

Gender Assessment

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SRMI FACILITY GENDER ASSESSMENT AND ACTION PLAN

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SRMI Sustainable Renewables
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1. INTRODUCTION

The Sustainable Renewables Risk Mitigation Initiative (SRMI) Facility aims to support developing countries in advancing sustainable solar and wind programs and attracting private investments. The proposed Facility's objective is to enable seven countries to unlock GWs of solar and wind generation in the medium-term with financial support from the Green Climate Fund (GCF). Targeted countries are Botswana, Central African Republic (CAR), Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Kenya, Mali, Namibia and Uzbekistan. The SRMI Facility will deploy its support through three components, namely (i) Technical Assistance, (ii) Public Investments and (iii) Risk Mitigation Instruments.

The present Gender Assessment and Action Plan provides an overview of issues affecting men and women related to the Facility's implementation in the seven countries. It details the strategic approach that will be adopted by the SRMI Facility to effectively address these challenges and ensure the investment projects contribute to promoting female development, for instance through employment in the energy sector, while enhancing women and men's livelihoods in affected communities. Planned interventions under the present Gender Action Plan (GAP) are aligned with the GCF third policy objective to "contribute to reducing the gender gap of climate change-exacerbated social, economic, environmental vulnerabilities and exclusions through GCF climate investments that mainstream gender equality issues."

The Facility's activities will also directly support the World Bank Group 2016-2023 Gender Strategy and its four pillars of action¹. Projects will include, to the extent possible and subject to funding availability, interventions to facilitate women's access to energy services which has the potential to enhance maternal outcomes and safety (Pillar I); promote proactive policies to increase female employment along the energy value chain (Pillar II); create income-generating opportunities through access to grants or access to micro-finance for women living in the areas of implementation of the Renewable Energy (RE) projects (Pillar III) promote women's engagement in stakeholders' consultations; and implement rigorous mechanisms to prevent and respond to gender-based violence (GBV) in project areas, thus enhancing women's voice and agency (Pillar IV).

¹ The WBG Gender Strategy has four objectives: (i) Improving Human Endowments, (ii) Removing Constraints for More and Better jobs, (iii) Removing Barriers to Women's Ownership and Control of Assets and (iv) Enhancing Women's Voice and Agency and Engaging Men and Boys.

2. COUNTRY BACKGROUND

Despite varying economic and social development levels, the seven countries targeted by the SRMI Facility face similar gender gaps and energy challenges. Relations between men and women and levels of inequality vary considerably across areas: the 2020 World Economic Forum’s Gender Gap Index ranks Namibia 12th out of 153 countries, while Mali and the DRC are respectively ranked 139th and 149th. Nonetheless, all countries suffer from social norms that confine women to unpaid household and care work resulting in lower education, occupational sex-segregation and limited political participation.

In low to middle income countries where access to energy is limited, women suffer most from insufficient access to electricity and clean cooking facilities as they are mostly responsible for household chores². In Sub-Saharan Africa electrification rate stands at less than 48 percent, leaving nearly 600 million people without access to electricity³. This issue negatively impacts female economic empowerment, agency, education and health outcomes. For instance, every year, 4.3 million people – mainly women and children – die as a result of indoor air pollution⁴.

Women have limited employment opportunities in the formal sector, including in the energy industry, due to limited education, qualifications and skills. They are therefore more likely to occupy lower-paid, lower-quality jobs in family or home-based businesses, such as farming and handicrafts. Men predominate in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) fields and are disproportionately active in the construction and information technology industries. For instance, in Kenya, 11 percent of employees in STEM fields are female, against 21 percent for men. This education gap is reflected in energy infrastructure projects where female employment is lower due to a lack of technical construction and professional engineering skills⁵. Worldwide, the RE industry employs only about 32 percent of women, while it is estimated that the number of available jobs in the sector will increase from 10.3 million in 2017 to 29 million in 2050⁶. Female access to new employment opportunities created by RE projects is further constrained by cultural norms that limit women’s choice and access to non-traditional fields. Employment opportunities created by women in large-scale power projects are therefore usually in traditionally feminine sectors such as restoration and hospitality or administrative support⁷.

Women’s limited political agency and representation in political institutions translates into lower female access and participation in energy-related decision-making. With the exception of Namibia where the share of seats held by women in national parliament reaches 46 percent, none of the targeted

² Resurrección and B.Boyland,M. 2017. Gender Equality in renewable energy in the Lower Mekong: assessment and opportunities – USAID clean power Asia.

³ World Bank Data. 2018.

⁴ The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2016. Gender, Climate Change and Food Security.

⁵ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2016. Engendering Utilities: Improving Gender Diversity in Power Sector Utilities.

⁶ International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA).2019. Renewable Energy: a gender perspective.

⁷ The World Bank Group. Energy Sector Management Assistance Program (ESMAP). 2018. Getting to Gender Equality in Energy Infrastructure.

countries has more than 30 percent of female parliamentarians. In DRC, CAR, Mali and Botswana, the rate of female in Parliament does not exceed 10 percent. Women's representation and participation in the energy sector, including the RE sector, is therefore limited because women are not thought of as key stakeholders.

Although more data is needed to assess the prevalence of gender-based violence, studies indicate that women and girls routinely experience high levels of sexual harassment and intimate partner violence in target countries. This phenomenon is reinforced by social norms normalizing violence against women. For instance, and although Namibia is recognized for its progress towards equality between men and women, 33 percent of ever-married women aged 15-49 have experienced intimate partner violence, and 28 percent of women aged 15-49 approve the practice of husbands beating their wives to discipline them (Namibia Demographic Health Survey, 2013). The influx of migrant workers created during the realization of large-scale RE projects may increase GBV risks and should receive specific attention throughout the projects-cycle.

At the national level, most countries are signatories of international and regional gender equality agreements (e.g. the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women or CEDAW, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for action). Most countries have also adopted national strategies and mechanisms to address inequality between men and women. During project implementation, national and international legal frameworks may therefore be used to strengthen stakeholders' commitments to promote women's economic empowerment and agency, as it is often aligned with governmental priorities.

2.1 Botswana Profile

Botswana is a small, landlocked country located in the heart of Southern Africa. With a density population of less than 4 people per sq. km and a population estimated at 2.3 million, Botswana are highly dispersed across the country. Three major ethnic groups coexist in the country, namely the Tswana (80 percent), Kalanga (11 percent), and the Sarwa (3 percent). More than 70 percent of the country's territory is covered by desert lands, making agricultural conditions difficult. Botswana is rich in natural resources with abundant supply of diamonds, silver, copper, nickel etc. The country's economy is heavily reliant on diamond, making it highly vulnerable to the market's price volatility.

Botswana is a stable, peaceful country that has experienced one of the world's fastest economic growth in the past 50 years. It is regularly quoted as an example of good governance and responsible resource management with significant socio-economic gains. Botswana is classified as an upper middle-income country: between 2003 and 2010 poverty went down from 30.6 percent to 19.4 percent. The country has also experienced high rates of urbanization in recent years: in 1990, only 40 percent of Botswana lived in urban areas while this was the case for more than 69 percent of the population in 2018.

Despite high national investments in the delivery of social services and infrastructure, human development outcomes remain low by global standards. The country continues to grapple with unequal

distribution of wealth, high levels of poverty and unemployment, as well as HIV. Botswana's national Gini coefficient is estimated at 55.3 (2015) making it one of the most unequal societies in the world. The country's extremely low population density is a key barrier to effective service delivery. Only 60 percent of national households in Botswana have access to electricity, with significant disparities in access between urban and rural households and across the income distribution. In rural areas, only 42 percent of households have access to proper sanitation and 22 percent to electricity.

With the exception of the African Charter on Elections and Governance (ACDEG) and the Maputo protocol, Botswana is signatory of key international and regional agreements related to women's rights.

The Government of Botswana has ratified the International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention on equal pay for work of equal value, the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (1989), adopted the Beijing Platform of Action in 1995, signed the Southern African Development Community Declaration on Gender and Development (1997) as well as its addendum on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence Against Women and Children.

At the national level, Botswana has adopted a comprehensive legal framework to protect women's rights and promote gender equality. The Constitution guarantees equality for all persons irrespective of gender. The country's main reforms on women's rights are chronologically listed below:

- The **1993 amendment to the Tribal Land Act** allows any citizen, including women, to apply for any Botswana land;
- The **1996 Mines and Quarries Act** removes restrictions placed on women working underground in the mines;
- The **1996 Employment Act** guarantees equal remuneration for work of equal value;
- The **1998 Penal Code Act** stepped up penalties for sexual offences and criminalized the intentional spread of HIV;
- The **2001 Marriage Act** prohibits child marriage;
- The **2003 amendment of the Citizenship Act** allows women married to foreign nationals to pass citizenship on to their children;
- The **2004 amendment to the Penal Code** introduces a minimum sentence of ten years for rape;
- The **2004 Abolition of Marital Power Act** provides equal power for men and women within common law marriages excluding customary and religious marriages;
- The **2008 Domestic Violence Act** provides protection to survivors of domestic violence. However, it does not acknowledge marital rape.

Several national plans were adopted by the government in recent years to advance women's rights, while gender issues have been embedded across sectoral policies. Following the ratification of CEDAW in 1981, the government established a Women's Affairs Unit. In 1995, Botswana developed its first Policy on Women and Development, followed by a Development Plan (2010-2016) targeting women and marginalized groups who engage in small-scale agriculture. The National Gender-Based Violence Strategy 2015-2020 aims to support design and implementation of integrated actions to eliminate gender-based violence.

Like many other Sub-Saharan nations, Botswana continues to operate under a dual legal system, Common Law and Customary Law, with the effect of preserving some discriminations against women in practices. For instance, the Abolition of Marital Power Act exempts customary laws. However, the judicial system has recognized the principle of equality between men and women within the household in its decisions and has protected women's right to own and inherit property. This indicate progressive trends in the society that have yet to be codified.

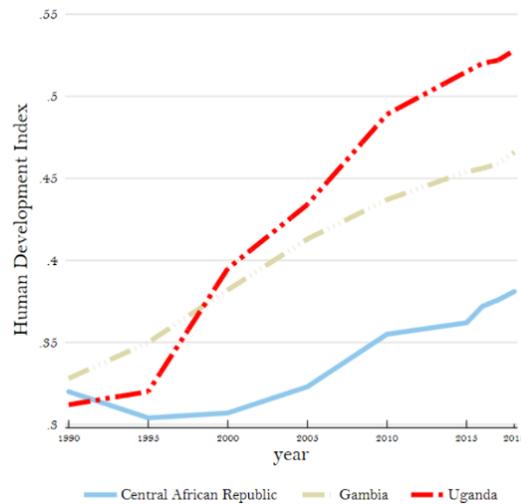
2.2 Central African Republic Profile

The Central African Republic is a landlocked country with important natural resources and an estimated population of 4.9 million. The country is rich in natural resources including diamond, gold, copper, forestry and agricultural land. CAR has one of the lowest density population in the region, with 8.3 people per square kilometer, making delivery of basic public services difficult. The country's economy relies mostly on the agriculture and livestock sectors that employ nearly 80 percent of the active population. The majority of the Central African population (60 percent) lives in rural areas.

Since 2012, the country is facing the most complex and important conflict in its history due to its intensity, duration and territorial scope. According to UN estimates, the conflict caused more than 6000 death. The Government of CAR has authority over less than 40 percent of the territory while the rest of the country is under the control of various armed groups. The political crisis turned into a humanitarian crisis, causing population displacement, the disruption of economic activity and the destruction of social infrastructure (health, education). At the national level, more than one quarter of households have been displaced. This conflict led to a 58 percent decline in crop production, increased food prices, and an elevated risk of malnutrition. The democratic and peaceful election of a new President in 2016 raised hope for stabilization, soon dashed following the resurgence of armed clashes in 2017. A new Peace Agreement was concluded between the authorities and 14 armed groups in February 2019.

CAR is one of the poorest countries in the world and was ranked second to last out of 188 countries on the United Nations 2019 Human Development Index (HDI). Repeated conflicts in recent years worsened living conditions for the population, in a country that was already plagued by high-levels of poverty, inequality, unemployment and low access to basic services. The majority of the population lives below the international poverty line and is food insecure, especially in rural areas. Life expectancy is among the lowest in the world (52 years), low even by Sub-Saharan standards. Government and institutional capacity and presence across the territory is scant; the population heavily relies on the UN peacekeeping mission MINUSCO for security and on international actors for the provision of health and education services.

Figure 1: HDI trends for Central African Republic, Uganda and Gambia, 1990-2018



Source: 2019 UNDP Human Development Report

The collapse of state institutions caused by the insecurity and poor governance has resulted in extremely limited supply of basic services and infrastructure, even in the capital city of Bangui. Only about 8 percent of the population has access to electricity which is far below the average for Sub-Saharan Africa. Outside of Bangui, access to electricity is practically non-existent (under 2 percent). Access to clean water and sanitation is a challenge across the country; 70 percent of households are without access to drinking water and 80 percent live without latrines. In areas outside of Government authority, armed groups compete for control over land and resources, hampering the provision of social services and humanitarian support to the population.

Although the Central African Republic has ratified most international and regional human rights instruments and adopted some laws and policies in favor of gender equality, legal texts remain largely unapplied and unknown to the general population. CAR ratified the African Charter on Human and Peoples in 1986, the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1991, the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1992, signed the Beijing Declaration and Platform for action in 1995, signed the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in 2008 (without ratification), and committed to the implementation of UN Security Council Resolution in 2014 through the adoption of a National Action Plan.

Despite some progress in recent years, the national legal framework remains insufficient to protect women's rights and is weakened by lack of respect for the rule of law. The country's major milestones in the field of gender equality are listed below:

- **Ordinance No. 66/16 of 1966** prohibits the practice of female genital mutilation (excision);
- **Ordinance No. 66/26 of 1966** promotes the advancement of girls and their continuation in the education system until the age of 21 years;

- **Act No. 97/013 of 1997 on the Family Code** requires the consent of both spouses for a marriage to be lawful, bans early marriage and provides that divorce may be granted at the request of either spouse. The Code guarantees women’s capacity to inherit. However, many discriminatory provisions persist. Article 254 and 255 state that the husband is the head of the family and chooses the marital home. Polygamy is authorized and a prosecutor may authorize individuals under the age of 18 to marry;
- **Act No. 06.030 of 2006 establishing the rights of people living with HIV infection/AIDS** upholds the principle of non-discrimination against people living with HIV infection/AIDS;
- **Act No. 06/032 of 2006 protecting women against violence** in the Central African Republic prohibits rape (excluding marital rape) and provides a definition of gender-based violence. However, there is no minimum sentence for rape;
- **Act No. 06.005 of 2006 on reproductive health** protects women’s access to health services so that they can have a healthy pregnancy and delivery. Abortion remains prohibited with some exceptions;
- **Act No. 09.004 of 2009 establishing the Labour Code** guarantees that all workers, regardless of origin and gender, receive an equal wage for equal work, qualifications and output;
- **Act No. 06.005 of 2016 on parity** requires 35 percent of elected and nominated women in decision-making bodies; and
- **In 2016, a new Constitution was promulgated.** It prohibits discrimination based on gender (Article 6), requires that political parties respect the principle of representation of gender (Article 131) and upholds the principle of equality between men and women (Article 148).

At the policy level, the country has adopted several national strategies to promote women’s rights in 2005⁸, 2007⁹ and 2011¹⁰ but has failed to translate its commitments within sector-specific policies. Furthermore, customary law remains widely implemented resulting in systematic discrimination against women and girls.

2.3 Democratic Republic of Congo Profile

DRC is the largest country in Sub-Saharan Africa, with an estimated population of 84 million in 2018, the third largest in the continent after Nigeria and Ethiopia. DRC’s population is diverse: while the majority belongs to the Bantu ethnicity, more than 200 ethnic groups have been identified. The country’s natural resources are among the richest and the most diverse in the world (copper, cobalt coltan, gold, diamonds, oil, etc.). DRC accounts for about 16 percent of the world’s total production of diamonds and is the largest copper producer in the continent. The Congolese population is young and mostly rural; 33 percent of the population is under 15 years old while 70 percent of the population lives in rural areas. Central DRC where both Kasai provinces are located (and where the SRMI Facility project will focus) is the center of the diamond trade and has the largest accumulation of industrial diamonds in the world.

⁸ Government of DRC. 2005. Politique Nationale de Promotion de l’Egalité et de l’Equité.

⁹ Government of DRC. 2007. Plan d’Action de la Politique Nationale de Promotion de l’Egalité et de l’Equité.

