Tongans live overseas as within the country. There is also a high internal rural-urban

---

push with high movements from the outer islands to Tongatapu, with a negative population growth in the outer islands. 98 per cent of the population identify as Tongans.6

3. Poverty Assessment

3.1 National Economic Development

Tongan imports vastly exceed exports with only a small manufacturing export industry. Export income relies on tourism, fish and increasing agriculture and horticulture.7 Agriculture contributes 65 per cent of Tonga’s exports (approximately AU$16 million) which comprises of 14 per cent of Tonga’s GDP. The Household Income and Expenditure Survey from 2009,8 identifies handicrafts as contributing 40 per cent (approximately AU$16,130,000), of total household subsistence income and subsistence agriculture comprises 27 per cent, being the highest two categories. Both of these are heavily dominated by women’s labour. However, women’s role in agriculture and food production is not recognised fully in official statistics as it is predominantly a part of the informal economy (39 per cent of households produce crops to sell through markets and roadside stalls in the informal economy), as well as handicrafts generally sold through the informal market.9

The largest grant-based aid donor to Tonga is Australia, contributing the equivalent of 22% (AUD $32 million) to the Tongan national budget (2012/13 financial year). The Australian Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade (DFAT) country plan addresses gender issues through the appointment of a Tonga Gender Equality Advisor to work with the Division of Women’s Affairs to strengthen gender analysis and gender mainstreaming processes and to provide technical support to ensure that program design properly addresses the needs of women and men, and to create positive change.10

Many Tongan households rely on remittances from family members in the diaspora. In 2012 remittances were estimated to contribute 20% of GDP (US$122 million or AU$170 million).11 Over 30 per cent of households in Tonga receive remittances with Tongans overseas estimated to account for about half the total Tongan population with over 95% of them living in New Zealand, Australia, or the United States.12 Australia has a seasonal migrant worker scheme, and DFAT’s Tonga Country Plan will support research into the social and economic impacts of the seasonal migrant worker scheme on women, men and families in Tonga.13

Tonga exceeded its economic forecast for the fiscal year of 2016 due to a recovery in agriculture and stimulus from construction on major infrastructure projects. In addition remittance receipts were up by 24.8 per cent; private sector lending up by 14.5 per cent and tourism saw international arrivals increase by almost 15 per cent.

The growth projection for Financial Year 2017 has been revised down slightly however the economy is expected to continue to benefit from construction and tourism, and increased commerce from preparations for the South Pacific Games. The ADB Development Outlook Economic Update for Tonga in

---

9 Ibid
10 Ibid, p. 4.
2016 also considers there will be an expansion of support to vulnerable groups through welfare payments, services and lifeline electricity tariffs for low-income users.\textsuperscript{14}

One of the seven of the national outcomes for the \textit{Tonga Strategic Development Framework 2015-2015} is “human development with gender equality”. The Framework states “improved gender balance is necessary so that both women and men can progress together. An absence in any of these areas will hold people back, undermine human development, limit growth, equality and development and restrain progress.”\textsuperscript{15}

### 3.2 Poverty status

Although Tonga was classified as upper middle income by the World Bank in 2013-2015, it was reclassified as lower middle income in 2016. The fall in life expectancy has also led to the Human Development Index (HDI) reverting back to the level it was at in 1995.\textsuperscript{16} Tonga also did not meet the targets for MDG 1 eradicating poverty, MDG 3 on gender equality and the empowerment of women or MDG 6 on combatting diseases.

Tonga is highly susceptible to price shocks due to the reliance on food and fuel imports. The World Bank considers that approximately 1,200 people would fall below the poverty line following with an increase in oil prices and 1,600 people by a simultaneous price shock to oil, wheat, and rice.\textsuperscript{17}

ADB identifies the latest poverty statistics in Tonga (for 2009) at 22.5 per cent, which is lower than many neighbouring Pacific countries (that have available data).\textsuperscript{18}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cook Islands</td>
<td>\textit{no data}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Papua New Guinea</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samoa</td>
<td>26.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonga</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuvalu</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vanuatu</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 2015 final MDG report for Tonga refers to poverty in Tonga in respect to ‘relative poverty’ rather than ‘absolute poverty’. A Food Poverty Line and a Basic Needs Poverty Line are seen as more relevant


\textsuperscript{17} World Bank(2014). \textit{Hardship and Vulnerability in the Pacific Island Countries.} Washington: World Bank, p. 68.

to the ‘hardship’ situation in Tonga. Both these lines were established in 2010 after the Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) of 2009. The Food Poverty Line (FPL) includes a daily intake of calories per adult per day and the Basic Needs Poverty Line (BNPL) estimates of the cost of a minimum nutritional dietary intake plus the costs for non-food essential basic needs encompassing clothing, shelter, education, transport, communication, water, sanitation and health services needed to achieve acceptable standard of living.¹⁹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Food Poverty Line and Basic Needs Poverty Line 2001-2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Poverty Line</th>
<th>Proportion Below the Line</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food Poverty Line</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per head per week</td>
<td>13.52</td>
<td>24.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per head per year</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>1754</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Needs Poverty Line</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per head per week</td>
<td>28.30</td>
<td>49.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per head per year</td>
<td>1466</td>
<td>2586</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: HIES 2001, HIES 2009, SD 2015 *Estimated

As the table above illustrates, the proportion of households and proportion of people living under the Food Poverty Line has increased marginally (from 2 to 2.4 per cent for households and from 3.1 to 3.8 per cent for the population during the period from 2009 to 2015). The Basic Needs Poverty Line, decreased from 16.4 to 15.8 per cent for households and from 22.5 to 22.1 per cent for the general population over the same period. This illustrates little change over this period of time.²¹ The greatest increase in those living below the poverty line (for the 2009 HIES) was for those on the outer islands with data illustrating an increase of 11.8 to 22.9 per cent between 2005 and 2009.²² The remoteness of outer islands leads to higher costs for transport, which combined with a lack of employment opportunities, and poorer quality of social services and infrastructures is cited as the cause for this income inequality. Data also revealed that female headed households account for 24.6 per cent of those falling below the Basic Needs Poverty Line and that 29.5 per cent of children living in female headed households are in households below the Basic Needs Poverty Line.²³

Due to remittances Gross National Income (GNI) per capita (about US$4,500 in 2013) is seen as a more accurate measure than individual incomes. Since 2005, Tonga’s GNI per capita has grown from an equivalent rate to 35 per cent greater than other countries in the region. However, the MDG Final Report (2015) notes that this does not provide an indication of distribution or inequality, and goes on to say that states that there are “sufficient indications of significant income inequality”. Consumption patterns from households with the highest incomes was nearly seven times that of the poorest households with those on Tongatapu having approximately 15 per cent above the national average of GDP per capita. Conversely those in the Ha’apai island group have a GDP about 40 per cent below the national average.²⁴

---

²² Ibid.
Despite these statistics, the government considers that the general population is able to feed themselves from subsistence farming and fishing. The research for the TSDF II did not find any evidence or data to identify any person dying of hunger or living in destitution, which it claims is due to social systems acting as safety nets. In addition, Osnat Lubrani, UN Resident Coordinator for the Fiji Multi Country Office, states in the Foreword to Tonga’s Final MDG Report:

*Tonga has been doing a lot of work to reduce the number of people living in hardship and to ensure gender equality. There is a stronger emphasis for improving formal social protection mechanisms especially targeting the poorest of the poor and most vulnerable as evident in the increase in social protection programmes and subsequent budget allocations.*

### 3.3 Employment

MDG Target 1B (full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people) was not met with data illustrating that labour productivity has fluctuated with a reduction of the proportion of people in productive employment over recent years. The MDG report claims the ability of the economy to generate decent work for all is low due to few new jobs being available. The TSDF II identifies that unemployment is highest among young people; women, especially single mothers; sex workers; victims of abuse; school drop outs; single women; the disabled; the landless and the elderly whom suffer the greatest hardship most due to the absence of a welfare system in Tonga.

The percentage of males over 15 years of age active in the labour force was 70 per cent in 2010, whilst this statistic was only 54 per cent for women. The percentage of women in non-agricultural wage employment (industries and services) has not changed substantially over the last 25 years, remaining 30-35 per cent. 43 per cent of Tongan women are income earners in subsistence farming and agricultural work. Most women are employed in unskilled menial work or subordinate positions and low paid positions. This includes subsistence agriculture and fishing, of which surplus is sold in the markets. The major income for women in the outer islands comes from handicraft production (80 per cent of employment for women) in addition to subsistence agriculture and fishing.

Within the public service almost half of the personnel are female. Despite women achieving a larger percentage of senior roles than in the past, this does not appear to flow on to women influencing governmental decision making or policy. Women are also predominantly represented in ministries traditionally seen as covering "women’s issues" such health and education, while men dominate in hard infrastructure and energy. The private sector also illustrates a dominance of men in decision making roles with 423 male compared to 129 female employers (in 2010, latest available statistics). Pay equity is a serious issue with women only receiving 47 per cent of male income.

In 2010, the Public Service Commission extended maternity leave from one month to three months for public servants (with one week for paternity leave) however there is no requirement for maternity leave in the private sector. There is currently no national legislation dealing with employment issues which encompass workplace discrimination or harassment. Increased access to kindergarten and child care

---

25 Ibid.
facilities has been noted since the 1996 census in Tonga in 1996, which provides support for women in productive work.

4. Social Context in Tonga
Tonga is a constitutional monarchy and transitioned from being a British protectorate in 1970. In 2009 a new Constitution significantly increased the role of the elected government; however the King retains direct authority for Foreign Affairs and Defence. Tongan society is structured though extended families, kaingas, which are headed by paternal males who “collectively make the decisions for the welfare and social obligations of the extended families”. Social interaction is strongly influenced by the Royal family and nobility as well as the church. It is a ‘rank conscious’ society and age, sex and social status determine a person’s status. A complex cycle of reciprocity and social exchange are required to maintain these systems. The TSDF II considers “One of the strengths of our traditional culture is the extent to which social support is built into our relationships of reciprocity.” However it also goes on to say “some of these social arrangements are helpful for the development of a progressive, dynamic and inclusive Tonga, while others have become a burden on progress, even a burden on the daily quality of life”.

The document identifies vulnerable peoples considered according to their age, as well as remoteness of island dwellers, various types of women (single headed households and the elderly) and the disabled. Specific strategies are identified in line with the quote above including the TSDF II Organisational Outcome 2.7 which addresses better care and support for vulnerable people to ensure the elderly, youth, disabled and others with particular needs continue to be supported and protected despite shrinking extended families and other changing social institutions.

The TSDF II identifies “Traditional Values” as those based around a deep Christian faith focusing on stability, the maintenance of good relationships built on respect, reciprocal respect, reciprocity/sharing, humility, love/care, and duty. It also identifies “Modern Development Values” based on the modern scientific world which may require a more individualistic focus than that prevailing in more traditional systems. “Western Values” are seen to be impacting on the social and cultural values of Tonga which includes modern developmental values that “tend to be more individually focussed, with more liberal views, which influence, for example, the style of their rule of law and human rights”. Finally “Asian and Other Values” are identified as a mix of traditional values and modern values. Interestingly the TSDF II states these

value sets are not all of equal importance. Despite the many changes, we recognize the foundation importance of our Christian and traditional values. They lay the foundation of our Tongan inheritance... At the same time it is important that the development values do not compromise our traditional values, such as reciprocal respect in our exchanges, even when such exchanges seek to be more professional.

Churches and non-government organisations play an active role in community and social development, often leading the work to support vulnerable groups. The TDSF II identifies that the government does not have the resources or capacity to address all their needs with Organisational Outcome 2.2 calling for:

38 Ibid p. 39.
39 Ibid, p. 40
Closer partnership between government, churches and other stakeholders providing services to communities and support to community development to help promote stronger communities, better inclusion of all groups and human development.\textsuperscript{40}

The TNSDP 8 (2006-2009) was the first official policy document to define those most vulnerable and prone to living in hardship, identifying large families with children living in poor conditions with no access to land or earning an income; dis-parented children; school dropouts; single and widowed women; young single mothers; the disabled; the elderly without children or income and deportees.\textsuperscript{41} TDSF II also specifically mentions the elderly and disabled as vulnerable, as well as addressing violence against women and children including school violence/bulling. Female headed households comprise 22 per cent of all households and are considered the most vulnerable, with least access to resources.

In addressing the needs of the vulnerable in Tonga, TDSF II identifies:

\textit{Nearly 4000 people over the age of 70 have access to the increase in benefits to the elderly. About 600 of these will be eligible for the new social services being rolled out for the vulnerable elderly. At the other end of the age range, some 250 infants will be eligible for similar services. Given the extent that vulnerability worsens inclusion, these reforms are an important step forward in helping to remove this source of exclusion.}

Homosexuality is illegal in Tonga according to the Criminal Offences Act, which criminalises cross-dressing and sodomy, with penalties up to 10 years imprisonment. No cases have been charged to date, with the exception of those involving assault. During discussions for the 2013 Universal Periodic Review, Tonga requested that recommendations to decriminalise homosexuality be deferred for further consultation in the country. In 2016 Tonga’s homosexual and transgender community called on government leaders to revise legislation, but this was strongly opposed by church groups.\textsuperscript{42} Lesbian, Bisexual, Gay, Transgender and Intersex (LGBTI) issues are not mentioned in government documents, rendering this group invisible with the least access to human rights in the Tongan population.

4.1 Education

Tonga has a high literacy rate with 99.35 per cent of men and 99.45 per cent for women over 15 years of age being literate.\textsuperscript{43} Data for education is not updated, with the latest available data from the 2011 Census, which illustrates a fair degree of gender equity.

Population aged 15 and older by sex and educational attainment (in %), Tonga: 2011\textsuperscript{44}
The presence of women in higher education does not translate to their positions in the labour market as the majority of graduates marry and remain at home, not using their skills in the marketplace. Interestingly UNESCO statistics illustrate that women dominate as teachers in primary education (95.5 per cent), and marginally in secondary education (54 per cent) but only comprise 23.3 per cent of teachers at tertiary level, but again these statistics are from 2010.

The University of the South Pacific has a campus in Tonga. Many students also access scholarship programmes to universities in Australia and New Zealand. The Tonga Institute of Science and Technology (TIST) traditionally provided technical training to males due to the focus on training in maritime, automotive engineering, carpentry and joinery, electrical engineering and welding. Since the 1990’s vocational training courses in tourism, hospitality, agriculture, accounting and IT have since been introduced which have opened up options for women. Church-based vocational training institutes also provide certificates in cookery, hospitality, sewing, tourism, business, IT, art and craft and secretarial skills.

Tonga’s MDG report in 2015 acknowledges that prior to 2000, training courses from technical institutes were seen by women as ‘culturally appropriate’ for men only. It now considers that more choices are available; and that there should be a change in the trend in the next decade or so where the share of women in wage employment improves substantially.

The UNDP report of 2009 Pacific Sisters with Disabilities: At the Intersection of Discrimination considers the education policies of Tonga provide a good example of promoting inclusive education, including in rural and remote areas. Children with disabilities are included in the formal primary education system to ensure they learn the skills for economic and social life, without becoming a burden to their families and communities.

4.2 Health
Tongan maternal mortality rates have drastically declined, from 205 per 100,000 live births in 1995 to 110 in 2015. 99 per cent of births are attended by a skilled birth professional. Tonga also has a low infant mortality rate (averaging around 15 per 1,000 live births), which is considered to be a result of a

---

successful immunization program, a high percentage of deliveries in health facilities, and a good public health system with a nursing-led child health program.\textsuperscript{51}

The total fertility rate for Tonga is 3.7 births per woman. The OECD member country rate is 1.7 and least developed countries are at 4.1; so this is very high. However it is the same rate as Kiribati and PNG with the Solomon Islands at 3.9 and Samoa at 4, making it not unusual for the Pacific (although Fiji is only 2.5).\textsuperscript{52} The \textit{ADB Economic Update and Outlook for Tonga} in 2012 considered contraceptive services to widely available, at least for married women, but states that rates of use are reported to be low.\textsuperscript{53} UN Women states that as of 2011 only 27 per cent of Tongan women were using a form of contraception, which is lower than was recorded in 1990.\textsuperscript{54} HIV/AIDS prevalence in Tonga is low. Official statistics illustrate a decline for sexually transmitted diseases in the past 30 years however serious under reporting is also suspected to exist.\textsuperscript{55}

The TSDFII states that while some traditional health care is still available, the government has become the major provider of health care services through central referral hospitals supported by a network of regional hospitals and community clinics in most urban centres. However it also notes that the cost of this is high and “as a result, the quality of service is not the same for all population groups”.\textsuperscript{56} As such rural areas may be underserviced and remote areas are the most disadvantaged.

The World Bank considers people in the Pacific face a “double burden” of disease: continued threats from communicable diseases as well as high and growing rates of non-communicable diseases (NCDs). Tonga’s high rate of NCDs has already contributed to a reduction in average life expectancy due to low-quality imported foods, high rates of obesity, and the widespread use of tobacco and alcohol.\textsuperscript{57} Obesity, diabetes and cardiovascular diseases have become serious health issues in Tonga. The average weight for a Tongan male increased over 30 years by 17.4kg to 95.7kg, with the average weight for women increasing by 21.1kg to 95.0kg in this period. Tongan women have higher rates of diabetes than men, with 19.1 per cent of women and 16.5 per cent of men meeting the definition of diabetic.\textsuperscript{58} A study from \textit{The Lancet} found 52.6 per cent of Tongan girls compared with 34.5 per cent of Tongan boys are overweight.\textsuperscript{59}

It is noteworthy that Tonga instigated the first Pacific Family Health Association to target women with disabilities to deliver education and health services including training, awareness and access for women’s sexual and reproductive rights.\textsuperscript{60}

\section*{4.3 Gender Based violence}

\textit{A National Study on Domestic Violence Against Women in Tonga} was conducted in 2009. The key findings revealed that 68 per cent of Tongan women and girls are affected by physical violence perpetrated by predominantly their fathers or teachers; 33 per cent of married or ever partnered women are victims of physical violence; 17 per cent of married or ever partnered women are victims of

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{52} World Population Prospects, quoted from World Bank website \url{http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.TFRT.IN}, accessed 10/05/2017
\item \textsuperscript{53} Ibid, p. 32.
\item \textsuperscript{54} World Health Organization. (2014). Women: Data by country, \url{http://apps.who.int/gho/data/view.main.1630}
\item \textsuperscript{57} World Bank(2014). \textit{HARDSHIP AND VULNERABILITY IN THE PACIFIC ISLAND COUNTRIES}. Washington: World Bank, p. 70.
\item \textsuperscript{58} UN Women (2014) Asia and the Pacific: Tonga. \url{http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/countries/fiji/co/tonga}, accessed 22/03/2017.
\item \textsuperscript{59} Cited in Commonwealth of Learning (2015). \textit{Gender Profile: Tonga}. London: Commonwealth of Learning, p. 3.
\item \textsuperscript{60} Stubbs, Daniel and Tawake, Sainimili (2009). \textit{Pacific sisters with disabilities: at the intersection of discrimination}. Suva: UNDP Pacific Centre, p. 45.
\end{itemize}
sexual violence and 91 per cent of women had experienced, at least once in their lifetime, controlling behaviour from their husband. It also identified that perpetrators of violence are just as likely to be well respected and educated Tongan men.\(^{61}\)

The National Survey also found that violence is exacerbated by living with extended family, alcohol consumption and economic hardship faced by men. Data from the Pacific illustrates that “pre-existing conditions of domestic violence, rape and prostitution will occur or be further exacerbated during a disaster”.\(^{62}\)

In 2013 the Tongan Parliament passed the Family Protection Act which was developed by Tonga's Ministry of Education, Women's Affairs and Culture Women's Affairs Division. The Act allows police to issue immediate protection orders to victims of domestic abuse, however there is a requirement to provide physical evidence of resistance in order to prove the absence of consent in rape cases.\(^{63}\) There is also no legal minimum age of consent in Tonga with statutory rape not criminalised.

The National Centre for Women and Children, a NGO, is one of the few providers of counselling and a shelter for survivors of violence.

4.4 Civil Society Partnerships

NGOs have been active in providing assisting in poverty alleviation and social protection especially in education, health and for disadvantaged groups. The TDSF II addresses the role of civil society in Organisational Outcome 2.1: Improved collaboration with and support to social and civil society organisations and community group. This is articulated as the strategic concept of “encouraging and support the registration of CSOs and NGOs working to support skills and services for communities throughout the Kingdom”.\(^{64}\) As stated earlier, the government relies heavily on NGOs to address the needs of vulnerable groups, and the relationships between the work of NGOs and the government have not been clear. The Final MDG report suggests “a partnership should be defined under a policy framework to ensure sustainability and accountability. It should also allow sharing of information and participation by CSOs in decision making to represent the views of the community”.\(^{65}\)

The Civil Society Forum of Tonga is a national umbrella organisation for Tongan CSOs/NGOs with a vision to “to provide strong leadership to develop an effective Civil Society Sector in Tonga”. Its mission statement articulates that it is committed to creating a conducive environment for all Civil Society Organisations development through open dialogue, equal participation, partnership, collective decision making and consensus building. CSFT will continue to empower Civil Society Organisations by providing opportunities for capacity building and leadership development.\(^{66}\)

One of the four guiding principle of the Revised National Policy on Gender and Development is strong partnerships and coordination mechanisms need to be in place between the Department of Women’s Affairs, other line and sectoral ministries, civil society organizations and Tonga National Forum of Church Leaders. The church plays a central role in Tongan society, with 37 per cent of the population belonging to the Free Wesleyan Church. As such, church groups exert a strong organising role in civil society, and


\(^{62}\) Morioka, Kate (2016). Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction. Bangkok: UN Women, p. 9.


this is reflected in women’s organising as well. Pacific gender specialist Helen Hill considers the earliest civil society groups in the Pacific were formed by youth and women’s groups established by missionaries.67

Langafonua ‘a e Fefine Tonga was in 1956 established (now the National Council for Women), as an umbrella organisation for women’s CSOs in Tonga. This organisation was dominant in leading non-government organisations (NGOs) during this time and it was not until the 1970s that indigenous and community led NGOs were created to address wider issues of children, environment, disability and youth. With further transition to democracy in the past decades, this had progressed further. The ADB civil society brief for Tonga states:

*Today, civil society in Tonga is a diverse and active space, with numerous formal and informal CSOs working across a range of sectors, in particular women’s rights, disability services, environment, youth services, primary service delivery (health, education, and sanitation), counselling, advocating for human rights and the rights of marginalized people, and monitoring of government and other groups. CSOs are organized across all strata of society, from the village level to the national level.*68

5. Gender Specific Issues

Tonga rates 148 out of 188 countries for the Gender Equality Index.69 This score is strongly influenced by there being only one women in parliament, ranking the country 182 of 193 for parliamentary representation of women in January 2017.70 Tonga has never had more than one female Member of Parliament sitting at any one time in its history; however there is pressure from women’s activists to ensure reserved seats for women in parliament, citing the example of Samoa as a good practice.71

The political reform of 2010 resulted in increasing the number of people’s representatives in parliament from 9 to 17 (as opposed to those appointed by the King). Subsequent to this, women’s groups lobbied for a women’s quota system for representation in parliament. This did not eventuate, however more women have stood as candidates.72 The current RNPGAD Implementation Plan does identify this as an area to addresses and includes key actions to conduct studies to identify obstacles for women who wish to be election candidates; to ascertain which factors influence voters’ choice (i.e. reasons women and men are not supportive of women candidates); identify challenges women faced when standing for the 2014 elections and to survey women with an interest in entering politics to identify why they did not campaign in 2014. The low representation of women in the highest levels of decision a making is seen as a reflection of a strong gender bias in Tongan society which sees men as key decision makers in society.73

Tonga is one of only seven countries globally which have not ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). In 2009 the Tongan parliament voted against adopting CEDAW, as it was believed this would result in women having the right to succession to the Throne, inherit nobility titles and estates, and qualify to register tax and town allotments.74 The issue was ignited again in 2015 after the government committed to ratification at the Commission on the

---

68 Ibid, p. 3.
73 Ibid. p. 71.
Status of Women, this time there was additional opposition from the church and other sectors based on opposition to same sex marriage and abortion, and the commitment was withdrawn.

Women cannot own land in Tonga. Men have sole land rights to 'api kolo (town allotment) and an 'api 'uta (tax or country allotment), with inheritance through male lineage. Even where there is no male lineage, women can only have occupancy rights. Although widows inherit land owned by their deceased husbands, legislation stipulates that this is forfeited if she remarries and reverts to the eldest son or the family of the deceased husband.75 Without control of land assets, women find it hard to access loans for business development.

5.1 Institutional Framework for Gender

In 2001 a National Policy on Gender and Development was approved by the Tongan Government with the establishment of a National Centre for Women and Children. A gender stock-take of the government’s capacity in gender was conducted by the South Pacific Commission in 2009 which revealed “a weak enabling environment for gender mainstreaming with a weak legislative environment; albeit somewhat improved with the passing of the Family Protection Act in 2013; the Constitution sanctions gender-based discrimination notably in term of land inheritance and ownership; there is no stand-alone anti-discrimination legislation”.76

A further review in 2011 found that the national policy implementation had been weak due to “the absence of the appropriate legislative framework and monitoring and evaluation”.77 As a part of this review, the Women’s Affairs Division with the Ministry of Internal Affairs conducted a series of consultations with civil society organizations such as the Ma’a Fafine moe Famili, Governors’ Offices and Offices of the Government Representatives including district and town officers, representatives of youth groups, faith-based organizations and women’s groups. From these consultations a Revised National Policy Statement on Gender and Development (RNPGAD) was developed with a Strategic Action Plan 2014 – 2018 approved in 2014.

The vision for the RNPGAD is “Gender Equity by 2025: That all men, women, children and the family as a whole achieve equal access to economic, social, political and religious opportunities and benefits.”78

The policy goal is to:

*advance gender equality ensuring the active contribution and meaningful participation of both women and men in all spheres, and at all levels, of development and decision-making for the wellbeing of the family and for the benefit of the whole society.*79

Six priority policy outcomes form the basis of the RNPGAD. These are: enabling familial and social environment for gender equality; equitable access to economic assets and employment; increased women’s leadership and equitable political representation; a gender responsive approach when dealing with natural disasters, environment and climate change strategies; increased focus on addressing the additional hardships and vulnerability experienced by female headed households, women with disabilities, and women and men in rural areas, especially in the outer islands; and an enabling environment for mainstreaming gender across government policies, programmes and services.

---

79 Ibid.
An Implementation Plan 2014-2018 has been developed for the Plan led by the Department of Women’s Affairs which is tasked with coordination, monitoring and advisory services. The Policy also requires all sectors and all government agencies at both national and local levels to dedicate appropriate human, financial and material resources to achieve the outcomes in relation to their sector. There is also National Advisory Committee on Gender and Development (NACGAD) which includes key stakeholders from civil society which monitors the implementation of the Policy and reports to Parliament annually through the Ministry of Internal Affairs.\(^{80}\)

6. Disability Specific Issues

According to UNESCAP, an estimated 17% of people in the Pacific have some form of disability in 2013.\(^{81}\) The World Health Organisation estimate global rates at 15 per cent with 2-4 per cent experiencing significant difficulties in functioning.\(^{82}\) The graph below illustrates that only Tonga and Samoa have more females with disabilities than men (of those listed).

![Pacific women and men with a disability](image)

The 2006 Tongan Census illustrates good practice in disability data collection through coding for data to be collected on whether the disability is mild, moderate or severe which enables a disaggregation by disability type and severity, as well as sex.\(^{84}\) Disability issues are mainstreamed through TDSF II as well as Tonga having a National Policy on Disability Inclusive Development 2014-2018 (NPDID) which identifies a ‘twin-track approach’ with some activities specifically targeting persons with disabilities and others mainstreaming the needs of persons with disabilities into existing areas of work, such as education and health services. The goal is:

*Tonga as a society that is barrier-free and inclusive, which respects the rights and dignity of Persons With Disabilities, allowing them to participate equally, to reach their full potential, and to be economically and politically empowered and to live freely.*\(^{85}\)

It states the “Policy is consistent with the articles of the CRPD although it does not cover all aspects of the Convention.”\(^{86}\) The eight overarching principles it addresses from the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) include: respect for inherent dignity, individual autonomy including the freedom to make one’s own choices, and independence of persons; non-discrimination; full and

---

\(^{80}\) Ibid, p. 12.
\(^{84}\) Ibid, p. 54.
effective participation and inclusion in society; respect for difference and acceptance of persons with disabilities as part of human diversity and humanity; equality of opportunity; accessibility; equality between men and women; respect for the evolving capacities of children with disabilities and respect for the right of children with disabilities to preserve their identities.

Priority areas of the Policy include legislation; ratifying CRPD; education, training and sports; access to health services; employment and livelihoods; mainstreaming disability across Tongan Government and civil society; awareness and advocacy; strengthening disabled persons’ organisations in Tonga; and addressing women with disabilities, acknowledging their multiple discrimination due to their gender and their disability. It quotes a UNFPA study in Tonga that identified violence towards women with disabilities as often perpetrated by family members. The study also considered that Tongan women with disabilities have less access to sexual and reproductive health services compared to women in general. The objectives in NPDID states that violence against women with disabilities will be effectively addressed.

The Policy takes a whole-of-government approach including many different sectors of the Government and involves civil society organisations, in particular Naunau ‘o e ‘Alamaite Tonga Association (NATA) is a non-government association formed by a group of people with disability, as partners and in some cases as key implementing agencies. The implementation of the Policy is overseen by a Disability Desk Officer in the Ministry of Internal Affairs who reports to the multi stakeholder Tonga National Council on Disability, and through that mechanism to Cabinet. An Action Plan accompanies the policy.

The activities in the NPDID include working with NATA encompassing the NATA women with disabilities group working with the Tonga Family Health Association to provide training on sexual and reproductive health services; NATA work with Women and Children Crisis Centre to provide training on violence against women with disabilities; and NATA women with disabilities group liaising with the Women’s Division of the MIA to work on ways of mainstreaming disability into its programmes. This is a significant policy directive in the Pacific and illustrates not only the recognition of specific women with vulnerabilities, but the national coordination of government with specialist NGOs in the sector.

7. **SECTOR SPECIFIC ISSUES:**

7.1 **Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction**

Tonga is ranked as the second most disaster prone country in the world based on exposure, susceptibility, coping capacity, and adaptive capacity. Cyclone Ian which hit Tonga in January 2014, was the most powerful storm ever recorded in Tonga and impacted approximately 5,000 people, or 66% of the local population of Ha’apai. USD$53 million worth of damages was wreaked on housing, business, agriculture, power infrastructure, and education. No sex disaggregated data is available from this; however a UN Women report cites the Safety and Protection Assessment of Cyclone Ian identified women as sole income earners in Ha’apai being adversely affected when due to the loss of pandanus leaves, the main material used for weaving. Data is available to substantiate that 70 per cent of the adults who died in the 2009 tsunami and Tongan ferry disaster were female.

*Tonga Climate Change Policy: A Resilient Tonga By 2035* is based on an approach which is multi-faceted, cross-sectoral, gender inclusive, equitable, and with a strong emphasis on community ownership.

---

87 UNFPA, *A Deeper Silence The Unheard Experiences of Women with Disabilities – Sexual and Reproductive Health and Violence in Kiribati, Solomon Islands and Tonga*, 2013


89 Morioka, Kate (2016). *Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction*. Bangkok: UN Women, p. 25.
supported by strong governance. Of the seven national outcomes, the third is “a more inclusive, sustainable and empowering human development with gender equality”. The guiding policy principles recognise that men and women face different social, environmental, and economic situations, with recognition of the need for a better understanding of the vulnerabilities and capacities of different gender groups. An outcome in the section on the management of data addresses increased national capacity in data and information collection to support resilience building taking into account gender analysis. The policy looks to develop and implement a strategy for supporting communities, including women, youth, and vulnerable groups to directly access relevant funding to support implementation of Community Development Plans. Although the document addresses the relationship between the environmental, social, and economic targets for a Resilient Tonga, it does not detail the social issues other than gender; there is no mention of poverty or disabilities.

The Joint National Action Plan on Climate Change Adaptation and Disaster Risk Management 2010-2015 (JNAP) makes no references to gender or women’s issues. In relation to social issues it but is does refers to build capacity of social workers on disaster trauma counselling. It is much clearer in issues of poverty, with Goal 5 focussing on economically affordable energy, which is aimed at addressing the needs of the poor.

The National Disaster Management Legislation 2007, the First National Communication (NC) in 2005, Second National Communication in 2012 or the Intended Nationally Determined Contribution (INDC) (no date) do not address issues of gender or disability. They do mention social and poverty issues with the First NC report in 2005 stating “energy services drive economic and social development” and is echoed by the Second NC report which states “an affordable, reliable power supply is basic to economic and social wellbeing”.

The INDC states the primary focus of the government’s national climate mitigation approach is poverty alleviation with a lack of climate proofing investments further risking Government’s poverty alleviation commitments and national development. It identifies the higher levels of poverty on the outer islands. Social issues are discussed in general terms, in terms of energy constraints impacting on social issues but details on are not identified on what specific social issues these are.

The JNAP Taskforce is made up of 12 ministries, statutory authorities and NGOs; however the Ministry of Internal Affairs (MIA), which has the mandate for mainstreaming gender equality into development plans, is not party to this instrument.

In the Hyogo Framework for Action report for the 2011-2013 period, Tonga considered it met all the gender indicators, being one of the few Pacific Islands countries to do this. It claimed gender issues were addressed in disaster risk planning, assessments, recovery and decision-making processes. The report stated that gender issues are ‘acknowledged’ by government agencies, with strong gender commitments in the sectoral policy and programmes of social welfare, health, agriculture and water. It does make the statement that “gender issues are generally not yet perceived as a strong driver of DRR achievements even though gender and division of labour are practiced during disasters”, and it

---

recognises the need for further strengthening of gender responsiveness in DRR policy, programme design and implementation, and disaster response and recovery.

An assessment was made of climate change and disaster risk reduction projects in Tonga using the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Gender Marker in 2009. This review identified that nearly half of all projects were completely gender-blind and another quarter of all projects had limited or purely cosmetic reference to gender or social vulnerability. It also stated that projects were more likely to overlook gender issues if the project was directly funded by a line ministry, with an increased focus on gender in the design of projects funded by ADB or UNDP as an implementing partner.

The RNPGAD proposes outputs to develop and disseminate knowledge about the gender perspective in disaster preparedness and climate change adaptation to increase capacity of households to respond to and adapt to disasters and environmental and climate change. One of the six policy outcomes of this strategy is to develop “a gender responsive approach when dealing with natural disasters, environment and climate change strategies”.

7.2. Energy
89 per cent of households in Tonga have access to grid electricity; however 90 per cent of this power generation is from imported diesel, increasing Tonga’s exposure to fluctuating fuel prices, paired with higher transport costs for those in the outer islands. Renewable energies have the potential to decrease tariff prices, increase energy efficiency and security as well as decrease emissions. The Government of Tonga has committed to 70 per cent of electricity to be generated from renewable sources by 2030, however in 2015 renewable energy only accounted for approximately 9 per cent. Furthermore at the beginning 2016, a total of 1.3MW of grid connected solar power generation has begun installation in the outer islands through the on-going Outer Island Renewable Energy Project. The Tonga Renewable Energy Project is supporting this target through the development of solar, integrated diesel systems and wind generation.

Tonga Power Ltd. Is the state-owned electricity provider, and claims that Cyclone Ian affected 90 per cent of Ha’apai’s distribution lines; 40–70 per cent of electricity poles; 65 per cent of transformers; 90 per cent of transformer structures; and 95 per cent of streetlights. As such, climate-proofing the electricity network is essential. ADB provided assistance to address the response from Cyclone Ian, including a gender mainstreaming approach encompassing the training and hiring of seven female workers to support the installation of power lines and the operation of heavy machinery.

7.2.1 Energy, poverty and social issues
Access to reliable and sustainable energy is essential for development. Energy supplies are core to productive activities that create employment opportunities to generate income for the population. Having access to energy impacts all economic productivity, including agriculture which can alleviate poverty and food instability. Poverty is inextricably linked to a lack of affordable energy services. Key social issues follow from this with social services compromised by poor and unreliable energy. Electricity in rural areas is critical to health services to ensure the provision of medical services at night and the use of more advanced medical equipment. Likewise reliable energy enables an expansion of access to safe water for domestic use as well as agriculture and livestock.

---

96 Morioka, Kate (2016). Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction. Bangkok: UN Women, p. 50
The need for energy systems to be linked to poverty alleviation thus becomes an essential strategy. Cambridge University’s 2012 Global Energy Assessment - Toward a Sustainable Future states:

*Energy systems in developing countries and associated economic and welfare policies need to be redesigned to ensure an emphatic pro-poor orientation that will move toward universal access to cleaner and affordable forms of energy in key economic sectors that the poor rely on such as health, water, education, agriculture and transport….Experiences in developing countries point to an overarching conclusion: when power sector reforms were introduced with the sole intention of improving the performance of utilities, the expected and hoped-for social benefits did not necessarily follow. Where governments maintained a role as instigator or at least regulator of improved access to electricity by the poor, tariffs for poor households tended to decrease and levels and rates of electrification tended to increase.*

This quote illustrates not only the connection between poverty and energy, but the need for energy systems to have a specific focus on the poor.

Tonga’s Prime Minister, in the Foreword to the *Tonga Energy Road Map 2010 - 2020 (TERM)*, stated:

*Energy is a fundamental building block for the Kingdom in its social and economic development and in enhancing the livelihood and wellbeing of all Tongans. It affects all businesses and every household. Accessible, affordable and sustainable electricity that is environmentally responsible and commercially viable is a high priority. My Government recognized the importance of having dependable, accessible and reasonably priced power as a key catalyst for sustainable economic growth. Achievement of these goals is crucial to achieve the Government’s primary target of “poverty alleviation” including 100% accessibility to electricity.*

This statement by the Prime Minister articulates that a more resilient energy supply is necessary for Tonga as a part of its poverty alleviation strategy with targeting affordable energy a critical aspect for poor people. The TDSF II Organisational Outcome 4.1 calls for “more reliable, safe, affordable and widely available energy services built on an appropriate energy mix moving towards increased use of renewable energy”. The Strategy identifies the need for access to energy to enable access to clean water, education and health services and food security as well as communication systems, transport and wider services, especially for the outer islands.

Access to reliable and sustainable energy sources will also decrease the cost of imported fuels, making an impact the national budget as well as household budgets which are a critical component of poverty alleviation. Households and businesses cannot be expected to expand their economic stability or growth without reliable energy. Community participation in implementation of energy projects could also be designed to enhance community knowledge about sustainable energy consumption in order to reduce the threat of climate change.

### 7.2.2 Women in the energy sector

UN Women’s study of gender, climate change and DRR in the Pacific (2016) found that a third of the projects were completely gender-blind although many focused on energy, agriculture, water resources, promotion of community resilience, and coastal zone management. Those that did mention gender referred to women in terms of women as vulnerable rather than in active decision making positions. It is essential to broaden the scope of women in energy to encompass women’s economic development and empowerment through decision making and employment. In addition, access to efficient, reliable,

---


100 Kingdom of Tonga (201). *Tonga Energy Road Map 2010 - 2020*. Nuku'alofa, p. xi.


and affordable energy infrastructure and services is essential to women’s daily lives in addressing their practical needs for cooking, lighting, power, transport, freezers, clean water and sanitation that could ease their daily household burdens. This time saving technology also provides the opportunity increased for sustainable livelihoods. As women and girls are more involved in domestic activities, this affects them more greatly than men and boys.

The USAID Asia Pacific ADAPT kit, includes a module on energy and gender and it states that

As men generate or have more control over cash income, they usually also control most of the household decisions to invest family income in new energy sources—for example, dry batteries, solar home systems (SHS), and home appliances. For female-headed households, lack of collateral and cash income impedes ability to obtain credit to access modern energy (services and appliances).  

Women also face energy challenges in the formal sector with women-headed businesses generally having lower access to finance and energy-related services (such as grid electricity) than men. UNDP claims addressing both women’s and men’s contributions and concerns increases access to and benefits from grid and off-grid electricity/energy sources. Conversely, failure to consider gendered interests, limits the effectiveness and sustainability of energy programmes.

7.2.3 Regional networks/mandates on gender and energy in the Pacific

The Pacific Energy and Gender Network (PEG) was established in 2003. The group’s mandate was to (i) mainstream gender into energy and policy planning, (ii) improve networking at national and regional level with relevant stakeholders, (iii) strengthen information dissemination in order to increase awareness of energy and gender issues, (iv) provide technical assistance, (v) improve gender and energy training; and (vi) capacity building at different levels. It developed the Pacific Energy and Gender Network Strategic Action Plan (PEGSAP, 2006 – 2008) in December 2005. A Regional Strategic Planning Workshop was held in Nuku’alofa in April 2009 to review this document and adopt and endorse the Pacific Energy and Gender Network Strategic Action Plan 2009 – 2014. The review of the first plan was conducted by the Gender Issues Officer of the Pacific Island Forum Secretariat (PIFS) in collaboration with PEG members. The Pacific Islands Applied Geoscience Commission (SOPAC) coordinated the initiatives related to the implementation of the Strategic Action Plan. The details below provide information on the Strategic Action Plans, but an internet search has found no current information for either the implementation of the Plan or the existence or activities of the PEG Network since 2009.

Implementation of the PEGSAP 2006 – 2008 focused on improving and strengthening information and communication on rural energy development and gender with the production of communication tools such as posters, flyers, newsletters and DVDs. These included messages highlighting how renewable energy and energy efficiency improves the livelihoods of rural communities, particularly women, youth and children. Sub-regional training workshops were held on the mainstreaming gender into energy planning and policy. Two training manuals were adapted to the Pacific context and published in October 2006. At this time additional financial support was provided from UNDP Regional Energy Programme for Poverty Reduction (REP-PoR) and ENERGIA (International Network on Gender and Sustainable Energy). The major challenges in implementing the activities of PEGSAP were cited as the lack of funds; weak monitoring and evaluation processes; limited capacity and capability with a lack of gender expertise in the Pacific region; weak partnerships/lack of coordination; unwillingness within communities to involve women; reluctance of women to get involved in project; and limited awareness on gender and energy

---

103 USAID (2014) Asia Pacific ADAPT Gender Source Book. Bangkok: USAID. [http://asiapacificadapt.net/gender-sourcebook/7-sectoral-modules/7-7-module-g-energy/](http://asiapacificadapt.net/gender-sourcebook/7-sectoral-modules/7-7-module-g-energy/), accessed 18/04/2017


aspects at all level. Recommendations highlighted the need for gender mainstreaming be targeted as direct technical assistance to national energy offices (or equivalent); PEG members to be consulted when developing proposals for funding; and for the 2009 – 2014 PEGSAP to be added as a strategic document in the Pacific Islands Energy Policy (PIEP) and its strategic action plan having a clear linkage to the PIEP.

The Pacific Energy and Gender Network Strategic Action Plan 2009 – 2014 had three overarching strategies: to build national capacity to ensure gender is mainstreamed into national energy policies and energy projects; conduct research and analysis on energy and gender linkages and gender mainstreaming of the energy sector at the national and local levels; and to strengthen networking and cooperation with relevant international, regional and national institutions. The activities included in these strategies are contained in Annex 1.

Gender CC - Women for Climate Justice (a global network of organisations, experts and activists working for gender equality, women’s rights and climate justice based in Berlin) worked with SPC to develop a Toolkit to Mainstream Gender into Energy, and Climate Change Community Based Adaptation Projects in the Pacific— To assist community practitioners in the Pacific working in Energy and Climate Change Community Based Adaptation.

In 2010 Gender CC worked with SPC’s Energy Programme of the Economic Development Division to review gender mainstreaming in IUCN’s Renewable Energy Projects in Tuvalu, Tonga, Vanuatu, Samoa and Palau. A literature review mapped the gender, energy and development nexus and developed action plans for mainstreaming gender into the five SIDS IUCN Energy Projects. In Tonga this included a Solar PV Project on the Island of Mounga’one with the Department of Energy. The field visit was conducted to the island identified that the energy service enabled women to weave mats after daylight with the newly established lighting. This freed up women for other activities during the day. Children were also able to do their homework with in the evenings, and mobile phones assisted them to talk to family members living in other islands or overseas. The maintenance of the PV system was primarily seen as a role for men, however the review identified that there was no reason that women could not be trained to do this maintenance work. As the men were often away from the island, fishing or working on the main island, women’s management of the system was seen a practical intervention to both increase women’s capacity and also challenge gender norms.

