



**GREEN
CLIMATE
FUND**

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27 September 2018

Consideration of funding proposals – Addendum XXXII

Gender assessments and action plans

Summary

This addendum contains the gender documentation for funding proposals submitted for the consideration of the Board at its twenty-first meeting (FP082 – FP099). The documents are included as provided by the accredited entities in the respective annex to each funding proposal.

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ANNEX 6.4 - PRC: Catalyzing Climate Finance (Shandong)

Shandong Green Development Fund Gender Action Plan

September 2018

CATALYZING CLIMATE FINANCE (SHANDONG GREEN DEVELOPMENT FUND) PROGRAMME

GENDER ACTION PLAN

Programme Outline

1. The Programme pilots an innovative, transformational and disruptive financing mechanism of \$1.5 billion to catalyze climate finance for a portfolio of bankable climate resilient projects in Shandong Province, People's Republic of China (PRC) through the Shandong Green Development Fund (SGDF). The tentative financing plan of the Programme is summarized hereafter:

Source	Amount (\$ million)	Share of Total (%)
ADB	100.00	6.7
AFD	87.20	5.8
GCF	180.00	12.0
KfW	116.30	7.8
Shandong Province and local governments	375.00	25.0
Private Institutional and Commercial	626.50	41.7
Fund Management Company	15.00	1.0
Total	1,500.00	100.0

*AFD and KfW contribution is in Euro; €75 million and €100 million respectively.
Source: ADB Project Team*

2. Shandong is a coastal province located in the eastern part of the country and a labor reservoir with a population of 99.47 million (2016). Shandong faces significant climate change challenges: (i) mitigation from energy, urban activities and industrial transformation; and (ii) adaptation from water resources, agriculture, coastal and ecological vulnerable areas, as a limiting factor for growth at the core of the water – food – energy nexus. Shandong tops the country's energy consumption and the number of motor vehicles, responsible for most of the greenhouse gases emission. The Programme supports the Shandong provincial government's proactive policies to decarbonize its economy through coal substitution and industrial transformation. Shandong has set a target to achieve the peaking of carbon dioxide emissions around 2027, three years earlier than the national goal.

3. The Shandong provincial government is establishing SGDF to transform its economy under an experienced financial intermediary, Shandong Development Investment Holdings Group (SDIHG), a State-Owned Enterprise fully owned by the provincial government. SDIHG is operating under commercial law and legally and financially autonomous. SDIHG's track record of successful investment provides a sound base for piloting the Programme. SDIHG has experience in ensuring that planned investments meet broader policy requirements, as well as more stringent criteria than common practice. The Province and SDIHG management are very supportive of making SGDF a world-class facility for mainstreaming climate finance with a dedicated Environmental Social Management System (ESMS) covering the social and safeguards dimension of the Programme.

4. The Programme’s subprojects pipeline under consideration for SGDF funding spans several sub-sectors and focuses on maximizing investment in climate change mitigation (75%), resulting in a conservative estimate of 50 million tons CO₂e over the lifespan of the subprojects and adaptation (25%) with 10 million direct beneficiaries (about 10% of Shandong Province) and 25 million indirect beneficiaries.

5. **Priority Investments:** SGDF investment priorities are determined from the climate analysis and assessment of sectors, where financing mechanisms can have most impact¹. In respect of mitigation sectors the priorities are: renewable energy including wind, solar, biomass and geothermal etc. addressing the main source of greenhouses gases reduction (GHG) emissions – the power sector; green (energy efficient) building and heating / cooling systems as the second most important source of emissions; low carbon transport - supporting new energy vehicles, bus rapid transit green corridors and urban slow-moving systems, addressing the third most important and rapidly growing sector under a business as usual scenario. Based on Provincial modelling of climate vulnerabilities, the adaptation priorities are: agricultural and urban water supply infrastructure; city flood resilience infrastructure (sponge cities through low impact development), including flood proofing urban lifeline systems such as water supply, drainage, power supply and communications; city greening and coastal protection.

6. In terms of the portfolio composition, mitigation priorities are determined by the level of CO₂ emissions produced annually and adaptation priorities by the numbers of people at risk from adverse effects disaggregating numbers by sex and vulnerable portion of the population. More sophisticated assessments of adaptation-related risks are theoretically possible, but with current models and data attempting to utilize these would involve making detailed assumptions with high degrees of uncertainty. In addition, in accordance with GCF policy, the recommendations of stakeholder focus groups assessing the relative subjective priority of attaining mitigation co-benefits (pollution reduction) and adaptation-related risks, a target allocation of 25% was established for adaptation investments. The resultant target portfolio allocation is shown in the following table.

Portfolio Weights					
Mitigation Sector	Carbon Emissions CO ₂ e Mtonnes	Percent	Adaptation Sector	Potential Beneficiaries Millions	Percent
Power	420.3936	51.22%	Flooding	8.2	5.91%
Green Building	105.2568	12.82%	Drought	6.9	4.97%
Transportation	51.4817	6.27%	Coast	14.4	10.37%
EE	38.4568	4.69%	Heat/ Greening	5.2	3.75%
Check totals		0.75			0.25

EE = Energy Efficiency

GENDER ASSESSMENT

7. **Gender and Poverty.** The PRC has made significant progress in reducing poverty among its citizens—from 49% in 1989 to less than 2% in 2017 and less than 1% in Shandong Province. However, the gender dimensions of poverty have not been systematically diagnosed so that they can be appropriately incorporated into poverty programs, and the PRC’s progress as measured by the Gender-related Development Index lags behind that of its general Human Development Index. Women spend

¹ Annex 14.2

substantially more time than men on household chores (about twice as much time), limiting the time they have for income-generating activities. Although women legally have equal rights with men, in practice they have difficulty attaining their rights, including for land use. Efforts to assist women often are made in a stereotypical manner by assuming avenues are limited by gender, and by promoting women-specific projects while not mainstreaming the integration of women into all poverty-reduction efforts.

8. **Economic Development.** During the transition to a market economy, the employment of men increased 4% more than that of women. In the age group 24 and over, more women than men have been laid off and far fewer have been reemployed. Moreover, the retirement age for women is lower than that for men, which results in their receiving smaller pensions than men do. Most working women are concentrated in service sector jobs and work in rural areas. Such work is considered to be low skilled and receives low pay. Wages rose dramatically in the last 20 years, but the income gap between men and women increased by 7.4%. Part of the problem results from women spending at least twice as much time as men on housework. Employers generally prefer to hire men because they assume women will devote greater time to family responsibilities than men, and to avoid providing maternity benefits. Labor laws keep women from employment in hazardous work, reinforcing stereotypes about women. Women who go into business tend to be in low-paying services. Although women have proven to be successful entrepreneurs, they have greater difficulty accessing credit than men, except for microcredit specifically targeting women.

9. **Policies for Gender Equality.** The PRC has an extensive legal system for the protection of women's legal rights, and the Constitution specifies that women and men have equal rights. The PRC is signatory to the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). The PRC adopted a law specifically for women in 1992, and amended it in the mid 2000 to include (i) the national policy of gender equality; (ii) the state's responsibilities in promoting national women's development and integrating it into the overall national economic and social program; (iii) clarification of the Government's responsibilities in protecting women's rights, and the role of the All China Women's Federation (ACWF); (iv) reaffirmation of the need for greater representation of women in government, and for addressing women's rights to education, work, and their person; and (v) prohibition of domestic violence and sexual harassment. The PRC has successfully established the legal basis for women's rights and built national women's organizations. ACWF, which was formed in 1949, has nationwide reach as well as international influence and contacts. The National Working Committee on Children and Women (NWCCW) was created in 1992 under the State Council to coordinate work pertaining to women and children, and to further their causes. It drafts and runs the national programs for women and children, intercedes with other government departments regarding protecting the rights of women and children. ACWF is publicizing the state policy on gender nationwide, and NWCCW will provide gender training in the Central Party School, to raise gender awareness of policymakers and increase their capacities in gender analysis and planning.

GENDER ANALYSIS (Shandong Province)

10. One of PRC's national basic policy is 'men and women are equal'. Central government issued the Outline of China Women Development respectively in 1995, 2001 and 2011 with additional regulations and policies to promote women's development. Shandong provincial government follows the central government's requirement and also made its own plans and policies, e.g., Outline of Shandong Women Development, the 12th and 13th Five-year Women's Development Plan. In recent years, the status of women in Shandong keeps improving. The gender analysis shows Shandong women's situation from the perspectives of population, employment, education and political participation with most results better than the national average:

- (i) Population: By the end of 2015, there were 48.16 million women in Shandong Province, accounting for 48.91% of the total permanent population, a bit higher than the national level of 48.78%.
- (ii) Employment: In 2015 there were 29.41 million female employees in Shandong Province, accounting for 44.3% of the total employees, higher than the national level of 42.9%. Of all urban employees, female occupied over 35%, a bit lower than the national level of 36.1%.
- (iii) Education: In 2015, the average education period of women in Shandong Province was 8.39 years. Girls and boys had the fully equal rights to receive the education. Even, the girls occupied 73.6% of all the students in the senior middle schools. Female students occupied 54.8% of all the students at the general higher education level, higher than the national level of 52.4%. Female postgraduates occupied 55.4% of all the postgraduates, higher than the national level of 49.7%.
- (iv) Political participation: In 2015, women in Shandong occupied 21.8% of total provincial Congress representatives, lower than the percentage of 23.4% in the national Congress. Women in Shandong occupied 22.9% of total provincial Political Consultative Committee representatives, higher than the percentage of 17.8% in the national Political Consultative Committee. Women occupied 23.4% of total officials in Shandong Province. All the urban residential committees and rural village committees had female cadres. Women occupied 33.0% of all the urban residential committee members, lower than the national level of 49.2%. Women occupied 28.6% of all the rural village committee members, higher than the national level of 22.9%.

11. However, there are still gaps between women and men in Shandong Province. More effort is required to improve Shandong women's status and accomplish gender equality. According to the third Women Status Survey in 2010, the employment ratio of women in Shandong Province was 77.3%, lower than that of men as 93.5%. The average per capita income of women was about 55.7% of men. One key reason was that women often had jobs with relatively low income. Of all the female employees, female middle and high-level administrative staff only occupied 5.8% while the ratio for the male was 11.8%. Of all the female employees with professional titles, women with middle and advanced professional titles occupied 10.6% while the ratio for the male was 20.3%.

12. **Potential impact of the Programme on women:** The present programme will focus on climate change: (i) mitigation from energy, urban activities and industrial transformation; and (ii) adaptation from water resources, agriculture, coastal and ecological vulnerable areas. Of all the beneficiaries, women in Shandong province will also benefit from the Programme with new employment opportunities. For example, during the construction period, the proposed solar highway, the international airport, and the clean fuel pellet factory will need various skilled and unskilled construction workers, so as well logistics services (e.g. chefs, waitress, and cleaners). In the operation and maintenance period, the solar highway, the agricultural and animal husbandry waste recycling facilities, and the Bus BRT will provide new job positions, including administrative jobs, engineers, workers, drivers, and logistics services.. The expansion of hydrogen production and pre-fabrication process, so as well the energy efficient stoves and boilers, may also increase the employment chances.

13. Women will also suffer less from the climate risks, e.g. the extreme heatwave. Through the development of green buildings, women will spend less time in taking care of the vulnerable families, e.g. the elderly and the children, who are easily affected by climate change. Thus, women could focus more on their work by relieving their family burdens. Women will save their commuting time and benefit more from the construction of public transport green corridors for they are the major users of public transport.

14. With gender-sensitive features designed for the subprojects, women will be able to apply practical skills and knowledge to enhance their livelihood and mitigate climate change, for example, through the use of renewable energy technologies, such as solar-power greenhouses. Women in the Programme area will also have equal access to clean energy as men, e.g. the hydrogen power and the green buildings.

15. Women will increase participation by involving in the plan, design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation stages of the Programme in general and subprojects in particular. Based on the empowerment activities including training, consultation, and participation, women will raise their awareness, increase their knowledge and build their capacity about climate-change issues. Accordingly, they can enhance their own confidence and improve their status in the pertinent decision-making process.

16. However, if the gender-sensitive approach has not been applied well, the positive impact of the Program on the women might be limited. Without appropriate gender-specific design, women may not be able to benefit equally from the Program.

17. **Women's contribution to the Programme:** Women, as well as men, can significantly contribute to combating climate change:

- (i) As the potential employees, women can contribute to the construction, operation, and maintenance of various subprojects.
- (ii) As the customers, women may have their own understanding about energy saving and climate change mitigation or adaptation because they often make household consumer decisions. Women can put forward their suggestions to the project design, e.g. the route of the public transport green corridor or the more efficient way of energy usage.
- (iii) As the affected group, women may support or oppose the projects, which will be important for the design and implementation, and thus affect the outcome of the Program. The awareness raising (e.g. the usage of clean energy, and the low-carbon trip mode) and knowledge/technology transferring (.e.g. the application of renewable energy technologies) will be crucial for gaining the support from the affected women.
- (iv) Also, women can contribute to sustainable climate change mitigation or adaptation through educating their children to recycle, save energy and invest in energy-efficient technologies.

Gender Categorization

18. Asian Development Bank (ADB)'s policy on gender and development (GAD), approved in 1998, adopts gender mainstreaming as a key strategy for promoting gender equity. This requires gender concerns to be treated as a cross-cutting theme influencing all social and economic processes. ADB's Strategy 2030 confirms gender equity as one of the five drivers of change to achieve the vision and strategic agenda of inclusive economic growth and to make the greatest impact on the development challenges in Asia and the Pacific. The GAD policy provides a policy framework; introduces institutional mechanisms to address gender concerns in ADB's program of activities; and supports a greater emphasis on gender issues in all ADB operations.

19. ADB's policy on GAD adopts mainstreaming as a key strategy for promoting gender equality and women's empowerment. The key elements will include the following:

- (i) "Gender sensitivity" to observe how ADB operations affect women and men; differently, and to take into account their different needs and perspectives in planning these operations;
- (ii) "Gender analysis" to assess systematically the impact of programs and projects on men and women and on their economic and social relationships.

- (iii) “Gender planning” to formulate specific strategies that result in equal opportunities and outcomes for women and men.
- (iv) “Gender mainstreaming” to ensure that gender concerns and women’s needs and perspectives are explicitly considered in all ADB operations, and that women and men participate equally in the decision-making process in development activities.
- (v) “Agenda setting” to assist developing member country (DMC) governments in formulating strategies to reduce gender disparities and in developing plans and targets for women’s and girls’ education, health, legal rights, employment, and income earning opportunities.

20. ADB have four gender mainstreaming categories:

- (i) category I: gender equity³ as a theme (GEN);
- (ii) category II: effective gender mainstreaming (EGM);
- (iii) category III: some gender elements (SGE); and
- (iv) category IV: no gender elements (NGE).

21. The Programme is designed to meet category EGM and directly improve women’s access to social services, and/or economic and financial resources and opportunities, and/or basic rural and urban infrastructure, and/or enhancing voices and rights, which contribute to gender equality and women’s empowerment. The Programme incorporates gender sensitive design features to enhance women’s inclusion and participation. Activities outlined in this Gender Framework focus on (i) ensuring women equitably benefit from the Projects to be financed (ii) Encouraging women’s participation, (iii) promoting employment and income generation opportunities for women, and (iv) building capacity for gender mainstreaming.

22. Requirements for the subprojects to be financed by SGDF include: (i) the social analysis conducted during the subproject preparation included careful consideration of gender issues highlighting both constraints and opportunities; (ii) specific gender design features are included in the majority of subproject outputs and/or components to facilitate and ensure women’s participation and access to subproject benefits; (iii) a Gender Action Plan (GAP) is prepared, reviewed by the Fund Management Company and included into the Concept Note for each subproject to be presented to the Investment Committee for consideration for funding by SGDF; (iv) the Concept Note discusses how the subproject will contribute to improving women’s access to or benefits from the subproject.

23. Subprojects’ pre-feasibility and feasibility studies provide the expected environmental, social and health, and economic and environmental co-benefits. They also set out the gender development impacts. The subproject should, as a minimum, demonstrate that it has considered ways to maximize the local economic benefits of the proposed investment, where possible and incorporate gender sensitive design features to enhance women’s inclusion and participation. It should be designed to provide opportunities for enhancing women’s employment either directly (see Cities Development Initiative in Asia sectoral guidelines as an example) or indirectly through enhanced productivity, skills and / or competitiveness.

24. Requirement at the Programme level is to include gender targets and performance and monitoring indicators in the Design and Monitoring Framework (DMF) and one covenant in the loan to support the implementation of the Gender Framework. The DMF prepared for the Programme includes one targeted gender outcome and two outputs gender indicators:

- (i) Outcome: *Women with increased resilience due to the use of advanced technologies and better knowledge to deal with climate changes reach at least 3.5 million by 2025 (2017 Baseline: 1.75 million);*
- (ii) Output:
 - *100 persons from project sponsors, SGDF and local government including 40% women improved skills and understanding in climate finance by 2025 (2017 baseline: 0);*

- *100 persons from project sponsors, SGDF and local government including 40% women improved skills and understanding in green procurement by 2025 (2017 baseline: 0).*

Gender Implementation

25. The implementation of the gender framework will be financed by the Fund Management Company through access from the TA program resources, if need be and monitored through collection of gender-disaggregated data. Following ADB Procurement Framework, two individual gender/social development specialists will be recruited to support the programme under the technical assistance program. The international consultant will have input of 5 person • months while the national 22 person • months to review the gender action plan prepared for the subprojects as well as capacity development of the subprojects sponsors. Gender results are reported into the Annual Performance Report (GCF Format). Gender dimension is incorporated into the overall project performance and monitoring system. ADB staff with gender expertise will participate in one review mission per year for the first 10 years of the Programme implementation and as required for the next 10 years.

APPENDIX 1. Gender Equality Results and Indicators²
For Preparation of Gender Action Plan
Environmentally Sustainable Development and Climate Change³

Country and Sector Level Outcome and Indicators

Gender Equality Outcome: Reduced vulnerability of poor women to climate change impacts, and strengthened capacity to manage these changes	
Gender Equality Dimension	Sample Gender Equality Indicators
Human capital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number of community-based adaptation activities that strengthen women's access to resources for sustainable food production, renewable energy, and clean water sources - Number and percentage of poor women and men with increased resilience to deal with climate changes (e.g., use of climate-resilient crops and farming techniques, improved land management, clean technologies, increased knowledge and strengthened networks on climate change issues) - Time saved in collecting and carrying water, fuel, and forest products due to environmentally sustainable and climate change adaptation activities
Economic empowerment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number and percentage of women and men who access employment or increase their incomes due to climate change adaptation or mitigation activities
Voice and rights	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Evidence that climate change policies, strategies, and plans require the participation and involvement of poor women and men in developing and managing local adaptation and mitigation plans
Gender capacity building	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Evidence that policies, strategies, and plans are based on gender analysis of the different impacts of climate change on poor women and men, and include gender equality objectives for each sector of climate change adaptation and mitigation

Programme and Project level Results and Indicators

Gender Equality Dimension: Human Capital

² Extracted from ADB. 2013 *Toolkit on Gender Equality and Results Indicators*. Manila.

³ Results and indicators for environmentally sustainable development and climate change intersect with those listed in other chapters, such as energy; water supply and sanitation; transport; urban development; humanitarian and disaster preparedness and response; and rural development, agriculture, and food security.

Sample Results	Sample Indicators
Gender Equality Dimension: Human Capital	
<p>Increased fuel, water, and food security for poor women and men</p> <p>Increased capacity of poor women and men to adapt and respond to environmental changes</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number and percentage of women using renewable, sustainable, and efficient household energy sources - Number and percentage of women and men trained in energy-saving and sustainable agricultural technologies (e.g., adaptations to land management practices in marginal and fragile lands, adaptations related to changed rainfall patterns) - Number of households with improved access to water for agricultural and household uses Changes in women's workload compared with men's due to environmental changes and adaptation activities - Percentage of women and men involved in environmental protection or adaptation activities - Women's and men's views on the impact of project activities on their fuel, water, and food security and the viability of communal and other natural resources
Women and men benefit equitably from project training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number and percentage of women and men who receive training, by type of training (e.g., community- based early warning systems and procedures) - Number of training sessions targeted at women and men, by content area

Gender Equality Dimension: Economic Empowerment

Sample Results	Sample Indicators
Gender Equality Dimension: Economic Empowerment	
Equal employment for women and men in forest, land use, coastal and inshore fisheries, and marine management projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number and percentage of jobs (person-days) generated for women and men in the community - Proportion of women employed in unskilled, technical, management, and supervisory roles, by sector
Targets met for women's employment in climate change agencies and projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number and percentage of women and men employed in climate change agencies and as project and field staff - Evidence of the type of incentives designed to recruit women, increase their capacity, and provide career development
Equal access by women to small grants for climate change projects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number of awareness activities providing targeted information to women on climate change small grant opportunities - Number and percentage of women and men who receive finance for climate change small projects - Evidence that climate finance facilities include special windows for funding activities with women's groups and gender-sensitive guidelines for all funded activities, and employ women and men in fund management

Gender Equality Dimension: Voices and Rights

Sample Results	Sample Indicators
Gender Equality Dimension: Voice and Rights	
Women and men participate equitably in the development of local climate change adaptation and mitigation plans	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number of community-based agreements and adaptation plans that have input from both women and men - Number and percentage of women and men who attend community-based meetings on natural resource management (e.g., land, forests, coastal and inshore, marine, water supply) - Changes in adaptation or mitigation plans and initiatives due to consultation with women
The rights of women and men displaced by climate change problems are protected	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Evidence of the number and type of activities specifically targeted at women and men who have migrated due to degradation of natural resources caused by climate change
Strengthened capacity of women's organizations to analyze climate change policy, regulatory frameworks, and programs (including their impact on women's and men's time burdens and access to natural resources)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number of research activities that involve women in documenting women's and men's local knowledge of resource management and changes in resource availability and use - Number of women's organizations involved in the assessment and management of environmental hazards - Number and percentage of women and men in civil society organizations trained in gender analysis of environmental impacts and climate change adaptation and mitigation programs - Number of women's groups engaging in national debate and analysis of environmental impacts, and climate change policy, regulatory frameworks, and programs

Gender Equality Dimension: Gender Capacity Building

Sample Results	Sample Indicators
Gender Equality Dimension: Gender Capacity Building	
Strengthened capacity of environmental agencies and other stakeholders to ensure that women and men benefit equitably from climate change adaptation and mitigation investments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Evidence that sex-disaggregated information on women's and men's access to and use of natural resources (land, waterways, forests, fisheries) and their links to environmental challenges is documented and applied to program planning and implementation - Amount of research funding dedicated to natural resource management and adaptation focused on activities undertaken by poor women, including crops farmed by women, forest products, fibers, coastal fishing, and water uses - Number of training sessions held with environmental agencies and other stakeholders on participatory techniques to involve women and men; and number and percentage of women and men attending - Evidence that contracts with implementing agencies (e.g., nongovernment organizations) require consultation with women, employment of female staff and community facilitators, and implementation of gender strategies based on gender analysis - Number of executing and implementing agencies that employ staff with specialist expertise on gender and climate change - Number of training and awareness sessions with environmental agencies and other stakeholders on gender issues in environmentally sustainable development and climate change; and number and percentage of women and men attending
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increased capacity to consult with women and men on climate change impacts, and respond to women's needs and priorities - Increased understanding of the different impacts of climate change and adaptation and mitigation strategies on poor women and men 	

Appendix 2 Gender Action Plan at the Programme Level

Actions	Indicators/Targets	Budget and sources	Timeframe	Responsible Agencies
Objective 1: Ensuring women equally benefit from the Programme				
1.1 Include gender-specific design features	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least one gender/social specialists recruited working closely with design institutes At least 40% of local women participate in consultation meetings during design period One GAP prepared for each project 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, Design institutes, gender/social specialists
1.2 Implement the GAPs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least one gender/social specialists recruited working closely with the IA and project PMOs One staff of IA and each project PMO responsible for GAP implementation and monitoring Trainings about Gender mainstreaming and implementing GAPs provided to the IAs 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, gender/social specialists
1.3 Monitoring the GAP implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sex disaggregated information collected routinely Gender results reported into the Annual Performance Report (GCF Format) 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, gender/social specialists
Objective 2: Encouraging women's participation				
2.1 Promote women's participation in awareness campaign	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least 40% local women participate in awareness campaign about project-specific climate change mitigation and adaptation 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, gender/social specialists, local governments, communities/villages
2.2 Ensure women's participation in public hearings in case of raising tariff	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women's voices should be heard during the public hearings for heat tariff. Female participants should not be less than 40%. 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, local governments
2.3 Satisfaction survey on improved services	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least 60% local women surveyed report the satisfaction 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, gender/social specialists, local governments, communities/villages
Objective 3: Promoting employment and income generation opportunities for women				
3.1 Ensure female employment in construction jobs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 30% of women are employed as skilled and unskilled workers Number of women from poor household in unskilled jobs 100% work sites with facilities 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, contractors

	designed conveniently for female workers			
3.2 Ensure female employment in maintenance and operation jobs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least 30% women employed in new skilled jobs generated by the projects At least 50% women employed in new unskilled jobs generated by the projects Number of poor women employed in unskilled jobs 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, contractors
3.3 Ensure equal pay for equal work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Wages paid to local women and men by type of jobs 	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, contractors
Objective 4: Capacity building for gender mainstreaming				
4.1 Technology and skills trainings provided to local people when necessary	At least 40% women of trainees	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, local Women Federation
4.2 Professional training provided to IA, PMO and local Women Federation's staffs	At least 40% women of trainees	Project budget	2019–2024	SDIHG, project PMOs, local Women Federation

Gender documents for FP083

Indonesia: Geothermal Resource Risk Mitigation Project Gender Action Plan

I. Background

The Government of Indonesia (GoI) is preparing a Geothermal Resource Risk Mitigation (GREM) Project in collaboration with World Bank, which aims to support the GoI in achieving its ambitious target to increase the share of renewable energy in the power generation mix. The objective of the proposed Project is to scale up investment in geothermal energy development and reduce greenhouse gas emissions in Indonesia. It will have two components: Component 1 supports geothermal resource risk mitigation through exploration and delineation drilling by state-owned and private developers. Component 2 supports technical assistance and capacity building to improve the sector governance and investment climate in the long-term.

The Project recognizes the importance of ensuring equal opportunities for both women and men throughout the whole project cycle. With a “gender lens” approach, the project will contribute to national policy frameworks on promoting equal rights to men and women and avoid exacerbating or perpetuating gender inequality.

To this end, the Project seeks to incorporate gender-responsive design through improving corporate human resource standards for female participation in decision-making and hiring of female engineers and workers. This would entail careful analysis of various aspects of gender gaps and consideration of targeted interventions, and recommended actions in the Project Operations Manual for perusal by the developers and supervision by PT Sarana Multi Infrastruktur (Persero), the executing agency.

II. Gender analysis

This analysis examines the different rights, roles, needs and opportunities of both women and men, boys and girls and the relations between them in Indonesia, with strong emphasis on economic opportunities. The analysis would be used to identify opportunities and entry points for promoting gender inequality under the project and thus to inform the actions that are presented in Section III of this plan. The analysis would be focused on five key questions: *What is the context? Who does what? Who has what? Who decides? And who benefits?*

2.1. The context

Gender equality is guaranteed by the Indonesian Constitution and explicitly recognized in various laws and legislations. These include the international Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in Law No. 7/1984, the Presidential Decree No. 9/2000 on gender mainstreaming in development, Law No. 23/2004 on domestic violence, Law No. 12/2006 on citizenship (regulating double-nationality for children born of foreign husbands), Law No. 9/2004 on Migrant Workers, Law No. 80/1957 on Equal Remuneration, Law No. 21/1999 on Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), and the Labor Law No. 13/2004 and the Presidential Instruction No. 3/2010 and other ministerial regulations on sector-specific gender mainstreaming mechanisms.

The Ministry of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection (MOWECP) has a mandate to ensure gender mainstreaming in development activities. Government agencies must set up a Gender Working Group (Pokja PUG) and implement gender-responsive budgeting (GRB), which is mandatory for all agencies at all levels of government. Ministerial Regulation of the Ministry of Home Affairs Permendagri No. 15/2008 identifies responsibilities at each level, including GRB. However, gaps in legal interpretations and implementation of these laws remain problematic.

Female heads of households (except those not legally identified as such), have legal protection in securing land tenure and inheritance for their children; however, land and asset distributions remain unequal in practice. Book Two on Inheritance Law from the Islamic Law Compilation prescribes the division of assets between male and female beneficiaries at a 2:1 ratio, and Article 183 allows the inherited parties (men and women) to agree on the distribution of property. Also, Book Two of the Indonesian Civil Code on Inheritance governs the equal division of inheritances (movable and immovable assets) for both Muslims (who are allowed to choose to subject themselves to the Civil Code provisions instead of the Islamic Law) and Non-Muslims. Nevertheless, about 36.2% of married women aged 15 to 49 years own land individually or jointly as opposed to 54.1% of men. In addition, women are highly likely to lose their land rights upon widowhood, divorce, or desertion (DHS 2012). Moreover, evidence shows that implementation of regulations in some provinces (e.g., Aceh) remains discriminatory toward women.

Married (Marriage Law) and unmarried (Civil Code) women have equal rights and by law equal inheritance and division of property (in the event of a divorce) are a women's right, but practice is likely to differ. In 1963, the Supreme Court revoked certain provisions (Articles 108 and 110) of the Indonesian Civil Code which required a wife to obtain prior

written consent from the husband for managing her own assets and for appearing before the court of law. Islamic laws on family and inheritance (which apply to the Islamic marriages in Indonesia) regulate specific portion of inherited estates for the wife(s) and which differs from the portion of other heirs. Certain customary laws, including *Adat* laws, may treat legal rights of women differently as compared to men.

Even when gender-equal laws have been put in place, entrenched inequalities, discriminatory social norms as well as dominant patterns of economic development, which of which are presented below, can undermine their implementation and positive impact (UN Women, 2016).

2.2. **Who does what?**

Over the past few decades in Indonesia, the proportion of women employed in the services and manufacturing sectors has increased. Yet, just 51 percent of women aged 15 and up participate in the labor force and this rate has remained roughly unchanged since 1990 (2011 SAKERNAS). In addition, this rate is considerably lower than that of male labor force participation, which at over 80 percent exceeds the average in East Asia and Pacific region (63 percent). According to the World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report for 2015, in terms of the women's economic participation and opportunity sub-index, Indonesia ranks 114th out of 145 countries (World Economic Forum, 2015).

Although female employment in the services and manufacturing sectors increased recently, the majority of Indonesian women work in the informal sector as self-employed, casual, or unpaid family workers. Levels of vulnerable employment (informal sector, unpaid workers and own-account workers) are relatively high at about 60% and 70% for men and women, respectively. Unemployment among youth (aged 15 to 24 years) is high at 19.3% for males and 21% for females (2011). This indicates that recent graduates have difficulty in finding work as these rates are far above the national unemployment rate, which was and 6.2% in 2015 (down from 6.6% in 2011). Almost half of Indonesian workers possess a primary school degree only. However, the share of higher education degree holders is now rising, with the share of those that only went to primary school decreasing.

Career advancement opportunities in Indonesia's civil service are limited by gender. Female civil servants experience lower rates of promotion (i.e., a relative promotion probability of 67%). Educational attainment is beneficial for career advancement, but women with high levels of education are still penalized. The promotion penalty for being female and of a religious minority has worsened since the 1998/99 democratic transition.

Gender wage gaps are another issue. Percentages of female and male professional and technical workers are relatively equal at 49.2% and 50.8%, respectively and Indonesia has made progress in wage equality for similar work, but there have been recent declines (WEF 2017). In 1990, the median woman earned just 57% as much as the median man; this increased to 84% by 2011, but currently stands at 71% (WEF 2017). Much of the gender gap in wages and employment is likely due to gender discrimination within the labor market, rather than differences in productivity. There is an evidence that women wage workers are more educated relative to men, although they remain notably underrepresented in leadership and management positions. Enterprise surveys also suggest that, within the same firms, women are more likely than men to be temporary workers. The gap exists in enterprise sector as well. Female-owned and managed enterprises tend to be less capitalized and operate in less remunerative sectors.

. Wage jobs have become more desirable than other types of work, and women who have wage jobs also have a greater say over household decisions. However, many women leave wage work due to family and childcare constraints. Women who have young children are significantly less likely to work compared to peers without children, and few of these tend to re-enter the labor market for wage work as children age. For women who do return to work, childcare constraints are associated with a switch to less lucrative occupations.

The project will mitigate this employment and wage disparity between women and men by reducing women's time spent in household duties in the long term as well as directly creating new jobs in geothermal sector in the short term. Access to energy allows for more efficient products such as a washing machine and other home appliances. These products can reduce the time burdens of domestic responsibilities and create time for more productive, formal engagement in the local economy outside the home. Empirical studies that have examined the impact of electrification on female labor rates in developing country settings reinforce this hypothesis.

Electricity is often a necessary and important input for microenterprises which are recognized as key contributors to rural job creation and poverty alleviation. Women are able to dedicate time to wealth-enhancing activities—whether it be starting a small franchise, selling crafts, or working in the local store—and have reliable electricity for productivity-enhancing machinery. Microenterprises in particular require electricity to draw in customers, extend operating hours, improve working conditions, automate production, preserve products, and communicate beyond the local market.