¹⁰ Government of DRC. 2011. Stratégie Sectorielle Egalité de Genre et Réduction de la Pauvreté.

Despite its natural resource wealth, DRC is one of the poorest countries in the world and is not on track to achieve any of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by 2030. The country's Human Development Index value for 2018 is 0.459 which puts it in the low human development category. DRC is ranked 179 out of 189 countries and territories by the 2019 Human Development Report. About two-thirds of the population lives below the poverty line. The proportion of poor people has only declined slightly in past decades, with disparities across regions. For instance, in both provinces of Kasaï, poverty incidence increased between 2005 and 2012¹¹. DRC's population is growing at a very fast pace, resulting in an increased absolute number of poor people in recent years. Gender gaps are observed in the distribution of poverty: widows and female-headed households are more likely to be poor due to lower access to assets and resources.

Between 1996 to 2003, DRC endured two wars that have generated massive flows of internally displaced people and refugees and killed millions of people. In the eastern region and Kasaï province, the country continues to suffer from conflict and instability fueled by ethnic tension, disputes over land ownership and resources as well as foreign interventions. According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Center, nearly 1.7 million new displacements were recorded in 2019. Félix Tshisekedi was elected president in January 2019, following an electoral process that marked the first peaceful transition of power since the country's independence in 1960.

The country's socio-economic development is hindered by poor infrastructure coverage, affecting the Congolese's population access to electricity, improved water resources and road transport. Only half of DRC's territory is accessible by road or rail transport and the country's electricity access rate is far below the regional average. Only 15 percent of the population has access to electricity and an estimated 90 percent rely on fuelwood and charcoal for energy. Lack of infrastructure particularly affect women who are responsible for water and fuel collection and are more likely than men to die from respiratory diseases and accidents caused by the low quality of cooking appliances.

In recent years, DRC has introduced a number of reforms that have removed some legal barriers to gender equality. However, discriminatory provisions remain in the Family Code as well as significant gaps with regards to gender-based violence, economic and political participation. For instance, to this date, the Congolese legal framework does not contain a specific law on domestic violence. Furthermore, a 2015 revision of the electoral law removed the requirement for a 30 percent quota of female candidates during national elections, which is considered a setback for women's political participation.

DRC has ratified most international and regional human rights instruments. They include the SADC Memorandum of Understanding on Gender and Development in 2008; the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1986); the Maputo Protocol (The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa) in 2009; the UN Convention on

¹¹ World Bank Group. 2018. Democratic Republic of Congo Systematic Country Diagnostic.

the Rights of the Child (1990); the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; and the UN Security Council Resolution on Women, Peace and Security (2010).

However, at the national level, implementation of international commitments remains weak. Customary law continues to be widely implemented across the country, especially in rural areas, even though its discriminatory provisions contradict positive law. Early marriage remains a reality for many girls, and women don't have equal access to inheritance due to the application of traditional practices. The main reforms towards gender equality adopted in the past decades are listed below:

- **The 2002 Labor Code** prohibits sexual or psychological harassment in the workplace (Article 73);
- **The Constitution of the Democratic Republic of Congo** promulgated in 2006, establishes that all human beings are equal under the law (Article 11), specifically bans discrimination against women (Article 14) and prohibits sexual violence (Article 15);
- **The Sexual violence laws of 2006** expands the definition of rape and defines the rights of survivors;
- **The 2015 Parity Act** guarantees the right of women to entrepreneurship and promotes access to savings, credit, and new technologies without discrimination on the basis of gender;
- **In 2016, the Labor Code** was amended to allow women to work at night in the mining, manufacturing and construction industries. The revised Code also establishes the principle of non-discrimination in employment.

A New Family Code was promulgated in July 2016, introducing several improvements with respect to women's rights: early marriage was banned, and equal rights recognized for husbands and wives in the household. Wives can now work without asking for their husband's authorization and their right to ownership and inheritance is recognized. The new legislation on nationality also enables women to pass their Congolese nationality on to their children. At the policy level, DRC developed a National Gender Strategy for the period 2017-2021 to promote gender equality and women's empowerment with five strategic axes¹². The Ministry of Gender, Family and Children is responsible for overseeing the Strategy's implementation, and a gender focal point has been appointed in each line ministry.

2.4 Kenya Profile

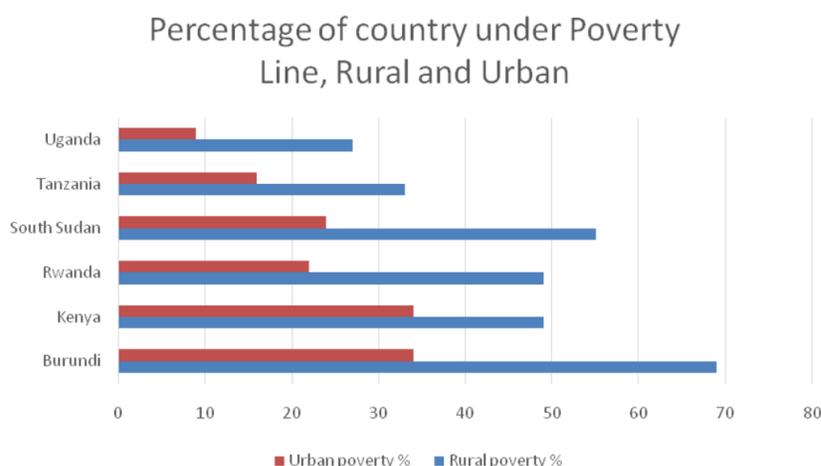
With a fertility rate estimated at 3.5 births per woman and a population of 51 million people, Kenya is among the world's 33 countries projected to see their populations increase five-fold or more by 2100¹³. Despite rapid rate of urbanization, nearly 73 percent of the Kenyan population continues to live in rural areas. Only 20 percent of the country's land is arable, with the rest of the territory being classified as arid or semi-arid. Kenya achieved lower-middle-income status in 2012. The country's economy is driven by the agriculture and tourism sector.

¹² These are : (i) consolidation of gender equality and women's empowerment (ii) strengthening the role and place of women and girls in the economy and employment; (iii) increased access of women and girls to decision-making spheres; (iv) fight against forms of sexual violence; and (v) strengthening the institutional mechanism for implementation of the National Gender Policy.

¹³ The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA).2017.

Although Kenya has experienced sustained economic growth, social development and political gains over the past decade, high levels of poverty and inequality persist. In 2015, 36 percent of the population lived below the national poverty line and 56 percent of the urban population lived in slums. With a Gini coefficient of 40.8, Kenya remain an unequal society with wide regional disparities between arable and arid regions. In the latter areas where 20 percent of the population lives, provision of basic social services remain a challenge due to low population density, infrastructure deficits and insecurity.

Figure 2: Percentage of country under Poverty Line, Rural and Urban (percentage)



Source: Population Reference Bureau and EACREE report, 2018

With an agriculture sector accounting for more than a fourth of the country’s gross domestic product, Kenya is highly vulnerable to climate change. In recent years, the frequency of droughts has increased and exacerbated the vulnerability of the population living in arid and semi-arid areas. In the remaining 30 percent of the territory, climate change has intensified pressure on existing natural resources, especially forest and soil. The tourism industry is also likely to be impacted by the anticipated loss of bio-diversity. The country will experience increased flooding, particularly affecting urban areas through the destruction of infrastructure and homes and the development of water borne diseases.

Kenya has achieved rapid progress in electrification and is the only country in East Africa on track for meeting the Sustainable Development Goal of universal electricity access by 2030. In less than a decade, Kenya more than tripled electricity access in the country. In 2017, about 64 percent of the population had access to electricity compared to 19.2 percent in 2010. However, 17 million people remain without access to electricity, especially in rural areas, owing to high electricity fees and geographical inaccessibility. Traditional use of biomass for cooking (wood fuel, dung, charcoal, and agricultural waste) continues to predominate across the country with negative impact on health incomes. 34 million people do not have access to clean cooking in Kenya¹⁴.

¹⁴ East African Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency (EACREEE). 2018. Situation Analysis of Gender and Sustainable Energy in the East African Community.

Figure 3: Access to electricity in Eastern African Countries

Country	Total population (Millions)	Access to electricity (% of population)	Access to electricity, rural (% of rural population)	Access to electricity, urban (% of urban population)
Burundi	11.1	11.0	3.4	61.6
Kenya	51.3	75.0	71.6	83.9
Rwanda	12.3	34.7	23.4	89.0
South Sudan	10.9	28.2	23.6	46.8
Tanzania	56.3	35.5	18.8	68.3
Uganda	42.7	42.6	38.0	57.5

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators, 2018

Kenya has ratified most international, regional Treaties and Agreements related to gender equality and enacted a progressive Constitution in 2010 that protects women’s rights. The Government of Kenya has ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol) and has joined the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action.

The new Constitution adopted by Kenya in 2010 recognizes women’s rights as human rights, while removing several discriminatory provisions towards women. Article 27 guarantees equality and freedom from discrimination. It states that every person is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and equal benefit of the law. The Constitution promotes equality in marriage, employment, access to education and guarantees women’s rights to inheritance and own land. Articles 97 and 98 introduce quota in the National Assembly and the Senate. The Constitution also calls for a 30 percent government procurement preference for youth, women and persons with disabilities and requires both public and private entities to comply with gender equality principles. Furthermore, all discriminatory customary practices are prohibited.

At the legislative level, Kenya has adopted a progressive normative framework to promote women’s rights (excluding the Marriage Act of 2014):

- **The Married Women’s Property Act of 1882** provides married women equal rights to own property. It applies to all systems of marriage recognized under Kenyan law;
- **The Sexual Offense Act of 2006** provides a definition of sexual offences excluding marital rape and protects all persons from unlawful sexual acts;

- **The Anti-FGM Act of 2011** prohibits Female Genital Mutilation and imposes tough penalties on perpetrators;
- **The National Gender and Equality Commission Act of 2011** promotes gender equality and freedom from discrimination in accordance with Article 27 of the Constitution. This applies to both public and private sectors;
- **The Election Act of 2011** promotes women's participation in political and public life;
- **The Land Act of 2012** grants all citizens the right to own land and promotes gender equality in land distribution;
- **The Matrimonial Property Act of 2013** guarantees equality between spouses in matrimonial property;
- **The Marriage Act of 2014** allows the customary practice of polygamy; and
- **The Protection Against Domestic Violence Bill of 2015** outlines specific types of domestic violence including physical abuse, forced and child marriage, female genital mutilation (FGM), sexual violence, economic and inheritance abuse, emotional abuse, harassment, etc. it also provides for protection measures for victims.

At the policy level, Kenya has regularly enacted National Strategies and sectoral policies to promote gender equality. For instance, the Government of Kenya adopted a National Policy on Gender and Development in 2000 and a National Policy on Prevention and Response to gender-based violence in 2014. The country's national strategy Kenya Vision 2030 (2013-2017) includes a social pillar dedicated to ending discrimination of women in economic and social sectors and empowering them to actively participate in economic, social, and political activities. In the energy sector, the Ministry of Energy not only produced an audit of its energy policies in 2007 but also developed a gender policy in 2019.

However, the adoption of the Marriage Act in 2014 that allows polygamy indicates that discriminatory customary practices are still widely tolerated in the Kenyan society. Customary law systems are based on patriarchal traditions in which the principal decision-making power is allocated to men, and men inherit and control land and property.

Figure 4: Broad Principles of Customary Laws in Kenya

- Married women do not inherit from their parents.
- Unmarried women inherit less from their parents than their brothers do.
- Women with sons may retain their husbands' property, but only to hold it in trust for the sons.
- Women with no children or with daughters are not likely to inherit from their husbands, and the estate is given to male relatives as if she were unmarried.
- Divorced or separated women are expected to leave the matrimonial home and return to their parents with only personal items.
- Unmarried daughters can use land in the paternal household, but only for certain crops.
- Married women have less control over significant family property than men do.
- Usually property that a wife acquires before and during a marriage is controlled and essentially owned by the husband.
- In some communities, the hut that a widow shared with her husband is destroyed after his death, and she is built a new (and often inferior) hut after she is cleansed or inherited.

Source: Human Rights Watch, 2003 and World Bank report, 2007

2.5 Mali Profile

Mali is a large landlocked country with a population estimated at 19 million in 2018. With two-third of the country's land area being arid or semi-arid, economic activity is confined to the Niger River area mainly in the agriculture sector. Mali has been experiencing high demographic growth in the past decade: in 2017, the country's average fertility rate was still at 5.9 children per woman. The population is unevenly distributed between rural and urban areas. More than 70 percent of Malians live in rural areas while the urban population is concentrated in the regional capitals and in the capital city of Bamako (4 million inhabitants)¹⁵.

Mali is among the poorest countries in the world, with important regional disparities in wealth distribution. The country is ranked 184 out of 189 nations in the 2019 Human Development Index. The country's main drivers of poverty include increasing food insecurity due to demographic pressure, lack of education and employment opportunities as well as political instability : 49 percent of the population lives below the extreme poverty line. Poverty is concentrated in the rural areas of southern Mali (90 percent of poor people) where the population density is the highest.

In 2012, a coup d'état in Bamako along with attacks from extremist groups in the northern and central part of the country provoked prolonged insecurity and political instability. Despite a peace agreement signed in 2015, insecurity persists and has weakened the authorities' ability to provide basic services to the population, especially in areas that remain outside of its control. This political and security crisis has

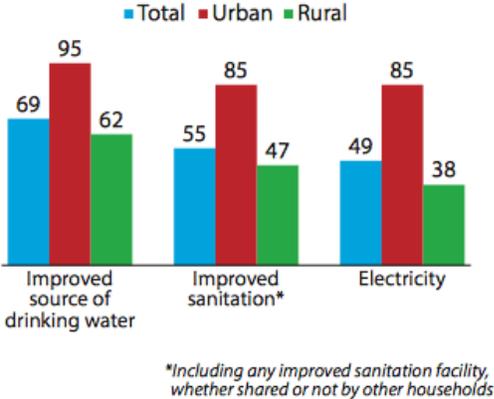
¹⁵ Government of Mali. 2018. Mali Demographic and Health Survey or EDSM-VI.

increased the population’s vulnerability to poverty, especially affecting the 218 534 internally displaced persons (IDPs)¹⁶ from the conflict.

Mali’s economy is highly vulnerable to climate change, with the agriculture, health and energy sector classified most at risk in the country’s National Adaptation Programme of Action. Almost three-quarters of the Malian labor force is engaged in agriculture. Desertification, high variability in rainfall, silting of the Niger river and rapid deforestation around large urban centers are among Mali’s main environmental challenges. This climate stress can lead to increased food insecurity and poverty, particularly in rural areas where Malians are mostly engaged in subsistence agriculture.

Access to energy in the country is low and unreliable, with wide disparities between rural and urban areas. Despite significant progress over the last decades, the country’s electrification rate does not exceed 49 percent (less than 1 percent in 1995)¹⁷. Urban households are more than twice as likely as rural households to have electricity (85 percent versus 38 percent). This disparity is partly due to the high cost of electricity in remote areas that are not connected to the main grid or isolated centres, where tariffs range between USD 0.25/kWh and USD 0.51/kWh¹⁸. In rural households, low availability of energy supply means that most households rely on biomass and kerosene lamps for cooking and lighting. This increases women’s burden as they are traditionally responsible for fuel collection and cooking.

Figure 5: Water, Sanitation and Electricity in Mali by Residence



Source: EDSM-VI and UNICEF report,2018

¹⁶ United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) Data.2020.

¹⁷ Government of Mali. 2018. Mali Demographic and Health Survey or EDSM-VI.

¹⁸ International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA).2019. Renewable Energy: a gender perspective.

Despite having ratified most international treaties and convention, Mali's national legal framework on gender equality remains weak. Several gaps persist notably with respect to gender-based violence, early marriage as well as ownership and property rights. At the international level, Mali has ratified (i) the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1986, (ii) the Convention on Children's rights in 1990, (iii) the Maputo Protocol to the African charter on Human and Peoples' Rights in 2004 and (iv) the 2008 Protocol on the Statute of the African Court of Justice and Human Rights. In 2018, the said court found the Government of Mali in violation with the Maputo protocol, for condoning child marriage and discriminating against women in the Malian Family Code¹⁹.

At the national level, the normative framework is poorly harmonized with international and regional instruments and Mali has yet to enact key legislation. Legal loopholes persist especially with regards to gender-based violence, and some legal provisions are directly discriminatory against women. Furthermore, customary law is routinely applied at the expense of positive law and to women's disadvantage, especially in the field of inheritance on rural land tenure.