7.2.4 National Policy on energy
The Tonga Renewable Energy Master Plan does not make any references to disability. The RNPGAD Implementation Plan 2014 – 2018 addresses gender and energy issues under outcome 4.2: Increased capacity of households to respond to natural disasters and to the impacts of environmental and climate change. This includes

- **Key action 4.2.6:**
  Support initiatives to improve conservation of energy (in particular in relation to electricity consumption and transport) and promote technologies for renewable energy as a mitigation and adaptation measure keeping in mind that energy services must serve the needs of the household and for the livelihood
  a) Analyse the Tonga Energy Road Map (TERM) for gender mainstreaming and the collection of disaggregated data and for how the road map will impact on household livelihoods
  b) Develop an IEC campaign on how households can contribute to energy conservation; monitor the campaign for impact.

---

106 Ibid, pp. 10-12.
108 Gender CC (No Date). Toolkit to Mainstream Gender into Energy, and Climate Change Community Based Adaptation Projects in the Pacific.
109 Ibid p. 20.
(c) Tonga’s Cabinet endorsed the Tonga Energy Objectives in 2016
(d) Tonga’s Cabinet endorsed the Tonga National Energy Policy in 2016
(e) Drafting of National Energy legislation as umbrella legislation for existing energy related legislations in the country.
(f) Alignment of electricity regulatory roles with the government policies and focus.
(g) Lifeline Electricity Tariff Policy and Guidelines

The *Tonga Energy Road Map 2010 - 2020 (TERM)* begins with a strong statement from the Prime Minister (see quote in section 7.2.1) identifying the energy sector as critical to poverty alleviation; however poverty issues are not directly addressed in the document. The TERM does however identify Environmental and Social Impact Assessments as essential to energy plans with special consideration given to those groups with specific needs including youth, women, religious groups and those with special needs. In addition it considers that social sustainability requires equity with the need for an affordable electricity supply that meets the needs of people living in remote areas.110

### 7.2.5 Solar and wind initiatives in the Pacific

The most significant initiative in solar energy that addresses gender issues in the Pacific is the “Solar mammas” project, an initiative of the Government of India and Barefoot College in India which is training Pacific women as solar engineers. 14 Pacific nations attended a summit in India in 2016, with the initiative to be rolled out for the Cook Islands, Fiji, Vanuatu, Samoa, Tonga, Kiribati, Tuvalu, Niue, Solomon Islands, Micronesia, Marshall Islands, Palau, and Papua New Guinea. A press release states:

> The $1.25 million plan will provide households with 40 watt solar systems, robust portable rechargeable lanterns, a village-based repair and maintenance workshop and a wi-fi enabled learning centre in every community involved in the project. Sensor technology will also be integrated to allow for real time data collection on key environmental and performance indicators across the region. The project represents the world’s largest and most comprehensive data gathering system on decentralised solar delivery to be run by women anywhere in the world. The programme addresses self-awareness and leadership, human and basic legal rights, livelihood skills, digital skills, financial inclusion, and micro-enterprise.111

The project will include the installation of 2800 household solar electrification systems using the Barefoot Approach to community owned and managed renewable energy. All technology is fabricated, installed and maintained by older rural women, based on the success of previous projects across Fiji, Vanuatu and Papua New Guinea.

In addition to the Barefoot College initiative the *South Pacific Business Development (SPBD) Solar Lighting Loan Project* is working in the Solomon Islands to provide small loans to women to buy solar lighting kits which contain a solar panel, an array of lighting bulbs and mobile phone charging points. The programme offers small loans to largely rural women entrepreneurs to start or expand small businesses, provides financial literacy and business skills training and offers low-cost micro-insurance coverage. SPBD is a network that operates in four Pacific countries – Samoa, Tonga, Fiji and Solomon Islands and as such has potential to develop a solar lighting model tailored to women....112

The third project in the Pacific focussing on women and solar energy is smaller scale and is an initiative of the Women’s Federation for World Peace (WFWP), Australia. The Island Lights Project (ILP) is a not for profit development project which aims to provide sustainable and safe portable solar lighting for women and their families living in remote Pacific Island communities. It aims to capacity build and empower women with the means to enable their children to study after dark and give the opportunity

---

110 Ibid, p. 46.
for women to maintain home based businesses. It is currently operating in the Solomon Islands and Vanuatu.\textsuperscript{113}

There are no specific projects addressing women or gender issues in wind energy in the Pacific that are available online. There is a network of \textit{Women of Wind Energy} (WoWE), which is a New York based group that has been running for over a decade, which promotes the education, professional development, and advancement of women to achieve a strong diversified workforce and support a robust renewable energy economy.\textsuperscript{114} However this network only operates in North America. No other networks were identified specialising in wind energy and gender issues. Most resources which address renewable energies include wind energy, but do not mention any specific initiatives other than increasing the role of women in wind energy through employment and decision making, community consultations and including mentoring programs.

Kristen Graf, Executive Director of Women of Wind Energy (WoWE) states that women are under-represented in wind and the other renewable energy industries, and believes progress in renewables may depend on correcting that. She identifies:

\begin{quote}
Statistics are difficult [to come by] because there is little historic data, but preliminary results ... show women make up approximately 20 per cent to 25 per cent of the wind workforce. Most work in administrative and human resources roles. I don’t think we have to hit a 50 per cent line, but I think we will be better off if the workforce is more reflective of the overall long-term customer base.\textsuperscript{115}
\end{quote}

Pacific leaders have alerted the international community about the threats of climate change and sea level rise in the PIFDS. International actions to address climate change through renewable energy initiatives have been implemented slowly (AOSIS, 2012), which further emphasizes the challenges associated with the implementation of sustainable energy goals.

**Project Gender Action Plan Summary**

The Gender Action Plan addresses the inclusion of women throughout the project which encompasses consultations having a target of at least 50% female participation, including women only consultations as well as a requirement for hiring 20% women in the construction and administration of all energy installations. Women’s active employment at sites will require necessary institutional support including separate sanitation facilities with women friendly design including locks and lighting. Contractors appointed for construction will be informed of the required facilities before bidding.

Equal pay for equal work between male and female workers is a standard which will be ensured. In addition there may be a need for mentoring women in this non-traditional labour sector, if this is the case, the GAP identifies the need to work with local women’s NGOs to assist in identifying local women interested and capable of providing the required labour.

In terms of capacity development it is targeted that a minimum of 30% female participants be included in the on training every year on project planning and asset management maintenance, procurement, anticorruption, safeguards and power budget management. In addition it is advocated that a minimum of 30% female participation be included in work for the demand side management of community electric societies’ customers, enhancing community electric societies’ management capacities, and business incubation and management including identification of solar power-related business.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{113} Island Lights Project, Women’s Federation for World Peace Australia website, \url{https://www.wfwpaustralia.org/island-lights-project}, accessed 19/04/2017.
\item \textsuperscript{114} Women and Wind Energy website \url{http://www.womenofwindenergy.org/november-wowe-expanding-to-advance-women-across-the-renewable-energy-spectrum.html}, accessed 19/04/2017
\end{itemize}
opportunities to be potentially built by the private sector. Again the GAP points to liaison with local women’s NGOs to assist in identifying interested and capable women to meet the targets.

To ensure women’s increased involvement in project activities do not overburden them, the project includes training on intrahousehold decision-making and sharing household labour, financial access and control with indicators built into the monitoring and evaluation framework to track women’s and men’s perceptions and behaviour on economic and personal empowerment measures before, and after business skills trainings.

A Social Development and Gender Specialist will be recruited and they will oversee the inclusion of gender during meetings and consultations. All key management staff will receive gender training in energy based on the Toolkit to Mainstream Gender into Energy, and Climate Change Community Based Adaptation Projects in the Pacific, and SPC’s Toolkit to Mainstream Gender into Energy and Climate Change Community Based Adaptation Projects in the Pacific. A dedicated semi-annual GAP progress and monitoring report will be submitted with gap performance indicators disaggregated by gender. Project performance reporting and annual reports will also collect and include gender disaggregated data. To ensure this process, a training for the Implementing Agency will be conducted in collecting sex disaggregated data.

Attention to gender representation throughout all project implementation and decision making processes will be identified with a minimum of 30% women in key decision-making committees for the project in addition to at least one female member on the project team in-charge of community consultation, information and training activities (in addition to the gender and social safeguards specialist). Again, the GAP identifies local women’s NGOs as an excellent source for guidance if the contractor and project staff have difficulty sourcing adequately qualified women.
Annex 1: Summary Poverty Reduction and Social Strategy

Country: Tonga

Project Title: Tonga Renewable Energy Project

Lending/Financing
Modality: 

Department/Division:

I. POVERTY AND SOCIAL ANALYSIS AND STRATEGY
Targeting classification: General Intervention

A. Links to the National Poverty Reduction and Inclusive Growth Strategy and Country Partnership Strategy

This project is in line with ADB’s country operations business plan for Tonga, the Tonga Strategic Development Framework II 2015-2025, the Pacific Approach 2015-2020, which promotes job creation, inclusive economic growth and human development and the Revised National Policy on Gender and Development.

B. Results from the Poverty and Social Analysis during PPTA or Due Diligence

1. Key poverty and social issues

ADB identifies the latest poverty statistics in Tonga (for 2009) at 22.5 per cent, which is lower than many neighbouring Pacific countries.\(^\text{116}\) Tonga did not meet the MDG targets for poverty and it is highly susceptible to price shocks due to the reliance on food and fuel imports. Although there is no absolute poverty, due in part to a high level of remittances, and subsistence farming and fishing; there is a high level of income disparity. Households in Tongatapu have approximately 15 per cent above the national average of GDP per capita whilst those in the outer islands such the Ha’apai island group have a GDP about 40 per cent below the national average.\(^\text{117}\) Data also revealed that female headed households account for 24.6 per cent of those falling below the Basic Needs Poverty Line and that 29.5 per cent of children living in female headed households are in households below the Basic Needs Poverty Line.\(^\text{118}\)

The Tonga Strategic Development Framework II (2015-2025) addresses issues for those most vulnerable including those in the outer islands, the elderly, youth, women, single headed households, the landless, unemployed and the disabled. The government has developed a progressive policy and approach to disability issues (National Policy on Disability Inclusive Development 2014-2018) and a solid National Policy Statement on Gender and Development and Strategic Action Plan 2014 – 2018. There are however no government documents addressing the needs of the LGBTI community and homosexuality is against the law.

2. Beneficiaries

The beneficiaries of the Project are the residents of Tonga without access to electricity. 90 per cent of Tonga’s power generation is from imported diesel. Renewable energies have the potential to decrease tariff prices, increase energy efficiency and security as well as decrease emissions. The Tonga Renewable Energy Project is supporting Tonga to develop further solar, integrated diesel systems and wind generation in outer islands and installation of batteries in wind and solar farm in Tongatapu. It will significantly increase electricity generation reaching those without energy supply. From the poverty assessment it is clear that women headed households are the greatest proportion of the population living below the Basic Needs Poverty Line, and as such should be prioritized in the project in all trainings and capacity building activities.

Impact channels.

The project will address poverty, social issues and gender through increasing the resilience and sustainability of

---


renewable energies at the household and business level for those in remote and isolated outer islands. This will provide a regular and environmentally friendly power supply to generate employment through construction as well as enabling local household industries and commercial enterprises to run with a reliable power supply.

4. Other social and poverty issues.
It is essential to address the needs of the poor and women in energy project design to encompass economic development and empowerment through decision making, access to resources and services as well as employment. Enabling rights to efficient, reliable, and affordable energy infrastructure and services is essential to all people’s daily lives in addressing their needs for cooking, lighting, power, clean water and sanitation that can ease their daily household burdens and access to services, especially health. Agriculture also depends on access to energy for machinery and irrigation systems; as well as refrigeration having the ability to substantially increase income from the fishing industry.

There is little ability for the poorest segments of society to increase their income without access to reliable energy. Lack of access to affordable and reliable energy in the household increases labour, decreases the ability of home businesses and increases hardship. In addition reliable affordable energy has the potential to encourage more business and employment options in the formal and informal sector, as well as boosting core social services.

The TSDF II identifies that unemployment is highest among young people; women, especially single mothers; sex workers; victims of abuse; school drop outs; single women; the disabled; the landless and the elderly whom suffer the greatest hardship most due to the absence of a welfare system in Tonga. As such employment of the poor, single women, women headed households, young women and landless women should be prioritised and well as those with disabilities where they are able to complete the tasks for the position. Tonga has strong policy for people living with disabilities and this encompasses education and health services, predominantly provided by government, but substantially enhanced from the work of civil society organisations such as Naunau ‘o ‘Alamaite Tonga Association (NATA).

5. Design features.
The Project will include the construction of solar and wind energy systems particularly in the outer islands and installation of batteries in wind and solar farm in Tongatapu. This will include community consultations to assess the needs, location, pricing, access and maintenance of the systems. The involvement of the poorest and women (especially those most vulnerable) must be ensured through separate consultations. The poor and women-headed households should also be given priority job opportunities with a quota of a minimum of 20 per cent women through employment options.

C. Poverty Impact Analysis for Policy-Based Lending. N/A?
II. PARTICIPATION AND EMPOWERING THE POOR
1. **Summarize the participatory approaches and the proposed project activities that strengthen inclusiveness and empowerment of the poor and vulnerable in project implementation.**

   Initial consultations were held with key stakeholders including the government agencies, landowners and surrounding communities to inform them about the project and solicit their feedback. All expressed their support to the project and indicated willingness to participate in potential job opportunities. Further consultations will be held to discuss the proposed Gender Action Plan and Consultation and Strategy Plan in preparation for the project implementation.

2. **If civil society has a specific role in the project, summarize the actions taken to ensure their participation.**

   The involvement of civil society will be during consultation and project information dissemination. NGOs will be particularly invited to solicit feedbacks on how to enhance the project benefits and mitigate any potential adverse impacts to the community.

3. **Explain how the project ensures adequate participation of civil society organizations in project implementation.**

   Civil society groups will be invited to all consultation forums and will be interviewed in focus group discussions within the community.

4. **What forms of civil society organization participation is envisaged during project implementation?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participation Form</th>
<th>Level of Participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information gathering and sharing</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. **Will a project level participation plan be prepared to strengthen participation of civil society as interest holders for affected persons particularly the poor and vulnerable?**

   - Yes.
   - No.

### III. GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

**Gender mainstreaming category: Effective Gender Mainstreaming**

#### A. **Key Gender Issues are:**

Tonga is one of only seven countries globally which have not ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). Traditional and conservative cultural and religious mores limit the role of women in active decision making and access to resources such as land, which cannot be owned by women. Women also suffer from strong stereotyping in employment, there is a serious gender pay gap and the incidence of domestic violence is high with a social stigma attached to it.

Women in Tonga dominate the informal sector with their role in agriculture and food production not recognised fully in official statistics as 39 per cent of households produce crops to sell through markets and roadside stalls in the informal economy, as well as handicrafts generally sold through the informal market. Most women are employed in unskilled menial work or subordinate positions and low paid positions with the major income for women in the outer islands comes handicraft production (80 per cent of employment for women). Women’s ability to participate in their own businesses due to their inability to own land, thus lacking financial assets.

Within the public service almost half of the personnel are female. Despite women achieving a larger percentage of senior roles than in the past, this does not appear to flow on to women influencing governmental decision making or policy. Women are also predominantly represented in ministries traditionally seen as covering “women’s issues” such health and education, while men dominate in hard

---

119 Ibid
infrastructure and energy. Pay equity is a serious issue with women only receiving 47 per cent of male income. Data identifies that female headed households comprise 22 per cent of all households and are considered the most vulnerable, with least access to resources.

Women also face energy challenges in the formal sector with women-headed businesses generally having lower access to finance and energy-related services (such as grid electricity) than men. There is a need for the construction of energy supplies to provide special access to women’s opportunities through the setting of quotas. Women’s lower status in Tongan society also perpetuates their limited role in decision making, with a need for wide consultations to be held with women to ensure their access to decision making in the design and implementation of the project.

General health and education standards are high for Tonga with little gender disparity. The main health issues for women are obesity, diabetes and cardiovascular diseases with the average weight for women increasing over 30 years by 21.1kg to 95.0kg. A study from The Lancet found 52.6 per cent of Tongan girls compared with 34.5 per cent of Tongan boys are overweight. Violence against women is the other major health and social issue with a national study in 2009 identifying 68 per cent of Tongan women and girls affected by physical violence perpetrated by predominantly their fathers or teachers. It also noted that violence is exacerbated by living with extended family, alcohol consumption and economic hardship faced by men.

The Poverty, Social and Gender Assessment also points out specific subgroups of women whom are more vulnerable than others including lesbian, bisexual and transgender women; single women and women headed households, those living in remote outer islands, the landless, elderly and women with disabilities. This project targets women living in remote and outer islands, as well as women headed households.

Reliable and cost effective energy can decrease women’s time through more the availability of efficient fuel for cooking and provide access to lighting in the home for cottage industries as well as school children’s homework. It needs to be noted that creating the possibility for women’s additional productive work at night may increase their work burden and decrease their time for reproductive activities. The project needs to ensure that more burdens are not placed on women’s time poverty and encourage more men to contribute to intrahousehold work. This is addressed in the GAP through including training on intrahousehold decision-making and sharing household labour and financial access and control with indicators built into the monitoring and evaluation framework to track women’s and men’s perceptions and behaviour on economic and personal empowerment measures before, during and after income business skills trainings.

B. Key actions.

- Gender action plan
- Other actions or measures
- No action or measure

Women must be involved in community meetings and awareness events about the project in all project phases. Separate meetings will be organized to give women an opportunity to express their views about the project and its impacts. A Social Development and Gender Specialist will be employed to ensure gender is integrated into all aspects of design, implementation and monitoring, with key gender indicators tracked and reported on in the monitoring and evaluation framework. Further activities are described in the Gender Action Plan.

IV. ADDRESSING SOCIAL SAFEGUARD ISSUES

A. Involuntary Resettlement

Safeguard Category: A B C FI

---


1. Key impacts. No economic or physical displacement will take place for this project. Some parcels of privately allotted crown lands will be required through lease agreement. It is expected to have some impacts on crops and trees during civil works which will be compensated according to the Resettlement Plan.

2. Strategy to address the impacts.

3. Plan or other Actions.

- Resettlement plan
- Environmental and social management system arrangement
- Social impact matrix
- Combined resettlement and indigenous peoples plan
- Combined resettlement framework and indigenous peoples planning framework
- Social impact matrix

B. Indigenous Peoples

Safeguard Category: □ A  □ B  ☒ C  ☒ FI

1. Key impacts. The project will not have any impact on distinct and vulnerable indigenous peoples.

Is broad community support triggered?  ☒ Yes  □ No

2. Strategy to address the impacts. N/A

3. Plan or other actions. None

- Indigenous peoples plan
- Environmental and social management system arrangement
- Social impact matrix
- Combined resettlement plan and indigenous peoples plan
- Combined resettlement framework and indigenous peoples planning framework
- Indigenous peoples plan elements integrated in project with a summary

V. ADDRESSING OTHER SOCIAL RISKS

A. Risks in the Labor Market

1. Relevance of the project for the country’s or region’s or sector’s labor market. Indicate the impact as high (H), medium (M), and low or not significant (L).

M unemployment   L underemployment   L retrenchment   L core labor standards

2. Labor market impact. The project will have positive impact on unemployment. It will create job opportunities for workers in construction and maintenance of solar, wind and integrated diesel electricity systems. It also will create short term jobs for simple administrative works. The employment of women in skilled and unskilled work is proposed as a quota for a minimum of 20 per cent. Core international and national labour standards must be complied with including no child labour.

B. Affordability

C. Communicable Diseases and Other Social Risks

1. Indicate the respective risks, if any, and rate the impact as high (H), medium (M), low (L), or not applicable (NA):

L Communicable diseases   N/A Human trafficking

Others (please specify) ______________

2. Describe the related risks of the project on people in project area. N/A

VI. MONITORING AND EVALUATION

1. Targets and indicators:

All data is to be sex disaggregated. A 20 per cent quota for women in all employment opportunities is critical. Separate community consultation sessions should be held with women.

Required human resources:

A Social Development and Gender Specialist is required as a core member of staff to ensure the appropriate target groups are active in the project, identified as beneficiaries and that gender issues and sex disaggregated data is tracked through the monitoring.
2. Information in PAM:
The PAM will require sex-disaggregated data collection for indicators of gender participation in community consultation, training activities and employment statistics. GAP report will detail the progress of implementation, with a separate section also addressing ongoing issues for women in the project sites.

3. Monitoring tools:
Monitoring tools will include minutes taking from meetings, consultation reports and records from training and workshops, employment numbers (increase-decrease), records. All data collected will be sex disaggregated. A separate socio-economic gender survey including only those households directly involved in the project area should be undertaken.

ANNEX 2: REFERENCES


Morioka, Kate (2016). Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction. *Bangkok: UN Women.*


Pacific Community (No date). *Gender Profile: Tonga.* Noumea: Pacific Community.


UNFPA (2013). *A Deeper Silence the Unheard Experiences of Women with Disabilities – Sexual and Reproductive Health and Violence in Kiribati, Solomon Islands and Tonga.* Fiji: UNFPA.

USAID (2014) Asia Pacific ADAPT Gender Source Book. Bangkok: USAID. [http://asiapacificadapt.net/gender-sourcebook/7-sectoral-modules/7-7-module-g-energy/](http://asiapacificadapt.net/gender-sourcebook/7-sectoral-modules/7-7-module-g-energy/), accessed 18/04/2017

Gender and Social Inclusion Action Plan

I. Gender Overview

In 2015 Kiribati ranked 137 out of 180 countries in the United Nations Human Development Index, with insufficient information for a gender ranking in the United Nations Gender Development Index (GDI)\(^1\). Kiribati has achieved gender parity in primary education. Gender balance in education is an issue in secondary education in Kiribati with the number of female students vastly outnumbering the number of males. For secondary education, total female enrolments ranged from 10 per cent higher in Form 1 to 60 per cent higher in Form 7 in 2014\(^2\).

Kiribati is a signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and has made domestic commitments to achieving gender equality and advancing women, including through the Kiribati Development Plan 2016-2019.

Kiribati enters the 2030 UN development agenda with unfinished business regarding many of its health-related Millennium Development Goal targets. Life expectancy at birth was 64 for males and 69 for females, the second lowest in the Pacific after PNG (2015 data)\(^3\).

At present, a National Women’s Policy is still under development. A CEDAW report is being prepared as part of the policy requirements. (personal communication July 2017)

II. Cultural Issues and Gender Relations

The 2015 census showed the population of 110,136 with more females (56,040) than males (54,096). More males and females live in urban settings than in rural areas, with females outnumbering males in the urban areas. Life expectancy at birth is 63.7 years for males and 68.8 years for females\(^4\). See Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Population by Sex and Age Group in South Tarawa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiribati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STarawa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Kiribati society is generally patriarchal, and women perform the vast majority of unpaid reproductive and domestic work, and are primarily responsible for the care of children, the ill and the elderly. Based on traditional patterns I-Kiribati women have had limited roles in community decision-making forums, such as those traditionally held in community meeting houses – the maneabas. This role belonged to the unimwane (old men) who represented clans and associated protocols. In the traditional maneabas, the seating positions of the

---

2 KDP 2015.
3 World Health Organization (WHO) Global Health Observatory
4 CIA. 2016
unimwane of the village demonstrated their clan hierarchy. The maneaba continues to be the centre of village life but this is changing in South Tarawa. Maneabas now also belong to churches and are often run by committees, comprising men and women. Police and law courts are replacing much of the traditional decision-making and law enforcement, once the domain of the unimwane. The future social role of the maneaba and its unimwane is being redefined in South Tarawa in relation to growing aspirations of youth and demands for gender equality (Whincup 2010).

Women can inherit or own land in i-Kiribati tradition, but they usually still have less access to modern types of resources such as formal credit. The position of a woman in i-Kiribati society is largely defined by her age and marital status. A married woman with children has prestige but her husband holds considerable authority over her and this has much bearing on the freedom she can exercise to take part in activities. There are many restrictions on women’s movements to safeguard their reputation, in line with traditional values regarding chastity (SPC 2014).

Due to increasing urban drift, living conditions on South Tarawa are worse than outer islands with problems of overcrowding contributing to the stresses faced by women and girls. Gender based social barriers are decreasing in urban areas as women have more opportunities for education, paid employment, access to services and exposure to media and information, but in rural areas and within many households, traditional gender norms are generally maintained (SPC 2014).

**Laws and Policies on Gender Equality**


The Kiribati Family Health and Support Study published in 2010 shows that violence against women is prevalent. According to the study, 68 per cent ever-partnered women aged 15–49 reported experiencing physical or sexual violence, or both, by an intimate partner. The Kiribati Government has taken steps to counter these high levels of violence against women including the establishment of a Ministry for Women, Youth and Social Affairs (MWYSA) in 2014.

The Kiribati Shared Implementation Plan is the overarching 4-year framework to operationalize the Elimination of Sexual and Gender Based Violence (SGBV) in Kiribati. The Family Peace Act, which aims to ensure the safety and protection of people, who experience or witness domestic violence, was passed by Parliament in April 2014 and enacted in December 2014. Moral Education which is related to eliminating domestic violence has been included in the school curriculum for Years 3 to 6. A network for the safety of domestic violence victims (SafeNet) has been set up in Tarawa and the outer islands.

Kiribati’s constitution affords women formal equality before the law but stops short of affording them all the benefits and outcomes required under CEDAW. While these constitutional anti-discrimination provisions exist, they do not include sex as protected ground. Notably, while there is a provision providing protection from discrimination on the
grounds of race and political opinion, there is no protection from discrimination on the basis of sex, sexual orientation or disability (UN Human Rights Council 2010). While the constitution provides for the protection of fundamental rights and freedoms, like most countries, they are subject to certain qualifications and limitations. In particular, Kiribati’s customary laws are given recognition in the Courts including for Civil cases the ownership by custom of water or of rights in, over or to water (Laws of Kiribati Act, 1989).

In the current Kiribati Development Plan, Governance Section: 3, the government clearly outlines a strong commitment to addressing gender inequality as follows:

- Improve and expand attention to the problems and/or concerns of women
- Increase and promote the importance of the contribution of women to socio-economic development
- Increase public awareness on gender-related issues
- Increase support to services addressing gender-related issues

National Mechanisms: Government efforts to improve the welfare of women had been coordinated up until 2012 through the Ministry of Internal and Social Affairs (having been transferred from the Ministry of Environment and Social Development in 2004). The Women’s Affairs Unit was established within MESD and MISA until 2012 when Kiribati passed a bill for the establishment of a Ministry for Women, Youth and Social Affairs. The Department of Women under the Ministry of Women, Youth and Social Affairs is responsible for developing, implementing and monitoring gender policies. The department currently has a staff of four including: the Principle, an assistant, an outer islands gender resource and an economic development resource. An additional five project staff will be added e.g. one SafeNet Coordinator and 4 other SASA resources to develop strategies to deal with SGBV.

The SPC report states that the Aia Mwaea Ainen Kiribati (AMAK) was established as a non-government organization in 1982 to serve as an umbrella organization for the various church affiliated women’s organizations. Following a national conference, AMAK was dissolved as an umbrella organization and an arrangement was set up to integrate government and NGO functions. In more recent years, there has been a separation of function of Government and NGO with AMAK now functioning as an NGO and the Ministry of Women, Youth and Social Affairs established to take over the oversight of Government’s commitments to gender equality and women’s empowerment. A restructuring of AMAK, the umbrella organization for women’s groups, is scheduled for the near future (personal communication Principle Women’s Department). At the present time, women’s groups in South Tarawa function independently upon the request of international and national agencies.

The Principle attends regional meetings and prepares documents for government use. She is currently compiling the data required for the Government’s CEDAW report. The SPC report indicates that Kiribati’s initial CEDAW report has been compiled, and is in draft form awaiting Government endorsement before it is submitted. Capacity constraints are one of the main reasons for the delay in complying with the reporting obligations.

Women’s Participation in Decision-Making: Women comprise 51% of Kiribati’s total population. At the national level, the number of women holding parliamentary seats is

---

5 SPC. Undated.
6 Ibid.
small. In the 2007 elections, three women were elected. In the 2011 elections, all three incumbent women MPs won their seats, plus one more woman candidate was elected. Of these four women MPs, one continued as Vice President, and another was selected as Minister of Education. Following the election process in December 2015 and January 2016, three women were elected, joining their 41 male counterparts as the new Members of Parliament of Kiribati, with women therefore currently comprising 7% of Members of Parliament. At the local level, only seven out of 142 Island Councilors are women (5% of Island Councilors).

At the same time, anecdotal evidence from project staff and government executives has indicated that women in Kiribati play a pivotal role in driving a number of progressive initiatives – particularly those with social impacts – and are key in influencing their success. Examples of this include the significant work carried out during KAP III to improve community and beach cleanliness, as well as WASH initiatives spearheaded by Mother Communities comprised primarily of women. Women have been instrumental in both supporting these initiatives and ensuring a degree of activity continuation. This important decision-making role that women play in Kiribati – in Government ranks and otherwise - is currently unrecognized / undocumented. Further research in this area is recommended in the project Gender Action Plan.

Gender Gaps in Economic Development

Women’s share of wage employment in the non-agriculture sector—industry (e.g., construction and manufacturing) and services—is commonly used as a measure of gender equality in formal sector employment. Women hold a nearly equal share of these jobs in Tonga (48%), Kiribati (47%), the Cook Islands (47%), and Niue (46%). Women’s share is lowest in Timor-Leste (31%), Fiji (33%), and Solomon Islands (33%).

Employment in South Tarawa

In the 2015 Census, of the approx. 38,000 persons over the age of 15 living on South Tarawa and Betio, approx. 11,000 (29%) report being employed, approx. 2500 (7%) are self-employed and approx. 100 individuals are employers with another 1000 or so (3%) working at subsistence levels. Of those employed, 62% are male and 38% are female. A higher percentage of females report being self-employed (females 63%, males 37%) with approximately equal numbers of males and females being employers (approx. 55% females). More men than women report subsistence work (56% versus 44%), while 63% (23,604) report they are not employed, with women making up 60% of this group. Wage employment refers to those jobs with regular wages or salaries, which also tend to provide paid leave and other benefits such as retirement pensions.

Tables 2, 3 and 4 present this data.

---

7 The House of Assembly has 46 members, 44 of whom are directly elected for a four-year term representing electorates; one representative of the Banaban Community; and the attorney general as ex-officio member.
8 Kiribati National Statistics Office. 2015
9 Personal communication November 2017.
10 ADB 2016
Table 2: Population 15 years and over, sex and work status 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Employee</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Self-employed</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Employer</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Subsistence</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiribati</td>
<td>15,731</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>485</td>
<td>443</td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>156</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STarawa</td>
<td>11116</td>
<td>688</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>2505</td>
<td>924</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>737</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3: Population and sex, 15 years and over, unemployed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Not Employed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiribati</td>
<td>43,540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STarawa</td>
<td>23,604</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 4: Population and Sex, Actively Seeking Work in Kiribati and South Tarawa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiribati</td>
<td>43,540</td>
<td>17,114</td>
<td>18,147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STarawa</td>
<td>23,604</td>
<td>10,487</td>
<td>13,117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Economic Status of Female Headed Households: An analysis of Kiribati’s HIES\(^\text{11}\) finds that ‘[t]he gender of the head of household appears to play a small but important role in determining the likelihood of a household being in poverty in Kiribati. Nationally just under one in five households was headed by a female’ (KNSO & UNDPPC 2010, p.5). FHHs were over-represented in the lowest three expenditure deciles. Women make up 49% of those falling below the poverty line (KNSO & UNDPPC 2010).\(^\text{12}\)

Education

Literacy

Kiribati has a high literacy rate with about 97% of both the male and female population able to read and write.\(^\text{13}\) There is gender parity in primary education while the participation rate for girls exceeds that of boys in Junior Secondary School (JSS) and Senior School (SS).\(^\text{14}\) The literacy question in the 2015 census was whether this person could read and write in English. A total of 71% (72,237) over the age of 3 years old answered yes – 48% of these were female, the remaining 52% were male.

\(^{11}\) Conducted in 2006. The next Kiribati HIES is scheduled for 2017.

\(^{12}\) Governance and Social Development Resource Centre. 2012

\(^{13}\) ADB 2016

\(^{14}\) As noted in ADB 2016, sex disaggregated tertiary education statistics are not available.
Health

Kiribati faces a double burden of disease, with high mortality and morbidity from both communicable and non-communicable diseases (NCDs). NCDs, in particular heart disease, hypertension, diabetes and cancer are becoming more prevalent. This is contributing to increased hardship in the community and higher health service costs. Most of the increase in non-communicable diseases arises from poor nutrition. As of 2008, 53.6% of females over the age of 20 were obese, compared with 37.7% of men (WHO, 2015). The number of maternal deaths in 2015 was three, down from six in 1990. The SPC report states that at present it is difficult to gauge the accurate level of maternal death as data needs to be strengthened in this area. The teenage birth rate is relatively high with (49 births per 1000 age 15 – 19) (ADB 2016a), with 1.4% of births reported in the 2015 Population and Housing Census occurring in girls between the ages of 11 and 14. A broad range of reproductive health services are available but culture, tradition and religious views are a major barrier of women’s access, particularly in outer islands.

Gender and Waterborne Disease

Gender plays a significant role in the interaction with water and the impact of waterborne disease. Women’s roles in water and sanitation include:

- Water collection from wells and communal rainwater harvesting systems;
- Responsibility for household hygiene and sanitation;
- Decision making on use of household resources;
- Care for HHs members whose illnesses are a result of waterborne diseases such as diarrhea;
- Mobilizing communities and disseminating information on the impacts of poor water and sanitation attitudes and practices;
- The management and monitoring of water collection, distribution and use; and
- The impact of ensuring that the household has safe water affects women’s time and options for income generating and other activities. Caring for ill family members also is generally a female responsibility. Bouts of poor health through ongoing waterborne disease illnesses affects school attendance in both female and male children (GHD 2015).

An analysis of the diarrhoea and dysentery incidents reported from 2005-2016 show the following trends linked to gender and age groups (PPTA Report Output 35 and 36):

- There is a slightly higher number of males reporting diarrhoea cases particularly after 2010, and no discernible difference for dysentery
- Boys between 1-4yrs are the most affected age group for both diarrhoea and dysentery in both TUC and BTC
- Reported dysentery cases throughout each age groups and bother male and female in BTC and TUC show no significant difference in effected age groups, although there are less in the older age groups (above 45 yrs)

Gender Based Violence: There is a high incidence of violence against women and girls in Kiribati. The 2010 Kiribati Family Health and Support Study: A study on violence against women and children (SPC 2010) found that 68% of women (2 in 3) between the ages of 15 and 49 years who have ever entered into relationships have reported experiencing

15 UN agencies. 2015
physical or sexual violence, or both, by an intimate partner, a very serious cause for concern. This level of prevalence is among the highest in the world. Physical violence was more common than sexual violence, although there was also significant overlap between these two forms of violence. That is, most women who reported sexual violence were also experiencing physical violence by an intimate partner.

Generally the levels of intimate partner violence were higher in South Tarawa than in the outer islands, which could relate to the greater availability of alcohol and the existence of more social problems such as unemployment. The Government of Kiribati has in place a policy “Ending Violence Against Women (EVAW)” supported by a Cabinet endorsed National Action Plan for implementing the policy for 2011-2021. In December 2013, Parliament unanimously passed the Family Safety Bill criminalizing domestic violence.

**Child Protection**

In 2012 Kiribati passed a historic law aimed at strengthening the capacity of agencies and individuals to protect and advocate for the rights of children and young people in Kiribati. The Children, Young People and Family Welfare Act (2012) is the first law of its kind that establishes a strong legal foundation for the protection of children and young people. Prior to this law, there was no legally mandated social welfare system to support children and young people at risk or subjected to violence, abuse, neglect and exploitation (UNICEF 2014).

The Government of Kiribati has demonstrated its commitment to child protection reform through incorporating child protection into its national planning framework, the Kiribati Development Plan 2016 - 2019, and also including it into national fiscal management strategies.

**III. Gender and Water Supply**

1. **Women’s and men’s roles in HH water**

The sex-disaggregated data in Table 5 provides information about the daily activities of women and men in South Tarawa. Some 17% of women report being an income earner, compared to 31% of men. Other roles divide along more traditional gender lines, with men reporting main roles in fishing, firewood collection and toddy cutting and women reporting main roles in cooking, washing, cleaning and baby sitting.

Of particular interest is that 11% of women report managing the household resources, compared to 6% of men, 21% of women and 16% of men report a main role in general housework, with 9% of men reporting fetching water as a main role, as compared to 1% of women. The National Statistics Office defines “managing resources” as referring to the ability of a member of household to take control of all the resources of the Household. For example, she or he should ensure that the household needs and wants are met in terms of purchasing goods, managing household items, cooking and so forth (personal communication).

The role of men in fetching water is linked to the purchase of rainwater for HH consumption. Males can be seen along the roads in South Tarawa carrying containers of water such as pails or other receptacles. This work is considered heavy work and as
such is undertaken primarily by men. Household wells are generally located within a few feet from the residence so carrying water from the well is not usually an onerous task.

Due to I-Kiribati roles both in carrying water as well as in undertaking general household work, the Gender Equity and Social Inclusion Action Plan (GESIAP) requires that males overall be adequately represented in project orientation and public awareness sessions.

Table 5: Main Roles in the Household, South Tarawa sex disaggregated

| Role                      | Female | | Male | |
|---------------------------|--------|---------------------------|--------|
|                           | Total  | Income earner | Managing resources | Fishing | Cooking | Washing | Cleaning | Baby sitter | Fetch water | Firewood collection | Cutting toddy | General household | None | Other |
|                           | 20283  | 3379 (17% )   | 2298 (11% )         | 94      | 3125    | 1677    | 1296     | 1138       | 160 (1%)    | 87          | 29         | 4241 (21% ) | 987 | 1772 |
|                           | 17795  | 5566 (31% )   | 1148 (6% )          | 1630    | 401     | 156     | 589      | 232        | 1528 (9%)   | 287         | 484        | 2797 (16% ) | 926 | 2051 |

Source: 2015 Kiribati Population and Housing Census

2. Financial Literacy for Water Customers

Research conducted in many countries has found that the management and use of money is a skill unfamiliar to many, especially those unattached to banks or other forms of money-keeping. Without safe places to keep their money, and the knowledge of how to use it over a long term, many see no option but to spend it immediately for things that may or may not be essentials.

In 2012, a financial literacy assessment – *The Financial Competency of Low-Income Households in Fiji* – was undertaken (Sibley 2012). Until then, no Pacific island country (PIC) had a comprehensive picture of how financially literate their people were – especially those who were most vulnerable. The absence of such a baseline limits the ability of PICs to put in place well-researched policies and targeted strategies to create a financially competent population.

The study found that low-income households have low-moderate levels of financial competence. This means most households are only able to competently undertake a subset of the financial activities required by the household to manage money effectively. Households are generally better at managing immediate and shorter term financial activities, and are less competent in managing longer term financial activities (including activities which require forward planning) and more complex financial activities, including activities which require engagement with the formal financial system. Overall, understanding of the cost of money was found to be very low.  

The widespread and very low levels of financial literacy in PICs is seen as an impediment to achieving greater economic dynamism and financial security at the household level.

16 No sex disaggregated data is available.
The issue of financial literacy is particularly relevant to water metering, which is to be prepaid. Comments received during the PPTA community consultations showed concerns by those who were dependent for their income on remittances from elsewhere. The expressed concern was that these HHs have no way to know when money will be available, and therefore may not be in a position to prepay.

Because there has not been a financial literacy assessment in Kiribati, it is not possible to determine whether HHs have access to basic financial services or have basic financial literacy. Many report feeling the impacts of an increasingly cash economy, particularly new migrants to South Tarawa.

To address this issue, the gender action plan is recommending that basic financial literacy education be offered at the village level in South Tarawa through the STWSP auspices, using resources from KIT or other programs/projects dealing with this subject. KIT has had discussions with Kiribati ANZ who provide free training on a train the trainer model for financial literacy. The Employment Support Service (ESS) located at KIT is exploring this further and it is recommended that follow up conversations take place with the ESS or KIT. The course used is Money Minded which is supported by the ANZ and has been taught worldwide. A model has been developed for the Pacific and run in Samoa and Vanuatu in 2016, Fiji and the Solomon Islands in 2013. The course is very clear and uses plain language. This is in line with the Money Pacific Goals, endorsed by the Forum Economic Ministers Meeting (FEMM) and South Pacific Central Bank Governors in 2009.

The regional goals to be achieved by 2020 include:
1. All children to receive financial education through core curricula
2. All adults to have access to financial education
3. Simple and transparent consumer protection to be put in place
4. Halve the number of Pacific Islanders without access to basic financial services

3. Social Inclusion/Water Use Strategies

The Kiribati Program Poverty Assessment (DFAT March 2014) found that there is no direct translation for the word “poverty” in i-Kiribati communities as very few people were considered to ‘have nothing’ (te kain nano ni kannano), a concept roughly equivalent to ‘destitution’ in English (ADB Kiribati Participatory Poverty Assessment 2007). Having access to only traditional food was seen as hardship (te maiu ni kanganga, as the notion of difficulties in providing for family needs). This supports the common view that ‘hardship’ is a more appropriate concept than ‘poverty’ for the Pacific. The study identified poverty in Kiribati as linked to a number of trends:
- An increasing need for cash as more people lead increasingly urban lifestyles;
- Employment and ways to earn cash are limited;
- The traditional way of living is under threat; and
- The exclusion of certain groups remains an issue – people with disabilities and unemployed youth.

The project population includes people of all income levels, occupations and lifestyles. Each HH, depending on its resources, will develop a “water use strategy”, a strategy built on access to HH wells, rainwater and Public Utilities Board (PUB) water, whether from the tap or from a tanker. It is important to ensure that poorer HHs are not paying a greater percentage of their HH income for their water because of reduced access to other safe
water options. For example, income earners with built-in rainwater tanks have a free source of water, whereas those with traditional roofing buy rainwater from the maneaba or church at 50 cents a bucket. In rain rich years, the poor will still have to buy drinking water – rainwater or PUB water – or use water from their wells. Water from wells and the PUB water is usually boiled, but there is a belief that rainwater is pure to drink. Studies have shown that this belief is not justified, particularly as the containers in which rainwater is placed are often contaminated (MHMS Jan-Aug 2013 Water Monitoring Results in ADB 2014). The project must ensure through its pricing mechanisms that poorer HHs are not penalized because of their increased need for PUB water.

IV. Gender Equity and Social Inclusion Action Plan

The project is classified as effective gender mainstreaming (EGM). The investment program will include measures for women to equally and meaningfully share in the project’s benefits and decision-making. Key strategies for promoting gender equity through the project will be through capacity building and institutional development, facilitating gender analysis of issues and women’s participation, and capturing and reporting on gender outcomes.

The Gender Equity and Social Inclusion Action Plan (GAP) addressed potential gender inequality risks and promotes women as project beneficiaries through provision of targets for female participation in community discussions/consultations on the design and implementation of water supply improvements; female participation in MISE and other project related capacity building activities; employment of females for project related infrastructure; training on GAP implementation and gender awareness for all Project Management Unit (PMU), Project Implementation Consultants and selected MISE/PUB staff.

Initial community consultation/information sessions funded and implemented under the GAP will present all engineering, social and environmental design features of the proposed Project components, including the installation of taps and water meters. Widely advertised community meetings will be held with presentations made by project engineers using maps, modeling and other explanatory diagrams etc. where required. The Social Development and Social Safeguards aspects of the project will be presented, including the elements of the GAP, the Stakeholder Communication Strategy and the Resettlement Framework/Resettlement Plan(s). At this point the Project Grievance Redress Mechanism will be introduced along with the Environmental Impact Assessment findings. Open discussions concerning Project design aspects will elicit questions and comments from those participating, to be addressed in the consultation and properly recorded.

Other Project costs linked to the Information, Education and Communication program (IEC) will be resourced by the GAP. These costs are noted under Output 2 in the GAP and are primarily “hard costs” associated with the IEC program to ensure gender sensitive materials are developed and available throughout the life of the project. “Soft costs” associated with the IEC will be funded through the Project Participation Plan and Stakeholder Communication Strategy (SCS) where activities will focus on village level house-to-house visits to inform and engage all beneficiaries. These consultations will focus on supporting behavioral change in maintaining the PUB reticulated water supply to each HH and willingness to pay for 24/7 safe water supply. This is further detailed in the SCS.
The PMU will be responsible for ensuring that the social and gender related design measures and targets are properly resourced, monitored and implemented as designed. An International Social Development and Gender Specialist will be contracted to coordinate the GAP implementation and monitoring. Sex-disaggregated baseline data will be collected and used to monitor GAP implementation and impact, and reported during quarterly and mid-term reviews using the ADB GAP reporting template.