2.3. Who has what?

As part of the study, “Women entrepreneurs in Indonesia: a pathway to increasing shared prosperity”, in 2015, the World Bank administered a survey to 1,633 female micro and small entrepreneurs and 135 financial institutions in addition to local government officials, business development service providers and women credit programs in eight Indonesian provinces. The study found that most micro-enterprises owned and operated by Indonesian women are active in the trade and services sectors and are profitable with 80 percent of the 1,600 entrepreneurs included in their sample recording a 20 to 30 percent profit. Women entrepreneurs also tend to employ female workers and thus play a significant role in building the level of female participation in the labor force. Still, the average woman-owned firm is significantly smaller than the average male owned-firm in terms of profits, sales, and number of employees.

The same study shows that a large proportion of enterprises owned and operated by women are affected by a lack of collateral registered under their own name, which limits their access to credit and influences perceptions that women lack business-related knowledge and skills. More specifically, financial institutions reported that women are not bankable due to a lack of collateral, and 27 percent of women entrepreneurs reported that they did not apply for loans due to a lack of collateral. While the same financial institutions believe that women lack sufficient education and business knowledge, over 90 percent of women answered questions about market forces correctly.

In terms of access to education, Indonesia achieved parity in terms of male and female gross enrollment rates at the primary and secondary levels more than a decade ago. In general, females achieve higher levels of educational attainment than males at all levels (BPS’ Population Census 2010). The net enrollment rate for females in tertiary education is slightly higher (32%) than for males (31%). However, gender gaps remain in some STEM subjects. Males are twice as likely to study engineering (12.5% versus 6.4%) and ICT (6.7% versus 13.10%) (WEF 2017) while female graduates outnumber males at 1.71% and 1.41% in natural science, mathematics and statistics (WEF 2017).

Gender parity in education has not translated into equal opportunities for women’s employment and in wage levels. Indonesia is ranked at 108th in terms of economic participation and opportunity, and at 118th in labor force participation (out of 144 countries) (WEF 2017). This level of economic participation and opportunity compare unfavorably with the Philippines and Vietnam, which are ranked at 25 and 33, respectively.

Women experience higher levels of unemployment and underemployment, and more likely to be unemployed than less-educated men. This represents a significant loss to the Indonesian economy as women's strong performance in educational attainment and qualifications are not being matched with employment. Female labor force participation has hovered at around 50% for the last 30 years. The latest data indicate that labor force participation rates stood at 52.9% and 85.8% for working age females and males, respectively (WEF 2017). A gap is also reflected among those with advanced degrees (81% for women and 93% for men), even though there is a 1.12 ratio of female to male enrolment in tertiary education (WEF 2017).

Early marriage is also an important factor in limiting women's productive and economic resources. Marriage of girls aged 17 and 16 accounted for 19.3% of Indonesian marriages in 2015 (UNICEF 2016). Research indicates that delaying marriage tends to increase women's socioeconomic status, position within the household, and education. Married girls have poorer educational, economic, and health prospects. This limits their ability to lift themselves out of poverty and increases the likelihood of passing on similar circumstances to future generations.

2.4. **Who decides?**

Women are employed in decision-making managerial positions at a ratio well below their labor force participation rate. Only 28% of firms have female top managers, which is the same percentage of firms that have female co-owners (WEF 2017). Women own about 35% of Indonesia's small and medium-sized enterprises, but these have limited opportunities to grow because many women entrepreneurs have limited knowledge in business development and access to financial institutions (The Asia Foundation 2012). A recent survey found that most female-owned firms are in more labor-intensive activities within the informal sector, that they have limited information about opportunities to engage in business transactions with the government, and that owners face discrimination and harassment in dealing with government staff (ADB 2015).

In the political sphere, women's political representation has increased from 11% in 2004 to 18% in 2009 and to 19.8% in 2014. Law No. 10/2008 on General Elections set a minimum quota of 30% female candidates for each political party and Law No. 27/2009 stipulates women's representation. A total of 111 (out of 560) representatives in the national parliament are now female and women hold one-quarter of ministerial positions (Inter-Parliamentary Union 2017, WEF 2017). Although the country is following the global trends of expansion of female representation, Indonesia ranks only 63rd (out of 144 countries) in political empowerment, significantly below the Philippines which ranks 13th

(WEF 2017). Female representation in public decision-making remains low relative to other countries, despite the Indonesian government's efforts to expand participation. Reasons cited for the low percentage of women elected include a lack of political experience, networking, and financial support as well as preference for male candidates because of prevailing cultural perceptions and gender bias in terms of roles and capacities.

2.5. Who benefits?

Consensus building and consultation during the project design phase will raise awareness about the possible impact on gender roles arising from geothermal development. The project design phase will include women's equal participation in all consultations and communication plans in order to foster positive health behaviors and social outcomes. With increased transparency and openness from the outset of the project it is possible to alleviate problems at the household and community level.

The project will create a tipping point for a more gender balanced workforce by increasing the number of talented and well-trained women involved in the geothermal sector. Jobs and other economic opportunities that are available to women can play a critical role in transforming gender roles and norms by improving women's incomes, which can in turn increase their decision-making roles. As other energy projects have shown, when women have opportunities previously not available to them, especially technical jobs, communities' views of "what a woman can do" can lead to lasting change.

III. The Gender Action Plan

This plan presents key impacts, outcomes and output statements which are informed by the gender analysis in Section 2 and mirrors the project outputs in order to address key gender gaps and contribute to greater equality between men and women through the project activities. Each output will be followed by associated gender-responsive activities with gender-performance indicators and targets, timeline, and responsibilities. Capacity to address gender related issues and achieve the outputs will be built through Component 2 of the project on technical assistance and capacity building. At the project level, World Bank gender specialists assigned to the region will be able to provide guidance and suggest options to incorporate gender consideration into project design and implementation.

The Gender Action Plan

Seq	Activities	Indicators, baselines, and targets	Timeline	Responsibilities	Budget Source
<p>Gender impacts</p> <p>The main intended gender impacts of the project include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased female employment as a result of new job creation under the Project • Enhanced women’s voice and agency through economic empowerment 					
<p>Gender outcomes</p> <p>Below are specific changes in knowledge and skills of female workers in participating the geothermal sector, access to energy by both genders, as well as mitigated risks and adverse impacts for project-affected people.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to reliable electricity from geothermal energy which both women and men will benefit from • Improved rate and quality of employment for women and men in the geothermal sector • Improved geothermal knowledge and skills for women • improved corporate human resource standards for female participation in decision-making, hiring of female engineers and workers • Gender related safeguards requirements complied 					
<p>Gender outputs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender balance of developers' workforce • Recommendation of gender-sensitive actions in the Project Operations Manual for perusal by the developers and supervision by PT SMI • Compliance with social inclusion and safeguards requirements 					
I	Output 1: Gender balance of developers' workforce				

1.1.	Establishment of a Geothermal Competency Center with support and coordination with the educational institutions, which will: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) improve the opportunities for female engineers and project managers in the geothermal sector; and ii) hire female leaders in the Center 	<p>Non-zero number of female engineers and project managers hired for sub-projects (baseline: 0)</p> <p>i) Non-zero number of female leaders hired by Geothermal Competency Center (baseline: 0)</p>	Continuous throughout project implementation	PT SMI, Geothermal Competency Center	TA component budget
II	Output 2: Recommendation of gender-considered actions in the Project Operations Manual				
2.1.	Operation Manual articulates gender-considered actions	<p>Completed Operation Manual with:</p> <p>i) At least one recommendation of gender-considered action (baseline: 0)</p> <p>ii) Recommendation of community level gender assessment (baseline: 0)</p>	Before project approval by World Bank Board	PT SMI, World Bank	Project preparation cost
III	Output 3: Compliance with social inclusion and safeguards				
3.1.	Preparing a Resettlement Action Framework (RPF) and an Ethnic Minority Planning Framework (EMPF)	RPF and EMPF completed and approved (baseline: 0)	Before project approval	PT SMI	Project preparation cost

3.2.	Consultations with local people, including women and members of ethnic minority groups or other vulnerable/marginalized groups, wherever relevant, on any impacts of the project on local communities;	<p>At least 20 percent of the participants in a consultation being women (baseline: 0%)</p> <p>Opinions from both gender groups during the consultations filed and reflected in the community level gender assessments and at least one of the major concerns/opinions from female group addressed in the development activities (baseline: 0).</p> <p>At least a member of ethnic minority groups or other vulnerable/marginalized groups, wherever relevant, attending a consultation (baseline: 0)</p>	Every stage of the project (<i>preparation, implementation and evaluation</i>)	PT SMI	Project preparation cost
3.3.	Indicators on important gender resettlement impacts and gender impacts on ethnic minority groups are included in internal and external monitoring	At least one indicator on gender resettlement impacts included in a Resettlement Action Plan (RAP); and one indicator on gender impacts on ethnic minority groups in an Ethnic Minority Development Plan (EMDP) (baseline: 0)	During preparation of RAP, MTR, end-project evaluation	PT SMI	Project preparation cost

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Gender Assessment and Proposed Gender Action Plan

I. Introduction

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

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

1. Conducting a desktop review of relevant government policy documents and research conducted by the multilateral agencies, donor agencies, universities and research institutions and aligning approaches in this proposal with the national priorities of India.
2. Incorporating information and lessons learned from implementation and evaluation assessment of the similar projects managed by UNDP in Sindhudurg district of Maharashtra and in coastal region of Andhra Pradesh.
3. Integrating findings from stakeholder consultations conducted at the various levels including relevant government departments, civil society organizations, other multilateral agencies, and community members.
4. Centralizing gender concerns to the project design by incorporating gender issues raised into project activities, targets, indicators, monitoring and evaluation.

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

Developing countries are the most vulnerable to climate change impacts because they have fewer resources to adapt: socially, technologically and financially. Climate change is anticipated to have far reaching effects on the sustainable development of developing countries, including their ability to attain the new 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. India has experienced substantial changes in mean and extreme climate during the period of 1951- 2013¹.

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

¹ Climate Change and India –Adaptation Gap a Preliminary Assessment. Garg et.al. 2015. Indian Institute of Ahmedabad

vulnerable to the impacts of global warming related accelerated sea level rise². Observations suggest that the sea level has risen at a rate of 2.5 mm per year along the Indian coastline since 1950s. A report issued by the World Bank suggests that India's economic progress could be severely hampered, with an additional 45 million pushed into poverty, due to the effects of climate change³.

India is highly vulnerable to various natural hazards including droughts, floods, heat-waves and cyclones. According to studies around 76 percent of India's coastline is prone to cyclones and tsunamis, while 59 percent of the country is vulnerable to earthquakes, 10 percent to floods and river erosion, and 68 percent to droughts⁴. Around 250 million Indians live along 7500 km of coastline that is at high risk due to sea level rise and extreme weather events; many of the approximately 10,000 Indian glaciers are receding at a rapid rate; and deforestation is happening. The vulnerability of the coastal zone depends on underlying physical and socio-economic characteristics of coastal areas. Total area under the 9 coastal states constitutes about 42 percent of the total area in India and includes 66 coastal districts⁵. India's coastline is divided into East and West zones; the two coasts are different in many aspects. Odisha and Andhra Pradesh are part of the east coast while Maharashtra falls under West coast.

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

Majority of the coast consists of urban population. According to Census (2011), 17 percent of the total population in India belongs to the 66 coastal districts of the nine coastal states⁶. There are 77 cities in the coastal region of India, including some of the largest and densest urban agglomerations like; Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Kochi and Visakhapatnam. The population density per km² in most of the districts is higher than the density of the respective state and country. The Project success can impact at least 42 percent population of the country. The high population density increases the risks and vulnerability of the coastal states, as more people become vulnerable to climate change issue.

The east coast region comprising Odisha and Andhra Pradesh is more vulnerable to the frequency of storms. Odisha and Andhra Pradesh, together, had faced six major cyclone and flood in last one decade; 1999 super cyclone of Odisha and 1977 cyclone of Andhra Pradesh led to loss of more than 10,000 lives each⁷. A total of 7.1 million people are found to be at risk, representing 4.6 percent of the total coastal population. Maharashtra is the most affected because of their high density of coastal population, and the dependence in rural stretches of the

² Climate Change and coastal ecosystem in India. Issues in Perspectives. Senapati & Gupta. Vol 5. No 3. International Journal of Environmental Sciences

³ Shock Waves: Managing the Impacts of Climate Change on Poverty. 2016. Hallegatte et al. The World Bank

⁴ Climatic vulnerable of India's coastal regions. Issues of India. Retrieved from <https://socialissuesindia.wordpress.com/2014/01/06/climatic-vulnerable-of-indias-coastal-regions/>

⁵ Climate Change and India – Adaptation Gap a Preliminary Assessment. pp.3. Garg et.al. 2015. Indian Institute of Ahmedabad.

⁶ Census 2011. www.census2011.co.in/

⁷ Disaster Data & Statistics. National Disaster Management Authority of India. Retrieved from www.ndma.gov.in/en/disaster-data-statistics.html

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

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

States	2010-2011				2011-2012			
	No. of human lives lost	No. of Cattle Lost	No. of Houses Damaged	Cropped area affected (Lakh hectare)	No. of Human lives lost	No. of Cattle lost	No. of Houses Damaged	Cropped area affected (Lakh Hectare)
Andhra Pradesh	171	17230	38152	20.86	-	-	-	-
Maharashtra	8	5	9	-	106	-	-	-
Odisha	10	260	5339	4.17	87	1493	290780	4.19

Source: Indiatat.com⁸

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

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

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

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

Poverty

⁸ www.Indiatat.com

India has witnessed rapid economic growth in the past decade, and it has now become one of the emerging economies in Asia. However, according to the recent “The State of Food Insecurity in World” report by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), India is home to 194.6 million undernourished people, the highest in the world. The Global Hunger Index (GHI) released by the International Food Policy Research Institute ranks India 97 of 118 countries⁹.

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

In India the concept of poverty has been approached in the absolute sense; a measurement system which is most suitable for developing countries. Instead of income or consumption expenditure distribution, it is about minimum standard of living. The most recent official methodology used in India to define poverty not only takes normative levels for adequate nourishment, clothing, house rent, conveyance and education, but also considers behaviorally-determined levels of other non-food expenses¹⁰. According to this methodology, the energy requirement as calculated by Rangarajan is 2,155 kcal per person per day in rural areas and 2,090 kcal per person per day in urban areas¹¹.

The Rangarajan Committee report on Measurement of Poverty (2014) estimated that the 30.9 percent of the rural population and 26.4 percent of the urban population were below the poverty line in 2011-12, and the overall poverty ratio in India in 2011-12 was 29.5 percent . In other words, 260.5 million individuals in rural areas and 102.5 million in urban areas with a grand total of 363 million were under the poverty line in India. This means that three out of every ten Indians are poor¹².

Among the targeted states, Odisha is one of the poorest states. In 1999/2000 Odisha has become India’s poorest state, surpassing Bihar. Orissa’s poverty headcount stagnated around 48-49 percent between 1993/94 and 1999/2000, while at all-India level the headcount declined and in Andhra Pradesh poverty halved¹³. However, as per estimates made by the Tendulkar Committee appointed by Planning Commission, poverty in Odisha declined by 24.6 percentage points from 57.2 percent in 2004-05 to 32.6 percent in 2011-11; this was the highest poverty reduction by any major state in the country.

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

⁹ Global Hunger Index.2015. IFPRI. www.ifpri.org/topic/global-hunger-index

¹⁰ Counting the poor: Measurement and other issues. 2014. Rangarajan & Mahendra Dave. Madras School of Economics

¹¹ ibid. Pp 6

¹² Three out of every 10 Indians are poor, says C Rangarajan panel. 2014. Mail today Bureau. Retrieved from www.businesstoday.in/current/economy-politics/c-rangarajan-panel-submits-report-on-poverty-line-index/story207896.html

¹³ Disparities within India’s poorest regions: Why do the same institutions work differently in different places, A. Hann; 09/12/2004; World Development Report 2006

Poverty in India varies according to social groups, regions and gender. Average per capita income of SC/ ST at all India level is about one-third lower than that among other groups. In 1999-2000, headcount poverty among general groups were 16 percent while for Muslims it was 30 percent, for Scheduled Caste 36 percent and 44 percent for Scheduled Tribe. The recent poverty reduction rate experienced by India as a whole has minimum ramifications in the poverty reduction among other social groups.

Female headed households are often linked with the feminization of poverty. These households are found to be poorer in comparison to male headed households due to discrimination and the gender division of work in the market as women are usually ascribed less paid jobs, lack access to assets, poor education. However, feminization of poverty is not about female headed households only; according to studies due to decreasing sex ratio in urban areas and specifically in richer families, number of women in the poorer families has increased over the years. And thereby, the proportion of poor women in the total population has increased leading to feminization of poverty¹⁴. The urban poor females have increased from 37.8 million in 1993-94 to 40.3 million in 2004-05¹⁵.

Access to and control over resources specifically land

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

Dreze and Srinivasan (1997), Meenakshi and Ray (2002), and Gangopadhyay and Wadhwa (2003) have conducted studies in India that show that female headed households are poorer compared to male headed households¹⁶. Women have lower average earnings compared to men, less access to remunerative jobs and productive resources such as land and capital. These all contribute to the economic vulnerability of female-headed households.

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

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

¹⁴ Women and Poverty: Rural-Urban Dimensions. 2006. pp 2. Preeti Rustagi. Institute for human development. New Delhi

¹⁵ *ibid.* Pp 4

¹⁶ Female headed households and Poverty: Analysis using household level data. Jhulka & Das. November 2015.

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

Education

By the end of the deadline for Millennium Development Goals in 2015, India managed to meet only four out of eight goals and ensuring primary school enrollment is one of the four¹⁷. India managed to achieve gender parity in the primary school enrollment and almost achieved gender parity in secondary and tertiary education¹⁸. Article 45 of the Indian Constitution also made primary education compulsory. Various Government programs implemented to achieve the MDGs like Sarva Shiksha Abhijan helped to increase male and female literacy rate consistently.

Female literacy rate improved from 8.9 percent in 1951 to 65.5 percent in 2011, but it is still below the world average of 79.9 percent¹⁹. According to the Census 2011, the male literacy rate is 82.1 percent while female literacy rate is 16.6 percentage points lower at 65.5 percent. The gender gap in the literacy rate is still existing consistently. Women's participation in the secondary and tertiary education is still very low with 26.6 percent²⁰ and 44.4 percent²¹ respectively.

The literacy rate in Maharashtra is 82.34 percent (men 88.38 percent and women 75.87 percent) which is much higher than the national literacy rate of 74.04 percent. Similarly, the rate of women's literacy in Maharashtra (75.48 percent) is much higher than the national women's literacy rate of 65.46 percent. Better educational outcomes of Maharashtra compared to other states is the result of state government's progressive policy initiatives. Maharashtra State, for the first time in the country, published a Policy Statement of Educational Reconstruction in February 1970, announcing a programme of long-term perspective planning for educational reconstruction linked with social and national goals.²²

Despite significant growth in increasing the literacy rate of women; the gender gap has been reduced meagerly. Female literacy in Odisha has been lower than male and has consistently been below the Indian level. The gender gap also remains at 18 percent (Male- 82.40 percent and female - 64.36 percent, 2011 Census) an indication of gender bias²³. Even in progressive state like Maharashtra, education has a similar gender gap in literacy rate of 12.66 percent. There is a wider gap in Scheduled Tribe (ST) literacy as girls in many rural tribal areas remain out of school.

¹⁷ U.N. Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

¹⁸ Millennium Development Goals: India's achievement is a mixed bag. Ishan Bakshi. 2015. The business Standard. New Delhi

¹⁹ www.indiawomenstat.com

²⁰ www.indiawomenstat.com

²¹ All India Survey on Higher Education 2011-12. Government of India. Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Higher Education. New Delhi. 2013.pp2

²² Government of Maharashtra, Fifth Five Year Plan, 1974 - 79, Bombay, 1973, pp. i-ix.

²³ Women of Odisha: Status and Challenges. Asha Hans & Amrita Patel. March 2012. Odisha Review

Ensuring quality education still remains a big challenge for Indian government. The Global Monitoring Report 2012²⁴ only ranked India 102 out of the 120 countries on the Education for All (EFA) Development Index, based on progress in universal primary education, adult literacy, gender parity and the quality of education.

Political Participation

India is ranked 149th in the World Rankings of Women in national parliaments, compiled by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) and is one of the lowest ranked countries in the region, falling significantly below neighbouring countries - Nepal (47), Afghanistan (53), China (73), Pakistan (90) and Bangladesh (92)²⁵. In 2011, with only 10.8 percent women representation in the lower house and 10.3 percent in the upper house, India ranked 98th in the world²⁶. In the recent years India's performance in ensuring political participation of women has gone down. Currently, India only has 59 women representatives out of 545 members in Lok Sabha, while there are 25 female MPs in the 242-member Rajya Sabha²⁷.

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

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

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

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

²⁴ UNESCO (2014), Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2013-14, United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, Paris

²⁵ Women in national parliaments: Situation as of 1 June 2017, <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>, Accessed on 19 July 2017

²⁶ Women's participation in Politics: India ranks 98th. The Hindu. 2011

²⁷ *ibid.*

²⁸ Women's Political Participation and Representation in India. Apporva Rathod. April 2014. Delhi Policy Group

out of 147 members (less than 5 percent). Women's inclusion in major political parties in the state ranges from eight in the Biju Janata Dal (BJD) to 15 in Congress but their own strength is emerging as 37 women stood as independents in the last national elections.

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

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

Income

India's per capita income rose by 7.4 percent to Rs. 93,293 in 2005-16 from Rs.86,879 in the year 2014-15²⁹. The country is showing steady economic growth for the last two decades increasing both Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Income (GNI); however, dividend of this growth is not reaching all the citizens unvaryingly. India, as has come out in recent International Monetary Fund (IMF) report, not only has one of the highest levels of inequality in the Asia-Pacific region, but it also shows very large increases in inequality since 1990.

India's net Gini index of inequality (based on income net of taxes and transfers) rose from 45.18 in 1990 to 51.36 in 2013. Only two countries in the Asia-Pacific region—Papua New Guinea and China—are more unequal than India. Even India's net Gini is much higher than the average of 43.69 for Latin America, acknowledged as one of the most unequal regions in the world³⁰. According to Credit Suisse's Global Wealth Databook 2014, India's richest 10 percent holds 370 times the share of wealth that its poorest 10 percent hold. Consequently, India's richest 10 percent have been getting steadily richer while India still dominates the world's poorest 10 percent, China dominates the global middle class and the United States the world's rich.

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

²⁹ India's per capita income rises by 7.4% to Rs. 93,293. 2016. Livemint. Retrieved from <http://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/economy/indicators/indias-per-capita-income-rises-7-4-to-rs-93293/articleshow/52524152.cms> retrieved on 14th October 2016

³⁰ India's staggering wealth gap in five charts. 2016. Retrieved from <http://www.thehindu.com/data/indias-staggering-wealth-gap-in-five-charts/article6672115.ece>

³¹ UNDP Human Development Report, 2013

Labor Force

Female work participation is considered an important indicator of women's involvement in economic activities. As part of the MDGs India vowed to bring gender parity into the work force; however, according to the UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, this is one of the goals where India failed measurably³². By the end of 2015, India were only able to achieve 23 percent participation of women in the workforce³³. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) Global Employment trends 2013 report, India's labour force participation rate for women fell from just over 37 per cent in 2004-05 to 29 per cent in 2009-10. Out of 131 countries, India ranks 11th from the bottom in female labour force participation³⁴. Female employment in India grew by 9 million between 1994 and 2010, but according to ILO this could have doubled if women had equal access to employment in the same industries and occupations as their male counterparts.

Ninety-three percent of India's workforce are engaged in the unorganized sector with farming being the sector providing the highest number of employment opportunities. One-fifth of the non-farm workers are engaged in the organized sector. As per the Census 2011, the majority of working women are engaged in the unorganized sector³⁵.

In the unorganized sector where the majority of women workers are concentrated, no occupational safety and health safeguards are in place. The female labour force constituting one third of the rural workers in India "face serious problems and constraints related to work such as lack of continuity, insecurity, wage discrimination, unhealthy job relationships, absence of medical and accident care". In the unorganized sector they are forced to work beyond work hours, even in advanced stages of pregnancy, have no leave or crèche facilities, and are always under threat of being thrown out. In the coastal districts of Odisha and Andhra Pradesh, engagement of population in the unorganized sector is relatively high with 59 percent and 55 percent respectively; except in the coastal districts of Maharashtra where it is lower at 38 percent³⁶.

Around 80 percent of the female labour force is concentrated in rural areas³⁷. On average, 75 percent or more women in India are in agriculture and many in the unorganized sector such as mining, beedi manufacturing, NTFP collection and construction work. In Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra 70.7 percent, 72 percent and 69.53 percent of females are engaged in agriculture respectively; more than 80 percent of the females are engaged in the agriculture work as agriculture labourers except in Maharashtra. For the year 2011, Maharashtra, Odisha and Andhra Pradesh ranked as 14, 16 and 7 respectively in the state ranking according to females participation in the workforce³⁸.

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

³² Global Employment Trends, 2013. 2013. ILO

³³ India Yet to achieve U. N. Millennium Development Goals. Vidya Venkat. 2015. The Hindu

³⁴ Global Employment Trend.2013. Retrieved from http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/news/WCMS_204762/lang--en/index.htm

³⁵ Census Data, 2011

³⁶ Indian Census Report, 2011. Government of India

³⁷ NSSO, 2011-12 (68th Round)

³⁸ Statistical profile on women labour in India 2012-13. Labour Bureau. Ministry of Labour and development, Government of India

and also increased substantially and proportionately in the private sector from 16.30 lakhs in 1995 to 21.18 lakhs in 2006³⁹. Progressive reformative action like reservation of 30 percent jobs in the public sector for grade B, C, D in Odisha helped to increase women in the organized sector from 4.1 percent in 1970 to 15.4 percent by 2007⁴⁰.

According to an estimation in 2011-12, in the economically active age group (15-64 years), 151.9 million and 81.8 million were outside the labour force in the rural and urban areas respectively. There are many reasons including low literacy rate, socio-cultural norms restricting access to public sphere, gender division of labour etc. Many studies pointed out that women's engagement in unpaid care jobs limits their participation in the workforce; surveys found that in the period 2011-12, for the females aged 15-29 time spent in domestic work has increased from 54.8 percent to 57.5 percent and for 30-44 year age group it increased from 52.5 to 65.8 percent⁴¹.

Violence against women

Violence against women in India is on the rise and has doubled over the last decade. According to the National Crime Bureau report around 2.24 million crimes against women have been reported in the last decade which means the reporting of 26 crimes in every hour in last decade⁴². Cruelty by husbands and relatives top the list among the major types of crime against women with almost 38 percent cases. Assault on women in intent with outraging modesty, kidnapping and abduction followed the domestic violence in the list.

Andhra Pradesh has reported the highest number of crimes against women. The state ranked first in crimes reported for insult to women's modesty, second in crime by husbands and relatives, and fourth in dowry deaths. Violence against women in Odisha is rising with more rape cases reported year by year. The sex ratio in Odisha declined drastically from 1086 in 1921 to 972 in 2001. However, it has improved marginally to 978 as per 2011 Census data⁴³. Maharashtra ranked third among states when it comes to crime against women and minor girls. All these ranking are based upon the number of cases reported; but as per various studies many cases specifically domestic violence against women and rape cases go unreported due to pressure of patriarchal society norms and insensitive societal systems.

Gender Inequality Index

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

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

³⁹ Women workforce participation in the unorganized sector: Globalization and new challenges in the Indian Labour Market. 2015. Chandrasekhar Hajra. International Journal of Novel Research in Humanity and Social Sciences. Vol. 2, Issue 3, pp: (108-113), Month: May - June 2015, Available at: www.noveltyjournals.com

⁴⁰ Odisha Economic Survey 2014-15. 2015. Planning and Coordination Department. Directorate of economics and statistics. Government of Odisha

⁴¹ http://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/news/WCMS_204762/lang--en/index.htm

⁴² Crimes against women reported every two minutes in India. Chaitanya Mallapur. 2015. <http://scroll.in/article/753496/crimes-against-women-reported-every-two-minutes-in-india>

⁴³ Women of Odisha: Status and Challenges. Asha Hans & Amrita Patel. March 2012. Odisha Review

represented by maternal mortality rate, adolescent birth rate while empowerment aspect is represented by political representation in parliament and enrollment in secondary education; and economic status is derived from women’s presence in the labour market. India with low female sex ratio, high maternal mortality rate of 190 deaths per 100,000 live births, only 12.2 percent share of seats by women in parliament, 29.6 percentage point gender gap in accessing secondary education and 52.9 percentage gender gap in labour force participation ranks low in the GII⁴⁴.

In the Global Gender Gap Index produced by World Economic Forum, India scores 0.664 and ranks 108 among 145 countries⁴⁵. Like GII, the Global Gender Gap Index measures countries’ performance in four areas - economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment. Better performance of India among other countries in political participation specifically years with female head of state helped India to reach this score. India’s performance in the other three areas of gender equality are relatively poor.

Area	India’s Ranking	Score
1. Economic participation and Opportunity	139	0.383
2. Educational Attainment	127	0.896
3. Health and survival	143	0.942
4. Political Empowerment	9	0.433
5. Gender Gap Index	108	0.664

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) developed the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGII) a composite index that scores countries (i.e. 0 to 1) on 14 indicators grouped into five sub-indices: discriminatory family code, restricted physical integrity, son bias, restricted resources and assets, and restricted civil liberties to measure the discrimination against women in social institutions across 160 countries. The 2014 SIGII value for India is 0.265 suggesting that discrimination against women is High⁴⁶.

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

The principle of gender equality is enshrined within the Indian Constitution - in the preamble, fundamental rights, fundamental duties and directive principles. The Constitution did not only grant equality, but enabled states to adopt measures for positive discrimination in favour of women⁴⁷. Articles 14,15,16 under part III; Articles 39,42,44 under part IV; Articles 51-A (c) under part IV A and Article 246 under part XI provide guidance to promote equality and justice

⁴⁴ Gender Inequality Index. Hdr.undp.org/en/composit/GII

⁴⁵ The Global Gender Gap Report 2015. Retrieved from reports.weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2015/

⁴⁶ <http://genderindex.org/country/india> Retrieved on 14 December 2016.

⁴⁷ Rights and Privileges of Women in India. Retrieved from mospi.nic.in/mospi_new/upload/women_man_p_20101/rights.doc on 14 October 2016

for women in India⁴⁸. In addition, India has ratified the: Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1993; United Nations Convention against Transnational organized crime in 2011; United Nations Conventions against protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, specially women and children in 2011; and the equal remuneration convention in 1958 which encourages and empowers state to promote women rights and justice. Over this period of time, India has adopted many legal acts for promoting safety and security for women including The Dowry Prohibition Act 1961, the Prohibition of Women from Domestic Violence Act 2005, and the Sexual Harassment of Women at the Workplace (prevention, prohibition and redressal) Act 2013. Other acts like the Maternity Benefit Act 1961, Reservation of women in Local-Self Government, the National Plan of Action for the Girl Child etc. to empower women and encourage them to participate in the workplace. Furthermore in 2016, the Government of India introduced the National Policy for Women 2016 for ensuring the empowerment of women.

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

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

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

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

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

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

⁴⁸ Manaveeyam: Sthree Padhavi Padanam-A Hand Book (Malayalam), State Planning Board, Thiruvananthapuram, 2000, p.77.

Some of the gender issues and patriarchal norms that restrict women's ability to develop resilience towards climate change and extreme climatic events are as follows:

- Women's workload increases in times of hardship, such as low rainfall/drought periods because of the extra work involved in collecting water and firewood, and the need to undertake casual work to buy food and make ends meet. Socio-culturally women and girls are appointed as the water provider in the society. With changing climate and erratic rainfall, the drying up of ground water forces women to travel further to collect water. During the recent drought in India in 2016, women used to travel more than 10-12 kilometer to collect drinking water in many districts of Maharashtra.
- Climate change leads to migration, particularly male migration, leaving women behind in the rural areas to take care of dual job of agriculture and unpaid care work. In India, agriculture is being feminized as more than 79 percent of agriculture/food production is contributed by women. According to an economic survey of India, more than 68 percent of economically active women in India are engaged in agriculture.
- The feminization of agriculture with women's limited access to and control over land and other resources leads to lower agricultural productivity and food production. Female farmers also have limited access to government schemes and programs thereby making the rural economy weaker and vulnerable to climate change.
- Low yields and income insecurity lead to an increase in crime and prostitution, particularly in the critical period (from December to January) when some women turn to prostitution to obtain food for their children and male members are absent, exacerbating the spread of HIV.
- Livelihood choices and hazards - In some cases women are involved in near-shore fishing, whilst men fish in deeper waters, but climate change is thought to be having a greater impact on the former, thus affecting women disproportionately. In the day to day affairs of fishing, women are more affected as climate change is contributing towards a reduction in the near-shore fish population. However, the probability of men fisher folk facing death and hazards is higher during the natural calamities and bigger climatic events. However, in some cases women are not involved in community fishing activities and may be more involved in land-based activities such as gardening; in this case men are more impacted by climatic events than women.
- As livelihoods are threatened and food shortages are faced, women often prioritize the basic needs of their men and children and often go hungry, making them weak and exposing them to malnutrition and other health problems. In India more than 33 percent of married women and 28 percent of men have very low Body Mass Index (BMI); 56.2 percent women and 24.3 percent men suffer from anemia. The worsening fact is around 57.9 percent pregnant women are anemic. A third of women of reproductive age in India are undernourished, with a body mass index (BMI) of less than 18.5 kg/m².
- Across India, [roughly 600 million people](#) (more than 53 percent of the population) do not have access to toilets. This will worsen during climate change and its impact on any particular region. This not only raises the risk of disease epidemics but also has an impact on the [physical safety of women](#). Many women in India face rape and sexual harassment while going far away to secluded places to go to the toilet.
- Young girls' lives can be negatively impacted by the extra time spent collecting water in drought affected areas, contributing to the barriers to their education and potentially increasing the impacts on their health.