In 2009, the Government of Mali attempted to reform the 1962 Family Code, to improve equality between men and women. The revised version of the code included provision to forbid child marriage, improve women's inheritance and property rights and increase women's agency in the household. However, the adoption of the Code was blocked by wide-scale protests led by conservative groups. The new 'Code du Mariage et de la Tutelle' adopted in 2011 did not include rights previously granted in the draft version. Despite this significant setback, the country has made some progress in the promotion of gender equality:

- **Article 2 of the Constitution** enshrines the principle of equality between men and women;
- The 2006 **agricultural orientation law** protects women's property rights;
- In 2010, Mali adopted a **National Policy for the Permanent Eradication of Female Genital Mutilation (FGM)**;
- Since 2011, Mali has a **National Policy for Gender Equality** based on six strategic directions²⁰;
- Since **2015**, the **Law**²¹ requires a 30 percent quota for female appointments to national institutions and on electoral list; and
- A **2017 Law**²² allocates 15 percent of arable governmental land for the use of women and young people.

2.6 Namibia Profile

¹⁹ Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI). 2019. A Study of Insecurity and Gender in Mali.

²⁰ Those are: (1) equal rights for women and men, (2) development of human capital (for women and men), (3) the integration of women into productive channels, (4) equal participation of women and men in the spheres of decision, (5) establishing the values and egalitarian behavior in Malian society, and (6) the inclusion of man-woman equality as a guiding principle of good governance.

²¹ Loi n°2015-052/PRM du 18 décembre 2015.

²² Loi N°2017- 001/ du 11 avril 2017 portant sur le foncier agricole.

With an estimated population of about 2,4 million (2018) and a surface area of 825,615 km², Namibia is one of the least densely populated countries worldwide. Most inhabitants are located in the north, where six of the most populous regions of Namibia can be found. Rural to urban migration is a growing trend across the country : in 2018 nearly half of the population lived in urban areas (49.9 percent) from 42.8 percent in 2011. Namibia is rich with natural resources and political stability as well as sound economic management has allowed it to reach the upper-middle-income development level.

While Namibia has achieved significant reduction of poverty since its independence in 1990, it remains one of the most unequal countries in the world. Between 1993/94 and 2015/16, the proportion of Namibians living below the national poverty line went from 69.3 percent to 17.4 percent. Poverty remains a challenge, exacerbated by extreme socio-economic inequalities inherited from the apartheid period, as well as high unemployment rate (34 percent). Female-headed households (FHH), ethnic minorities and subsistence farmers are particularly vulnerable to poverty.

Namibia's vulnerability to climate change is extremely high. 92 percent of the land area is defined as arid or semi-arid. The country is expected to experience increased occurrence of drought, desertification, land and water resource degradation and loss of biodiversity. Agriculture, fisheries and water have been identified as the most vulnerable sectors to climate change, in a country where subsistence farming is widespread. In the past 5 years, Namibia has experienced the worst drought in a century, with devastating impact on the farming community. As a result, more than 500,000 people suffered from increased food insecurity and water shortages.

Only half of the Namibian population has access to electricity, with wide disparities between urban and rural areas. In 2013, 72 percent of urban households had access to energy services, compared to 21 percent of rural households²³. The country's large land mass and low population density make it harder for the government of Namibia to provide basic services, including access to electricity, to its rural communities. An estimated half of the Namibian population uses traditional sources of energy such as firewood for cooking, with negative impact on health outcomes. Women and girls are particularly affected as they are traditionally responsible for the collection of water and firewood.

Namibia has a comprehensive legal framework to protect equality between men and women, and is regularly adopting national policies and strategies to further the gender equality agenda. The Namibian government is signatory of the main international and regional agreements and conventions. The country has ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All forms Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1992, the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of women in Africa in 2004 and is a signatory of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) and the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development (2008). At the national level, Namibia has one of the continent's most progressive legal framework on gender equality:

²³ Government of Namibia.2016. Namibia Inter-Censal Demographic Survey.

- The **Namibian constitution** establishes the principle of equality before the law without discrimination based on sex (Article 10), and authorises affirmative action to encourage women to participate in the “*political, social, economic and cultural life of the nation*” (Article 23);
- The **Married Persons Equality Act 1 of 1996** abolishes the marital powers of the husbands, and puts wives and husbands on equal footing within civil marriage;
- The **Affirmative Action (Employment) Act 29 of 1998** establishes an Employment Equity Commission and authorizes affirmative action measures to promote equal opportunity in employment for women;
- The **Combating of Rape Act 8 adopted in 2000** criminalizes marital rape;
- The **Communal Land Reform Act of 2002** protects the rights of rural widows to remain on land allocated to their deceased husbands. The widow’s right to remain on the land is not affected by re-marriage;
- The **Combating of Domestic Violence Act 4 of 2003** provides a broad definition of domestic violence including physical, sexual, psychological, economic abuse and intimidation. This act makes domestic violence a specific crime;
- The **Children’s Status Act of 2006** provides for equal guardianships and custody for unmarried parents;
- The **Labour Act 11 of 2007** prohibits sexual harassment in the workplace and forbids direct or indirect discrimination in any employment decision based on sex, marital status, family responsibilities, or pregnancy;
- The **National Policy on Sexual, Reproductive and Child Health adopted in 2013** includes specific measures to provide equitable, accessible and affordable health and nutrition information and services to the population;
- The **Child Care and Protection Act 3 of 2015** requires a minimum age of 18 for marriage.

At the policy level, Namibia has regularly enforced strategies and policies to promote gender equality.

The National Land Policy adopted in 1998 promotes women’s rights to maintain their lands after their husband’s death. The country’s first National Gender Policy was adopted in 1997 and its revised version in 2010 for the period 2010-2020²⁴. The 2010 Education Sector Policy on the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy is a key policy that provides measures to encourage mothers and fathers to complete their education. In 2012, the country adopted a National Plan of Action on gender-based violence to coordinate and guide interventions, programmes and projects on violence against women in Namibia.

2.7 Uzbekistan Profile

²⁴ The National Gender Policy 2010-2020 can be accessed here:
http://www.africanchildforum.org/clr/policypercent20perpercent20country/namibia/namibia_gender_2010-2020_en.pdf

Uzbekistan is a Central Asian landlocked country sharing border with five Asian countries²⁵, with an estimated population of 32.1 million people in 2017. The country is rich in natural resources, notably copper, gold, oil, natural gas and uranium. Since the election of the president Mirziyoyev in 2016, the government of Uzbekistan committed to a radical transition from a state-controlled to a market-oriented economy. Although the country is experiencing increased urbanization, nearly half of the population (49.4 percent) still lives in rural areas.

Uzbekistan is a lower-middle-income country whose poverty levels have declined significantly in the past decades, going from 27.5 percent in 2001 to 11.4 percent in 2018. Uzbekistan is ranked 108 out of 189 countries in the United Nations 2018 Human and Development report, and is included in the high human development category. However, large regional disparities remain, causing increased labor migration within and outside the country.

As one of the most water-dependent countries in the world, Uzbekistan is highly vulnerable to climate change. The country is located in one of Central Asia's driest regions and is prone to natural disasters such as floods and drought, whose occurrence may increase with climate change. The Aral Sea has been gradually shrinking, losing 90 percent of its volume in less than 60 years. More than 80 percent of the country's renewable water resources originate in neighboring countries.

Uzbekistan is the second most energy-intensive country worldwide and has achieved near universal electricity access. However, gaps in power supply are common due to inadequate maintenance of infrastructure, especially in rural areas, resulting in frequent interruptions and poor power quality. As women are mostly responsible for household chores, they are more affected by the unreliability of power supply and the inability to use time-saving energy appliances.

Uzbekistan is signatory of the main international conventions related to the promotion of women's rights: in 1995 the government ratified the United Nations Convention on the elimination of all Forms of discrimination against Women and joined the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. The government of Uzbekistan also ratified key International Labour Organization conventions (ILO) related to gender equality, and incorporated them in its national legislations.

At the national level, despite important progress in the most recent years, significant gaps remain in the legislation. The Constitution of the Republic of Uzbekistan guarantees equal rights without discrimination based on sex. This principle is reflected in national law; both the criminal code and the labor code contain provisions against discrimination on the basis of sex. Relevant milestones (laws, national policies, strategic documents) in advancing the normative framework for gender equality are chronologically listed below:

- **Creation of the Women's Committee (WCU), 1991:** the WCU was established to develop and implement state policy on women's rights. It has branches in every administrative territorial body;

²⁵ Afghanistan, Kazakhstan, the Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan and Turkmenistan.

- **National Action Plan for improving the status of women in Uzbekistan and improving their status in society, 1995:** this is a strategic document drafted in the context of the Beijing Platform for Action;
- **The Elections Act of the Oliy Majlis, 2004:** this act was key in increasing female political participation in the National Assembly. It requires that the number of women nominated by political parties for parliament should be no less than 30 percent of the total number of candidates;
- **First National Action Plan for the Implementation of the Concluding Observations of the CEDAW Committee, 2006;**
- **Second National Action Plan for the Implementation of the Concluding Observations of the CEDAW Committee, 2010;** and
- **National Development Strategy for 2017–2021** adopted by presidential decree in 2017: the document outlines 5 priority areas and includes objectives to “increase the social and political activity of women”.

In September 2019 and for the first time in the country’s history, the President of Uzbekistan signed a law on gender equality. The law on “Guarantees of Equal Rights and Opportunities for Women and Men” guarantees equal access to property and material resources and bans sexual harassment. This is an important milestone in a country that was one of the few nations in the world without legislation on gender-based violence.

3. KEY GENDER GAPS

The following section identifies key issues that may impact projects under the SRMI facility. Preliminary gender assessments for each of the seven countries under the SRMI facility highlighted the following gaps and their potential mitigation actions which will be explored during project design.

3.1 Botswana Gender Gap

Botswana is a patriarchal society ranked 73 out of 153 countries by the World Economic Forum 2020 Global Gender Gap. Men are traditionally heads of households, while women are mostly responsible for cooking food, collecting water and caring for the sick and elderly. Yet, unlike most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Botswana is at an advanced stage of demographic transition with a fertility rate estimated at 2.9 births per woman in 2017. This indicates progress in women’s development driven by i) effective family planning, ii) better child survival, iii) increased age at first birth, iv) increased female education attainment and v) improved women’s participation in the labor force²⁶. Despite these better outcomes, several gaps remain and will be explored below.

- **Education.** Together with Lesotho and Namibia, Botswana is one of the three Sub-Saharan countries to have already achieved parity in education²⁷. In the past decades, the government significantly increased public investment in education to ensure equal access for all, including girls and women. As a result, the enrolment of girls in education is higher than the enrolment of boys at all levels. 88.7 percent of women are literate compared to 86.7 percent of men. However, many girls continue to drop out of school because of early pregnancies or marriage (allowed under customary law). To mitigate the consequences of girls dropping out of school, Botswana has adopted policies to promote school re-entry for student mothers.

Figure 7: Botswana’s Educational Attainment (percentage)

BOTSWANA’S EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT (percentage)		
	Women	Men
Enrolment in primary education	88.1	87.3
Enrolment in secondary education	63.8	55.8
Enrolment in tertiary education	29.2	20.5

Source: Based on Data from the World Economic Forum 2020 Global Gender Index

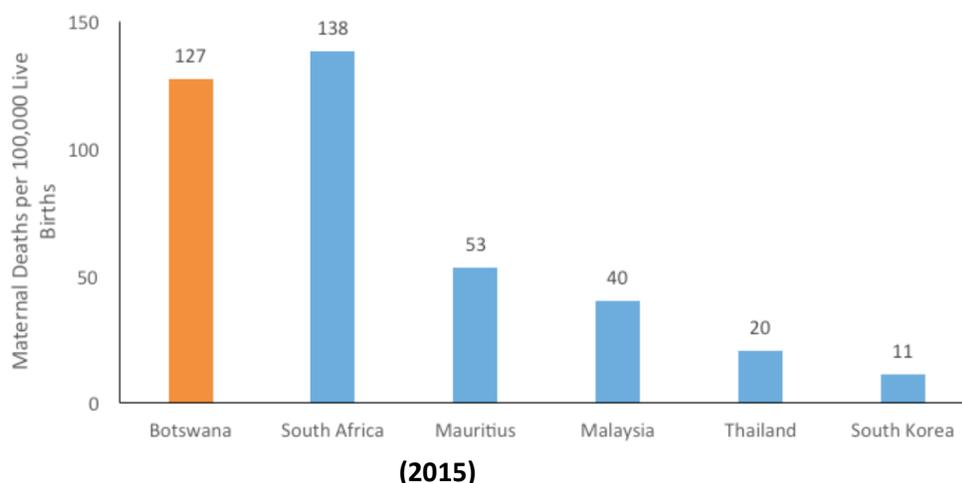
²⁶ The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). 2018. Opportunities and Policy Actions to Maximize the Demographic Dividend in Botswana.

²⁷ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

Educational sex-segregation remains a reality in the country, affecting women’s participation in STEM fields. For instance, female students only account for 21 percent of all students in engineering and technology subjects at the University of Botswana²⁸.

- **Health.** Heavy public investments have allowed Botswana to significantly improve health outcomes, but maternal mortality rates remain at high levels compared with other middle-income countries. Despite low population density, 84 percent of the population is within 5 km of a health facility and nearly 99 percent of birth in the country are attended by skilled birth personnel. However, the country continues to grapple with high mortality rates at 144 per 100,000 live births, putting Botswana off track in the achievement of the third Sustainable Development Goal (Good Health and Well Being).

Figure 8: Comparing Botswana’s Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) with those of selected countries



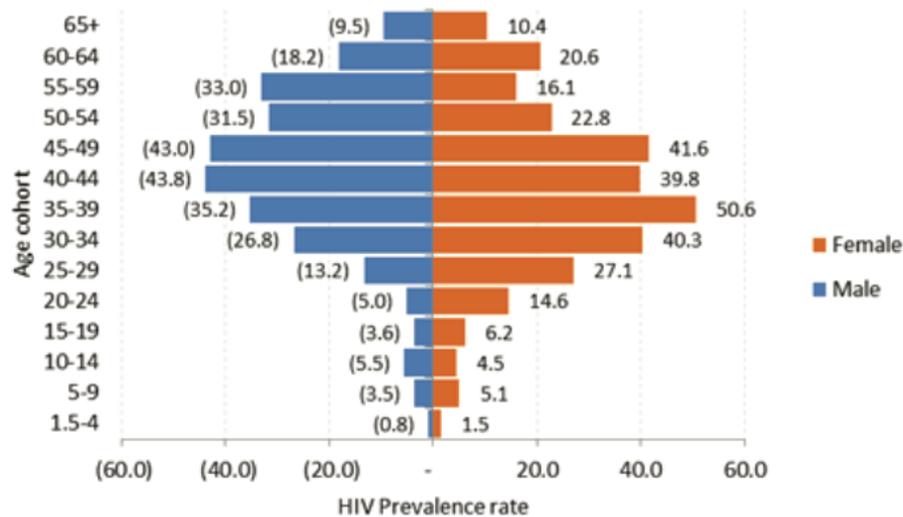
Source: Statistics Botswana, 2017, World Population Prospects, the 2015 Revision and UNFPA report 2017

Botswana has one of the highest prevalence of HIV in the world, with a major impact on women’s health outcomes. Almost twice as many women aged 15-24 (8.9 percent) than men (4.9 percent) are infected with HIV. Key factors of women and girls’ increased vulnerability to HIV include their inability to negotiate safe sex with their partners and their increased likelihood to engage in transactional sex²⁹. Women are not only more vulnerable to the HIV infection than men, they also shoulder the responsibility of caring for sick relatives.

²⁸ The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA). 2018. Opportunities and Policy Actions to Maximise the Demographic Dividend in Botswana.

²⁹ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2016. Botswana PEPFAR Gender Analysis.