The project will provide sufficient resources to implement the GAP. Total cost is estimated to be USD 48,000. The following strategies are proposed to address gender disparities in this project:
## Gender Equity and Social Inclusion Action Plan (GESIAP)

**Project Objective:** Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output 1</strong></td>
<td>Establish new connections in project areas and informal settlements (total HHs: 7877 2015 census), which will benefit 100% of female-headed HHs as well. <strong>Baseline:</strong> 4135 water connections as of 2015 of which approx. 20 - 25% are Female headed households.</td>
<td>Q2 2019 – Q1 2021</td>
<td>MISE staff and project engineers/social and gender specialists</td>
<td>No cost for gender action – project will cover all HHs</td>
<td>Social Development and Gender Specialist (SDGS) collect sex-disaggregated data on connections for semi-annual Safeguard Progress Reports</td>
<td>Female headed households will be relegated as secondary priority.</td>
<td>Tracking of HH data early in the implementation to identify female headed households to be included in the list</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women, poor, youth and vulnerable as well as disabled participate in project orientation and consultations and focus group discussions. Women-only project orientation sessions will be conducted. Male-only project orientation sessions will also be conducted due to men’s role in carrying water and the need to engage men to not damage the water supply piping. <strong>Target:</strong> Total participants will include 50% women and 50%</td>
<td>Q2 2018 – Q4 2024</td>
<td>MISE staff and project engineers/SDGS/PDA consultant</td>
<td>USD8000</td>
<td>Meeting minutes, photos and attendance sheets</td>
<td>Community leaders do not recognize the need for both women’s and men’s participation.</td>
<td>As part of the GESIAP, implementing these meetings is an important performance indicator for IA reporting and non-compliance will be noted. Women and men only consultations will be conducted.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

17 Budgets include items outside of the project budget (rental of space, provision of travel allowances, snacks, water, contracting media specialists, evaluators, etc.). The assumption is that facilitators/project staff will be paid through existing project contracts.

18 Data provided by PPTA Economist. The 2006 HIES stated that between 20% and 25 % of HHs were female-headed.
**Project Objective:** Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required¹⁷</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>male participants for total project consultations/orientations <strong>Baseline:</strong> 0 (all target consultations will only take place during project implementation)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Timing of the meeting will be sensitive especially to women’s availability.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                | • Contractors engaged at least 10% women  
• Orientation and guidance on labour standards, gender equality in wages, safety and hygiene to all contractors at commencement of work and monitor implementation  
**Target:** 100% of contractors  
**Baseline:** 0  
• Separate toilet/sanitation facilities for men and women workers (Baseline: 0) | Q2 2019-Q1 2021 | Contractors | No cost – part of MISE contract preparation and contractor’s contract  
Orientations and building toilet facilities for women are part of the contractors budget and supported by SDGS | Number of contractor orientation sessions, women staff employed, toilet facilities for both men and women reported in project progress report. | Support is not provided to ensure relevant clauses are in place.  
Orientations are not all inclusive of staff.  
Building separate toilets for women is not prioritized. | MISE staff monitors work sites to ensure orientations are done on time, toilet facilities for women are available and clauses and gender equality standards are followed. |
**Project Objective:** Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community engagement in civil works will include at least 10% women. Baseline = 0</td>
<td>Q1 2020-Q4 2024</td>
<td>Contractor</td>
<td>Part of the contractor’s contract</td>
<td>Project progress report/billing statement</td>
<td>Women will not be prioritized in community engagement</td>
<td>Specific work opportunities suitable for women will be identified and target for women engagement agreed with the contractor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output 2</strong> Water supply infrastructure management is improved</td>
<td>Lifeline water tariff method developed by PUB with stakeholder communication program targeted at all HHs including poor households, low-income female-headed households, and vulnerable households. <strong>Target:</strong> 100% of Women headed households served by PUB (estimated 1,033 in 2015) <strong>Baseline</strong> = 0 (the project will be the first to implement communication program on tariff method)</td>
<td>Q2 2018 - Q4 2024</td>
<td>MISE/PMU Directors/Staff/ WASH consultants</td>
<td>Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 1 “Water is Life” budget</td>
<td>Lifeline tariff publicized and implemented. PUB public awareness programs and billing documents</td>
<td>Planning for the public awareness program is not in place and implementation is too late</td>
<td>The project activities will give priority to the early implementation of this component as identified during the PPTA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
|                 | • O&M firm will employ at least 10% women  
• Orientation and guidance on labour standards, gender equality in wages, safety and hygiene to all O&M firm employees at commencement of work | Q1 2020-Q4 2024 | O&M firm supervised by PMU | Orientations and building toilet facilities for women are part of the O&M firm’s budget and supported by SDGS | Number of contractor orientation sessions, women staff employed, toilet facilities for both men and women reported | Support is not provided to ensure relevant clauses are in place. | PUB staff monitors work sites to ensure toilet facilities for women are available and clauses and gender |
### Project Objective:
Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and monitor implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>in project progress report.</td>
<td>Orientations are not all inclusive of staff.</td>
<td>equality standards are followed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Target:</strong> 100% of contractors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Building separate toilets for women is not prioritized.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Baseline</strong> = 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Separate toilet/sanitation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>facilities for men and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>women workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Baseline: 0)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**Vocational training for</td>
<td>Q1 2020-</td>
<td>PUB with support</td>
<td>Part of the project cost</td>
<td>Training reports with gender disaggregated</td>
<td>Perceived as additional workload by the staff including</td>
<td>Trainings will be made mandatory and proper planning will be in place to ensure right schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>technical and</td>
<td>Q4 2024</td>
<td>from PMU</td>
<td>under Output 2</td>
<td>records of participants</td>
<td>women</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>administration staff and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mentoring and training for</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>managers in PUB will</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>include 30% women staff.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**Using a variety of social</td>
<td>Q2 2018 –</td>
<td>PUB Client Service</td>
<td>Included in the IEC program costs</td>
<td>PUB Client Service</td>
<td>Planning for these studies is not in place and implementation is too late</td>
<td>SDGS will follow the progress of the planning/implemenation and report to MISE/ADB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>science techniques,</td>
<td>Q4 2024</td>
<td>Manager/ and Unit</td>
<td></td>
<td>Manager/Unit and PMU staff including social and gender specialists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>qualitative data is</td>
<td></td>
<td>staff and PMU staff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>collected over the life</td>
<td></td>
<td>including SDGS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of the project in 4 – 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>project areas to measure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>improvements in the</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>quality of women’s lives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>due to safe water usage.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>These could include</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>baseline, mid and end</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>of project surveys.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Baseline = N/A)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>**PUB water supply clients</td>
<td>Q3 2019-</td>
<td>PMU to identify</td>
<td>USD 40,000</td>
<td>Financial literacy training packages</td>
<td>Financial literacy is seen as outside the PUB</td>
<td>SDGS will follow the progress of the planning/implemenation and report to MISE/ADB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>provided with quarterly</td>
<td>Q2 2024</td>
<td>and contract</td>
<td></td>
<td>available for review</td>
<td>responsibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Financial Literacy training to ensure ability to pay for water usage when required (target: 75% women, 25% men as</td>
<td></td>
<td>financial literacy trainers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Project Objective: Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>managing HH resources); Baseline = 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Project staff in MISE and contractors receive awareness session on sexual harassment. The contractors will submit to MISE a policy against sexual harassment to be implemented during the entire project duration (baseline: 0)</td>
<td>Q1 2019 – Q4 2024</td>
<td>MISE supported by SDGS</td>
<td>No additional cost. Sessions will be delivered by MWYSA VAW unit staff.</td>
<td>Report from sexual harassment awareness training. Sexual harassment policy</td>
<td>Lack of full participation from staff</td>
<td>Staff attendance will be mandatory and non compliance reflected in PPMS and Semi-annual Safeguard report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GESIAP training provided to PMU staff, project implementation support consultants and relevant MISE/PUB staff (100 total estimated number comprised of 25% women participants)</td>
<td>Q1 2019 – Q4 2024</td>
<td>MISE Director/PUB staff/PMU staff to ensure attendance</td>
<td>Part of the PMU cost</td>
<td>Training reports and attendance sheets</td>
<td>GESIAP orientation may not be considered important</td>
<td>The SDGS will work with the PMU/MISE and PUB management to prepare and present the GESIAP sessions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GESIAP implementation monitored and reported</td>
<td>Q1 2019 – Q4 2024</td>
<td>PMU staff including SDGS responsible to provide monitoring reports to ADB</td>
<td>Part of the PMU cost</td>
<td>Indicators to monitor GESIAP contained in PPMS Quarterly, semi-anual and annual reports including GESIAP reporting submitted to ADB</td>
<td>The PMU may not appoint someone to collate Indicator data for PPMS reports</td>
<td>The SDGS specialist will ensure that GESIAP data is collected and reported through PPMS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• At least 330% of new recruits to MISE’s Water &amp; Sanitation Engineering</td>
<td>Q1 2019 – Q4 2024</td>
<td>MISE Director/PUB staff</td>
<td>Inc. in Project Training Budget</td>
<td>Presence of new female recruits. GESIAP</td>
<td>Women with technical training may not be</td>
<td>The project team should advise through media and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Project Objective:** Provide South Tarawa's population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unit (WSEU) technical recruits are women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>monitoring reports.</td>
<td>available to recruit</td>
<td>networks that female technical recruits will be sought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• 25% of PUB/MISE staff (total number 300) trained through the project includes at least 30% women.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Perceived as additional workload by the staff including women</td>
<td>Trainings will be made mandatory and proper planning will be in place to ensure right schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• During capacity building, overall project’s gender sensitive grievance redress mechanism (GRM) developed and publicized to ensure all project beneficiaries know the GRM procedure. Sex-disaggregated data will be prepared to identify the sex of complainants, the nature of their complaint and the resolution of the complaint. The PMU Safeguards Specialist will review the register and</td>
<td>Q1 2018 – Q4 2024</td>
<td>MISE Director/PMU staff to gather sex disaggregated data</td>
<td>No additional cost. Included as a topic in Project Consultations</td>
<td>Approved GRM documents available for review</td>
<td>The value of a gender sensitive GRM and gender disaggregation of complaints may not be recognized.</td>
<td>The SDGS will work with the MISE and Safeguards Manager (PMU) to develop a gender sensitive GRM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Project Objective: Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required[^17]</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Output 3</td>
<td>Hygiene practices among South Tarawa’s population are improved</td>
<td>Q3 2019-Q2 2024</td>
<td>MISE with support from PMU</td>
<td>Part of INGO and Community partnership contracting process (WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 2 “WASH Community Partnership”)</td>
<td>Data collected for GAP reports</td>
<td>Suitable women not available due to other commitments and lack of information on the engagement opportunities</td>
<td>Wider circulation of the demand for women mobilizers and engagement with local leaders and local NGOs to identify potential women candidates</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interview women to corroborate equal treatment for male and female complainants.

[^17]: Part of INGO and Community partnership contracting process (WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 2 “WASH Community Partnership”)

Note: Lesson from STSISP is that it is important for gender balance across the implementing team as whilst more women were employed as mobilisers this resulted in limited engagement from men within the target audience.

Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets:

- Suitable women not available due to other commitments and lack of information on the engagement opportunities.
- Wider circulation of the demand for women mobilizers and engagement with local leaders and local NGOs to identify potential women candidates.
Project Objective: Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required 17</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effective gender-sensitive audio and visual materials developed to raise awareness at the HH level of proper water usage and environmental management issues (Baseline = 0). The ongoing Kiribati Adaptation Program III 19 IEC program in the project areas will be assessed and updated to be more gender sensitive and meet the requirements of the project.</td>
<td>Q3 2019-Q2 2024</td>
<td>PUB Directors and staff /PMU staff /SDGS and WASH consultants</td>
<td>Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 1 “Water is Life” budget</td>
<td>Materials available for review</td>
<td>Planning for the public awareness program is not in place and implementation is too late</td>
<td>The project activities will give priority to the early implementation of this component as identified during the PPTA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19 World Bank, Global Environment Fund (GEF), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), DFAT and the Government of Japan are funding the Kiribati Adaptation Programme (KAP), now in phase III. KAPIII activities include rehabilitation of reservoirs along the transmission main and preparation of detailed designs of the distribution network in Betio, Bairiki and Bikenibeu.
**Project Objective:** Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required(^{17})</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
|                 | Public awareness programs on water supply sustainability and proper usage targeted at project affected areas with gender sensitive and appropriate materials and training provided to village heads and community leaders  
**Target:** 100% of project affected villages with at least 50% women participation  
**Baseline:** =0 (the project will be the first to implement this awareness program)                                                                 | Q3 2019-Q2 2024   | PUB Directors and staff/PMU staff/SDGS and WASH consultants                                    | Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 1 "Water is Life" budget      | Materials available for review                                                                                                                                  | Planning for the public awareness program is not in place and implementation is too late | The project activities will give priority to the early implementation of this component as identified during the PPTA |
|                 | Information campaigns on water supply sustainability and proper usage designed to be gender sensitive and implemented through TV, radio, mobile phone applications, posters, MCDC billing mail outs and public discussion materials distributed to village heads and community leaders.  
Locations of posters will be on strategic places frequented by women  
**Target:** over 7000 HHs including all female-headed households                                                                                     | Q3 2019-Q2 2024   | PUB Directors and staff/PMU staff/SDGS and WASH consultants                                    | Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 1 "Water is Life" budget      | Materials available for review                                                                                                                                  | Planning for the public awareness program is not in place and implementation is too late | The project activities will give priority to the early implementation of this component as identified during the PPTA |
**Project Objective:** Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Project Outputs</th>
<th>Gender Targets and Activities</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget Required</th>
<th>Means of Verifying the achievement of targets</th>
<th>Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets</th>
<th>Risk Mitigating Measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monthly WASH awareness-raising seminars and activities through the community partnerships including – Women’s Groups (faith and non-faith based), and encouraging minimum 50% women in group membership for Mother Heath Committees and Youth Groups. For engagement with schools at least 50% of student participants are girls (note 53% of 2017 student enrolments were females (7103 students). Baseline = 0</td>
<td>Q3 2019-Q2 2024</td>
<td>MISE/Contracted NGOs/INGOs</td>
<td>Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 2 “WASH Community Partnership” budget</td>
<td>Data collected for GAP reports</td>
<td>Gender Ratio is hard to maintain due to preponderance of females</td>
<td>GAP data report review will reveal non-compliance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>At least bi-annual Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning surveys to allow feedback mechanisms from community members on the WASH Community Partnership program. 50% of those consulted are women including 10% Female Headed Households (Baseline =0)</td>
<td>Q3 2019-Q2 2024</td>
<td>MISE/Contracted WASH NGOs/INGOs</td>
<td>Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 2 “WASH Community Partnership” budget</td>
<td>Data collected for GAP reports</td>
<td>Lack of cooperation from community members particularly women</td>
<td>Awareness building among community members will reinforce the importance of their involvement and participation including in providing feedback</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Budget required to Implement GESIAP:** USD 48,000
References


Kiribati Gender Profile. Secretariat of the Pacific Community. Undated.


Kiribati Program Poverty Assessment. Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade. March 2014


Gender Statistics in the Pacific and Timor-Leste. ADB 2016


World Factbook: Kiribati Demographic Profile. Updated July 2016

Jonathan Sibley. Pacific Financial Inclusion Program supported by UNCDF, Australian Aid, UNDP and Reserve Bank of Fiji. 2012

Social issues in the provision and pricing of water services. OECD 2004

Child protection case study. How Ground-Breaking Legislation is Promoting Child Protection in Kiribati from Review to Reform. DFAT, Australian Aid and UNICEF. 2014


Gender Assessment and Proposed Gender Action Plan

I. Introduction

Both men and women in rural areas in developing countries are more vulnerable to the impact of climate change due to fewer avenues for coping mechanisms and high dependence on local natural resources for their livelihood. Women are more vulnerable to the effects of climate change than men—primarily as they constitute the majority of the world’s poor and are more dependent for their livelihood on natural resources that are threatened by climate change. They face social, economic and political barriers that limit their coping capacity.

This gender assessment intends to outline the gender situation in India, with a specific focus on the coastal area of Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra. It also aims to identify the structural and cultural factors contributing to the gender issues that are relevant to the project, and to analyze potential gender mainstreaming opportunities. This gender assessment is largely based upon the stakeholder consultations organized by UNDP; studies conducted by the Government of India; research and academic institutions; multilateral and donor agencies; and impact assessment reports of similar projects implemented both in India and worldwide. The assessment includes:

1. Conducting a desktop review of relevant government policy documents and research conducted by the multilateral agencies, donor agencies, universities and research institutions and aligning approaches in this proposal with the national priorities of India.

2. Incorporating information and lessons learned from implementation and evaluation assessment of the similar projects managed by UNDP in Sindhudurg district of Maharashtra and in coastal region of Andhra Pradesh.

3. Integrating findings from stakeholder consultations conducted at the various levels including relevant government departments, civil society organizations, other multilateral agencies, and community members.

4. Centralizing gender concerns to the project design by incorporating gender issues raised into project activities, targets, indicators, monitoring and evaluation.

Resilience of communities in the coastal areas of Odisha, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh to climate variability and extreme events

Developing countries are the most vulnerable to climate change impacts because they have fewer resources to adapt: socially, technologically and financially. Climate change is anticipated to have far reaching effects on the sustainable development of developing countries, including their ability to attain the new 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. India has experienced substantial changes in mean and extreme climate during the period of 1951-2013.

Approximately 650 million people in India are dependent on rain-fed agriculture for their livelihoods. India has been identified as one amongst the 27 countries which are the most

1 Climate Change and India –Adaptation Gap a Preliminary Assessment. Garg et.al. 2015. Indian Institute of Ahmedabad
vulnerable to the impacts of global warming related accelerated sea level rise. Observations suggest that the sea level has risen at a rate of 2.5 mm per year along the Indian coastline since 1950s. A report issued by the World Bank suggests that India's economic progress could be severely hampered, with an additional 45 million pushed into poverty, due to the effects of climate change.

India is highly vulnerable to various natural hazards including droughts, floods, heat-waves and cyclones. According to studies around 76 percent of India’s coastline is prone to cyclones and tsunamis, while 59 percent of the country is vulnerable to earthquakes, 10 percent to floods and river erosion, and 68 percent to droughts. Around 250 million Indians live along 7500 km of coastline that is at high risk due to sea level rise and extreme weather events; many of the approximately 10,000 Indian glaciers are receding at a rapid rate; and deforestation is happening. The vulnerability of the coastal zone depends on underlying physical and socio-economic characteristics of coastal areas. Total area under the 9 coastal states constitutes about 42 percent of the total area in India and includes 66 coastal districts. India’s coastline is divided into East and West zones; the two coasts are different in many aspects. Odisha and Andhra Pradesh are part of the east coast while Maharashtra falls under West coast.

The east coast is known for flat terrain dotted with beaches, rich in coral reefs, coastal sand bars-dunes, river basins, backwaters, deltas, lakes (Chilika Lake-Odisha), salt pans, mangrove and mudflats (it constitutes 7 percent of total worlds mangrove area). On the other hand, the western coast has narrow rolling plains, estuaries (Western Ghats), creeks, few sandy beaches and plenty of natural inlets coupled with rocky outcrops. Along with this variety of natural and physical structures, both the coasts have a greater differentiation in terms of economic activities, population, industry and infrastructure.

Majority of the coast consists of urban population. According to Census (2011), 17 percent of the total population in India belongs to the 66 coastal districts of the nine coastal states. There are 77 cities in the coastal region of India, including some of the largest and densest urban agglomerations like; Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Kochi and Visakhapatnam. The population density per km² in most of the districts is higher than the density of the respective state and country. The Project success can impact at least 42 percent population of the country. The high population density increases the risks and vulnerability of the coastal states, as more people become vulnerable to climate change issue.

The east coast region comprising Odisha and Andhra Pradesh is more vulnerable to the frequency of storms. Odisha and Andhra Pradesh, together, had faced six major cyclone and flood in last one decade; 1999 super cyclone of Odisha and 1977 cyclone of Andhra Pradesh led to loss of more than 10,000 lives each. A total of 7.1 million people are found to be at risk, representing 4.6 percent of the total coastal population. Maharashtra is the most affected because of their high density of coastal population, and the dependence in rural stretches of the

---

6 Census 2011. www.census2011.co.in/
coast on monsoon-fed agriculture. In terms of land use, cultivated land is the most affected in Odisha, and Maharashtra, as temperatures increase and the monsoon pattern becomes less predictable, with more intense rainfall events, and longer dry spells. In terms of settlement land, Maharashtra and Gujarat are the most vulnerable states. Considering the impact at district level, Mumbai is found to be highly vulnerable to land loss with a consequent effect on its population.

**Table 4:** Damage due to Cyclonic Storms/Heavy Rains/Flash Floods/Landslides in three coastal states of India—Odisha, Andhra Pradesh, and Maharashtra (2010-2011 and 2011-2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States</th>
<th>2010-2011</th>
<th>2011-2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of human lives lost</td>
<td>No. of Cattle Lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>17230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odisha</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Indiastat.com

Sex-disaggregated data for the death of these cyclones and floods are not available; however, various studies conducted in different countries found discriminatory impact of extreme climatic events like cyclone, flood etc. on poor and vulnerable groups specifically women due to lack of coping mechanism and unfavorable socio-cultural norms.

II. **Existing gender inequality in India and specifically in Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra**

The Constitution of India enshrines gender justice and equality in its preamble, directive principles, freedom of duties and freedom of rights. India has also ratified many UN conventions promoting women’s rights including UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). Though India has addressed gender parity in primary school enrollment and almost bridged the gap in tertiary and secondary education to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the country is still behind in many sectors including labor force participation and maternal mortality rate. A 33 percent reservation in the Panchayati Raj System has not achieved its goal in ensuring better representation of women in the upper house and lower house of the parliament. India ranks lower in Gender Inequality Index (GII) (ranked 125 among 188 countries) in comparison to neighbouring countries Sri Lanka (87), Nepal (115) and Bangladesh (119).

In the following paragraphs inequalities and discrimination against women and other social groups are described in detail which have implications on building women’s coping capacity against climate change impacts and extreme climatic events.

**Poverty**

8 [www.Indiastat.com](http://www.Indiastat.com)
India has witnessed rapid economic growth in the past decade, and it has now become one of the emerging economies in Asia. However, according to the recent “The State of Food Insecurity in World” report by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), India is home to 194.6 million undernourished people, the highest in the world. The Global Hunger Index (GHI) released by the International Food Policy Research Institute ranks India 97 of 118 countries.9

One significant fact about poverty in India is that while the poverty ratio has been declining, the absolute number of poor has remained more or less the same. The poverty ratio was 36 percent in 1993-94 which means 320 million people were below the poverty line. Though the poverty ratio declined by 8.5 percent between 1993-94 and 2004-05 the absolute number of poor was estimated at 302 million persons.

In India the concept of poverty has been approached in the absolute sense; a measurement system which is most suitable for developing countries. Instead of income or consumption expenditure distribution, it is about minimum standard of living. The most recent official methodology used in India to define poverty not only takes normative levels for adequate nourishment, clothing, house rent, conveyance and education, but also considers behaviorally-determined levels of other non-food expenses.10 According to this methodology, the energy requirement as calculated by Rangarajan is 2,155 kcal per person per day in rural areas and 2,090 kcal per person per day in urban areas.11

The Rangarajan Committee report on Measurement of Poverty (2014) estimated that the 30.9 percent of the rural population and 26.4 percent of the urban population were below the poverty line in 2011-12, and the overall poverty ratio in India in 2011-12 was 29.5 percent. In other words, 260.5 million individuals in rural areas and 102.5 million in urban areas with a grand total of 363 million were under the poverty line in India. This means that three out of every ten Indians are poor.12

Among the targeted states, Odisha is one of the poorest states. In 1999/2000 Odisha has become India’s poorest state, surpassing Bihar. Orissa’s poverty headcount stagnated around 48-49 percent between 1993/94 and 1999/2000, while at all-India level the headcount declined and in Andhra Pradesh poverty halved. However, as per estimates made by the Tendulkar Committee appointed by Planning Commission, poverty in Odisha declined by 24.6 percentage points from 57.2 percent in 2004-05 to 32.6 percent in 2011-11; this was the highest poverty reduction by any major state in the country.

Poverty in India is largely rural in character, where landless labourers and casual workers are the worst off economic group. In particular, Scheduled Castes and Tribes, women and female headed families and old people face more deprivation than others. They have been suffering more from poverty due to landlessness, unemployment, inaccessibility of resources, primary healthcare and education, transportation, market etc.

---

10 Counting the poor: Measurement and other issues. 2014. Rangarajan & Mahendra Dave. Madras School of Economics
11 Ibid. Pp 6
13 Disparities within India’s poorest regions: Why do the same institutions work differently in different places, A. Hann; 09/12/2004; World Development Report 2006
Poverty in India varies according to social groups, regions and gender. Average per capita income of SC/ST at all India level is about one-third lower than that among other groups. In 1999-2000, headcount poverty among general groups were 16 percent while for Muslims it was 30 percent, for Scheduled Caste 36 percent and 44 percent for Scheduled Tribe. The recent poverty reduction rate experienced by India as a whole has minimum ramifications in the poverty reduction among other social groups.

Female headed household are often linked with the feminization of poverty. These households are found to be poorer in comparison to male headed households due to discrimination and the gender division of work in the market as women are usually ascribed less paid jobs, lack access to assets, poor education. However, feminization of poverty is not about female headed households only; according to studies due to decreasing sex ratio in urban areas and specifically in richer families, number of women in the poorer families has increased over the years. And thereby, the proportion of poor women in the total population has increased leading to feminization of poverty. The urban poor females have increased from 37.8 million in 1993-94 to 40.3 million in 2004-05.

**Access to and control over resources specifically land**

Besides income, access to and control over assets plays a crucial role in deciding economic and social status. Landlessness and poverty are significantly correlated. Women’s access to family inheritance and productive assets is limited or absent due to a patriarchal form of society setup. (Agarwal, 1999). This puts female headed households at a greater risk of poverty especially where women are primary earners.

Dreze and Srinivasan (1997), Meenakshi and Ray (2002), and Gangopadhyay and Wadhwa (2003) have conducted studies in India that show that female headed households are poorer compared to male headed households. Women have lower average earnings compared to men, less access to remunerative jobs and productive resources such as land and capital. These all contribute to the economic vulnerability of female-headed households.

In India, according to the Agriculture Census 2010-11, only 12.69 percent women have some kind of land ownership; with absolute ownership, it also includes data on leased land. Women’s position within the household and wider society is negatively affected by lack of access to land ownership, despite far-reaching legal rights to own land, and recent provisions for joint land titling in state provided bhudan and forest land. Due to patriarchal norms women’s land ownership is meagre in Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra like other states in India. Women in Maharashtra still have better access to and control over land as the land norms followed by Mumbai court prior to the Hindu Succession Amendment Act 2005 has adapted the rights of women to inherit land.

Patterns of landownership highlight disparities between groups (and arguably are at the root cause of other disparities); besides women other vulnerable groups like Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribes also form a major proportion of the landless population in India. While average cultivable landholdings in Orissa are relatively small, particularly in coastal areas,

---

15 ibid. Pp 4
Scheduled Castes are particularly bad off, with average landholdings just over half that of others. Similarly in the coastal district of Andhra Pradesh, comprising on average 16 percent SC population and 6 percent ST population, scheduled caste and scheduled tribes form the majority of the landless community.

**Education**

By the end of the deadline for Millennium Development Goals in 2015, India managed to meet only four out of eight goals and ensuring primary school enrollment is one of the four. India managed to achieve gender parity in the primary school enrollment and almost achieved gender parity in secondary and tertiary education. Article 45 of the Indian Constitution also made primary education compulsory. Various Government programs implemented to achieve the MDGs like Sarva Shikha Abhijan helped to increase male and female literacy rate consistently.

Female literacy rate improved from 8.9 percent in 1951 to 65.5 percent in 2011, but it is still below the world average of 79.9 percent. According to the Census 2011, the male literacy rate is 82.1 percent while female literacy rate is 16.6 percentage points lower at 65.5 percent. The gender gap in the literacy rate is still existing consistently. Women's participation in the secondary and tertiary education is still very low with 26.6 percent and 44.4 percent respectively.

The literacy rate in Maharashtra is 82.34 percent (men 88.38 percent and women 75.87 percent) which is much higher than the national literacy rate of 74.04 percent. Similarly, the rate of women’s literacy in Maharashtra (75.48 percent) is much higher than the national women’s literacy rate of 65.46 percent. Better educational outcomes of Maharashtra compared to other states is the result of state government’s progressive policy initiatives. Maharashtra State, for the first time in the country, published a Policy Statement of Educational Reconstruction in February 1970, announcing a programme of long-term perspective planning for educational reconstruction linked with social and national goals.

Despite significant growth in increasing the literacy rate of women; the gender gap has been reduced meagerly. Female literacy in Odisha has been lower than male and has consistently been below the Indian level. The gender gap also remains at 18 percent (Male- 82.40 percent and female - 64.36 percent, 2011 Census) an indication of gender bias. Even in progressive state like Maharashtra, education has a similar gender gap in literacy rate of 12.66 percent. There is a wider gap in Scheduled Tribe (ST) literacy as girls in many rural tribal areas remain out of school.

---

17 U.N. Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
18 Millennium Development Goals: India’s achievement is a mixed bag. Ishan Bakshi. 2015. The business Standard. New Delhi
19 www.indiawomenstat.com
20 www.indiawomenstat.com
Ensuring quality education still remains a big challenge for Indian government. The Global Monitoring Report 2012\textsuperscript{24} only ranked India 102 out of the 120 countries on the Education for All (EFA) Development Index, based on progress in universal primary education, adult literacy, gender parity and the quality of education.

**Political Participation**

India is ranked 149\textsuperscript{th} in the World Rankings of Women in national parliaments, compiled by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) and is one of the lowest ranked countries in the region, falling significantly below neighbouring countries - Nepal (47), Afghanistan (53), China (73), Pakistan (90) and Bangladesh (92)\textsuperscript{25}. In 2011, with only 10.8 percent women representation in the lower house and 10.3 percent in the upper house, India ranked 98\textsuperscript{th} in the world\textsuperscript{26}. In the recent years India’s performance in ensuring political participation of women has gone down. Currently, India only has 59 women representatives out of 545 members in Lok Sabha, while there are 25 female MPs in the 242-member Rajya Sabha\textsuperscript{27}.

Women in India got equal rights to vote and contest in the Constitution. The percentage of women voters has risen constantly from 37.04 percent in 1952 to 68.17 percent in 1984 - when the percentage of women voters was 4.16 percent higher than the men voters. After 1984 there was a dip in the number of women voters in 1989 (57.32 percent ) and 1991(47.11 percent ). The recent elections has once again shown a rise in women voters; in some cases women voters have an even better turnout than men.

However, the number of women voters is not reflected in the number of women who contested or are elected in the election process or the number of women members in the cabinet. In the first Lok Sabha, out of 499 seats, only 22(4.4 percent ) women members were elected to the house in 1952. In the subsequent elections their number has fluctuated. In 1984 the highest number of women members, i.e.44 (8.1 percent ) out of 544 members entered the Lok Sabha. The 15 Lok Sabha in India (2009) comprised 61 women members, only 11.2 percent of the total Lok Sabha membership. While it has increased from 9.02 percent in 1999, it is almost half of the world average of 22.2 percent .

Even in the Rajya Sabha, the women’s share is marginal in comparison to men. 29 (11.8 percent ) women sworn in as members of Rajya Sabha was highest number of women member in Rajaya Sabha in history. The above table clearly shows that only a few women have succeeded in getting into the Union Cabinet. In 1962 there were six women members and in succeeding years the number went down before rising to nine in 1991. The Rajya Sabha does not fare much better, with 27 women members comprising 11.5 percent of the total membership in 2013. Again, while this is an improvement from the 1999 figure of 7.76 percent , it is far below the world average of 19.6 percent \textsuperscript{28}.

At the state level the assembly’s representation of women is equally poor. No woman from Odisha are represented in the current Lok Sabha. In the Assembly there are only seven women


\textsuperscript{25} Women in national parliaments: Situation as of 1 June 2017, \url{http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm}, Accessed on 10 July 2017

\textsuperscript{26} Women’s participation in Politics: India ranks 98\textsuperscript{th}. The Hindu. 2011

\textsuperscript{27} ibid.

\textsuperscript{28} Women’s Political Participation and Representation in India. Apporva Rathod. April 2014. Delhi Policy Group
out of 147 members (less than 5 percent). Women’s inclusion in major political parties in the
state ranges from eight in the Biju Janata Dal (BJD) to 15 in Congress but their own strength is
emerging as 37 women stood as independents in the last national elections.

However, due to the 1973 amendment in the Constitution and 33 percent reservation for women
in the Panchayati Raj Institutions women’s political participation are encouraged at the local
level governance system. Representation of women in the Panchayati Raj Institutions (37 percent ) is a marked improvement over their representation in both the Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha (11 percent). States like Odisha and Maharashtra amended the rule to reserve 50 percent of seats in the Panchayati Raj Institutions for women.

The Women’s Reservation Bill proposes a 33 percent reservation for women in the Lok Sabha
and state assemblies for last 15 years. The Bill was introduced in the Parliament in 1996, and
subsequently in 1999, 2003, 2005, 2008 and 2010. It was finally passed by the Rajya Sabha in
2010, but is still pending in the Lok Sabha.

Income

India’s per capita income rose by 7.4 percent to Rs. 93,293 in 2005-16 from Rs.86,879 in the
year 2014-15 29. The country is showing steady economic growth for the last two decades
increasing both Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Income (GNI); however,
dividend of this growth is not reaching all the citizens unvaryingly. India, as has come out in
recent International Monetary Fund (IMF) report, not only has one of the highest levels of
inequality in the Asia-Pacific region, but it also shows very large increases in inequality since
1990.

India’s net Gini index of inequality (based on income net of taxes and transfers) rose from 45.18
in 1990 to 51.36 in 2013. Only two countries in the Asia-Pacific region-Papua New Guinea and
China—are more unequal than India. Even India’s net Gini is much higher than the average of
43.69 for Latin America, acknowledged as one of the most unequal regions in the world 30.
According to Credit Suisse’s Global Wealth Databook 2014, India’s richest 10 percent holds 370
times the share of wealth that it’s poorest 10 percent hold. Consequently, India’s richest 10
percent have been getting steadily richer while India still dominates the world’s poorest 10
percent, China dominates the global middle class and the United States the world’s rich.

India ranks 135th in the Human Development Index with a score of 33.9, one of the lowest in the
South-Asia region. Per capita income has been increasing over the years, however there is an
exorbitant gender gap in the gross national per capita income in USD (adjusted for Purchasing
Power Parity (PPP) 2011). GNI per capita for male (8,656 USD) is more than four times higher
than for females (2,116 USD) 31.

29 India’s per capita income rises by 7.4% to Rs. 93,293. 2016. Livemint. Retrieved from
http://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/economy/indicators/indias-per-capita-income-rises-7-4-to-rs-
93293/articleshow/52524152.cms retrieved on 14th October 2016
staggering-wealth-gap-in-five-charts/article6672115.ece
31 UNDP Human Development Report,2013

8
Labor Force

Female work participation is considered an important indicator of women’s involvement in economic activities. As part of the MDGs India vowed to bring gender parity into the workforce; however, according to the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, this is one of the goals where India failed measurably. By the end of 2015, India were only able to achieve 23 percent participation of women in the workforce. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) Global Employment trends 2013 report, India’s labour force participation rate for women fell from just over 37 per cent in 2004-05 to 29 per cent in 2009-10. Out of 131 countries, India ranks 11th from the bottom in female labour force participation. Female employment in India grew by 9 million between 1994 and 2010, but according to ILO this could have doubled if women had equal access to employment in the same industries and occupations as their male counterparts.

Ninety-three percent of India’s workforce are engaged in the unorganized sector with farming being the sector providing the highest number of employment opportunities. One-fifth of the non-farm workers are engaged in the organized sector. As per the Census 2011, the majority of working women are engaged in the unorganized sector.

In the unorganized sector where the majority of women workers are concentrated, no occupational safety and health safeguards are in place. The female labour force constituting one third of the rural workers in India “face serious problems and constraints related to work such as lack of continuity, insecurity, wage discrimination, unhealthy job relationships, absence of medical and accident care”. In the unorganized sector they are forced to work beyond work hours, even in advanced stages of pregnancy, have no leave or crèche facilities, and are always under threat of being thrown out. In the coastal districts of Odisha and Andhra Pradesh, engagement of population in the unorganized sector is relatively high with 59 percent and 55 percent respectively; except in the coastal districts of Maharashtra where it is lower at 38 percent.

Around 80 percent of the female labour force is concentrated in rural areas. On average, 75 percent or more women in India are in agriculture and many in the unorganized sector such as mining, beedi manufacturing, NTFP collection and construction work. In Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra 70.7 percent, 72 percent and 69.53 percent of females are engaged in agriculture respectively; more than 80 percent of the females are engaged in the agriculture work as agriculture labourers except in Maharashtra. For the year 2011, Maharashtra, Odisha and Andhra Pradesh ranked as 14, 16 and 7 respectively in the state ranking according to females participation in the workforce.

Out of the total number of women employed in the organized sector in India, the number of women employed in the public sector is more than the private sector. The number of women employed in the public sector has increased from 26.00 lakhs in 1995 to 30.03 lakhs in 2006;

34 Global Employment Trends, 2013. ILO
37 Census Data, 2011
38 Indian Census Report, 2011. Government of India
39 NSSO, 2011-12 (68th Round)
and also increased substantially and proportionately in the private sector from 16.30 lakhs in 1995 to 21.18 lakhs in 2006\(^{39}\). Progressive reformatory action like reservation of 30 percent jobs in the public sector for grade B, C, D in Odisha helped to increase women in the organized sector from 4.1 percent in 1970 to 15.4 percent by 2007\(^{40}\).

According to an estimation in 2011-12, in the economically active age group (15-64 years), 151.9 million and 81.8 million were outside the labour force in the rural and urban areas respectively. There are many reasons including low literacy rate, socio-cultural norms restricting access to public sphere, gender division of labour etc. Many studies pointed out that women’s engagement in unpaid care jobs limits their participation in the workforce; surveys found that in the period 2011-12, for the females aged 15-29 time spent in domestic work has increased from 54.8 percent to 57.5 percent and for 30-44 year age group it increased from 52.5 to 65.8 percent\(^{41}\).

**Violence against women**

Violence against women in India is on the rise and has doubled over the last decade. According to the National Crime Bureau report around 2.24 million crimes against women have been reported in the last decade which means the reporting of 26 crimes in every hour in last decade\(^{42}\). Cruelty by husbands and relatives top the list among the major types of crime against women with almost 38 percent cases. Assault on women in intent with outraging modesty, kidnapping and abduction followed the domestic violence in the list.

Andhra Pradesh has reported the highest number of crimes against women. The state ranked first in crimes reported for insult to women’s modesty, second in crime by husbands and relatives, and fourth in dowry deaths. Violence against women in Odisha is rising with more rape cases reported year by year. The sex ratio in Odisha declined drastically from 1086 in 1921 to 972 in 2001. However, it has improved marginally to 978 as per 2011 Census data\(^{43}\). Maharashtra ranked third among states when it comes to crime against women and minor girls. All these ranking are based upon the number of cases reported; but as per various studies many cases specifically domestic violence against women and rape cases go unreported due to pressure of patriarchal society norms and insensitive societal systems.

**Gender Inequality Index**

India ranks 130\(^{th}\) among 188 countries in the Gender Inequality Index (GII) with a score of 0.563 (2014). India also fares badly in the GII in comparison to its’ South Asian Neighbours such as Sri Lanka (72), Bhutan (97), Bangladesh (111) and Nepal (108).

The GII, an inequality index, measures gender inequalities in three crucial aspects of human development - reproductive health, empowerment and economic status. Reproductive health

---


\(^{42}\) Crimes against women reported every two minutes in India. Chaitanya Mallapur.2015. [http://scroll.in/article/753496/crimes-against-women-reported-every-two-minutes-in-india](http://scroll.in/article/753496/crimes-against-women-reported-every-two-minutes-in-india)

represented by maternal mortality rate, adolescent birth rate while empowerment aspect is represented by political representation in parliament and enrollment in secondary education; and economic status is derived from women’s presence in the labour market. India with low female sex ratio, high maternal mortality rate of 190 deaths per 100,000 live births, only 12.2 percent share of seats by women in parliament, 29.6 percentage point gender gap in accessing secondary education and 52.9 percentage gender gap in labour force participation ranks low in the GII. In the Global Gender Gap Index produced by World Economic Forum, India scores 0.664 and ranks 108 among 145 countries. Like GII, the Global Gender Gap Index measures countries’ performance in four areas - economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment. Better performance of India among other countries in political participation specifically years with female head of state helped India to reach this score. India’s performance in the other three areas of gender equality are relatively poor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>India’s Ranking</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Economic participation and Opportunity</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>0.383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Educational Attainment</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>0.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Health and survival</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>0.942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Political Empowerment</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Gender Gap Index</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>0.664</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) developed the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGII) a composite index that scores countries (i.e. 0 to 1) on 14 indicators grouped into five sub-indices: discriminatory family code, restricted physical integrity, son bias, restricted resources and assets, and restricted civil liberties to measure the discrimination against women in social institutions across 160 countries. The 2014 SIGII value for India is 0.265 suggesting that discrimination against women is High.

### III. Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality

The principle of gender equality is enshrined within the Indian Constitution - in the preamble, fundamental rights, fundamental duties and directive principles. The Constitution did not only grant equality, but enabled states to adopt measures for positive discrimination in favour of women. Articles 14,15,16 under part III; Articles 39,42,44 under part IV; Articles 51-A (c) under part IV A and Article 246 under part XI provide guidance to promote equality and justice.

---

44 Gender Inequality Index. Hdr.undp.org/en/composit/GII
for women in India\textsuperscript{48}. In addition, India has ratified the: Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1993; United Nations Convention against Transnational organized crime in 2011; United Nations Conventions against protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, specially women and children in 2011; and the equal remuneration convention in 1958 which encourages and empowers state to promote women rights and justice. Over this period of time, India has adopted many legal acts for promoting safety and security for women including The Dowry Prohibition Act 1961, the Prohibition of Women from Domestic Violence Act 2005, and the Sexual Harassment of Women at the Workplace (prevention, prohibition and redressal) Act 2013. Other acts like the Maternity Benefit Act 1961, Reservation of women in Local-Self Government, the National Plan of Action for the Girl Child etc. to empower women and encourage them to participate in the workplace. Furthermore in 2016, the Government of India introduced the National Policy for Women 2016 for ensuring the empowerment of women.

The National Commission for Women (NCW) is a statutory body of the Government of India responsible for advising the government on all policy matters. The Objective of the NCW is to represent the rights of women in India and to provide a voice for their issues and concerns.

IV. Gender issues in the resilience of communities in the coastal area to climate variability and extreme events

Gender inequalities exist in all spheres in developing countries like India (e.g. security of human rights, political and economic status, land ownership, housing conditions and exposure to violence, education and health, in particular reproductive and sexual health) and these inequalities make women more vulnerable at all phases of climate disasters – before, during and after.

Vulnerability to shocks and stresses is not purely a physical attribute, but is in fact to a large extent socially determined. This is because social, institutional, political and economic factors shape the bundles of rights and claims to resources, which are critical in securing livelihoods and which determine adaptive capacity to respond to climate change.

Women and female-headed households are disproportionately represented in groups experiencing poverty, and are affected by all kinds of pressures (e.g. HIV/AIDS, regionalizing and globalizing markets, population increase and land fragmentation, localized environmental degradation). In addition, women and female-headed households tend to have fewer resources to cope with and adapt to stresses of all kinds, and rely on more climate sensitive resources and livelihoods.

There are other forms of social differentiation intersecting with gender in each society, and the relative importance of these varies in different situations. Unfortunately, when it comes to climate change impacts and adaptations other vulnerability classifications besides gender like children, elderly, disabled, ethnic groups, caste etc. are seldom explored. Furthermore, it is well established that like women, indigenous communities are dependent upon natural resources for their livelihoods and therefore will be severely impacted by climate change.

\textsuperscript{48} Manaveeyam: Sthree Padhavi Padanam-A Hand Book (Malayalam), State Planning Board, Thiruvananthapuram, 2000, p.77.
Some of the gender issues and patriarchal norms that restrict women’s ability to develop resilience towards climate change and extreme climatic events are as follows:

- Women’s workload increases in times of hardship, such as low rainfall/drought periods because of the extra work involved in collecting water and firewood, and the need to undertake casual work to buy food and make ends meet. Socio-culturally women and girls are appointed as the water provider in the society. With changing climate and erratic rainfall, the drying up of ground water forces women to travel further to collect water. During the recent drought in India in 2016, women used to travel more than 10-12 kilometer to collect drinking water in many districts of Maharashtra.

- Climate change leads to migration, particularly male migration, leaving women behind in the rural areas to take care of dual job of agriculture and unpaid care work. In India, agriculture is being feminized as more than 79 percent of agriculture/food production is contributed by women. According to an economic survey of India, more than 68 percent of economically active women in India are engaged in agriculture.

- The feminization of agriculture with women’s limited access to and control over land and other resources leads to lower agricultural productivity and food production. Female farmers also have limited access to government schemes and programs thereby making the rural economy weaker and vulnerable to climate change.