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

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

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

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

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

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

- Fisher women are predominantly confined to the markets (for selling goods) but they are definitely interested in learning skills, getting involved in the tourism sector and sustainable methods of living. This diversification of livelihoods will increase their resilience to change.
- Local government implementing bodies consult with women self-help groups for program implementation, but are largely ignorant about the concept of “gender mainstreaming”. Despite the engagement of women, the program implementation is therefore not gender sensitive. There is a need to train local government bodies.
- Eco-tourism can be a very good and lucrative livelihood opportunity for women and girls; even women and girls during discussions expressed their interest for learning the necessary skills.
- Community Watch Groups (CWG) engaging both men and women to sensitize the community on gender issues was found to be a very good strategy. CWG used a range of methodologies from storytelling to movie screening to sensitize the community on gender issues, role of society and family in building the social norms that restrict women’s growth etc.

Learning from Andhra Pradesh

- Fisher folks but specifically women fisher folks face barriers to the market as they have to pay money, which is illegal, to the middle men to access the market. Steps needed to be taken to ensure easy access to the market by women without any middlemen (Kolleru lake affected community representation).
- Under the project for ensuring sustainable use of natural resources, establishing community based governance system and providing alternative livelihoods- it was realized that skills training is essential to promote alternative livelihoods with women fisher folks who are receiving a meager income from fishing. There is a need for skills training and capacity building for diversifying livelihoods to develop resilience. The diversification of livelihoods enables them to increase their additional income by 1168 INR to 8000 INR depending upon the type of livelihood.

V. Recommendations

Gender Analysis

Climate change impacts both men and women differently; discriminatory structural and cultural barriers make women more vulnerable to changing climate than men. Gender mainstreaming is crucial in project conceptualizing, implementation, monitoring and evaluation for ensuring gender transformative social impacts. Gender mainstreaming is not just about adding women in the project concept: it means looking at men and women and the relationship between them— both as actors in the process and as beneficiaries⁴⁹.

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

⁴⁹ Asian Development Bank (ADB) and Australian Aid, 2013, ‘Tool Kit on Gender Equality: Results and Indicators’, www.adb.org/documents/tool-kit-gender-equality-results-and-indicators

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

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

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

Project Design and Implementation

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

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

This project supports many of the Government of India's initiatives including SAPCC (State Action Plan on Climate Change), NMSA (National Mission on Sustainable Agriculture), NICRA

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

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

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

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

Stakeholder Engagement

Ensuring the participation of women's organization, gender experts, community representatives from project conceptualization and design through stakeholder consultations ensures better gender mainstreaming. It also ensures the reflection of women and other vulnerable groups' needs and interest in the project objectives, design, implementation plan, monitoring and evaluation etc. Consultations have been conducted at several levels - state, district and local level

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

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

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

Quantitative outcomes:

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

Qualitative outcomes:

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

VI. Gender Action Plan

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

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

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

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

Objective	Actions	Indicator and Targets	Responsible Institutions	Timeline	Allocated Budget (\$US)
Output 1: Enhanced resilience of coastal and marine ecosystems and their services					
Activity 1.1: Conducting vulnerability assessment of the coast to inform ecosystem- and community-based adaptation interventions	Women and other vulnerable groups participate in the assessment process and own the assessment. Ensuring participation of women and other vulnerable groups' members in climate vulnerability assessment to include their needs and concerns in the ecosystem based interventions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ At least 50 percent participants of the community vulnerability assessment process are women ➤ At least 12 percent of participants of the community vulnerability assessment process are women from female headed households⁵⁰ ➤ 100% of vulnerability assessment tools developed are gender sensitive 	This work will be coordinated at a national scale by the MoEFCC-based project management unit, working closely with the National Coastal Mission, and procuring the services of consultants (see detailed budget notes in Annex XIII (g) for details).	1st year-2nd year	748,977
Activity 1.2: Community-based conservation and restoration of coastal ecosystems for increasing ecosystem	Women actively participate in the coastal ecosystem conservation process. Building active agency of women and other vulnerable groups to participate in the conservation and restoration of coastal ecosystem, incorporating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ At least 20 percent of participants in paid work opportunities on restoration of ecosystems are 	This work will be coordinated by the three Forest Department–based project management units in the three target States, which will procure the services of NGOs to coordinate restoration efforts in 12 coastal districts and 24 target landscapes. The Forest Department will	2nd year onwards	4,616,467

⁵⁰ According to the Government of India Socio-Economic Caste Census 2011 (data released in 2013) , Odisha, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh have 12.38%, 12.24% and 15.79% female headed households.



Annex XIII (c) – Gender Assessment and Action Plan

GREEN CLIMATE FUND FUNDING PROPOSAL

<p>resilience</p>	<p>their needs and interests in the restoration process and making them an integral part of the change process.</p>	<p>women</p>	<p>liaise with the State Coastal Zone Management Authorities currently being established to ensure coordinated implementation of Coastal Zone Regulations. At the village level, the contracted NGOs will work with Village Organizations (federations of Self-Help Groups) and Eco Development Committees to establish co-management structures involving government and CBOs/NGOs. Restoration work will be undertaken by Eco Development Committees within protected areas, and Van Samrakshan Samitis outside PAs (e.g. on state-owned Revenue lands), with community participants paid for work carried out. The NGOs will be supported by the district-level Ecological & CC Adaptation specialists, managed by the State PMUs.</p>		
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Objective	Action	Indicator and Targets	Responsible Institution	Timeline	Allocated Budget (\$US)
Output 2: Climate-resilient livelihoods for enhanced adaptive capacities of coastal communities					
<p>Activity 2.1: Building climate-resilient livelihoods and enterprises through value chains and strengthened access to markets</p>	<p>Women and other vulnerable groups increased numbers of livelihood options in the livelihood basket and have enhanced coping capacity.</p> <p>Strengthened both women and men’s capacity through trainings, forward and backward market linkages, linking with government institutions to adapt climate-resilient livelihoods. Enhancing women’s participation in the local community-based organizations for enhancing their social capital</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ At least 60 percent of the recipients of technical support to climate-adaptive value addition are women ▶ At least 15 percent of the recipients of technical support to climate-adaptive value addition are women from women-headed households 	<p>This work will be coordinated by the three Forest Department–based project management units in the three target States, which will procure the services of NGOs to coordinate livelihoods planning and provide technical support to community groups on processing the products of climate-adaptive aquaculture and agriculture, in 12 coastal districts and 24 target landscapes. They will be supported by the district–level Socio Economic and Livelihoods Specialists, managed through the State PMUs, who will support the development of value chains, establishment of certification schemes for “eco” products, and accessing loan finance. The livelihood activities like integrated multitrophic aquaculture, processing of aquaculture products, coastal eco-tourism, non-timber forest products would be implemented from the government co-financed fund.</p>	<p>1st year-7th year</p>	<p>1,445,377</p>

<p>Activity 2.2: Improving capacities of local communities for community-based adaptation and climate-resilient livelihoods</p>	<p>Women and other vulnerable groups participated in training courses for community groups, awareness programmes, and knowledge exchanges</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ At least 10% increase per year in number of women active in livelihoods planning structures in target landscapes ➤ At least 60 percent of the recipients of training on climate-adaptive livelihoods are women ➤ At least 16 percent of the recipients of training on climate-adaptive livelihoods are women from women-headed households 	<p>This work will be coordinated by the three Forest Department–based project management units in the three target States, which will procure the services of NGOs to offer training and technical assistance on a range of climate-adaptive livelihoods in aquaculture, ecotourism and non-timber forest products, as well as climate-smart intensification and climate-adapted crops. They will be supported by the district–level Socio Economic and Livelihoods Specialists, managed through the State PMUs, who will provide support to ensure that women, youth and marginalized groups are participating fully in livelihoods activities and decision-making processes, and will help facilitate public awareness raising, and lessons sharing between communities. Activities like drip irrigated mango and cashew production, cultivation of aromatic and medicinal plants, mushroom cultivation, construction of mango ripening chamber and pulp making, and virgin coconut oil extraction will be implemented with the government co-finance fund.</p>	<p>2nd year onwards</p>	<p>7,082,497</p>
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Objective	Action	Indicator and Targets	Responsible / Institution	Timeline	Allocated Budget (\$US)
Output 3: Strengthened coastal and marine governance and institutional framework					
Activity 3.1 Network of institutions for enhanced climate resilience and integrated planning and governance in all coastal states	Women and vulnerable groups members lead community institutions and participate actively in the integrated planning process	➤ At least 10% increase per year in number of women active in multi-stakeholder coordination structures in target landscapes	This work will be coordinated at a national scale by the MoEFCC-based project management unit, working closely with the National Coastal Mission (NCM), and procuring the services of consultants (see detailed budget notes in Annex XIII (g) for details). The NCM will ensure coordination amongst institutions responsible for coastal and marine governance in all 13 coastal States and Union Territories. Existing interdepartmental platforms will be used in the 13 coastal states/territories to facilitate incorporation of ecosystem- and community-based adaptation approaches. A pan-Indian Coastal Resilience Network will also be established to share knowledge. In the three target states, the three Forest Department-based project management units will promote intersectoral coordination in the 24 target landscapes, where multi-stakeholder coordination structures – comprising representatives from relevant state-level ministries, district-level government, NGOs and academic/research institutions – will be established to promote dialogue and coordination concerning climate-resilient	2nd year onwards	262,842
		➤ 100% of district-specific, coast EbA knowledge products in local languages are gender sensitive			162,484

			planning.		
Activity 3.2 Integrating ecosystem-centric approaches to climate change adaptation into public and private sector policies, plans and budgets, and scaling up finance for EbA	Women and vulnerable group’s concerns are at the heart of the climate change policies, plans and regulation to ensure a gender sensitive coastal governance, and women participate in training on Coastal Calculator tool for shoreline protection and other climate-resilient infrastructure, and in developing adaptation plans for Smart Cities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 100% of EbA plans for coastal Smart Cities are gender-sensitive 	At national level this will include work through the new National Coastal Mission to integrate climate risk management and EbA principles into national policies and schemes, including the CAMPA afforestation fund and Smart Cities Mission. At state level, the Mission will use interdepartmental platforms in all coastal states to facilitate scenario planning and policy dialogues, and hold public and private sector dialogues. Through cooperation with the Smart Cities Mission under the Ministry of Urban Development, the MoEFCC-based PMU will hire consultants to undertake work in the four coastal Smart Cities in the three target States (Kalyan in Maharashtra; Kakinada and Visakhapatnam in Andhra Pradesh; and Bhubaneswar in Odisha) to develop climate change adaptation plans that harness ecological infrastructure for adaptation.	3rd year onwards	244,732
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ At least 10% increase per 2 years in number of women participating in national intersectoral dialogues on coastal EbA 			447,510
Activity 3.3. Knowledge management for coastal resilience	Women and other vulnerable groups have enhanced knowledge regarding the climate change impacts, adaptation, and mitigation; and have reduced vulnerability to climate change impacts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ At least 50 percent of the exchange visit participants are women 	This work will be coordinated at a national scale by the MoEFCC-based project management unit, working closely with the National Coastal Mission (NCM), and procuring the services of consultants focusing on transfer and replication of lessons and best practices – between target landscapes, between coastal states, and between coastal countries in the	3rd year onwards	459,112
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ At least 50% of the EbA vocational / academic training courses are women 			163,240



Annex XIII (c) – Gender Assessment and Action Plan

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			South Asian sub-region.		
TOTAL					15,633,238

Gender documents for FP085

GENDER ACTION PLAN

Activities	Targets and Indicators	Responsibility	Timeframe
Outcome: Quality of public transport in Karachi is improved			
0.1 Establish a 'Safe BRT Travel Program' campaign addressing all forms of harassment, violence, bullying, theft, and other security concerns.	0.1.1 Mechanisms to report and address incidents of sexual and other forms of harassment, as well as other crimes, developed and disseminated to the riding public. 0.1.2 All BRT employees trained to handle and record incidents of sexual harassment and other crimes. 0.1.3 A database of incidents is established, with periodic analysis conducted to identify 'hot spots' and new measures to curb them.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> PMCCB consultants support SMTA (Gender specialist) TransKarachi (PIU Social and gender staff) 	Q3 2019–Q4 2021
0.2 Conduct periodic rapid ridership surveys to track changes in (i) size and diversity of riders, and (ii) their satisfaction level.	0.2.1 Two rapid ridership surveys conducted and analysed according to sex, age, and general employment status (i.e. employed, self-employed, not employed, student) 0.2.2 At least 15% female ridership in the first year of operation, and increased to 20% in the last year of project implementation (2022). 0.2.3 At least 50% of each surveyed group (male vs. female respondents) are satisfied with (i) reliability; (ii) security/safety; (iii) comfort; (iv) access; (v) connectivity; (vi) affordability; and (vii) information provision of BRT services. (2015 Baseline: only 15% women and 28% men have positive perceptions of the reliability, security and safety, and comfort of public buses).		First survey: at the end of first year of BRT operations (2021) Second survey: on the last year of project implementation (2022)
0.3 Conduct impact study of the use of the BRT for women, men, children, people with disabilities, the elderly, and other vulnerable groups.	0.3.1 One video documentary produced capturing the pre- and post- BRT commuting experiences and perceptions of equal number of male and female interviewees. 0.3.2 A full report documenting the impact of the BRT on the (i) lives of the commuting public, segregated by sex, age, ability, and general employment status, and (ii) economic situation of Karachi.		Q1–Q4 2022
Output 1. Karachi's first sustainable BRT corridor and associated facilities constructed			
1.1 Construct social and gender-inclusive BRT stations according to international standards.	1.1.1 All BRT stations have (i) platform level boarding, tensile marking, ramps or escalators; (ii) separate queuing spaces for women and men; (iii) marked priority seating in waiting areas for the elderly, people with disabilities, and pregnant women; (iv) separate restrooms for males and females, with diaper-changing facilities; and (v) well-lit and unobstructed floor design with visible and operational CCTVs, 1.1.2 All BRT stations have visible anti-harassment and bullying features that also deter other crimes, such as (i) staffed help desks; (ii) posters with messages against sexual harassment and other crimes; (iii) signages with clear instructions and help lines for those experiencing any harassment and other crimes in the station; and (iv) tv monitors (as feasible), that constantly play (in Urdu, Pashto and/or Hindko) short campaign ads discouraging any form of harassment and promoting a respectful public space for all regardless of sex, age, ethnicity, and cultural affiliations.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ODBM consultants EPCM consultants SMTA (Gender specialist) TransKarachi (PIU Social and gender staff) Contractors/suppliers 	Q1 2019–Q2 2020
1.2 Construct social and gender-inclusive approaches to each BRT station	1.2.1 Approaches to all BRT stations include (i) delineated bike lanes protected from encroaching 4-(or more) wheeled motorized vehicles; (ii) parking areas for bikes; (iii) shaded and well-lighted walkways for pedestrians, with provisions for pram/wheelchair accessibility; and (iv) evenly paved, unobstructed access roads with speed humps, traffic lights, pedestrian crossings, and clear signages.		Q1 2019–Q2 2020

Activities	Targets and Indicators	Responsibility	Timeframe
1.3 Ensure that every unit in the BRT fleet meets international standards for safe and comfortable travel for all types of passengers, especially women and other vulnerable segments of the riding public.	1.3.1 Each bus has (i) a segregated seating and standing section for women, with spaces for prams; (ii) specially marked seats for persons with disabilities; (iii) signages (in local languages) with clear messages on strict enforcement of priority seating and segregated spaces for women, as well as information on bus routes, stops, and schedules; (iii) visible CCTV (as feasible); and (iv) posters discouraging all forms of harassment and promoting a respectful public transport system.		Q1 2020
Output 2: Effective project management and sustainable BRT operations established			
2.1 Institute a gender mainstreaming approach in SMTA and TransKarachi	<p>2.1.1 Gender specialist position is created and filled, with clear TOR on incorporating gender concerns in SMTA's programs, policies, and operations.</p> <p>2.1.2 An Equal Opportunity, Gender and Social specialist position is created and filled with clear TOR on incorporating social and gender-inclusive concerns in Transkarachi's programs, policies and operations.</p> <p>2.1.3 At least 1 women appointed in TransKarachi's Boards of Directors.</p> <p>2.1.4 At least 10% female staff in SMTA and TransKarachi.</p> <p>2.1.5 At least 10% female service providers/ contractors/ third party employees recruited for operations and maintenance, such as fare collection, janitorial, and security services.</p> <p>2.1.6 All staff trained on social and gender-inclusive codes of practice and behaviour, with refresher courses conducted every 3 years.</p> <p>2.1.7 Social and gender inclusive policies and practices integrated into the business plans and operational procedures manuals of SMTA and TransKarachi, including strategies to increase recruitment of female staff.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PMCCB consultants • SMTA (Gender specialist) • TransKarachi (PIU Social and gender staff) 	<p>Recruitment and Appointments: from Q1 2019</p> <p>Trainings: Q2 2019 – throughout operations</p>
2.2 Ensure social and gender inclusiveness of BRT operations.	<p>2.2.1 Some feeder routes and schedules cater to the travel needs of women and other vulnerable passengers, as determined by quick surveys and study.</p> <p>2.2.2 All staff with direct passenger interaction (e.g. station and ticket staff, drivers and conductors, and security guards) are trained on passenger management, including enforcing segregation of women's sections, child protection, addressing needs of vulnerable passengers, and proper handling of threats to passenger security.</p> <p>2.2.3 Studies and trials on the feasibility of special buses for women and vulnerable passengers conducted, with recommendations submitted to TransKarachi and SMTA.</p> <p>2.2.4 At least one female conductor or security guard is available on each BRT station, and in all buses for off-corridor services, at all times to provide support to women passengers.</p> <p>2.2.5 At least 2 multimedia behaviour campaigns on passenger safety, especially women and children, are implemented and seen by at least 80% of the projected 320,000 riders.</p>		Q2 2019 - throughout operations

BRT = bus rapid transit, CCTV = closed-circuit television, EPCM = Engineering, Procurement, Construction, and Monitoring consultants, ODBM = Operations, Design, and Business Model consultants, PIU = project implementation unit, PMCCB = Project Management, Communication, and Capacity Building consultants, Q = quarter, SMTA = Sindh Mass Transit Authority, TOR = terms of reference.

Source: Asian Development Bank estimates.

Female Labor Force Participation in Asia: Pakistan Country Study

Preliminary Draft

Erica Field* Kate Vyborny†

November 2, 2014

Executive Summary

In Pakistan, women work primarily in the home or on the farm. Participation in other types of work outside the home, particularly formal employment, is extremely low. Despite increases in recent years, female labor force participation (FLFP) in Pakistan is well below rates for other countries with similar income levels. Even among women with high levels of education, labor force participation lags: only one in five women with a university degree in Pakistan is working. This is a major loss of potential productivity. In addition, it has potentially important implications for women's empowerment: compared to non-working women in the same villages – and even in the same families – working women are more likely to play a role in decision-making in their households. Yet in our analysis we find clear evidence that many women would like to take up paid employment. One of the main reasons they do not is restrictions on their physical mobility outside the home. For this reason, we explore physical mobility as the key focus issue in this country paper.

Paper Structure

The Pakistan country paper is structured as follows: First, we present statistics on women's engagement in the labor force from several nationally representative household survey datasets that

*Duke University emf23@duke.edu

†katherine.vyborny@duke.edu. We are grateful to Smita Das for excellent research assistance.

will form the basis of our empirical analysis. We then use these descriptive data to identify and explore a set of constraints on the labor force participation of women in Pakistan – a set we then further refine through a targeted review of existing research on each constraint. We focus in particular on mobility, which presents itself as an key constraint on FLFP in Pakistan. This diagnostic analysis provides insights for priority areas of focus for future data collection, research and policy, which we lay out in the final section.

Key Takeaways

The analysis shows that factors such as home responsibilities and childcare do play a major role in limiting FLFP, as is often presumed. Women who are not employed are still very busy with home and dependent care responsibilities. Women who are not employed spend just as much time on housework and dependent care as employed *men* do working. And the women who are employed still do the same amount of housework and dependent care; they just have less time for leisure than women who are not employed.

But there is clear evidence that, despite this, many women would like to work. About 40 percent of women who are not employed say they feel they do not have enough to do. Furthermore, about a quarter of all women say they would like to work if they could find a suitable job, and this proportion is large even in the country's most socially conservative provinces, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Balochistan. If all these women took up employment this would double the FLFP rate in Pakistan.

One of the most important reasons that women in Pakistan do not take up paid employment is that their mobility is restricted. Of women who work, 30 percent do so in their own home. Almost 40 percent of women who are not working report that the main reason is that their husband or father does not give them permission to work outside the home. Another 10 percent say that it is because they themselves do not want to work outside the home. Among those who say they would be willing to work, almost half say they would only be willing to work within their own home. Even those women who do leave the home to work do not go as far to their workplace as men do.

These restrictions appear to be very important for outcomes. Women at higher education levels who work outside the home earn more than twice as much as those who work at home. Of course, many more may not even be able to find any paid employment that allows them to work at home – so they earn nothing. While women's education is on the rise, its benefits can only be fully realized if women can leave their homes and work in jobs that utilize their skills.

Women's mobility outside the home is a function of a number of interconnected factors, including social, cultural and religious norms, safety and crime, and the quality of available transport services. Low mobility may also be self-perpetuating: the fact that few women move in public spaces may reinforce the social norm. If more women travel, this may in turn increase the acceptability of women's travel.

The Way Forward

Our analysis highlights a number of gaps that would be valuable to address to provide better insights into how to best support the ability of women to enter and thrive in the labor force in Pakistan.

First, better linking of geographic areas between datasets, and more household panel data, would both be enormously useful in giving more credible quantitative estimates of any policy on female labor force participation – as well as being useful for understanding the impacts of many other economic and social policies.

Second, we discuss potential policies that could be considered in education, public safety, and public transport. All of these areas are understudied; they require more research to properly quantify their benefits and inform policy.

In education, intermediate (i.e. the last two years of secondary schooling) and tertiary education may be particularly important, since women only start to enter the labor force in greater numbers at these levels. These higher levels of education have barely been studied at all in Pakistan; researchers tend to overlook them in favor of primary and middle education. Research and experimentation with policies to increase women's access to higher education are critical. Mobility is a key factor here as well: many families do not want to send daughters to higher levels of education which are further away from the home.

To increase women's ability to move in public, a number of policy levers may be powerful. In particular, the police and criminal justice system must address threats to women's safety in public. We highlight findings from studies in India, a similar social and institutional context, where confidence in police is low and crimes against women go underreported, but interventions such as female local leadership and community observers in police stations have had a positive impact.

Secondly, better quality public transport services must address Pakistani women's needs and preferences. Given strong social norms against women riding bicycles or motorbikes alone, most Pakistani

women are dependent on public transport. Yet most cities in Pakistan have no state-provided transportation at all. In almost all cities, the existing public and private transport services are crowded with men, making riding them a major social obstacle for women in a society where close contact between the sexes is taboo. So far, there is no rigorous evidence quantifying the effect of quality public transport services on women's mobility and labor force participation. Better evidence on what works and the size of the impacts could be very important in informing future policies and programs offered by the government, ADB, and other lenders and donors. We highlight several ongoing and incipient research initiatives that we and colleagues are undertaking to begin to address this issue and point to areas of potential future research. Given its extensive engagement with the Government of Pakistan in developing public transportation, ADB is uniquely positioned both to encourage the government to consider the findings from ongoing rigorous research, and to support researchers and government to work together to quantify the social and economic benefits of these investments, especially for women.

1 Introduction

In Pakistan, women work primarily in the home or on the farm. Participation in other types of work outside the home, particularly formal employment, is extremely low. Despite increases in recent years, female labor force participation in Pakistan is well below levels for other countries with similar income (Figure 1). Even among women with a high level of education, labor force participation is low: only one in five women with a university degree in Pakistan works outside the home.

Women's low labor force participation creates an important potential loss of productivity. Female labor force participation in Pakistan has correlated closely with GDP over time: opportunities for women improve with economic growth, and working women contribute to overall production. Women's work has other important benefits. Work may be empowering to women: Fatima (2014) finds that women who work are more likely than others in the same village to have a say in whether to use contraception (controlling for village fixed effects), and much more likely than other women in the same household to have a say in household expenditures (controlling for household fixed effects). Ray (2000) observes that in households surveyed in a 1991 nationally representative sample, children's overall share of household earnings was only slightly less than that of women. He argues that, because of cultural or religious restrictions on women working outside the home, households in Pakistan rely more on child labor, especially that of boys.

Despite these observations, there is clear evidence that many Pakistani women would like to be

employed. About 40% of women who are not employed say they feel they do not have enough to do, and about a quarter of all women say they would like to work if they could find a suitable job. Strikingly, this proportion is large even for the country's most socially conservative provinces, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Balochistan. If all women who were interested in working became employed, the rate of female labor force participation in Pakistan would double.

So why aren't more women working outside the home? One of the most important reasons that women in Pakistan do not take up paid employment appears to be that their mobility is restricted, due to both social norms and security concerns. This limits the ability of urban women to leave the home and the ability of rural women to move outside of their village or even sub-village settlement for work. Likewise, these factors limit the ability of younger women to attend further education or vocational training that could lead to better work opportunities.

Almost 40% of women who are not working report that the main reason for this is that their husband or father does not give them permission to work outside the home. Another 10% say that it is because they themselves do not want to work outside the home. Among women who say that they would be willing to work, almost half say they would only be willing to work within their own home. Particularly telling is the fact that, of those who do work, 30% work in their own home. Even those women who do leave the home to work do not travel as far to their workplace as men do.

These restrictions on women's mobility appear to be a major factor contributing to gender disparities in economic outcomes. Women at higher levels of education who work outside the home earn more than twice as much as those who work at home. Of course, many more may not even be able to find any paid employment that allows them to work at home - so they earn nothing. While women's education is on the rise, its benefits can only be fully realized if women are able to leave their homes and work in jobs that fully utilize their skills.

Women's mobility outside the home is a function of a number of interconnected factors including social, cultural, and religious norms; safety and crime; and the quality of available transport services. Low mobility may also be self-perpetuating: the fact that few women move in public spaces may reinforce the perception that women cannot or should not move about freely. If more women travel, this may, in turn, increase the acceptability of women's travel.

To explore mobility and other key issues affecting women's labor force participation, we bring together evidence from a comprehensive review of the literature on Pakistan, and from descriptive analysis of multiple nationally representative data sets from recent years and from the past 20 years.

The findings point to policy approaches that may help alleviate these constraints and thereby improve women's welfare. In particular, we discuss potential policies that could be considered in education, public safety, and public transportation. All of these areas are understudied, and hence require more research to properly quantify their benefits and fully inform policy in this area.

Given the ADB's existing work on public transportation in Pakistan, there is a clear opportunity for the ADB, government and researchers to collaborate to test out different approaches, quantify their benefits and help guide better policies, programs and lending decisions to enhance work opportunities for women and their contribution to the economy of Pakistan.

2 Data

There are several sources of survey data that can be used to gain insight into women's labor market experiences in Pakistan.

2.1 LFS, 1984 - 2007

The Pakistan Labor Force Survey provides data on detailed sector participation, wages, basic family characteristics, and geographic characteristics in particular urban and rural differences. This survey is nationally representative, and each wave covers approximately 30,000 households (with some variation by year).

The LFS allows us to analyze detailed descriptive statistics on the current state of women's wages and labor force participation in different sectors, across Pakistan and geographically (by province and by rural/urban areas). In addition, many key variables were collected over rounds of the LFS since the 1980s, allowing for analysis of time trends.

In addition, the LFS includes a detailed module on the availability and willingness of respondents who are not employed or who are working less than 35 hours a week to take up jobs in different locations.

2.2 PSLM 2005-6

We also analyze the relationship between labor force participation and more detailed data on social norms on women's decision-making, and geographic characteristics, using the Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM) 2005-6. The PSLM is a nationally representative

survey with sample size of approximately 15,000 households. The 2005-6 round is used because it included a detailed women's module, including questions on women's decision-making.

2.3 Pakistan Time Use Survey, 2007

The Pakistan Time Use Survey (sample size 19,000 households) is representative of all four major provinces in Pakistan. Analysis of this data set will allow us to explore questions which bear directly on the impact of women's labor force participation on their well-being, including hours of market work, work at home, and rest.

2.4 Demographic and Health Survey, 1990 - 2013

Three cross-sectional rounds of the Demographic and Health Survey have been collected in Pakistan. These are nationally representative surveys of ever-married women; each round covered approximately 10,000 respondents. The DHS is primarily a health-focused survey. However, it includes some questions which are very useful for our purposes, including questions on work and childcare arrangements, work and marriage history, and measures of women's empowerment in household decision-making.

We should note that subjective questions related to social norms or a woman's role in decision-making could be subject to more response bias than objective questions about behavior. These responses can be useful because they capture dimensions that objective questions may not be able to cover effectively. Ideally, though, they should be interpreted in conjunction with other types of objective questions.

2.5 World Values Survey

The World Values Survey included Pakistan in three waves: 1997, 2001, and 2012. This survey focuses on respondents' opinions and values regarding political, social and personal issues. Here we draw on the questions focused on norms regarding women's work.

2.6 Lahore School of Economics PERI Survey

The PERI survey at Lahore School of Economics is a sample of 924 households in rural Punjab.

The survey sampled clusters in tehsils that are primarily rural; it was stratified to cover all regions of

Punjab, except selected areas of West Punjab which had been hit by major floods in 2010. The survey and sampling strategy are described in greater detail in Ahmed, Amjad, Habib, and Shah (2013).

The PERI survey was focused on education, especially parental aspirations for their children’s education and future careers. Here we draw on this data to compare parental aspirations for sons and daughters.

Table 1: Description of datasets

Survey	Year(s)	Variables of interest
Labor Force Survey	19 rounds, 1984 - 2011	Long-term trends in sectors, occupation, hours, wages, education, training
Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey	2005-6	Women’s decision-making; fertility; reported constraints on LFP
Demographic and Health Survey	1990, 2006, 2012	Willingness to work, work and marriage, childcare arrangements, female empowerment
World Values Survey	1997, 2001, 2012	Social norms
Lahore School of Economics PERI Survey	2011	Aspirations for children’s education and career
Time Use Survey	2007	Time use, travel times and modes

3 Findings

3.1 Women are active in housework and dependent care

Unsurprisingly, women who do not participate in paid employment in Pakistan still work a great deal. Figure 2 shows the breakdown of time for employed and non-employed men and women from the 2007 Pakistan Time Use Survey. After including housework and dependent care, women who are not in the labor force spend as much time in productive activities as *men* who are in the labor force. Women who are employed do just as much housework and dependent care as those who are not employed. Their work hours come instead mostly at the expense of rest and leisure. Conversely, men who are not employed do not take up a greater burden of these activities, but rather report spending more time in rest and leisure. This suggests that social norms on division of labor in the household are inflexible. Indeed, when asked about their availability to work, approximately 75% of women who

say they are not available to work cite these home responsibilities as the main reason.

These findings are consistent with Sultana, Nazli, and Malik (1994), who analyze data from one round of an IFPRI survey of rural households. They find that women who participate in the labor market are poor and actually work more at home than the non-participants. They suggest that women who do not work are often also wealthy enough to hire paid help for household tasks.

Despite the prevalence of a joint family system in Pakistan, the extended family does not seem to play a central role in childcare for working women. The vast majority of working women report that their children accompany them to work (Figure 3). A significant proportion do report that other relatives look after their children while they work, but almost as many say that older children do so - suggesting that work does come at a significant cost in terms of the quality of childcare. Qureshi (2013) uses data from rural Punjab to demonstrate that girls' education has positive spillovers on their younger siblings' learning, precisely because of the role they play in caring for younger siblings.

But childcare alone is not responsible for low female labor force participation in Pakistan. Figure 4 shows that the "M-shaped" curve found in some countries, in which women leave the labor force when their children are young and return later on, is completely absent in Pakistan. In fact, labor force participation is slightly higher among women with young children than among married women without children. This pattern persists even among households with larger numbers of children. In fact, women with larger families tend to work slightly more (this could be related to poverty or geography, since poor and rural women are more likely to work).

So do other kinds of home responsibilities constraint FLFP? Economic theory suggests that other household chores normally undertaken by women could be completed by substituting hired help or labor-saving devices, but this behavior is not apparent in the data. Thus, home responsibilities do not sufficiently explain for low labor force participation despite a majority of unavailable respondents citing these responsibilities as the reason for not being available.