Figure 9: HIV prevalence in Botswana by age cohort and gender, 2013



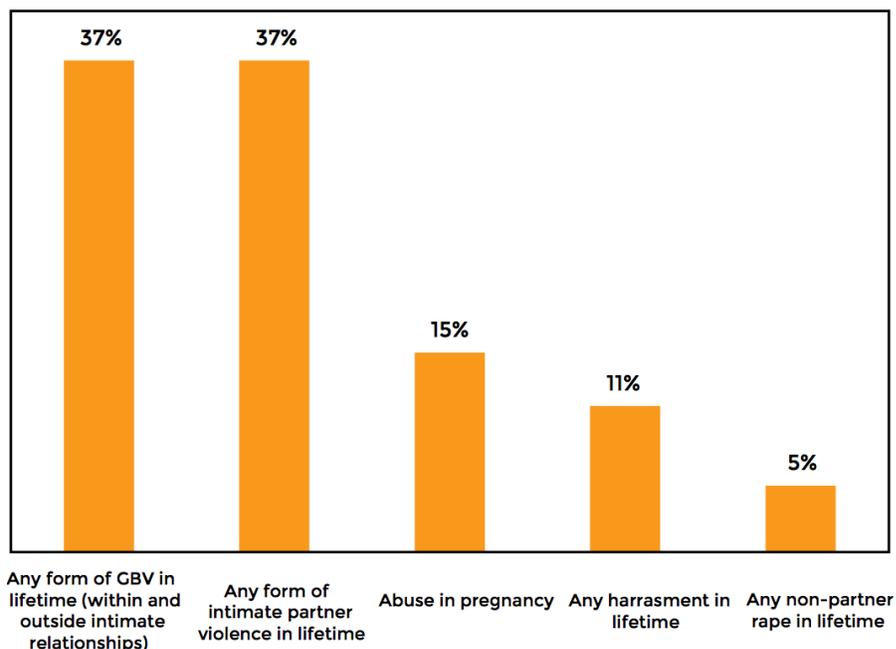
Data source: BAIS IV Survey, Statistics Botswana (2014)

- Gender-Based Violence.** GBV is a widespread phenomenon in Botswana, with 67 percent of women having experienced some form of GBV. As in many other countries, strong patriarchal norms and social tolerance towards violence against women discourages victims from reporting incidents due to shame and fear of reprisal. As a result, in the overwhelming proportion of cases, GBV is not reported to authorities. Only 1.2 percent of women have reported violence to the police. The most common type of gender-based violence observed in Botswana is intimate partner violence: domestic violence makes up 62 percent of GBV cases in the country³⁰. Key drivers behind domestic violence include alcohol abuse as well as women’s ignorance of the law. Indeed, 54 percent of women are not aware of Botswana’s protective legislative framework against domestic violence³¹.

³⁰ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2014. MSH Fact Sheet Botswana GBV.

³¹ Ibid.

Figure 10: Forms of violence experienced by women in a lifetime in Botswana



Source: Botswana Relationship Study, 2017 and UNFPA report 2019

- **Women’s agency and political participation.** Botswana women remain under-represented in key decision-making institutions and their level of participation in politics has declined in the past year. During the 2019 general election, only 5 percent of parliamentary candidates were women, while they accounted for about 9 percent of candidates in 2014. No woman ran for the Presidency. Since the 2019 election, women make up 9.5 percent of members of Parliament and hold 15.8 percent of ministerial seats. These figures are far below the commitment to achieve at least a 30 percent quota for women in political and decision-making structures, made by the Government of Botswana when it signed the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development in 1997. Key barriers preventing women to participate in politics include patriarchal beliefs that women are not as capable as men in political affairs as well as legal gaps (there is no quota law). Despite being highly visible during grassroots campaigns in support of male candidates, women too often lack the opportunity to get involved in decision-making processes.
- **Female employment and access to decent work.** In Botswana, the labor market continues to reflect substantial barriers to women’s economic participation. Men’s labor force participation rate is 11.1 percentage points higher than female participation (80.2 percent versus 69.1 percent) and their unemployment rate is 7 percentage points lower (15.3 percent versus 22.3 percent³²). Occupational

³² World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

sex-segregation remains a key characteristic of the country's economy. Women are over-represented in the agricultural and informal sectors where most low paying, low-skill jobs can be found. They are 58 percent more likely than men to be unpaid family workers³³. When women are paid, they earn 29 percent less than men on average³⁴. While women are under-represented in the private sector across all skill levels, they predominate in the public sector: more than 70 percent of college-educated Botswana women work for the government. One of the main factors contributing to these disparities is the fact that women continue to play a reproductive role in the household. They remain mostly responsible for childbearing and domestic tasks and are the ones caring for sick relatives and the elderly, negatively impacting their presence and participation in the labor market. These barriers are reflected in women's access to entrepreneurship: only 8.9 percent of firms have female majority ownership³⁵.

- **Female-Headed Household access to ownership and finance.** Female-headed households are significantly more likely to be poor than male-headed households. In Botswana, 58 percent of poor households are headed by females³⁶; 33 percent of female-headed households live below the poverty line while this is the case for 27 percent of men-headed households³⁷. A combination of factors contributes to this disparity: FHH are characterized by lower levels of education, salaries as well as lower access or control of resources. They are more dependent on unreliable sources of income for subsistence such as remittances, maintenance, and destitute allowance³⁸. In rural areas, female-headed households have poor access to livestock and land which hinders their capacity to invest in sustainable livelihood. While the positive law protects women's right to ownership, the Tswana tradition prohibits women from inheriting property such as land, housing, and cattle. 75 percent of female-headed households do not own livestock³⁹. Because levels of poverty are highest among FHH, especially in rural areas, they also have lower access to energy services resulting in low electricity connection rates⁴⁰.

3.2 CAR Gender Gap

Gender inequality in the Central African Republic is one of the highest in the world and has increased over the past decades, owing to repeated conflicts and poverty. The country is ranked 159 out of 162 countries by the United Nations' 2019 Gender Inequality Index (GII). Gender gaps are observed at all levels with respect to women's participation and presence in political, economic, social and cultural life. The

³³ The African Development Bank Group (AfDB). 2011. Profil Genre de la République Centrafricaine.

³⁴ The World Bank Group. 2015. CAR Systematic Country Diagnosis.

³⁵ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ World Food Programme (WFP). 2019. Evaluation thématique sur les questions de genre dans les interventions du PAM en République centrafricaine 2014-2018.

³⁸ Lesetedi, N. 2018. A Theoretical Perspective on Women and Poverty in Botswana. Journal of International Women's studies.

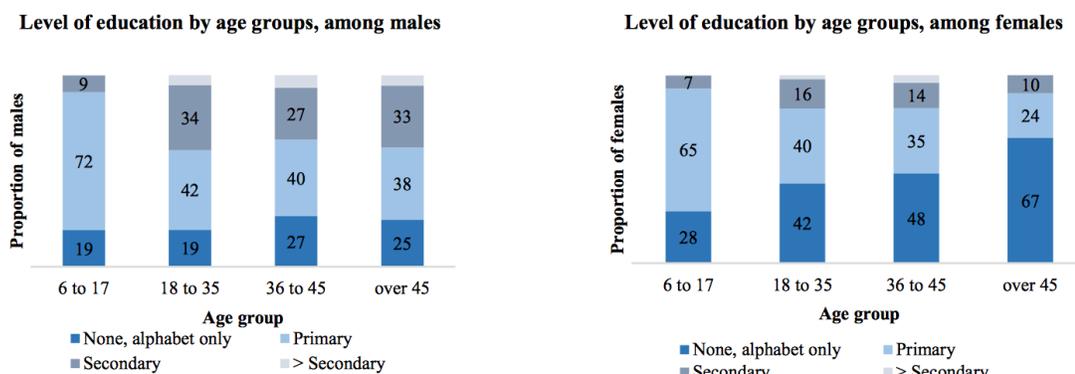
³⁹ Ibid.

⁴⁰ Energia. Botswana Power Corporation. 2011. Gender Mainstreaming in the Botswana Power Corporation.

Central African society is patrilinear, authority is essentially held and exercised by men. Women are traditionally confined to the role of housewives and mothers, and their social value heavily depends on their marital status⁴¹.

- Education.** CAR’s educational gender gap is significant, the enrolment rate of girls in school is consistently lower than the one of boys. While the whole population has been affected by the destruction of school facilities and materials during the conflict, the educational system is characterized by significant gender disparities. Only 28.7 percent of women are literate, compared with 47.8 percent of men. More than half of girls do not complete primary school compared to 30 percent of boys. Most schools do not have water supply or latrines, particularly affecting girls’ attendance during menstruation periods. Only 26 percent of girls reach higher education and among them the rate of women who specialize in STEM fields is even lower. In 2011, only 8 percent of female medical students completed their degree at the University of Bangui and 2 percent of female sciences students⁴². This disparity may be explained by the fact that technical subjects (carpentry, masonry, mechanics, electricity, refrigeration, etc.) are traditionally regarded as male fields⁴³. Girl’s access to education is further constrained by the prevalent practice of early marriage and early childbearing. 29 percent of girls are married by age 15 and 68 percent by age 18⁴⁴. Early marriage and high fertility rates are linked to low educational attainment, but also take a heavy toll on women and girls’ health outcomes due to higher maternal and infant mortality rates.

Figure 11: Educational attainment by gender and age group



Source: ENMC, ICASEES 2017 and World Bank CAR Systematic Country Diagnosis, 2019

- Health.** In CAR women’s health outcomes are extremely low: with 829 deaths per 1000,000 live births, the maternal mortality rate is among the highest in the world. Conflicts have caused the destruction of health facilities and limited women’s mobility, thereby exacerbating structural

⁴¹ The African Development Bank Group (AfDB). 2011. Profil Genre de la République Centrafricaine.

⁴² Ibid.

⁴³ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). 2012. Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under Article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

⁴⁴ United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). 2016. Multi-country real time evaluation of UNICEF Gender-based violence in emergencies programme.

deficiencies and impacting provision of gynecological and post-partum care. The maternal mortality rate increased by 29 percent and the risk of child marriage by 9 percent in the past 30 years⁴⁵. Traditionally, the decision to use family planning methods is taken by the husband, at the expense of women's agency and right to choose what is best for their health and well-being. In 2017, women had on average 4.8 children. Women are also more affected than men by epidemics such as HIV/AIDS, with disastrous consequences on their social life and survival as they face stigmatization and exclusion. In 2018, female accounted for 56.2 percent of the population aged 15 living with HIV.

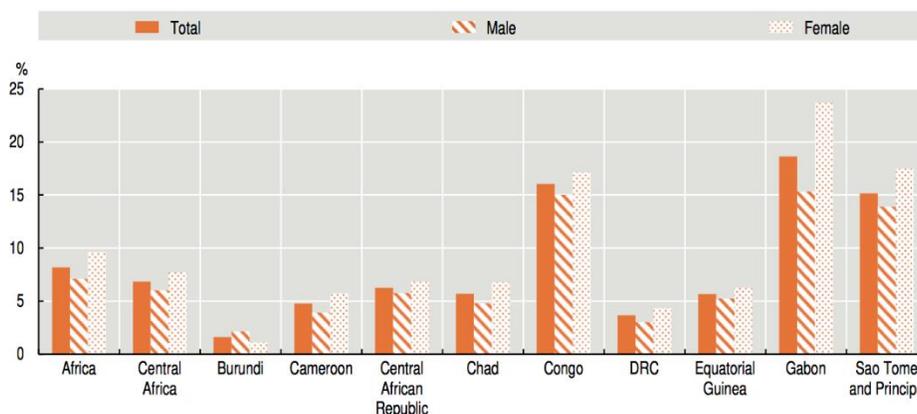
- **Gender-Based Violence.** Although data on the prevalence of GBV are lacking, studies report high-level of sexual and gender-based violence across the country. Human Rights Watch reported in 2017 widespread and systematic use of rape as a tactic of war during the conflict, particularly affecting women and girls and to a lesser extent men and boys. In addition to sexual violence, many women have been abducted by armed groups and forced to collect water, cook and wash clothes. Most women did not report the incidents, nor did they receive medical care or other support. Many suffered from social stigma within their community and households, following the events. GBV is exacerbated by high levels of social tolerance towards violence against women. According to the 2010 CAR Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, 80 percent of men and women believe wife beating is justified. Furthermore, some harmful traditional practices are still widespread in some areas, such as female circumcision and widowhood rites (confiscation of property, levirate). Nearly 25 percent of women have suffered from Female Genital Mutilation.
- **Women's agency and political participation.** Women's political presence and participation in CAR's decision-making institutions is extremely low due to traditional norms and lack of education. Yet, from 2014 to 2016 and for the first time in the country's history, one woman served as interim President of the Central African Republic. Women hold 8.6 percent of seats in National Parliament and 18.2 of ministerial positions, well below the 35 percent quota required by the law. Women's higher illiteracy and lack of political instruction is a major obstacle to their participation in public life. Central African Women also lack time to dedicate to political affairs, as they are mostly responsible for household duties, as well as the care of children and sick people in their community. When women exercise their right to vote, they usually choose male over female candidates, due to internalized prejudice towards female politicians⁴⁶.
- **Female employment and access to decent work.** The Central African Republic's economy is characterized by high levels of occupational sex-segregation and employment gap. When they are employed, Central African women predominantly work in informal sectors, in inferior position and with lower income. Employed women are far more likely than men to work without pay at all, mostly as unpaid agricultural laborers in their own households. Women's labor force participation rate

⁴⁵ Government of CAR. 2019. Rapport National Volontaire de suivi de mise en œuvre des ODD.

⁴⁶ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). 2012. Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under Article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

reaches 65 percent compared to 80 percent for men. More than 7 percent of women are unemployed, while this is the case for only 5.9 percent of men.

Figure 12: Average unemployment, 2000-15 (percentage)



Source: OCDE report 2018

Female employment is concentrated in agriculture (75 percent), in sectors where productivity and profitability are lower. On average, female farmers have limited access to production factors and exploit smaller lands. Women are under-represented among salaried workers; only 2.4 percent of women are salaried workers compared with 8 percent of men. When women manage to enter the formal sector, their wages are lower. The average salary for women employed in the public administration is 357.66 FCFA/h compared to 602.63 FCFA/h for men⁴⁷. Working conditions are particularly precarious in the artisanal mining sector, characterized by lower wages and higher risks of sexual exploitation and gender-based violence.

- Entrepreneurship and access to ownership and finance.** Although the law does not discriminate against women in inheritance and property rights, women's access to ownership and finance is constrained by traditional practices and patriarchal norms. Traditionally, women in male-headed households have no control over their personal earned income. In the agriculture sector, key gaps include land access and cattle ownership. Only 19 percent of female-headed household own heads of livestock compared to 27 percent of male-headed households⁴⁸. In a country where cattle ownership is seen as a form of saving, this disparity makes access to finance even more difficult for women. 63 percent of FHH have access to a plot of land, while this is the case for 69 percent of male-headed households⁴⁹. Female-headed households are also less likely to own household and transport equipment such as a bike, car, radio, TV and mobile phone⁵⁰. In rural areas, widows often experience economic and social discrimination. They often struggle to

⁴⁷ Government of CAR. 2019. Rapport National Volontaire de suivi de mise en œuvre des ODD.

⁴⁸ Government of CAR. 2017. Enquête Nationale de Sécurité Alimentaire (ENSA) en RCA.

⁴⁹ World Food Programme (WFP). 2019. Evaluation thématique sur les questions de genre dans les interventions du PAM en République centrafricaine 2014-2018.

⁵⁰ The World Bank. 2012. Etude Diagnostique sur la Situation du Genre en République Centrafricaine.

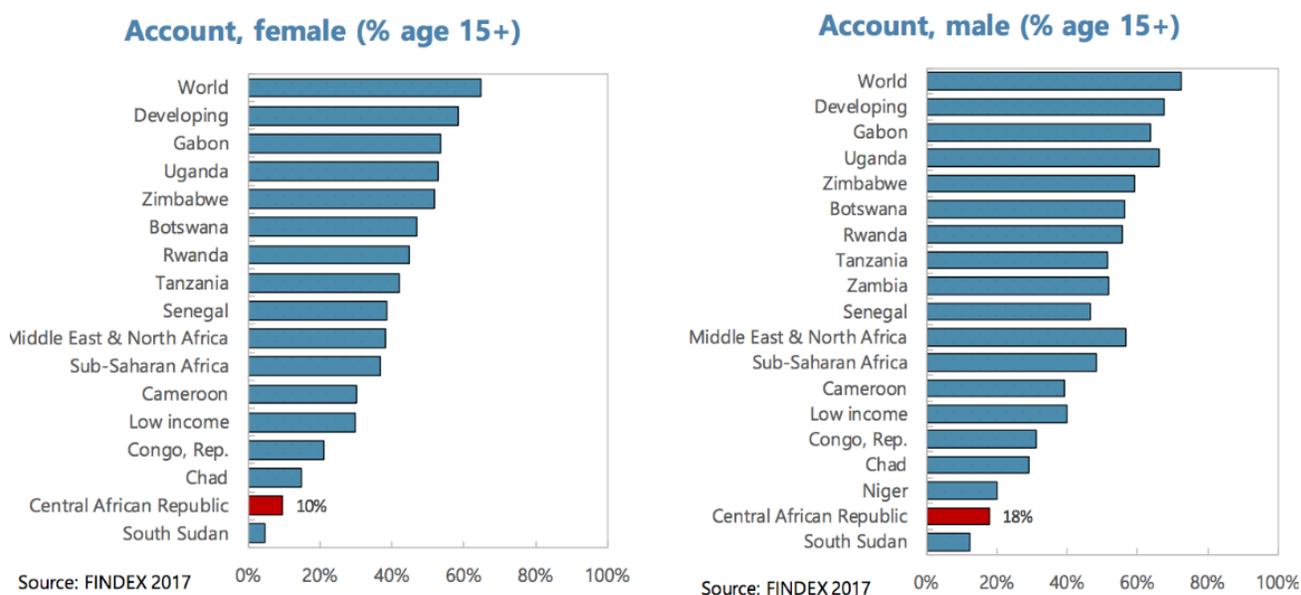
exercise their succession rights, due to customary practices and ignorance of the law. Gender gaps in access to assets and financial literacy make it more difficult for women to access credit. Female entrepreneurs in the Central African Republic are mostly active in the informal sector and are limited to low-income subsistence activities. In many cases, they cannot provide collateral. Furthermore, female entrepreneurs are more likely to be risk-adverse than men and do not submit as many credit applications⁵¹.