- Low yields and income insecurity lead to an increase in crime and prostitution, particularly in the critical period (from December to January) when some women turn to prostitution to obtain food for their children and male members are absent, exacerbating the spread of HIV.

- Livelihood choices and hazards - In some cases women are involved in near-shore fishing, whilst men fish in deeper waters, but climate change is thought to be having a greater impact on the former, thus affecting women disproportionately. In the day to day affairs of fishing, women are more affected as climate change is contributing towards a reduction in the near-shore fish population. However, the probability of men fisher folk facing death and hazards is higher during the natural calamities and bigger climatic events. However, in some cases women are not involved in community fishing activities and may be more involved in land-based activities such as gardening; in this case men are more impacted by climatic events than women.

- As livelihoods are threatened and food shortages are faced, women often prioritize the basic needs of their men and children and often go hungry, making them weak and exposing them to malnutrition and other health problems. In India more than 33 percent of married women and 28 percent of men have very low Body Mass Index (BMI); 56.2 percent women and 24.3 percent men suffer from anemia. The worsening fact is around 57.9 percent pregnant women are anemic. A third of women of reproductive age in India are undernourished, with a body mass index (BMI) of less than 18.5 kg/m2.

- Across India, **roughly 600 million people** (more than 53 percent of the population) do not have access to toilets. This will worsen during climate change and its impact on any particular region. This not only raises the risk of disease epidemics but also has an impact on the **physical safety of women**. Many women in India face rape and sexual harassment while going far away to secluded places to go to the toilet.

- Young girls’ lives can be negatively impacted by the extra time spent collecting water in drought affected areas, contributing to the barriers to their education and potentially increasing the impacts on their health.
Women and children are more vulnerable to the impacts of natural disasters (they may be less able to escape from catastrophic events due to their smaller average size and physical strength). Pregnant and nursing women and those with small children are particularly vulnerable. Women may also be subject to cultural restrictions on their mobility, including dress codes and seclusion practices. Furthermore, women and children account for more than 75 per cent of displaced people following natural disasters and are vulnerable to sexual violence in transit and in refugee camps. Longer-term livelihood consequences may also impact disproportionately on women and girls (e.g. a rise in the number of girls forced off the land to become sex-workers in Dhaka, Bangladesh in 1998 following extreme floods).

The intersection of gender with other social issues increases vulnerability. The experience of gender inequality is mediated by other aspects of social identity in India, especially caste. Caste systems shape exposure and adaptive capacity to climate change. It is found that poor tribal groups have no option but to live in the low-lying, flood-prone areas on the outskirts of the village, making it difficult for them to access relief, or get information on impending disasters. Even scheduled caste communities popularly known as dalits in India often live in the outskirts of the village in separate hamlets which often limits them in accessing information, technology and services.

Social rules limit dalits and tribal groups’ access to many community spaces. Often community spaces like schools and temples are located in high elevation and used as a shelter during the floods and cyclone. In Gujarat, it was found that the village temple provides the only safe sanctuary for people during floods and cyclones, but as the space was limited, mostly the lower-caste groups are denied access because of social practices and beliefs. Often during water and cooked food distribution during drought and floods these social practices forbid the lower social groups access thereto.

Lessons of Gender Mainstreaming from implementing similar projects in coastal areas of Maharashtra and Andra Pradesh

Findings of the impact assessment of UNDP’s Sindhudurg’s project on “Mainstreaming Coastal and Marine Biodiversity Conservation into Production Sectors in the Sindhudurg Coast, Maharashtra” using UNDP Gender Equality Strategy, GEF Policy on Gender Mainstreaming, and National Policy for Empowerment of Women which will be incorporated in designing the current project to ensure gender mainstreaming are as follows:

- There is a need to intervene and at least introduce the idea of gender issues (if required) so that people can think at that wavelength. Women consider that they have been given the power of selling the goods/products in the market and hence, are empowered, which could be taken as a parameter but not holistically. They do not want to talk about issues related to gender, rights, violence etc. as their main focus remains skills based trainings and the financial benefits that arise from such trainings.
- Youth of the locality should be engaged and gender sensitized for sustainable social outcomes.
- Opportunities like handicrafts, eco-tourism, scuba diving, tourist guides are present in the project area; more women and girls should be involved in this occupation despite social norms.
Fisher women are predominantly confined to the markets (for selling goods) but they are definitely interested in learning skills, getting involved in the tourism sector and sustainable methods of living. This diversification of livelihoods will increase their resilience to change.

Local government implementing bodies consult with women self-help groups for program implementation, but are largely ignorant about the concept of “gender mainstreaming”. Despite the engagement of women, the program implementation is therefore not gender sensitive. There is a need to train local government bodies.

Eco-tourism can be a very good and lucrative livelihood opportunity for women and girls; even women and girls during discussions expressed their interest for learning the necessary skills.

Community Watch Groups (CWG) engaging both men and women to sensitize the community on gender issues was found to be a very good strategy. CWG used a range of methodologies from storytelling to movie screening to sensitize the community on gender issues, role of society and family in building the social norms that restrict women’s growth etc.

Learning from Andhra Pradesh

Fisher folks but specifically women fisher folks face barriers to the market as they have to pay money, which is illegal, to the middle men to access the market. Steps needed to be taken to ensure easy access to the market by women without any middlemen (Kolleru lake affected community representation).

Under the project for ensuring sustainable use of natural resources, establishing community based governance system and providing alternative livelihoods- it was realized that skills training is essential to promote alternative livelihoods with women fisher folks who are receiving a meager income from fishing. There is a need for skills training and capacity building for diversifying livelihoods to develop resilience. The diversification of livelihoods enables them to increase their additional income by 1168 INR to 8000 INR depending upon the type of livelihood.

V. Recommendations

Gender Analysis

Climate change impacts both men and women differently; discriminatory structural and cultural barriers make women more vulnerable to changing climate than men. Gender mainstreaming is crucial in project conceptualizing, implementation, monitoring and evaluation for ensuring gender transformative social impacts. Gender mainstreaming is not just about adding women in the project concept: it means looking at men and women and the relationship between them—both as actors in the process and as beneficiaries.

Gender analyses conducted with various stakeholders’ groups in the target areas informed project conceptualization and will be followed throughout the implementation for ensuring gender mainstreaming. Stakeholder consultations were organized at various levels - state, district, and community - in the three targeted states - Odisha, Maharashtra and Andhra.

---

Pradesh. Besides the consultations, gender transformative impact evaluation studies of previously implemented projects in the target location of Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh also informed gender mainstreaming in project design. Discussion inputs from the consultations are described below in the stakeholder engagement section and gender action plan and are included in full as an additional annex to this proposal.

The gender analysis based upon stakeholder consultation and evaluation studies enabled:

- Assessment of the gender division of labor existing in the particular society, structural and cultural barriers; differential access to resources, technology, participation in decision making, political participation etc. limiting women’s coping capacity to climate change.
- Assessment of different livelihood activities, existing and future prospects, in the coastal region of Odisha, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh from gender perspective providing insights about tools, methodologies and technologies to break the existing social, cultural and structural barriers for women and other vulnerable groups.
- Understanding about the interaction of gender dynamics with other social variables such as class, caste, age, and economic status; the influence of external forces, i.e., the technologies and market dynamics impacting the existing social system; existing, reinterpreted and negotiated social (and gender) relations and patterns that have emerged in response to new technologies and changing market dynamics.
- Establishment of the need of gender-disaggregated data and setting up of indicators, measurement yardsticks, priority areas for creating a project baseline.
- Forming recommendations for bringing gender transformative social change outcomes of the project “Enhancing Climate Resilience of India’s Coastal Communities”

**Project Design and Implementation**

This project proposal aims to create gender positive and transformative results on-the-ground and ensures the incorporation of gender dimensions in the project design, implementation plan, monitoring and evaluation. In the coastal economies women play a significant role by contributing to two primary livelihood opportunities - agriculture and fishery; and are also the most impacted by the changing climate and extreme climatic events. Hence, this proposal intends to address women’s lack of access to information, lack of disaster preparedness, lack of access to alternative livelihood opportunities, lower productivity due to lack of access to productive resources and government schemes, lack of representation in the public meetings and community based institutions, and the lack of decision making capacity both at family and social level.

Female-headed households in targeted coastal districts of the three states - Odisha, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh – vary from 12.6 percent to 20 percent. Maharashtra has the highest female-headed household and Odisha has the lowest number. Female-headed households are socially marginalized, economically vulnerable and have limited access to resources. However, with regards to the feminization of poverty and gender mainstreaming, the project would prioritize – but not be limited to – female-headed household. Women of poor male headed households are also vulnerable to the impacts of climate change; hence, the project considers different kinds of gender and social vulnerability in the project design and implementation.

This project supports many of the Government of India’s initiatives including SAPCC (State Action Plan on Climate Change), NMSA (National Mission on Sustainable Agriculture), NICRA
(National Initiative on Climate Resilient Agriculture), and NRLM (National Rural Livelihood Mission). Syncing with the objectives of all of these government initiatives, the project aims to build the resilience of communities and specifically women, by building their entrepreneurial skill to increase their coping capacity. The impact of changing climate and increasing number of extreme climatic events creating huge loss to lives, assets; vulnerable social groups and women are more vulnerable due to an already constrained situation of limited access to resources, low level income and lack of alternative livelihood opportunities etc. Social vulnerabilities and restrictions also limits women and female-headed households access to training and information on disaster preparedness thereby enhancing the probability of their death in the disasters.

Project interventions consider gender perspective in the project design as follows-

- Gender difference in how local resources are allocated; women’s access to and control over resources like land, credit etc.
- Gender division of labor in all the livelihood opportunities.
- Women’s role as primary care giver and primary income earner in female-headed households.
- Social and cultural norms limiting or providing opportunities for women’s economic empowerment.
- Strategies to encourage women and female headed household’s participation in the community based institution, local governance and decision making.
- Ensuring participation of women in the training and planning meetings.
- Identification of gaps in gender equality through the use of sex-disaggregated data enabling the development of a gender action plan to close those gaps, devoting resources and expertise for implementing such strategies, monitoring the results of implementation, and holding individuals and institutions accountable for outcomes that promote gender equality.
- Advocacy and targeting of specific at-risk subgroups more explicitly including children and girls, scheduled caste and scheduled tribes, in addition to women. (for instance, children tasked with household duties; neglected.)
- Inclusion of a Gender Specialist position/provision of advice within the project to implement gender related activities.

Further, during project implementation, qualitative assessments will be conducted on the gender-specific benefits that can be directly associated to the project. This will be incorporated in the annual Project Implementation Report, Mid-Term Report, and Terminal Evaluation. Indicators to quantify the achievement of project objectives in relation to gender equality will include men and women who had access to affordable solutions, number of men and women employed from the jobs created by the project, training opportunities, knowledge management and information dissemination.

**Stakeholder Engagement**

Ensuring the participation of women’s organization, gender experts, community representatives from project conceptualization and design through stakeholder consultations ensures better gender mainstreaming. It also ensures the reflection of women and other vulnerable groups’ needs and interest in the project objectives, design, implementation plan, monitoring and evaluation etc. Consultations have been conducted at several levels - state, district and local level.
Annex XIII (c) - Gender Assessment and Action Plan
GREEN CLIMATE FUND FUNDING PROPOSAL

– in all of the three targeted states to incorporate community and stakeholder’s concern in the project design. All the consultation reports are attached as an annex. Some of the needs and demands arising from the stakeholder consultations are as follows:

- Women make a significant contribution to food production in the coastal areas. They are engaged both in agriculture and fishery. Women are mostly engaged in marketing the fish and contribute majorly in the fish processing. Adding value to fish processing by introducing technology like solar technology for traditional drying can be beneficial for women fisherfolks. These women have less participation in the fishery-related community based organizations.
- In agriculture, rice is one of the major crops cultivated in coastal districts of all three states. Women’s labour contribution in the rice cultivation, specifically in the weeding and intercultural operation is high. Very few people have access to small farm equipment like weeder which can reduce the drudgery of women farmers.
- Value addition of agricultural produce through processing centers can be beneficial to the women, elderly and other vulnerable groups.
- Community-based institutions like women self-help groups are operating in villages for many years. These institutions can be utilized for the program implementation.
- Government programs like NRLM (National Rural Livelihood Mission) are promoting women groups for enterprises; linkages with these programs can be created to increase outreach to more number of women in less time.
- Women do have separate needs during the disasters like cyclone and flood, specially related to hygiene and sanitation.
- Skill building programs for women and girls on handicraft products like coir product, golden grass etc. can help them to create alternative livelihood.
- Eco-tourism options engage women; female-headed households especially can take up such livelihood activities which will boost their income while protecting the environment.
- Female headed households often have limited access to disaster preparedness training programmes, different livelihood trainings in the patriarchal panchayati raj system. It was found that often single women are not informed about the different trainings held at the Panchayat level as men are often the communication channel used by the government department to spread awareness about meetings, trainings. Further, single women of female headed households being the sole bread earner of the family face time constraints to attend the meetings. It is essential to set the meeting venue time and venue in consideration of the most vulnerable community.
- Training of different relevant government department staff on gender issues and specific gender needs of women fisher folks for sensitizing them for a gender transformative program implementation

Monitoring and Evaluation

A baseline has been developed and established with collating data from various sources from the targeted area. Throughout implementation and evaluation, baseline data shall be monitored against the achieved outputs and outcomes. To ensure a gender sensitive monitoring and evaluation process additional indicators, generated from the gender analysis and stakeholder engagement, will be measured.

Quantitative outcomes:
Annex XIII (c) - Gender Assessment and Action Plan
GREEN CLIMATE FUND FUNDING PROPOSAL

- Number of female headed households benefitted.
- Number of women and other vulnerable groups who participated in the capacity building workshops, government meetings etc.
- Number of women and other vulnerable groups members who have access to institutional credit, government schemes and subsidies etc.
- Number of community based institutions strengthened and number of women who have access to CBOs.
- Number of women who have adapted other livelihood options to diversify their income basket.
- Over a set period, an increase of x percent in household incomes from fish-based activities (such as fisheries or aquaculture or processing) among women-headed households and poor households in program areas.
- Number of women and men holding management or treasurer positions in natural resource management groups.
- Number of women and men participating in training in new methods of fishing or fish cultivation.
- Number of women and men starting new small enterprises in fish processing or marketing.
- Improvements in health and well-being.
- Business development services component targeting rural women entrepreneur groups.

Qualitative outcomes:

- Opportunities created for women and women groups to generate additional income.
- Time-saving for women as a result of lower hours in labour required for agricultural and water management practices prior to the implementation of the project.
- Gender differences in workload as a result of introduced practices or new technology.
- Change in gender division of labor as a result of the project implementation.
- Increase in the asset base of vulnerable groups specifically women to increase coping capacity.
- Women or other disadvantaged groups actively participating in management committees and boards.
- Contribution to improved self-esteem and empowerment of women in the community.
- Expanded involvement in public and project decision-making as a result of initiation of women into active participation in income generating activities.
- Enhanced participation of women in the governance system and change in women’s power to incorporate their voice and concern in government schemes and policies.
- Effectiveness of awareness raising.
- Change in attitudes of women and men about changed roles of women in fisheries or aquaculture.
- Community opinions (disaggregated by gender) with changes in level of conflicts over gender.
VI. Gender Action Plan

This Gender Action plan provides suggested entry points for gender-responsive actions to be taken under each of the Activity areas of the project. In addition, specific indicators are also proposed to measure and track progress on these actions at the activity level. This can be incorporated into the detailed M&E plan which will be developed at the start of implementation, and provide concrete recommendations on how to ensure gender (including disaggregated data) continues to be collected and measured throughout implementation. Moreover, a gender-specific budget has been allocated to Output 1,2 and 3 tailored towards conducting the vulnerability assessment of the coast with a gender perspective, training and capacity building of the women on the restoration process, promoting ecologically sustainable livelihood activities with women and other vulnerable communities, training women on EbA, developing gender sensitive knowledge products ensuring inclusion of women needs, concerns and stories in the best practices and making the knowledge products accessible to women, promoting networks of women groups for increased social capital etc.

In the year 1 and 2, comprehensive climate vulnerability assessment will be undertaken to prioritise the vulnerable sites for ecosystem based intervention; it would be essential to incorporate gender and social concerns in the participatory assessment of physical vulnerability and adaptive capacity of the community for ensuring gender sensitized project planning and implementation. In addition, consultant will be hired to conduct the socio-economic vulnerability assessment of the vulnerable community including women, female headed households, differently abled people living in the coastal areas and reflect their interest, concerns in the project activities planning and implementation. Further, it would be essential to take up micro-assessment of the livelihood targeting women and vulnerable communities, development of the gender sensitive Decision-support tools, to increase engagement of the vulnerable group in the project processes and sustainable livelihood promotion.

In the first two years, in the beginning of the project, consultants will be hired to develop knowledge materials, training resources, planning of workshops and consultations for building capacity of women on climate resilient livelihood, understanding blue carbon storage and carbon sequestration process, developing understanding about market for better forward and backward linkages etc. With an interest to minimize any negative impact on the environment or social fabric of the local area, project will invest the beginning two years in detailed assessment, building deeper understanding about the specific challenges experienced by the vulnerable communities, opportunities exist in the local context that benefit to achieve the project outcomes, the project will invest forest two years in the vulnerability assessment, development of the knowledge products, translating it into local languages, design the capacity building consultation. This will ensure effective and efficient implementation of the project.

From 2nd-3rd year onwards workshops and consultations will be organized, dissemination of the developed knowledge products will be done. Strengthening of community based organizations of the women and vulnerable communities like Self-Help Groups, increasing women and women's groups access to services and market will be ensured throughout the project period. During the project implementation it will be essential to ensure active engagement of the women and vulnerable communities in the project activities and reaping benefit of the project for developing sustainable, climate resilient livelihood. In the last year, focus will be on for a gender sensitized impact assessment, building networks with other key stakeholders for replication of the project, documentation of the project success from a gender lens and advocacy with public and private sectors for sustainability and replication of the project model.
### Objective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Indicator and Targets</th>
<th>Responsible Institutions</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Allocated Budget ($US)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output 1: Enhanced resilience of coastal and marine ecosystems and their services</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity 1.1: Conducting vulnerability assessment of the coast to inform planning of ecosystem- and community-based adaptation interventions</td>
<td>Women and other vulnerable groups participate in the assessment process and own the assessment. Ensuring participation of women and other vulnerable groups’ members in climate vulnerability assessment to include their needs and concerns in the ecosystem based interventions</td>
<td>This work will be coordinated at a national scale by the MoEFCC-based project management unit, working closely with the National Coastal Mission, and procuring the services of consultants (see detailed budget notes in Annex XIII (g) for details).</td>
<td>1st year-2nd year</td>
<td>748,977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity 1.2: Community-based conservation and restoration of coastal ecosystems for increasing ecosystem</td>
<td>Women actively participate in the coastal ecosystem conservation process. Building active agency of women and other vulnerable groups to participate in the conservation and restoration of coastal ecosystem, incorporating</td>
<td>This work will be coordinated by the three Forest Department–based project management units in the three target States, which will procure the services of NGOs to coordinate restoration efforts in 12 coastal districts and 24 target landscapes. The Forest Department will</td>
<td>2nd year onwards</td>
<td>4,616,467</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

50 According to the Government of India Socio-Economic Caste Census 2011 (data released in 2013), Odisha, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh have 12.38%, 12.24% and 15.79% female headed households.
<p>| resilience | their needs and interests in the restoration process and making them an integral part of the change process. | women | liaise with the State Coastal Zone Management Authorities currently being established to ensure coordinated implementation of Coastal Zone Regulations. At the village level, the contracted NGOs will work with Village Organizations (federations of Self-Help Groups) and Eco Development Committees to establish co-management structures involving government and CBOs/NGOs. Restoration work will be undertaken by Eco Development Committees within protected areas, and Van Samrakshan Samitis outside PAs (e.g. on state-owned Revenue lands), with community participants paid for work carried out. The NGOs will be supported by the district-level Ecological &amp; CC Adaptation specialists, managed by the State PMUs. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Indicator and Targets</th>
<th>Responsible Institution</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Allocated Budget ($US)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Output 2: Climate-resilient livelihoods for enhanced adaptive capacities of coastal communities | Women and other vulnerable groups increased numbers of livelihood options in the livelihood basket and have enhanced coping capacity.  
Strengthened both women and men’s capacity through trainings, forward and backward market linkages, linking with government institutions to adapt climate-resilient livelihoods. Enhancing women’s participation in the local community-based organizations for enhancing their social capital | At least 60 percent of the recipients of technical support to climate-adaptive value addition are women  
At least 15 percent of the recipients of technical support to climate-adaptive value addition are women from women-headed households | This work will be coordinated by the three Forest Department–based project management units in the three target States, which will procure the services of NGOs to coordinate livelihoods planning and provide technical support to community groups on processing the products of climate-adaptive aquaculture and agriculture, in 12 coastal districts and 24 target landscapes. They will be supported by the district–level Socio Economic and Livelihoods Specialists, managed through the State PMUs, who will support the development of value chains, establishment of certification schemes for “eco” products, and accessing loan finance.  
The livelihood activities like integrated multitrophic aquaculture, processing of aquaculture products, coastal eco-tourism, non-timber forest products would be implemented from the government co-financed fund. | 1st year-7th year | 1,445,377 |
| Activity 2.2: Improving capacities of local communities for community-based adaptation and climate-resilient livelihoods | Women and other vulnerable groups participated in training courses for community groups, awareness programmes, and knowledge exchanges | At least 10% increase per year in number of women active in livelihoods planning structures in target landscapes  
At least 60 percent of the recipients of training on climate-adaptive livelihoods are women  
At least 16 percent of the recipients of training on climate-adaptive livelihoods are women from women-headed households | This work will be coordinated by the three Forest Department–based project management units in the three target States, which will procure the services of NGOs to offer training and technical assistance on a range of climate-adaptive livelihoods in aquaculture, ecotourism and non-timber forest products, as well as climate-smart intensification and climate-adapted crops. They will be supported by the district–level Socio Economic and Livelihoods Specialists, managed through the State PMUs, who will provide support to ensure that women, youth and marginalized groups are participating fully in livelihoods activities and decision-making processes, and will help facilitate public awareness raising, and lessons sharing between communities. Activities like drip irrigated mango and cashew production, cultivation of aromatic and medicinal plants, mushroom cultivation, construction of mango ripening chamber and pulp making, and virgin coconut oil extraction will be implemented with the government co-finance fund. | 2nd year onwards | 7,082,497 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective</th>
<th>Action</th>
<th>Indicator and Targets</th>
<th>Responsible / Institution</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Allocated Budget ($US)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output 3: Strengthened coastal and marine governance and institutional framework</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Activity 3.1 Network of institutions for enhanced climate resilience and integrated planning and governance in all coastal states** | Women and vulnerable groups members lead community institutions and participate actively in the integrated planning process | - At least 10% increase per year in number of women active in multi-stakeholder coordination structures in target landscapes  
- 100% of district-specific, coast EbA knowledge products in local languages are gender sensitive | This work will be coordinated at a national scale by the MoEFCC-based project management unit, working closely with the National Coastal Mission (NCM), and procuring the services of consultants (see detailed budget notes in Annex XIII (g) for details). The NCM will ensure coordination amongst institutions responsible for coastal and marine governance in all 13 coastal States and Union Territories. Existing interdepartmental platforms will be used in the 13 coastal states/territories to facilitate incorporation of ecosystem- and community-based adaptation approaches. A pan-Indian Coastal Resilience Network will also be established to share knowledge. In the three target states, the three Forest Department–based project management units will promote intersectoral coordination in the 24 target landscapes, where multi-stakeholder coordination structures – comprising representatives from relevant state-level ministries, district-level government, NGOs and academic/research institutions – will be established to promote dialogue and coordination concerning climate-resilient | 2nd year onwards | 262,842 |
| | | | | | 162,484 |
### Activity 3.2 Integrating ecosystem-centric approaches to climate change adaptation into public and private sector policies, plans and budgets, and scaling up finance for EbA

| Description                                                                 | Women and vulnerable group's concerns are at the heart of the climate change policies, plans and regulation to ensure a gender sensitive coastal governance, and women participate in training on Coastal Calculator tool for shoreline protection and other climate-resilient infrastructure, and in developing adaptation plans for Smart Cities | 100% of EbA plans for coastal Smart Cities are gender-sensitive  
- At least 10% increase per 2 years in number of women participating in national intersectoral dialogues on coastal EbA | At national level this will include work through the new National Coastal Mission to integrate climate risk management and EbA principles into national policies and schemes, including the CAMPA afforestation fund and Smart Cities Mission. At state level, the Mission will use interdepartmental platforms in all coastal states to facilitate scenario planning and policy dialogues, and hold public and private sector dialogues. Through cooperation with the Smart Cities Mission under the Ministry of Urban Development, the MoEFCC-based PMU will hire consultants to undertake work in the four coastal Smart Cities in the three target States (Kalyan in Maharashtra; Kakinada and Visakhapatnam in Andhra Pradesh; and Bhubaneswar in Odisha) to develop climate change adaptation plans that harness ecological infrastructure for adaptation. | 3rd year onwards | 244,732

### Activity 3.3. Knowledge management for coastal resilience

| Description                                                                 | Women and other vulnerable groups have enhanced knowledge regarding the climate change impacts, adaptation, and mitigation; and have reduced vulnerability to climate change impacts | At least 50 percent of the exchange visit participants are women  
- At least 50% of the EbA vocational / academic training courses are women | This work will be coordinated at a national scale by the MoEFCC-based project management unit, working closely with the National Coastal Mission (NCM), and procuring the services of consultants focusing on transfer and replication of lessons and best practices – between target landscapes, between coastal states, and between coastal countries in the 3rd year onwards | 3rd year onwards | 459,112

| | | | | | 447,510

| | | | | | 163,240
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>South Asian sub-region.</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15,633,238</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Annex 16b**

**Gender Action Plan**

“Building livelihood resilience to climate change in the upper basins of Guatemala’s highlands”

**Impact Statement:** Climate impacts on the hydrological cycle in the Highlands of Guatemala, compounded by inappropriate land use, increasingly affect the landscape’s infiltration capacity and water availability, erosion control, sediment retention and other water-basin related ecosystem services. Therefore, the project’s overarching objective is to reduce the impacts of climate change on the hydrological cycle in target watersheds through improved land use practices. This will lead to improved water recharge and productivity and contribute to the population’s and ecosystem’s increased resilience to climate change. Expected total number of direct and indirect beneficiaries (reduced vulnerability or increased resilience), are:

- 132,000 of vulnerable households, local organizations and technicians at local level using totally or partially climate related tools, information and practices (30% women)
- 30,000 people benefit from capacity building (at least 30% women) and incentives for forest conservation in strategic water catchments (10% women)
- At least 50,000 people benefit from the grant facility (30% women)
- 132,000 people benefit from a participatory early warning system for agricultural practices and water management (30% women)
- 7,500 hectares of agroforestry systems supporting water recharge and productivity
- 5,000 hectares of forest restored and maintained to provide hydrological services

As an underlying approach, all project activities will be developed hand in hand with MARN Gender Unit, Municipal Gender Offices and local women organizations, this will ensure sustainability and long-term impact of gender affirmative actions.

**Outcome statement:** Increased resilience to climate change of at least 15,000 women in project area through improvement of their capacities to access early warning system for agricultural/agroforestry practices and water management, climate smart agriculture and agroforestry practices and/or to grant facility.

### Activities | Indicators and targets | Timelines | Responsibilities
--- | --- | --- | ---
**Output 1:** Integrated climate smart watershed management

(i) Improve local capacities of woman for climate action and watershed management with special focus in female-headed households  
- 15,000 women in project area, at least 50% of women-headed households surveyed.  
- Start date Year 1 Q3  
- End date Year 7 Q3  
- EE and Execution partners

(ii) Promote women access to government forestry and agroforestry incentives supporting water recharge and productivity with special focus on female headed households  
- 3,000 women in project area (limitations on land ownership)  
- Start date Year 2 Q2  
- End date Year 6 Q4  
- EE & Execution partners

**Output 2:** Grant facility for Community-led climate actions channeling funding to priority areas
NOTE: Activities in this plan are embedded in the project document, and cost estimation is included there too. The project strongly promotes women participation; then in this plan, the percentages of women participation are included in all project activities and benefits. Dedicated studies and workshops to establish the baseline regarding women situation, as well as gender gaps are explained in the logical framework, thus included in the budget.

| (iii) | Awarding and implementation of medium grants for second level CBOs with special consideration for proposals with women heading households’ as direct beneficiaries | • At least 30% of total participants in capacity building and awareness activities are female organizations | Start date Year 2 Q4 End date Year 6 Q4 | EE and execution partners |
| (iv) | Awarding and implementation of small grants for grassroots organizations with special consideration for proposals with women headed households’ as direct beneficiaries | • At least 10% of grants goes to women organizations in the project area. at least 50% of women-headed households surveyed. | Start date Year 2 Q4 End date Year 6 Q4 | EE and resource agency |

**Output 3:** Climate related information provided to farmers and other target stakeholders for watershed management

| v) | Ensure women access to information generated by data collection, modeling, forecasting, and archiving | • 100% of women involved in project had improved access to information | Start date Year 1 Q4 End date Year 7 Q4 | EE and execution partners |
| vi) | Design and implement a participatory early warning system for agricultural practices and water management addressing differentiated capacities to enable the involvement of female heads of household in the system | • 100% of women involved in project – At least 30% of women benefit from early warning systems. | Start date Year 2 Q1 End date Year 5 Q1 | EE and execution partners |
| vii) | Capacity building for relevant actors at community, municipal and national levels for operation and maintenance, data interpretation, modelling and forecasting, | • At least 30% of women in capacity building activities | Start date Year 2 Q1 End date Year 7 Q4 | EE and execution partners |
Annex 16a

“Building livelihood resilience to climate change in the upper basins of Guatemala’s highlands”

Gender Assessment Report
Annex 16a
Gender Assessment Report

“Building livelihood resilience to climate change in the upper basins of Guatemala’s highlands”

Contents

Contenido
Back Ground ...........................................................................................................¡Error! Marcador no definido.
1. Project Background .......................................................................................... 3
2. Women situation in Guatemala ........................................................................ 3
3. Gender Considerations under Project ............................................................ 5
4. Applicable regulatory framework: ..................................................................... 6
5. Key areas of Project intervention: ..................................................................... 6
5 Key areas to be addressed in this project: .......................................................... 6
6. Gender considerations in the project outcomes and result indicators ............... 7
6 Gender dimensions in the project outcomes and result indicators .................... 7
7. Gender criteria and responsible parties ............................................................ 7
1. Project Background

1.1 Regarding long-term impacts of climate change in Guatemala, changes in temperature and in the hydrological cycle are also expected to impact on ecosystems, causing them to shift from humid forests to dry and very dry forests. Due to climate change, the structure, composition and function of ecosystems are expected to change. This will affect ecosystems' ability to generate goods and services and, more important, its ability to ameliorate the impacts of change. As outlined in the Feasibility Study, climate change impact will be acute in the Western Highlands of Guatemala.

1.2 Therefore, the project's overarching objective is to reduce the impacts of climate change on the hydrological cycle in target watersheds through improved land use practices. This will lead to improved water recharge and productivity and contribute to the population's and ecosystem's increased resilience to climate change. Project activities will be implemented in three phases under the following logic: year 1 will have a focus on inception activities and leveling the field in terms of startup capacities for the existing and proposed steering structures and stakeholders, which will guarantee full implementation potential. During year 2 through year 7, main implementation of field activities and continued capacity building will take place. From year 6, the exit strategy will be implemented together with MARN and members of the National and Local Steering Committees, to include the development of knowledge products and sustainability arrangements, operation and maintenance plans, and measurement of project impacts at the outcome level.

1.3 The Project will achieve its objective addressing three result areas: 1) integrated climate-sensitive watershed management adapted to the local context of the Highlands, as a central element; 2) community-led implementation of climate actions in priority areas through funding from the grant mechanism; and 3) improved multi-level and multi-stakeholder access to climate information that enhances agricultural and water management practices and programs.

2. Women situation in Guatemala

2.1 Guatemala is a multiethnic country, made up of four ethnic groups: Mayan, Xinca, Garífuna and Mestizo. Guatemala's projected population for 2015 is 16 million people of which 51% are women\(^1\). The condition, situation and position of women in Guatemala are determined by inequality, inequality and hierarchies that outline the roles assigned to women and men in society, resulting in a systematic disadvantage for women\(^2\).

2.2 In relation to poverty, a population of 13.3 in extreme poverty is reported in Guatemala for 2011, Guatemala City reports 0.7% and for the project region (the West) an average of 14.5, so it is 1.2% above the national average and 13.8% the urban population\(^3\). As for educational indicators, primary school completion has reported a slight increase in time

---

\(^1\) INE. Projection of population of Guatemala disaggregated by sex. 2015
\(^2\) MARN. Environmental Gender Policy. 2015.
\(^3\) INE. Extreme poverty indicator. 2011
(1995 to 2014) and the gap between men and women has been decreasing, but there is still a difference between the number of men and women (on 2011 men 68% and women 65.3%; on 2012 men 68.6 and women 66.8; on 2013 men 72% and women 71.5%); general data about education indicates that 77% of men population is literate, compared to 60% in the case of women.

2.3 According to data from the INE, women occupy 13 hours a day in labor activities, 7 of which are paid and 6 are non-paid. In comparison, men work an average of 11 hours a day, of which 8 are compensated. In Guatemala, for every 100 quetzals a man earns, a woman earns 68 quetzals generating a wage gap of 32%. Finally, in reviewing women's political participation, data indicate that women hold only 13% of decision-making positions in the country. When this data is disaggregated by rural population and ethnicity, indigenous women are in clear disadvantage. The proportion of maternal deaths is two deaths of indigenous women for every death of a non-indigenous woman, a tendency that has been maintained since the year 2000. The incidence of childbirths with medical and / or nursing care among the indigenous population has been slow to improve. In 1987, one in 10 indigenous women received specialized medical care, and 20 years later three out of 10 indigenous women received it.

2.4 In the western Altiplano (project area), 65% of households are considered small (monthly income less than Q2,615 approximate US$350). 79.7% of small agricultural producer's households are men headed, while 20.3% are female headed. Evidence shows that in most producer households' women contribute to field related activities, but statistics do not reflect such contribution. Recently, economic diversification strategies are focused primarily toward women, with activities such as handicrafts, packaging, soaps, medicinal plants, etc., which face the lack of stable markets. Meanwhile, men are engaged in diversification activities like construction, trade, transportation, etc., which have greater stability in terms of employment and income.

Western Highlands: Distribution of small agricultural households’ heads by sex (percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Household type</th>
<th>Men headed</th>
<th>Women headed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self employed agricultural household</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural household with multiple activities</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural employer household</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural wage-earner household</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non agricultural household</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This data shows that out of small non-agricultural household, 73.8% are female headed households, while 47% stands for men-headed. It is the only category where female headed households are predominant. This information highlights the disadvantage situation of rural women in productive activities and confirms the need for actions to narrow the gap of women’s participation and access to benefits, with a mayor focus on women-headed households.

2.5 Regarding level of education in the Western Highlands, 44.3% of women have not received

---

4 SEGEPLAN. Informe final de cumplimiento de los Objetivos de Desarrollo del Milenio. Guatemala. 2015.
5 National Estatistics Institute
6 Quetzal is the national currency in Guatemala (Q) 1 USD equals aprox. 7.5 quetzal.
7 CEPAL. Observatorio de igualdad de género de América Latina y el Caribe. Notas para la Igualdad no. 3
8 Ministry of Health and Social Assistance. Health Profile of Indigenous Peoples of Guatemala. MSAS/OPS/OMS. 2016
9 USAID/IARNA/IDIES. Impacto económico de la agricultura de pequeña escala sobre las mujeres en el Altiplano Occidental de Guatemala. 2013
formal education, and 31.3% did not finish primary school, compared with 26.3% and 38.9% of men, respectively.  

2.6 The Government of Guatemala has made significant efforts to advance in gender equality and climate change, including: the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The first effort to build a women’s policy was made in 1990, led by the National Women’s Office (ONAM), and generated the National Policy for the Development and Promotion of Women in Guatemala. In 1991, the Government promoted the Social Development Plan –PLADES– 1991/1996, 1992/1996 and 1997/2000, that considered the first affirmative actions in favor of the promotion and development of women. However, it was just in 1997 that was agreed to elaborate the National Policy for the Promotion and Development of Guatemalan Women and the Plan for Equity of Opportunities 1999-2001, which was updated to the National Policy for the Promotion and Integral Development of Guatemalan Women - Equity Opportunities Plan - PEO 2008 - 2023.

2.7 Based on the above, government institutions in charge of protection and sustainable use of natural resources and environment, have also developed institutional policies to address gender inequalities, and now has the MARN’s\(^{11}\) Gender Environment Policy (Ministerial Agreement 248- 2015), the Institutional Strategy on Gender Equity with Ethnic and Cultural considerations, of INAB\(^{12}\) (resolution point JD.05.38.2014); The Institutional Policy for Gender Equality and the Strategic Implementation Framework 2014-2023 of MAGA\(^{13}\) (Ministerial Agreement No. 693-2014). Additionally municipalities have established Municipal Women Offices (OMM, Spanish name), whose main attribution is to comply with the Policy for the Promotion and Integral Development of Guatemalan Women - Equity Opportunities Plan - PEO 2008 - 2023\(^{14}\).

3. Gender Considerations under Project

3.1 Due to climate change, changes are expected in the temperature and hydrological cycle, so some areas that are currently wet, will become dry. Changes in precipitation pattern will affect water availability for social and economic sector. Indeed, by the year 2000, Guatemala had a positive hydrological balance, i.e. water consumption was smaller than water supply, which was evident by the dominance of wet, very humid and rainy provinces. It is estimated, however, that Guatemala will be predominantly dry in 2080, because potential evapotranspiration will be greater than rainfall. In other words, Guatemala will become a deficit country in water terms. This will impact the availability of water and the composition of ecosystems, which will have an impact on the livelihoods of the peoples in the project area.

3.2 Given the geological, topographical and soil conditions in general, the vulnerability of Highlands communities will depend on the state of its ecosystems. Deforestation and forest degradation creates vulnerability by causing soil erosion, less infiltration (and greater runoff causing flood risk) and greater chances of landslides. Guatemala’s increasing deforestation, ecosystem degradation, and alarming soil and water loss and contamination

\(^{11}\) Ministry of Environmental and Natural Resources.
\(^{12}\) National Forests Institute
\(^{13}\) Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Food.
\(^{14}\) Established since 2010, by Decree 22-2010 (Article 96 BIS), and modified in 2016 (Decree 39-2016) to attribute them the fulfillment of the ... and readjust their attributions
have increased the country’s systemic vulnerability, increasing the risk of being harmed by natural hazards (URL-IARNA 2012). Projections of climate change, however, identify the entire Guatemalan highlands as an area that may suffer from greater water stress in the medium and long term.

3.3 These situations affect women differently due to the reduction in the availability of water they would probably have to travel greater distances to collect and take it to their families, a similar case could occur with the availability of firewood and medicinal plants or foods that they obtain from. So, various manifestations of climate change, such as water scarcity (as seen in the context of this project) add more to the domestic burdens of women as compared to men.

3.4 It is also necessary to consider that in rural areas women have little access to paid work and the benefits of family economic activities, since in most cases it is the man who is responsible for obtaining the economic income and whether for paid work or for the sale of their agricultural surplus.

3.5 The participation of women is very important in improving the scope and results of the project. Mechanisms to ensure their participation have been developed in components and on indicators. The second subcomponent aims at increasing climate action locally by taking advantage of the strong community based organizations present in the area. For this, a grant facility will be developed to contribute to sustainable watershed management practices developed under the first subcomponent. Gender considerations will be mainstreamed in the selection criteria, capacity building program and monitoring system as to ensure that affirmative actions are taken to contribute to women empowerment in the rural context.

4. Applicable regulatory framework:

4.1 At the national level, the National Forest Landscape Restoration Strategy provides the overall technical framework for the project, determining the priorities that the country has defined; in addition, an analysis has been carried out for implementing this national strategy with a gender approach and balancing the opportunities of access to its benefits between men and women.

4.2 Law on fostering the establishment, recovery, restoration, management, production and protection of forests in Guatemala (PROBOSQUE) Is the current forestry incentive law that considers specific options for restoration for climate change mitigation and adaptation, but does not include specific indications for women, the project will encourage both men and women to access these incentives.

4.3 Actions in project will be developed following the guidelines of the National Policy for the Promotion and Integral Development of Guatemalan Women - Equity Opportunities Plan - PEO 2008 – 2023, and also Gender Environment Policy (Ministerial Agreement 248-2015), the Institutional Strategy on Gender Equity with Ethnic and Cultural considerations, of INAB (resolution point JD.05.38.2014); The Institutional Policy for Gender Equality and the Strategic Implementation Framework 2014-2023 of MAGA (Ministerial Agreement No. 693-2014).

5. Key areas of Project intervention:

- Integrated climate smart watershed management
- Grant facility for Community-led climate actions channeling funding to priority areas
• Climate related information provided to farmers and other target stakeholders for watershed management

6. Gender considerations in the project outcomes and result indicators

6.1 Specifically, under the first component of the project, it is proposed to strengthen the capacities of women that are in the project area, so that they have a better understanding of the themes and actions covered by the project. In components two and three, it is proposed to improve the participation of women in the actions of the project and benefit them directly, so in the target beneficiaries it is proposed as a requirement, expressed in percentages. The second subcomponent aims increasing climate action locally by taking advantage of the strong community based organizations present in the area. For this, a grant facility will be developed to contribute to sustainable watershed management practices developed under the first subcomponent. Gender considerations will be mainstreamed in the selection criteria, capacity building program and monitoring system as to ensure that affirmative actions are taken to contribute to women empowerment in the rural context.

6.2 As an underpinning approach, all project activities will be developed hand in hand with MARN Gender Unit, Municipal Gender Offices and local women organizations, this will ensure sustainability and long-term impact of gender affirmative actions.

7. Gender criteria and responsible parties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Gender Criteria</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Governance dimension</td>
<td>% of Representation of women members in the governance structures of beneficiaries of the project</td>
<td>Executing Entity – EE and participating CBOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiences exchange of women members in the project</td>
<td>EE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity building</td>
<td>Capacity plans and contents will include gender components, women empowerment subjects, etc. (in at least 30%)</td>
<td>EE / Partner agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women would be trained in climate resilience agriculture/forestry, water conservation and management and all related issues regarding the project</td>
<td>EE / Partner agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge Management</td>
<td>Case Studies on women experiences of empowerment, forest management, etc. Monitoring on gender disaggregated data to identify impact on gender issues</td>
<td>EE / Partner agencies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The gender Action Plan is presented separately as Annex 16b
UPSCALING CLIMATE RESILIENCE MEASURES
IN THE DRY CORRIDOR AGROECOSYSTEMS
OF EL SALVADOR (RECLIMA)

GENDER ANALYSIS/ASSESSMENT
AND
GENDER ACTION PLAN

EL SALVADOR

FEBRUARY, 2018
Part I: Gender Analysis/Assessment:

El Salvador continues to work towards equality and inclusion in population groups structurally marginalized. The approval of the Law on Equality, Fairness, and the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women in El Salvador, the Special Holistic Law for a Life Free of Violence for Women, the Law on the Integral Protection of Childhood and Adolescence, the General Law on the Youth and the Law on Development and Social Protection are proof. Built based on women and men human rights, the International Conventions and Agreements are the benchmark for all legal reforms started, as well as the preparation of public policies.

FAO carried out a gender assessment in 2015 reflecting that women live a reality different from that of men: 54.0% of the working age population (WAP) are women, and 46.0% are men. This comprehensive participation rate or labor force is 80.2% among men and 46.7% among women.

Land tenure with husbandry activity: According to EHPM 2016, a total of 362,640 livestock producers were registered in the rural area with access to several types of land tenure; 313,474 are men, and only 39,066 are women. Related to land property, there is an important lack of proportion and disparity among men and women. Of a total of 73,635 agriculture and husbandry producers owners of land, 87.9% are men (64,704), and 12.1% are women (8,931).

In 2017, during the formulation of the project, a specialist in gender and citizen participation was hired to carry out a methodology to consult different social actors on gender related issues. Specific consultations were developed with women and focus groups with gender specialists belonging to institutions that promote equality. As a result, a gender analysis and a strategy for the implementation of gender equality were developed. On this basis, the actions to ensure gender equality in the context of RECLIMA are included in the workplan of the Environmental and Social Management Framework (Annex 1 of the ESMF).

As El Salvador continues to work in legal frameworks and women's rights, the proposal includes a gender action plan to address gender gaps and promote gender equality across activities.