3.2 Latent labor supply

As described above, very few women indicate that they are "available" to work (Figure 5), and almost none report actively seeking work. Yet, Figure 6 shows that 40% of women who are not employed report that they did not have enough to do in the previous day. These patterns are similar among non-employed women in urban and rural areas.

Figure 7 shows that when women are asked a slightly different question, "would you work if you

could find a suitable job?”, the responses differ dramatically. Approximately a quarter of women answer “yes.” If all of these women worked, this would double female labor force participation in Pakistan. Similar proportions of women answer yes to this question in both rural and urban areas, and even in provinces where actual female labor force participation is very low (Figure 8). So the question remains, what makes a “suitable” job?

3.3 Wages

One potential explanation for low FLFP is that the jobs available to women simply do not pay enough. Women earn less than men and this difference has been persistent over time (Figure 9). (Note that all wages are calculated here on an hourly basis using respondent’s reported work hours in the last week, so they adjust for differences in work hours.)

Market returns to education appear to be highly convex for women (Figure 10). Only at the very last stages of secondary schooling and tertiary education do women’s wages really show an increase.

Given low wages, it may simply not make sense for many women to substitute into market work by paying for domestic help or investing in labor-saving devices to reduce the household burden. This is consistent with the pattern of employed women doing just as much at home as those who are not employed, as discussed earlier.

What explains this pattern? While wage discrimination is a possibility and merits additional scrutiny in future research, one plausible reason explored here may be the occupational segregation of women.

Low returns for primary and middle schooling, combined with occupational segregation and/or household-level income effects, could explain why women’s participation at these intermediate levels of employment is so low (Figure 11). The poorest and least educated women work by necessity; meanwhile, those who are slightly better off, and have male family members who earn more, stay at home. It may make sense only for the most educated women, to whom more comfortable, socially acceptable, and higher-paying white-collar jobs are available, to enter the labor market. This is consistent with a household-level income effect suggested by Azid, Khan, and Alamas (2010), among others.

Figure 13 is consistent with the hypothesis that occupational segregation explains at least part of the wage gap and low participation of women. They show that women’s participation is concentrated in a few sectors and occupations. The three occupations with the highest participation of women

(skilled agriculture, craft and trade, and unskilled labor) are also among the lowest paid (Figure 14). Meanwhile, many of the more lucrative jobs available to men who complete intermediate levels of education are not commonly held by women. For example, clerical and service sector occupations are among the higher paid positions at intermediate education levels, but almost no women hold these positions.

This is consistent with Ahmed and Hyder (2009), who analyze occupational segregation at the two-digit level and find that 45% of workers would have to change their job for an equal distribution of job types between men and women. They also find that women are more concentrated in the public sector. Cheema, Khwaja, Naseer, and Shapiro (2012) find that a large percentage of firms hire no women at all. This is consistent with strong gender norms on the type of work taken up, but also with specific costs perceived by employers to having any women in the workplace, such as ensuring their security.

Figure 14 shows that occupational differences do not explain the differences in wages completely. Within almost all occupations, women's wages are still lower than men's. However, these are broad categories. They may still significantly understate gender segregation between more narrow job categories and even individual firms, as well as the extent to which this segregation explains the pay gap.

The overall pattern of FLFP— in which women at the lowest and highest education levels participate most in the labor force — holds up in rural areas. In urban areas, however, women's participation in the labor force is low for all groups except the most educated.

This suggests that even significant growth in girls' primary, middle and early secondary school attainment alone might not necessarily increase female labor force participation, especially in an increasingly urbanizing Pakistan. As 12 shows, women's educational attainment lags men's by decades in Pakistan, but there has been rapid and encouraging growth in recent years. However, the proportion of women who reach the highest levels of education, in which women start to enter the labor force in white-collar jobs, is still very small.

It is also important to note that even at higher educational levels where their returns are greater and they seem to be able to take up higher level white collar jobs, women's labor force participation is still very low - from 2000-2007 it was still at just 20%. Only one in five women who has an advanced degree in Pakistan is actually using it in the labor force.

3.4 Social norms and exposure

Social norms clearly have some role to play in restricting women's labor force participation in Pakistan - either keeping women at home entirely, or by reducing their labor force participation to only certain acceptable occupations.

Men are seen as the primary breadwinners in Pakistan, and most people agree that if jobs are scarce, employers should favor men. This is true for women almost as much as for men, and it holds across (self-identified) socio-economic classes. More educated respondents are only slightly less likely to agree with this statement, however.

But beyond a simple preference for men's access to work opportunities, women's work is generally actively stigmatized in Pakistan. Women who "leave the home" are not considered "respectable" in many social contexts (World Bank, 2006). Since this stigma affects the whole family, other decision-makers in the family - such as the woman's husband or in-laws - may restrict a woman's decision of whether to work outside the home. Figure 15 shows that in the vast majority of cases, women report that they do not even play a role in deciding whether or not they will seek paid employment they will work or not. As Figure 16 shows, the degree of control that a woman retains over the decision to seek employment is strongly correlated to whether she participates in the labor force.

The stigma attached to women's labor force participation also undoubtedly plays a role in the occupational segregation described earlier. Some work environments are considered more appropriate for women than others. This is related to both very real threats of harassment in the workplace, as well as a more general sense that women who are highly exposed to public space or to unrelated men are less respectable. Schools and universities are generally considered safe and controlled environments, which is likely a part of the reason why many parents of girls say they would like their daughters to become teachers (Figure 17).

Social norms are nuanced: women trained as doctors are widely considered desirable as daughters-in-law (although they are often expected to give up work once they marry), while nurses, who require less education and have more close physical contact with patients, are heavily stigmatized (Altaf, 2011).

3.5 Mobility

The same factors that make some workplaces safe or "appropriate" for women in Pakistan also affect women's mobility. Overall, the survey data indicate that female labor force participation in

Pakistan is greatly affected by their mobility outside the home, due to both social norms and security concerns. Even if the work environment itself is considered safe and acceptable, traveling to work may create a level of exposure that violates social norms. In addition, social taboos prevent women from riding bicycles or motorcycles by themselves, making them dependent on male relatives to use these modes of transport.

This limits both the ability of urban women to leave the home, as well as the ability of rural women to move outside of their village or even sub-village settlement for work; the same factors limit the ability of younger women to attend further education or vocational training that could lead to better work opportunities.

Ejaz (2007) finds that female labor force participation is positively associated with vehicle ownership in the household, despite the fact that other household durables are negatively associated. This may simply capture the U-shaped relationship between wealth and FLFP, but it may also reflect a mobility effect.

A number of recent studies on social and economic issues in Pakistan which do not specifically focus on women's labor force participation, nevertheless shed important light on this issue. For example, Jacoby and Mansuri (2011), in their study of caste and clan effects on education in Pakistan, find that parents, particularly low-caste parents, are much less likely to send their girls to school if the school is located across caste boundaries within a village. They present qualitative evidence to suggest that security is a particular issue for girls. These results have implications for female labor force participation in two ways. First, they have a direct implication, since these constraints on education also affect women's options in the labor market later on. Second, analogous issues are likely to apply to women's security in getting to work activities outside their home and immediate neighborhood.

Another recent study from the education literature which is relevant to our study is Andrabi, Das, and Khwaja (2013), who find that in areas where government rules in Punjab allocated a public girls' secondary school years earlier, low-price private schools are more likely to open. They present evidence that this occurs because women who have received a secondary education but are limited for social reasons to seek work in their own villages find work in these schools at a much lower wage than government school teachers. This has positive and negative implications: government investments in secondary education had a kind of multiplier effect, but it again serves to demonstrate the limitations that geography and mobility impose on women's labor force participation.

Cheema, Khwaja, Naseer, and Shapiro (2012) find that many households were willing to nomi-

nate female members for vocational training, but transport to the trainings has been an important constraint for uptake.

Figure 21 shows that even women who say they are currently available for work are far more restricted in their work location than men. Almost half these women say they are only available to work within the home - which severely restricts the opportunities they could take up. Of the remaining women, most are available only within their own village or town. Men, on the other hand, indicate that they are willing and able to commute or migrate much further for work opportunities.

Among people who are currently working, men go further from home: they are much more likely to spend any time commuting (Figure 22) and commute for longer when they do (Figure 23).

Figure 24 shows that in recent years there has been an increase in women's availability outside the home. It is also much greater for more educated women (Figure 25).

Women in urban areas are somewhat less likely to indicate they are available for work, but if they are available, they are more likely to be available to work outside the home (Figure 26). Urbanization can create its own challenges for women's mobility: traveling to work can mean greater anonymity, public exposure and crowding with strangers.

Figure 27 shows that districts with higher levels of women's mobility have much higher female labor force participation. The categories on the X-axis are from a district-level average (excluding the respondent's own observation) of women who traveled anywhere for any purpose in the previous day. In districts where other women travel more, a woman is more likely to work. This may reflect some combination of mobility in particular, and overall norms on women's roles.

The consequences of these mobility restrictions may be quite significant. Figure 28 shows women's wages at each education level, for women who work within their own home (not homemakers) and outside the home. At lower education levels they have similar earnings. However, at higher education levels, women who work outside the home earn far more than those who work at home. This is logical: their skills are more specialized and can pay off much more if they can get to work. Women who work outside the home are also somewhat more likely to make decisions independently, but there is too little evidence on empowerment to draw any conclusions.

4 Going forward: research and policy

Most of the literature that looks at female LFP as an outcome variable in Pakistan is based on cross-sectional regression and cannot establish a causal relationship (for example Hussain, Rabbi, and

Ali (2012), Ejaz (2007), Faridi (2009), Azid, Khan, and Alamas (2010)). From these studies, we can conclude, for instance, that more women with higher education work in Pakistan than women with a middle school education. But we cannot determine whether expanding higher education will increase women's labor force participation. The same is true for any other determinant studied with this methodology. In addition, we also have not yet found any literature that attempts to quantify the effects of many important factors which could be influenced by government policy and ADB support, such as safety and crime, or mobility and transport.

Where credible analysis does not exist for Pakistan, researchers and policy analysts should consider rigorous evidence from north India and Afghanistan, which are socially and culturally similar in many ways to Pakistan (north India to Punjab and Sindh, Afghanistan to KP and Balochistan) when designing policy and experiments. Importantly, there is a much better evidence base from India. However, given that Pakistan has its own unique context, it would be much more reliable to also build up more of an evidence base from Pakistan to complement existing evidence from abroad. In addition, the focus issue of female mobility which we focused on this paper is understudied globally.

First, there is already a great deal of high quality micro data (in particular the data we have used in this paper) that could be used to address these questions more adequately than in the existing literature. More collaboration between international and local researchers is needed to help improve understanding and analysis of the existing data. We are working actively with researchers at a number of local universities on research projects on mobility and other issues.

In addition, the existing data could be used far more effectively if there were better geographic matching between data sets. Due to overlapping and inconsistent administrative boundaries at lower levels (below the *tehsil*), and lack of consistent identifiers by different government agencies collecting data, this is a major challenge. Teams of researchers at the Lahore University of Management Sciences and the Lahore School of Economics are working actively on this problem. ADB could support these researchers and encourage the government statistical agencies to improve data procedures consistent with these aims; geographically linked data is a public good which would have benefits for research and policy analysis across the board.

However, more *panel* data - even on basic household variables - would be a major step towards getting more credible estimates of the quantitative importance of any factor affecting women's labor force participation (and indeed many other important economic and social questions). Because household outcomes can be compared over time, estimates from panel data are much more reliable

than comparisons between households using cross-section data, which may be confounded by many unobserved differences between them.

The panel data sets of which we are aware (MIMAP, IFPRI, LEAPS, and PERI) are small sample and/or very geographically limited, which makes them unsuitable for testing the effects of new policies which are implemented over time in different areas of the country. Small sample panel data also gives researchers very limited power to estimate effects on outcomes which are infrequent, such as women's labor force participation.

Finally, there are many opportunities for well-designed evaluation of future policies and interventions through quasi-experimental or ideally randomized approaches. This is particularly important for social and economic factors which are the least well understood, such as social norms and women's mobility, but which clearly play a critical role in determining these outcomes in Pakistan.

Going forward, we suggest a number of key policy areas that may either affect FLFP directly, or through physical mobility. Interventions in these areas should be tested to address the challenges women face in accessing work opportunities in Pakistan. Many of these areas are under-studied. ADB could collaborate with researchers on a set of studies to quantify their benefits and costs, in order to inform the best policies, program designs and spending allocations.

4.1 Education

For example, one completed and one ongoing study look at the impact of the Punjab Girls' Stipend Program, a major CCT program (Hasan (2010), and Theresa Chaudhry and Mushfiq Mobarak, in progress). These studies examine educational and marriage and empowerment outcomes, respectively. However, neither of them looks at labor force participation. The descriptives we have shown above show that women educated at this level tend to participate in the labor market less, but this could be confounded by other factors such as wealth and caste. The roll-out of the program could be exploited to assess labor force participation outcomes.

In addition, existing policies and research on education has focused primarily on primary and middle levels of education. These are of course important, both because education has many purposes beyond preparing people for the labor market, and because attainment and quality are required at the primary and middle levels for young women to progress to higher levels. However, more research and policy attention is needed for women's access to higher levels of education; these levels have qualitatively different issues. Given the descriptive statistics we have shown, intermediate (final years

of secondary) and tertiary education may be particularly important to expand women's opportunities. Pakistan's Higher Education Commission has broad authority over public and private institutions of higher education, including setting standardized curricula for each course of study. Its policies could be informed by high quality research on higher education. Delavande and Zafar (2014) studied the expected earnings of students and find that credit constraints play a major role in their choice of institution. However, this study works with a sample of students who are enrolled, and cannot analyze the decision on whether to attend at all. Besides this paper, we have not yet identified any other quantitative work on higher education in Pakistan. There are many potential areas for useful work with secondary data (including the LFS) and, through collaboration with government and/or donors, potentially experimental research to help inform better policies.

Finally, given the high degree of occupational segregation in Pakistan and low FLFP levels at middle levels of education, the quality and relevance of vocational training for women should also be rigorously assessed. A number of the cross-sectional studies we reviewed made recommendations in favor of expanding vocational training for women, but there seems to be little support for this based in their empirical findings. An ongoing randomized control trial by Cheema, Khwaja, Naseer, and Shapiro (2012) studies the effects of vocational training in detail, including a focus on gender. ADB is supporting vocational training for women as a part of the Benazir Income Support Program; researchers could partner with ADB to study its impacts in greater detail.

Women are also affected by distance and mobility issues when they consider opportunities for higher education, far more than primary education, so mobility also links in with education. The transportation projects we highlight below will study education outcomes explicitly.

4.2 Security and criminal justice

Security, criminal justice and other interventions focused on crime and public safety, which address safety challenges directly, are clearly a critical factor interlinked with social norms and affecting women's mobility and labor force participation.

Most of the existing literature on violence in Pakistan focuses on political violence. The existing data sets on political violence over time in Pakistan (such as WITS and BFRS, both maintained by Jacob Shapiro at the Empirical Studies of Conflict group at Princeton University) could be used in combination with repeated rounds of the PSLM, provincial Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, or other household surveys (preferably panel data, although most existing panel data is limited in

geographic scope) to test the impact of violence on women's mobility and work.

Ordinary crime (as distinct from political violence) is more likely to be a relevant threat for most Pakistani women. Evidence from India, where the social, cultural, and institutional context is similar in many ways, suggests that crimes against women are significantly underreported (Iyer, 2012); and that victims of public harassment against women tend to be particularly dissatisfied with the response of the police, more so than victims of other crimes (Banerjee, Chattopadhyay, Duflo, Keniston, and Singh, 2012).

Improving the public safety situation for women is clearly critical to improve their mobility. Institutionally, women's representation is important: when women come into leadership positions, crimes against women are reported more frequently (Iyer, Mani, Mishra, and Topalova, 2012). If and when the local government system is revived in Pakistan, this provides a good justification for keeping the women's reservations in that system.

It shows that community observers in police stations, as well as a freeze on staff transfers, improved police effectiveness and public and victims' satisfaction in a randomized control trial in Rajasthan. One possibility might be female community observers in police stations in Pakistan to improve responsiveness to complaints about harassment or violence against women. In the long run this could contribute to greater public safety and, thus, women's mobility in the public space. More data on crime and police activity are needed for analysis of public safety issues for women; experimentation and analysis with a focus on women's outcomes would be particularly useful.

Ali Cheema, Sohail Khan, Jacob Shapiro, Zulfiqar Hameed, and Shan A Rana have ongoing work in the field on crime in Punjab, which will be the first work to our knowledge in this area.

4.3 Transportation

Another policy tool particularly relevant for the ADB is public transportation and city infrastructure development. Higher quality public transportation may alleviate some of the problems women face in reaching work opportunities.

Establishing the role of transportation in enabling women's LFP is empirically challenging. There are issues of reverse causality, simply because women who work are more likely to travel to get to work. Greater demand for public transportation in areas where more women work also creates a correlation in these variables. In addition, there is an issue of omitted variable bias: areas where social norms restricting women's behavior in general may result in a correlation between areas with low female

mobility and low female labor.

To understand the potential impact of transportation policies, researchers must disentangle these factors. Several ongoing projects address this challenge.

In their ongoing work on training, Cheema et al. (baseline survey report in Cheema, Khwaja, Naseer, and Shapiro (2012)) also test several possible ways of increasing women's uptake of training, and find that providing transportation to trainings was the most successful.

In an ongoing Randomized Control Trial, we are studying the impact of women's-only transportation in Lahore. This "pink" transportation has been implemented successfully in a number of countries, including on the Delhi metro. In Pakistan, women's organizations such as Aurat Foundation have actively lobbied the government for this kind of transportation; it has been implemented on a small scale, but women's organizations advocate for it to be expanded. However, the quantitative impact of this kind of women's only transportation option on women's mobility, labor force participation and empowerment has never been studied. Our project will introduce women's-only vehicles on randomly selected routes in Lahore, and test whether this can increase women's labor market participation and empowerment.

Hadia Majid, Ammar Malik and Kate Vyborny are carrying out a quasi-experimental analysis of labor market and higher education impacts of high quality transport in Lahore. This project studies the new Bus Rapid Transport system, and uses neighborhoods which would be served by transport lines which have not yet been implemented as a comparison group. This project will incorporate a focus on gender.

We would welcome continued engagement with ADB as these projects progress, especially given ADB's active work in the transportation infrastructure sector in Pakistan.

Figure 1:

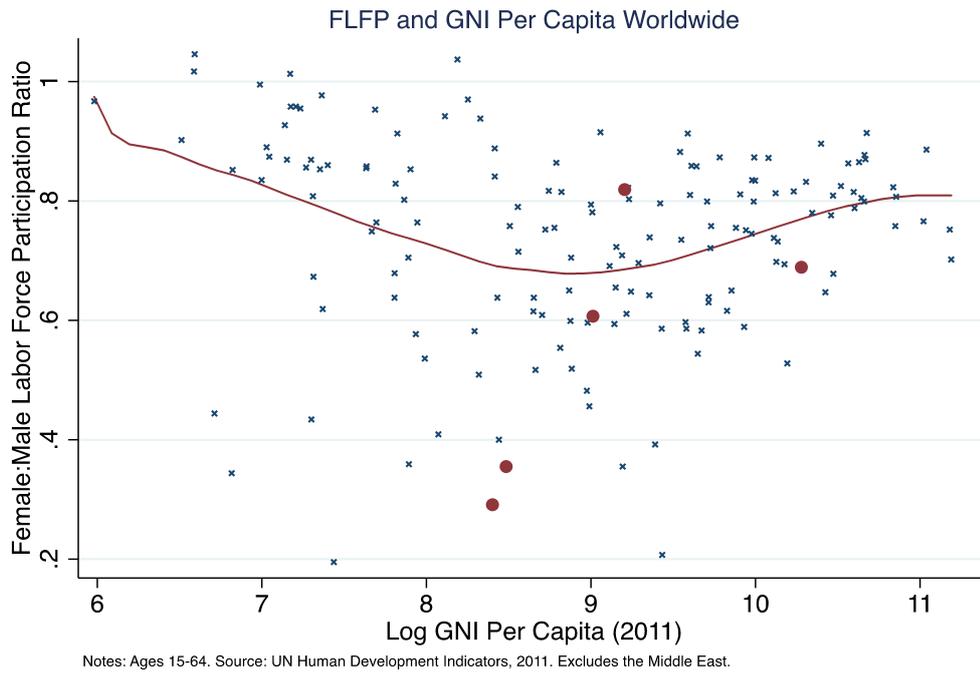


Figure 2:

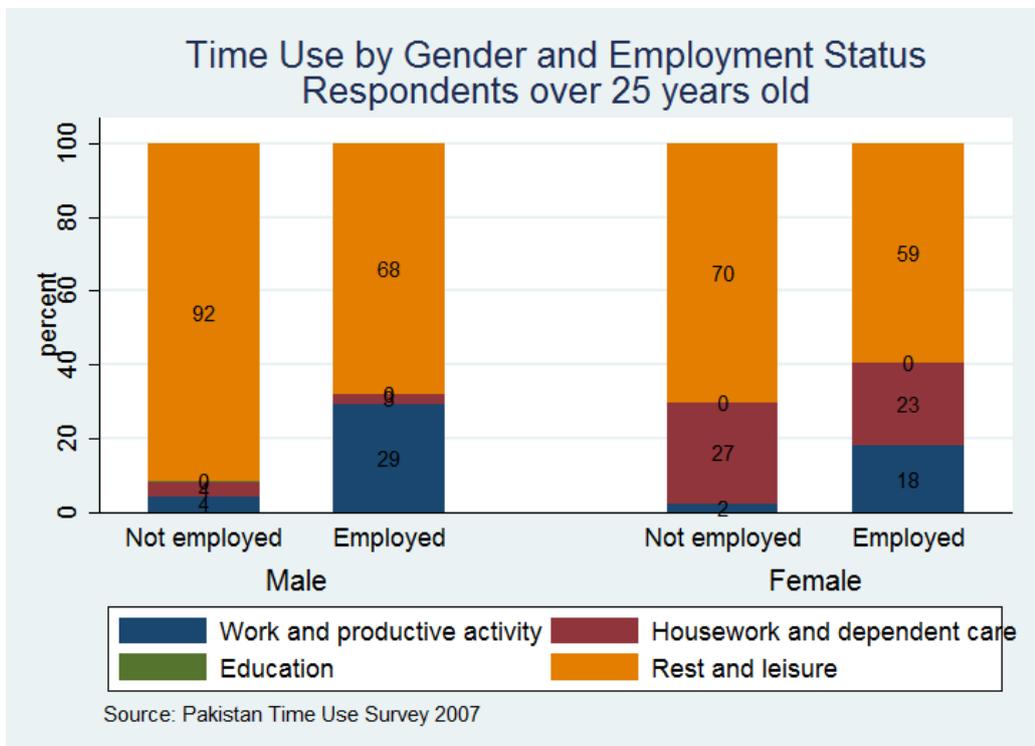


Figure 3:

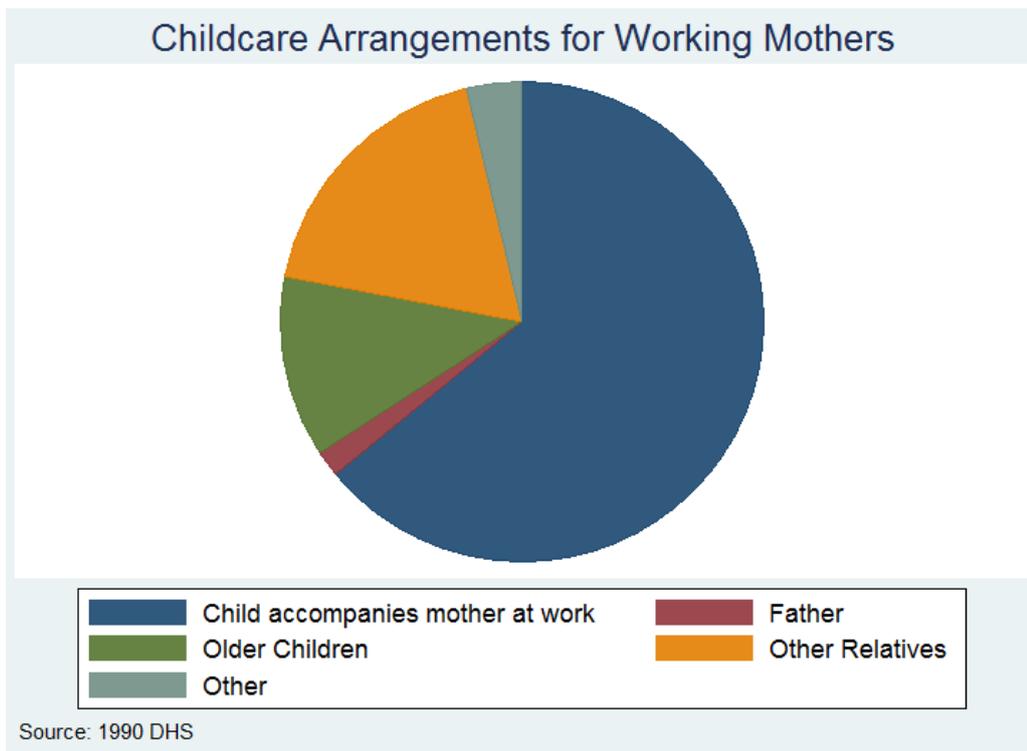


Figure 4:

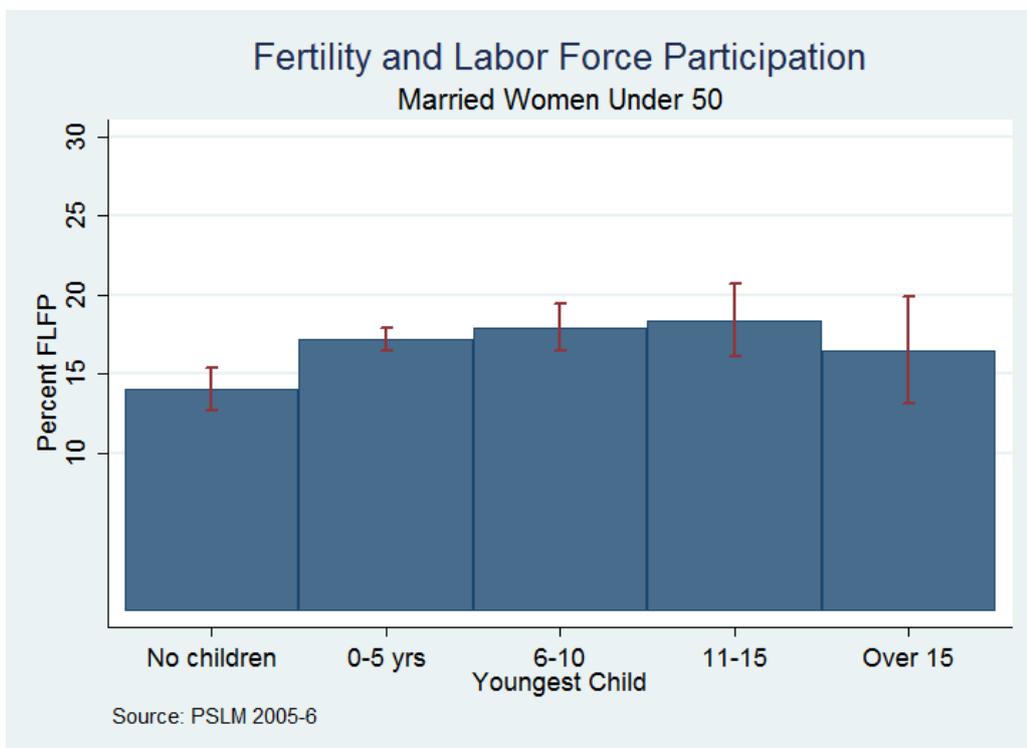


Figure 5:



Figure 6:

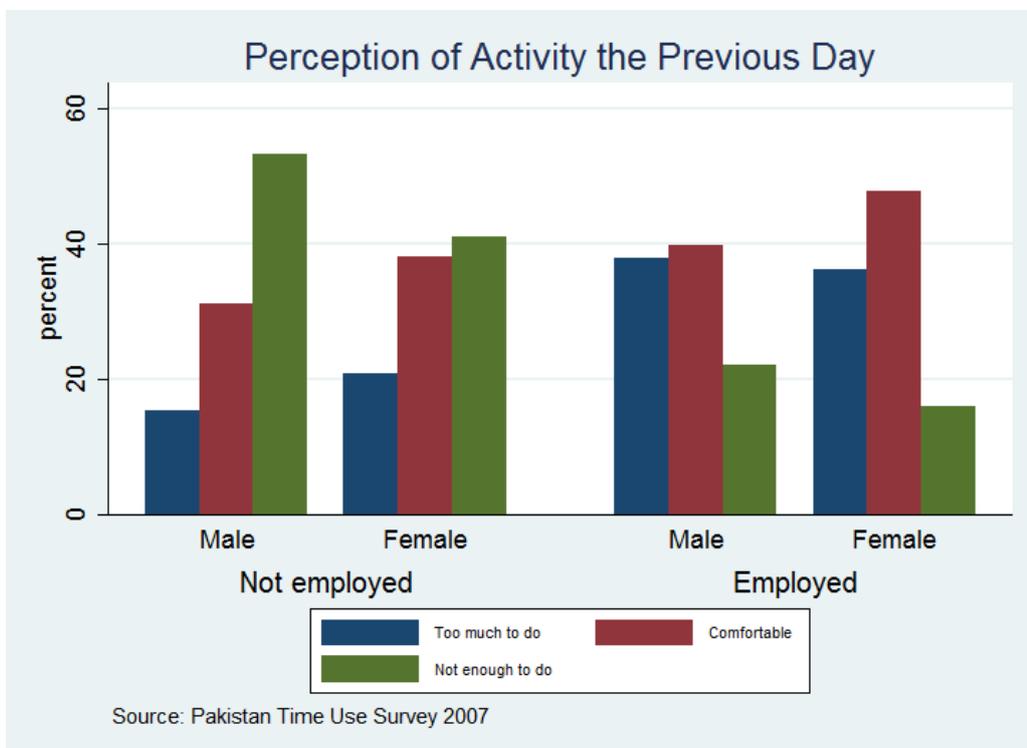


Figure 7:

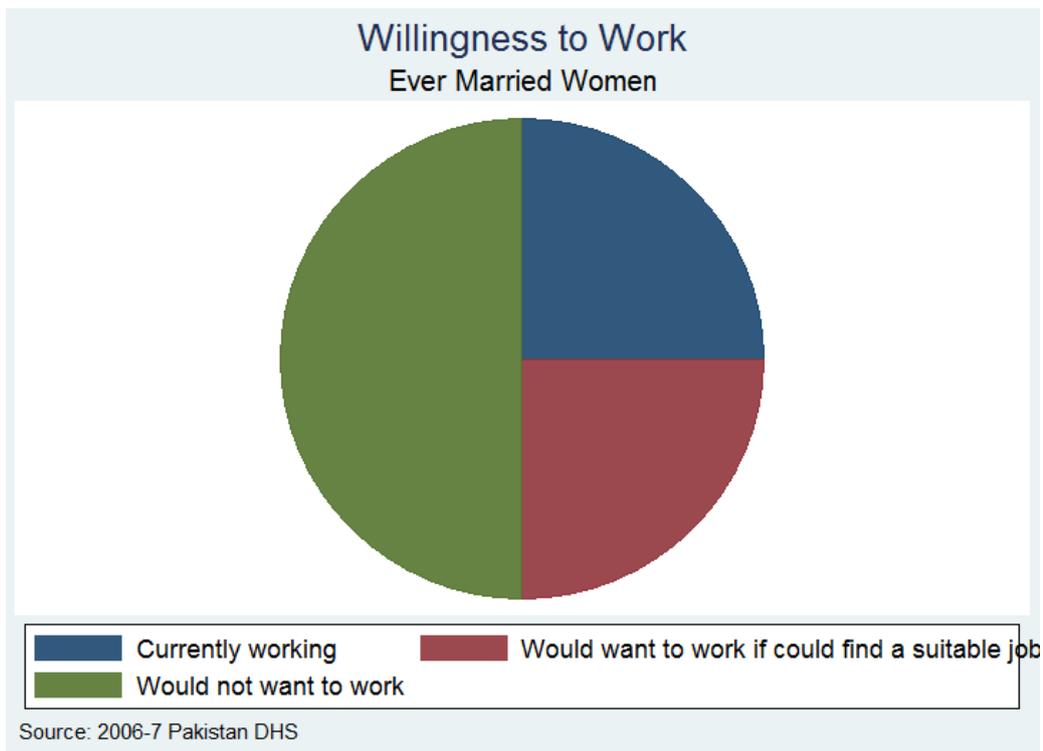


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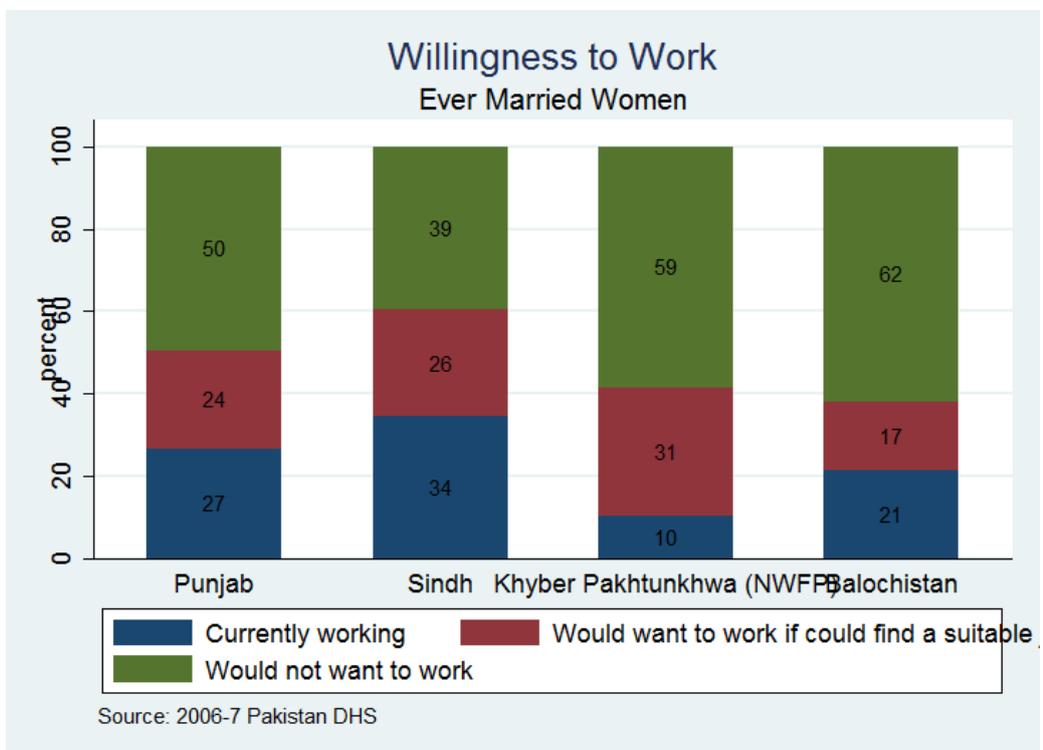