Figure 13: Credit applications in CAR, by sex

Year	Members		Credit applications	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
2008	26 131	28 816	1 947	704
2009	9 775	10 783	2 113	889

Source: *Crédit Mutuel de Centrafrique (CMCA), 2009 and CEDAW report, 2012*

Figure 14: Percentage of Women with access to Banking Services, 2017



Source: *FINDEX report, 2017 and International Monetary Fund, 2018*

⁵¹ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). 2012. Consideration of reports submitted by States parties under Article 18 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

3.3 DRC Gender Gap

DRC has some of the highest gender gaps in the world. Women are discriminated against with respect to education, health care, economic opportunities, access to ownership and political representation. The World Economic Forum 2020 Global Gender Gap Index ranked DRC 149 out of 153 countries, last in Sub-Saharan Africa. Despite a diversity of norms and traditional practices, the patriarchal model of family is predominant and has been imposed, including in matrilineal regions, since colonization. Religious and customary institutions are norms maker in the country and have been thought to play a key role in promoting gender inequalities⁵². Their influence is exacerbated by a lack of governance and poor rule of law at the State level.

- **Education.** DRC has yet to close 40 percent of its educational gender gap and the enrolment rate of girls in school is consistently lower than the one of boys. Only 66 percent of women are literate, compared with 88 percent of men; 61 percent of boys are enrolled in secondary education while this is the case for only 38 percent of the girls. The gap keeps widening as the level of education increases: almost twice as many men (8.5 percent) as women (4.7 percent) are enrolled in tertiary education⁵³. Although the Constitution stipulates free mandatory education and promotes the eradication of illiteracy, primary education is not free of charge⁵⁴. Families will often give preference to the education of boys, especially in rural areas, as they cannot afford to send all their children to school. In addition, girls often drop out of school due to early marriage and pregnancy or sexual and gender-based violence committed by teachers.
- **Health.** The country's healthcare infrastructure often lacks the capacity to offer the most basic services, particularly affecting women's maternal mortality in a country that has one of the highest fertility rates worldwide (6 children per woman on average in 2017). Many pregnancies are occurring too early due to the persistence of child marriage and poor access to sexual and reproductive health services, especially among indigenous women. Abortion is criminalized under the Penal Code and the prevalence of unsafe abortion remains high⁵⁵. Many women do not have access to basic emergency obstetric and neonatal care. As a result, for every 100,000 live births, 693 women die from pregnancy related causes⁵⁶. Malnutrition is another health challenge impacting women, particularly widows who have been found to have significant nutritional disadvantage⁵⁷. Women are also more affected than men by epidemics such as HIV/AIDS and Ebola, with disastrous consequences on their social life and survival as they face stigmatization

⁵² Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA). 2009. The DRC Country Gender Profile.

⁵³ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

⁵⁴ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). 2019. Concluding observations on the eighth periodic report of the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

⁵⁵ Ibid.

⁵⁶ The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2019. Briefing note for the Democratic Republic of Congo on the 2019 Human Development Report.

⁵⁷ Djuikom, Marie Albertine and Dominique van de Walle. 2018. Marital Shocks and Women's Welfare in Africa.

and exclusion. Health care facilities consistently lack properly trained staff, equipment, and supplies.

Figure 15: Percentage of health facilities per province with regular access to electricity

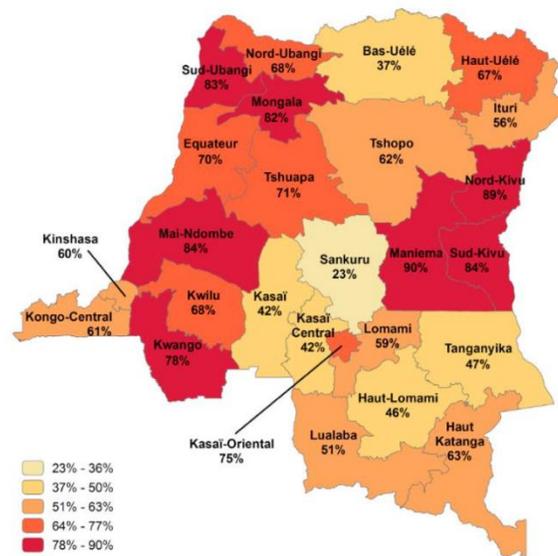
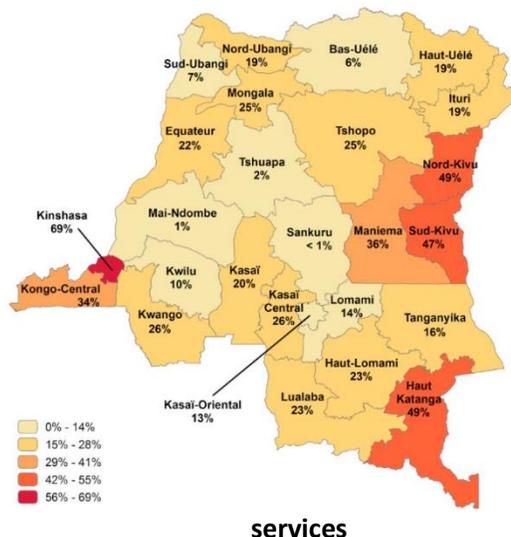


Figure 16: Percentage of health facilities per province with access to sanitary latrines for outpatients'



Source: *Evaluation des prestations des services de soins de santé - EPSS 2017-2018*

- Gender-Based Violence.** High levels of Sexual and gender-based violence have been documented in DRC, with lasting impact on women’s capacity to fully engage in social and economic life. GBV was used as a weapon of war during the conflicts and perpetrated by both militia groups and governmental forces. It has spread into a wider social phenomenon, threatening women’s safety in schools, the workplace, their households and in the streets. According to the 2014 Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), 52 percent of women aged 15-49 have experienced physical violence while 27 percent have experienced sexual violence. Rates of intimate partner violence are even higher: 57 percent of married women have experienced domestic violence. GBV rates vary across provinces; they are particularly high in Kasai Occidental and Kasai Oriental where the prevalence of physical and sexual violence is respectively of 30.5 percent and 57.4 percent⁵⁸. The main drivers of GBV include social tolerance to violence against women, poverty and the lack of a protective legal framework. DRC has the highest level of acceptance of intimate partner violence in the region: 74.8 percent of women and 59.5 percent of men aged 15-49 approve the practice of husbands beating their wives to discipline them⁵⁹. Sexual trafficking of women and girls is also widespread in DRC, particularly affecting the most vulnerable such as IDPs and mine workers. While Congolese women are often unaware of their rights, the Government of DRC lacks capacities and funds to enforce legal provisions against GBV. For instance, domestic violence cases are often judged by community and religious leaders who usually follow patriarchal norms, often at the expense of women’s right to access justice.
- Women’s agency and political participation.** Women’s presence and participation in decision-making institutions is weak at every level due to traditional norms, lack of education and limited

⁵⁸ The World Bank. 2018. Democratic Republic of Congo Systematic Country Diagnostic.

⁵⁹ Government of DRC. 2014. Demographic and Health Survey (DHS).

economic opportunities. Women only account for 10 percent of members of Parliament and hold 17 percent of ministerial seats. In 2015, the electoral law was amended to remove a 30 percent quota for women's representation at the national level, thus weakening women's opportunities to access male-dominated power structures. Women's lack of visibility and influence in the political life reflects their lower decision-making power in the household. According to the 2014 DHS Survey, 53 percent of women do not participate in key household decisions. Although women are traditionally responsible for household chores and care for their family, many married women do not have control over their income.

- **Female employment and access to decent work.** Congolese women face unequal treatment with respect to labor force participation and have lower access to skilled higher-income jobs. They are mostly confined to subsistence agriculture and small business in the informal sector. Female labor force participation rate is 61.7 percent, compared with 66.5 percent for men. The gap is even wider with respect to access to skilled jobs; women only account for 24.4 percent of professional and technical workers (75.6 percent are men)⁶⁰. Agriculture is the largest sector in terms of employment, with more than 70 percent of the population dependent on farming for their livelihoods. Women account for 70 percent of labor in agricultural production and make up 60 percent of workers in the informal sector. Only 2.8 percent of salaried workers are women. When they are paid, women earn lower salaries than men; on average USD 15 per month versus USD 20 per month for men⁶¹. Working conditions are particularly precarious in the artisanal mining sector, an industry that attracts many migrant women with poor education and lack of other employment opportunities. Female employment in the mining sector is characterized by lower wages and higher risks of sexual exploitation and gender-based violence⁶².
- **Entrepreneurship and access to ownership and finance.** Women in DRC are discriminated against with respect to land tenure, property ownership, and face legal barriers and social stereotypes in entrepreneurship. Although women's right to inherit land is legally guaranteed, customary law continues to be applied across the country. In many cases, women are prohibited to own land by tradition and assets obtained within marriage are registered under the husband's name. Widows are particularly vulnerable to land predation after their husband's death, putting them at increased risk of poverty. In DRC, 61.5 percent of female-headed households are under the poverty line compared with 54.3 percent of male-headed households⁶³. Lack of access to land and financial resources limit the ability of female entrepreneurs to invest in new technologies and productive assets. More than 95 percent of the Congolese population is unbanked and there is no significant gap in account ownership. However, female financial inclusion is lower than men's and they face more challenges in accessing domestic credit due to lower financial literacy and limited

⁶⁰ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

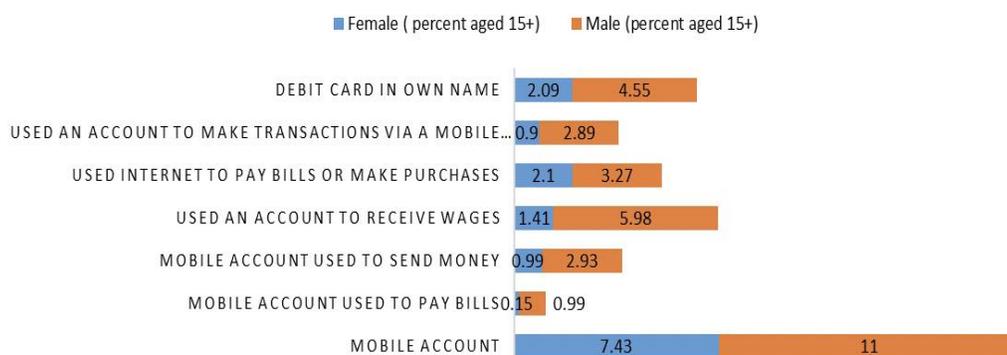
⁶¹ Embassy of Sweden. 2014. Profil du pays en matière d'égalité de genre.

⁶² Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). 2019. Concluding observations on the eighth periodic report of the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

⁶³ Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA). 2017. Country Gender Profile Democratic Republic of The Congo Final Report.

access to professional networks. In 2013, only 3.6 percent of female-headed firms had a bank loan, compared to 10.2 of male-led companies⁶⁴.

Figure 17: Access to Financial Services in the Democratic Republic of Congo



Source: DRC Survey, START Center - March 2017

3.4 Kenya Gender Gap

Although Kenya has made great progress in closing gaps across all sectors, significant inequalities between men and women remain in education attainment, health outcomes, political empowerment and participation in the labor market. Kenya is ranked 109 out of 153 countries in the World Economic Forum 2020 Global Gender Gap Index.

- Education.** Following the adoption of free primary education in Kenya in 2003, near parity has been achieved in enrolment at the primary level. 81.2 percent of girls are enrolled in primary school while this is the case for 78.3 percent of boys⁶⁵. However, educational outcomes remain unequal because girls are more likely than boys to drop out of school. 78.2 percent of women are literate compared with 85 percent of men. Significant disparities persist in secondary and university education. Only 45.8 percent of women reach secondary education (versus 49 percent of men); 9.7 percent enroll in tertiary education while this is the case for 13.2 percent of men. Key drivers behind the gap in educational outcomes include unequal household responsibilities, high cost of education and early marriage⁶⁶. Girls are often asked to help their mothers with household chores and care of relatives, with negative impact on their school attendance. Poorer households, especially in rural areas, tend to give preference to the education of boys at higher levels when costs increase. Teenage pregnancies and early marriage also contribute to lower female enrolment rates. 13.2 of girls between the age of 15 and 19 are married⁶⁷. In addition, insecure learning environments in some areas disproportionately affect girls, who are more vulnerable to sexual abuse. When they reach higher levels, women are less likely to pursue STEM studies. Only

⁶⁴ World Bank Group. 2014. Enterprise Survey.

⁶⁵ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

⁶⁶ Malonza, R. Fedha, ML. 2015. An Assessment of Gender and Energy in Kenya: The Underlying Issue.

⁶⁷ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

11.1 percent of female students are enrolled in STEM fields, while this is the case for 20.8 percent of male students⁶⁸.

- Health.** Despite significant improvement in health outcomes in recent years, women continue to suffer from high maternal mortality rates especially among underserved communities. Maternal mortality is at 342 deaths per 100,000 live births and 61.8 percent of birth are attended by skilled personnel, with wide regional disparities. A study produced by UNFPA in 2014 indicates that 15 out of 47 counties accounted for 98.7 percent of the total maternal deaths in Kenya. Women and girls are also disproportionately affected by indoor pollution due to lack of access to clean cooking. Across the country, more than half (54 percent) of households use wood as their main source of cooking fuel, more than 84 percent of households in rural areas. Women and girls are the main consumers of electricity at the household level due to traditional gender roles; they collect at least 60 percent of all firewood supplies in Kenya⁶⁹. Their chronic exposure to hazardous air pollutants (HAP) has been linked to increased prevalence of respiratory infections and injuries such as burn⁷⁰.

Figure 18: Indoor air pollution death in the East African Community

	Total deaths from HAP	Deaths of 0-4 year olds	% of total	Deaths of males 18+	% of total	Deaths of females 18+	% of total
Burundi	9,375	5,189	55	2,268	24	1,918	20
Kenya	21,691	11,314	52	5,658	26	4,719	22
Rwanda	6,291	2,650	42	1,876	30	1,765	28
South Sudan	9,200	5,062	55	2,145	23	1,993	22
Tanzania	21,671	9,219	43	6,633	31	5,820	27
Uganda	20,954	10,039	48	5,682	27	5,233	25
Total	89,182	43,473	49	24,262	27	21,448	24

Source: World Health Organization, 2012 and EACREE 2018

- Gender-Based Violence.** GBV is a widespread phenomenon in Kenya, commonly affecting women and girls. This is a major human rights and public health issue reinforced by social acceptance of violence against women and high levels of impunity. Under customary law, domestic violence can be justified as an acceptable way of reacting to women’s refusal to obey her husband. The 2014 Kenya Demographic Health Survey (KDHS) indicates that 39 percent of ever-married women and 9 percent of men aged 15-49 report having experienced domestic physical or sexual violence. 45 percent of women between the age of 15 and 49 have experienced physical violence. Women living in internally displaced persons camps are even more vulnerable to GBV⁷¹. Kenyan girls are

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2016. Gender Analysis Report.

⁷⁰ Government of Kenya, Ministry of Energy. 2019. Gender Policy in Energy.

⁷¹ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2016. Gender Analysis Report.

particularly vulnerable to harmful traditional practices and early marriage. 21 percent of Kenyan girls have been subjected to FGM, mostly in the Somali, Samburu, Kisii, and Masaai communities. In the energy sector, several organizations have introduced policies to prevent gender-based violence. For example, the Kenya Power and Light Company (KPLC) has introduced a Sexual Harassment Policy⁷².