**General information at National level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality rate</td>
<td>52.6 per 100,000 live births (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality rate</td>
<td>14.5 per 1,000 (2014)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Educational status of girls and boys**       | National average education level is 6.9 grades for men and 6.7 for women, and the rate of school attendance for men is 30.9% and women 26.6%.
Per age range:                                    |
  • 4 to 12: School attendance rate of the population 4 to 12 years: 89.9% (2015). |
  • 13 to 17: School attendance rate of the population 13 to 17 years: 79.3% (2015). |
  • 18 to 29: School attendance rate of the population 18 to 29 years: 20.0% (2015). |
| Adult literacy rate (disaggregated by gender)  | The illiteracy rate among females is 12.4%, while among males is 9.0%, representing a 3.4 percent gap (EHPM 2015) |
| Poverty rate                                   | Total: 28.86% (2016)               |
### Labour force participation rate (disaggregated by gender)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rural: 39.72% (2016)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>54.0% of the working age population (WAP) are women, and 46.0% are men. This comprehensive participation rate or labor force is 80.2% among men and 46.7% among women.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Employment rate (disaggregated by gender)

| Women represent 39% of those working at the national level, and this number is lower in the rural area (29%). 76.6% of rural women working perform trade related activities (42.1%), manufacture (17.8%), and domestic help (16.7%); while remunerated jobs in agriculture, fishing, and construction, are mainly performed by men (EHPM 2015). |

### Unemployment rate

| Economically Inactive Population (EIP). In absolute terms, EIP represents 1,778,898 persons, most of them women (76.0%). Among the reasons women tell why they are not looking for a job, are: 68.7% because they have too much to do at home; 14.2% because they study; 9.1% because they cannot work, be because they have a disability, or old age. |

### Land tenure

| Land tenure with husbandry activity: According to EHPM 2016, a total of 362,640 livestock producers were registered in the rural area with access to different types of land tenure; 313, 474 are men, and only 39,066 are women. Related to land property, there is an important lack of proportion and disparity among men and women. Of a total of 73,635 agriculture and husbandry producers owners of land, 87.9% are men (64,704), and 12.1% are women (8,931). |

### Access to tangible and intangible assets

| Investment in tangible assets destined to men is greater (64%) that what consigned to women (36%). In the case of assets directly related to agriculture, it may be observed that of deliveries, 48% went to women and 52% to men who received: agricultural packages, irrigation systems, metallic silos, poultry modules. In case of intangible assets, 43% of women have had access to training and technical assistance, affirming they are the main deserters, since at the same time, they need to perform household duties and take care of the family, what befalls on them ISDEMU (2015). |

### Life expectancy (disaggregated by gender)

| Women: 77,66 years (reported to 2015) Men: 68,57 years (reported to 2015) |

### Country of intervention

#### What is the legal status of women?

El Salvador has had great legislative advances towards equality and inclusion in population groups structurally marginalized. The approval of the Law on Equality, Fairness, and the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women in El Salvador, the Special Holistic Law for a Life Free of Violence for Women, the Law on the Integral Protection of Childhood and Adolescence, the General Law on the Youth and the Law on Development and Social Protection are proof. Built based on women and men human rights, the International Conventions and Agreements are the benchmark for all legal reforms started, as well as the preparation of public policies.
The Law on Equality, Fairness, and the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women in El Salvador (2011) establishes that women and men "are equal before the law and equivalent in their human and citizen conditions; therefore, they are legitimately deserving of equal protection of their rights by the corresponding institutions, and may not be subject of any discrimination that hinders their exercise of said rights. Because of the above, the laws and norms still keeping exclusion, rights diminishing, and legal capacity provisions against women, are considered discriminating" (art. 1).

Likewise, there are mechanisms and a governmental authority, ISDEMU, who assures the compliance of the national policy on Women Equality.

Within the international normative framework ratified by the country in 1995, the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) passed in 1979, is the first international instrument that is not neutral in terms of gender, and promotes the creation of affirmative action measures to increase participation opportunities for women in all sectors. Mainly art. 14 refers to rural women.

**What are commonly held beliefs, perceptions, and stereotypes related to gender?**

The traditional roles of women and men still are being reproduced through the socialization means that are the schools, churches, home, and media.

The characteristics a woman should have, and those of men are taught in a differentiated manner and the gender gap in terms of rights and expectations on their roles in society remain strong, even more in rural areas.

As gender based violence is widely present, it is a major challenge in working towards comprehensive and inclusive social development for men and women.

**What is the division of labour among women and men?**

Gender division at work affects mainly women, who commonly are dedicated to household chores and family care are more dedicated to remunerated labour. This brings great consequences to financial income access, inequality in household chores, decision-making, etc. It is common to think women cannot dedicate themselves to productive work, mainly in the rural area.

Gender division of labor is key to perpetuate patriarchal practices: when relegating women to household chores, their area of action at home is restricted, to live in a bubble, to sacrifice their studies and other activities in order to care for the family. Meanwhile, men when assigned the productive and income generation role, have greater liberty and physical, financial control, decision-making, greater opportunities to study and better themselves, etc.

**What is the participation between women and men in the formal/informal economy?**

Women contribution to development and the economy at the national and local levels, is of the greatest importance, although sometimes their input might not be acknowledged through the non-remunerated work they perform, and which is mainly focused on women.

Economic empowerment is also an important dimension. And it is when women exercise their right and have full access to available opportunities, that a positive impact is generated in the economy and also in important aspects to reach the development of society. When eliminating factors that limit access to women from education, productive resources, and/or to activities that allow them to generate revenue, at home income increases, and at a more aggregated level, may take to an increase in productivity due to taking advantage of knowledge and abilities of feminine labor force. Additionally, when women have decision power of home resources, even when they do not generate them, they invest more in human capital of their sons and daughters: destine more funds
to feeding and achieving FSN, boys and girls reach a higher school level, and increase survival probability on girls.

To take advantage of these benefits resulting from women participation in the economy, it is necessary for the labor market to offer enough opportunities to be able to incorporate themselves to the economic activity.

**Project footprint area**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is the situation of women and men?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family farming plan, implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (MAG), gives priorities to families in survival conditions, dedicated to agriculture, in order to increase access to food and income generation in their homes. Nevertheless, the description of this Plan is not mentioned in affirmative actions addressed to overcoming economic advantages faced by women. Women invest between twice or triple the time men invest in household chores, what is not remunerated, nor socially acknowledged as a contribution to family nor national economy from women. Time investment in household chores is intimately related to women’s age, increasing as the woman ages. In El Salvador, right to land property, as well as to water access, forests and biodiversity in general, is more restricted to women than for men; the use of these natural resources is conditioned by the division of labor based on gender; environmental pollution has specific impacts on women in the city and rural areas, and it is necessary that the State acknowledges women contribution to biodiversity conservation, implementing affirmative action policies, and guaranteeing the exercise of their rights in this environment. Lack of water in the rural area affects men and women differently, in detriment of women when we relate it to time, effort, health deterioration, and decision-making. Even with all advances on gender matters, reality for men is different from that of women, being unfavorable for the latter.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In terms of the proposed project/program, will there be any anticipated differences in men’s and women’s vulnerability and adaptive capacity to climate change? If so, what are these?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes effectively, women are more at risk of vulnerability than men when we analyze climate change impacts. Due to the traditional role assignment, women may assume a double or triple work day to overcome difficulties from drought, loss of crops, and other product losses due to climate change. In order to comply with the responsibility imposed by the care and protection of their loved ones: sons and daughters, grandfathers and grandmothers, relatives who require care due to health problems, even husbands. Among the risks to be faced are: women malnutrition, because the best food, or the little they may have, they give to their loved ones; health problems, physical exhaustion or exposure to violence and criminality due to the large distances needed to walk to obtain potable water. Migration to work in the cities as domestic help while leaving her family in the rural area, among others.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Are there existing gender inequalities that may be exacerbated by climate change impacts?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes. Families are significantly affected in their financial stability as a result of climate change. In order to satisfy health, nutrition and survival, families end up taking large debts and looking how to make their land more productive for crops.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One of the main gender inequities happens with technology access, agricultural inputs, and technical assistance during drought crisis, floods, crops losses, pest management, etc. Generally speaking, it is men who participate in these processes, and women have less probability to participate, due to their domestic load.

On the other hand, families end up mortgaging their lands to produce, and when losing their crops, or are not productive enough, they end up losing their lands, homes, tangible goods, or simply sell their land to have more income and survive. Historically women hold less land, related to men, so when their goods are lost, those most strongly affected, are women.

Often in the field, as a product of this unbalance caused by climate change, families decide that their daughters’ education is not a priority, and girls end up working from an early age as domestic help to support their families, thus limiting their possibility for holistic development and guaranteeing their inherent rights as girls and human beings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are some of the inequalities that exist between different social groups? How do these inequalities affect people’s capacity to adapt to climate change?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All Project beneficiaries are in a poverty situation, with food insecurity, in a territory with arid conditions for crops, lacking water access, because they are in the dry corridor. Nevertheless, within this context, there are population sectors that have been identified as being more vulnerable, and have the previously mentioned profile, but also have certain specificities that influence their lesser capacity to adapt to climate change: indigenous people, youth, and women. Indigenous people: they have been invisibilized, have little identity, have not had access to technologies, most do not hold land to produce crops, etc. Youth: Do not find where they belong, have no access to technologies designed to fit their interest, have lost the love to see crops grow and land produce, migrate and look for other types of employment, as a result of the lack of opportunities. And finally women, they have no access or control of natural resources, land, tangible, nor intangible goods. Have no access or control over economic income in their families, nor access to flexible credits, and many do not have autonomy either, what influences negatively their capacity to adapt to climate change.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What roles women and men are anticipated to play in the context of the project/program? What will these entail in terms of time commitment and need for mobility?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>During the project implementation, beneficiary families will participate in equality of conditions, through the methodology of demonstrating families. Mechanisms will be established to guarantee the active and effective participation of women, alliances will be performed in the territory with gender equality promotion entities such as ISDEMU, Ciudad Mujer, gender units in municipalities, gender units from MAG/CENTA and MARN, in order to guarantee at least 35% of women participation in the totality of the project, and that 35% of the budget will be destined to actions with women. On the work with families, equitable distribution will be promoted for productive and reproductive labor through the gender training processes, producers, and technical personnel. There will be a guarantee not to overload women, and the time dedicated by the families as a whole to the project, be equally distributed among the members.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What resources (economic, financial, physical, natural, other assets) do women and men have access to? Who manages or controls access to these resources?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In general, men have access and control of lands and tangible goods, therefore during the implementation of the project, inputs deliveries and other goods will be delivered to organizations or families as a whole, assuring men and women are equally part of the decision making process.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and control of resources. Delivery minutes must be signed by men as well as by women to close this gender gap.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do women and men from vulnerable communities have equal access to information and opportunities necessary to participate and benefit fully from the anticipated outcomes of the project/program?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The project will promote equal participation of all benefited sectors, establishing conditions to ease access, control, and resource management. Family work will be promoted as an engine for the local economy and a more equitable society, promoting the participation of women heads of household, youth, and indigenous peoples; and hiring will be made from these sectors to have them as benchmarks, and thus promote together with the collective, their transformation and development. Capacities will be built not giving them solutions, but building within the community itself with participative governance processes, where they are the protagonists of their changes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do women have equal access to education, technical knowledge, and/or skill upgradation?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes. Both have equal access to education, but not the same conditions for full development, and much less the possibility to generate employment afterwards, due to the overload of reproductive work for women, and the lack of technical assistance.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Will services and technologies provided by the project/program be available and accessible to both women and men?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes. On project implementation, this disadvantage women have had will be taken into consideration to access technical assistance, inputs and technologies, promoting their participation in all actions as part of the demonstrating families, as heads of household, and as part of the organizations; at the same time they will be part of governance mechanisms and project monitoring.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>To what extent do women and men from vulnerable communities participate in decision – making processes? What type of decisions are made by women? What are the constrains (social, cultural, economic, political) that restrict women’s active participation in household and community level decision – making processes?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditionally, there is a gap that relegates women to make decisions only on household matters, children, and the like, while men take productive and financial decisions. That is why during the development of the project, mechanisms and strategies will be established for men, as well as women to participate equally in decision-making on productive and reproductive matters; this at the level of families, organizations, municipalities, locally and nationally.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Are there any opportunities to promote the leadership of women in local governance/political systems and formal/informal institutions? If not, what are some of the constrains that hinder women from assuming leadership roles?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes. There are institutions and organizations that look after gender equality on decision making, in the territories. Through this project there is work done with these key stakeholders to strengthen women leadership, promote their participation in decision making spaces, among others.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are the differential needs/priorities of women and men in the context of the project/program? Will the project/program be able to address their respective needs and priorities? If so, how?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Within the project's framework, technical assistance will be granted to establish agro-productive systems. Actions have been pointed out that will benefit women and men equally, and specific accesses such as building firewood efficient stoves, or access to water that will impact men and women differently.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Technical capacities will also be built for women, related to agricultural activities, to help them better adapt to climate change.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have the needs of specific (and vulnerable) sub-groups been taken into account by the project/program (e.g. children, girls, women and men with disabilities, the elderly, and widows)?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>These sub-groups are not directly benefited by project actions, but when working under the modality of farm, with the whole family, project implementation benefits will also be included.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Has the project/program recognized the distinct vulnerabilities of women and men and developed specific response strategies for each target group?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes. It has been considered, not only in the home farm model, but for women who have not accessed land, to establish family gardens to produce food for them and their families, to have greenhouses, specifically with young women and indigenous peoples, and technical assistance and capacity building with them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Are the specific knowledge and skills of women and men, especially from vulnerable groups, being utilized to contribute to project/program outcomes and solutions?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes. Men as well as women have specific and complementary characteristics that will be strengthened through the different processes. Men already have the productive skills and knowledge, they received the training; that is an advantage to be taken, but that does not mean that because they already know, then women will not be taught and their capacity built; quite the contrary. If left as is, unequal access would continue being promoted. What happens with a woman without a husband who &quot;complements her&quot;? She would be out of the processes. That is the reason why actions are proposed according to the needs of the target population.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Has the project/program identified opportunities to challenge gender stereotypes and increase positive gender relations through equitable actions? If so, what are these opportunities and actions?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes. The project proposes to do without the stereotypes that women are not only in charge of the domestic side and care of the family, but also of productive matters, and participate in decision-making, having access to inputs, technologies, have their productive work valued, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Strategy for Gender Equality**

The strategy for gender equality of the project is focused on achieving that proposed interventions be inclusive, sustainable and resilient, at the same time they promote gender equality to give an efficient and timely response to the problems faced by the different groups of people, vis-à-vis the incidence of extreme climate events, such as drought. This strategy defines the action framework of RECLIMA on matters of gender, and is focused on supporting, mainly, the more climate change vulnerable populations, understood as those groups that base their main livelihoods on subsistence agriculture. This activity is characteristic for highly depending from climate, mainly rain; besides, the population who practices it, mostly women, young population and indigenous peoples, present acute poverty indexes and limited access to main productive resources such as land, technical assistance, and financing.

On the other hand, the strategy contributes to reducing social inequalities, including gender inequality, through the empowerment of women, the young population and indigenous groups. The strengthening of associative processes, as well as the development of new leaderships in communities, thereby contribute to improving governance in territories. The aim is also to create conditions for vulnerable populations to have access to project services and benefits, ensuring their full involvement in processes of improving their technical and associative capacities and their livelihoods improvement.
Comprehensive strategic actions are the following:

1. Hiring of project personnel incorporating inclusive processes of selection, establishing a hiring quota of 35% in women, and 5% of indigenous people. In these percentages of inclusion, the hiring of youth is considered.

2. Decrease of existing gender gaps between men and women through the inclusion of 35% of women participation in technical institutional strengthening, capacity building in the territory, leadership promotion and associative processes, restoration and conservation actions for natural resources, among others, that contribute towards the improvement of territorial governance.

3. Guarantee the incorporation of gender and social inclusion matters in capacity building processes at the departments of MARN and MAG that participate in the project through the incorporation of gender units from said institutions to support awareness processes and the creation of capacities.

4. Assure that in social controllership processes, the representation of vulnerable groups is guaranteed in decision-making: 35% of women, 5% of indigenous people, and 10% youth.

5. Liaisons among the National Civilian Police for Women, the Law on Equality, Equity, and Violence Eradication against Women, the United Nations Declaration on Indigenous Rights, and the National Plan of Indigenous Peoples, the Law for the Youth, with actions of the project in the territories, in order to create greater capacities in intervened municipalities, communities that are able to contribute towards decreasing gender inequalities, violence against women, and social exclusion.

6. Monitoring of qualitative and quantitative indicators compliance through measuring instruments that allow the evaluation of gender equity and social inclusion through project actions. Said instruments must have disaggregated information by gender, age groups, and ethnicities.

7. Establish mechanisms to guarantee access, control, and equitable property for men and women, be young or indigenous, of tangible goods (inputs, technology), and intangibles (technical assistance, trainings, decision-making), provided by the project in order to ensure the improvement of livelihoods for the populations in the intervention territories.

8. Support to local governments for promoting gender equality policies as a key action to correct existing inequalities in territories.

9. Inter-institutional synergies with entities that promote social and economic empowerment of women and other vulnerable groups.

10. Ensure the recruitment of women and youths in the coordination unit structure and implementing units in regions.

11. Evidence in activities and results processes of the project, gender equality and social inclusion advance in the intervention territories.
### Impact Statement:

RETIDER proposes as an objective to generate resilience among the most vulnerable populations of the Dry Corridor of El Salvador, before climate change impacts 114 municipalities, starting from the implementation of agro-ecosystems models at the scale of landscapes, as an opportunity to improve livelihoods for the families, contribute to reduce greenhouse gas emissions through carbon capture, and assure the disposal and adequate management of water in the intervention territories. An institutional actions framework will be established to articulate actions in the territories stemming from the logical harmonization of public policies, geared towards climate change mitigation and adaptation.

### Outcome Statement: Results statement

RETIDER includes a national strategy for the promotion of climate change mitigation and adaptation along the Dry Corridor of El Salvador. Within this framework, 70,000 small producers will be benefited, of whom 24,500 are women, and 3,500 are indigenous, through the sustainable agro-ecosystem models implementation, in a total area of 100,096 hectares. In total, a population of 315,000 people from climate change vulnerable populations will be benefited, among whom are included 165,000 women and 20,500 indigenous persons. Likewise, 1,707 families will be benefited through the implementation of healthy life actions. On water provisions, systems for water catchment will be installed for 21,700 families, directly benefiting some 97,650 people. With these actions, and the strengthening of climate information generation and monitoring, the strengthening of governability and governance, harmonization of public policies, and institutional strengthening that will promote the establishment of innovative agro-ecosystem landscapes, that at the same time contribute to capture 2,284,600 tCO2 eq.

### Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1</td>
<td>Number of farm plans produced by the Project beneficiaries according to sustainable agriculture models.</td>
<td>70,000 smallholders total (24,500 are women).</td>
<td>5 nurseries (this activity will be developed by organizations of women, youth and indigenous).</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG/CENTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.3</td>
<td>Number of timber and fruit tree species nurseries run by women, youth and indigenous people.</td>
<td>1750 community extension agents (35% women)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO and MAG/CENTAFAO and MAG/CENTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.1</td>
<td>Number of technicians trained to undertake production activities with populations vulnerable to climate change.</td>
<td>60 CENTA technicians 37 GCF technicians (35% women)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO and MAG/CENTAFAO and MAG/CENTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.2</td>
<td>Number of technicians trained on sustainable production models.</td>
<td>1750 community extension agents (35% women)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO and MAG/CENTAFAO and MAG/CENTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.3</td>
<td>Number of beneficiaries trained to promote the implementation of sustainable agriculture models.</td>
<td>300 youth (35% women)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG/CENTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2.6</td>
<td>Number of young people trained on the environment and new technologies for sustainable land use.</td>
<td>600 youth (35% women)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG/CENTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1</td>
<td>Climate monitoring center strengthened to improve climate data collection and management.</td>
<td>30 specialist technicians hired (35% women)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO and MARN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.4</td>
<td>Number of social organizations and local communities trained in proper interpretation of climate information.</td>
<td>200 environmental observers trained (35% women)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO and MARN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.1</td>
<td>Technical accompaniment for the Legislative Assembly to facilitate discussion spaces for decision-making on laws related to climate change adaptation and mitigation.</td>
<td>5 policies supported (RETIDER will support the National Women Public Policy)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.2</td>
<td>Technical and institutional accompaniment on a ministerial level to facilitate discussion spaces for decision-making on laws related to climate change adaptation and mitigation.</td>
<td>5 policies supported (RETIDER will support the National Women Public Policy)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2.3 Technical accompaniment on a local/territorial level to facilitate discussion spaces for decision-making on laws related to climate change adaptation and mitigation.</td>
<td>5 policies supported (RETIDER will support the National Women Public Policy)</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.1 Number of government officials (MARN and MAG) and local governments trained to include climate change adaptation measures in their policies and plans, with a specific focus on agriculture and forest sectors.</td>
<td>40 officials from MARN and MAG (35% women)</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.3 Number of beneficiary organizations trained to participate in local planning and decision-making processes.</td>
<td>228 municipal officials (35% women)</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.5 Number of Municipalities, community organizations and smallholders participating in the management of rural water supply systems through water administration boards.</td>
<td>80 organizations (including women organizations)</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3.6 Inter institutional framework created and in operation (Technical Steering Committee and the Territorial Steering Committee) to develop the monitoring and evaluation of the execution and impacts generated by RETIDER.</td>
<td>228 Water administration boards</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>114 Municipal environmental units</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>114 ADESCOs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>456 Communities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Technical Steering Committee operating</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>FAO, MARN and MAG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Territorial Steering Committee operating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Project Coordination Unit operating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 Operative Technical Unit operating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gender Analysis Report

Gender Document for Biomass Energy Programme in the South Pacific
(Countries of Operation: Fiji & Papua New Guinea)

Dec 2017

Accredited Entity: The Korea Development Bank
# Table ofContents

1. INTRODUCTION 3
   1.1. Mandate 3
   1.2. Programme Summary 4

2. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY 5
   2.1. Fiji: Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact 5
   2.2. PNG: Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact 6

3. OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS 8
   3.1. Objectives 8
   3.2. Research Questions 8

4. METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK 9
   4.1. Methodology 9
   4.2. Theoretical Framework: Gender and Intersectionality 10

5. WOMEN’S VULNERABILITIES IN FIJI AND PNG 12
   5.1. Fiji: An Introduction 12
   5.2. Fiji: Culture and Tradition and their Impact on Women 20
   5.3. Fiji: Challenges that Formulate Social Exclusion of Women 26
   5.4. Papua New Guinea (PNG): An Introduction 37
   5.5. PNG: Culture and Tradition and their Impact on Women 41
   5.6. PNG: Challenges that Formulate Social Exclusion of Women 45

6. GENDER AND ENERGY: BIOMASS POWER PLANTS AND WOMEN’S VULNERABILITIES 51
   6.1. Biomass Power Plants in Small Island Settings 51
   6.2. Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact 53
   6.3. Fiji: Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact 56
   6.4. PNG: Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact 59

7. BIBLIOGRAPHY 61

❖ Appendix 1 69
   1.1. Minutes of Meeting (MOM) 70
   1.2. Attendance 73
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Mandate

The Korea Development Bank (KDB) has a clear mandate to promote gender equality and mainstream gender as an accredited entity of the Green Climate Fund (GCF or The Fund). It does not simply add a few gender components into part of its operation, but takes into account multi-level and multi-dimensional gender dynamics, identifies gaps concerning gender equality, and addresses outstanding inequality issues.

KDB’s “Biomass Energy Programme in the South Pacific” (The Programme) is aligned with gender policies of two target countries – Fiji and Papua New Guinea (PNG) – as well as their climate change policies and priorities, to uphold six principles of the GCF Gender Policy, and to reflect knowledge obtained by the gender analysis.

The six principles of the GCF Gender Policy are as follows:

1. Equitable resource allocation between women and men
2. Competencies throughout the Fund’s institutional framework
3. Country ownership, alignment with national policies and priorities and inclusive stakeholder participation
4. Accountability for gender and climate change results and impacts
5. Inclusiveness in terms of applicability to all the Fund’s activities
6. Commitment to gender equality and equity

With the principles, KDB shall strive to achieve greater, more effective, sustainable, and equitable climate change results, outcomes, and impacts by adopting a gender-sensitive approach. The gender study will address likely risks for women and men associated with activities of the Programme, identify the gender gap of political, social, economic, and environmental vulnerabilities exacerbated by climate change, and suggest practical ways of building resilience to climate change equally for men and women, ensuring that men and women equally contribute to, and benefit from, the biomass initiative.
1.2. Programme Summary

The Programme focuses on two result areas of the GCF: 1) forestry and land use; and 2) energy access and power generation. In order to achieve the two priority areas, the Programme is structured by three components in total: 1) sustainable forestry and land use management; 2) sustainable forestry and land use management and wood pellet plant development; and 3) Technical Assistance (TA) designed to promote technology transfer through capacity building and knowledge sharing activities, and to carry out analysis for the development of subsequent biomass projects in accordance with global standards.

To achieve the first result area, the Programme will develop sustainable forestry and land use management systems through eradication of disastrous invasive alien species in Fiji – African tulip trees – and reforestation with native species in forests where invasive control actions are taken. In addition, the Programme plans forest plantations over idle lands degraded by dwindling sugarcane industry and disruptive weather patterns affected by climate change.

To achieve the second result area, the Programme will introduce biomass technology as an attractive energy solution in response to adverse impacts of climate change. The Programme is to develop biomass power plants in Fiji and Papua New Guinea in pursuit of phasing out the South Pacific countries’ heavy reliance on imported fossil fuels.

As emphasized in a previous section, KDB, as an accredited entity of the GCF, values the principle of gender equality, and has taken a gender responsive approach to mainstream gender concerns throughout the lifecycle of the Programme. KDB’s gender dynamics analysis and action plan for the South Pacific biomass initiative is the very evidence of the Programme’s efforts to contribute to a gender-equal society in diverse dimensions and at all levels.
2. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

2.1. FIJI: Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact

2.1.1. The country’s politics is characterised by tensions between native Fijians and Indian Fijians due to an unequal distribution of land, resources, political power and rights originated in the colonial period. The construction of biomass power plants should not contribute to the escalation of these tensions.

2.1.2. Women participate less in formal and institutional politics so the construction of the biomass power plants should take into account voices from women’s organisations.

2.1.3. Ethnicity rather than gender remains the defining feature of the socio-cultural, economic and political landscape in Fiji or at least it is not possible to analyse one without the other. Therefore, any intervention taking gender into account should also take ethnicity into account.

2.1.4. Indian Fijian women have been suffering a double burden in terms of violence in Fiji; they suffer violence because they are women but also because they are Indian Fijian. This implies that specific policy or protection measures be properly addressed to them.

2.1.5. Religion has a crucial role in the Fijian society, intersecting with ethnic identity and gender dynamics. Therefore, no intervention should be done without the mediation of religious organisations.

2.1.6. Despite the central role of agricultural exports in the national economy, subsistence and semi-subsistence livelihoods are still dominant, particularly, among Fijian women. It is important to guarantee that poor women are not left outside the provision of biomass energy due to their lower economic status.

2.1.7. Fijian women, even the well-educated, tend to drop out of higher education, and not to choose scientific or engineering careers. The construction of the biomass power plants is the perfect excuse to promote women’s participation in such male-dominated fields.

2.1.8. There is a need to continue providing decent jobs for Fijian women in the formal market in order to guarantee their livelihoods. It is important to consider cultural and social traditions and roles when promoting women’s
inclusion in the formal economy. It is also important that women are paid the same as men, and that maternity rights are guaranteed.

2.1.9. It is crucial that the construction of biomass power plants does not take land and property from women's hands because property is crucial for guaranteeing access to sustainable livelihoods for women.

2.1.10. The Programme can provide opportunities or physical sites for providing community-wide prevention / awareness enhancement training and remedies for gender violence and women’s health challenges. There are a number of critical health issues disproportionately affecting women in Fiji. Also, men’s violence against women is an enormously serious problem for Fijian women with one of the higher rates in the world.

2.2. PNG: Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact

2.2.1. PNG is comprised of many islands and ethnic groups that share some traits, but speak hundreds of different languages with tribal diversity. PNG’s colonial legacy and a fast transition towards economic and political modernity is the source of many political conflicts in the country. The construction of the biomass power plants should not contribute to the escalation of these tensions.

2.2.2. Population density is uneven with high density in fertile mountain valleys where high levels of conflict over land ownership exist. The location selection of the biomass power plant must take this into consideration. In addition, the Programme will not take land and property from women's hands, regarding property is crucial for guaranteeing access to sustainable livelihoods for women.

2.2.3. Gender plays a significant role in the social structure of PNG. Traditional and cultural practices form a part of this perpetuation of gender identity, with women perceived as inferior to men in most aspects of life – though there are a few tribes of New Guinea that do not follow this typical gender role structure.

2.2.4. Currently, there is little supervision by the PNG government in pursuing corporate projects. Resistance by indigenous communities must be alleviated in the community consultation process, including women-only stakeholder consultation sessions.
2.2.5. It is important to guarantee that poor women are not left outside the provision of biomass energy due to their lower economic status, considering that subsistence and semi-subistence livelihoods are still dominant in PNG.

2.2.6. Women participate less in formal and institutional politics so the Programme should take into account opinions from women’s organisations.

2.2.7. There is a low level of educational attainment in PNG with women having a far lower level of education than men do. The construction of the biomass power plant can encourage women’s participation in education, especially in the field of science, technology, and engineering.

2.2.8. There is a need to continue providing decent jobs for Fijian women in the formal market in order to guarantee their livelihoods. It is important to consider cultural and social traditions and roles when promoting women’s inclusion in the formal economy. It is also important that women are paid the same as men, and that maternity rights are guaranteed.

2.2.9. PNG has the lowest electricity access level throughout the Pacific, making it dependent on expensive fuels such as kerosene or reliant on sub-standard quality light such as candles and hurricane lanterns. A biomass power plant can help resolve this energy insecurity PNG faces.
3. OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

3.1. Objectives

3.1.1. To understand comprehensive baseline information from politics, economy, society, and culture in Fiji and Papua New Guinea
3.1.2. To understand gender dynamics in Fiji and PNG on how gender-based disparities have been structured in relation to institutional and individual characteristics
3.1.3. To understand the likely impacts of the Programme on the existing gender inequalities

3.2. Research Questions

3.2.1. What are main elements that affect women’s (or men’s') lives, respectively in the Fijian and PNG context?
3.2.2. What are the key challenges that formulate gender inequalities and social exclusion of vulnerable women (or men) in Fiji and PNG?
3.2.3. What are the key considerations for mainstreaming gender in developing renewable energy in Small Island Developing States (SIDSs)?
3.2.4. What are the key considerations for mainstreaming gender in developing biomass energy in SIDSs?
3.2.5. Considering the above questions, what are the main issues to be addressed for a successful gender mainstreaming of the Programme?

---

1. This gender analysis does not disregard vulnerable males whose discrimination attributes gender. Nevertheless, women are mostly vulnerable in Fiji whereas men could be discriminated against gender among a few tribes of PNG.
4. METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

4.1. Methodology

4.1.1. Literature Review

The gender analysis report carried out an academic literature search on Scopus and Science Direct databases in order to grasp a comprehensive understanding on the local context of Fiji and PNG where their unique gender dynamics have been structured. For each database, an advanced search was undertaken with a combination of words reflecting the main objectives of this report (see 3.1.): e.g. gender, women, sexuality, inequality, energy, biomass, Fiji, and PNG. Through this method, it has obtained 1,604 references, many of them being duplicates and many of them being non-relevant. Of the tremendous volume of literature, some were selectively chosen that match the research objectives.

Additional documents have been obtained through references in the articles found in the databases as well as through the snowball method. Finally, 294 articles\(^2\) were selected that matched the research objectives and their findings have been used to build up this gender analysis output.

4.1.2. Gender-sensitive Stakeholder Consultations

Stakeholder consultation meetings were done with groups of people who were living in affected areas or who might be affected by the plant construction and operation in diverse dimensions to address gender concerns as well as potential environmental and social concerns of the Programme as a whole. Under the gender mainstreaming guidance of KDB, a women-only consultation meeting\(^3\) was held on July 13\(^{th}\), 2017, and the biomass project sponsors made great endeavours to make room for women in all the consultation meetings. The analysis makes sure of consistency with the consultation result.

\(^2\) Contact eugina.kim@kdb.co.kr for the list of 294 articles

\(^3\) See Appendix 1. for Minutes of Meeting (MOM)
These consultations and direct fieldworks cover shortcomings or limitations⁴ of gender analysis account solely being based on a desk research technique that uses secondary data sources. This analysis results will be an informative reference for mainstreaming gender within the overall framework of the Programme and further for future study.

4.2. Theoretical Framework: Gender and Intersectionality

An intersectional gender approach is to be adopted in this analysis. Intersectionality is a theoretical framework that considers that systems of discrimination coexist and are co-constituted in every given context; even when people are working to eliminate discriminations in one issue, they can be extremely discriminative simultaneously in case that they disregard other discriminative systems operating at the same time (Collins & Chepp, 2013; Hancock, 2007).

From an intersectional perspective, gender is considered as contextual assemblage of numerous axes of discrimination. This gender analysis will not generalise about women only because of their gender, but intersect gender with other characteristics such as race/ethnicity, religion, class, age, profession, marital status, and so on. In the case of Fiji and PNG, gender is contextually co-constituted by its intersections with the colonial history and the political and economic system emerging from the colonial period.

Ghosh (2004) finds that the specific case of Fiji dramatises some fascinating conflicts over the conceptualisation of land, identity and nation. Gendered structures and processes are ingrained within the Fijian culture, and are perpetuated by complex intersections between discourses and practices associated with colonisation, cultural imperialism, modernity, religion, and social policies. Such discourses and practices shape how women have been defined in Fijian society, and are strongly connected to the achievement of their well-being. According to Meo-Sewabu (2016), women’s agency and empowerment, some of which existed in traditional settings and some of which has emerged as a result of modernisation, have rarely been acknowledged and embraced as vehicles for transformation.

⁴ Literature review of 294 articles is context-based, from different periods of time. It is not a contextualised picture, but a picture of a period of approximately 20 years. In addition, there have been few direct studies on the interrelationships between gender and energy, power, or biomass.
The case of PNG also appears as remotely possible to grasp gender dynamics without the intersectional approach. There is doubt that a non-intersectional gender approach is able to address the diversity of women and men’s experiences and lives in PNG. For Papuans unevenly spread out from the urban centres to some of the most remote and rural settings, their lives are exceptionally ethno-linguistically diverse. For Papuan women whose lives stand at the intersection of not just their deprived socio-economic status but of Papuan culture, tradition, and history, more attention to such a huge variance in local traditions and languages is both beneficial and necessary (Lamprell & Braithwaite, 2017).
5. WOMEN'S VULNERABILITIES IN FIJI AND PNG

5.1. Fiji: An Introduction

5.1.1. Geography

Situated on the geographic and cultural border of Melanesia and Polynesia, Fiji is a country consisting of a group of approximately 300 islands spread between latitudes 15 and 22°S and longitude 177°E-178°W. Only about 100 of these islands are inhabited. Of the total land area 18,272 km², two main islands, Viti Levu (10,386 km²) and Vanua Levu (5,535 km²), make up about 87% of the total, and contain most of the total population (Cattermole, 2006).

5.1.2. History and Politics

Most authorities agree that the origins of the South Pacific people can be traced back to Southeast Asia, with migrations across the Pacific through Indonesia. Fiji was first “discovered” by the Dutch explorer Abel Tasman in 1643, followed by English explorers including Captain James Cook, who sailed through the Fiji Islands in 1774. Nevertheless, most credit for the “discovery” of the Fiji Islands goes to Captain William Bligh, who sailed into Fiji in 1789 (Rao, 2002).

Fiji was ceded to the Great Britain in 1874, and became a British colony. From 1879 to 1916, the British brought labourers from the Indian sub-continent to Fiji to work on sugar plantations under the indenture system. After the abolition of the indenture system, 60% of the people who had come from India remained in Fiji primarily as independent smallholder sugar-cane farmers, and, over the years, this community has become a significant economic and political force in the country and, at the same time, the very source of several political tensions within the country (Rao, 2002).

In fact, Fiji has seen four coups and several democratic crises in the past two decades. At the heart of these lie the tensions between the native Fijians and Indian Fijians. In 1987, the Indo-Fijian Labour Party, campaigning on liberal-democratic policies, won the elections and formed the government with smaller Fijian parties. Whilst the Prime
Minister was a native Fijian, the majority of Cabinet members were Indo-Fijians. Sitiveni Rabuka, the third ranking army officer, however, carried out a coup d’état on the same year and a military-backed government was formed as a result. The first constitution (1970) of independent Fiji was abrogated and a new racially weighted constitution (1990) was promulgated, in which voting was based only on ethnic lines and political supremacy guaranteed to indigenous Fijians by virtue of a guaranteed majority of seats. Elections were held under the new constitution in January 1999 and again the Labour Party won (winning 37 out of 71 seats). It formed the Government of National Unity with other parties as required under the 1997 constitution. Mahendra Chaudhry, the leader of the Labour Party and an Indo-Fijian, became Prime Minister while the majority of Cabinet ministers were native Fijians. On May 19th, 2000, a group of military men led by a businessman, George Speight, stormed the parliament and took the government hostage in the name of indigenous Fijian rights (Rao, 2002). A couple of months later, Chaudhry and other hostages were released while Speight and 369 of his supporters were arrested. Between 2000 and 2006, political tension had continued escalating to a new coup in 2006 when military chief Frank Bainimarama took power and dismissed Prime Minister Laesenia Qarase.

In September 2009, Fiji was suspended from the Commonwealth over little progress towards democracy, which was only the second full suspension in the organisation's history. In 2012, the government agreed to hold free elections in 2014, prompting its powerful neighbours Australia and New Zealand to restore full diplomatic ties. In 2014, Frank Bainimarama was sworn in as the prime minister, eight years after seizing power in a military coup.

To sum up, Fiji’s history is characterised by both a colonial period and a postcolonial one. Conflicts emerging from the former arose in the form of four coups d’état between 1987 and 2006. At the heart of these lie the tensions between the native Fijians and Indian Fijians due to an unequal distribution of land, resources, and political power and rights.
5.1.3. Ethnicity

As stated above, the population of Fiji consists of two major ethnic groups, Fijians and Indians; it also comprises other groups, such as Europeans, Chinese and people from other Pacific Islands. The 2007 Census showed that there were 56.8 % Fijians and 37.5 % Indians, with the remaining 5.7 % consisting of other groups (Gubhaju et al., 2014). The 2007 Census also revealed the signs of advancement of urbanisation in Fiji. The urban population has surpassed the rural population; some 51 % of the population live in urban areas. This trend differs across ethnicity with nearly 57 % of the Indian population living in urban areas, compared to approximately 45 % of the Fijian population (Kanemasu, 2013). The native Fijian population is evenly distributed throughout the islands in a reasonable manner while the Indians and the racial minority population are concentrated on the two main islands (Tukana & Lloyd, 1993).

Present-day Indian Fijians are the fourth or fifth generation descendants of indentured labourers from India. The Indian and native Fijians have co-existed with little integration for over 120 years. Their separate existence, promoted by the then British colonial government, and the strong social and cultural systems of both Indigenous and Indian Fijians prompted them to stick to their distinct social and cultural elements. According to much research, ethnicity rather than gender remains the defining feature of the socio-cultural, economic, and political issues in Fiji, or at least it is not possible to analyse one without the other (Chandra, 2004).

In addition, ethnicity is key to understanding one of the crucial issues for this gender analysis report: land property. Over 83 % of the land is owned by Indigenous Fijians and is inalienable (Ward, 1998). Fishing areas and rights, tourist resort areas, forestry and mining lands are all under the ownership of the native Fijian group whereas sugar cane farming, retail, manufacturing and other industries are dominated by the Indian Fijians. In fact, data collection by government agencies is disaggregated by ethnicity and less so by other categories like gender, which reflects the salience of ethnicity in Fiji (Chandra, 2004).

To sum up, ethnicity rather than gender remains the defining feature of the socio-cultural, economic and political life in Fiji or at least it is not possible to analyse one without the other. Fijian population is 56.8 % Indigenous Fijian and 37.5 % Indian Fijian,
with the remaining 5.7% consisting of other groups such as Chinese and other Pacific population, according to the 2007 census.

5.1.4. Population and Migration

The current population of Fiji is around 900,000. Fiji’s population grew at a slow rate between 1901 and 1936 with a rate of growth hovering between 1.0 and 1.6% per annum. The intercensal growth rate increased between 1936 and 1946 to 2.7% per year and then further accelerated to 2.9% per year by 1956 and 3.3% by 1966. Over the following decades, Fiji experienced a slowdown in its population growth: the 1966–1976 intercensal population growth rate plummeted to 2.1% per year, and remained at that level until 1986. Between 1986 and 1996, another drastic reduction in the population growth rate occurred with the rate falling below 1% per year. The 2007 census indicated that this decline has continued in recent years: between 1996 and 2007 the intercensal growth rate was on average just 0.7% per year (Gubhaju et al., 2014).

A noticeable disparity in the population growth rate is observed between Fijians and Indians: during 1996–2007, the Indian population decreased by 0.7% per year while the indigenous one increased by 1.8% per year, which could be correlated with periods of political instability, especially against Indians (Kanemasu, 2013).

In fact, Fiji’s socio-political system, the marginalisation of Indian Fijians from the political and decision making processes, and military coups and subsequent political instability have driven many Indian Fijians to migrate to other countries such as Australia, New Zealand and Canada, and the US. Emigration from Fiji has increased since it gained independence in 1970, with Indian Fijians comprising over 90 percent of all emigrants (Chandra, 2004). The emigration of the ethnic Indians has had a significant impact on the population composition. For nearly 50 years from 1946 to 1986, there were more Indian Fijians than indigenous ones but the indigenous group gained a strength in number as it came to account for over 51% of the total population after the military coups in 1987 (Fiji Bureau of Statistics, 1999). The military coups and the civilian coup in 2000 left Indian Fijians few options for survival – “confront, emigrate or resigned indifference” (Lal, 1992, p.328, cited in Chandra, 2004, p. 183).
5.1.5. Religion

The religious picture in Fiji is complex and multi-faceted with three of the major world religions making up significant parts of the population. Christianity was introduced to Fiji in 1835 with the arrival of Christian missionaries: firstly Methodist and then Catholic. From 1879 to 1916, 61,000 Indians came as indentured labourers to work on the sugar plantations: most of them being the believers of Hindu while some being Muslims. 2007 Census shows this complexity of the population composition: Christians make up 64% of the population, followed by Hindus (29%) and Muslims (over 6%) (Ali & Kisesa Mkusa, 2013).

Several scholars have analysed the importance of religion for both native and Indian Fijians. The majority of indigenous Fijians see no real separation of church and state – the Lotu (church), Vanua (people and land) and Matanitu (king or state) are traditionally harmonised and this is reinforced by the Church to promote Fijian unity (McCarthy, 2011). By endorsing the importance of central indigenous Fijian values like religious faith and service to a community, Pentecostalism paves a way for a renegotiation of roles within Fijian society (Brison, 2007).

Religion has also had a crucial role in Fijian politics. As Newland (2012) states, the 2006 coup in Fiji and its aftermath was as much a religious coup as a political coup, resulting in marked changes in the politico-religious terrain. In the most obvious expression of this, the military government suppressed the hierarchy of the Methodist Church of Fiji by cancelling the church’s standing committee meeting and conference in 2009, and by taking church leaders to court. Alternative political alliances developed by members of the Roman Catholic Church and other religious organisations, particularly the relatively new Pentecostal church, called the New Methodist Church (Newland, 2012).

To sum up, the 2007 census shows that Christians make up 64% of the Fijian population followed by Hindus (29%) and Muslims (over 6%). Religion also has a crucial role in Fijian politics intersecting with ethnic identity. Scholars indicate the important role of Methodism in state politics and a growing power of Pentecostalism.
5.1.6. Human Development Index (HDI)

Fiji’s Human Development Index value for 2015 is 0.736—which puts the country in the high human development category—positioning it at 91 out of 188 countries and territories. Between 1990 and 2015, Fiji’s HDI value increased from 0.641 to 0.736, an increase of 14.9 percent. The HDI report reviews Fiji’s progress in each of the HDI indicators. Between 1990 and 2015, for example, Fiji’s life expectancy at birth increased by 4.7 years, the mean years of schooling increased by 2.1 years, and the expected years of schooling increased by 3.2 years. Fiji’s GNI per capita increased by about 43.8% between 1990 and 2015 (UNDP, 2016a).