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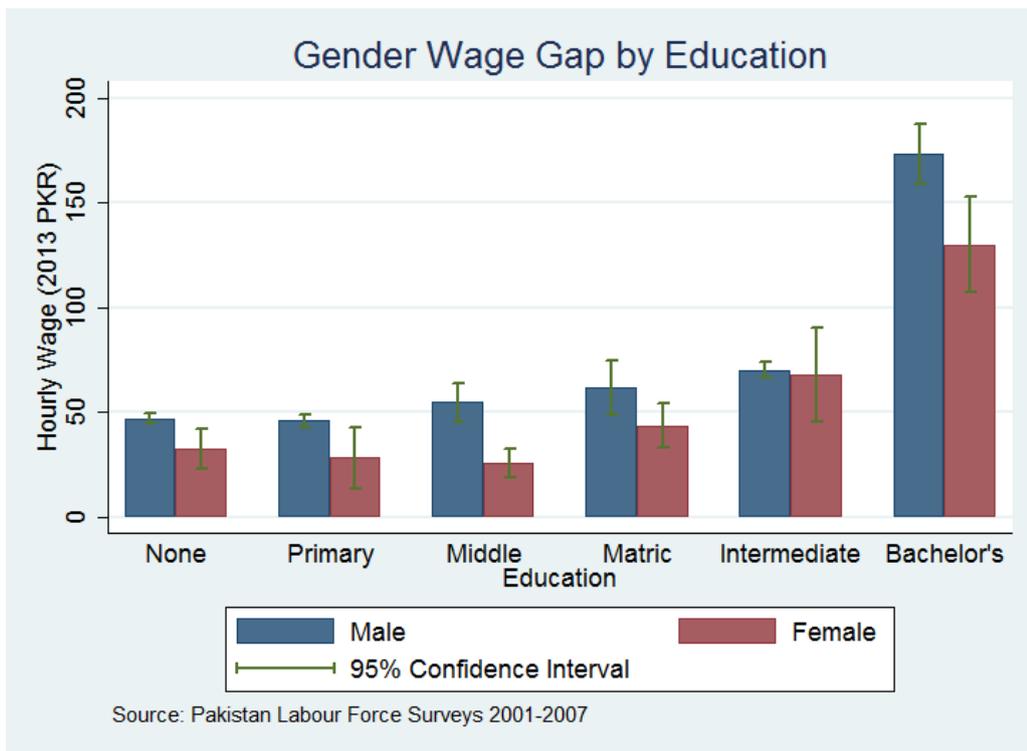


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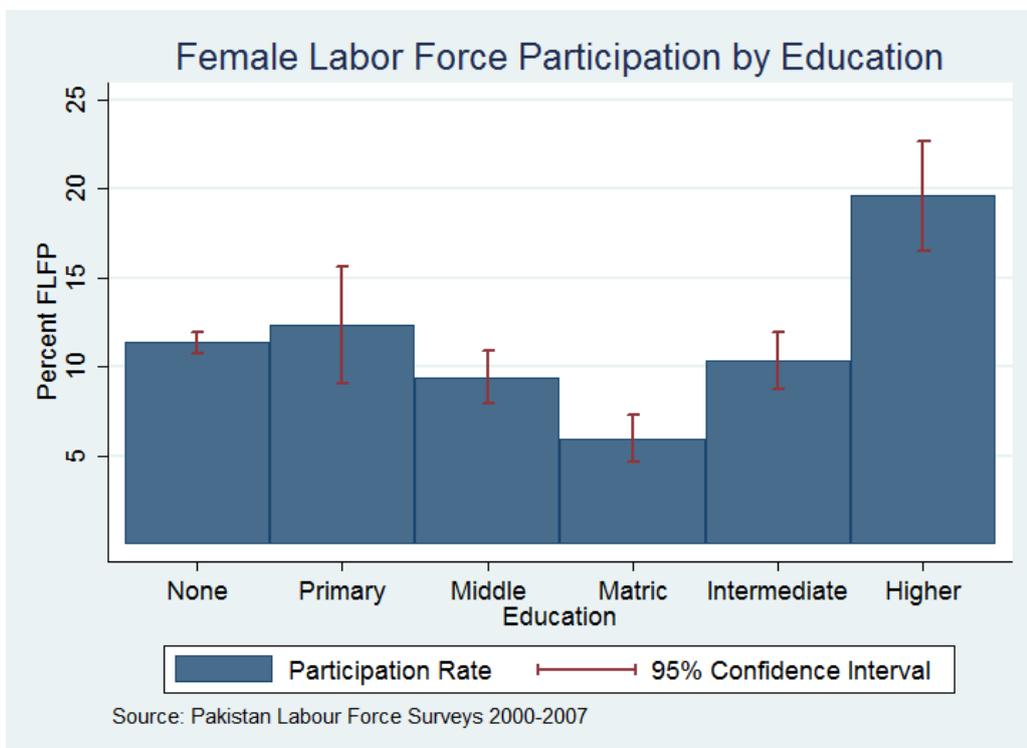


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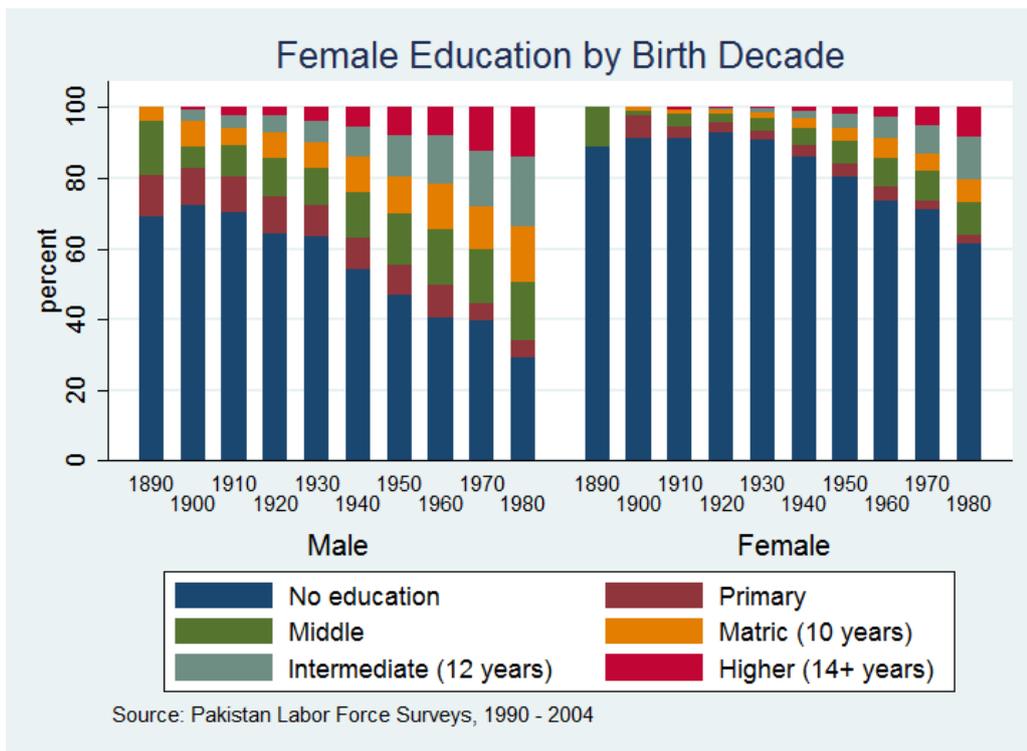


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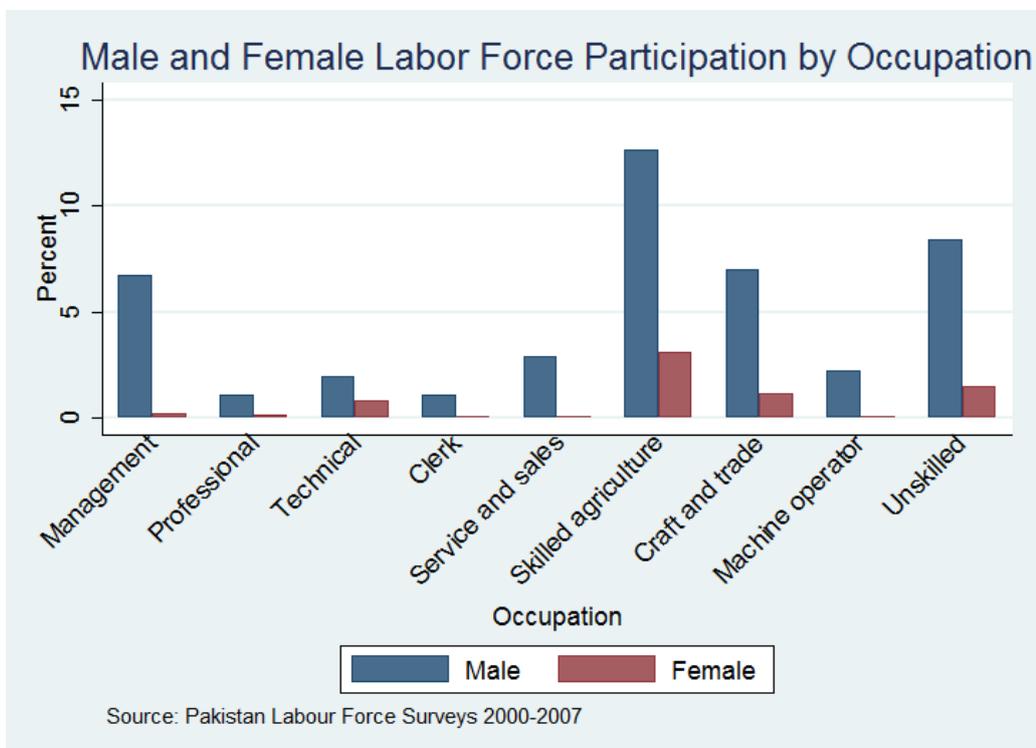


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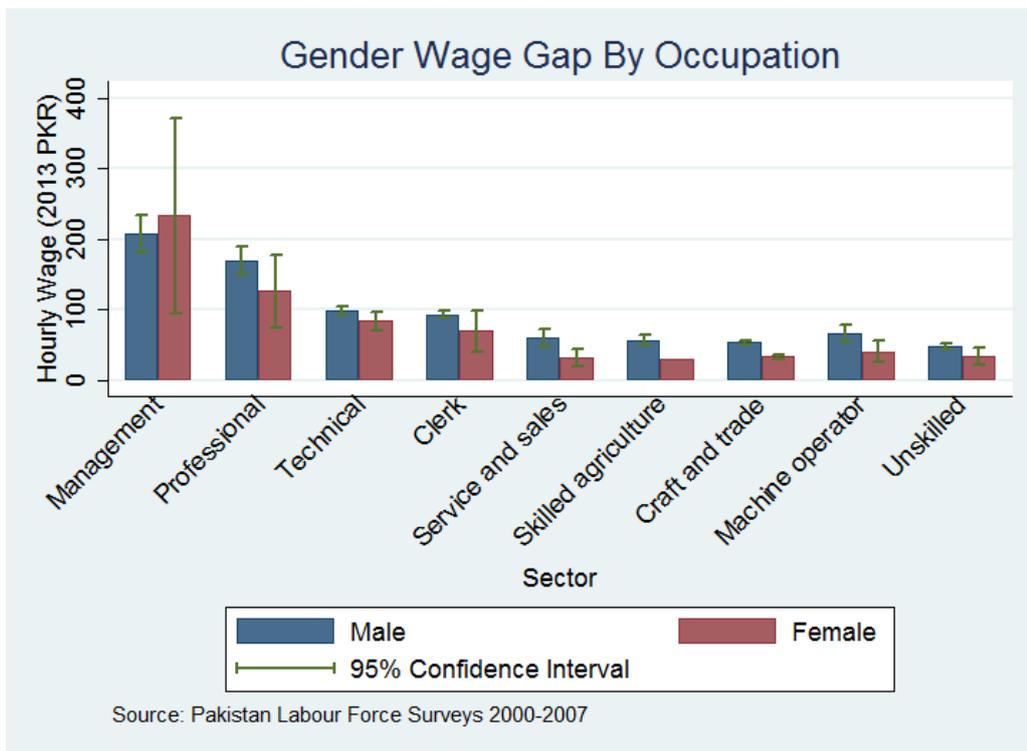


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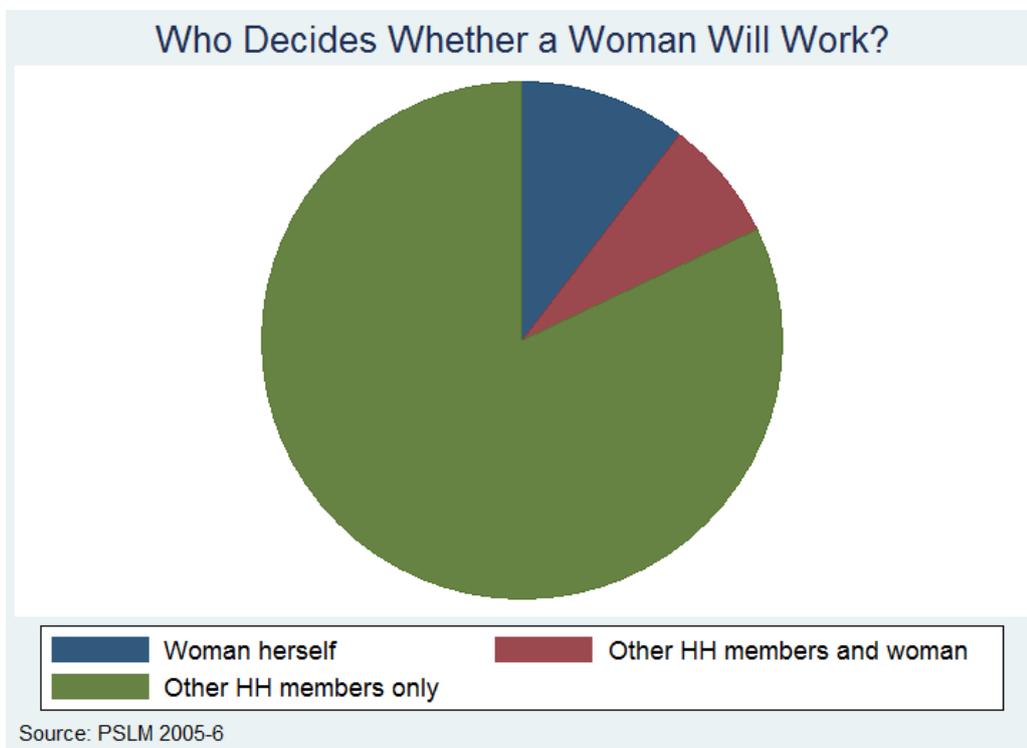


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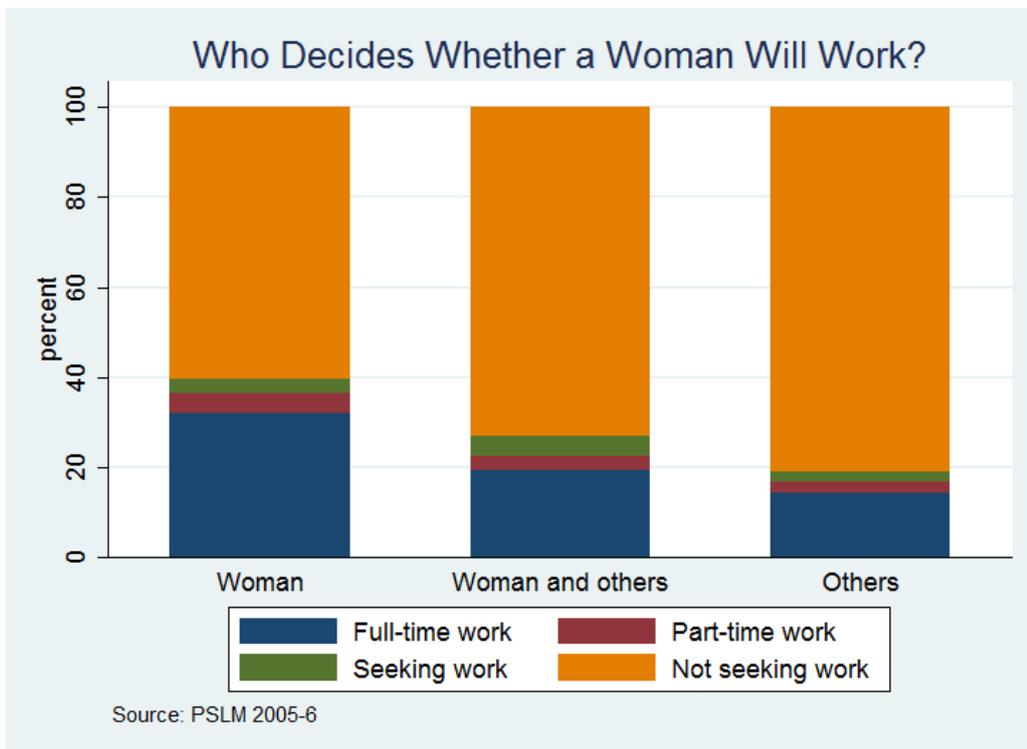


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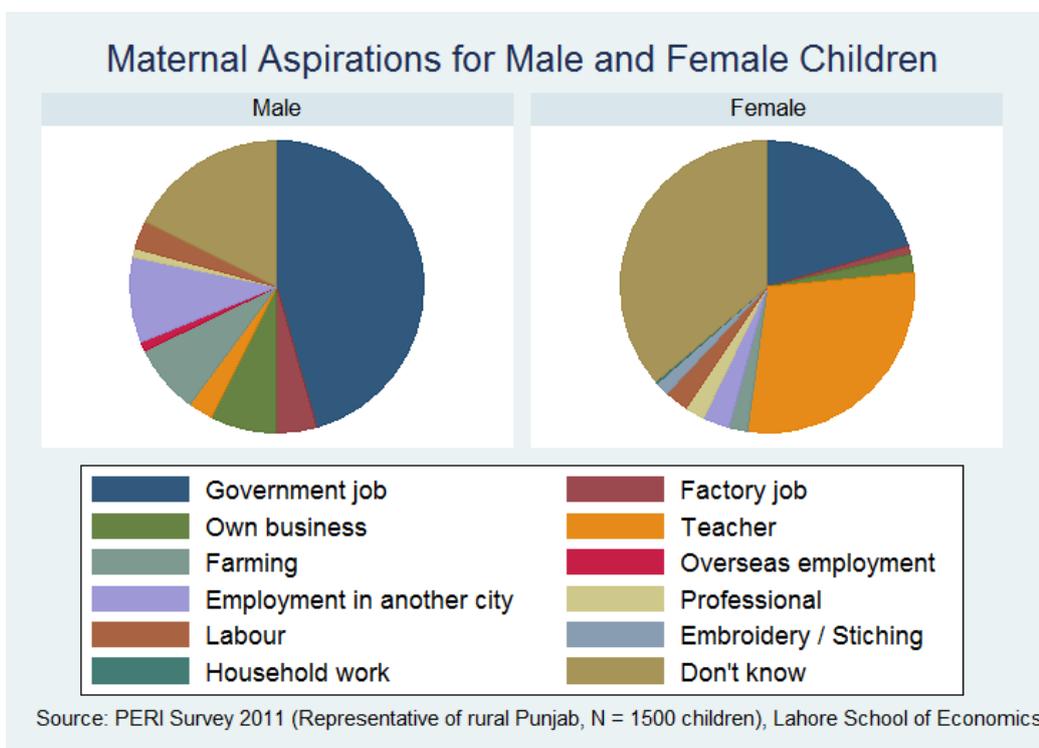


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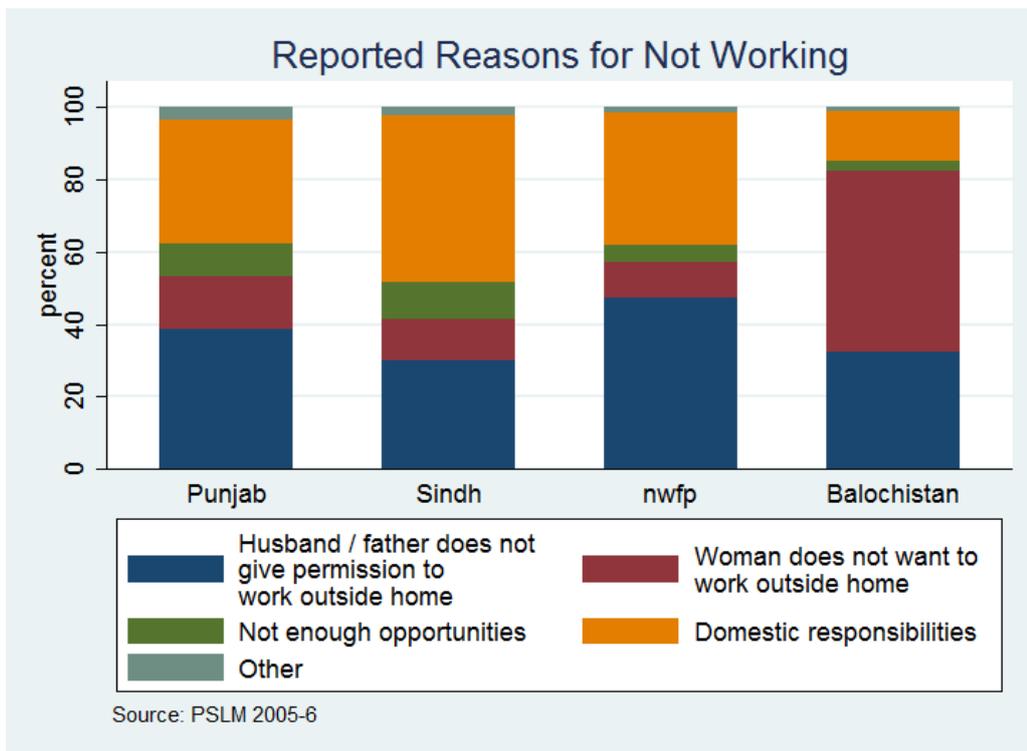


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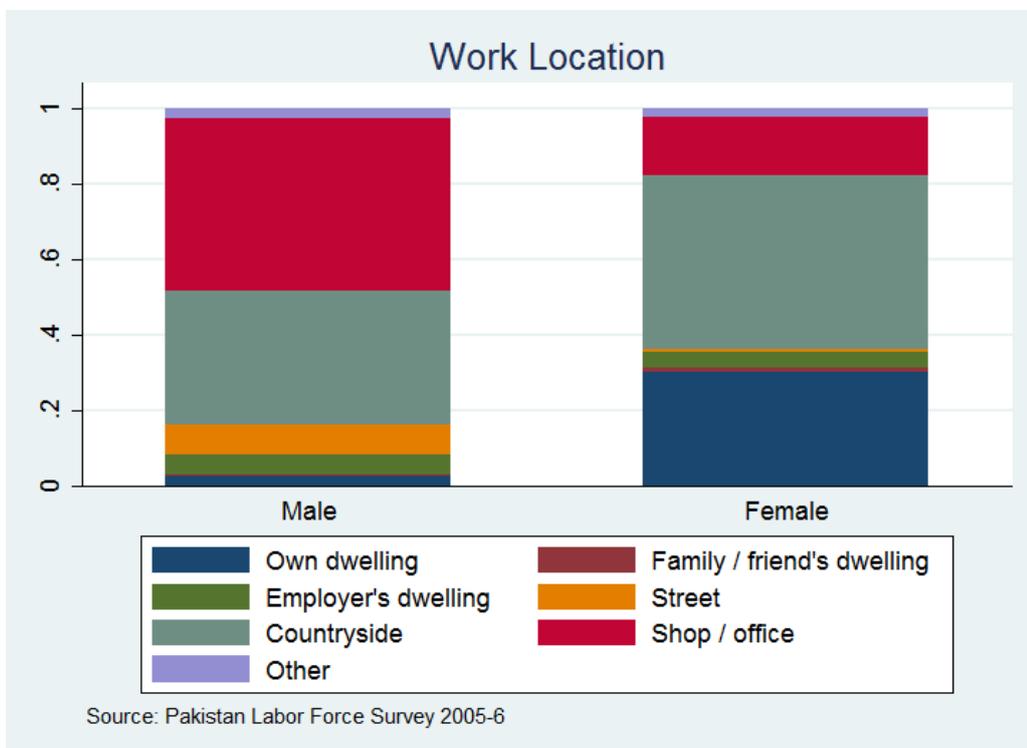


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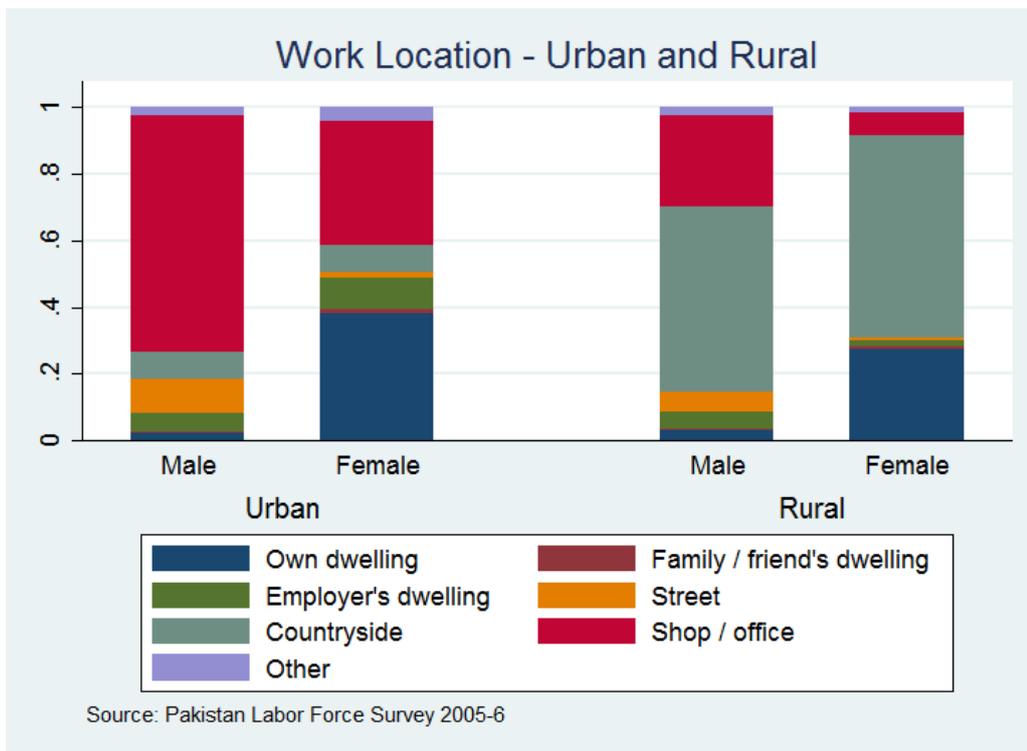


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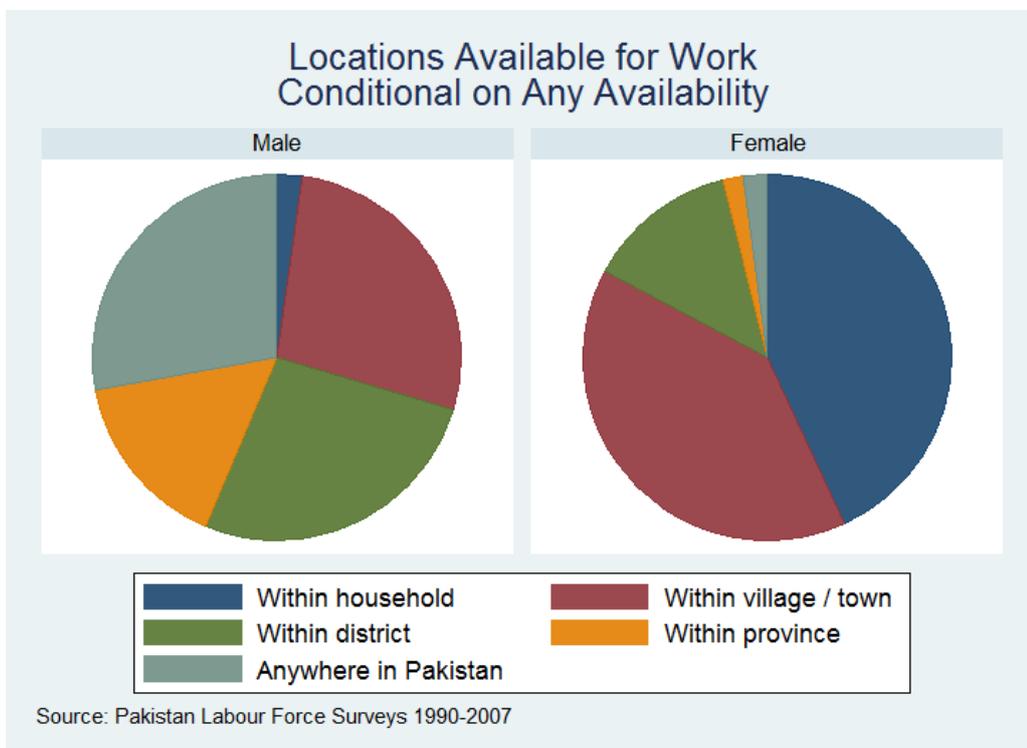


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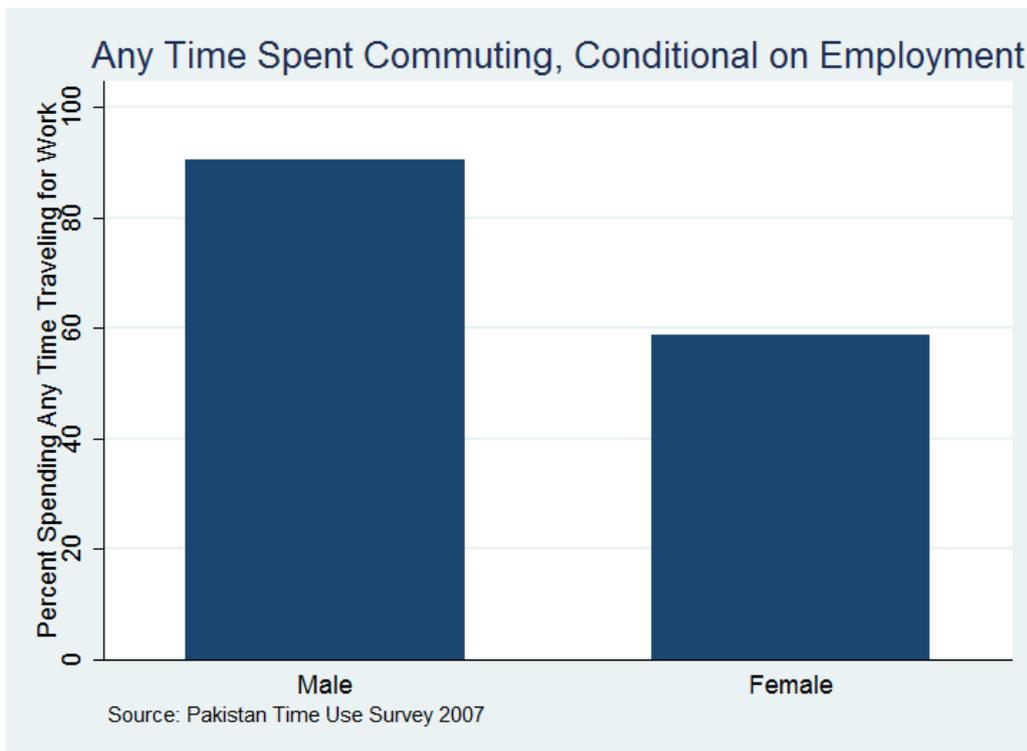