- **Women's agency and political participation.** Since the introduction of a gender quota in the 2010 Constitution, women's participation in political institutions has slowly improved. Following the 2013 general elections, female representation in Parliament increased from 22 to 86 representatives, while 96 women were elected as members of county assembly. However, women continue to be under-represented in political positions at all levels. Since the 2017 General Election, women account for 21.8 percent of members of Parliament and hold 25 percent of ministerial seats⁷³. At the county level, women represent 34 percent of Members of the County Assembly (MCAs). Of that number, only 13 percent were elected, the remaining female members were appointed⁷⁴.
- **Female employment and access to decent work.** Kenyan women continue to be under-represented in the labor market and are more likely to work in the informal sector in lower-quality, lower-paid jobs. Women's participation rate in the labor force reaches 64.1 percent (versus 69.6 percent for men), while 44.2 percent of women are employed part-time compared to 28.9 percent of men⁷⁵. Gender gaps in outcomes are significant: men's estimated earned income is \$3,600 compared to \$2,500 for women. A 2019 study of 60 Kenyan companies shows wide gender disparities in access to higher-level positions in the private sector. Key barriers affecting women's career development include gender bias and stereotypes, lack of mentor, limited informal networks, sexual harassment as well as issues maintaining work-life balance⁷⁶. However, Kenya does outperform global averages on female employment in companies per Figure 5 below.

⁷² Clancy, Nthabiseng and Mohlakoana, 2020. Gender audits: An approach to engendering energy policy in Nepal, Kenya and Senegal.

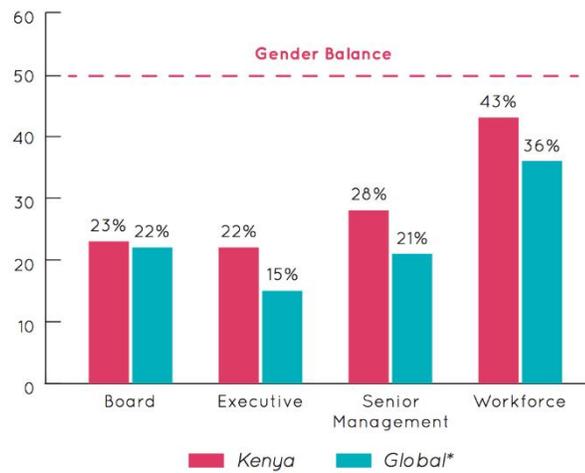
⁷³ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

⁷⁴ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2020. Kenya Gender Equality and Female Empowerment.

⁷⁵ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

⁷⁶ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2016. Engendering Utilities: Improving Gender Diversity in Power Sector Utilities.

Figure 19: Female employees by company level (in percentage)



*Equileap assesses over 3,500 companies globally.

Source: Equileap, 2019

Women’s access to economic opportunities is hampered by gender roles that confine them to domestic tasks, especially in rural areas. As a result, women have less time than men to dedicate to economic activities. For instance, Kenyan women usually spend more than 5 hours a day near a fire, whereas men will spend less than an hour⁷⁷. The labor market is segregated by sex according to gender roles, resulting in women lower representation in the energy sector. Female employment is largely concentrated in the service (mostly in education) and agriculture industries. In the agricultural sector, most women are subsistence farmers providing unpaid labor. Only 1.8 percent of women work in engineering, manufacturing and construction while this is the case for 6.2 percent of men. The state-utility KPLC started embedding gender in its corporate policies in 2008, to achieve greater balance among its workforce. In 2015, less than 20 percent of its employees were women.

Figure 20: Percentage of women employees within selected utilities

	Macedonia	Georgia	Jordan		Kenya	Nigeria	
As a percent of employees	EVN Macedonia	Energo-Pro	EDCO	IDECO	KPLC	EKEDP	IBEDC
Women Employed %	19.6	10.8	6.3	5.6	19.4	20.2	19.0
Women Managers %	22.7	16.8	8.8	15.5	21.2	30.5	25.0
Women Engineers %	21.1	15.6	13.7	25.7	9.2	3.7	9.1
Total Employment	1,973	5,224	1,297	1,172	10,590	2,154	2,351

Source: USAID report, 2016

⁷⁷ Ibid.

- **Entrepreneurship and access to ownership and finance.** Although women own 48 percent of businesses in Kenya, female entrepreneurs face more challenges than male entrepreneur in their professional development. Female-owned businesses are smaller in size and are most likely to be operating from home. These businesses include activities such as roadside stands selling vegetables or clothes and retail businesses. Due to lack of access to collaterals and limited land ownership, only 7 percent of female business owners have access to formal credit. Women are also less likely to have bank accounts than men, particularly due to the lack of bank branches in rural areas⁷⁸. In addition, female entrepreneurs face greater discrimination in access to electricity, experiencing delays in obtaining connections and the expectation that they will pay bribes to get them⁷⁹.

Female-headed households are particularly vulnerable to the lack of access to ownership and finance and experience higher poverty levels than men-headed households. They also have lower access to electricity, often because of high connection/subscription fees to the grid. According to Kenya’s 2018 Multi-Tier Framework (MTF) survey, 50.4 percent of FHHs in rural areas have no access to electricity compared to 45.3 percent of male-headed households. In urban areas, 16.3 percent of FHHs have no electricity versus 9.3 percent of male-headed households⁸⁰.

3.5 Mali Gender Gap

While Mali has made notable gains in gender equality in recent years, significant gaps remain in health outcomes, education, economic and political participation. Mali is among the top five most-improved countries in the 2020 World Economic Forum Global Gender Index, next to Ethiopia, Spain, Albania and Mexico. However, the WEF Index ranks Mali 139 out of 153 countries, as women and girls continue to suffer from harmful cultural norms and practices such as FGM and early marriage, educational gaps, unequal division of domestic labor and occupational sex-segregation.

- **Education and health.** Despite progress in overall enrolment levels and government efforts to decrease the disparity between males and females, Mali has yet to close more than 20 percent of its educational gender gap. Women’s literacy rate in the country does not exceed 25 percent, while more than 46 percent of men are literate. At every level, women’s enrolment is lower than men, with more than twice as many men than women reaching tertiary education.

Figure 21: Mali’s Educational Attainment

MALI’S EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT (percent)		
	Women	Men
Enrolment in primary education	55.8	62.0

⁷⁸ International Renewable Energy Agency (IRENA).2019. Renewable Energy: a gender perspective

⁷⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁰ Government of Kenya. 2019. Gender Strategy in the Energy Sector.

Enrolment in secondary education	26.8	33.0
Enrolment in tertiary education	3.2	7.7

Source: Based on data from the World Economic Forum 2020 Global Gender Index

Girl's access to education is constrained by the prevalent practice of early marriage and early childbearing, particularly in rural areas. Mali has one of the ten highest child marriage prevalence in Africa: more than 10 times as many women as men are married by age 18 (53 percent versus 4 percent) and 15 percent of girls are married before age 15⁸¹. Early marriage and high fertility rates are correlated to low educational attainment, but also take a heavy toll on women and girls' health outcomes due to higher maternal and infant mortality rates. In 2018, women neonatal mortality reached 33 percent and post-neonatal mortality 22 percent.

- **Gender-Based Violence.** FGM is a widespread practice in Mali affecting 89 percent of women aged 15-49. Wide regional disparities have been found, varying from less than 2 percent in the areas of Gao and Kidal, to more than 95 percent in Koulikoro and Sikasso regions. Unlike neighborhood countries, Mali has not yet legislated on the prohibition of FGM. This practice is reinforced by cultural norms around female circumcision: nearly 70 percent of men and women aged 15-49 believe that FGM is a religious requirement⁸². In addition to FGM, other forms of violence against women are widely accepted and practiced in the Malian society. For instance, more than 2 in 5 women aged 15-49 have experienced physical violence in their lifetime, and a majority of women (79 percent) and nearly half of men (47 percent) find justification in domestic violence⁸³. Polygamous relationships have been associated with higher rates of intimate partner violence towards women than monogamous marriage⁸⁴. Although polygamy has been slowly declining in the Malian society, 37 percent of women aged 15-49 and 19 percent of men were still in polygamous unions in 2018.
- **Women's political participation.** Malian women have extremely limited access to political institutions and are widely under-represented in decision-making structures. In 2018, women held 9.5 percent of women seats in the National Assembly, 34 percent of ministerial positions, less than 2 percent of mayoral posts and 1 governor position⁸⁵. New legislative and municipal elections were originally scheduled in 2018, but where postponed to March/April 2020 due to political incidents and intensifying violence in the central and northern part of the country. At the time of writing, sex-segregated election results are not known. Women's low political participation indicates that the Malian society continues to predominantly perceive men as the main decision-makers, starting in the household. According to the 2018 Mali Demographic and

⁸¹ Government of Mali. 2018. Mali Demographic and Health Survey or EDSM-VI.

⁸² Ibid.

⁸³ Ibid.

⁸⁴ Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere (CARE). 2013. Men, Gender Equality and Gender Relations in Mali.

⁸⁵ Stockholm International Peace Research Institute (SIPRI). 2019. A Study of Insecurity and Gender in Mali.

Health Survey, 63 percent of women do not participate in key household decisions such as visiting their family or relatives, major households purchase or decisions about their own healthcare. Women's lack of agency in the household has spill-over effects in the labor market which is characterized by occupational sex-segregation, and employment gaps.

- **Female employment and access to decent work.** When Malian women are employed, they predominantly work in the informal sector with poor level of qualifications, in inferior positions and with lower, if any, income. Most of women's participation in the labour market (95 percent) is concentrated in agriculture, livestock farming, fishing, trade, processing activities, household activities as well as hotels, restaurants and catering services. Employed women are far more likely than men to work without pay at all, mostly as unpaid agricultural laborers in their own households : 77 percent of women farmers declared in a government survey that they have never received wages for their labor⁸⁶. When women are paid, whether in the formal or informal sector, their income is on average less than half the amount of what men receive. Women's participation in the labor market is further hindered by social norms making them responsible for domestic work, especially in rural areas. In addition to the time spent on farming, rural women dedicate on average 7 to 8 hours each day to domestic chores⁸⁷. This translates into a significant employment gap with only 63.4 percent of women participating in the labour force compared to 82.7 percent of men⁸⁸. This employment gap is reflected in the energy sector, where women are under-represented and are not allocated the same career opportunities as men. In 2018, the state-owned utility Energie du Mali (EDM) only had 446 female employees out of 2234 staff, and only 15 percent of total trainings were allocated to women.
- **Entrepreneurship and access to ownership and finance.** Women play a major role in agricultural production but their access and ownership of resources remain extremely limited. Mali's customary law excludes women from land ownership and continues to be widely applied in rural areas, despite the adoption of the 2006 agricultural orientation law protecting women's property rights. Although all lands in Mali are State property by law, the allocation of lands is often managed by village chiefs and customary chiefs. Women's access to entrepreneurship is further hampered by lack of access to technology and credit, preventing women farmers from purchasing necessary inputs and services. In 2012, only 12 percent of total credit was allocated to women⁸⁹. Women's limited access to entrepreneurship is compounded by legal barriers: according to article 38 of the Family Code women who wish to undertake a commercial business need their husband's authorization.

⁸⁶ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2012. Mali Gender Assessment.

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

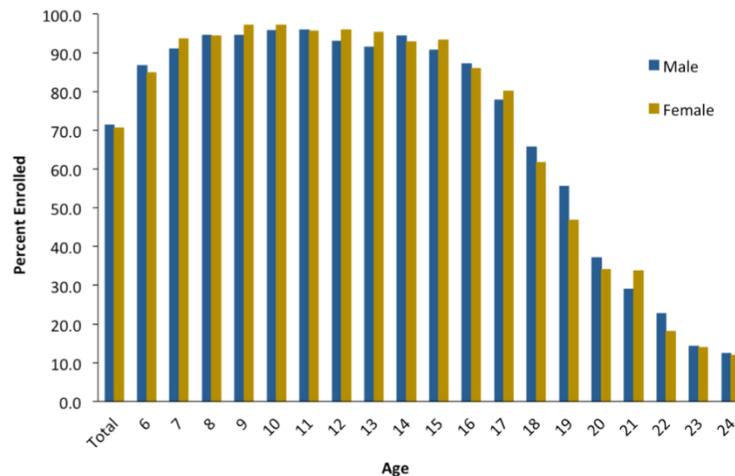
⁸⁹ United States Agency for International Development (USAID). 2012. Mali Gender Assessment.

3.6 Namibia Gender Gap

The government of Namibia’s efforts to promote equality between men and women has resulted in continued reduction of gender gaps in recent years. Namibia is today one of the most advanced countries worldwide with regards to gender equality. The country is ranked 12th out of 153 countries by the World Economic Forum Global Gender Index, second in Sub-Saharan Africa (behind Rwanda). Yet, significant disparities remain, especially in the fields of women economic participation and opportunities and gender-based violence. Key gender gaps that may impact the implementation of the RE project in Namibia are explored below:

- **Education and Health.** Alongside Botswana and Lesotho, Namibia is among three Sub-Saharan African countries to have already achieved parity in education. Namibian women have higher rates of enrolment in primary and secondary education, and are twice as many in tertiary education (30.3 percent versus 15.3 percent for men)⁹⁰. This is the result of a proactive policy from the Government of Namibia to make education accessible to all boys and girls, in both primary and secondary schools. Primary education in government schools became free in 2013, followed by secondary schools in 2016. Despite these significant progress, two challenges remain: i) persisting educational gap between rural and urban areas, and ii) occupational sex-segregation.

Figure 22: School enrolment of the school going population aged 6-24 years by sex



Source: Namibia Inter-Censal Demographic Survey (2016)

Gender gap in STEM remains high, with almost three times as many men as women enrolled in STEM fields (21 percent versus 7.71 percent for women)⁹¹. For instance, the University of Namibia’s 2015 annual report indicates that the faculty for engineering and IT has the lowest percentage of female enrolment

⁹⁰ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

⁹¹ Ibid.

rate (23 percent). The scarcity of female graduates in STEM fields translates into lower female participation in the energy sector.

Although the government of Namibia has improved health outcomes for both men and women in recent years, maternal mortality remains high with an estimated 385 deaths per 100,000 live birth⁹². Underlying causes include limited accessibility of health facilities, lack of skilled personnel and delays in seeking care. In 2013, 21 percent of the population lived more than 10 kilometers away from a health facility, making access to emergency obstetric care extremely difficult. On the other hand, the combination of increased knowledge about sexual and reproductive health, high educational attainment and increased female participation in the labour force has resulted in a significant drop in fertility rate. In 2017, Namibian women had on average 3.4 children compared to 6.1 children in 1991. Namibian women of all ages remain particularly vulnerable to HIV, which is a major public health issue in a country where the HIV prevalence rate is one of the highest in the world. In 2018 the rate of women aged 15 to 49 with HIV reached 14.1 percent compared to 9.3 percent among men of the same age.

- **Gender-Based Violence.** In Namibia, women and girls continue to experience high levels of sexual and GBV, exacerbated by substance abuse and harmful traditional practices. Harmful practices include genital stretching, testing of girls' sexual readiness by male relatives and widow cleansing,⁹³ especially in rural areas. The 2013 Namibian Demographic and Health Survey indicates that 32 percent of women aged 15-49 have experienced physical violence. Furthermore, more women than men feel insecure in the public space: 48 percent of women compared to 37 percent of men reported feeling unsafe walking in their neighborhoods. Although social tolerance to intimate partner violence has decreased over the years following legal reforms, 28 percent of women and 22 percent of men continued to justify domestic violence in 2013 (compared with 41 percent of men and 35 percent of women in 2006)⁹⁴.
- **Women's agency and political participation.** Namibia has one of the highest level of women's political participation in the continent. Since the November 2019 election, the rate of female members of Parliament reaches 46 percent, a 6 percent increase from last term. The election also resulted in increased female participation at ministerial levels: 38 percent of cabinet positions are held by women, a 28 percent increase, including in traditionally male-dominated ministries such as foreign relations, trade and justice. These progress indicate increasing acceptance of women's leadership in the political arena, although parity has not been achieved. A survey conducted in 2014/2015 by Afrobarometer revealed that 80 percent of men and women agreed with the statement that women should have equal opportunities to be elected to political office, while this was the case for only 67 percent of respondents in 2005/2006. However, women continue to report lower interest in politics and participation in politics than men : 63 percent versus 70 percent for men.

⁹² Government of Namibia. 2013. Namibia Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS).

⁹³ Legal Assistance Centre. Delegation of the European Union to Namibia. 2017. Namibia Gender Analysis.

⁹⁴ Ibid.