5.1.7. Economy

Since independence in 1970, Fiji has liberalised its economy, backed by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and has implemented import substitution policies to stimulate economic growth. In doing so, Fiji has followed an export-led growth based strategy for development. In spite of these efforts, Fiji’s economic growth has been slow and volatile, ranging from -8.4% to 10.4%, with nine years of negative growth rates. Three of the widely cited reasons for the weak economic performance are political instability, poor economic and financial management, and the expiry of land leases since 1997, which have seen the decline of the sugar industry. The sugar industry has traditionally been regarded as the backbone of the Fijian economy in terms of employment and foreign exchange earnings. The decline of the sugar industry has thus lowered the economic and social development (Lane & McNaught, 2009).

Sugar production has been the major industry in Fiji for over 100 years in terms of foreign exchange earnings, employment, contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and its linkages to other sectors of the economy, particularly the banking and retail sectors. The importance of tourism was recognised mainly after independence in 1970, and, in 1998, tourism surpassed sugar as the largest foreign exchange earner. However, foreign exchange leakage in the tourism industry is estimated to be around 70% (Robertson & Tamanisau, 1989, cited in Rao, 2002, p.405) and, therefore, in terms of the net foreign exchange earnings, the sugar industry remains the largest contributor to sustaining the economy.
Other important sectors of the economy today include forestry, fisheries, mining and agriculture (other than sugar). A manufacturing industry has been also developing as a small but significant sector. Manufacturing and processing industries including garment manufacturing and fish processing and their exports provide a relatively well diversified base for the Fijian economy, compared to other Pacific Island states. The well-developed wholesale and retail sector is strongly integrated with the tourism industry. All in all, sugar and tourism industries are traditionally the mainstays of the Fijian economy, and continue to play dominant roles (Rao, 2002).

The comprehensive analyses of the tourism sector development in Fiji undertaken by Britton (1983) focus on the growth of tourism in a neo-colonial economy shaped by the dominance of foreign capital and the profit-seeking interests associated with it (Rao, 2002). While the island state recognises the importance and the positive impacts of the tourism industry, they are, at the same time, mindful of the negative impacts that thoughtless and uncontrolled growth of tourism may have on the local community, culture and heritage, and the environment. Milne (1992, cited in Rao, 2002, p.402) finds that small island states are concerned about the ‘potential for environment and socio-cultural disruption’ of tourism while appreciating a number of benefits of the industry. They are, therefore, reticent to adopt policies that create too much dependency on the industry.

To sum up, although Fiji is ranked in the High Human Development category, its economic system shows its colonial roots. Sugar production has been the major industry in Fiji for over 100 years in terms of foreign exchange earnings only surpassed by tourism which is, in many cases, controlled by international capitals. Fiji’s economic growth has been volatile, highly affected by political crises and the volatility of sugar prices. In spite of the central role of agricultural exports in the national economy, subsistence and semi-subistence livelihoods are still dominant.
## Fiji Indicators 2016 (UNDP)

### Demography

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population, total (millions)</th>
<th>0.9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median age (years)</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, ages 15–64 (millions)</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, ages 65 and older (millions)</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, under age 5 (millions)</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, urban (%)</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Development Index</th>
<th>0.736 (Rank: 91/188)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender Inequality Index (GII)</td>
<td>0.358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gross national income (GNI) per capita (2011 PPP$)</th>
<th>8,245</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gross domestic product (GDP) per capita (2011 PPP $)</td>
<td>8,620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated gross national income per capita, female (2011 PPP$)</td>
<td>4,695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated gross national income per capita, male (2011 PPP$)</td>
<td>11,676</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Work & Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Labour force participation rate, female (% ages 15 and older)</th>
<th>37.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate, male (% ages 15 and older)</td>
<td>71.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (total), female to male ratio</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate, female to male ratio</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population living below income poverty line, PPP $1.90 a day (%)</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandatory paid maternity leave (days)</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total unemployment rate (% of labour force)</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate (% ages 15-24)</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Health

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life expectancy at birth (years)</th>
<th>70.2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth, female (years)</td>
<td>73.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth, male (years)</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19)</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality ratio (deaths per 100,000 live births)</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public health expenditure (% of GDP)</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expected years of schooling (years)</th>
<th>15.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean years of schooling, female (years)</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean years of schooling, male (years)</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government expenditure on education (% of GDP)</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Politics

| Legislators, senior officials and managers, female (% of total) | 23.8 |
| Share of seats in parliament (% held by women)                | 16.0 |

### Human Security

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Homicide rate (per 100,000 people)</th>
<th>3.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prison population (per 100,000 people)</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refugees by country of origin (thousands)</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide rate, female (per 100,000 people)</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide rate, male (per 100,000 people)</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence against women ever experienced, intimate partner (%)</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence against women ever experienced, not intimate partner (%)</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Environmental Sustainability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Carbon dioxide emissions per capita (tonnes)</th>
<th>1.9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Forest area (% of total land area)</td>
<td>55.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest area (total change %, 1990-2015)</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh water withdrawals (% of total renewable water resources)</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renewable energy consumption (% of total final energy consumption)</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2. Fiji: Culture and Tradition and their Impacts on Women

As elsewhere, women in Fiji are not a homogenous group. A wide spectrum of diversity exists on the basis of class, race, ethnicity, cultural background, education, and personal capability (Australian Government, 2016). For this reason, gender dynamics amongst Fijians cannot be fully understood, apart from these characteristics, but this section will try to summarise the main characteristics of what it means to be a man or a woman in the Pacific island country. In many cases we will consider indigenous Fijian culture as the default culture, although, in some cases, we will take a look at specific gender relations amongst Indian Fijians.

Fiji today remains a profoundly patriarchal society. Subordination of women often takes a severe and violent form accordingly: 72 % of ever-partnered women have experienced physical, sexual, or emotional violence from their husband or partner (Fiji Women’s Crisis Centre, 2013). According to Brison’s (2009) explanation on the indigenous Fijian culture, social positions are strictly codified by tradition and everyone is ranked according to individual characteristics such as age, gender, and lineage membership. More highly ranked people are both in charge and obligated to nurture lower ranking people. Everyone, thus, is supposed to be thinking of playing one’s role within the traditional boundary (Brison, 2009). Griffen (2006) states that religious rules and morals formulated by Christianity firmly established protocols on men and women’s behaviour and concepts of the family structure and marriage, which has served as the fundamental principle for gender relations and relations with children, and is now part of what is considered the ‘Pacific culture’ today.

Gender relations are also deeply linked with Fiji’s postcolonial legacy. Imrana Jalal (2002, p.10–12, cited in Kanemasu & Molnar, 2017), a prominent lawyer and feminist in Fiji, explains that there is a “widespread opposition to any change” to gender relations on the grounds that it is too “white” or that “[i]t would destroy the essential nature of Fijian indigenous society”, among others. Vanessa Griffin, another renowned feminist in Fiji, similarly observes: “Culture, or custom, is the commonest argument used against any call for a new image of women in the Pacific. Even aware women are confused about this question because in the postcolonial period, cultural identity is an important part of

The following subsections will summarise how these gender relations are articulated in Fijian daily lives and how they affect different dimensions of social life and are intersected with other discriminative and unequal systems.

5.2.1. Gender and the Household

The Fijian household structure is predominantly centred around the married couple and their children. Both native Fijian and Fiji Indian households tend to be patriarchal. A woman would usually go and live on her husband’s family farm because a smallholder farm is generally divided among brothers and support more than one household.

In agricultural households, gender roles are traditionally divided into ‘house work’ and ‘farm work’. A husband, as the head of the household, stands with the responsibility of organising work among household members: e.g. making a decision on the work and duties that women, girls, and young boys are expected to carry out. The senior male is responsible for the overall running of the farm and ultimately the care and protection of his family. Women also gain authority with age, and are able to delegate more tasks to growing children and to daughters-in-law when their sons get married. In general, both Fijian and Fiji Indian households are used to this way. There seems no distinctive difference in the way labour duties are allocated or the amount of labour is decided (Carswell, 2003).

5.2.2. Gender, Religion and Spirituality

In societies like Fiji, where religion plays a critical role in people’s daily lives, it is necessary to understand how religion shapes and reifies gender roles and relations (Naz, 2014). In particular, religious values do profoundly shape interpretations of sex/sexuality education in Fiji. This is well proven through various workshops that have been conducted across the country over the past years. For instance, in a workshop entitled ‘Break Silence on Sex and Reproductive Health Education’, organized by the University of the South Pacific (USP), School of Education, United Nations Population Fund
(UNFPA), and United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), the importance of a culture-sensitive and faith-based methodology to the teaching and learning of sex/sexuality education was strongly highlighted by Ratu Epeli Nailatikau, the President of Fiji (UNAIDS, 2009).

All three major religions in Fiji – i.e. Christianity, Islam, and Hinduism – seem to be quite similar regarding views on sex. They all tend to have the underlying idea that sex might be able to exterminate a person's devout and holy life, to some extent. For instance, Christianity permits sexual relationship only between husbands and wives. In the case of Islam, sexual association is to be accomplished within marriage and anything outside of the specified is punishable and labelled as ‘zina’. Zina is the meaning of fornication or adultery which is a grave wrongdoing and a foremost sin which undermines the faith of the believer, and exposes them to punishment and humiliation unless they repent. In Hinduism, sex is deliberated as a moral thing which is to be relished as one of the obligations of marriage life. Sexual intercourse is commonly anticipated for married couples, too.

Modernity and globalisation, however, have fashioned minds and behaviours of Fijian people in diverse ways. This usually comes via Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), through which people are exposed to resources pertaining to porn movies or erotic sites (Naz, 2014). This tendency has newly moulded the religious rationales in relation to sex throughout Fijian society as a whole.

5.2.3. Gender and Politics

Women’s participation in decision-making at the highest level of political bodies is minimal in Fiji. Women in postcolonial Fiji have taken an active role in political events via voting and supporting male candidates in elections; they have supported men in positions of power and authority such as those of the Parliament and the government for decades. However, their engagement in the government as politicians has remained very limited, with the exception of some women with privileged family background and socio-economic status (Usman, 2013).
The absence of women in the higher echelons of politics and public services can be attributed to culture and tradition, which reinforce patriarchy (Siwatibau et al., 2006, p.14, cited in Usman, 2013). As a result of the patriarchal system, there has been general acceptance by both men and women that politics is the domain of men, and over the years, this attitude has proven difficult to change. Many women do not get a straight passport to equality and the decision-making opportunity at the national level despite being well educated (Usman, 2013, p. 60).

Aside from culture, the nature of the political parties, electoral systems, and the media play a critical role in political candidates’ success in elections. According to Fiji Women’s Rights Movement (FWRM), politics tends to be largely dominated by men and they get the majority of media coverage accordingly. The virtual invisibility of women in the Fijian media cannot be helpful in getting women elected in Parliament as Fiji’s print media – in particular, newspapers – play a crucial part in informing the public on the day-to-day events occurring in the country. This leads to issues about female candidates and women being neglected (Usman, 2013).

5.2.4. Gender and Sexuality

The Pacific culture is such that it controls women’s sexual desire; the idea is to ensure virginity of girls until they marry (Griffen, 2006). The ideas would be instilled into girls’ minds since the very early childhood and the controls on correct behaviours and freedom of movement away from the home would be exerted on, mainly, girls. On the contrary, males have greater sexual freedom (Griffen, 2006). In the context of the Pacific culture, sexual discussions or dialogues are regarded taboo.

Gender power relations thus play a pivotal role in local sexual cultures in Fiji. A nationwide dominance of indigenous Fijian masculinity that value power and sexual prowess interacts with various social factors and sexual norms in shaping the country’s sexual practices and experiences. Such a dominant masculinity places high value on having multiple sexual partners and it constructs an environment in which transactional sex can easily occur. This social atmosphere on the basis of the masculinity would lead to limiting women’s opportunities of safer-sex negotiation with regards to safe sex, which subsequently may increase their HIV risk (Hammer et al., 2011).
5.2.5. Gender and the Body

Many studies have shown that two physical traits associated with muscularity, ‘strength’ and ‘robustness’, are highly valued across Asian and African countries. There is also evidence that the pursuit of muscularity is highly valued and promoted across the Pacific Island countries (Williams et al., 2006). The pursuit of muscularity is a dominant theme in the narratives of all Fijian men and boys but little difference of the level may be found between ethnicities.

The difference seems to relate to the salience of physical work. Physical work is an important realm for indigenous Fijian men as it is a central aspect of everyday life since their boyhood; boys are expected to take part in community life and help household chores (Ravuvu, 1983). On the other hand, Indo-Fijian boys are taught to put school work ahead of working around the home and doing extra chores (Otsuka, 2006, cited in Williams et al., 2007). Therefore, the importance of physical work may have less salience as for Indo-Fijian boys whereas Indigenous Fijians and Tongans are more likely to highlight the attainment in masculine domain in pursuit of carrying out physical work required in family.

5.2.6. Gender Roles and Westernisation: A Transitioning Moment

Fiji has been experiencing unremitting cultural changes and these changes could be mainly attributed to the influx of immigrants and contact with the Europeans. The Pacific Island system has been strongly influenced by waves of European colonisation which forced the incorporation of Fijian economic and social systems into Europe (Naz, 2014). In addition, the western media has brought with it new ideas about how people should live and what is important to them. At times, the influence would create tensions between the traditional values of the Pacific society and the desire for modernity in the western way, and would result in misunderstanding. In reference to gender, for instance, there is a major reluctance and hesitance about directly or openly addressing gender issues, which means breaking a long-cherished taboo in Fiji society.
The introduction of Western technologies and values has had influences on the identity and lifestyle of Fijian women. Firstly, as in elsewhere, more young indigenous Fijian women have come to likely modelling their appearance and behaviours after celebrities on television, which is not unrelated to an increasing rate of eating disorders among Fijian women. Along with that, another phenomenon is the change that many are becoming sexually more active at younger ages (Naz, 2014).

On the other hand, adolescent girls and young women residing in small-scale societies with a lower level of media exposure may be vulnerable in terms of adopting themselves to a fast-changing society. In comparison to the group with a wider exposure of media, those vulnerable girls and young women are more likely to lack proper role models in the process of manoeuvring along their personal development and joining a shifting economic and political environment.
5.3. Fiji: Challenges that Formulate Social Exclusion of Women

5.3.1. Political Participation and Organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Development Report 2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legislators, senior officials and managers, female (% of total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of seats in parliament (% held by women)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite some remarkable progress, men largely dominate the political arena in Fiji. A small number of women have participated in politics; female politicians account for about 14% of Members of Parliament. Fiji has seen notable growth in women’s representation: from 11.3% in 2006 to 16% in 2014 (+4.7 points).

The elections had originally been scheduled for 2009 but were delayed until 2014 due to various political disagreements. In the interim, a new constitution was signed in 2013 and women’s groups came together to create a platform for increasing women’s participation in politics with more high-level leadership positions for women. Besides legislating for the adoption of the gender quota system, a number of solutions have been suggested and implemented by the government and women’s organisations. For example, the Fiji Country Plan includes supportive measures to increase women’s access to leadership positions, and to mainstream gender elements throughout policy making processes. The Plan is a firm ground that could create an enabling environment for women’s engagement in politics on community, local, and national levels (Australian Government, 2016). Further to this, the Fiji National Gender Policy, launched on March 2014, also reflects this commitment to promoting gender equality, social justice, and sustainable development in Fiji. The Policy has a specific focus on emphasising women’s human rights, addressing structural and social barriers that impede gender equality, and emphasising the importance of gender mainstreaming throughout the development planning and decision making processes as a whole (Australian Government, 2016).

In addition, an important point should not be disregarded; gaps and differences depending on the basis of class, religion, race, ethnicity, and age, are eminent among women, as it is among men (Australian Government, 2016). Though further progress is necessarily required in the Island country, some have been proactively making their
voices as female politicians: e.g. the first female speaker of parliament in the ruling Fiji First Party (Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2015).

To sum up, in Fiji, the traditional conceptualisation of gender roles has discouraged women from participating in politics. Though there have been improvements in women’s entering politics over the past years, governmental experts and civil activists continue to suggest more proactive intervention by mainstreaming gender in government and addressing existing barriers against gender equality, for instance.

5.3.2. Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Development Report 2016</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expected years of schooling (years)</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean years of schooling, female (years)</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean years of schooling, male (years)</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government expenditure on education (% of GDP)</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From a gender-sensitive perspective, Fijian women fare well in terms of educational attainment in comparison with other neighbouring states in the Pacific region. Gross enrolment rates at the primary education level have exceeded 90% for both males and females, as of 2007. The 2013 gender parity index even shows a girls’ school enrolment rate exceeding a boy’s enrolment rate at the secondary level (Asian Development Bank, 2014). In fact, the 2016 Human Development Report says that the average years of girls’ schooling (10.9%) are higher than boys’ schooling years (10.2%) (UNDP, 2016a).

Nevertheless, the quality of education matters as it tends to differ between rural and urban areas, because of difficulties in recruiting teachers, having access to quality education materials and adequate equipments, and establishing the internet system and relevant infrastructure in remote areas. Also, one of confronted challenges also is the poor quality of sexual and reproductive health education currently taught in schools, and ensuing high levels of teen pregnancy. At the tertiary level, school enrolment by women aged 19–21 is higher than that of men (42% versus 38%) (Asian Development Bank, 2014) but anecdotal evidence indicates that women are more likely than men to drop out of school because of family and/or economic reasons.
Gender segregation is noticeable in the fields of study at the tertiary level. Subject selection or attendance across different educational programmes – e.g. at a secondary education level and/or in technical and vocational training – shows difference by gender. Furthermore, while gender parity in education has been well achieved at all levels, the equality has not translated into the status of employment (Asian Development Bank, 2014).

Fiji is a community-based society and the advancement of women’s education attainment will affect the community as a whole. This multiplier effect makes sense in that well-educated women may pass their knowledge to uneducated women or in that the educated may inherit attained wisdom to children via family networks. The multiplier effect seems evident as more uneducated women in rural villages have started engaging in a range of community-based projects.

Currently, the most desperate need in Fiji’s education system is to review existing education policies that considered different groups of students by gender and ethnicity and that aimed for the creation of an egalitarian society. In short, an increase in the rate of women’s education attainment plays dual roles in society; transferring knowledge from the educated to the uneducated as well as moving towards the development of an egalitarian society (Naidu, 2016).

To sum up, Fijian women fare well in terms of educational attainment and gender parity in comparison with those in other South Pacific states. The mean years of schooling for women are even higher than those of male counterparts. Nevertheless, Fiji still faces challenges in relation to gender. Women’s dropout rate in higher education is far higher than that of men and there exists clear segregation in tertiary education by gender.

5.3.3. Labour and Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Development Report 2016</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate, female (% ages 15 and older)</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate, male (% ages 15 and older)</td>
<td>71.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (total), female to male ratio</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate, female to male ratio</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Fijian society, women’s labour force participation rate is significantly lower than that of men. According to Forum Secretariat (2013, cited in Naidu, 2016), only 19% of micro, small and medium enterprises are owned and run by businesswomen. The low level of women’s labour force participation rates has been the result of policy failure of the Fijian government policies as well as traditional and cultural barriers. For example, both indigenous and Indian Fijian households tend to have extended families like multiple generations living together. Such a household characteristic throughout Fijian society has contributed to lowering women’s labour force participation rate (Naidu, 2016).

Women’s labour force participation rate in Fiji has increased from 25.52 % in 1990 up to 33.60 % in 2012: 8.08 % increase over the last 22 years. This increase can be explained by factors such as a changing demographic composition of families, modernisation, and ensuing changes in long-cherished cultural values. Most of women in Fiji have been engaged in informal economy whereas males have usually dominated vacancies in the formal employment in Fiji (Duncan & Voigt-Graf, 2008). The bulk of the Fijian women are being informally employed in the low income-based agricultural sector with few women earning wages.

In the Fijian context, gender roles and relations situate women mainly in the reproductive sphere outside the labour market and thus women are less likely to engage in formal economy. Even though the female labour participation rate in formal economy has increased by 8.08% over the last 22 years (Naidu, 2016), continued employment supports for women, particularly in the formal market, is necessarily required in order to guarantee women’s livelihoods.

5.3.4. Property

Three factors – i.e. ethnicity, patrilineal inheritance, and social class – largely determine land ownership in Fiji (Carswell, 2003). Customary landowners own around 83% of the country’s territory, and the native-secured land is leased and administered by Native Land Trust Board (NLTB) on behalf of the landowners who are members of various mataqali (local land-owning units). About 8% of the land is freehold and so can be bought and sold in the marketplace in a somewhat free fashion. The rest of the land belongs to the state government.
Nobody can sell or individually lease out native and communally owned land in Fiji. Instead, leases can be traded with the consent of the NLTB and can go up to 99 years, depending on the nature of the project. The NLTB, as an official custodian of all native land properties, stands in the legal authority to lease land and negotiate fair premiums and rent fees for landowners among other conditions such as investors’ commitment to giving preference to the landowning unit members for employment and vocational training opportunities.

The majority of the native land leased out (a small proportion of the total 83%, though) has been operated by Indo-Fijian farmers for the use of sugar-farming. The cane farm is the very critical foundation on which the Indo-Fijian tenants have been building their own community and formulating social, religious, and cultural cohesion (Rao, 2002).

In most cases, Fijian women would be excluded from inheritance rights as for customarily-owned land; instead, their male family members like fathers or husbands have permission rights in land for the female household members (Asian Development Bank, 2006). In fact, all citizens’ same rights to land ownership and inheritance and fixed assets are clearly prescribed in Fijian laws. In reality, however, these legal rights benefit men and women in an inequitable manner.

Customary and traditional laws favour male heirs over female heirs; what matters is that the traditional laws are as effective as the Constitution. As a result, Fijian women cannot inherit traditional land titles in the absence of a male family member, and are often not recorded as co-owners of family assets and properties. In addition, women’s limited awareness of their rights is another challenge to be dealt with. Mindsets have been slowly changing as more male community leaders consult female constituents with regards to the use of communally owned land, in particular (Australian Government, 2016).

Property is crucial for guaranteeing access to sustainable livelihoods for women. Inheritance, access to the ownership of land and fixed assets, and control of benefits from these rights are inequitable between men and women in Fiji due to gender roles and traditions. There is little done yet in Fiji to overcome this although in recent years, international agreements have repeatedly reiterated the importance of women’s land and property rights.
5.3.5. Health

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Development Report 2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth, female (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth, male (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality ratio (deaths per 100,000 live births)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public health expenditure (% of GDP)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fiji has made great strides across its health indicators during the past two decades, and has reached the level of many developed countries. For example, the maternal mortality rate is low as 99% of deliveries are attended by skilled attendants.

Women have a longer life expectancy than men: 73 years compared with 67 years. Both the decentralized nature of the health care services and relatively well-developed transportation infrastructure in urban areas enable people to have access to basic services; including women’s access to health care facilities. Nevertheless, there still exist gender-unequal challenges to be resolved. Many of vulnerabilities are rooted from unequal gender relations (Asian Development Bank, 2014).

Although Fiji health indicators have reached the level of many developed countries, there are still a number of health challenges affecting women due to unequal gender roles. Research indicates that health policies should address the following health issues through a gender approach: a) eating disorders; b) HIV infections; c) HPV/cervical cancer rates; and d) high overweight rates amongst women.

[Eating Disorders]

Before the 1990s, anorexia and bulimia nervosa were believed to be rare or non-existent among Fijians (Becker, Gilman, & Burwell, 2005). However, an increase in indicators of disordered eating behaviours and attitudes among Fijian teenage girls has been documented in association with the introduction of television in 1995 along with a recent rapid social change (Becker, Burwell, Navara, & Gilman, 2003).
Above all, the introduction of the television system seems to have had a big impact on women’s identification and thoughts on body image – in adolescent girls’ cases particularly. A previously conducted cross-sectional and two-wave study demonstrates a dramatic increase in indicators of eating disorder during the 3 years following the introduction of the broadcast television full of westernised programmes, and rapid social and economic transitions for the time span (Becker, 2004).

[HIV/AIDS]

Fiji is classified as a country with a low level of HIV/AIDS prevalence. As the latest data published by UNAIDS (Ministry of Health and Medical Services, 2016) says, in Fiji, the number of people diagnosed with HIV infection is less than 1,000, as of 2014, and the prevalence rate for adults aged between 15-49 is at approximately 0.1%. From the first HIV-confirmed case in 1989 to the end of 2014, a cumulative occurrence is 610 in total throughout the country.

Research have shown a recent shift of the HIV infection from males (48%) to females (51%) as compared in previous years. Most of the newly diagnosed women are tested positive during the stage of antenatal care. In this sense, there is a desperate need to strengthen preventive measures from the antenatal stage at the earliest – preferably from the first trimester of pregnancy – for the early diagnosis sake, and enhance awareness of the importance of the HIV treatment for mothers confirmed with HIV positive. The Ministry of Health and Medical Services (2016) emphasises the significance of regular follow-ups, and adherence to treatment guidelines for preventing the transmission to the newborn.

The mode of transmission is predominantly heterosexual (85%), followed by transmission through homosexual contacts (6%) and mothers or parents to child (2%) (Ministry of Health and Medical Services, 2016).

As a matter of fact, youths fuel the HIV epidemic across this island country owing to early initiation of sex and teenage pregnancy. Other factors include gender inequalities as well as cultural taboos related to sexuality, sexual violence, literacy shortfalls, and practises of tattooing and polygamy (Hammar et al., 2011).
Additionally, other research point out other risk factors that could accelerate the HIV epidemic throughout the country to an acute level as follows: disappearing traditions among the young generation, family breakdown, and distorted sexualisation of relationships with young women affected by westernisation (Sewak & Singh, 2017).

[HPV/Cervical Cancer]

Cervical cancer ranks as the most common cancer – age-standardised incidence is 33.4 per 100,000 – and, further, the leading cause of death – age-standardised mortality is 18.7 per 100,000 – among Fijian women. On average, 113 women are diagnosed with cervical cancer and 61 cervical cancer related deaths are estimated every year. In other words, cervical cancer explains about 43% of female cancers and 14% of all cancer related mortality on an annual basis (Garland et al., 2008).

As far as cervical cancer is concerned, the indigenous Fijian group has a higher relevance than the Indian Fijian group. Whilst cervical Pap Smear (Pap Test) – commenced in 1993 – is free for women, there is neither a systematically organised approach nor linkage in relation to the cancer registries, yet. Even worse, only 10% of eligible female group aged between 20 and 69 is covered by the screening service. Also, as many as 50% of women diagnosed with abnormalities on Pap Smear never return for follow-up procedures (Garland et al., 2008).

[Overweight and Complications]

Studies with indigenous Fijian women have indicated prevalence rates of overweight or obesity that ranges from 30% to as high as 84%, a prevalence rate which is among the highest in the world (Becker et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2006). Increasing Body Mass Index (BMI) is associated with a growing health risk – so called ‘lifestyle diseases’ such as diabetes and hypertension – among Fijians (Brian et al., 2011).

5.3.6. Gender Based Violence

Rates of violence against women and girls in Fiji are among the highest in the world; 64% of women who have been in an intimate relationship have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by a husband or intimate partner for their lifetime, and 24% are
reported to be still suffering from physical and/or sexual violence by their husbands and partners – this figure includes 61% of physically attacked women and 34% of sexually abused women. Rates of emotional abuse are also high; 58% of ever-partnered women have experienced emotional violence, and 29% amongst them in previous 12 months before the survey. Overall, 72% of ever-partnered women experienced physical, sexual and/or emotional violence from their husbands or partners for their lifetime, and many have suffered from all the three types of violence at the same time (Fiji Women’s Crisis Center, 2013).

According to Forster (2010), spousal violence, parental violence against children, and between-family violence are widely tolerated and condoned in both Fiji and Samoa. In the case of Fiji, the Domestic Violence Decree, which came into force in February 2010, defines domestic violence as “any act of violence committed in a family situation, including those committed in a de facto relationship and any violence committed against children.” Fiji as well as the Cook Islands and the Solomon Islands grant domestic violence protection and occupation orders for victims. Fiji has recently extended the scope of protection orders to include adult victims, and the protection orders can now be applied for regardless of whether or not the husband or partner is charged with a criminal offence. In addition, a police officer who identifies a domestic violence situation must apply for a restraining order in the court. Although same sex couples are excluded from the Decree, other de facto relationships are affected as well as family members, caregivers, and persons who live in the same residence or residential facility. In fact, the law was adopted directly from either a colonising or former colonising country without reference to local context of all the three countries (Forster, 2010).

Against this backdrop, there have been consistent and concerted anti-violence voices from female advocates, women’s groups, and civil societies that have built inroads into accessible referral pathways for services for survivors of violence, and into a legislative reform. Pacific Women, through the regional and Fiji country plan, supports the Fiji Women Crisis Centre (FWCC) as a leading human rights organisation that provides counselling services and legal, medical, and other practical supports to female and children victims of violence in Fiji. The Fiji country plan is also working with progressive faith-based organisations such as the House of Sarah and the Pacific Conference of Churches who proactively work on ending violence against women by using a human rights-based approach to theology (Australian Government, 2016).
Men’s violence against women is an enormous problem, considering far-reaching and highly damaging impacts on individuals, families, communities, and the nation as a whole. Entrenched social norms and mind-sets about women’s roles and status need to be challenged and further changed in order to prevent violence. Fundamental changes from institutional practises and people’s attitudes and behaviours are essential to respond to this widespread problem in an effective way. Concerted actions are needed by all relevant stakeholders and these actions need to be well-informed by an in-depth understanding of the issue and surrounding circumstances.

5.3.7. Safety

Personal and community insecurity fuelled by political tensions, election rhetoric, and ethnic-based policies has created an uncertain environment in Fiji. Both documentary sources and the limited empirical research undertaken show that political instability and the bleak prospects for Indian Fijians are more important than economic explanations as for migration (Lal, 2003; Naidu, 1997; The Fiji Sun, 25 October, 2002; Singh, 2002; Voigt-Graf, 2001, 2003, all cited in Chandra, 2004). The lack of acceptance as equal citizens, as suggested by references to them as “guests” (vulagi), “foreigners” or “outsiders” (Roberston and Tamanisau, 1988; Dean and Ritova, 1988, p.119; Ravuvu, 1991, p.58-60, all cited in Chandra, 2004) is a serious concern among Indian Fijians, engendering much insecurity about their future and that of their children in Fiji.

More women than men indicated personal and physical insecurities as a major factor in their desire to emigrate from Fiji. As for men, major factors of emigration are economic insecurity and concerns about personal safety and physical security for their wives and daughters (Pangerl, 2002). The physical violence and atrocities which put most of Fijians – both men and women – into fear during the May 2000 coup and the evictions from leased land of settlement have increasingly heightened fears about safety. Indian Fijians account for a large portion of victims in most crime-related statistics (Chandra, 2004).

A submitted report on Fiji by the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDEW) to the United Nations highlights numerous dimensions and elements of discriminatory practises (United Nations, 2003). Institutionalisation of the discriminatory practises in the public sector employment and
promotion opportunity has created severe insecurity among Indian Fijians in terms of their livelihood and future prospects (Kumar, 1997, p.87) because the indigenous Fijian-dominated governments have made numerous provisions for policies and practices in favour of native Fijians (Sharma, 1997, p.106; Kumar, 1997, p.85, Government of Fiji, 2001: Voigt-Graf, 2003, p.375). Besides, the less skilled are considering migration because of limited opportunities and deepening poverty (Chandra, 2004).

Since the early 1980s, more women than men have been emigrating from Fiji. Statistics on Fijian immigrants in destination countries clearly reveal a larger share of the female population. According to Ahlburg and Levin (1990), examining all Fiji-born immigrants in the United States, there were more female children and young women aged from 15 to 34 than males in the same age groups. Furthermore, the Australian and the New Zealand census data indicated that there were more Fiji-born female immigrants than their male counterparts in Australia (52%) and New Zealand (52%) (Chandra, 2004).

Linked to the violence issue, Indo-Fijian women have been shouldering the double burden in Fiji; the Indo-Fijian women suffer violence because of not only gender but also ethnicity. This has translated into a rise of emigration of Indian Fijian women to overseas countries. A series of evidence show that the Fijian government needs to pay special attention to the protection for the Indo-Fijian women’s rights.
5.4. Papua New Guinea (PNG): An Introduction

5.4.1. Geography

The Island of New Guinea is the second largest island in the world and is located in the Pacific Ocean, just North of Australia. The main island is geo-politically split in half along an arbitrary North–S line along the 140E longitude. The western part of New Guinea was incorporated into Indonesia when Indonesia became independent from the Netherlands. Today, West Papua is part of the 18,000 island states of Indonesia since 1963. The eastern part of New Guinea gained its independence from Australia in 1975, and has become the independent country of Papua New Guinea afterwards (Jell-Bahlsen & Jell, 2012).

PNG has been faced with challenges owing to its geography, which will be discussed later in this report. Related to KDB’s proposing the biomass energy programme, this island country’s rich endowment of natural resources could be highlighted as one of geographical features; PNG is comprised of many islands with dense tropical rainforests, wetlands, and mountainous terrain (Abirafeh, 2009a).

5.4.2. Ethnicity

The region, known as Melanesia, is home to many different ethnic groups who share certain cultural traits, but speak 800 different indigenous languages in New Guinea alone, representing 12% of the world’s languages (Abirafeh, 2009). In many localities, cultural boundaries and group membership are shifting, depending on the socio-economics of cognate descent and ritual exchange. Such indigenous flexibility contradicts corporate and state mapping and monolithic boundaries, creating their own new issues (Hirsch, 2001). Some indigenous tribes are small, consisting of only 100 to 200 people while others up to 1,000 people or more. According to sources, the Enga tribe residing in central highlands is the largest ethnic group in PNG, numbering about 30,000 (Jell-Bahlsen & Jell, 2012).
5.4.3. History & Politics

In 1828, the Netherlands took administrative possession of the western half of New Guinea. In 1883, the British Colony of Queensland annexed the south-eastern part of New Guinea, and in 1884, Germany took control of the north-eastern part of New Guinea and the Bismarck Archipelago. In 1919, however, Germany lost all its colonial possessions, including German New Guinea, as a result of the peace settlement under the Treaty of Versailles. Australia received a mandate from the League of Nations in 1921 to govern the territory until it was merged with the Australian territory of Papua in the south and eventually became a modern sovereign state under the Australian administration (Jell-Bahlsen & Jell, 2012). PNG finally gained independence from Australia on 16 September 1975 although it has remained highly dependent to Australia. In fact, Australia is the largest bilateral donor, providing over AUD 300 million a year in assistance (Abirafeh, 2009a). PNG’s colonial past and a fast transition towards modernity are the very source of political conflicts in this territory.

All the country's different ethnic groups, their cultures, environments, and socio-ecological spheres are over-susceptible to transnational corporate activities, which is mainly because the PNG governance lacks capacity of supervision and censorship of those activities carried out. Jell-Bahlsen and Jell (2012) claim that the tribal communities often find themselves pinned and articulated against both transnational corporations and the Papuan state. In such circumstances, the indigenous people of New Guinea have devised multiple strategies of resistance against external intervention. Some are openly violent and aggressive, another far prefers negotiation in a peaceful manner, and the others opt for a spiritually motivated action, for example, which seeks to destroy all that is regarded ‘traditional,’ or which draws unique values of their own cultures upon by adopting a more dialectic strategy of change (Kirsch 2006, cited in Jell-Bahlsen & Jell, 2012). Hyndman (1994, cited in Jell-Bahlsen & Jell, 2012) takes an instance that some ethnic groups have alliance with globally operating environmental organisations.

5.4.4. Population

Despite its big territorial size – as the second largest island in the world after Greenland – PNG had only four million inhabitants in the 1990s. Its geography of population density is uneven throughout the country; a very low population density is found around
some areas in the rain forest and on rugged mountain ranges whereas fertile mountain valleys have long been densely populated with tribes fighting over scarce lands or pertaining resources for the past centuries (Jell-Bahlsen & Jell, 2012). In fact, the colonial plantations and all of the main towns and settlements were located either on the coast or on the rivers. Most of the interior has remained unexplored and some expeditions that penetrated the inland were mostly led by scientists or by Lutheran missionaries.

According to CARE (2015), PNG’s population is estimated at 7.5 million made up of 52% males and 48% females and, women’s life expectancy, unlike that of other countries on the global, is shorter than men’s. This island state is also demographically young; 76% of the population are under 35 years old and 40% are under the age of 15.

In addition, population fact, information, and pictures are as follows. A household is comprised of, on average, 5.9 people. Approximately 85% of the population live in isolated rural areas, and the majority of Papua New Guineans make their living through subsistence farming. Further, Total Fertility Rate (TFR) remains quite high at 4.4, as of 2006, with no sign of a decrease. Related to the TFR, women aged 15-49 having ever used any type of modern contraceptive methods account for 31.2% (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2010).

5.4.5. Religion & Spirituality

The courts and government practise uphold the constitutional right to freedom of speech, thought, and belief; no legislation to curb those rights has been adopted. The 2011 census found that 95.6% of citizens identified themselves as members of a Christian church, 1.4% was not Christian, and 3.1% did not respond to this census question. Many citizens would combine their Christian faith with traditional, indigenous, or superstitious religious practises.

Since 2001, the then minority Muslim population has increased by over 500% from 479 to over 5000, predominantly on account of religious conversions to Islamic faith by indigenous Papua New Guineans. The spike in Islamic conversions in this largely Christian nation has coincided with a period of increased Islamic missionary activities and a rise in local media coverage on Islam (Flower, 2012).
5.4.6. Economy & HDI

PNG is richly endowed with natural resources including but not limited to forests, mineral and renewable resources, marine (e.g. a large portion of the world’s major tuna stocks), and, in some parts, agriculture. Agriculture, as for subsistence and cash crops, provides a livelihood for 85% of the Papuan population, and continues to account for some 30% of GDP. Oil palm cultivation has grown steadily over recent years with palm oil production being now the main agricultural export of the country.

Further to this, mining is a major revenue source for the PNG government. The exploitation of the main and neighbouring islands’ natural resources had been spurred in the nineteenth century and has continued to grow. Bearing mines’ having a limited life expectancy, some have already been exhausted or are scheduled to be closed within the next 10 years but new mining projects seem to continue proliferating throughout the country and its adjacent seas (Jell-Bahlsen & Jell, 2012). In reality, considerable disputes over mines have emerged in reference to land property disagreements and its relevant environmental concerns.

PNG’s HDI value had increased from 0.360 to 0.516 from 1990 to 2015, an increase of 43.4 percent (UNDP, 2016b). Nevertheless, the 2015 HDI value still places the country in the low human development category; the rank – 154 out of 188 countries and territories – is shared with Zimbabwe.

5.4.7. ‘Wantok’ System

The customary social structure is a critical part of PNG as a whole. In the society, the ‘wantok system’ acts as a social safety net for family and clan members. The system, however, has been changing along with gradual modern socio-economic developments.
5.5. PNG: Culture and Tradition and their Impacts on Women

This section highlights gender dynamics across PNG in particular terms of ethnography. In the case of PNG, it is never easy to offer a clear conceptualisation or simple straightforward definition of gender and generalisation of gender relations on grounds of enormous cross-cultural variation. Gender dynamics are constructed nationwide in diverse fashions by culture and tribes, which thwart work towards any general explanatory account (Quinn, 2004).

Many researches, in general, indicate that PNG may be characterised as a patriarchal society, and that women are perceived as inferior to men in most aspects of life. The way the patriarchy-based gender roles are perceived has had influence on the social structure of PNG, and the ensuing traditional and cultural practices form the gender perpetuation have reinforced gender identity in reverse.

There are, however, a few tribes of New Guinea that do not conform to the structure of the typical gender roles: for instance, the Arapesh, the Mundugumor, the Sambia, and the Tchambuli, whose socio-cultural arrangements do not regard women as inferior at all. Linked with this, there exist an alternate masculinity that does not allow men to do violence against women; in some traditions, violence to women is considered unmanly. Among Papuans residing in the Benabena of the Eastern Highlands, for example, there is an expression that ‘if a man beats his wife, her blood will cover him up, and he will not be able to see and will behave like an animal’ (Khosla et al., 2013).

5.5.1. Gender and the Household

Many rural women in PNG do labour long hours for the well-being of their households, and engage in a variety of livelihood strategies to support their families and communities as well as themselves. Though women play a key role in ensuring agriculture and food security, much of their work is undervalued as it is often confined to the unpaid domestic or household realm. By contrast, men are more likely to manage cash crops like coffee or fish. Decision-making authority, in relation to the distribution of household and land resources, is heavily concentrated in the hands of men even if women break sweat to manage the household budget, gardens, or livestock. As well, women are largely
responsible for caring for children, the elderly, and the ill, fetching water and fuels for cooking, and preparing meals as well as handling all the unpaid household chores. These responsibilities lay a heavy time burden on rural women as a consequence of inadequate or inaccessible social infrastructure, relevant facilities, and other support measures. Women’s time poverty is a real issue in the context of PNG; due partly to substantial workloads, many women would lack the time to be involved in social activities for leadership – e.g. membership of co-ops or social groups and networks (CARE, 2015).

Women’s heavy workloads are less likely to be eased even during pregnancy and on that account, maternal nutrition deficiencies in this period are prevalent. Overwhelmed by the patriarchal circumstances, women tend to have a meal after male members and the children – they eat the most – and this unequal pattern does not change during women’s pregnancy or lactation, in particular, in highland regions.

5.5.2. Gender, Religion, and Spirituality

There exists an inextricable link between Christianity and gender dynamics across countries of Oceania (Robbins, 2009, p. 125–130). The influx of Christian missionaries since the late 1960s has diminished the persistence of gender-unequal beliefs and practises that have endured in the name of traditions. Churches play a powerful role in shaping day-to-day social activities by sponsoring sports, youth groups, women’s organisations, religious meetings, and language classes.

Christian churches, above all, have formulated local understandings on AIDS, which is often described by Guineans as either divine punishment or God’s message on repentance. Likewise, Papuan people usually oppose the use of contraception tools such as condoms, describing them as a technology against the providence of God (Wardlow, 2007).

5.5.3. Gender and Politics

PNG and other Pacific countries operate on two parallel legal systems: the formal legal system and the customary legal system. In practise, it is the customary system that impacts the lives of most people at a community level. In general, customary law tends to have discriminatory practises against women, for example, in relation to property
rights and allocation of resources such as land. As far as the formal system is concerned, laws that define women’s economic activities, particularly in reference to property rights and employment rights, are prescribed on the statute books (Zambezi, 2011).

5.5.4. Gender and Sexuality

The custom of polygamy is common, in particular, in the highland areas of PNG; 32% of women belong to a polygamous union, and are twice as likely to have multiple co-wives (18% of women) than in other areas of the island country. Especially, bride price is a strong incentive for a father to arrange a daughter’s marriage at a young age.

Besides, a second, third, and fourth wives tend to marry at the same young age as other co-wives, leading to a large age gap between them and their husbands and the co-wives. Their comparatively young ages and status as a newcomer can be attributable to voicelessness among family members (CARE, 2015).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PNG INDICATORS 2016 (UNDP)</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Demography</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, total (millions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median age (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, ages 15–64 (millions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, ages 65 and older (millions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, under age 5 (millions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population, urban (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Development</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Development Index (HDI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Inequality Index (GII)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Income</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross National Income (GNI) per capita (2011 PPP$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita (2011 PPP$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated GNI per capita, female (2011 PPP$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated GNI per capita, male (2011 PPP$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population living below income poverty line, PPP $1.90 a day (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work &amp; employment</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate, female (% ages 15 and older)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate, male (% ages 15 and older)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (total), female to male ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate, female to male ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandatory paid maternity leave (days)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total unemployment rate (% of labour force)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate (% ages 15-24)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Health</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth, female (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy at birth, male (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV prevalence, adult (% ages 15-49), total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent birth rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal mortality ratio (deaths per 100,000 live births)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public health expenditure (% of GDP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expected years of schooling (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean years of schooling, female (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean years of schooling, male (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government expenditure on education (% of GDP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Politics</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legislators, senior officials and managers, female (% of total)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of seats in parliament (% held by women)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human Security</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homicide rate (per 100,000 people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prison population (per 100,000 people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refugees by country of origin (thousands)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide rate, female (per 100,000 people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide rate, male (per 100,000 people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence against women ever experienced, intimate partner (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence against women ever experienced, non-intimate partner (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environmental sustainability</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon dioxide emissions per capita (tonnes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest area (% of total land area)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest area (total change %, 1990-2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresh water withdrawals (% of total renewable water resources)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renewable energy consumption (% of total final energy consumption)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.6. PNG: Challenges that Formulate Social Exclusion of Women

5.6.1. Political Participation and Organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Human Development Report 2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legislators, senior officials and managers, female (% of total)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of seats in parliament (% held by women)</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a result of cultural norms, women are poorly represented in leadership and governance positions in rural areas. Currently, there are only three elected-female parliamentarians out of 111 seats. While many forms of discrimination are increasingly addressed by national policies and legislation (e.g. laws prohibiting violence against women), in practice, the enforcement of new or revised policies and laws are challenging, particularly in a rural context.