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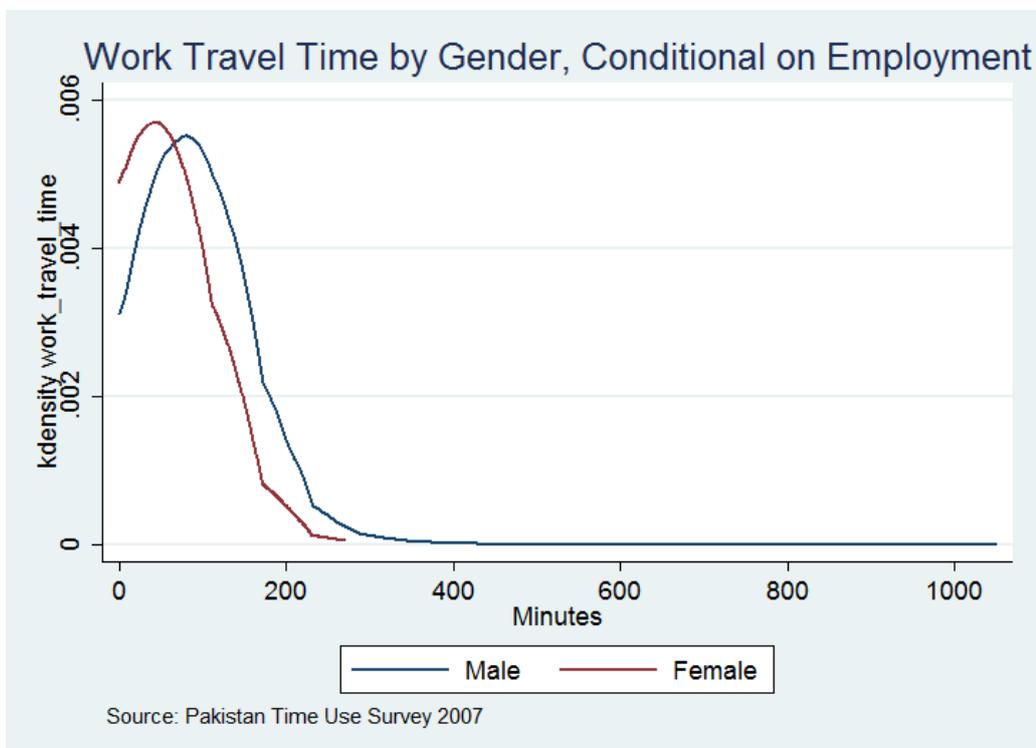


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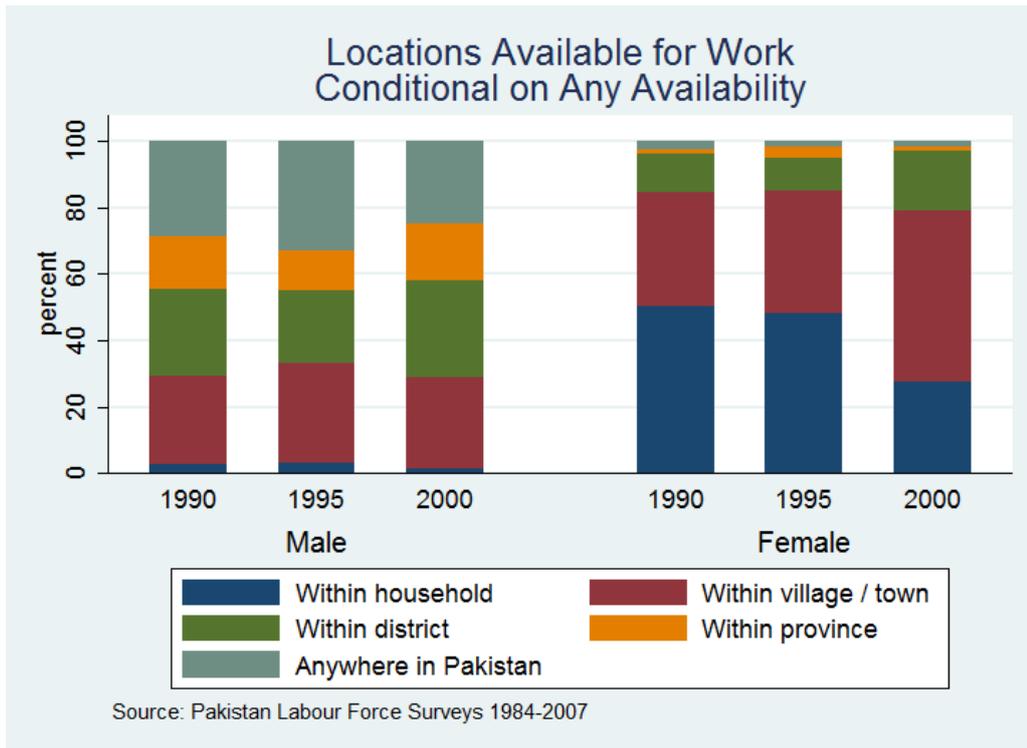


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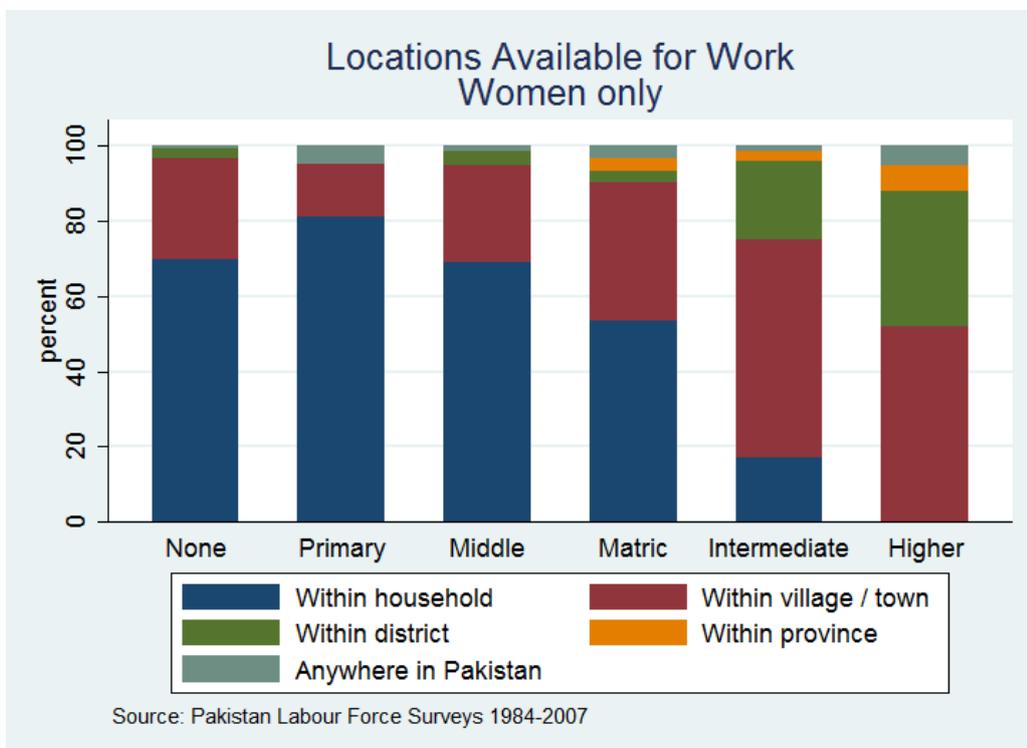


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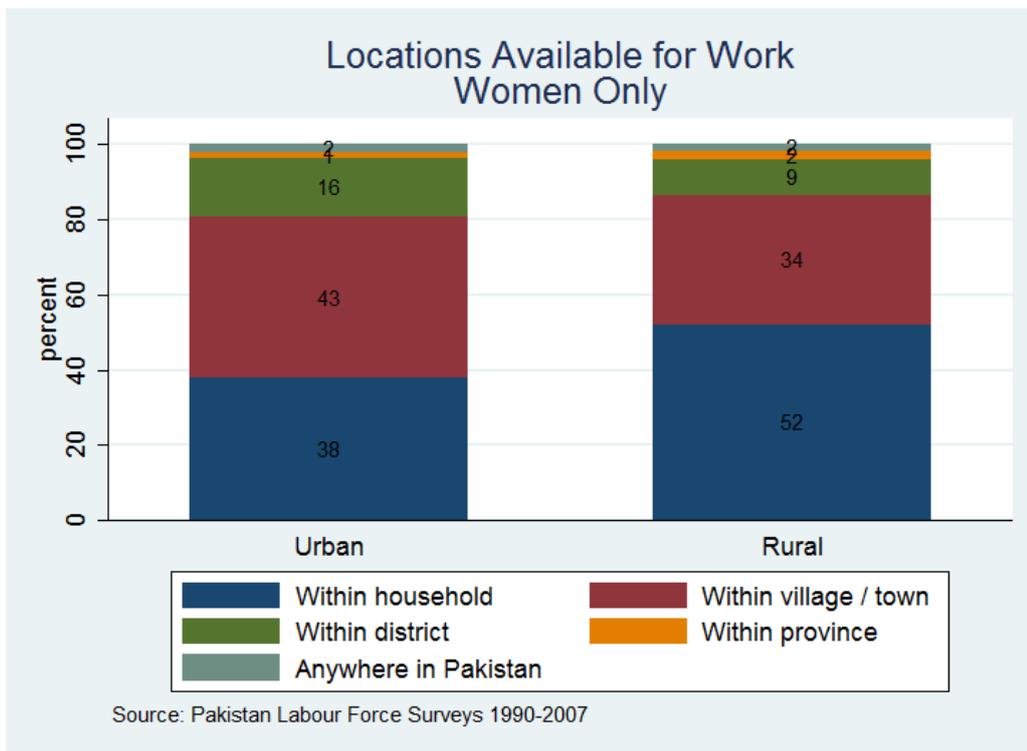


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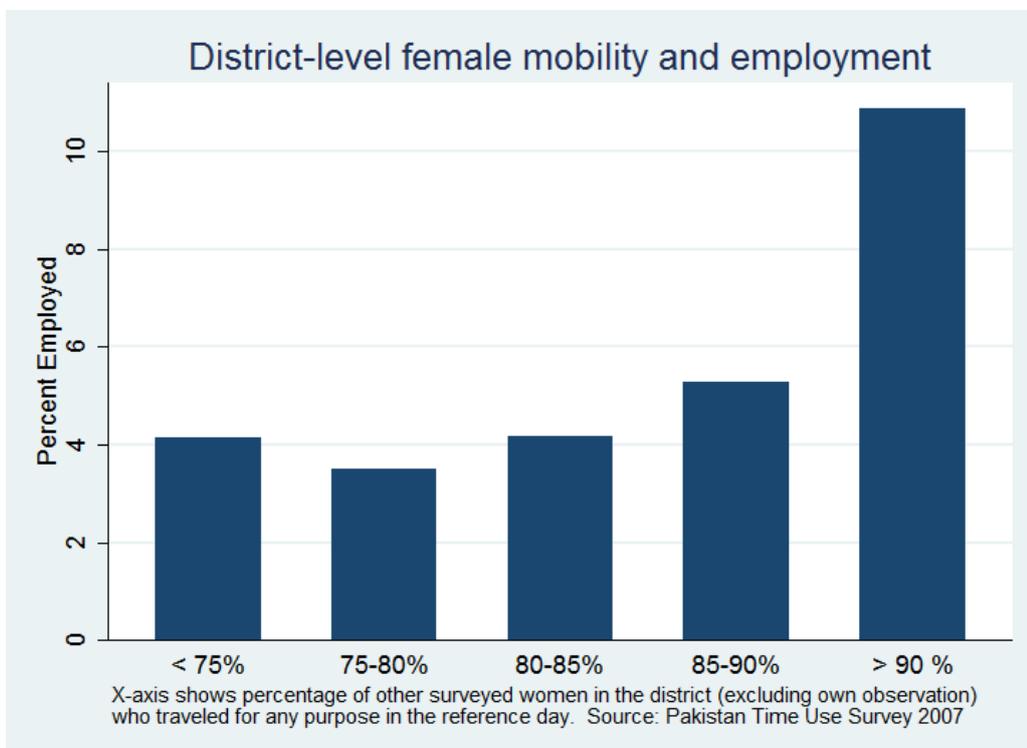
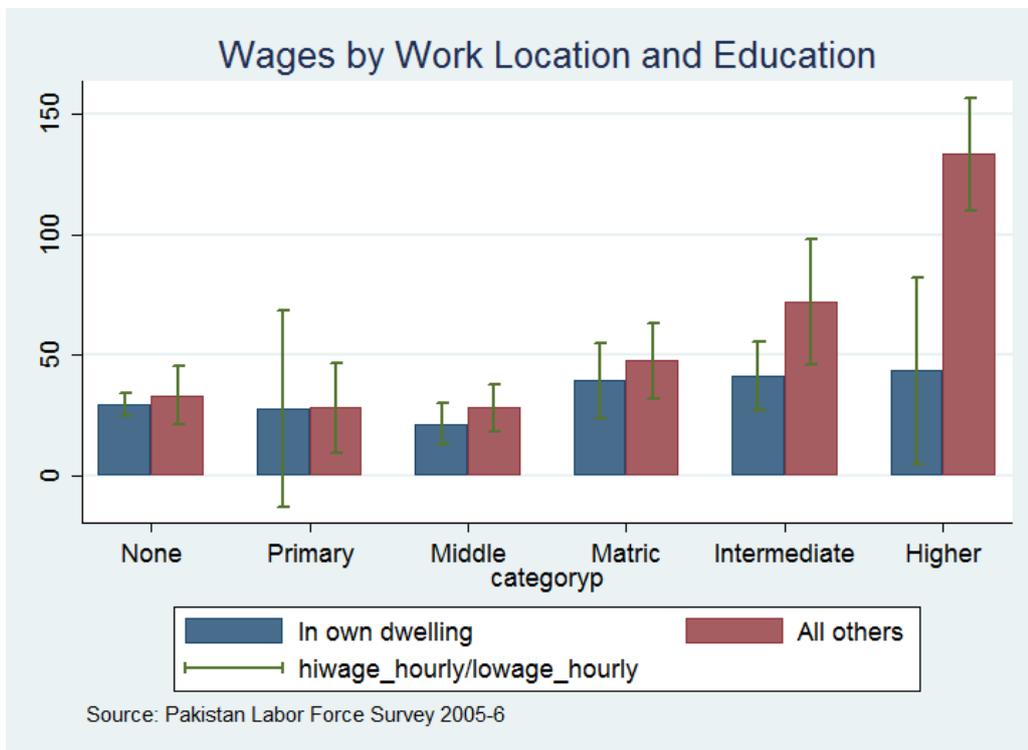


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Technical Assistance Consultant's Report

Project Number: 44067

December 2014

PAK: RAPID ASSESSMENT OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN PUBLIC TRANSPORT AND CONNECTED SPACES IN KARACHI

Pilot Project Final Report

Implemented from July 2014 - November 2014

Prepared by

Social Policy and Development Centre (SPDC)

For

ADB RETA 7563: Promoting Gender Inclusive Growth in CWRD DMCs

This consultant's report does not necessarily reflect the views of ADB or the Government concerned, and ADB and the Government cannot be held liable for its contents. (For project preparatory technical assistance: All the views expressed herein may not be incorporated into the proposed project's design.)

Asian Development Bank

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US\$1 = Pak Rupee 100



I. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This research is undertaken to assess harassment that occur in public transport and connected spaces in Karachi. It is intended to compute the experience of such harassment, identify the types of such harassment, and the reactions by and effects on victims. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected by administering a survey of females who commute in public transport such as buses, mini-buses and/or *chingchis*. Altogether, 230 female commuters, of age 15 years and above, were interviewed of which 35 percent were working women and 33 percent each students and homemakers. These females were of different age group, educational and family income level.

Experience of harassment

The findings indicate a very high prevalence of harassment confronted by female respondents. For instance, 85 percent of working women, 82 percent students and 67 percent homemakers felt harassed, at least once, while commuting during the last year. The highest incidence of harassment is reported by working women, followed by students. Less than one-fifth of working women and students reported that they never faced any harassment while commuting. In case of homemakers, 33 percent said that they never faced any such action. Higher prevalence of harassment among working women and students could be related to younger age and higher frequency of commuting by them. The major culprits in this respect are fellow passengers (75 percent), followed by bus conductors (20 percent) and, sometimes, even the bus driver (5 percent). Over 90 percent of harassment incidents occur inside buses/mini-buses and *chingchis*.

Types of harassment

Two major types of harassment accounting 34 percent responses each are staring/leering and deliberate contact/groping. Crude comments/remarks with sexual innuendos and obscene gestures are also fairly common. Other types of harassment include men blocking the way for women to disembark or following after disembarking and stalking. Men also use the women's section to enter and exit the bus and use the opportunity to engage in deliberate contact/groping. Men hanging on to *chingchis* also engage in deliberate contact with women passengers seated within. Boys on motor-cycles follow *chingchis* and touch women setting in the back set and speed away. Men and boys in cars stop at bus stops and invite them to sit and go with them. Respondents in every category largely attributed male nature and privileging as a major reason

for harassment. Within this, lack of education and awareness of gender sensitivity and sexual frustration are significant components.

Reaction and impact

About two-thirds of women react to harassment, usually verbally, while the others just tolerate. However, some working women and homemakers also retaliate physically. Compared to working women and homemakers, students react less over the perpetrator on such incidences. They walk away by ignoring such actions as they get scared. Women hardly ask for help, including from the police. Usually, the reaction is in the form of verbal retaliation, but a few react physically as well.

Half of the respondents in each of the categories of working women and homemakers did not mention any immediate effect of such incidents. According to them, they have become used to such incidents and have learnt how to deal with them. They further expressed that they had to tolerate such incidences, as they cannot afford any privately hired transport to commute. About one-third of students and one-fifth of working women and homemakers have reduced using public transport and use privately hired taxis and rickshaws; which are more expensive.

The subsequent effect is more lasting where nearly 40 percent of students said that they avoid travelling after dark; thereby, restricting their mobility especially with regard to socializing. More significantly, about 40-45 percent of all three categories have started to wear the *hijab* and cover themselves with *chadar* as a means of protecting themselves from harassment.

An important factor prompting harassment is attributed to over-crowding in public transport. As such, all respondents suggested separate ladies buses or a larger women's section with strict separation between the male and female sections.

1. INTRODUCTION

Mainstreaming gender in transport planning and implementation initiatives is important in order to have equitable social and economic development. Transport investments that are designed with due consideration to gender dimensions can bring significant benefits to women in terms of increased access to employment, markets, education, and health services, as well as directly reducing their time poverty.

However, in developing countries like Pakistan, the design of transport projects and services seldom recognise or address women's travel needs, concerns, priorities, and preferences. As a result, women – especially younger women and girls – often experience harassment in the form of verbal and physical innuendos, groping, leering, or even direct physical assaults inside public transport and connected spaces. It not only makes their daily business insecure and uncomfortable but also jeopardizes and often limits their mobility. Consequently, it reduces their ability to participate in educational and professional activities and in public life. These acts of harassment, if ignored, can cause long and lasting effects for both victim (physical and psychological effects on the well-being of women and girls) and perpetrator (heightened insensitivity to violence against women).

General Recommendation (GR) 19 of CEDAW Committee states that Violence against Women is 'a form of discrimination that seriously inhibits women's ability to enjoy rights and freedoms on a basis of equality with men.' It defines aggressive acts against women as "violence that is directed against a woman because she is a woman or that affects women disproportionately, it includes acts that inflict physical, mental, or sexual harm or suffering, threats of such acts, coercion and other deprivations of liberty...whether occurring in public or in private life".

While this definition is broad in nature, it encompasses the types of behaviors experienced by women in public spaces including public transport. Typically, harassment in public transport includes verbal and nonverbal behaviors ranging from lewd remarks, cat calls and whistling, obstructing female commuters' way, touching, pinching, groping and assault. Many argue that these types of behaviors should be not

be clustered with more serious forms of harassment such as rape and sexual assault and should be termed street rather than sexual harassment.

Broadly, street harassment or harassment in public places is defined as “any action or comment, motivated by gender or sexual orientation or gender expression, between strangers in public places that is disrespectful, unwelcome, threatening and/or harassing” (see SST.) It is also termed as “eve teasing, in countries like India and Bangladesh. Bowman (1993) meanwhile notes that although street harassment encompasses a wide variety of behaviors, gestures, and comments, it has some defining characteristics: the targets of street harassment are female; the harassers are male; the harassers are unacquainted with their targets; the encounter is face to face; and the forum is a public one, such as a street, sidewalk, bus, bus station, taxi, or other place to which the public generally has access.

Lack of provision of secure public transport by the state actually tends to cause acts of harassment that consequently restrain the mobility of women and thus deprive them from their basic human right. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights calls for freedom of movement to every citizen. Article 13, Clause 1 states “Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each State.” Further, Article 15 of the Constitution of Pakistan describes the freedom of movement by stating “Every citizen shall have the right to remain in, and, subject to any reasonable restriction imposed by law in the public interest, enter and move freely throughout Pakistan and to reside and settle in any part thereof.”

Both these documents refer to freedom of movement in its broader political context. However, inference can be drawn to apply the same principles to the facility of movement within one’s own individual spaces. As such, mainstreaming gender in transport policy initiatives can be viewed as a rights-based issue.

Laws exist around the world and in Pakistan to deal with harassment in public transport and connected spaces. Section 509 of the Pakistan Penal Code relates to “insulting modesty or causing sexual harassment” and makes sexual harassment, including in public transport, a punishable offence. It specifies imprisonment, which may extend to three years or fine up to Rs. 5,000,000 or both to whosoever conducts such acts. However, due to its tepid implementation,

it has proved to be ineffective. And, this lack of enforcement of policies also encourages violence in public transport.

This research aims to carry out a rapid assessment of harassment in public transport and connected spaces in Karachi. For this, it administered a survey of female commuters who commute, at least once in week, by using two major modes of public transport in Karachi; buses/mini-buses and *chingchis* (modified motorized rickshaw).

The lead Researcher for this report is Iffat Ara, Principal Economist at SPDC, with *Research Assistance from* Aasiya Kazi, Research Officer at SPDC. Acknowledgements are due to Aqsa Safder, Research Officer at SPDC, for data compiling and photographs; and to Rizwanullah Khan for composing this report and photographs. The research was conducted during July-November, 2014.

The report is organised as follows: section 2 illustrates the objectives of research; section 3 present review of literature, highlighting nature and consequences of harassment, methodologies used to estimate its incidence and policy response; section 4 describes the methodology of survey and research; section 5 portrays the demographic profile of sample respondents; section 6 explains the features of public transport usage in Karachi; section 7 gives the incidence, nature, types and consequences of harassment in public buses and *chingchis*; section 8 depicts the public attitudes and perceptions towards factors that motivate harassment; section 9 expresses the recommended actions put forward by female commuters and; section 10 concludes and spells out recommendations.

2. OBJECTIVE

Rapid assessment of harassment in public transport is undertaken to provide an in-depth understanding of the need to address sexual harassment issues in planning and operations of public transport services that are designed within the context of building safer cities and ensuring inclusive growth.

Specifically, it has the following objectives

1. Quantify the prevalence of harassment experienced by school girls, working age, and older women.
2. Identify the types of harassment, the reactions and effects
3. Look at the perceived factors that motivate or prevent its occurrence.
4. Examine public attitudes and perceptions towards sexual harassment.
5. Specify the recommended actions to prevent and address sexual harassment in public transport and connected spaces (i.e., bus stops).

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of existing literature from around the world and Pakistan points to a high incidence of harassment in public transport. It also highlights its nature, consequences and policy response in this regard.

Dear and Wolch (1989) describe accessibility to transportation as a necessary precondition to accessibility to the workplace, and those who use public transport due to non-availability of any other choices as “captive riders” or “transit captive.” Research shows that compared to men, women comprise a larger proportion of captive riders. For these women, access to public transport is crucial as it allows them access to employment, educational and leisure opportunities, and the public sphere in general (Smith, 2008). Public transport is an “important enabler in accessing the public sphere” without which girls may be kept away from schools [Latif (1999) and Fernando and Porter’s (2002) as mentioned in Harrison (2013)].”

Fitzgerald et al’s (1997) while studying effects of sexual harassment on work found that women who had been harassed reported higher frequency of absenteeism at work than those who had not been harassed. Some of them also think of quitting their jobs.

A study about the psychological impact of sexual harassment on white and Asian women indicated that a greater frequency of experiencing sexual harassment and post traumatic stress symptoms “predicated” more depression and overall psychological distress among women (Ho et al., 2012). This impediment to women's ability to freely access and utilise public spaces negatively impacts upon their social and economic well-being (Fileborn 2013).

Establishing the extent to which harassment in public transport and connected spaces occurs or estimating its incidence is somewhat difficult. For instance, studies indicate that such harassment is widespread, it has been pointed out that these studies seek responses only from those who experienced sexual harassment and hence came up with inflated rates of incidence. At the same time, it is also argued that rates of harassment might actually be underreported because many women are conditioned to accept harassment as ‘normal’ and do not report it. Nevertheless, whichever view one

subscribes to, there is no doubt that harassment prevails in public transport and connected spaces.

Radha (2011) investigated how masculinity reinforces occurrence of violence in public transport in Nepal. She collected data and information by observing four selected routes and rooming in four bus stations during busy and less busy timings. Interviews were held with women, men, girls and boys of age 15-49 years through purposive selection method. She interviewed five drivers and five conductors to examine the underlying causes, which create a sub-culture within men, ten boys and men to explore the motivation factors or condition against protection discourse, eight women who use public vehicles to discuss about the forms, frequency, timing, conditions, and strategies in two ways: violence and protection. Telephonic interviews were also carried out with officials from the Office of Prime Minister and Council Minister (OPMCM), National Women Commission, and Ministry Labor and Transport specifically to get insight about the seriousness of policymakers in taking up this issue. Her findings indicate that office hours times (mornings and evenings) are more risky times for violence and bus parks, roads and inside buses are major places for violence. Majority of the drivers reported that they considered this as their powerfulness as well as a means of entertainment. Men perceived violence as a symbol of power. However, conductors and men also take action sometimes in protection of women against violence, as they felt themselves superior by sex and physically strong in structure. Most of the women mentioned that they considered themselves physically weak, insecure and powerless while travelling in public transport especially during office hours. They also act to protect themselves from violence when they are in an enabling environment and felt secure; like day time or with a group of friends.

Jagori (2010) conducted a survey to investigate harassment faced by women in Delhi, India. The study used purposive sampling methods to collect information (through interviews) from 5010 men and women of diverse occupational categories spread across 50 sites in Delhi. Intercept survey technique was used to select respondents in a variety of public spaces, including markets, parks, bus stops, residential areas, etc. Their results reveal that sexual harassment is perceived as the biggest risk for women's safety across Delhi. Women feel unsafe and are afraid of being physically hurt, harassed, molested or raped in deserted spaces, as well as in crowded spaces, most commonly in crowded public transport.

Mitra-Sarkar and Partheeban (2009) assessed harassment faced by women commuters in Chennai by administering a survey of women ages 18 years and older. A total of 274 women respondents, majority of whom were college students, were randomly chosen from college campuses, dormitories, trains, and buses as well as at train and bus stops. The findings indicate that 66 percent of these women reported to have been harassed while commuting.

The literature suggests that consequences of the risk or experience of harassment in public transport can have profound effects on the lives of women everywhere. Given that transportation is a key factor in mobility, harassment restricts their mobility and hence limits their access not only to educational and employment opportunities but also to socialisation and recreational activities.

Countries have adopted certain measures to deal with this type of harassment. For instance, women-only public transport has been introduced in a number of cities. Tokyo was one of the first major capitals to introduce women-only trains and directed transit police to enforce it. Such transport is also found in Jakarta, Kuala Lumpur, Delhi, Cairo and Manila among others, while some other cities are also considering this option (Boros, 2014). In Pakistan too, women friendly buses have been operated on pilot basis between Islamabad and Rawalpindi by the ILO in collaboration with private sector (ILO and FCG, 2011).

However, there is a counter view in relation to women-only transport that considers it as a short-term solution. According to the World Bank, segregation is not the answer to this problem. It requires modification in behavior and attitude of society (WB, 2014). A study in Nepal found that women felt that it was “patronizing to make such provisions [reserved seats] and undermined the gains women have made in exercising their freedom of movement and rights to public space (WB and AusAid, 2013).

4. SURVEY AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. Research Method and sampling technique

Quantitative and qualitative data have been collected by conducting a primary survey. The universe for the survey consists of females (above 15 years of age) who travel in public buses and/or *chingchis* at least once in a week. In order to add diversity, the universe is further stratified into three categories: (1) students, (2) working women and (3) homemakers. Purposive sampling technique was used to select female commuters in the category of student from colleges and universities and working women from shopping malls, beauty parlours, food chain outlets, hospitals, etc. For selecting female commuters in the category of homemakers, snowball sampling technique has been used. These females were interviewed at their residences. In order to select female commuters with diverse socio-economic characteristics, heterogeneity sampling was maintained under purposive sampling.

Data obtained from the survey was processed using the statistical software SPSS.

4.2. Ethics

The survey took into consideration the protection of all respondents and researchers. Respondents were advised that their participation was voluntary and were assured of complete anonymity. Furthermore, they were advised that they did not have to answer any question they felt uncomfortable about.

4.3. Questionnaire

The data gathering instrument is a structured questionnaire consisting of both closed and open ended questions in-line with the objectives of the study. Prior to the designing of questionnaire a detailed review of literature has been conducted and different questionnaires designed for this purpose, were looked at. In addition, specific features of Karachi transport with reference to public buses have also been taken into account. The questionnaire was then designed to collect the following information.

1. General characteristics of commuters (socio-economic variables).
2. Travel characteristics like purpose of trip, frequency of trip, travel time.
3. Types of harassment, its intensity, the reactions and perceived factors that motivate its occurrence.

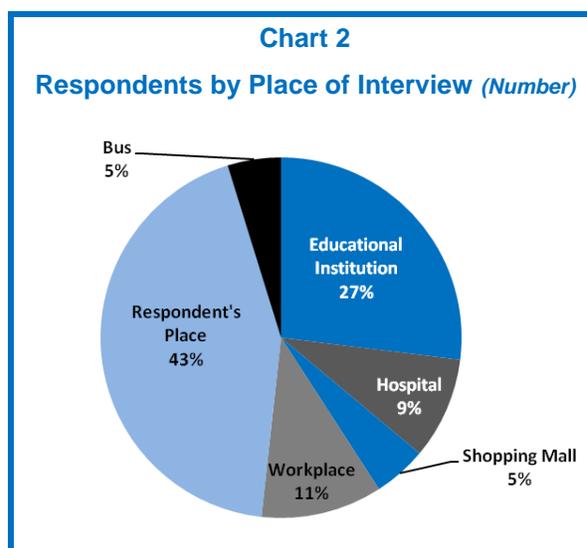
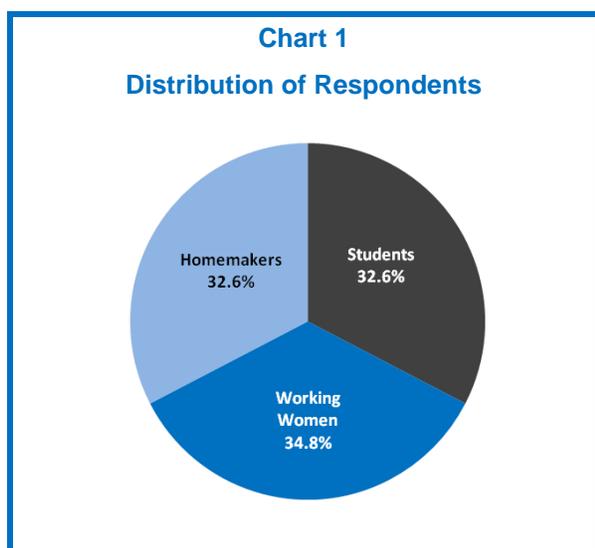
4. Respondent's opinion about addressing public transport service needs and measures to prevent harassment in public transport and connected spaces.

4.4. Respondents

The sample consists of 230 respondents. Occupation-wise, the respondents were more or less evenly divided among homemakers 33 percent, working women 35 percent, and students 33 percent (Chart 1). Homemakers include housewives and unmarried non-student/non-working women, who although not employed outside their homes, live with parents/siblings and do work inside their household.

4.5. Place of interview

Respondents were interviewed at their residence, at their workplace, at their place of education, at hospitals, at shopping malls, at bus stops and in the bus. The distribution of the sample is illustrated in Chart 2; which shows that 43 percent of respondents were interviewed at their residence, 11 percent at their workplace, 27 percent at their place of education, 9 at hospitals, and 5 percent each at shopping malls and in the bus or at bus stops.



5. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SAMPLE RESPONDENTS

The demographic profile covers age, marital status, and education and income status and throws light on the basic characteristics of respondents as illustrated in Table 1. The analysis reveals the transport choices of the different segments of the population. It needs to be mentioned here that transport choices available to commuters are quite limited.