- Female employment and access to decent work.** Although women are increasingly more present in the labor market, gaps remain with respect to earned income, vulnerable employment, and unemployment. Namibian women are indeed less likely to be employed: in 2018 unemployment rate was higher among female (34.3 percent) than among male (32.5 percent). Latest figures indicate that women’s labour force participation rate reaches 58.7 percent, compared with 67.4 percent for men⁹⁵. They are also more likely to earn a lower income and occupy informal employment: 61.2 percent of employed women are in the informal sector, compared to 54.1 percent of men⁹⁶. In 2013, at least 60 percent of women earned less than their husbands and more than one-third of women and girls who engaged in agriculture work received no pay for it⁹⁷. Rural women are particularly vulnerable to unemployment and vulnerable employment. In 2016, about 44 percent of the female rural labour force was unemployed, compared to 34 percent in urban areas⁹⁸. In rural regions, most active women are engaged in the agriculture, forestry and fishing sector as subsistence farmers or communal farm workers. They are therefore more exposed to the consequences of climate change and are likely to suffer disproportionate effects with the declining availability of water and other resources. For instance, in times of droughts, many women remain in the household while men seek work in urban areas. In 2016, 46 percent of Namibian households were headed by women (48 percent in rural areas and 41 percent in urban areas)⁹⁹. Research indicates that FHH are more likely to be affected by poverty than men-headed households. Occupational sex-segregation is highly present in the country, affecting women’s participation in the energy sector as employees and entrepreneurs. Men predominate in the construction, transportation, wholesale and retail trade industries, while women are more likely to be found in the education, accommodation and food services sectors. For instance, in 2018, 8.9 percent of men in the labor market were employed as occupation plant and machine operators while this was the case for 0.4 percent of employed female¹⁰⁰.

Figure 23: Employed persons by industry and sex (percentage)

Employed persons by industry and sex (percent)		
INDUSTRY	MALE	FEMALE
Manufacturing	7.8 percent	4.6 percent
Electricity, gas, steam and air condition	0.7 percent	0.2 percent
Construction	11.6 percent	0.9 percent
Accommodation and food service activities	5.3 percent	17.5 percent
Education	4 percent	9 percent
Human health and social work activities	1.5 percent	3.9 percent

⁹⁵ World Economic Forum (WEF). 2020. Global Gender Gap Index.

⁹⁶ Government of Namibia.2013. Namibia Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS).

⁹⁷ Ibid.

⁹⁸ Legal Assistance Centre. Delegation of the European Union to Namibia. 2017. Namibia Gender Analysis.

⁹⁹ Government of Namibia.2016. Namibia Inter-Censal Demographic Survey.

¹⁰⁰ Government of Namibia. 2018. Namibia Labour Survey, 2018.

Activities of households as employers	5.7 percent	14.2 percent
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Source: Namibia Labor Survey 2018

- **Entrepreneurship and access to ownership and finance.** Although women’s right to access and own land is protected by land reforms and laws, traditional customary law is still applied in some rural areas, affecting women’s inheritance and property rights. Men and women enjoy relatively equal access to bank account ownership¹⁰¹. However, significant gaps remain when it comes to access to formal credit and entrepreneurship. Figures from the Agricultural Bank of Namibia (Agribank) indicates that in 2017, women accounted for 22 percent of all loans but only 10 percent of total loan amounts¹⁰². Poor financial skills, reliance on informal credit and lack of collateral are among the key barriers to accessing bank loans. In 2014/2015, only 26 percent of businesses had majority female ownership while 41 percent had female participation in ownership¹⁰³.

3.7 Uzbekistan Gender Gap

While Uzbekistan has significantly increased women’s education and health outcomes in the past decades, women continue to have limited access to economic and political opportunities. Following Uzbekistan’s independence in 1991, traditional values and patriarchal social norms have gained traction, affecting women’s presence and participation in the political and economic arena¹⁰⁴. Uzbekistan is ranked 64 out of 162 by the 2018 UN Gender Inequality Index (GII), and 108 out of 182 in the Gender Development Index, lagging behind Kazakhstan, Azerbaijan, Armenia and Georgia. The GII measures gender inequalities in reproductive health, empowerment and economic status, while the Gender Development Index measures disparities between women and men in health, knowledge, and livings standards.

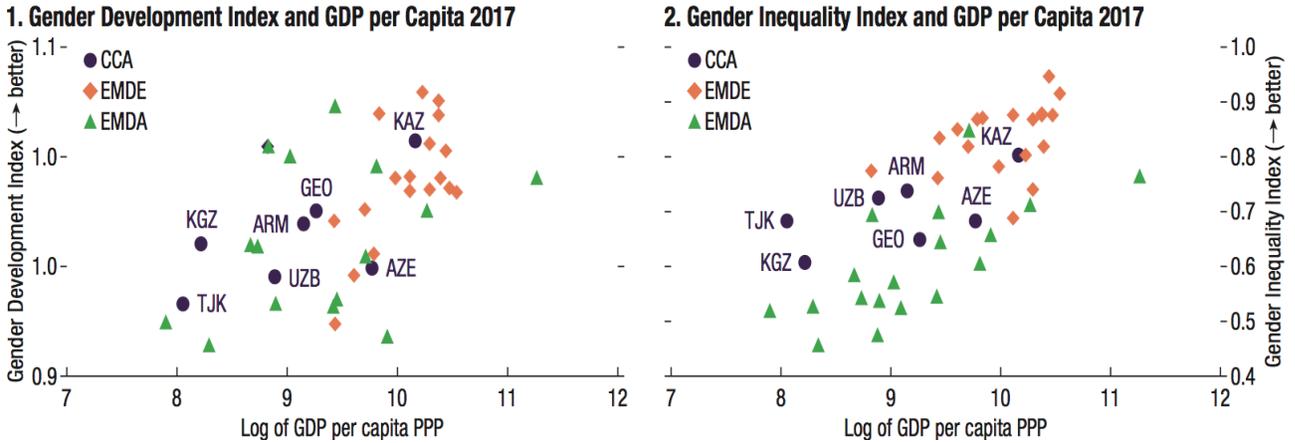
¹⁰¹ The World Bank Group. 2017. Global Findex.

¹⁰² Legal Assistance Centre. Delegation of the European Union to Namibia. 2017. Namibia Gender Analysis.

¹⁰³ The World Bank Group. 2014. World Bank Group, Enterprise Surveys, Namibia.

¹⁰⁴ Rano Turaeva. 2017. Gender and changing women’s roles in Uzbekistan: from Soviet workers to post-Soviet entrepreneur.

Figure 26: Gender Index



Sources: United Nations, Human Development Report 2017; and IMF report 2019
 Note: CCA = Caucasus and Central Asia; EMDA = emerging and developing Asia; EMDE = emerging and developing Europe.

- Health and Education.** The Government of Uzbekistan has enacted policies to improve reproductive health indicators resulting in substantial decrease of maternal and infant mortality rates in past decades. The maternal mortality rate went from 41 per 100,000 live births in 2000 to 29 per 100,000 live births in 2017¹⁰⁵. Some barriers to accessing quality health care remain, especially in rural areas, owing to long distance to health facilities, and the high cost of care. Access to safe drinking water and sanitation is also unreliable in rural areas, particularly affecting women who are primarily responsible for water collection and household chores. Uzbekistan has achieved near parity in primary and secondary school enrolment. Nonetheless, two educational gaps remain: (i) women’s limited access to higher education and (ii) educational sex-segregation. The Constitution of Uzbekistan guarantees equal access to education and near parity is observed in primary and secondary enrolment. In 2018, the female gross enrolment ratio in primary education was of 103.4 percent (105 percent for men) and 92.7 percent in secondary education (93.9 percent for men)¹⁰⁶. However, women’s enrolment rates in higher education are significantly lower than men’s. In 2018, only 8.2 percent of women were enrolled in tertiary education, compared with 11.8 percent of men¹⁰⁷. Key drivers behind women’s lower tertiary education rates include social norms that encourage women to marry after completing secondary school and financial barriers such as the cost of tuition fees, accommodation and transportation to a higher educational institution. This particularly affects poorer households in rural areas who might prioritize the education of boys for economic reasons. In higher education, women and men’s educational path is often determined by gender roles and stereotypes. Men are more likely to enroll in technical fields for instance in transport, communication, construction and agriculture,

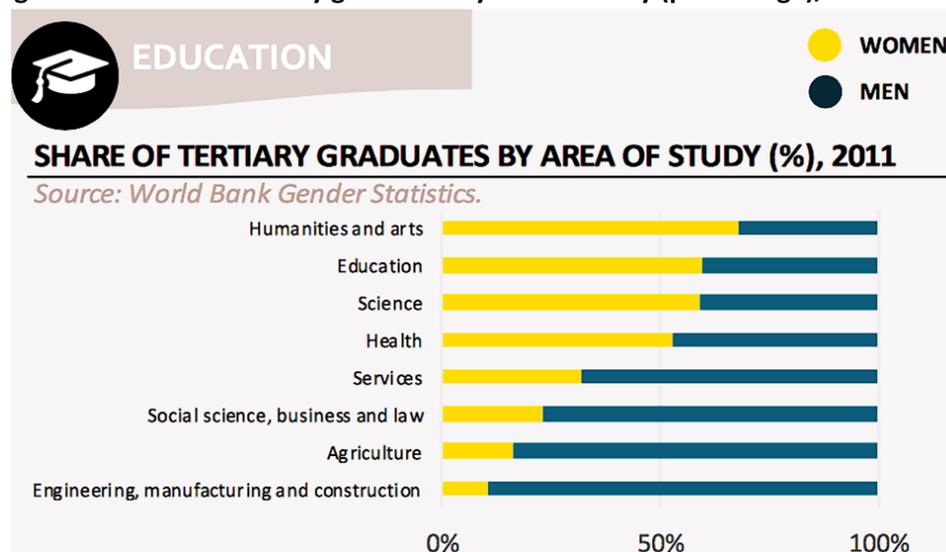
¹⁰⁵ World Bank Gender Data Portal.

¹⁰⁶ UNESCO Database of Resources on Education.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

whereas women predominate in traditionally female fields of study such as education and healthcare. Educational sex-segregation directly affect women’s economic opportunities because male-dominated fields generally lead to better-quality jobs with higher incomes. It also impedes women’s presence and participation in the energy sector.

Figure 27 : Share of tertiary graduates by area of study (percentage), 2011



Source: World Bank Gender Statistics.

Source: World Bank Gender Statistics, 2015.

- **Women’s political participation.** Since the adoption of a quota law in 2004 requiring at least 30 percent of female candidates in political party lists, the number of elected women in the National Assembly has consistently increased. However, women’s political participation remain extremely low at the national and local level: women make up only 16 percent of the legislative chamber (9.4 percent in 2014) whereas few women hold leadership positions in local government. The local leaders, *hokim*, are traditionally male. Women’s presence and participation in the political arena is further hampered by gender stereotypes confining them to the household and reducing their free time. Women are estimated to spend three times more time than men in unpaid work (cooking, housekeeping etc.)¹⁰⁸.
- **Female employment and access to decent work.** Although Uzbekistan has a relatively high rate of female participation in the labour market, they remain under-representated, have limited access to formal employment and are concentrated in lower-income sectors. In 2019, 55.8 percent of women aged 15-64 participated in the labor force, compared with 81.7 percent of men¹⁰⁹. Women’s share in formal employment (45.7 percent) is also lower than that of men (54.3 percent)¹¹⁰. One of the main drivers behind this gender imbalance is the prevalent social norm

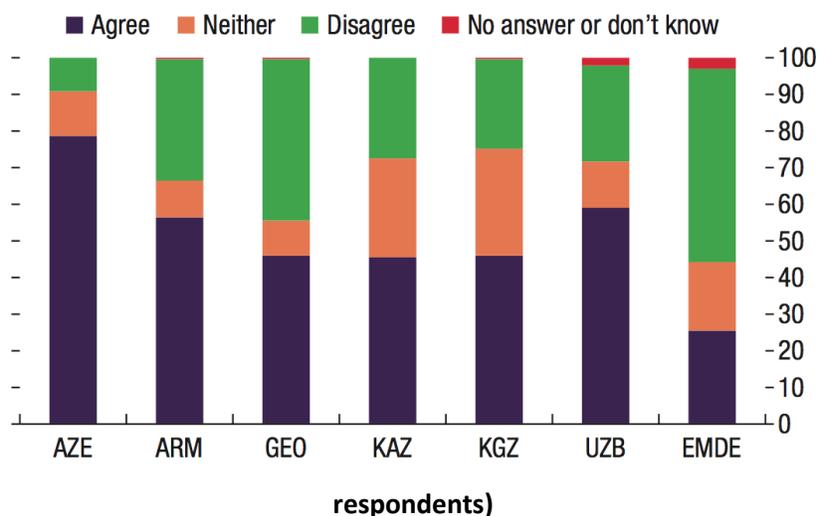
¹⁰⁸ Asian Development Bank. 2018. Uzbekistan Country Gender Assessment Update.

¹⁰⁹ World Bank Data Bank.

¹¹⁰ Asian Development Bank. 2018. Uzbekistan Gender Assessment.

attributing responsibility for unpaid care work to women. According to a recent International Monetary Fund (IMF) survey, a majority of respondents (60 percent) agreed that men should be given preference over women in the job market when jobs are scarce. This indicates adherence to the patriarchal family model in which women’s main responsibility lies with the household and children.

Figure 28: When jobs are scarce, men should have more right to a job than women (percent of respondents)



Source: IMF value Survey, 2019 Note: EMDE = emerging and developing Europe

Women are more likely to earn income through informal and family-based employment, for instance in farming or handicrafts, therefore increasing their vulnerability and dependency due to lower access to social benefits. Women’s limited access to economic opportunities is exacerbated by occupational sex-segregation: female employment is concentrated in the public service sector (education, health care, social security) where salaries are inferior, while men predominate in technical fields such as construction, transport and communication. As a result, the gender wage gap between men and women is estimated between 60 percent and 53 percent¹¹¹. Only 8 percent of workers in construction and 11.3 percent in transport and communications are women, while men only account for 18.4 percent of all employees in health care. This is reinforced by legal restrictions on women’s entry to technical industries. Article 225 of the Labor code of Uzbekistan limits women’s employment in several fields including transport, construction, natural resources extraction, manufacturing and industry.

¹¹¹ Ibid.

Figure 29 : Sex-Disaggregation of the Employed, by Sector, 2015

Sector	Total (%)		Sector (%)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	100	100	45.7	54.3
Industry	10.8	14.5	38.5	61.5
Agriculture and forestry	27.6	27.7	45.5	54.5
Construction	1.7	16.2	8	92
Transport and communications	1.3	8.9	11.3	88.7
Trade, catering	13.3	9.7	53.7	46.3
Municipal services	3	4.3	36.7	63.3
Health, wellness, and social welfare	12.6	2.4	81.6	18.4
Education, culture, arts, science	19.9	6.5	72.1	27.9
Finance, banking, and insurance	0.4	0.5	41	59
Other	9.4	9.3	45.7	54.3

Source: Official statistics and Asian Development Bank Uzbekistan Gender Assessment, 2018

- Female employment in the Energy industry.** Occupational sex-segregation translates into lower female presence and participation in the energy industry. Women are under-represented in this sector, especially in technical fields and in management positions, and are more likely to perform administrative tasks. Only 17 percent of all employees from the state-owned energy company Uzbekenergo are women. Women’s under-representation in the energy sector can also be explained by limited opportunities for skills development and lack of awareness of employment opportunities in the sector.