Another issue is that gender is rarely mainstreamed in policies. For example, the National Health Plan 2011-2020, makes no mention of increasing the number of female health care staff with obstetric skills, a strategy that would both increase facility deliveries and empower women. Such pending limitations women – particularly rural women – have faced in turn are to impose significant social, economic, and environmental costs on society as a whole—and rural development in particular (CARE, 2015).

The PNG Constitution stipulates that men and women have equal rights, but in reality, women stand at a lower status across most communities in a systematic way. Along with modernisation and the emergence of a broader spectrum of political affairs, men attained disproportionately more power in the society.

PNG ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1991, and signed the Beijing Declaration in 1995 but realisation of the international commitments has just started. Even though women and men gained the right to vote in principle, women seem to remain outside the arena of mainstreaming politics in most aspects. Women fared poorly in the 2007 parliamentary election in that only one female candidate maintained her place in office out of 109 members of Parliament. There are more women represented in provincial assemblies at the village
level but, in most of cases, men are the representatives of their clans and local groups. There is lack of a political will to implement policies that seek for increasing women’s political participation although protective measures and quotas are now being put in place (Abirafeh, 2009).

### 5.6.2. Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Development Report 2016</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expected years of schooling (years)</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean years of schooling, female (years)</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean years of schooling, male (years)</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government expenditure on education (% of GDP)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The current state of education in PNG is characterised by low levels of educational attainment and literacy, poor school attendance and retention rates, and high levels of gender inequality. The average years of schooling received by people aged 25 and above are just 3.9 years. This is even worse than that of neighbouring states in the South Pacific area: 4.5 years of the Solomon Islands, 6.7 years of Vanuatu, and 9.9 years of Fiji (UNDP, 2016b). School enrolment rates are also low: 74.4% at a primary school level; and 44.4% at a secondary level (UNDP, 2014).

Educational statistics show a strong gender gap. Several studies find that PNG women are more likely to be illiterate, and have lower levels of primary, secondary, and tertiary schooling in comparison with male students. Data published by UNDP (2016b) reveals a higher proportion of males than females can read and write (69% compared with 57.3%); and just 6.8% of adult women have a secondary or higher level of education compared with 14.1% of men. Males also make up the majority (62%) of students at university (Ryan et al., 2017).

### 5.6.3. Labour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Development Report 2016</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate, female (% ages 15 and older)</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour force participation rate, male (% ages 15 and older)</td>
<td>71.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment rate (total), female to male ratio</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth unemployment rate, female to male ratio</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PNG women spend more time than men in food production. Nevertheless, few women are entitled to control household income; few women earn cash or they often give their earnings to husbands or male kin. As expected, women are disproportionately represented in the informal economy (Abirafeh, 2009).

In PNG where the majority of the rural population are subsistent farmers, women are responsible for the production of food crops for family consumption, and for raising small livestock such as pigs and chickens. The prevalence and expansion of the cash-based informal economy have placed pressure on women in that women earn some extra cash by selling surplus production but that additional work has added to women’s already excessive workload (Japan International Cooperation Agency, 2010).

Throughout PNG, there exist very limited employment opportunities for both women and men in the formal sector. Just over 5% of PNG’s working-age population are employed in the formal labour market, as job opportunities outside the agricultural sector are extremely rare. The 2011 PNG Country Gender Assessment explains that men are nearly twice as likely as women to participate in the formal labour market: 40% of men versus 24% of women nationwide. With regards to payment, women engaging in formal sector jobs report a net monthly wage that is less than half that reported by men: 1404.12 kina for men but 682.17 kina for women. In spite of a high participation rate in the subsistence agricultural sector, women have much lower access to waged-employment so are less likely to have financial independence (CARE, 2015).

### 5.6.4. Property

Women have restricted rights over the vast majority of land under the customary tenure and they are the minority group within the formal land system. Even in case that land is exploited for a commercial purpose such as logging, women have had little say in the decision-making process, and have reaped few benefits. For this reason, many offer recommendations for the government in relation to ongoing land reforms. The suggested ideas include: ensuring a) that women’s interests be properly recognised by
bodies which execute land reform; b) that women be involved and properly represented throughout the reform process to make the institutional reform happen; and c) that relevant institutional settings are friendly to women – e.g. suitable opening hours, accessible facilities, adequate deployment of female staff, and guidelines or manual production for women (Zamberi, 2011).

5.6.5. Health

[HPV/Cervical Cancer]

PNG is among countries with the highest rates of cervical cancer across the world as well as in the Pacific region. PNG has a population of about 6 million people, 25% of whom – around 1.5 million – are women aged between 18 and 55. Cervical cancer ranks as the most common cancer – age-standardised incidence of 40.4 per 100,000, and is the leading cause of death among women. Also, this island country records roughly 250–300 biopsy proven invasive cancers of the cervix each year. In the capital, Port Moresby, the cancer is most commonly diagnosed among young female patients: more than 50% being under the age of 35 (Garland et al., 2008).

PNG and other countries in Oceania have limited resources, and do have little capacity for financing preventive health care services such as systematic surveillance for cervical cancer or dysplasia; except for radiotherapy since 1997. Cervical cancer puts a significant financial burden on women and their family.

[HIV]

PNG confronts an acute heterosexually driven HIV epidemic that may replicate the damage to economic and social development as having been observed throughout southern Africa (Morris & Stewart, 2005). As to the HIV incidence, a recent estimate indicates that the number of those currently infected is approximately 46,275 out of the population aged from 15 to 49. The infection tendency is growing fast (Clark et al., 2011). PNG follows Cambodia and Myanmar with having the high per capita rate of HIV infection in the Asia Pacific region.
Recently, HIV/AIDS moved its classification category from a generalised epidemic to a concentrated epidemic. There have been some signs of progress along with declining malaria infection rates and improvements made in HIV treatment. Nevertheless, the situation in the country remains dire (Lamprell & Braithwaite, 2017).

[Other sexually transmitted infections (STI)]

PNG has the highest neonatal mortality rate in the world: 23 neonatal deaths per 1,000 live births. Above all, preterm birth and low birth weight primarily contribute to the high neonatal mortality figure in PNG: around 16% of all infants are associated with low birth weight; and the stillborn ratio is 15 per 1,000 births among infants. Around 80% of women with laboratory-confirmed CT/NG or TV had been asymptomatic; hence, they would not have been treated in a timely manner, albeit with the existence of national STI management guidelines.

This suggests that the existing STI management guideline is not a sufficient strategy for the detection and treatment of STIs among pregnant women, which underlines a desperate need for robust, easy to use, timely, and accurate point-of-care tests (Badman et al., 2016).

[Maternal health]

Maternal mortality has gained prominence as a major human rights issue; indeed, the 2015 Millennium Development Goal clarifies maternal health as one of critical agendas to be resolved. The maternal mortality rate in PNG is the highest in comparison with neighbouring states in the Pacific region (UNDP, 2016b). PNG women are 200 times more likely to die in childbirth than their counterparts in Australia (only 4 out of 100,000).

5.6.6. Gender Based Violence

Gender-based violence is severe in PNG both within and outside the household. Research indicates that approximately two-thirds of PNG women have experienced
domestic violence at least. This staggering indicator is even higher in some provinces and, even, marriage is no longer viewed as ‘safe’ in this term (Abirafeh, 2009).

The normalisation of violence in PNG, and its widespread acceptance, can be attributed to traditions, fear, and shame. Traditionalism (kastam), including such practises as bride price, and the shame associated with discussing marital problems have resulted in the widespread phenomenon of violence against women, and have been acknowledged to confine this violence agenda into a private and domestic sphere (Egan & Haddad, 2007; Eves, 2006, p.12) describes “[violence] within the confines of a household.” A strong legitimate instrument seems necessary in order to address the widely accepted violence against vulnerable women (Khosla et al., 2013).

The dire reality of gender-based violence reflects unequal gendered power structures in another word; Eves (2006) quotes “though violence is condoned, unprovoked violence is not”, for example. In PNG society, violence against women is often seen as justifiable, in particular, when its purpose is to remind women of their traditional roles and reprimand them for any digressions (Eves, 2006). Conventional practises like polygamy, drug use, alcohol consumption, and deprived socio-economic condition and poverty often exacerbate the violence, and add to the complexity of the issue (Eves, 2006).

5.6.7. Gender and Climate Change

Lipset (2011) asserts that risk perceptions of vulnerable people are directly linked to gendered cultures and social relations within community; for example, in case of coastal villages in PNG, a rising sea level and ensuing resettlements have become to emasculate male community leaders and decision makers. Taking a look at a low-lying island country, Tuvalu, in which population mobility is culturally inherent, on the other hand, vulnerability is more likely to arise from the disruption of the cultural integrity and the dilution of the national identity that relocation would generate, rather than from potential loss of land (Lazrus, 2012).
6. GENDER AND ENERGY: BIOMASS POWER PLANTS AND WOMEN’S VULNERABILITIES

6.1. Biomass Power Plants in Small Island Settings

Islanders inhabit territory that is surrounded by water and has diverse characteristics such as small or large-sized lands, single islands or archipelagos, and varying distances from the main continental land. Such varying dynamics and distinctive characteristics of difference islands and islanders are reified in island studies (Stratford et al., 2011).

Small island communities have faced unique challenges as anthropogenic influences transform the nature of global climate (Mimura et al., 2007). Rising sea levels, changing precipitation and storm patterns, and increasing air and sea surface temperatures all have already placed strains on small island states with limited resources. The contemporary phenomenon of climate change is not a distant spectre but an immediate and undeniable reality that islanders endeavour to address. From resource management to migration options, small island communities must find creative and culturally coherent responses to the contemporary global climate challenges. These fragile islands are geopolitically isolated and impoverished with a small scale of economy and vulnerability to fluctuations in global economy (Kelman, 2010). Research has demonstrated that climate change intersects with cultural, social, political, economic, and environmental dimensions within the purview of anthropology (Lazrus, 2012).

Electricity demand per capita varies and changes by continent. The demand per capita per year on the European islands is on a range of 1,000–14,000kWh, implying that Europe divides itself in different patterns of demand due to its geographical, cultural and economic heterogeneity. In case of Asia, we see diverse but a smaller range of demand of 30–4000kWh. In actuality, the diversity originates from different characteristics of individual islands; we may find a very low demand within islands far isolated by the ocean whereas more demand can be found in some larger islands connected or close to the main continent in alignment with a higher volume of consumption thanks to the easier access to goods. As for all Pacific island states situated in Oceania, electricity demand is heavily influenced by their neighbouring big powers – Australia and New Zealand. Amongst them, some are part of the Commonwealth of Australia: i.e. Norfolk
Island, King Island, and Chatman Island. Others like Fiji and Kiribati are isolated island countries. A tremendous diversity in the Pacific region leads to a demand discrepancy: 3000–7500kWh and 200–300kWh respectively (Neves et al., 2014).

The complexity of supply chains makes the sustainable use of bio energy for power generation quite difficult in a small and isolated island setting. Considering the Pacific-oriented diversity, it is recommended to establish the efficient management system for biomass supply chains, and to adopt specific regulations or guidelines on pollutant emissions. This implies a need of sufficient local capacity and affordability as well as thorough preliminary studies in a comprehensive manner when it comes to building biomass power plants in the small island state context (Mandelli et al., 2016).
6.2. Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact

Energy poverty – i.e. a situation that energy service is not available or accessible to a particular household or entity in a desired form and quantity – has a disproportionate effect on women and girls, especially in the rural village setting. It has been empirically proven that women spend longer hours in order to gather fuels. In a case that fuel scarcity is caused by over-harvesting, land clearing, and environmental degradation, mostly women – not men – are forced to travel further and farther and spend longer time and energy in search of fuel (Muchiri, 2008). Energy poverty widens the gender time gap in an everyday reality.

A considerable amount of research has already analysed the gender-specific impact of burning solid fuels and biomass for obtaining energy at a household level. According to these research, combustion of solid fuels in simple or rough household cook stoves emits a substantial amount of health-damaging airborne pollutants including particulate matter (PM), carbon monoxide (CO) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), with a poor ventilation system of the households often exacerbating the problem (Amegah et al., 2014). In fact, household air pollution (HAP) from solid fuel use led to 4.5 million deaths globally in 2012, almost all in low and middle income countries. Many studies reveal that women end up being the most affected by these negative impacts owing to their moving line at home. The combustion of biomass at home has been considered as triggering hypertension and tachycardia (Dutta et al., 2012), pregnancy risks (Amegah et al., 2014), and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (Olloquequi & Silva O, 2016).

The negative outcomes of women’s using biomass at a household level are also pertinent to the realm outside the house. Women in many developing countries also undertake the responsibility of collecting firewood as well as of cooking and taking care of children and the elderly. For instance, on average, Indian women generally walk 30 km per month and it takes 2.7 hours per trip for fuel wood collection on a hilly terrain which is mostly at high altitudes. This results in women’s poor medical conditions such as stiff-neck, backache, headache, and so forth (Ding et al., 2014). Simultaneously, Ding et al. (2014) highlight positive impacts of the biomass use at a household level in reference to gender relations: reducing women’s labour intensity; improving women’s living standards; and enhancing the status of women within families and communities.
As a matter of fact, the same type of issues at an industrial level is a very new topic in this field. A very small amount of research is currently being conducted so it is very difficult to find academic literature that examines the gender impact of biomass power plants. Nevertheless, we have been able to find some useful literature among few. Juntarawijit (2013) introduced frustration women living near power plants feel, with having to clean their houses more often due to dust from the plant that ruins human respiratory system. At the same time, only half of the same respondents believed that the power plants affected the economy of its community by increasing their family income (Juntarawijit, 2013). This research, however, simply represents the health impact of a small-sized power plant using rice husks in a certain context without any environmental laws and health regulations. The biomass energy programme in the South Pacific region is not identical in terms of context and circumstances.

The impacts of biomass power plants relate to various factors including types of fuel, power-generation system, system operation and maintenance, and plant location. Therefore, in-depth studies to quantify the impacts in a precise manner are strongly recommended. Accordingly, anticipated negative impacts of biomass power plant development – i.e. damage to local roads, pollution of water resources, and a decrease in values of agricultural products – should be comprehensively explored and properly mitigated. In addition, economic benefits and income generation opportunities created by increasing demand for bio fuels tend to benefit men more than women due to the underlying difference in accessing resources (FAO, 2008).

On the other hand, biomass power plants are proven to have positive impacts on gender power relations. Women may benefit from an alleviated workload in firewood collection and related physical labour as well as from a reduced risk of exposure to indoor smoke pollution, which will protect women from contracting respiratory diseases. There is evidence to show that access to modern energy sources leads to change in women’s spending patterns and living standards (Ding et al., 2014). Nelson & Kuriakose (2017) explain potential benefits and challenges by renewable projects as follows:

[BENEFITS]
- Alleviated labour results in ‘time poverty’ reduction, which facilitates women and girls’ gains in terms of education, social capital, and well-being
- Large-scale renewable energy infrastructure can provide women, as well as men, with employment opportunities.
- Renewable energy can provide a broader set of livelihood options.

[CHALLENGES]
- The high cost of connection to the grid may limit access of the users to the service; in many regions, female-headed households belong to the case.
- While communities and firms can benefit from grid connection – e.g. increased access to electricity, energy efficiency improvement, and production scale-up – but such benefits would disproportionately benefit women for a number of reasons.
- New employment opportunities from renewable energy investments are not evenly distributed between women and men.
- The construction and operation of large-scale renewable energy infrastructures including associated facilities such as the placement of transmission lines can lead to displacement of communities, with different impacts on women and men.
6.3. Fiji: Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact

In reference to the sections of 5, 6.1, and 6.2, the biomass energy programme in Fiji should take the following points into account.

Firstly, the Programme should not disregard that politics in Fiji is characterised by tensions between the native Fijians and Indian Fijians due to an unequal distribution of land, resources, political power and rights originated in the British colonial period. The development of biomass power plants and a pellet plant should not contribute to the escalation of these tensions. Social exclusion of women and girls are likely ensued from political tensions and conflicts in the developing context: a tendency for more women than men emigrating from Fiji due to political and economic reasons partly mirrors women’s disadvantageous status throughout Fijian society. It is crucial to employ a holistic point of view to detect women’s victimisation within the whirlpool of politics throughout the business lifecycle.

Further related to politics in Fiji, women participate less in both formal and institutional politics so the construction of the biomass power plants will take into account voices from women’s organisations.

Secondly, when it comes to investigating gender dynamics in Fiji, ethnicity remains the very defining feature that shapes the political, economic, and socio-cultural landscape of the small island country. Any intervention taking gender into account should also take ethnicity into account at the same time. In short, it is neither reliable nor possible to analyse one without the other. This is the reason that this gender study takes the intersectional approach as a theoretical framework.

In particular, Indian Fijian women have been suffering a double burden in terms of violence in Fiji. They suffer violence because they are women but also because they are Indian Fijian, which implies that specific policy or protection measures be addressed to them. Nevertheless, this gender action plan does not give too much favour to the Indian Fijian women in setting up key performance indicators as they tend to be better off than the native counterparts even under the discriminatory system against ethnically Indian Fijians; e.g. Indo-Fijian women tend to have a higher level of economic empowerment and educational attainment than native Fijian women.
Moreover, religion also has a crucial role in Fijian politics intersecting with ethnic identity. In fact, a women-only consultation meeting was a success thanks to support from church community in gathering local women to the consultation meeting venue. The Programme will consider the mediation of churches and religious organisations for the future intervention.

Although complicated intersections of gender and individual and social attributes should be thoroughly considered to determine vulnerability of every Fijian woman, gender is undoubtedly a discriminatory factor across Fijian society. Simply speaking, educational attainment affects women's socio-economic position but even well-educated women are more likely to drop out of higher education or to be eventually worse off than male counterparts. In addition, in spite of the central role of agricultural exports in the Fijian economy, subsistence and semi-subistence livelihoods are still dominant among women working in agriculture in this small island. Without a doubt, a substantial share of the female workforce is engaged in the informal sector with fragile working conditions.

The construction of the biomass power plant should be the perfect excuse to promote women’s empowerment and social inclusion. The plant construction and operation and relevant plantation activities may be a catalyst for more women to participate in the male-dominated energy and engineering fields. Above all, it is important to guarantee that vulnerable women are not left outside the provision of energy due to their lower economic status, and that the plant construction does not take any land and property from women’s hands so as to ensure their sustainable livelihoods. In order to boost – not just sustain – their livelihoods and help them move up the social ladder, there is a need to provide technical and vocational training for local women and decent jobs for the qualified among them. Based on a proper employment contract, they are to be paid the same as men and maternity rights are to be guaranteed. Simultaneously, the project sponsor will be ensured that working place fits for female labourers' needs: e.g. separate toilets for female employees and kindergarten and childcare services. These would be reflected in the Programme’s Gender Action Plan (GAP), which anticipates women’s inclusion in the formal economy of Fiji.

Finally, the biomass power plant can be a useful site for providing community-wide capacity building training and services for both male and female villagers’ welfare. For instance, men’s violence against women is an enormously serious problem for Fijian
women with one of the highest rates in the world as described in Chapter 5. The biomass power plant can be a proper place for providing communities with prevention and awareness enhancement measures regarding this challenge. Aligned with such a practical use of the venue, the plant could be situated at the centre of delivering remedies for gender-related health challenges.
6.4. PNG: Biomass Power Plants and Gender Impact

In reference to the sections of 5, 6.1, and 6.2, the biomass energy programme in PNG should take the following points into account.

First of all, the location selection of a biomass power plant matters for devising gender mainstreaming strategies in PNG. PNG is comprised of many islands and ethnic groups that share some traits, but speak hundreds of different languages individually with tribal diversity. As well, population density is uneven with high density in fertile mountain valleys where high levels of conflict over land ownership exist. Taking such complexities and tribal and regional gaps into consideration, the Programme aims to design a context-based gender action plan accordingly once the project site is determined.

As revealed in Ch.5, the Programme may engage with a few tribes of New Guinea that do not follow the typical gender bias where men are perceived as inferior to women and a subjective decision maker in most aspects of life and the unique gender dynamics play a significant role in the social structure of the tribal territory. Therefore, the gender report plans to deliver the PNG-specific GAP after understanding on how tradition and cultural practises have formed the perpetuation of such a reverse gender identity and vice versa.

The Programme does not disregard the sources and landscape of political conflicts in PNG, having been formulated due to clash between colonial legacy and a fast transition towards economic and political modernity. The biomass power plant development should not contribute to the escalation of those conflicts. Social exclusion of women and girls are likely ensued from political tensions and conflicts in the developing context. As stated in the previous implication section for Fiji, it is important to adopt a holistic framework and grasp a big picture to identify women’s (or men’s) hardships within the whirlpool of politics throughout the project lifecycle.

In addition, the Programme concerns energy insecurity of groups of people vulnerable to gender discrimination. Of neighbouring states in the South Pacific, PNG has the lowest electricity access level, making it dependent on expensive fuels such as kerosene or reliant on sub-standard quality light such as candles and hurricane lanterns. The biomass initiative can help resolve its energy insecurity. The GAP also makes sure that
vulnerable women are not left outside the provision of energy due to socio-economic and cultural barriers.

Assuming women confront the scourge of gender inequality in a potential project area of influence, some of above-mentioned points in section 6.3 apply to the case of PNG. Firstly, women rarely participate in formal and institutional politics in PNG where national women’s machinery does not even exist. The construction of the biomass power plant should take into account opinions from women’s organisations, instead.

For the sake of women’s genuine inclusion in the formal economic system, there is a need to provide decent jobs for PNG women. Considering a low level of educational attainment in PNG with women having a far lower level of education than men, the construction of the biomass power plant can be a catalyst for encouraging women’s participation in education: from general subjects of management and accounting to male-dominated subjects of science, technology, and engineering. The Programme will deliver the educated female workforce up to PNG so that they could not only graduate out of subsistence and smallholder livelihood systems but also act for the immature formal economy of the island country at last.

Other points are definitely in line with those of Fiji. The biomass power plant should not take land and property from vulnerable women’s hands. Any relevant activities will not be carried out in an illegal or unethical manner as it is closely connected to livelihoods for women.

Finally, the Programme will make endeavours to develop the biomass power plant as a useful site for providing community-wide capacity building training and services for both male and female villagers’ welfare. For instance, men’s violence against women is an enormously serious problem for Fijian women with one of the highest rates in the world as described in Chapter 5. The biomass power plant can be a proper place for providing communities with prevention and awareness enhancement measures regarding this challenge. Aligned with such a practical use of the venue, the plant could be situated at the centre of delivering remedies for gender-related health challenges.
7. BIBLIOGRAPHY


Kelman, I. (2010). Hearing local voices from Small Island Developing States for climate


CONTACT

Eugina Kim, GCF Project Coordinator & Gender Specialist
The Korea Development Bank (KDB)
Email: eugina.kim@kdb.co.kr
Appendix 1.
Women’s Wing Consultation Meeting

1.1. Minutes of Meeting (MOM)
1.2. Attendance
1.1. Minutes of Meeting (MOM)

Held on 13th July 2017 (Thur) at Sabeto Village Community Hall at 3.00 pm

PRESENT
36 woman were present (Attendance register attached)

WELCOME
Mr Marika Lewai (village leader) opened the meeting by welcoming all the women and thanked them for their attendance. He introduced the staff of Nabou Green – Dilo Masilaca and Laisa Yabakisiga of Eltech who are here to present on the Sabeto Biomass Project.

INTRODUCTION
Ms Masilaca briefly described on the purpose of the meeting. She mentioned on the importance of involving the woman wing to understand the significance of the meeting, understand the Biomass business and the expected impact and action plan.

We believe that the woman will be mainly focusing on the aspects or issue of Job Opportunity for your children and environmental matters or issues that may affect your children and household.

CONSULTATION CONTENT
The team were briefed through the power point presentation slides.

About the Project:
- This is the 1st project after the successful completion of the pilot trial in Navutu;
- The project will be just the same as the one in Navutu;
- A 25 year PPA contract with FEA; and
- FEA will be buying power from us and will be supplying to Nadi & Lautoka households.

Benefits:
- Benefits that will bring to the community in terms of raising the living standard;
- Job opportunity for unskilled and skilled workers.
- The construction will take 2 years to finish and in that 2 years, about 150 people will be employed. After the construction, the construction workers will be relieved, but the plantation work will continue as we need to produce power using the wood which will enable us to supply power to FEA for the next 25 years as per our agreement with FEA.
- Opportunity for the community especially female to capture the potential job opportunity that may arise from the business;
- The community workers will be provided with proper training and safety training from skilled Engineers and Contractors.
- Children – in regards to education assistance – e.g. kindergarten graduation ceremony and assistance in scholarships.
- The company is looking into spending F$102m dollars to be injected to the local economy for wages for construction and plantation workers, purchasing local services and plantation activities
The Ladies were advised that one good thing with 'Bainicagi' you just plant it once and you continue to harvest every 2 years. There is no re-planting. The branch that is harvested will re-generate.

Expected Impact/Action:
Direct and Indirect Impact in terms of Social, Economic, Environmental -- soil erosion, air quality and water quality.

The Woman were advised that the Company have all the plan in place to minimize all the impact that may arise from these areas. They will work closely with Departmental of Environment to plan and have precautionary measures. For soil erosion – they have soil trap not to affect the riverside. They will work closely with Sewerage Companies to purify and test all water and testing in the lab on the level of contamination to purify before it is discharge.

Health & Safety:
In regards to road dust, odour, noise pollution, safety of the road – traffic condition, reduces speed especially for the safety of the pedestrian on the side roads.
The company has also plan in place during the Pilling Process where the neighborhood will be expecting the noise for a period of one month only and the process will be carried out during the day only and after that there would be no more noise.

QUESTIONS:

1. Will the Electricity cost decrease when the supply of power in Sabeto comes into effect?

   **Answer:** The Ladies were informed that the company will supply power to FEA. The cost will be determined by FEA and believe it should be reduces as there won’t be much generating cost for FEA compared to generating of fossil fuel.

2. How is the Job opportunities distributed among the ladies if employed in the power plant what kind of area they will be engaged in?

   **Answer:** This is going to depend on their minimum qualification. We are encouraging woman not only to go for cleaning, cooking and washing job but to target for Engineering work and other high qualified job within the company.

3. In times of breakdown with FEA power will the Power be supplied from Sabeto Power Plant despite the break from FEA Powers?

   **Answer:** The Ladies were informed that the company will supply power to FEA and not direct to the household. In times of breakdown from FEA, the company have no say it is FEA’s decision.

   There will be a sub-station for FEA here, so in case if FEA shut down the power and allow us to supply to households here but it will be the decision of FEA.
4. What will be the age Limit for Ladies if they would like to be employed?

**Answer:** This will depend on work they want to do, for plantation work or construction if we have qualified female that that will depend on the good health, fitness and ability to do the work. However for office work, we will have minimum requirements.

5. Ladies of Sabeto were interested to start planting the Gliricidia if given the opportunity and what sort of requirement they will need to take into account?

**Answer:** We have a plantation team who will come to do the induction and proper training on how it is planted and etc.

6. Can we get our own seedling plant? After two years when it’s time to harvest can we harvest and supply to mill-gate?

**Answer:** Yes this is possible.

**Acknowledgement:**
The Ladies showed their appreciation towards the concern of the company to come and have this special consultation for the Woman.

**PHOTOS TAKEN DURING THE CONSULTATION:**

![Image 1](image1.jpg)
![Image 2](image2.jpg)
![Image 3](image3.jpg)
![Image 4](image4.jpg)
1.2. Attendance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NAME</th>
<th>AGE</th>
<th>SEX (M/F)</th>
<th>CONTACT</th>
<th>SIGNATURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Joanna Matatoga</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>8376025</td>
<td>Matatoga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salote Mwiremeka</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9857266</td>
<td>Mwiremeka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viviane Thwane</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9286275</td>
<td>Thwane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senikwi Bulou</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9375908</td>
<td>Bulou</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limiva Mata Bgita</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9375908</td>
<td>Bgita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rusila Koto Roko</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9257239</td>
<td>Roko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miliana Koroi</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>8624642</td>
<td>Koroi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulou Tuba</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9236064</td>
<td>Tuba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silovate Goko</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9295225</td>
<td>Goko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samlii S Nhiwa</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>8779651</td>
<td>S Nhiwa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeka Matatoga</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9027746</td>
<td>Matatoga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alivani Naikore</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9036748</td>
<td>Naikore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konami Lekatu</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9301035</td>
<td>Lekatu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meli Nasili</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9001027</td>
<td>Nasili</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moppa Nabor</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9311863</td>
<td>Nabor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selemia Ciru</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9104765</td>
<td>Ciru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reini Lumani</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9104765</td>
<td>Lumani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulou Mwete Mpeka</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9027746</td>
<td>Mpeka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Merewakili Rokuru</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9104765</td>
<td>Rokuru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salote Vikote</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>9780868</td>
<td>Vikote</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gender Document for Biomass Energy Programme in the South Pacific
(Countries of Operation: Fiji & Papua New Guinea)

Dec 2017

Accredited Entity: The Korea Development Bank
### Impact Statement
The Programme aims to support a paradigm shift to low-emissions sustainable development pathways of Small Island Developing States (SIDS) located in the South Pacific by developing biomass power plants and a wood pellet plant which will replace the power plants using imported fossil fuels including diesel. The gender-mainstreamed biomass initiative ensures that women enjoy equal opportunities and benefits with men throughout the Programme.

### Output(s)

**1.0. Biomass power plants development preparation**
- 1.1. Development of biomass power plants and one wood pellet plant
- 1.2. Technical assistance (TA)

### 1.0. Biomass Power Plants Development Preparation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget (USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.0.1. [Gender-Mainstreamed Stakeholder Consultation]</td>
<td>• Hold stakeholder consultations at a time when women can easily attend in order to identify and track needs and expectations of Fijian women by inviting local women and, if possible, delegates from women’s associations, relevant civil society organisations, or community-based organisations</td>
<td>• Ensure women’s participation in consultations of mixed groups</td>
<td>July 2017 (Before start of each project)</td>
<td>Contractor (GIMCO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Have a women-only stakeholder consultation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0.2. [GIA &amp; GAP]</td>
<td>• Conduct gender analysis report</td>
<td>Nov 2017</td>
<td>KDB (AE)</td>
<td>50,000.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Make GAP</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Officially submit GIA and GAP to Gender Desk of the Secretariat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0.3. [Commitment to Gender Equality]</td>
<td>• Submit evidence for commitment (e.g. Human Resources Policy or Employment Contracts) to KDB</td>
<td>By 2018 (By start of the project)</td>
<td>Contractor (GIMCO)</td>
<td>500.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Develop policy or operational guideline covering labour and working conditions that prohibit discrimination against employees by virtue of their gender, and safety measures and protective</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
equipments to keep both women and men safe on the job where applicable

1.0.4. [Gender Inclusive Working Environment]
- Create an enabling working environment for female employees: e.g. separate toilets in convenient places with proper sanitation and hygiene facilities, kindergartens, etc.
- Gender-inclusive facilities present

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget (USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.0. Biomass power plants development preparation
1.1. Development of biomass power plants and one wood pellet plant
1.2. Technical assistance (TA) | | | | |

1.1. Biomass Power Plants and Wood Pellet Plant Development *(Indicative)*

1.1.1. [Women’s Employment]
- Set an employability target for Fijian women with a focus on Indo-Fijian women, the most marginalised group in Fijian society
- Recruitment of hiring women – noting 30% target
- Up to 30% women out of total employees
- Up to 20% Indo-Fijian out of total women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget (USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2. [Money in Women’s Hands]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s wages will be paid directly to them (transferred directly to their bank accounts, if possible)</td>
<td>Submit evidence for ensuring female employee’s acceptance of earnings to KDB (e.g. bank account copy)</td>
<td>Every year since 2018</td>
<td>Contractor (GIMCO)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.1.3. [Periodic Reporting]
- Women’s wages will be paid directly to them (transferred directly to their bank accounts, if possible)
- KDB submits periodic reports including relevant progress to the GCF Gender Desk
- As requested by KDB since 2018 | Contractor (GIMCO) |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget (USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1.0. Biomass power plants development preparation
1.1. Development of biomass power plants and one wood pellet plant
1.2. Technical assistance (TA) | | | | |
### Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Output(s)</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget (USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.0. Biomass power plants development preparation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Development of biomass power plants and one wood pellet plant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 1.2. Technical Assistance

**1.2.1. [Gender Capacity Enhancement]**
- Local women’s wing(s) – e.g. Fiji Women’s Rights Movement – produce(s) gender training materials and/or delivers training.
- Employees – including but not limited to biomass plant and/or construction workers – will be provided orientation and/or information on gender equality (e.g. HIV/STD awareness training for construction workers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget (USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>At least 50% workers take part in orientation and/or receive information on gender equality.</td>
<td>Every year since 2018</td>
<td>Contractor (GIMCAO) &amp; Local women’s organisation</td>
<td>10,000.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least 50% of managerial level employees must take part in orientation and/or get information materials on gender equality.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**1.2.2. [TVET – Technical and Vocational Education and Training]**
- TVET training will be delivered to unskilled and/or semi-skilled labours, 30% women target, so that the trained women could have a higher access to being employed in technical maintenance for biomass power plants planned, and could have opportunities to achieve social mobility by moving into higher-paid managerial jobs
- Contractors will be encouraged to provide TVET opportunities to Indo-Fijian women as well as native women in a fair manner

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Budget (USD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30% of trainees are unskilled and/or semi-skilled local Fijian women.</td>
<td>By 2018</td>
<td>Contractor (GIMCAO) &amp; Local women’s organisation</td>
<td>10,000.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Fijian women, at least 20% of which consists of Indo-Fijians, are trained and/or retrained for technical maintenance of biomass power plants</td>
<td>By 2019</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,000.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By 2023</td>
<td></td>
<td>10,000.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Every information given in GAP is indicative and may be subject to revision.*
# Transforming Financial Systems for Climate

## Gender Equality Approach and Strategy

**Contents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>List of Acronyms and Definitions</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. AFD’s approach to Gender Equality</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Methodology</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Tools and Supporting Mechanisms</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Gender Strategy for the Program</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Main Stakes and Challenges</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. Methodology</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal Requirements</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of gender objectives</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation of gender activities</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.1. Gender Action Plans</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annex 1 – Gender Action Plan template for Projects</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Acronyms and Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘a Project’ or ‘Projects’</td>
<td>Refers to the partnership between AFD and a Local Financial Partner, meaning a credit facility possibly combined with a technical assistance facility and/or guarantee scheme, to be financed in the framework of the Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Subprojects’</td>
<td>Refers to the loans granted by a LFP to local companies in the framework of the Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘the Program’</td>
<td>Refers to the whole AFD-GCF initiative ‘Transforming Financial Systems for Climate’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFD</td>
<td><em>Agence Française de Développement</em> (French Agency for Development)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E&amp;S</td>
<td>Environmental and Social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESDD</td>
<td>E&amp;S Due Diligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESIA</td>
<td>Environmental and Social Impact Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESMS</td>
<td>Environmental and Social Management System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Refers to the whole procedures, tools, processes and organizational arrangements and capacities set up by an organization to manage E&amp;S issues and E&amp;S risks in particular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESRM</td>
<td>Environmental and Social Risk Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FI</td>
<td>Financial Intermediary/ies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCF</td>
<td>Green Climate Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFC</td>
<td>International Finance Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labor Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LFP</td>
<td>Local Financial Partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDC</td>
<td>National Determined Contributions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS</td>
<td>Performance Standard(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA(P)</td>
<td>Technical Assistance (Program)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TORs</td>
<td>Terms of Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I. AFD’s approach to Gender Equality

AFD has built experience and expertise on integrating gender objectives to financed projects, through a specific approach tailored to the stakes of each project and to the needs of beneficiaries and project partners. Such approach is developed below.

In 2013, AFD launched its own strategy process through its 2014–2017 Transversal Integration Framework on gender and the reduction of gender inequalities. This gender policy aims to promote equal opportunities for men and women and to improve the efficiency and sustainability of operations financed by AFD, through three main operational priorities:

- Preventing gender inequalities in AFD operations;
- Promoting gender equality as one of the objectives of the interventions;
- Supporting the evolution of society on gender issues.

To promote AFD gender approach and to encourage better integration of gender in the project cycle, AFD gender strategy focuses on:

1) Developing a gender equality approach specific to AFD’s intervention sectors and countries;
2) Systematically integrating gender issues throughout the project cycle;
3) Assessing and building knowledge on experiences;
4) Strengthening AFD’s capacities on gender issues;
5) Building capacities of AFD’s partners on gender issues;
6) Participating in debates and discussions on gender and development issues.

The implementation of this strategy is based on a decentralized approach implemented within AFD teams, with a network of trained gender focal points in all AFD teams and particularly in local offices, supported by the Environmental, Social, and Sustainable Development Unit, which bears the technical expertise on gender. Such organization allows the promotion of equality in access to and control of resources and income, in participation of men and women to all project components, and in capacity-building and empowerment of project beneficiaries. This approach applies to all projects financed by AFD without discrimination.

1.1. Methodology

To support, monitor, and report on the integration of gender equality objectives in AFD-funded operations, specific method and indicators have been set up.

First of all, AFD uses the OECD DAC1 marker on gender equality to screen and report on all projects as follows:

7) 0: the project has no objective in terms of reduction of gender inequalities.
8) 1: the project has a specific objective to reduce gender inequalities.

---

1 Development Assistance Committee
9) 2: the project’s main objective is to reduce gender inequalities.

OECD markers on gender equality are assigned during the ex-ante analysis of the project and its categorization. This scoring system tracks the progressive efforts allocated to this issue. Any project strengthening gender equality and women’s empowerment or reducing gender discrimination and gender-based inequalities will be marked 1 or 2. It is important to note that these markers are chosen at the beginning of the investigation, and fixed at the time of granting.

In addition to that, AFD’s internal sustainable opinion includes a gender equality dimension, consistent with the OECD CAD markers but allowing more accurate analysis, as detailed in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AFD Sustainable Development Indicators</th>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Equivalence with OECD CAD markers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>There is important risk of enhancing gender inequality through the project</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>There is an opportunity to reduce gender inequality through the project but no dialogue or specific measures have been considered to do so</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>There is no specific gender issue to be addressed by the project</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+1</td>
<td>Needs and interests of men and women have been analyzed and discussed with the partner but no specific objective or measure have been designed</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+2</td>
<td>One of the project’s objectives is to ensure effective access to women to the opportunities created by the project</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+3</td>
<td>Women empowerment and structural reduction of gender inequalities is part of the project’s main objectives OR is a cross-cutting objective of the project</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 - AFD Sustainable Development Analysis on Gender Equality

As per the CAD marker screening, the sustainable development analysis is fully integrated to the project cycle from the project’s identification phase to the final financing decision, and is validated by the sustainable development opinion, issued by a structure independent from AFD’s Operations Department.

In order to ensure the proper implementation of gender analysis and integration of gender equality objectives to AFD-funded operations, quantitative and qualitative gender analyses are thus defined during the whole project appraisal, including:

10) Pre-identification stage - understanding the roles and responsibilities of men and women and different social groups in the project by making an inventory of gender relations, and developing and maintaining a regular dialogue with partners in the countries;
11) Identification stage – conducting initial gender analysis and assessment, in order to identify project risks and opportunities in terms of gender issues;
12) Feasibility studies/ex-ante evaluation stage - improving the analysis to ensure the communities’ motivations are well understood (this analysis articulates with the overall feasibility studies of the project), identifying relevant indicators and precisely defining costs related to the implementation of a gender strategy for the Project;
13) Granting stage - confirming that the studies conducted have addressed all gender issues;
14) Execution stage - integrating gender issues into the contract documents and developing indicators to perform on-going monitoring and evaluation of these actions and their effectiveness.

The gender analysis is conducted by AFD E&S and Gender team of experts, and, as such, is linked to E&S due diligence².

1.2. Tools and Supporting Mechanisms
As stated above, the support to gender analysis and assessment, and integration of gender equality objectives to Projects is carried out by AFD’s Environmental and Social Experts, who are fully part of the Project team and participate as much as needed to Project appraisal, being part of evaluation missions if necessary, in order to ensure not only appropriate E&S risk management, but also proper gender analysis to promote the definition of gender equality objectives. This team is also in charge of organizing and/or supporting internal training sessions on gender, both at headquarters and local offices level, and continuous capacity-building of AFD teams.

In addition to that, AFD has developed a series of tools to help the conduction of gender analysis on projects, such as gender country profiles, sectoral gender toolkits, etc. Such tools are available for AFD teams and partners, being published on AFD’s website³.

II. Gender Strategy for the Program

2.1. Main Stakes and Challenges
Considering the objectives and sectors targeted by the Program, gender-related activities can be addressed through:

(i) Cross-cutting approaches to gender equality: whatever the sector of intervention and eligibility criteria, Projects can be analyzed and include cross-cutting approaches to gender equality, through:

i. Gender-based analysis of climate change exposure: since all Projects to be part of this Program intend to fight against climate change, the possible differentiated impacts of climate change on men and women can be analyzed on all projects. Particular attention must be put on the possible increased vulnerability of women to climate change, but also on the role women can play in fighting against climate change and developing adaptation strategies and activities. Whenever possible, specific activities will be integrated to Projects in order to reduce vulnerability of women and increase women’s role in climate change adaptation and mitigation.

ii. Capacity-building of project partners (LFPs and end beneficiaries) on gender-related topics: thanks to technical assistance programs, the organization of

² As described in the E&S Framework.
³ https://www.afd.fr/fr/page-thematique-axe/egalite-des-sexes
awareness and training sessions for LFPs and/or their clients can be easily integrated to the Projects. Particular attention will be put on gender and climate topics, and, according to each Project, to the sector(s) targeted.

(ii) **Specific thematic approaches:** in line with the objectives of the Program, gender equality objectives will be also considered looking at the following specific issues:

- **Women economic participation:** promotion of gender equality at work within LFPs and their clients, women empowerment and economic participation on subprojects, support to women entrepreneurship, financial inclusion of women, etc.

- **Equal access to services:** access to energy and water, access to housing, etc., with specific attention granted to female-headed households.

Table 2 introduces example of gender components and activities according to the sectors targeted by the Program.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sectors</th>
<th>Mitigation</th>
<th>Adaptation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Industries / Services</strong></td>
<td>Energy efficiency of industrial processes and in buildings</td>
<td>Reduction of water leakages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Renewable energy development (incl. IPP, auto consumption, etc.)</td>
<td>Water re-use systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Examples of gender-related activities</strong></td>
<td>Construction of infrastructures resilient to climate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Agriculture / Forestry</strong></td>
<td>Methanization of agriculture waste</td>
<td>Irrigation monitoring and control system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PV solar systems for irrigation /Sustainable forestry exploitation</td>
<td>Rainwater harvesting system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Examples of gender-related activities</strong></td>
<td>Adaptation of cultivated species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individuals / Professionals</strong></td>
<td>Solar water heaters, bio digesters, PV solar power/High energy performance / quality housing</td>
<td>Installation of water flow limiting devices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Examples of gender-related activities</strong></td>
<td>Specific support (e.g. investment grants) to female-headed households in access to energy efficient or renewable energy devices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 - Examples of gender-related activities per sector

**The Gender Approach for the Program is Project-specific.** Specific indicators and activities are therefore defined on a case-by-case basis according to the framework established in Annex 1 – Indicative Gender Action Plan for the Program.
2.2. Methodology

The approach to gender analysis and assessment for the Program is based on and will refer to AFD’s approach to gender and equality between men and women, and GCF’s guidelines to gender analysis/assessment and Gender and Social Inclusion Action Plan Templates.

Minimal Requirements

In line with AFD and GCF’s gender approaches, each Project is assessed to comply at least with the following requirements:

- Basic gender analysis: the roles of men and women in the sectors targeted by the Project are assessed (e.g. through the feasibility study) and the findings of gender analysis clearly appear in Project appraisal documentation. Project appraisal documentation details why (or why not) gender is an objective of the Project.
- Sex-disaggregated data: quantitative indicators for the Project are sex-disaggregated where relevant.
- Integration of gender into ESDD for Subprojects: ESDD include risk analysis in terms of gender inequalities, and defines measures to avoid, minimize or offset such risk.

Such basic assessment is conducted by AFD Gender Expert during Project Appraisal, with the support of AFD Project Managers and local offices.

Definition of gender objectives

On the basis of the initial gender analysis and in line with AFD methodology as described above, specific or general objectives are designed to promote gender equality through the project. Such objectives can be formulated at the level of the LFP (e.g. gender action plans to strengthen gender equality at work, to train personnel on gender-related issues), at the level of Subprojects, in line with the targeted sector, or both. These objectives are based on the initial assessment and are discussed and agreed with LFPs, with AFD overall coordination. Whenever necessary, specific baseline studies are conducted in order to identify gender equality stakes in the country, sector, and possibly within the LFP, and to define gender-specific indicators for the Project.