5.1. Age profile

Overall, the sample respondents are young, with 90 percent of them in the age group 15-45 years. The largest segment (41 percent) is in the age bracket of 15-25 years, with 85 percent students and 25 percent working women. The second largest cohort is of age group 26-35 years, with 51 percent working women and 39 percent homemakers. About 28 percent of homemakers and 18 percent of working women are in the age bracket of 36-45 years. And about 18 percent of homemakers and 6 percent of working women are in the age group 46 years and above, with no student in this group.

	Homemaker	Working Women	Student	Total
Age bracket				
15-25	14.7	25.0	85.3	41.1
26-35	38.7	51.3	13.3	35.1
36-45	28.0	17.5	1.3	15.6
46-55	13.3	6.3	0.0	6.5
56+	5.3	0.0	0.0	1.7
Marital status				
Single	11.2	31.2	57.6	54.1
Married	58.8	38.1	3.1	42.0
Divorced/Widowed	50.0	50.0	0.0	3.9

Education status				
Not literate	4.0	11.3	0.0	5.2
No formal schooling but can read and write ¹	4.0	5.0	0.0	3.5
Below Matriculation (Grade I-IX)	4.0	5.0	0.0	2.6
Matriculation (Grade X)	21.3	11.3	2.7	11.7
Intermediate (Grade XI-XII)	21.3	12.5	21.3	18.2
Bachelors	33.8	21.3	56.0	35.9
Post graduate (Masters/M.Phil)	13.3	33.8	33.8	22.9
Family income level				
Less than 10,000	2.7	6.3	1.3	3.5
10,000 - 20,000	24.0	15.0	2.7	13.9
20,000 - 30,000	20.0	25.0	12.0	19.0
30,000 - 40,000	13.3	18.8	24.0	18.6
40,000 - 50,000	24.0	12.5	28.0	21.2
50,000 - 100,000	16.0	18.8	29.3	21.6
More than 100,000	0.0	3.8	2.7	2.2

5.2. Marital status

More than half the sample respondents are single with nearly 60 percent students and 30 percent working women and the remaining 10 percent includes unmarried girls in the family, who are neither students nor working. Over 40 percent of respondents are married of which more than half are homemakers, one-third are working women and 3 percent of students. About 4 percent are divorced or widowed with half homemakers and half working women.

5.3. Education status

The respondents were generally better educated, with majority of them having attained a Bachelors' (35.9%) or Post graduate (22.9%) status. About one third of the respondents claimed they reached matriculation (11.7%) and intermediate (18.2%) levels. A small proportion did not have the benefit of formal schooling: 5.2% of the respondents were not literate, while

¹ Learned to read and write from relatives, friends, Madrassa school, etc.

3.5% of the respondents said they never went to a formal school but could read and write, having learned from relatives, friends or a Madrassa school.

Among homemakers, 33.8 percent possess a Bachelor's degree, 13.3 percent possess a Master's or M.Phil. degree, and 21.3 percent each have completed Matriculation and Intermediate level of education. Only 4 percent each are below Matriculation, can just read and write (4%) or are not literate (4%).

Among working women, 33.8 percent hold a Bachelor's degree, 21.3 percent hold a Master's or M.Phil. degree, 12.5 percent have intermediate or higher secondary qualifications, 11.3 percent hold matriculation or secondary qualifications, 5 percent could read and write but never went to school, and 11.3 percent were not literate nor ever went to school. Notably, bulk of the not-literates was in the working women group. By definition, none of the students are illiterate.

5.4. Family income level

The sample respondents appear to be from the middle class, with 62 percent in the income range of Rs. 30,000 to Rs. 100,000 per month. However, only about half the homemakers and working women are in this income group. Among students' families, 84 percent are earning more than Rs. 30,000 per month and of them 3 percent earning more than Rs. 100,000 per month.

Two income brackets Rs. 10,000 to 20,000 and Rs. 40,000-50,000 dominate among homemakers, with 24 percent each in these groups. The pattern indicates that half of homemakers are in the middle class bracket and about one-quarter can be classified as poor, with 3 percent classified as very poor. There are no homemakers in the more than 100,000 income bracket.

About half the working women are in the income bracket of Rs. 30,000 to 100,000 per month and 4 percent in the more than 100,000 bracket. However, the single largest share of working women (25 percent) is in income bracket of Rs. 20,000 to 30,000 and can be classified as lower middle class. About 21 percent earn less than Rs. 20,000 per month, of whom 6 percent earn less than Rs. 10,000 per month. This category can be classified as poor, with the latter as very poor.

Students appear to hail from relatively better off families, with a quarter of families earning over Rs. 50,000 per month. However, over one-third of students' families are in the less than Rs. 30,000 income bracket, with 4 percent of them in the less than Rs. 10,000 bracket. Income inequality among student families appears to be greater than in the other two groups and could imply lower affordability among the poor and the lower middle class for acquisition of education.

6. FEATURES OF PUBLIC TRANSPORT USAGE

This section describes the features of public transport usage by female commuters in Karachi. The largest share of trips using public transport is generated by working women, followed by students (Table 2). Over 80 percent of working women and 63 percent of students use public transport 5-7 days a week. Homemakers appear to be largely home bound, using public transport sometimes. This is indicated by the fact that 44 percent of homemakers use public transport 1-4 times a week and 47 percent use public transport 2-4 times a month (see Box 1).

Box 1

Features of public transport

Different types of public transport are available in Karachi to commute within city. These include car taxis and auto rickshaws, big buses, mini-buses and *chingchis*. Big buses, mini-buses and *chingchis* charge per passenger basis while taxis and auto rickshaws are privately hired and charge per tip.

Big buses and mini-buses have two sections where the women's section is in the front and men's section in the back. Both of these sections have separate doors; the front door is for entry and exit into women's section while the back door for entry and exit into men's section. Though the two sections are partitioned, usually there is a gap or opening from inside the bus that allows movement between the two sections.

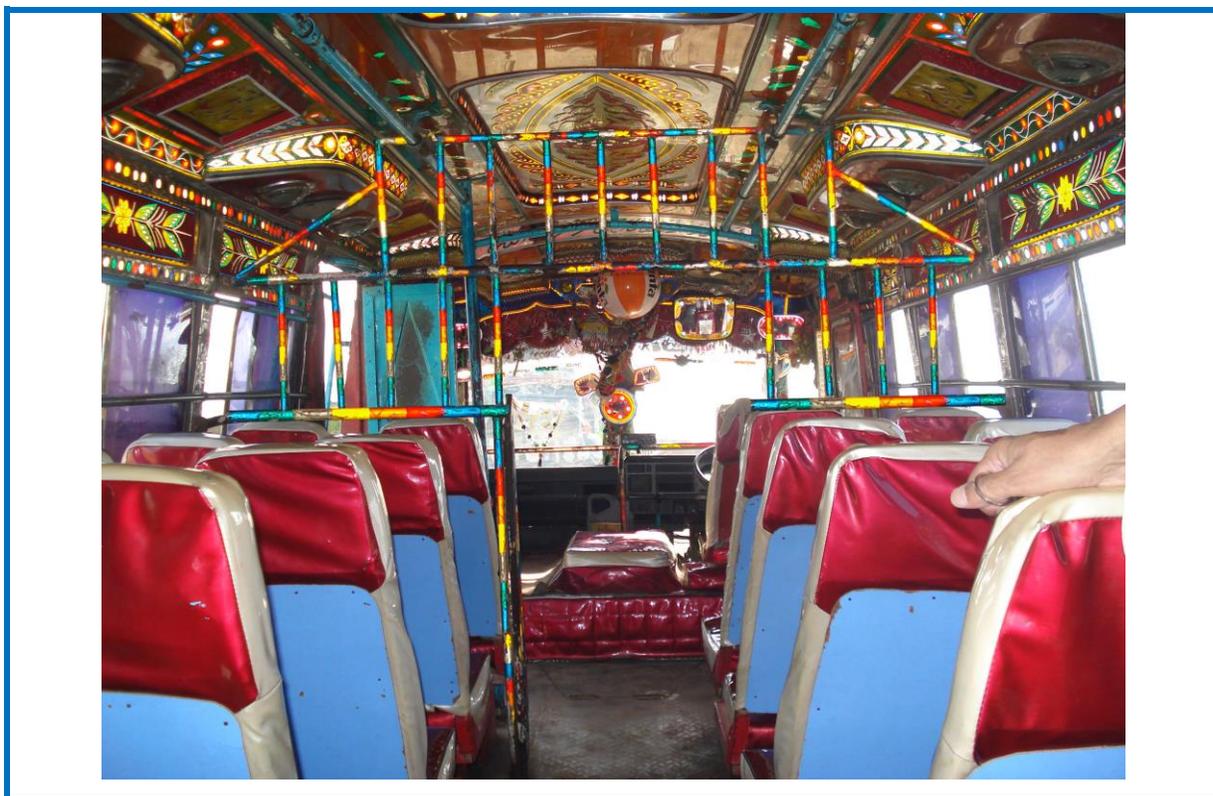
Mini-buses cover greater number of routes compared to big buses and, thus, people largely use mini-buses to travel. These (mini) buses have a seating capacity of 25 persons, of which seven are in women's section. As a result, women often have to sit on the engine, which is next to the driver's seat. At times, the driver's hand touches the female passenger's knee, intentionally or unintentionally, while changing gears. Also, they have to sit on the space at the back of driver's seat facing men's section. Being small, mini-buses have less space for people to stand; women's section has a capacity of four and men's section has a capacity of eight to ten people to stand. Given that mini-buses have greater number of routes and less capacity to accommodate people, these buses are generally found overloaded where men travel even by sitting on roof top. When the men's section is full, they also occupy part of the women's section and women have to share their section with the men.

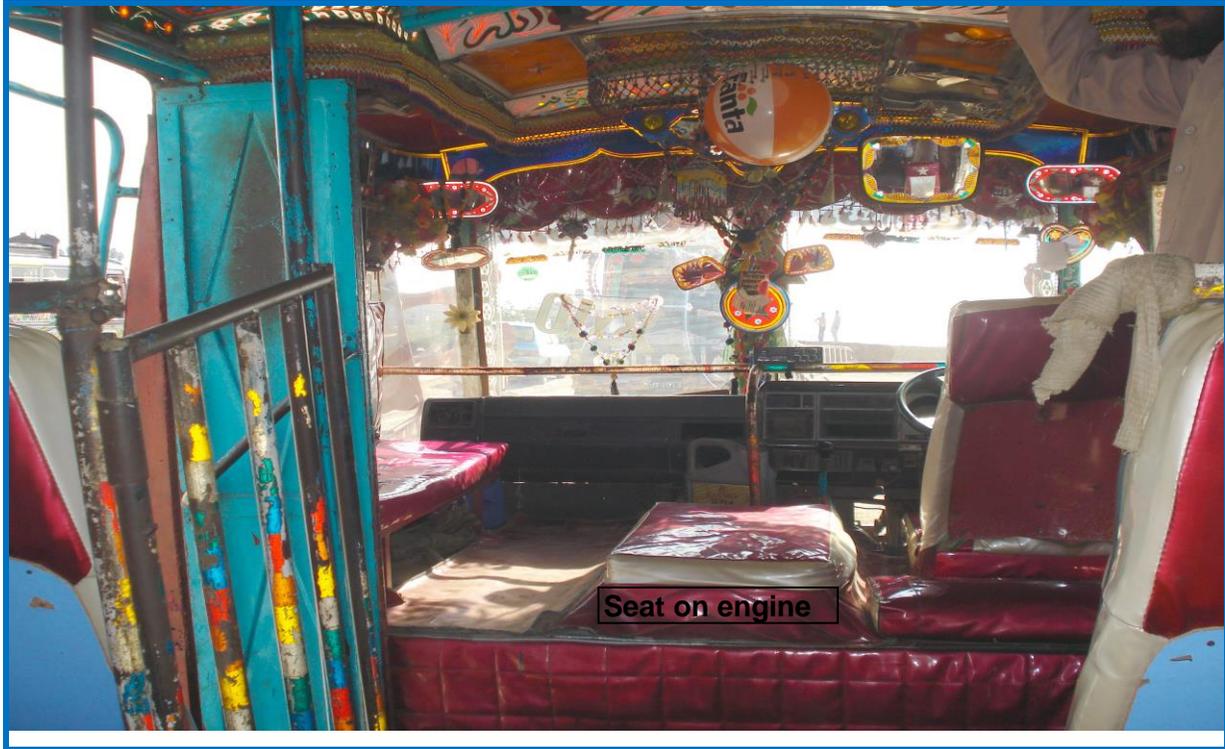
Chingchi is a modified form of Auto Rickshaw. It has different forms, having a capacity to carry six to

eleven passengers. One form of chingchi has three seats where three passengers can sit on one seat. Hence, it has a capacity to accommodate nine passengers. Two seats are facing each other while one seat faces backwards. There are no reserved seats for women and men. Social norms dictate that only a woman can sit beside another woman however women and men can sit on seats facing each other. Auto rickshaws have a capacity to carry three persons and are privately hired. They are relatively more expensive as the passenger has to pay the entire cost of the trip. Car taxis are even more expensive and seldom used by the lower middle class and almost never by the poor.

Table 2
Frequency of using public transport by females

	Students	Working	Homemakers
Daily (5-7 days in a week)	62.7	80.2	9.3
Often (1-4 times in a week)	20.0	9.9	44.0
Sometimes(2-4 times in a month)	17.3	9.9	46.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0





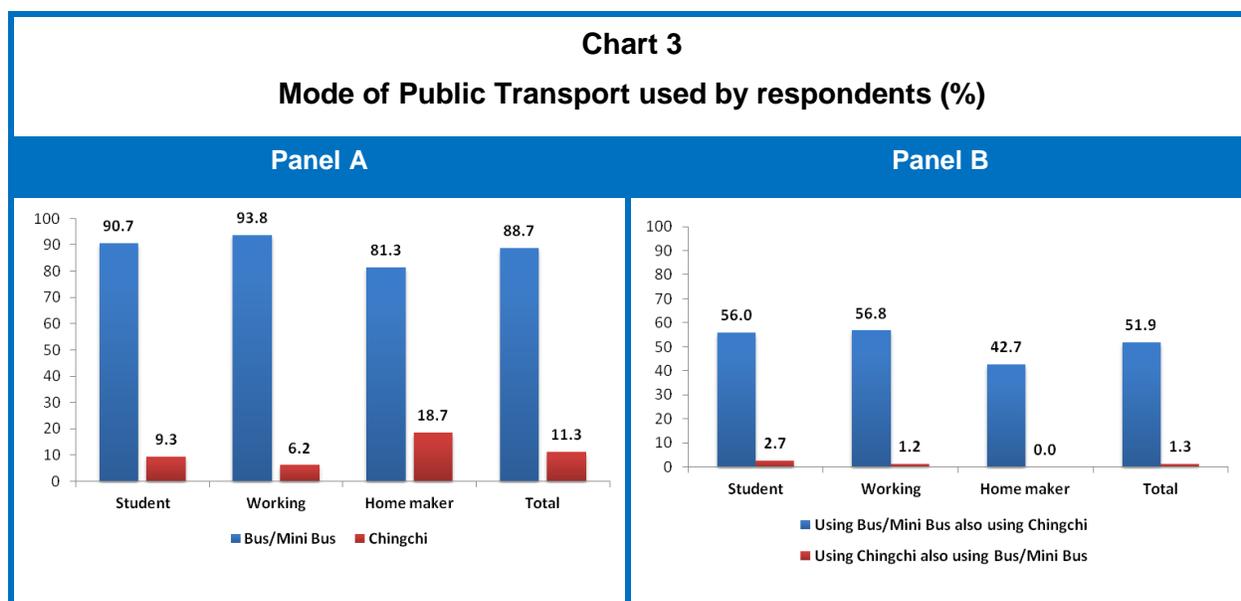


The pattern of trips and corresponding public transport use varies for the three categories of respondents as shown in Table 3. Students use public transport primarily for commuting to place of education, for shopping and for visiting relatives and friends. About one-sixth of trips using public transport are also for part-time jobs. Working women use public transport overwhelmingly for commuting to and from work place, followed by shopping and visiting relatives and friends. Homemakers use public transport primarily for trips to clinics or hospitals, shopping and visiting relatives.

Table 3 Purpose of using public transport									
	Students Response			Working Women Response			Homemakers Response		
	First	Second	Third	First	Second	Third	First	Second	Third
Number of Responses	75	30	20	81	57	36			
Share (%)									
Education	96.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	19.3	8.3	-	-	-
Work	-	-	-	92.6	0.0	0.0	-	-	-
Medical	-	-	-	1.2	0.0	0.0	54.7	-	-
Shopping	1.3	80.0	60.0	2.5	73.7	41.7	32.0	67.9	8.7
Visiting Relatives	1.3	3.3	40.0	1.2	5.3	38.9	9.3	23.2	87.0
Vocational training	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	5.6	2.7	5.4	-
Part time Job	1.3	13.3	0.0	-	-	-	1.3	3.6	-
Recreation	0.0	3.3	0.0	0.0	1.8	2.8	-	-	-
Religion	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	2.8	-	-	4.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Chart 3 gives the extent of usage of bus/mini-bus and chingchi by three categories of women. Panel-A indicates that bus/minibus is the major transport mode, accounting for nearly 90 percent of trips. Buses and minibus are largely used by students and working women (91 percent and 94 percent respectively), while *chingchis* are largely used homemakers (19 percent); however, the pre-dominant mode remains bus/minibus. Panel-B shows that out of 91 percent students who use buses, 56 percent also use chingchi. The proportion of working

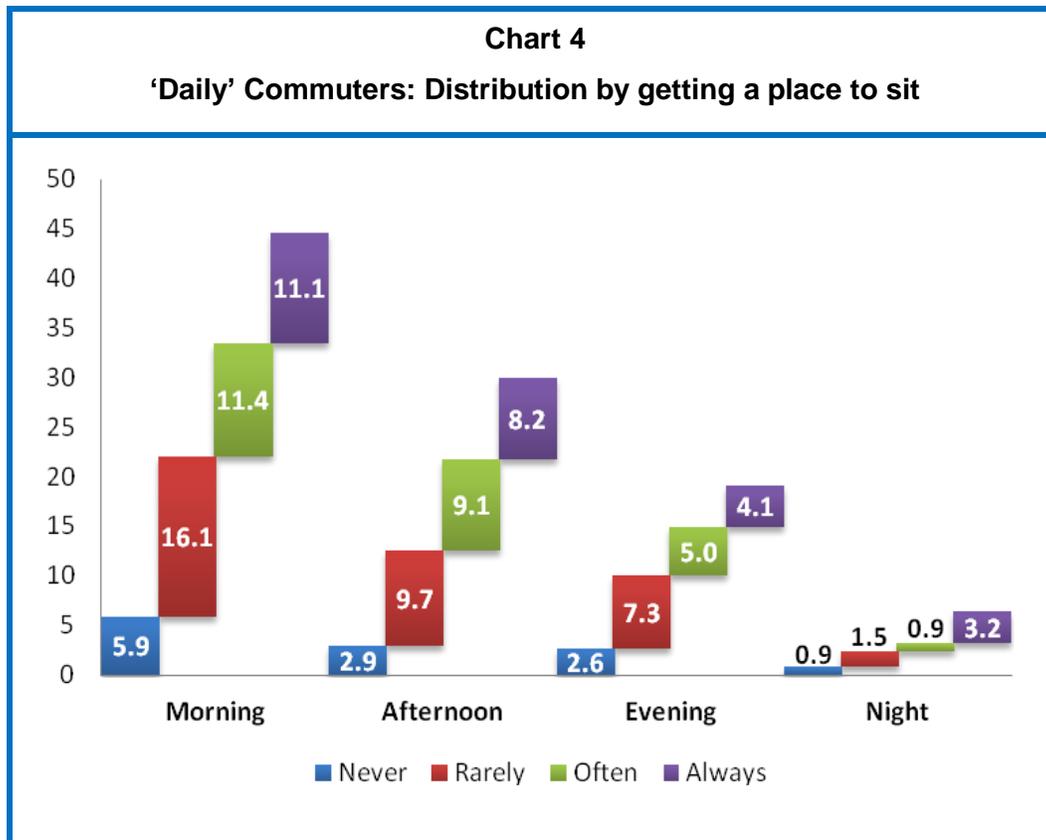
women and homemakers who also use *chingchis* is 57 percent and 43 percent, respectively. Interestingly, 19 percent of homemakers who use *chingchis* do not use buses and minibuses.



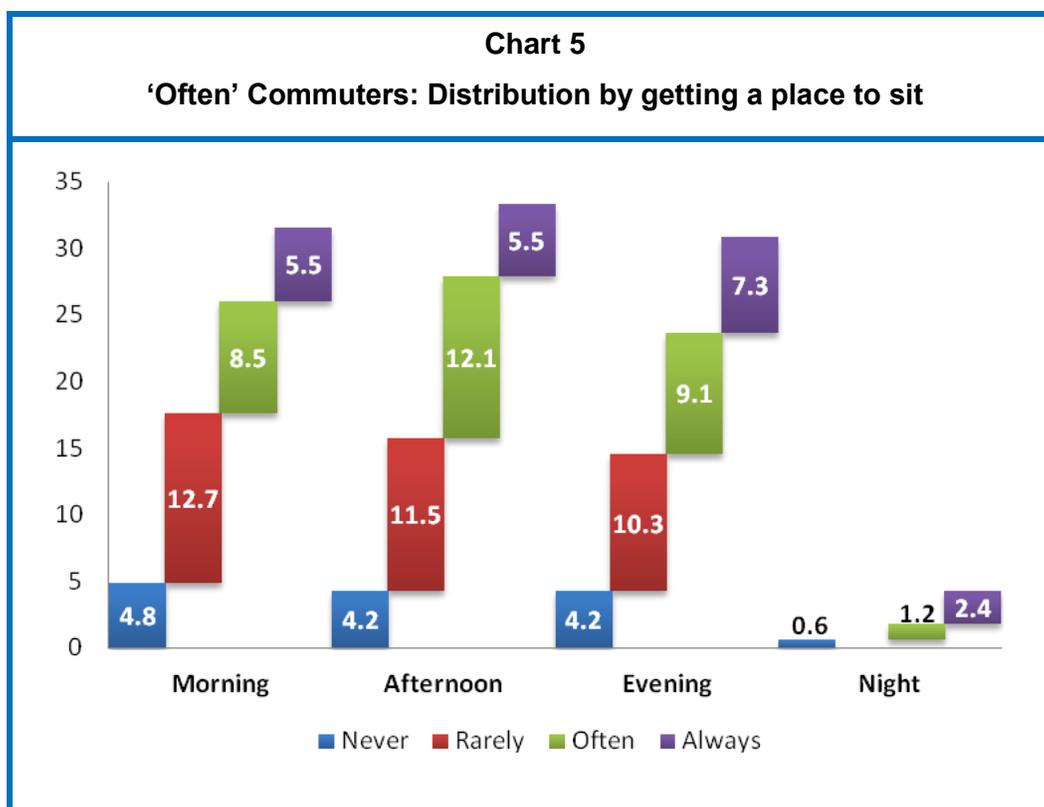
Buses and mini-buses are generally over crowded, particularly during peak hours (morning and evening). Women travelling during peak hours seldom get a place to sit. As a result they are subject harassment by men who use women’s section door to enter into and exit from bus. The discussion below illustrates the travel timings of daily, often and sometimes commuters by place to sit in order to draw attention towards this very important issue.

Chart 4 shows the time of travel of ‘daily’ commuters, which is distributed as follows: 45 percent of commuters travel in the morning hours, of whom 11 percent always get a place to sit, 11 percent get a place to sit often, 16 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 6 percent never get a place to sit. These commuters return at various hours of the day. Of those making the trip in the afternoon (mostly students, 30 percent), 8 percent always get a place to sit, 9 percent get a place to sit often, 10 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 3 percent never get a place to sit. Of those making the trip in the evening (working women, 19 percent), 4 percent always get a place to sit, 5 percent get a place to sit often, 7 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 3 percent never get a place to sit. Of those making the trip at night (working women, 7 percent), 3 percent always get a place to sit, one percent get a place to sit often, 2 percent get a place to sit rarely, and one percent never get a place to sit. ‘Daily’ commuters are largely working women and students and make their trips to work or educational institution in the morning, which constitutes

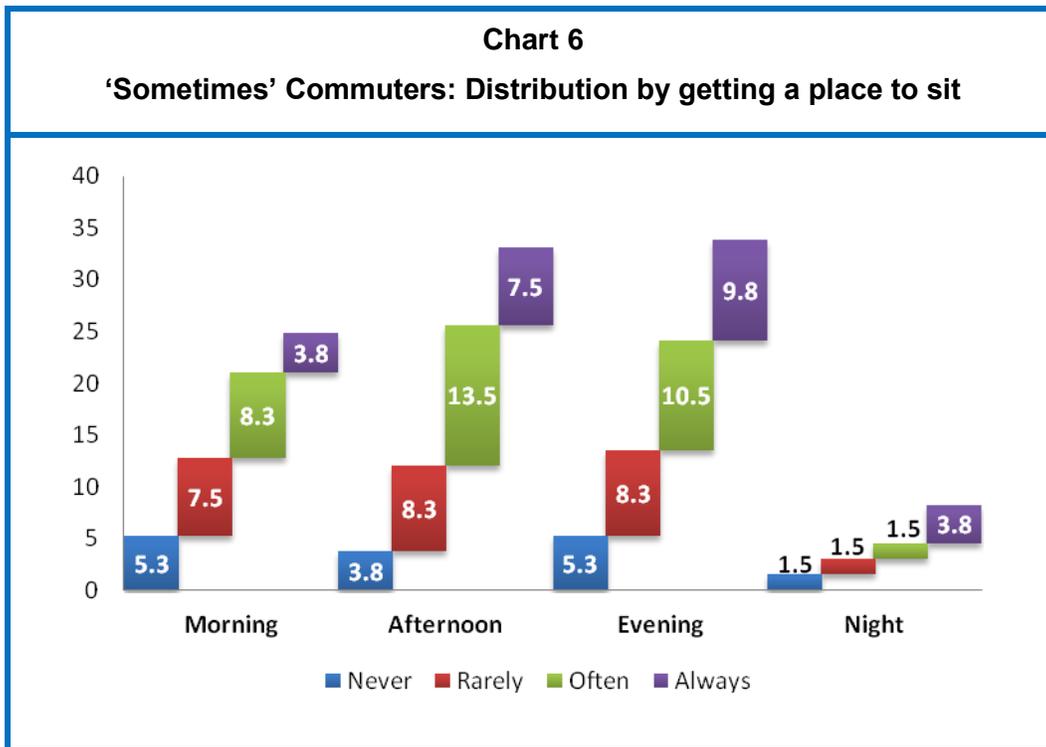
the peak hour. It can be seen that the largest share of commuters who never get a place to sit is highest during mornings and declines with time, as peak hour is distributed, to the lowest at night (Chart 4).



The time of travel of 'often' commuters is distributed as follows: 32 percent of commuters travel in the morning hours, of whom 6 percent always get a place to sit, 9 percent get a place to sit often, 13 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 5 percent never get a place to sit. Of those making the trip in the afternoon (33 percent), 6 percent always get a place to sit, 12 percent get a place to sit often, 12 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 4 percent never get a place to sit. Of those making the trip in the evening (31 percent), 7 percent always get a place to sit, 9 percent get a place to sit often, 10 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 4 percent never get a place to sit. Of those making the trip at night (4 percent), 2 percent always get a place to sit, one percent get a place to sit often, half percent never get a place to sit (Chart 5).



The time of travel of 'sometimes' commuters is distributed as follows: 25 percent of commuters travel in the morning hours, of whom 4 percent always get a place to sit, 8 percent get a place to sit often, 8 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 4 percent never get a place to sit. Of those making the trip in the afternoon (33 percent), 8 percent always get a place to sit, 14 percent get a place to sit often, 8 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 4 percent never get a place to sit. Of those making the trip in the evening (34 percent), 10 percent always get a place to sit, 11 percent get a place to sit often, 8 percent get a place to sit rarely, and 5 percent never get a place to sit. Of those making the trip at night (8 percent), 4 percent always get a place to sit while 1.5 percent each gets a place to sit often or rarely gets a place to sit or never gets a place to sit. 'Sometimes' commuters are mostly homemakers, whose trips comprises of shopping and/or visiting relatives and friends and, as such, make the trips in the afternoons and evenings. Given that 'daily' commuters load declines sharply in the afternoons and evenings, a larger percentage of 'sometimes' commuters (18 percent) are able to find a seat (Chart 6).

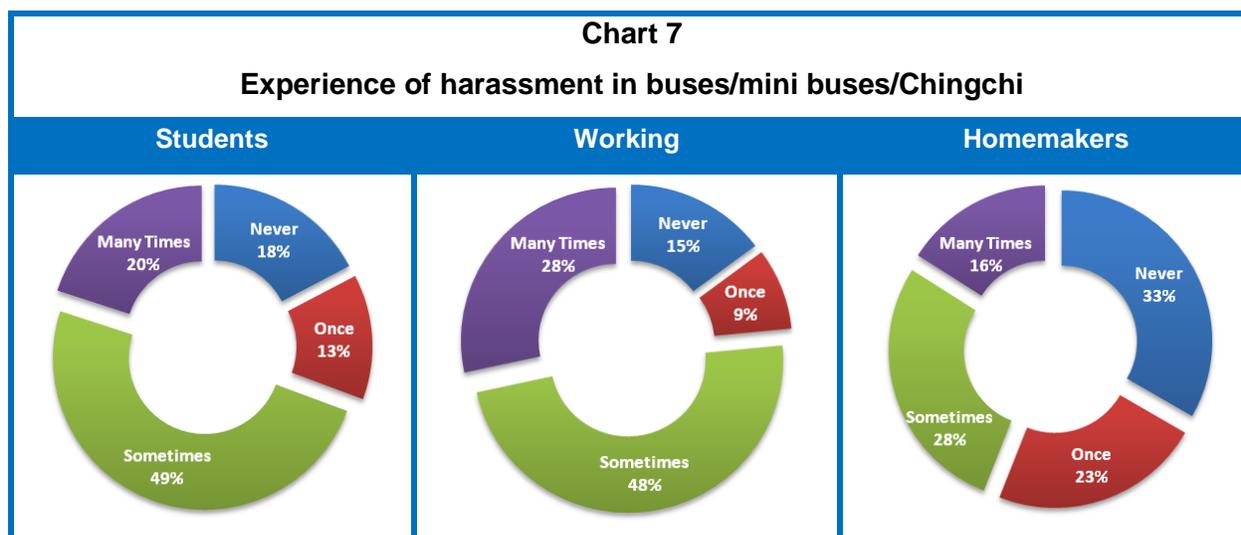


7. HARASSMENT IN PUBLIC BUSES AND CHINGCHI

This section examines the incidence of harassment in buses, minibuses and *chingchis*, types of harassment and its consequences, including reactions and effects.

7.1. Experience of harassment

Chart 7 shows frequency of incidence of harassment in buses, minibuses and *chingchis*. The highest incidence is reported by working women, followed by students. Only 15 percent of working women and 18 percent of students reported that they never faced any action during travelling in buses, minibuses or *chingchis* that made them feel harassed. Three-fourths of working women and 69 percent of students reported that they felt harassed more than once while commuting. In case of homemakers, 33 percent said that they never faced any such action, while 44 percent said that faced such actions more than once. Students and working women were more likely to experience sexual harassment compared to homemakers, which could be related to their younger age and higher frequency of commuting. Students and working women largely travel every working day and, thus, confront such incidences more frequently.

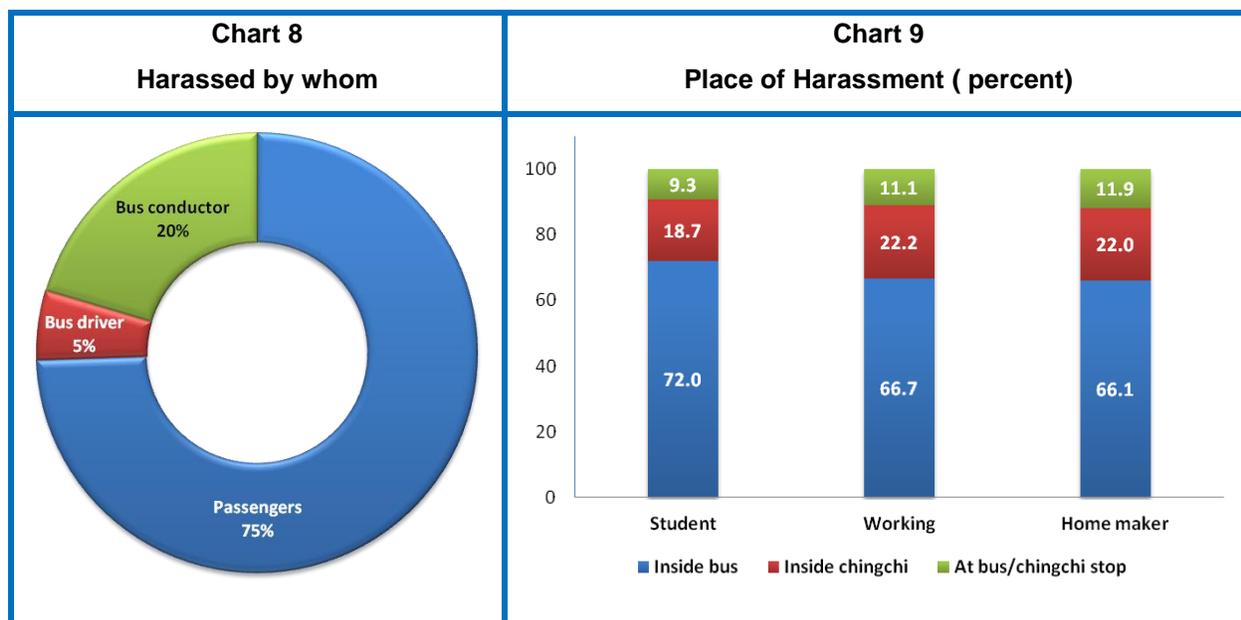


7.2. Perpetrator

Chart 8 points to the perpetrator or harasser. The major culprits in this respect are fellow passengers (75 percent), followed by bus conductors (20 percent) and, sometimes, even the bus driver (5 percent).