Figure 30: Sex-Disaggregation of Uzbekenergo staff (percent)

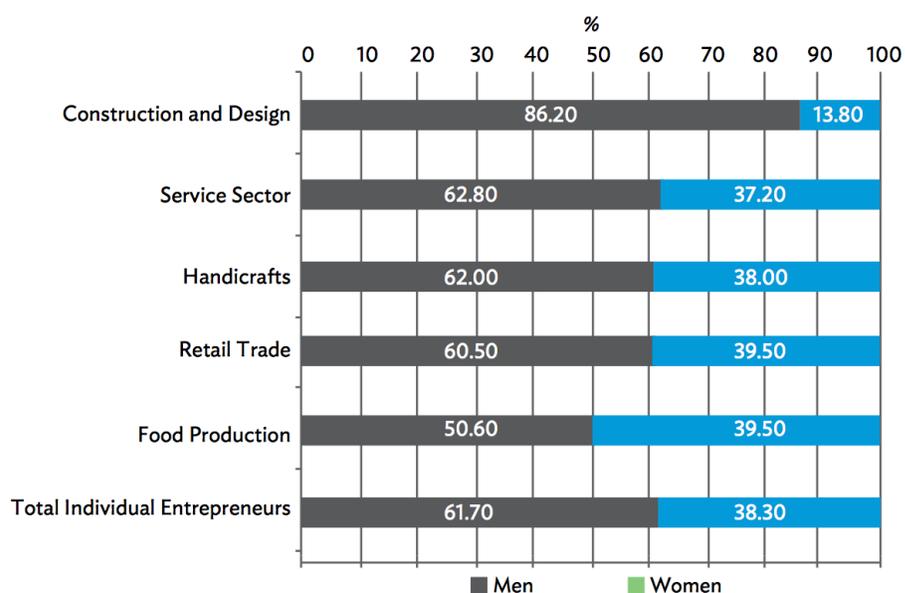
Year	Total		Management		Technical staff		Maintenance	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
2014	17.2	82.8	23.1	76.9	44.8	55.2	14.7	85.3
2015	16.9	83.1	21.9	78.1	51.3	48.7	14.5	85.5
2016	17	83	20.2	79.8	46.5	53.5	15	85
2017 (Jan–June)			23.3	76.7	12.9	87.1		

Source: Asian Development Bank Uzbekistan Gender Assessment, 2018

- Entrepreneurship and access to finance.** While the private sector has been taking more space in the country’s economy, the Government of Uzbekistan has enacted policies to promote women’s entrepreneurship. Women represent around 38 percent of individual entrepreneurs in

Uzbekistan, and are mostly working in handicrafts or food production in rural areas¹¹². Several constraints affect women’s capacity to create and expand businesses: women are more likely to own small-scale businesses and have limited access to finance due to insufficient collaterals, as well as limited financial skills and knowledge about loan application processes. Women only own 22.3 percent of the total value of property officially registered¹¹³ and only 33 percent of female entrepreneurs resort to bank loans for start-up capital¹¹⁴. Women’s lack of access to entrepreneurship is compounded by psychological barriers affecting confidence and limiting risk-taking behaviors. Furthermore, occupational sex-segregation is reflected in entrepreneurship and women are under-represented in traditionally male sectors such as construction and design.

Figure 31: Male and Female Individual Entrepreneurs by Sector (percent)



Source: State Committee of the Republic of Uzbekistan on Statistics, 2012 and Asian Development Bank Uzbekistan Gender Assessment, 2018

- **Gender-Based Violence.** Reliable data are still lacking to assess the prevalence of GBV in Uzbekistan, but attitudinal surveys show high levels of tolerance towards violence against women. One of the most common cause of domestic violence is the perception that women are challenging their submissive role in the household¹¹⁵. The president signed a Law on the Protection of Women from Harassment and Violence in September 2019, yet services for victims continue to be scarce.

¹¹² Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO).2019. Gender, agriculture and rural development in Uzbekistan.

¹¹³ Asian Development Bank. 2018. Uzbekistan Country Gender Assessment Update.

¹¹⁴ Business Forum of Uzbekistan.2014.

¹¹⁵ Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO).2018. Uzbekistan Gender Assessment.

4. PROPOSED ENTRY POINTS

Building upon this preliminary assessment of key gender gaps in the seven targeted countries, four main areas of interventions have been identified, namely: i) Female employment and skill gaps in the energy sector, ii) Female employment and livelihoods in the areas of implementation of RE projects, iii) Gender-based violence and iv) women access to services as energy consumers. Potential mitigations actions for each area are highlighted below and will be explored during project design:

- a. **Female employment and skill gaps in the energy sector:** the main barriers to women participation in the energy sector, as employees and entrepreneurs, include social norms that confine women to unpaid household and care work, occupational sex-segregation, limited capacities and skills, as well as discriminatory work environments. In some countries, legislation may also prevent women from entering certain industries, affecting their employment in the energy sector. Without a proactive policy to promote female economic participation, men may disproportionately benefit from new employment opportunities across the RE value chain, particularly in construction, operation and maintenance. Women may already enjoy indirect employment opportunities in ancillary industries such as health, social services and catering. Increasing female employment in non-traditional fields can contribute to challenging social norms and stereotypes, ultimately enhancing women's voice and agency.

Entry points for addressing this issue include the promotion of women's participation in the realization of renewable energy projects, in energy generation, transmission and distribution, and the promotion of female-friendly infrastructure and services:

- Vocational trainings and capacity-building to increase women's technical skills (including programs for women to gain hands-on experience in the energy sector) and focus on reforms in the public utilities managing RE projects;
 - Partnerships with educational and technical training institutes to enhance female school-to-work transition in non-traditional fields;
 - During the procurement phase, technical support would be provided to national stakeholders to ensure a transparent and equitable process. Procuring entities would be encouraged to the extent possible to include non-price factors at relevant stage of the procurement process, to enhance female employment and the participation of women-owned businesses;
 - The adoption of equal opportunities practices at the corporate level would be encouraged through policy dialogue and capacity-building activities; and
 - Outreach initiatives to allow local players to be informed of the program's business opportunities. Special attention would be paid to the extent possible to the promotion of women-run businesses along the project development cycle.
- b. **Female employment and livelihoods in the areas of implementation of RE projects:** RE projects are frequently located in remote areas with good solar/wind resources and large plots of lands,

but where living standards are below the country average. Local communities often face numerous challenges hindering their development. Women, if employed, are more exposed to lower-paid, lower-quality employment in the informal sector (e.g. textile, crafts, food processing, small-scale farming and retail trading). They also have limited access to ownership of key inputs or assets. As a result, women may face more difficulties with regards to access to entrepreneurship and ownership of micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises.

The socio-economic needs of the local communities will be assessed, and actions empowering women will be prioritized to the extent possible along the electrification program. Those may include:

- Providing women and girls with sources of low-risk income and entrepreneurship opportunities while ensuring that community needs are accommodated. The activities to support would be selected after assessing the needs of the local communities and putting in place a scorecard to prioritize projects benefiting women. Actions may cover health services (such as mobile clinics), infrastructures to open-up a village or education and skills-building activities, for instance in traditional home-based activities such as handicrafts, or in agricultural activities. Particular attention would be paid to illiterate women when relevant. Support may be provided through grants, or as a requirement under local bids and/or part of private sector Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) aspects;
 - Ongoing support would be offered to support female entrepreneurship notably through the creation of peer groups, in partnership with local NGOs.
- c. **Gender-based violence:** women routinely experience sexual harassment and intimate partner violence in target countries and the risk of violence against women can increase during the deployment of solar and wind projects, due to the presence of migrant workers on construction sites. Large-scale energy projects may also increase rates of gender-based violence in surrounding areas, according to studies. For instance, households with a rise in income due to employment in construction sites can see increased expenditures on alcohol, a known driver of GBV¹¹⁶.

The risk of increased GBV, sex trafficking, and child abuse during the realization of large-scale infrastructure projects will be mitigated through adopting the following actions, required by the World Bank procedures and outlined in the WBG GBV Good Practice Note (2018):

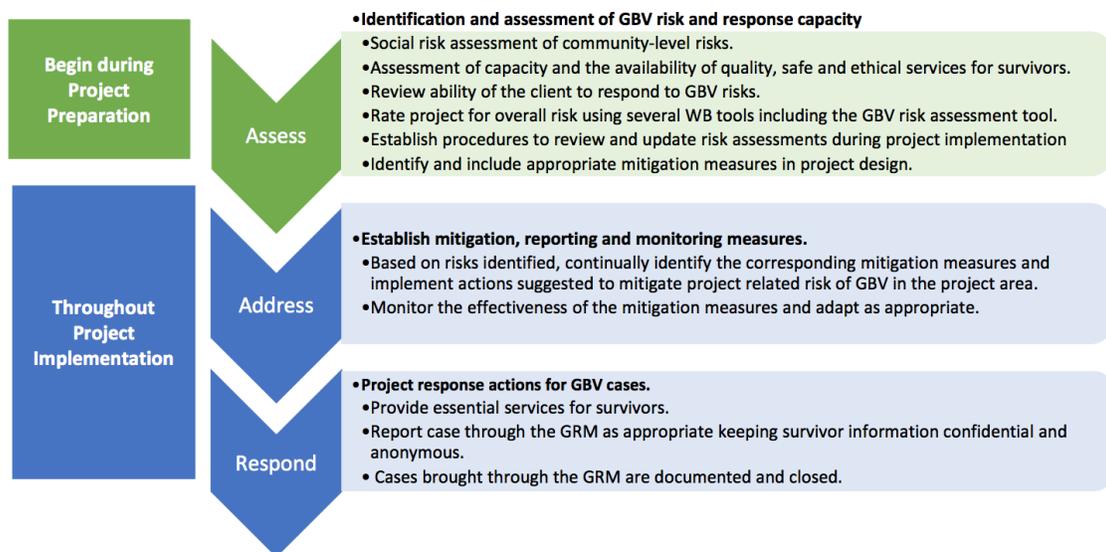
- Assessment of GBV risks by the World Bank task team using the World Bank GBV risk assessment tools;
- Assessment of GBV risks by the client country during project preparation and particularly during community consultations. GBV considerations will be included in Safeguard

¹¹⁶ Kuriakose, A. and de Boer, F. 2015. Gender and Renewable Energy: A Literature Review.

documents (Environmental and Social Assessment ESA, Environmental and Social Management Plan);

- Development of a GBV Action Plan;
- Assessment of the project capacity to provide access to safe and ethical services for survivors;
- Establishment of GBV Risk and Mitigation Response Measures such as including specific requirements during procurement process based on ESA findings, and providing GBV trainings to contractors, consultants and clients;
- Monitoring and reporting of GBV activities;
- Responding to GBV incidents in cooperation with GBV service providers.

Figure 32: WBG mandatory requirements in Major Civil Works



Source: WBG GBV Good Practice Note (2018)

- d. **Women access to services as energy consumers:** Among project countries with lower electrification rates such as DRC and CAR, women suffer from time-poverty and a health-burden, as they shoulder the responsibility of food preparation, as well as fuel and water collection. In target countries, the main barrier to women accessing energy services from renewable energy may include high cost of connecting to the electrical grid, resulting in possible certain households being left behind. Women may resort to biomass fuels for cooking and heating purposes increasing their time poverty and limiting their ability to create income-generating opportunities. A study conducted by the Botswana Power Corporation found out that female-headed households were most affected by lack of access to modern energy, whereas these households had a high-demand for income-generating opportunities¹¹⁷. Furthermore, women-headed businesses routinely face more constraints than men in accessing grid electricity, such as delays

¹¹⁷ Energia. Botswana Power Corporation. 2011. Gender Mainstreaming in the Botswana Power Corporation

in obtaining electrical connections and the expectations that they will pay bribes for these services¹¹⁸. Improving access to electricity services can therefore reduce the time and labor burden of women, generate health and education benefits, increase female labor participation and incomes. Research shows that in rural areas, energy access is correlated with 59 percent higher wages¹¹⁹.

The following interventions would be promoted to increase women's access to electricity:

- Conduct household surveys as a tool to assess affordability of services and willingness to pay, in order to better target financial support;
- Inclusion of women and men's differentiated needs in the design of electrification programs, including by promoting women's engagement during stakeholders' consultations;
- Targeted subsidies or credit schemes to the extent possible to provide electricity to some of the poorest and most under-developed regions, especially in countries where mini-grid projects will be deployed (DRC, CAR);
- Micro-financing schemes to the extent possible to help women-owned businesses overcome the initial cost of connection. Partnerships with local NGOs could be considered to manage loans.

¹¹⁸ The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2016. Gender, Climate Change and Food Security.

¹¹⁹ O'Dell, K., Peters, S., & Wharton, K. 2014. Women, Energy and Economic Empowerment; applying a Gender Lens to amplify the impact of energy access.

5. STRATEGIC APPROACH

5.1 Facility Level

The Facility will follow a systematic approach and provide support to the projects with a focus on data collection, generating knowledge and providing training and capacity-building activities. At every step of the project cycle, the Gender and Energy program of the World Bank Energy Sector Management Assistance Program (ESMAP) will be available to provide technical assistance to the project team and the client country. Kenya, Mali, Uzbekistan and DRC have already benefited from ESMAP Gender and energy regional programs that aim to strengthen women's role in the energy sector as consumers, employees and entrepreneurs.

The Facility will encourage the recruitment of a balanced female-to-male employment ratio within the Project Management Unit (PMU) team to the extent possible. The standard World Bank implementation process will indeed be put in place and include a PMU in each country, responsible for developing, implementing and monitoring each project. If needed, staff members including the Project Manager and the Environment and Social Protection Specialists may receive capacity-building trainings. This will ensure that identified gaps as well as sexual harassment and GBV risks are considered throughout the project cycle.

Obtaining stakeholders buy-in will be key in ensuring that interventions to promote women's employment and enhance their livelihood are effectively implemented with measurable outcomes. Institutional and behavioral change are a long-time process that will require sustained support of all relevant stakeholders (local councils, national energy policymakers, energy ministries and energy companies) throughout the program cycle. Countries adherence to international agreements and national legal frameworks on gender -equality, are a good starting point to strengthen government's support for gender-interventions. The following strategy will be followed to increase stakeholders' commitments, to the extent possible:

- Engage in policy-dialogue with client countries through dedicated meetings, to build awareness and sensitivity about the benefits of promoting women's economic empowerment and agency and remove legal and regulatory barriers to female employment in the energy sector;
- Closely align proposed activities with each country's national priorities and Gender Strategies, such as community development or female employment;
- Identify an institutional gender-focal point to serve as interlocutor during project implementation, if appropriate;
- Offer technical support to help utilities invest in workforce diversification, building on existing internal gender strategies when available. This support may take the form of workshops on

gender-related concepts with senior management, or a review of training plans to better integrate female employees.

In the private sector, companies are increasingly adopting a focus on gender equality in CSR policies.

Indeed, a growing body of research shows that mitigating risks for women and empowering them as consumers, employees and entrepreneurs can lead to increased firm productivity and better performance. During projects design, the private sector can be involved in financing interventions to i) create income-generating opportunities for women in affected areas, ii) implement mechanisms to prevent and respond to GBV incidents, iii) increase connection rates among female-headed households, for instance through capacity-building workshop on maintaining and developing energy services.

5.2 Project level

At the project level, the following approach would be followed:

- a. **Data collection to document the baseline situation and identify gaps.** Baseline data will be collected to set targets and measure progress during implementation, with a focus on countries where existing baseline sex-disaggregated data are weak. Research will build upon existing country gender diagnostics and action plan when available, to ensure national priorities are understood and considered. To support project design and implementation, stakeholders' consultations will involve female participants, to understand men and women differentiated needs. In addition, initial assessments will include an analysis of the differentiated impact of the SRMI project on men and women, through the involvement of gender and energy experts (Environmental and Social Impact Assessment, Resettlement Action Plans etc.).
- b. **Identifying and implementing relevant actions.** Based on the initial diagnosis and inclusive stakeholders' consultations, targeted activities will be identified to address key gender gaps. These may include (i) actions to promote female employment in the renewables sector (including capacity building and programs for women to gain hands-on experience in the energy sector such as support for school-to-work transition), (ii) financing local communities projects empowering women in the area of implementation of the RE projects (such as activities generating revenues), (iii) implementation of prevention measures to mitigate GBV in the area of implementation of the RE projects and (iv) facilitating energy access for FHH (including capacity-building workshops to maintain and develop energy services).
- c. **M&E and Knowledge management.** Since 2017, the World Bank Group strengthened its monitoring system with regards to gender, focusing on results and outcomes. A gender-tag was launched to identify projects who effectively promote equality between men and women and are aligned with the WBG gender strategy. The SRMI facility will adopt a gender perspective and aim to close key gaps in its sub-projects. Results will be monitored throughout the project and be used for real-time adjustments during implementation. To expand the knowledge base, projects will

build on lessons learnt from prior projects as well as regional and country base knowledge production and exchange learning opportunities.

- d. **Strengthening female participation and voice during Stakeholders Consultations.** Consultations and public meetings with stakeholders will be conducted throughout the project cycle in a participatory manner and with a special focus on engaging women. This will help gaining knowledge about community concerns during project preparation and help monitor impact and undertake real-time correction during implementation. Special attention will be paid to using local dialect when relevant and including women from minority ethnic groups and other socially vulnerable groups.

Building on prior experiences, consultations will be organized at a convenient time for women, taking into account their household and childcare responsibilities. Female facilitators and local female leaders will be identified to ensure that women's voice is heard during consultations. Women-only discussion groups may also be organized if appropriate. The participation of female representatives from utilities and local authorities will be encouraged. To ensure the project's sustainability, partnerships will be created to the extent possible with women's groups and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).