- **Examples of Projects with gender general objectives:**
  - A project that supports gender equality at work within the LFP and its clients as an eligibility criteria to a credit facility
  - A project aiming at supporting women entrepreneurs through training, and target beneficiaries
  - A project supporting energy efficiency in social housing with focus on single-headed families

- **Examples of Projects with gender specific objectives:**
  - A project in which the LFP conducts a gender assessment and designs and implements a gender action plan to enhance gender equality within its internal organization
  - A project that includes a specific study on the role of women in designing and participating to climate change adaptation activities in agriculture
  - A project that includes specific awareness and training sessions to promote gender equality in the management of community water management infrastructures
Implementation of gender activities

Technical Assistance Programs are crucial in implementing activities that promote gender equality within the Program. Since awareness and training are key to the development of gender equality, specific expertise in that field is to be considered in the TA recruitment. Thanks to the support of gender experts in a punctual or continuous basis – depending on a Project’s gender objective – TA activities are designed and implemented, as for instance:

- Support to the design and implementation of gender action plans for LFPs and end beneficiaries
- Support to gender analysis within E&S due diligence
- Design and conduction of awareness campaigns for end beneficiaries
- Design and conduction of a capacity-building program including tools and training sessions for LFP staff
- Conduction of gender specific studies, e.g. on the roles of men and women in the sector targeted by the Project
- Organization of knowledge-sharing events between stakeholders involved in gender-related topics
- Design of awareness and communication tools to support the promotion of gender equality
- Knowledge management activities with gender focus
- Support to the inclusion of gender data in monitoring and evaluation systems

Synergies have to be looked at between Projects, not only to ensure consistency within the Program, but also to encourage learning between peers. Activities such as seminars or workshops between LFPs with specific focus on gender are encouraged.

Gender Action Plans

Based on the objectives adopted for each Project, a Gender Action Plan must be defined with the LFP and other relevant Project stakeholders during Project appraisal. This Gender Action Plan will follow the GCF template as per Annex 2 – Gender Action Plan template for Projects and its definition will fully involve AFD’s Gender experts.
Annex 1 – Indicative Gender Action Plan for the Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
<th>Costs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact Statement:</strong></td>
<td>Increased resilience of vulnerable communities, including women and girls, to the negative impacts of climate change, and increased involvement of women in private sector activities targeting climate change adaptation and mitigation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcome Statement:</strong></td>
<td>100% of the LFPs involved in the Program have built capacity on gender. At least 50% of the Projects developed through the Program include a gender equality objective.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output(s) Statement:</strong> Write the output statement here.</td>
<td>In many cases, there will be more than one output for a project or program; therefore, for each output statement a separate row should be created followed by associated activities, gender – performance indicators, sex – disaggregated targets, timeline and responsibilities. (Note: an output statement highlights what the project/program intends to achieve in the short term due to project/program activities. Example of an output statement in, say, an energy efficiency project/program is: installed meters, new and subsidized service connections and improved supply quality).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Cross-cutting approaches to gender equality:</strong></td>
<td>Gender-based analysis of climate change exposure</td>
<td>100% of Projects appraisal processes integrating gender</td>
<td>AFD</td>
<td>To be determined according to each Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Capacity-building of project partners (LFPs and end beneficiaries) on gender-related topics: training sessions, awareness campaigns, continuous capacity-building, etc.</td>
<td>Nb. of gender-specific studies conducted</td>
<td>LFPs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nb. of training sessions on gender and climate conducted</td>
<td>Technical Assistance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nb. of LFP staff members trained on gender-related topics (sex-disaggregated)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nb. of awareness sessions conducted</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Sector-specific approaches</strong></td>
<td>Nb. of gender equality in the workplace assessments conducted</td>
<td>All along Program implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women economic participation: promotion of gender equality at work within LFPs and their clients, women empowerment and economic participation on subprojects, support to women entrepreneurship, financial inclusion of women, etc.</td>
<td>Nb. of LFPs having adopted a gender action plan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equal access to services: access to energy and water, access to housing, etc., with specific attention granted to female-headed households.</td>
<td>Nb. of LFPs clients having adopted a gender action plan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nb. of gender-specific investments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nb. of women-owned businesses supported</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nb. of men and women final beneficiaries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nb. of female-headed households beneficiary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nb. of training sessions adapted to gender-specific issues conducted</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Annex 2 – Gender Action Plan template for Projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timeline</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
<th>Costs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impact Statement:</strong> Write the project/program impact statement here (Note: an impact statement briefly summarizes, in lay terms, the difference the project/program will make over time. It also states the long – term gender, social, economic, environmental impacts to which the project/program will contribute. Examples of impact statements in, say, a climate change/energy efficiency project/program: increased resilience of vulnerable communities, including women and girls, to the negative impacts of climate change; improved access to affordable, year – round clean energy services for all households, including poor and female – headed households).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Outcome Statement:</strong> Write the project/program outcome statement here (Note: the outcome statement should be specific, measurable and let project managers know when project goals are achieved. An outcome statement describes specific changes in knowledge, attitude, skills, and behaviours that will occur due to actions undertaken by the project/program. Example of an outcome statement in, say, a gender – responsive energy efficiency MSME project/program: improved business opportunities for an estimated X no./percentage of women – led/owned energy efficiency enterprises).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output(s) Statement:</strong> Write the output statement here. In many cases, there will be more than one output for a project or program; therefore, for each output statement a separate row should be created followed by associated activities, gender – performance indicators, sex – disaggregated targets, timeline and responsibilities. (Note: an output statement highlights what the project/program intends to achieve in the short term due to project/program activities. Example of an output statement in, say, an energy efficiency project/program is: installed meters, new and subsidized service connections and improved supply quality).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(This is the place where the project/program team inserts a brief list of activities. Activities are those that tell us what the project/program will do; sometimes referred to as interventions. Examples of activities associated with the above output are):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(i) Poor and socially excluded female headed households (FHH) provided new meters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Poor and vulnerable FHHs provided with new service connections</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Increase in female-headed, start-up, energy-based microenterprises</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Women self – help groups (SHGs) trained as trainers for the implementation of gender-sensitive energy user awareness programs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Public awareness program implemented, targeting women’s spaces and men, to include information on:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• provision of concessory/subsidized rates for households below the poverty line</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• support for metering and easy payment systems</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outline the indicators and targets here (Note: A good indicator should be able to measure the quantity, quality and timeliness of products (goods or services) that are the result of an activity, project or program. On the other hand, a target should – in the case of the GAP – be disaggregated by sex. Targets, disaggregated by sex, is an effective way to measure quantifiable [and differential] results for women, men, girls and boys. Examples of gender – performance indicators and sex – disaggregated targets are):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• X% FHHs and X% of other vulnerable HHs (e.g. widowed, minorities, differently – abled, the elderly) in project areas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• X% of poor and vulnerable FHHs in (This is the place where the project/program team inserts the timeline for each of the indicators/targets. Examples are shown below):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By X year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By X year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(This is the place where the party/organization/entity/partner will be responsible for ensuring the achievement of targets, as outlined in the indicator and targets column. Examples are provided below):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accredited Entity/Executing Agency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Highlight here which party/organization/entity/partner will be responsible for undertaking each activity. Examples are provided below): US$ X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US$ X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gender documents for FP090

GROWING A FOCUSED
SUSTAINABLE AND DEVELOPMENTAL
DBSA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Nthabiseng Tlhoaele</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Division</td>
<td>Office of the CIO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit</td>
<td>Investment Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Report Type</td>
<td>Gender Assessment Report and Gender Action Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Version</td>
<td>Ver.2 (07 May 2018)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>SADC Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub Sector</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Name</td>
<td>Climate Finance Facility for SADC Region (Green Bank)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Type</td>
<td>GCF Funding Proposal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Lead Investment Officer(s)</td>
<td>Muhammed Sayed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Project Timeframe</td>
<td>May 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submission Date</td>
<td>May 2018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.1. Introduction

This report provides an overview of the gender situation and key gender matters in South Africa, Lesotho, Namibia and Swaziland. In addition the assessment also discusses gender issues that are relevant to the Programme. This report used data collected from various sources, and the cited material can be provided upon request. In addition to the gender assessment, a gender action plan is also included in this assessment document. The report provides an overview of gender matters within SADC as a region, and also the gender matters in the individual countries mentioned.

1.2. Gender Mainstreaming within SADC Region

In 1996 the SADC Gender Unit was established, following a decision taken by the SADC Heads of Governments. This was after a call was made for the development of a coordinating mechanisms for gender equality and women empowerment at a regional level. The SADC Gender Unit facilitates gender mainstreaming in all SADC institutions through the following activities:

- Working to support all the structures and institutions to mainstream gender in their policies, programmes and activities;
- Building capacity on gender analysis to facilitate planning for programmes and projects;
- Sensitize, enroll, engage and empower our stakeholders to understand, appreciate and make the case for gender concerns, and priorities; and
- Developing and providing the technical guidance in accelerating and strengthening gender mainstreaming and women's empowerment programmes.

(Source: www.sadc.int)

a) Poverty and Economic empowerment

According to studies undertaken, women constitute more that 50% of the poor population in SADC and poverty can only be addressed through programmes which specifically target the majority of the poor. Women constitute the majority of the poor in the region for a number of reasons including high illiteracy rates, restrictive and discriminatory laws, and limited access to, and control over, productive resources.

The economic empowerment and improvement of women not only benefits them, but also contributes towards sustainable development and poverty alleviation. Women spend a higher percentage of their income on feeding and educating their children, which is aimed at the wellbeing of their families. Economic independence of women, is crucial as it counteracts exploitation, feminization of poverty, discrimination and disregards of their fundamental human right. Gender equality at the economic
level therefore contributes directly to the reduction of poverty and overall development. (Source: www.sadc.int)

The SADC has since developed the SADC Women’s Economic Empowerment Framework, with the intention being to coordinate and implement the SADC region’s commitments on women’s economic empowerment.

Article 17 of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development deals specifically with economic empowerment, with the following being the proposed commitments:

- **Adopt policies and enact laws** which ensure equal access, benefit and opportunities for women and men in trade and entrepreneurship, taking into account the contribution of women in the formal and informal sectors;
- **Review their national trade and entrepreneurship policies**, to make them gender responsive; and
- With regard to the **affirmative action provisions** in Article 5, introduce measures to ensure that women benefit equally from economic opportunities, including those created through public procurement process.

b) **Politics and Decision making**

Southern African Development Community (SADC) Member States are proactively working towards equal representation of men and women politics and decision making positions at all levels such as in Cabinet; Parliament, Council, Management of the Public Services, Chief Executive Officers and Boards of State Owned Enterprises/Parastatals as well as the Private sector. A number of countries, including Angola, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Tanzania, have on average more than 30% women’s representation in the upper and lower houses of parliament. A number of countries have legislated minimum quotas for women’s representation in parliaments. (Source: www.sadc.int)

Article 12 of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development (2008) requires that “States Parties shall endeavor that, by 2015, at least fifty percent of decision-making positions in the public and private sectors are held by women including the use of affirmative action measures as provided for in Article 5. The SADC Gender Protocol Barometer produced by the Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance was development with the intention of measuring progress in the implementation of the SADC Gender Protocol by the Member States. However at the time of the writing of this report, it was not known what progress had been made thus far.
c) Administrative Framework pertaining to Gender Equality

Member states of the SADC region are signatories to the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, and have pledged to facilitate and encourage the integration and mainstreaming of gender issues into the initiatives and programmes undertaken in SADC, to ensure sustainable development of the region. The objectives of the SADC Gender protocol are as follows:

- To provide for the empowerment of women, to eliminate discrimination and to achieve gender equality and equity through the development of gender responsive legislation, policies, programmes and projects;
- To harmonize the implementation of the various instruments to which the SADC member states have subscribed to at the regional continental and intercontinental level, on gender equality and equity;
- To address emerging gender issues and concerns;
- To set realistic, measureable targets, time frames and indicators for achieving gender equality and equity;
- To strengthen, monitor and evaluate the progress made by SADB member states towards achieving the targets and goals set out in the Gender protocol; and
- To deepen regional integration, attain sustainable development and strengthen community building.

(Source: SADC Protocol on Gender and Development)

1.3. Analysis of Gender Matters in South Africa

a) Existing Gender Inequality

The World Bank's South Africa Economic outlook report (2016), revealed that South Africa remains one of the most unequal societies in the world, and that currently there is insufficient economic growth. The share of national consumption between the richest and poorest remains stubbornly stable: 20% of the richest population accounted for over 61% in consumption in 2011 down from a high of 64% in 2006. Meanwhile, the bottom 20% have been seen to remain fairly constant at below 4.5% (Statistics South Africa 2014).

According to the World Bank report, access to finance is a major challenge for small to medium enterprises ("SMEs"), and the main reason for this is the lack of suitable financial products offered by banks, and inadequate capacity of local business founders to present their funding needs to financial institutions. (World Bank South Africa Economic outlook, 2016). For women owned companies and organizations, access to finance is even more difficult to attain. As such the proposed Programme should ensure that women led organizations and companies are effectively included in the process. The following section provides a synopsis of the breakdown of the key societal issues in South Africa, in terms of gender split.
b) **Poverty**

The last decade has witnessed a marked increase in the number of people who are classified as poor across the world, including South Africa, where three–quarters or 71% of the rural households were found to be poor. Over three in five (61%) of African households are poor compared to 38% of coloured households, 5% of Indian and 1% of white. Poverty has placed the greatest stress on family units but also on women, children and young people. Statistics South Africa ("StatsSA") in their Vulnerability Indicator report (2016) indicates that approximately 10.3% of males in South Africa are vulnerable to hunger, as compared with 13.8% of females. So more females are likely to experience hunger than men.

Inequalities still exist among men and women, even though the South African national government has put in place some measures and programmes to allow for the empowerment of women. Women continue to experience the increasing deepening of a phenomenon called the feminization of poverty because of various other socio-economic factors such as the gendered division of labour in the household, the low value accorded to women’s work, and the concomitant clustering of women in low-paid jobs.

c) **Education**

The Vulnerability Indicator report (2016) by StatsSA indicated that 86.7% of South African males are functionally literate, whereas only 84.1% of women in South Africa are functionally literate. 57.8% of women have education up until Matric level, as compared to 55.7% of men. As thus women still lack behind in terms of basic literacy levels as compared to men, even though the gap in this case is not significantly big.

d) **Income and Labour force**

The table below indicates that more men than women participate in the South African labour force, and the information obtained from Statistics SA indicates that this disparity is in both the formal and informal employment sectors. This then indicates the importance of uplifting women and capacitating them, thereby enabling them to be in a position to participate meaningfully in the economic and employment sector. The gender disparity portrayed in the South African context are not different from the realities women are faced with in Lesotho, Swaziland and Namibia since the industry structure is similar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Economic structure, participation and access to resources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>labour force participation rate (% of population ages 15+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>labour force participati on rate (% of populatio n ages 15+)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Labour force statistics for Sub-Saharan Africa, South Africa and the world
Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality

South Africa achieved democracy in 1994. Central to this democracy was a commitment to equality, including gender equality and the empowerment of women. The founding principles of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa include human rights, equality and freedom for everyone in South Africa. Chapter 2: Section 9 of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), emphasises the need for equality for all mankind within the country. According to this section of the constitution, there shall be no unfair discrimination against anyone on the basis of race, gender, sexual orientation, disability, etc.

After 1994, the principle of gender equality influenced policy and legislation formulation in economic and development related areas such as access to employment, land, housing, water, health care and public works programme among others. Furthermore, the South African government developed and implemented key domestic development programmes with an overarching focus to address the legacy of colonialism and apartheid. These included inter alia, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (“RDP”); Growth, Employment and Redistribution (“GEAR”) Shared Growth Initiative – South Africa (“ASGISA”) and many others. These programmes have culminated in the master development plan for the country, namely the National Development Plan (“NDP”). Although these programmes, were meant to advance the country, they did not specifically focus on women, resulting therefore in the challenge of unemployment, poverty and inequality continuing to impact negatively on women in particular.

Additional programmes such as the Presidential Infrastructure Coordination Commission (“PICC”) and Operation Phakisa and the Green Economy have been put in place with the sole aim of providing the much-needed jobs and grow the South African economy.

At an international scale, the South African Government ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (“CEDAW”). The South African Government also recognises the Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action, and of the areas of concern under the Beijing Declaration, South Africa has prioritised the following:

- Women and poverty;
- Women and education
- Women and economic empowerment;
• Women in power and decision-making; and
• Improving the conditions and situation of the girl child.

At a regional scale, South Africa is a signatory to the SADC Declaration on Gender

However, there is a concern that even with the various programmes and strategic plans and documentation in place, the advancement and upliftment of women across various sectors in South Africa is still lacking.

f) Gender and water sector in South Africa

South Africa is a water stressed country characterized by low rainfall, limited underground aquifers, and a reliance on significant water transfers from neighboring nations. Amid these challenges, the country has made a considerable progress with access to water. Access to clean basic water has improved from 77% in 2000 to 85% in 2015 (JMP, 2017). Disparity with regard to access to basic water exist between urban and rural areas where access in urban areas was estimated at 97% and only 63% in rural areas. Access in urban areas is mainly through piped water in dwelling/yard/plot and in informal settlement and peri-urban areas the service could be through public standpost while in rural areas it is mainly through public standpost. Access to basic sanitation was estimated at 73% in 2015, an increase from 59% in 2000 (JMP, 2017).

In South Africa, recognizing the role women play in the water sector is significant, hence, gender mainstreaming in the water sector is essential, as women are still lagging behind men in a number of indicators. With the realities of climate change, South Africa has recently experienced severe droughts, particularly in the Western Cape where more than 33 300 jobs losses were recorded, cereal production decreased by 32%, wheat by 21% and canola by 21%. The associated monetary losses were calculated to be over R1 billion.

The 2012 water sector survey indicated private sector jobs which indicated gender disparity where more men (62.2%) were employed than women (37.8%). Gender disparity in municipalities indicated 69.4% male employed as opposed to 30.6% women. Employment in the water intensive sectors such as construction, agriculture and transport and storage amounts to almost half a million people in Western Cape alone (203 661; 170 662 and 108525 respectively).

In response to climate change, the country is envisaged to implement water related projects that promote water efficiency and treatment. Such projects will create jobs, grow business and the economy through development of water value chain with the ultimate goal of alleviating poverty. In addition, such projects will build resilience to drought of all vulnerable groups while ensuring greater water use efficiency and promoting use of alternative water. In water intensive sectors, the projects will build business resilience for and will contribute to more resilient and sustainable cities and businesses.

It is estimated that the CFF will create at least 132 jobs in the water efficiency treatment and production projects, of which 59 jobs will be for females.
g) **Gender and waste management in South Africa**

With regard to men and women’s role in the water sector, men are perceived to be engaged in productive roles and women in reproductive roles such as managing household waste. Gender mainstreaming in waste management sector is key for successful management of waste and promoting a cleaner environment with responsible consumption and production.

In addressing vulnerabilities to climate change in waste management, South Africa will implement projects that promote sustainable use of resources in waste-to-energy, biomass and biogas. Such projects will create jobs, grow business and the economy, ensure greater use of resource efficiency, and reduce GHG emissions.

The IDC estimated various number of jobs to be created within green technologies. Those are: waste-to-energy (70 short term; 354 in medium term and 1 178 in long term); biomass combustion (115 short term; 14 504 medium term and 37 270 long); anaerobic digestion (131 short term; 385 medium term and 1 425 long); and pyrolysis/gasification (240 short term, 1 688 medium term and 4 348 long term).

**It is estimated that the CFF will create at least 1 034 jobs in the waste to energy sector of which 465 will be for females.**

h) **Gender and energy in South Africa**

In the energy sector, South Africa will address vulnerability to climate change through addressing gender inequalities by creating more jobs for women, and through the provision of cleaner energy. The manufacturing opportunity in local lamination of solar PV panels provides a significant opportunity for gender-sensitive development. There are examples of current facilities with 80% of employees in PV lamination facilities being women.

**It is estimated that the CFF will create 2 700 jobs in renewable energy generation of which 1 215 will be for women.**

1.4. **Analysis of Gender Matters in Lesotho**

a) **Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality**

Lesotho Government does has a Constitution that recognizes the rights of women. However because Lesotho applies a dual legal system (consisting of both customary and common law), in some instances the provisions of customary law override the provisions of common law, especially when coming to aspects of gender equality. Lesotho is a party to the CEDAW.

According to Gender Index at times it appears that the customary and common laws in the country are inconsistent with each other. There are cases whereby common law allows for women to have rights and
access to financial resources, land and inheritance, but in some parts of the country customary law is still respected more than common law. But generally it appears that the government prefers to implement the provisions of common law more than those of customary law.

In some parts of the country cultural and traditional norms are still followed, whereby in cases of domestic violence, some women go to the extent of believing that men/husbands have the right to ‘punish’ their spouses. The country does not specifically have a Domestic Violence Act, but there are provisions in other applicable pieces of legislations against acts of violence.

Lesotho does have a National Policy on Gender, and there is also a Ministry of Gender dedicated towards gender matters in the country.

b) Status quo on Gender aspects in Lesotho

The following is an indication of the status quo with regards to the status of women in Lesotho, as outlined by the African Development Bank: Indicators on Gender, Poverty and the Environment (2017):

- Females made up 50.4% of the total population in the country in year 2016; a figure that has decreased from 51.5% in year 2000.
- Life expectancy at birth for women in 2016 was standing at 50yrs, as compared to 48yrs in 2000. By contrast, for men the life expectancy was standing at 50yrs in 2016; up from 47yrs in year 2000. This trend indicates that women are likely to live longer than men. However in both cases it can also be argued that positive changes in the quality of life has increased life expectancy for both sexes.
- Females made up 45.3% of the total labour force in 2016, a decrease from the 48.8% in 2000.
- In year 2016 25% of women held positions in the Lesotho Parliament, with 21.7% holding ministerial positions.

Generally it appears that Lesotho as a country has made provisions (through legislation, regulatory frameworks and other initiatives) to ensure that they reach set targets for gender equality and equity. However big strides still need to be made.

c) Gender and the Water Sector in Lesotho

Lesotho is endowed with abundant water resources, and has made a considerable effort in with regard to access to safe drinking water. Provision of basic clean water has improved from 66% during 2000 to72% in 2017(JMP, 2017). Access to basic water is more in urban (87%) than rural areas (66%). Lesotho is one of the six countries in Eastern and Southern Africa where collecting water takes more than 30 minutes for more than 3 quarters of the population. Access to basic level of sanitation in Lesotho was estimated at 44% in 2015 (JMP, 2017) and 43% of the population using basic level of sanitation were located in rural area while 46% of the urban population were using basic level of sanitation. Although the country has made a remarkable progress towards achieving goal 6.1 and 6.2, of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), progress made has not yet resulted in gender disaggregated specific analysis of the water sector in the country.
Lesotho is not different from most of the Sub-Saharan African countries where the burden of fetching water rests with women and girls while lack of access to basic sanitation facilities impact most on women and girls. Most of the sanitation facilities in rural areas are pit latrines and cleaning and maintenance of such facilities rest mostly on women and girls. However, lack of gender desegregated data on sanitation related indicators such as those reflecting cultural sensitivity, different priorities between men and women, and constraints by men and women in sanitation related activities hinders evidence-based arguments and related policies directed at improving equality in access to water and sanitation services.

d) Gender and waste management in Lesotho.

With regard to household waste, it is commonly known that women are responsible for disposing of household waste where over 90% of households particularly in rural areas (Government of Lesotho, 2011) do not have access to waste disposal services. And are despising of their refuse in own dumpsite. The lack of waste disposal services increases women workload and increases the time spent on managing the service at household level thereby increasing their exposure to health risks through direct exposure to dumpsite and possible contamination of ground water resources, thus compromising a resource which many households depends on.

With regard to waste-to-energy, Lesotho implemented biogas plans in several parts of the country, however, there are challenges with regard to acceptance of technology.

e) Gender and energy in Lesotho

Lesotho rural households requires energy mainly for cocking, lighting and space heating. Data indicates that urban areas of the country have access to modern forms of energy while rural areas rely more on traditional forms of biomass for fuel. The country’s energy balance indicates that biomass energy contributes about 66% of the energy mix (Sustainable Energy for All, Undated). More than 90% of fuel used for cocking in Lesotho consist of traditional biomass comprising of shrubs, crop residue and dung while the country uses more than 95% of fuel for space heating comprising of fuelwood, dung, coal and gas. Again, collection of such fuel rests upon women and girls. Traditionally, woman and girls are responsible for preparing food for the family, which in many instances extend towards ensuring availability of fuel for space heating. When using traditional biomass for fuel, women and girls becomes exposed to indoor air pollution, hence increased respiratory disease in the country. Again, time spent on collecting fuel for cocking and heating cannot be over emphasized as poorer households are estimated to spend at least two hours a day collecting fuel given the terrain of the country.

Given the heavy reliance on traditional biomass for cocking, and space heating by rural women and girls in Lesotho, and the associated risk of fuel scarcity, health and safety, the need for renewable energy to cook and heat homes cannot be overlooked. Lesotho rural women and girls require renewable energy that is efficient, less labour intensive, save and not harmful to their health for cocking and space heating. When looking at the entire households fuel value chain that encompasses fuel kitchen designs, transportation of fuel in rural Lesotho, space heating and food preparation and processing, it is evident that the country’s household energy programme has been under-resourced. It is clear that Lesotho is
heavily dependent on biomass-based renewable energy for basic needs, therefore projects looking at new biomass technologies that are aimed at promoting the women’s access to traditional biomass resources should be supported.

When taking into account time spent by women and girls collecting fuel for biomass which in Lesotho is more than two hours daily, it becomes visible that a fraction of women’s economic contribution is unpaid, not valued and not acknowledged. Coupled with other household chores which rest on women and girls such as collecting and or pumping water, there is less focus in technology development that is aimed at improving women’s work, and gender disparity widens. To reduce gender disparities between men and women, and to improve women’s work, renewable energy technologies that are labour and time saving needs to be investigated.

Lesotho needs to invest in renewable energy that addresses women’s contribution to the economy, improves profitability, and encourages energy-intensive microenterprises. The percentage of households that are using energy efficient stoves is growing, but reliance on traditional biomass is unsustainable as fuelwood is increasingly becoming scarce.

1.5. Analysis of Gender Matters in Swaziland

a) Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality

Section 20 and Section 28 of the Constitution of Swaziland (2006) provides for the same legal right between men and women. Swaziland is also a signatory to the CEDAW, and the SADC Protocol on Gender. However in Swaziland, the complexity of the strong adherence to cultural norms and practices arguably threatens some efforts for gender equity and gender equality. The National Gender Policy was adopted in 2010.

b) Status quo on Gender aspects in Swaziland

The following is an indication of the status quo with regards to the status of women in Swaziland, as outlined by the African Development Bank: Indicators on Gender, Poverty and the Environment (2017):

- Females made up 50.5% of the total population in the country in year 2016; a figure that has decreased from 51.6% in year 2000.
- Life expectancy at birth for women in 2016 was standing at 48yrs, as compared to 49yrs in 2000. By contrast, for men the life expectancy was standing at 50yrs in 2016; up from 48yrs in year 2000. This trend indicates that indicates that men are likely to live longer than women, but what can be deemed as concerning is that while the life expectancy for men increased in the same time period, it decreased for women. As thus it can somewhat be argued that factors that increased the quality of life for men in the stated period, did not necessary increase the quality of life for women.
- Between the period 2000 to 2015 the number of women living with HIV/AIDS also increased.
• Females made up 39.3% of the total labour force in 2016, an improvement from the 36.0% in 2000. Also interesting is that records show that despite challenges 59% of women are self-employed and approximately 70% of small enterprises are women-owned.

• In year 2016 6% of women held positions in the Swati Parliament, down from 14% in year 2000. However at ministerial level 26.3% of women held positions in year 2015, up from 13.3 percent in year 2005. There has however not been much of a change over the years in terms of the percentage of positions held by women in sub-ministerial and administrative management positions.

In addition to what has been stated above, the According to Gender Index the following are some of the challenges also experienced by women in the Swati nation.

• There are still challenges with access to formal and adequate healthcare services, as most properly development healthcare facilities are based in urban areas, albeit the fact that approximately 70% of the population resides in rural areas.

• With regards to education, there appears to be very little gender gaps between the sexes at primary school enrolment stage. However at secondary and higher education levels, more men than women are in school. It is thought that gender inequalities in education start being prominent at age 16.

• The Sexual Offences and Domestic Violence Act was passed in 2013, but still needed support from the Royal Household. Even though the law specifies that domestic violence and sexual abuse/assault are criminal offences, there appears to be little action on the ground with regards to prosecutions, convictions and punishment measures.

• The Constitution through recognizes gender equality, and this was extended to include access to land for both sexes. But in reality access to land still favours men due to cultural and patriarchal systems, more because the right to access of land has not been legislated. In some part of the country women are allowed access to land only through a male relative, and not on their own. However in other parts of the country tribal laws recognise the increasing rate of female-headed households, and thus allow female access to land.

• Barriers also exist with regards to access to credit for women, with most women requiring spousal permission to access credit. In some instances women do not have collateral for credit, especially in cases where property is registered under the husband’s details.

• Women’s access to movement is somewhat still restricted and controlled, albeit the Constitution (Section 26) indicating that women have a right to freedom of movement. In some instances women require the permission of their husbands for the issuing of travel documents and passports, to provide an example.

The trends displayed above indicate that there might not be much implementation of gender equality initiatives and policy requirements, in order to meet the objectives and goals of gender equity and equality in Swaziland. Very serious measures have to be taken to address the matter. Government needs to be visibly pro-active in how it addresses issues of women empowerment, especially because Swaziland is a signatory to the SADC Protocol on Gender and other associated regulatory frameworks. Being a signatory should not just be an administrative duty, but there should be visible implementation on the ground.
c) Gender and water sector in Swaziland.

Gender issues in the water sector in Swaziland are not different from gender disparities as experienced in Lesotho and Namibia except the fact that in Swaziland, King Moswati III is the last remaining Monarch in Africa. King Moswati has demonstrated that he is unwilling to change the status quo and promotes aspects of patriarchal society where women are openly treated as inferior to men (ACTSA, 2016). Access to basic water in Swaziland was estimated at 68% and lower than most countries in southern Africa. Access to basic water was more in urban areas (95%) than in rural areas (60%) (JMP, 2017).

Access to basic sanitation was lower at 58% nationally where access in both rural and urban areas were the same at 58%. Open defecation is mostly practiced in rural areas (14%) than in urban areas (1%). A study on gender roles and relationships (Peter, 2006) indicated how gender roles and relations between men and women influences access, allocation and use of resources in rural Swaziland. Therefore, where decision regarding management and access to sources of water are gender blind, negative implications could result. The study also highlighted implications for gender roles and relationship for water management areas.

d) Gender and waste management in Swaziland

Gender mainstreaming in waste management highlights the differences in the way men and women handles waste. Waste generated in households have the potential for reuse and recycling and as such could create small enterprises for men and women. Waste management at household level is commonly the responsibility of women and girls, therefore, recycling and reusing waste presents opportunities for women and girls who are usually excluded from contributing to the economy due to the roles they play which are labour intensive, time consuming and often viewed as not contributing to the economy.

In urban areas, waste management is usually the responsibility of municipalities concerned, and increasingly, the role of private sector is important in waste management value chain including collection, transportation, treatment, processing, separate collection, recycling, composting and disposal. Gender sensitive projects aimed at promoting gender equality while supporting the role of women in environmental protection would benefit the Swazi women.

e) Gender and energy in Swaziland

Swaziland National Gender Policy, 2010 (Swaziland Government, 2010) realizes the role of women in management of natural resources, particularly in the energy sector. The policy indicated that women are in most cases hit hard by the effect of environmental mismanagement due to the roles they play in resource mobilization and planning. Women’s dependency on natural resources for their basic needs such as fuelwood remains to be the major concern in most developing countries where access to electricity for cooking and heating is mostly in rural areas. The policy advocate for capacity building for men and women to generate, use and disseminate knowledge on appropriate and efficient energy technologies for households use.
1.6. Analysis of Gender Matters in Namibia

a) Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality

Article 10 of the Namibian Constitution guarantees equality before the law for all people in Namibia, as well as non-discrimination based on gender/sex. In 1992 Namibia ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All forms Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and in 2004 the country ratified the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of women in Africa. The Namibian government is also a signatory to the SADC Protocol on Gender.

Namibia drafted and adopted its first National Gender Policy in 1997. However the policy was amended in response to the need to address identified shortcomings, such as the inadequate knowledge and understanding of gender mainstreaming, poor skills for gender analysis and poor coordination between stakeholders. In March 2010 the revised National Gender Policy (2010 – 2020) was adopted, in line with the National Development Plan. The policy addresses gender issues with regards to poverty and rural development, gender-based violence, health and HIV/AIDS management, governance and decision-making, programmes for the girl-child, and conflict resolution and peace building, amongst other matters.

One of the key issues about the Namibian Gender Policy is that it provides suggestions and recommendations on how adequate institutional frameworks can be created to facilitate and ensure the realisation of the goals and objectives set in the Policy document. In the country the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare has been established, and at the regional and national level there is also the National Permanent Gender Task Force (Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, 2010. National Gender Plan (2010-2020).

b) Status quo on Gender aspects in Namibia

The following is an indication of the status quo with regards to the status of women in Namibia, as outlined by the African Development Bank: Indicators on Gender, Poverty and the Environment (2017):

- Females made up 51.3% of the total population in the country in year 2016; a figure that has increased from 50.9% in year 2000.
- Life expectancy at birth for women in 2016 was standing at 68yrs, as compared to 57yrs in 2000. By contrast, for men the life expectancy was standing at 63yrs in 2016. This indicates that women are more likely to live longer than men.
- In 2015 the health life expectancy for women stood at 59years, whilst it was 56 years for men. Infant mortality rates in 2015 stood at 29.4% per 1000 for female children, as compared to 32.9% per 1000 for male children.
- Females made up 48.9% of the total labour force in 2016, an improvement from the 44.7% in 2000.
- In year 2016 41% of women held positions in the Namibian Parliament, up from 24% in year 2000. At ministerial and a sub-ministerial levels the percentage of women holding such positions also increased remarkably. This is an indication that the Namibian government is taking initiatives
to bridge the gender gap at decision making level, and also in line with the requirements of the SADC Protocol on Gender.

Regardless of the steps taken thus far, and without giving recognition to the positive results that have occurred as a result of the efforts taken, there are still aspects of gender inequality that exist in the Namibian government. For example the Gender Pay Gap in Namibia currently sits at 11.4% per annum; implying that women have to work an additional 47 days per year in order to match their male counterparts in earnings. Women still do not fare well with regards to economic participation, financial remuneration and economic opportunities, as compared to their male counterparts (Global Gender Gap Index).

Advancements towards the attainment of gender equity and gender equality in Namibia is necessary, and the implementation of this programme can play a role towards that goal.

c) Gender and water sector in Namibia

Namibia still struggle with access to water and sanitation, particularly in rural areas. In 2016, the percentage of households with access to safe water for drinking was estimated at 92.9%, (NSA, 2016), an increase from 80% that was recorded in 2011 (NSA, 2011). Disparity exist with regard to access to safe water for drinking between rural and urban areas where more access is in urban (99.4%) than rural areas (85.0%). Of the urban households who have access to safe drinking water, about 40% have access to piped water inside while 31.9% have access to piped water outside (JMP, 2017). Of note is the 15% of the rural households who do not have access to safe drinking water and have resorted to using borehole with tank uncovered, unprotected wells, rivers, canal and dams.

With regard to gender roles between men and women in the water sector, girls are more likely than boys to be engaged in fetching water, particularly in rural households. On average, women and girls spend 2 hours fetching water, and the latter add to the time women and girls spend on unpaid work (Gender Index, 2018). The rural Namibian women and girls constitute 75% of the workforce involved in collecting water and fetching firewood (AFDB, 2006). Nearly 56% of rural households involves girls in fetching water compared to 15% of boys. When factoring in time spend to collect water, the Namibian women spend more than two hours daily on household chores than men.

Although Namibia has a low population, its large land mass and the spread of population in rural areas makes it difficult for the government to provide accessible and affordable water supply to rural communities. For the rural households who are using communal taps, it was estimated that more than one third of households in rural areas live more than 500 meters away from the water source while more than 15% were living more than a kilometre away. The distance to water source plays an important role in determining the time women can spend in collecting water. The nearer the improved water source to household increases time women can spend on other chores such as caring for the sick, cooking etc. However, the closer the water source is to household has other unintended consequences such as increased water use by households, therefore, increasing time spent on the associated task.

Understanding labour dynamics between men and women is crucial to ensure that water and sanitation projects are designed and implemented in a manner that alleviate the burden of women and girls. For
example, The Himba tribe in Kunene District of the northern Namibia is one of the community where women benefitted from improved water and sanitation facilities by Red Cross. The Himba tribe was known to move around in search for water. With the improved drinking water sources and improved sanitation facilities, the community ceased to move around, while women and girls have enjoyed being positively impacted by water and sanitation programme. Other than reduced time to fetch water, improved water sources have brought about reduced water related diseases; increased school attendance by girls; and women were trained women on repairing hand pumps. Men’s responsibility with regard to access to water was limited to digging of wells.

The government has made a considerable effort in providing improved water to its citizens, however, the lack of data reflecting gender differentiated access and needs hampers any efforts directed towards gender mainstreaming in the water sector in the country.

d) Gender and waste management in Namibia

The Namibian men has the responsibility to make decisions and control the family's resources while women are left to handle day to day running of the household including among other, the responsibility to manage household waste. Since only 30.9% of households in Namibia have access to refuse removal, data suggest that the burden of household waste management for households without access to such service rest with women and girls. Traditionally, gender roles and responsibilities are taught at an early age and thus girls grow up understanding their roles. The burden of household waste management is more for rural women and girls than their urban counterparts where access to waste removal services is higher in urban (65%) than in rural areas (8.4%). In rural areas, household waste management involves burning the rubbish (27.9%) or disposing it in pits (28%) (AFDB, 2006) a chore done mostly by women and girls.

With regard to waste-to-energy, the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP, 2003) indicated that about 10 biogas plants were implemented across the country and mainly for domestic use. Given the reliance on biomass for fuel for cooking and heating, the use of waste-to-energy has proved to have benefited Namibian women where cow dung is used as the raw materials to produce biogas. In areas where fuel wood resources has dwindled due to lack of alternative fuels, biogas would benefit women and girls the most as it is in line with the National Biomass Programme of 1998 which was aimed at addressing the needs of communities faced with biomass resource problems.

e) Gender and energy in Namibia

Globally, women's role in energy has been underestimated due to the stereotype that women are not capable of building, operating and maintaining sophisticated technologies, but their role in technology has been overlooked. More professional women entering the energy sector act as role models in efforts to increase the role of women in renewable energy. Due increasing access by women to science and technology education, more women are adopting non-traditional work role in the energy sector. As consumers, women have a role to play in product development and a number of projects where women were involved in design of energy efficient products have proved to be successful. As entrepreneurs, women can be successful renewable energy entrepreneurs.
In Namibia, most energy sources consumed at household level includes either electricity or traditional fuels such as wood, charcoal and animal waste. Inter-censal Demographic Survey, 2016 indicated that 50% of Namibians use traditional fuel sources such as firewood as the main source of energy for cooking. The use of traditional sources for fuel is mostly in rural than urban areas. The rural areas accounted for 85% of fuelwood (NSA, 2016) compared to 89.1% in 2001 (NSA, 2001) while 55.5% households in urban areas used electricity as their main source of energy for cooking. Also, 21.5% of households in urban areas use fuelwood for cooking in 2016. Kuvango West region has the highest percentage of household using fuelwood for cooking (91%).

In Namibia it is the women’s responsibility to fetch fuel wood for cooking and heating. In rural areas, fuel wood is collected from communally owned land which involves travelling time. For example, 90% of the Ovamboland use firewood for cooking while urban areas like katutura the use of electricity for cooking is common. The substitution for fuelwood includes cow dung and crop residue. Scarcity of fuelwood due to deforestation contributes to households reduce their energy consumption while households with higher income may switch to modern forms of energy such as coal or kerosene. Charcoal, apart from providing the much needed source of energy for cooking, it is also a source of income for households involved in charcoal business.

Different role players exist within energy supply value chain, however, they pay little attention to differential access by men and women suggesting lack of gender sensitivity data and programmes aimed at increasing access. The lack of gender segregated data add to the challenges of gender mainstreaming in energy.

1.7. Proposed Programme Gender Action Plan

The following is the proposed Gender Action Plan for Climate Finance Facility, and the proposed plan should set the tone for how gender matters can be addressed when implementing projects that will be funded through this finance facility. The proposed Gender Action Plan should be for the projects that will be financed under this facility.

Each of the projects to be financed shall apply a gender mainstreaming approach in line with the DBSA gender requirements described in the Environmental and Social Safeguard Standards. In addition the programme shall apply a gender mainstreaming approach in line with the GCF requirements for gender mainstreaming. Internally within the DBSA the organization has three staff members dedicated to Gender Mainstreaming at a project and corporate level. The DBSA Gender Specialist assigned to projects will oversee the work done by the Gender Specialists appointed for the specific projects in this programme.

For each project, project sponsors will be obligated to prepare a project-specific Gender Action Plan, and for each project a project-specific Gender Specialist will be assigned by the project sponsor at their own cost to oversee the facilitation and implementation of the project-specific Gender Action Plan.

The table below provides a high level Gender Action Plan for the facility.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Indicators and Targets</th>
<th>Timelines</th>
<th>Responsibilities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output 1: Understanding of existing gender frameworks and existing gender practices and structures</strong></td>
<td>Review country-specific (South African, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland) gender policies, legislation and frameworks</td>
<td>Prior to project implementation</td>
<td>Project Sponsor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of the regional (SADC) gender policy for alignment with country-specific gender policies and frameworks</td>
<td>Portfolio of research undertaken and presentation of results</td>
<td>Prior to project implementation</td>
<td>Project Sponsor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alignment of regional and country-specific gender policies with GCF and DBSA Safeguard Standards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output 2: Project Sponsors have an appreciation of country-specific (South African, Namibia, Lesotho, Swaziland) gender policies and framework</strong></td>
<td>Familiarize with best practise gender policies and practices</td>
<td>Prior to project implementation</td>
<td>Project Sponsor/Gender Specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mainstream gender considerations during project implementation and operations</td>
<td>Number of workshops and information sessions held</td>
<td>Prior to project implementation and during the course of project implementation</td>
<td>Project Sponsor/Gender Specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of indicators for the measurement of outputs</td>
<td>Portfolio of project-specific indicators to be used to gauge implementation results</td>
<td>Prior to project implementation</td>
<td>Project Sponsor/Gender Specialist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Output 3: Enhanced institutional capacity for the creation, formalization and promotion of women-led businesses</strong></td>
<td>Undertake market research to determine and identify women led contractors/SMMEs to be included in geothermal projects. Collaborations with already existing NGOs and women-led organizations can be made.</td>
<td>Prior to project implementation</td>
<td>Project Sponsor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek to develop partnerships with vocational/technical training schools,</td>
<td>Number of partnerships formed with training centres/schools</td>
<td>Prior to project implementation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output 1: To enhance women’s access to</td>
<td>Provide relevant training to women appointed as local labour</td>
<td>Number of women trained and accreditation level of the training offered.</td>
<td>Project Sponsor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity building is required to allow for success</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Output 2: Review the needs of women led cooperatives to identify areas where capacity building is required to allow for success</td>
<td>Number of Issues/Areas of needs as indicated by women-led cooperatives</td>
<td>In the project cycle</td>
<td>Project Sponsor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Output 4: Women-led contractors and SMMEs appointed for programme work**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Require that at least 40% of women led contractors and SMMEs be appointed as part of service providers. Collaborations with already existing NGOs and women-led organizations can be made to help identify women-owned vendors.</th>
<th>Number of women-owned SMMEs appointed</th>
<th>Prior to project implementation and during the course of project implementation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proof of ownership to be shown by shareholding. SMMEs are to be 100% women owned, or &gt;70% female shareholding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emphasize on the employment of women at project level, for the implementation of project objectives</th>
<th>Number of women and men employed through jobs created from the project: at least 40% women hired</th>
<th>Prior to project implementation and during M&amp;E phase of project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proof of review of employment criteria to allow for gender sensitivity and inclusion of women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Emphasize the need for women at senior levels/management levels of companies at construction and operational phases | Portfolio indicating company structure, indicating positions held and persons holding such positions | Prior to project implementation and during M&E phase of project |

**Output 5: Inclusion of women at community level structures**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Require that Community Trusts have female representation</th>
<th>Portfolio of evidence indicating structure of community trusts, including structure of shareholding</th>
<th>During implementation phase and Monitoring and Evaluation phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Require that stakeholder engagement sessions include</td>
<td>Proof of stakeholder engagement meetings,</td>
<td>Prior to project implementation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.8. References


Gender Index. 2018. Gender Index Database. Namibia Country Profile. www.genderindex.org