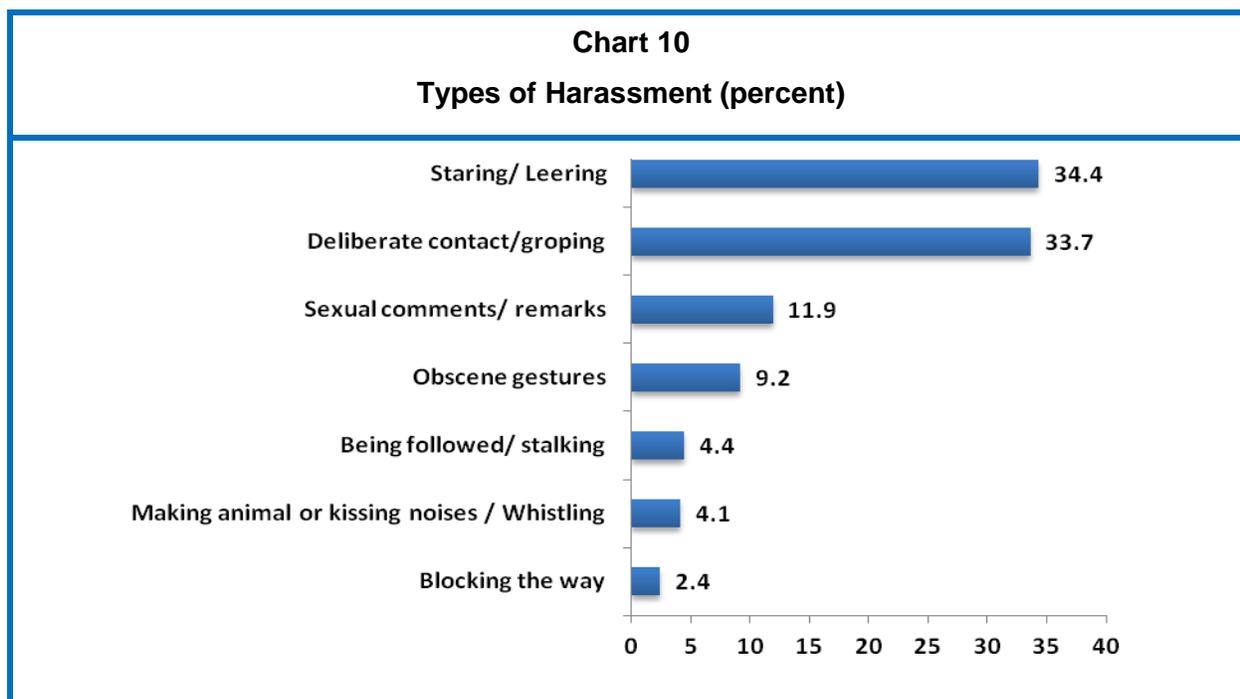
7.3. Place of harassment

Chart 9 identifies location of harassment in public transport: inside the bus/mini-bus or chingchi or at bus/chingchi stops. Among all three categories of respondents, the vast majority (90 percent) cited such incidents inside buses/mini-buses and *chingchis*.



7.4. Types of harassment

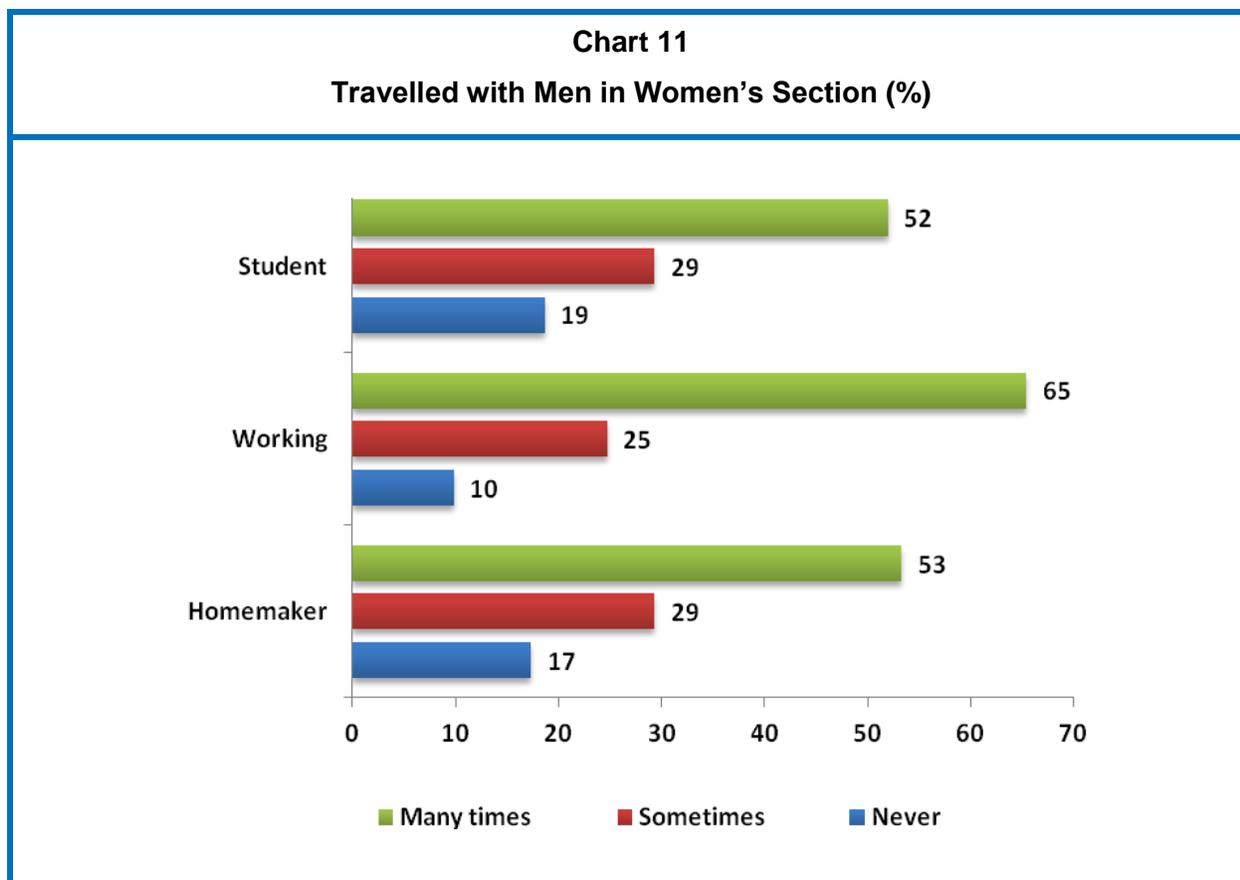
Chart 10 expresses the types of harassment reported by all three categories of female commuters. Two major types of harassment accounting for 34 percent responses each are staring/leering and deliberate contact/groping. Comments/remarks with sexual innuendos and obscene gestures are also fairly common constituting 12 percent and 9 percent respectively. Other types of harassment that are stated include men blocking the way for women to disembark or following after disembarking and stalking or making animal or kissing noises.



In Karachi buses/mini-buses have two sections; the women’s section being in the front one with less than a dozen seats and the larger men’s section in the back. The two sections are partitioned; usually, however, there is a gap or opening that allows movement between the two sections. Women do not prefer to sit in men’s section; although men sit in the women’s section if seats are vacant. Chart 11 shows that 60 percent of working women said that they travelled many times and other 25 percent said that they travelled sometimes with men sitting in women’s section. Among other categories of respondents, over 50 percent stated that they travelled many times and 29 percent stated that they travelled sometimes with men sitting in women’s section. These respondents reported that they feel uncomfortable in this situation as buses are usually overcrowded.

Interestingly, men also use the opening to enter the women’s section to exit the bus from front gate and vice versa. Nearly half (46 percent) of respondents consider that as a form of harassment; given that space in the women section is limited and crowded. Mostly, men using the women’s section to exit engage in deliberate contact/groping.



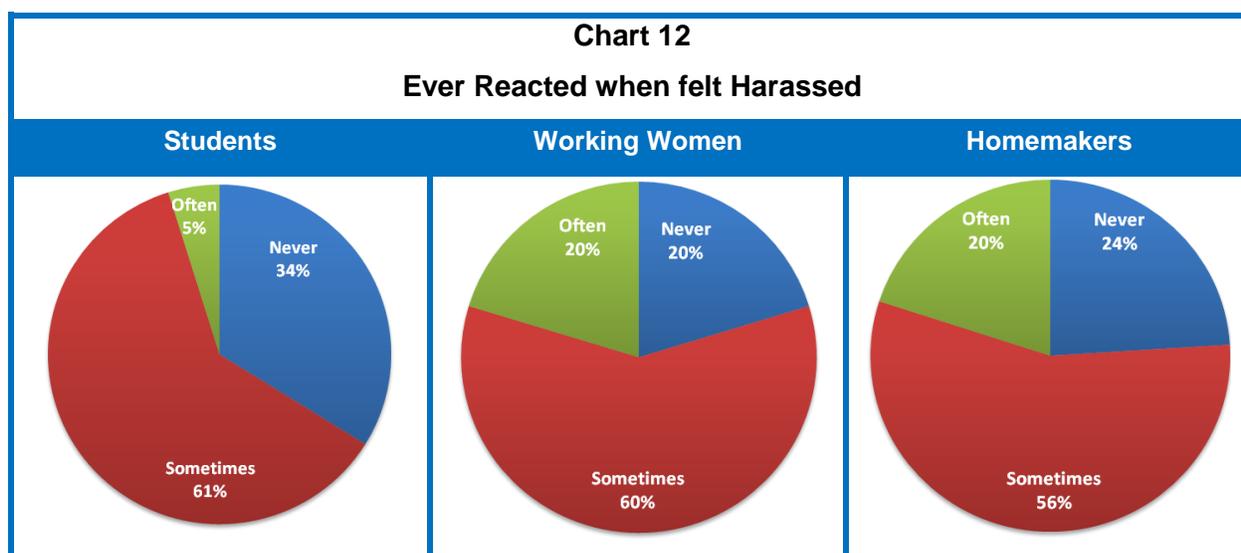


Box 2
Respondents' observations pointing out types of harassment

- Men and boys on motorbikes follow *chingchis*, if we are sitting on a seat facing backwards, they pass 'obscene or crude' remarks as they pass-by; and some even touch us.
- Men and boys in cars and on motorbikes stop at bus stops and invite us to come with them.
- One man got hold of my *dupatta* (scarf) as I was about to get off from the bus and no one intervened.
- One man came and sat beside me in the women's compartment. When I asked him to get up, he replied that I was an educated women and can sit with men, "so why not with me". He got up when other women rebuked and asked him to go behind, but he kept smiling at me.
- One boy threw a chit at me which had his phone number.
- Since I take the bus at more or less the same time every day, men hovering around also board the bus at the same time.

7.5. Reaction when felt Harassed

The findings show that females react to incidences of harassment occurring in buses/mini-buses or *chingchis*. The proportion of those who react sometimes is about 60 percent in case of students and working women and slightly lower at 56 percent in case of homemakers (Chart 12). Comparatively, students react less on such incidences as the proportion of those who never react is 34 percent, compared to 20 percent and 24 percent in the case of working women and homemakers.

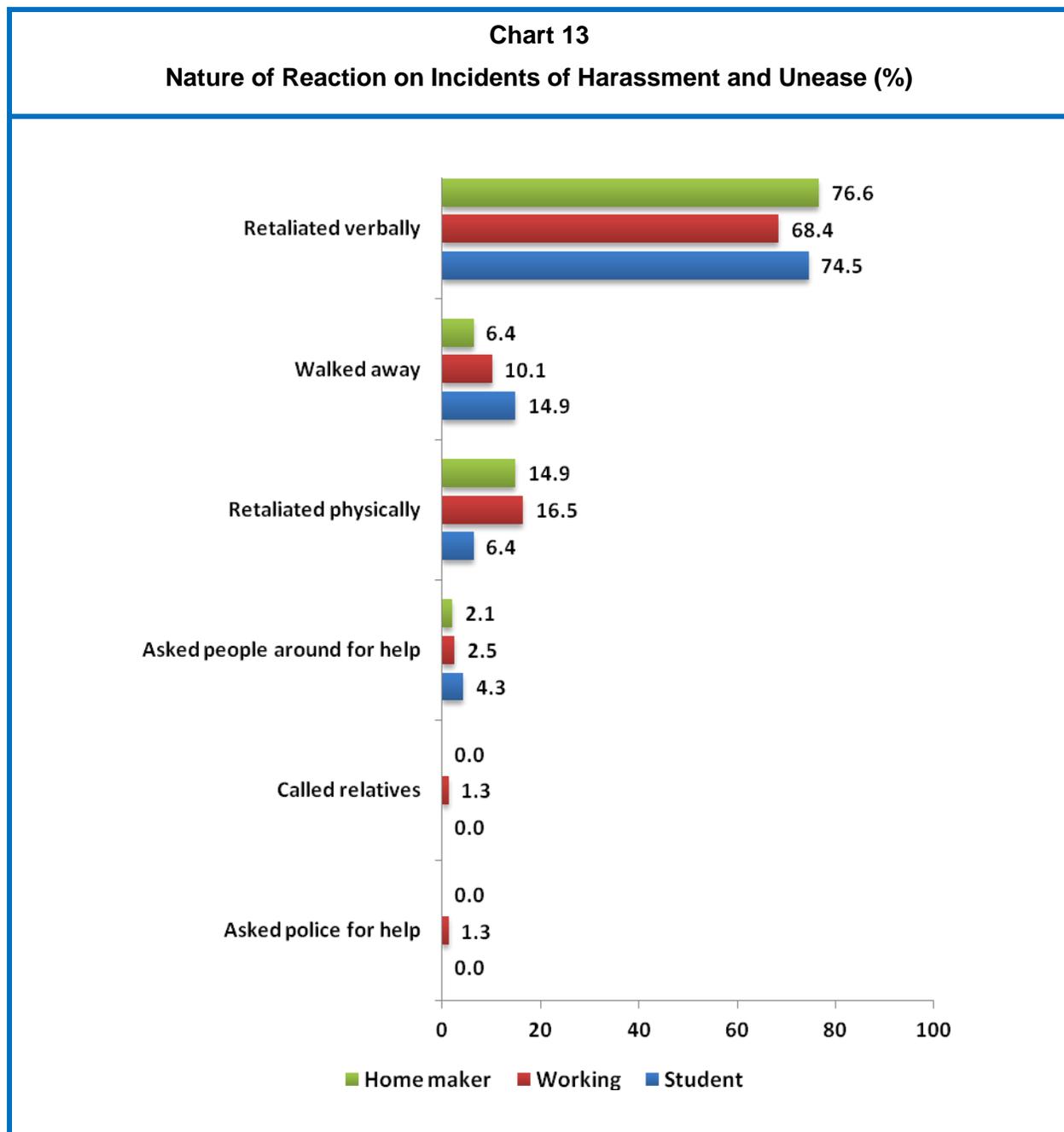


Box 3

Respondents' observations stating types of retaliation

- I complained to the driver about harassment by a male passenger and the driver ordered him out of the bus.
- One girl got on to the bus and told me that a car was following her. I asked the driver to stop for a while and we got off and rebuked the car driver.
- A man tried to touch me; I began shouting and the other passengers beat him up.
- A man touched me and I punched him with my nail cutter.
- A man touched me and I punched him with my hairpin.
- A man touched me and I punched him with my pen.
- Once a conductor tried to touch me and the passengers beat him up.
- One woman slapped a man who was trying to touch her and he slapped her back.

Chart 13 shows that those who react on such incidences generally retaliate verbally. Working women and homemakers reported that they also retaliate physically. Proportion of those who walk away by ignoring such actions is higher among students, compared to other two categories of respondents. The findings also indicate that females hardly ask for help, including from the police.





7.6. Effects of harassment

Commuters, inevitably, cope with harassment and the responses are immediate and subsequent. Data of effects of harassment is tabulated in Table 4. The immediate effect is low for about half the working women and homemakers. Students, however, respond more. About 31 percent of students, 23 percent of working women and 20 percent of homemakers reduce using public transport and use privately hired taxis and rickshaws.

The subsequent effect is more lasting. Nearly 40 percent of students said that they avoid travelling after dark; thereby, restricting their mobility especially with regard to socializing. More significantly, about 40-45 percent of all three categories have started to wear the *hijab* and cover themselves with *chadar* as a means of protecting themselves from harassment.

Table 4						
Effects of Harassment in Public Buses and Chingchi						
Nature of Effects	Students		Working Women		Homemakers	
	Immediate	Subsequent	Immediate	Subsequent	Immediate	Subsequent
Share (%)						
No effect	37.1	-	50.7	-	51.0	0.0
Reduced commuting from public transport	30.6	-	23.2	-	20.0	0.0
Changed travel pattern/route	-	5.6	1.4	18.8	2.0	0.0
Someone accompany you while travelling	16.1	16.7	8.7	12.5	8.0	25.0
Avoid going out alone after dark	6.5	38.9	2.9	43.8	8.0	17.0
Prefer to cover/wear Hijab while travelling	9.7	38.9	11.6	18.8	4.0	42.0
Left educational institution/job	-	-	1.4	6.3	6.0	16.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0



Box 4 Respondents' observations showing nature of grievances	Box 5 Respondents' observations revealing helplessness and tolerance
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• We don't complain, as men in our society don't tolerate women who take a stand and become abusive, if they do so.• We don't complain for fear that the harasser will follow us home and cause more harm.• Our parents ask us not make an issue of the incident, as it will invite ill repute. Girls have to be mindful of their honour.• The law does not protect women, so we have to accept this situation.• How can we ask the police for help, if they themselves harass us sometimes?• I stopped using buses because of harassment and now hired a rickshaw, but it is very expensive.• I dropped out of college, because one boy was stalking me.• School and college girls get scared and don't retaliate, so these men take advantage	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Because of overloading, touching happens 'involuntarily'; we just have to tolerate.• <i>Chingchis</i> are preferable as we have to wait less compared to buses; but space between seats is less, which causes knees to touch if men are sitting on opposite seats; we have no choice but to tolerate.• When I complained to the driver about a man harassing me, I was told to get off from the bus.• Men are prone to behave as such; but we have to commute for work and have to tolerate their behavior.• I work applying henna and visit homes. Before my marriage I used buses and <i>chingchis</i> and faced harassment. Now my husband drops and picks me or I use rickshaws.• We are poor and cannot afford rickshaws, are forced to use buses and face whatever there is.

8. FACTORS THAT MOTIVATE HARASSMENT

Women’s attitude towards perceived factors that motivate harassment in public transport is also explored. The responses are categorized in terms of self-blame, male nature, physical factors, and policy factors (Table 5).

Reasons for Harassment	Student	Working Women	Homemakers
Share (%)			
Self-blame	11.8	13.2	16.9
Women dressing that provoke indecent behavior among men	7.5	10.7	11.6
Women do not act decently/ appropriately	4.3	2.5	5.2
Perpetrator’s nature, male privileging	44.4	47.2	50.0
Men will be men, boys will be boys	9.6	15.7	9.3
Men are sexually frustrated	11.2	14.2	20.3
Lack of education among males	23.5	17.3	20.3
Physical factors	23.0	24.9	22.7
Bus is overcrowded	20.3	21.3	21.5
Poor lightening	1.1	0.5	0.0
Lack of security personnel/CCTVs	1.6	3.0	1.2
Policy factors	20.9	14.7	10.5
No implementation on law against indecent behavior & harassment	4.3	5.6	2.9
Police do not treat such complaints seriously	11.2	4.6	4.7
Perpetrators go unpunished	5.3	4.6	2.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

It is interesting to find that respondents largely attribute male nature and privileging as a major reason for harassment. Within this, lack of education and sexual frustration are significant components. The next important factor is physical, i.e., over-crowding in buses. Students also

indicated policy factors like non-seriousness of police in treating such complaints and failure of implementation of laws and punishment of perpetrators. Some respondents also blamed women themselves in provoking such incidences by inappropriate dressing.

Box 6

Respondents' observations indicating acts that promote harassment

- TV plays show harassment scenes and plant ideas in vulnerable and cunning minds.
- Some buses display 'obscene' posters, jokes, cartoons, pictures or advertisements and play 'unethical loud music/songs', which encourages bad behavior.
- It is not only uneducated men who harass us; educated men too are as bad.
- Men who are unemployed spend time at bus stops and harass women for fun.
- If women dress improperly, they invite harassment.
- Women's dress is not the cause, even *burqa* clad (veil wearing) women have to face harassment.



9. RECOMMENDED ACTIONS PUT FORWARD BY FEMALE COMMUTERS

Respondents were asked to suggest measures they feel can help in preventing harassment and in providing women friendly facilities in public transport and were allowed more than one suggestion. These responses are presented in Table 6.

All respondents suggested separate ladies buses or a larger women's section with strict separation between the male and female sections. Students and working women also asked for the police to play their due role in providing help t female commuters who complain of harassment.

	Students	Working Women	Homemakers
Number of Responses	108	111	94
Share (%)			
Separate ladies bus	30	34	37
Increase size of female's section in bus and strict separation of the two sections	30	28	27
Police provide help to female commuters	13	15	4
Spread awareness regarding female harassment	5	8	7
Implement law properly	9	6	1
Increase number of buses	7	5	7
Seat by seat commute only	1	1	6
Operate only big Bus	3	1	5
Buses should have adequate light at night	0	1	1
Driver should stop bus at bus-stop while women are getting-off	2	0	2
Total	100	100	100

Box 7

Respondents' observations on shortage of transport

- Shortage of buses causes congestion and provides opportunities for touching.
- Danger of harassment is less in big buses, as small buses are congested and provides more opportunities for touching.
- Shortage of public transport is a cause for men hanging out on *chingchis*, even if women are sitting on the seats.
- Media should raise awareness about respecting women and avoid obnoxious behavior.
- School curriculum should include material on respecting women.



10. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The literature and findings from this research suggest that threat to girls' and women's safety while travelling restrains their mobility. This often results in decisions of not sending girl child to school or not letting women to seek employment. In a country like Pakistan, where enrolment rate of girls' and of female labour force participation rate are already low, lack of adequate and secure transport compounds the problem. Given this, mainstreaming gender in transport policies has also become an important aspect of women empowerment in terms of access to socio-economic opportunities.

An important prerequisite is to adopt a rights-based approach to gendered development. This approach demands a commitment to improvement in the well-being of communities and individuals within communities, on the basis of women's active, unfettered and meaningful participation in development as well as in the fair distribution of the resulting benefits (UN Declaration on the Right to Development; Mashiri et al, 2005). Women are often marginalised in the appraisal and decision-making processes, due to culturally embedded gender roles, statuses and time-constraints (Mahapa, 2003). Initiatives are required to take women on board, including beneficiaries, in decision-making processes for planning, implementing and evaluating gender-sensitive policies and programmes.

The analysis identified the following set of recommendations for government action to help prevent occurrences of harassment.

- A major factor that leads to harassment in buses/mini-buses is overcrowding. Findings from survey indicate that women's first priority is to introduce separate buses for them. Their second priority is to introduce bigger buses with larger women's section and strict partitioning between women's and men's section.
- Sensitizing police officials about handling gender related cases has also been suggested. Generally, women hesitate in going to police stations due to women unfriendly attitude of police officials and its overall environment. The process of registering a case is also very cumbersome and the police do not take such cases seriously.
- Women police stations need to be expanded and strengthened by bringing in motivated and result oriented lady police officers and training of the existing staff. These women police stations need to be in the mainstream, rather than a side-lined activity. Also, mobile vans of women police should remain on rounds on regular basis.

- Another important recommendation is to create awareness among the general public about respecting women and refraining from obnoxious behavior. None of the drivers, conductors or passengers are aware of the code of conduct in public transport and basic human rights of passengers. In this connection, media can contribute in raising awareness against harassment acts as well as providing information about laws on such harassment and punishment to perpetrators. Although a long-term process, inclusion of material in school curriculum on respecting women will pave the way in this regard.

The above suggestions appear to be plausible by themselves. However, the problem seems to be much larger and much more deep-rooted. One civic rights activist attributed the public transport situation in Karachi to the sharp divide between 'haves' and 'have-nots.' The haves are the policy making ruling elite, who own private transport – and multiples of them per family. They have never used public transport and are oblivious of the problems faced by the have-nots. In the absence of systematic change and change in the interests of the policy making class, the measures being suggested to address harassment of women in public transport remain mere palliatives.

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Annex 6 through 10: Gender analysis, action plan and gender budget

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Annex 6. Overview of gender issues in the Facility's countries

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

6.1 Albania gender profileⁱ

Key points

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

Access to services

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

surveys suggest that women are more frequent users of public transport services than men, with 38% of women compared with 23% of men reporting using public transportation as their primary means of commuting to work (Pojani, 2011).

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

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

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

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

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

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

- **Health:** The government is currently implementing a National Strategy on Safety of Contraceptives (2012-2016) which aims to increase usage of modern contraceptives by 30% compared to 2008 and to ensure that all men and women have access to high quality family planning services (UN Women, 2013). More than 99% of all births in Albania are attended by a skilled health professional (Institute of Statistics, 2013).
- **Childcare:** Women are overwhelmingly responsible for carrying out unpaid work within the household, including caring for children, the sick and the elderly, as well as domestic work such as cleaning and cooking (GADC, 2010) and this affects their ability to participate fully in the labour market. Nursery provisions are of poor quality, insufficient in number and financially inaccessible for most women (GADC, 2010).

Access to employment

- **Labour Force Participation (LFP):** Women in Albania have a lower labour force participation rate than men (44.3% vs 61.8% for men) (Institute of Statistics, 2013). Women's labour force participation is also below the average for the Europe and Central Asia region (50.7% in 2012, ILO KILM). By comparison, in 1989 women's labour force participation rate was 85% (GADC, 2010b). During the transition period, public sector employment fell by over 70% and this had a disproportionate impact

on women, both in terms of lost employment in public sector enterprises and the loss of state-provided services such as childcare (WB, 2014). Although the overall economy subsequently recorded high growth rates (particularly between 1993 and 2001) and achieved good rates of job creation, women have not managed to fully recover their position in the labour market (UN Women, 2011). This can be partly explained by the fact that women's employment tends to be concentrated in agriculture and in other sectors which have not experienced significant employment growth (WB, 2013b).

- **Horizontal segregation:** Women's employment in Albania is concentrated in low-paid sectors including education, health and social work, and agriculture. More than half of all women in employment (53.5%) are employed in agriculture, compared to 37.4% of men in employment (Institute of Statistics, 2013). Wages in these sectors are significantly lower compared with other sectors - such as construction (12.9% of men in employment compared to 0.5% of women), mining (3.4% of men in employment compared to 0.7% women) and transport / administrative service (25.2% of men in employment compared 16.7% of women) - which predominantly employ men (MoLSAEO, 2011).
- **Vertical segregation:** Within particular sectors and occupations women are poorly represented in management positions (ITUC, 2010). For example, although women make up the majority of public sector employees, men are twice as likely to have senior positions in law-making and as senior executives, while women are mostly regular employees (UN Women, 2013). Women are also more likely than men to be 'under-employed' in jobs which are not commensurate with their educational attainment (ITUC, 2010).
- **Gender pay gap:** The gender pay gap stands at 28% (UNECE).
- **Women in informal employment:** Women are more frequently employed in more insecure forms of employment, including in the informal sector, in part-time jobs, and domestic services (GADC, 2010). Women in employment are twice as likely to be employed as 'contributing family workers' (51.9% of employed women, compared with 25.9% of employed men) (Institute of Statistics, 2013).

Access to finance

- **Land ownership:** There are low levels of land ownership among women. Overall, CEDAW (2010) reports that just 8% of women in Albania own property, while UN Women (2013) report that two-thirds of all new property titles issued between 2011 and 2013 were issued to men. OECD (2012) notes that even when women do legally own land it is usually considered to belong to the entire family meaning that women are not free to administer the land as they choose. In rural areas, CEDAW (2010) notes that only 6% of farms are owned or managed by women, despite the fact that around 70% of rural women work in agriculture. Although men and women have equal legal rights, land can only be registered in the name of the household head, which generally means the husband (over 90% of households are male-headed – MoLSAEO, 2011) (OECD, 2012). During the privatisation of land which followed the collapse of communism, the vast majority of cooperative land was titled in the name of men even when women had primary responsibility for working on it (USAID, 2011). Women are also less likely to inherit property from their families.
- **Access to credit:** Data from the Bank of Albania shows that, although 31.4% of business loans are taken out by women-owned or -managed businesses, these represent only 11.5% of the total value of business loans, indicating that loans taken out by women tend to be much smaller (UN Women,

2013). There are several reasons for this discrepancy. First, immovable property is generally registered in the name of the male spouse only, which makes it difficult for women to meet the collateral requirements for obtaining credit (GADC, 2010). This is further exacerbated by the fact that husbands and male relatives who do own property are usually reluctant to support loan applications on behalf of their wives or female relatives (OECD, 2012). Second, women's access to credit is further limited in practice by the fact that women's businesses are generally smaller and less well established than those of men as banks in Albania generally only offer credit to businesses that have existed for more than two years (MoLSAEO, 2011).

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

Decision making

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

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

		Female	Male	Female & Male
Labour market	Labour force participation (% of population aged 15+ who are economically active) <i>Institute of Statistics, 2013</i>	44.3	61.8	52.7
	Self-employment (% of female, male and combined employed population who are self-employed <i>Institute of Statistics, 2012</i>)	18.1	34.1	27.0
	Contributing family workers (% of female, male and combined employed population aged 15+ years who are contributing family workers) <i>Institute of Statistics, 2013</i>	51.9	25.9	37.3

		Female	Male	Female & Male
	Unemployment rate (15+ years) (% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) <i>Institute of Statistics, 2013</i>	13.2	17.5	15.6
	Youth not in employment or education (% of female, male aged 16-24 who are neither in employment or education) <i>ILO STAT, 2012</i>	27.6	25.1	26.8
	Public sector employment¹ (% employee distribution by sex and institutional sector) <i>ILO STAT, 2012</i>	6.4	8.1	14.5
	Child labour (% of children aged 5-17 who are engaged in child labour i.e. working in contravention of ILO C138 or 182), <i>Institute of Statistics / ILO, 2012</i>	3.9	6.2	5.1
	Gender pay gap (% gap between the average earnings of men and women) <i>WEF Global Gender Gap, 2012</i>	28		
Business	Enterprises with female participation in ownership (% of all active enterprises) <i>Institute of Statistics, 2012</i>	27		
	Bank account at formal financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) <i>WB Global Financial Inclusion Database, 2011</i>	22.7	33.7	28.3
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) <i>WB Global Financial Inclusion Database, 2011</i>	6.0	9.0	7.5
Political Participation	Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) <i>Inter-Parliamentary Union, 2014²</i>	23	77	[100]

¹ For information on women's employment in other sectors, refer to Annex 1.

² For further information on women's representation in parliament, refer to Annex I.

6.2 Armenia gender profileⁱⁱ

Key points

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

Access to services

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

Access to employment

- **Labour Force Participation (LFP):** Women in Armenia have lower rates of labour force participation than men (55% vs. 73%). These figures are broadly in line with the average figures for Central &

South-Eastern Europe (non-EU) & CIS (ILO KILM, 2013). Women's LFP rate in Armenia is influenced by a number of factors:

- Education: Women with higher levels of education are much more likely to participate in the labour market. This same trend is also evident for men, although with higher overall LFP rates (ILOSTAT, 2012)
- Geographic location: Women in rural areas have a LFP rate of 60%, while women in urban areas have a LFP rate of 45% (ILOSTAT, 2011)
- Social norms and values: following the collapse of the Soviet Union Armenia entered a period in which values and norms which were considered to be of 'Soviet origin' were rejected, including women's right to equal participation in employment and economic relations. Society reverted back to more traditional views regarding women's place in society and emphasised women's role in the family rather than the workplace (UN Women 2012)
- Family and marital status: Women have primary responsibility for childcare and this restricts their LFP.
- Different expectations and goals: In line with social norms, young men and women report different priorities in life and this is likely to affect their employment decisions. Young men are much more likely than young women to identify 'having a successful career' and 'having lots of money' as their primary life goal (Serriere, 2014).
- **Horizontal segregation:** There are significant levels of gender-based segregation in the workforce, with strong social norms regarding 'acceptable jobs' for women and men (Serriere, 2014). More than two thirds of women work in two sectors: agriculture and public administration where wages tend to be lower than in other sectors (Armstat, 2013).
- **Vertical segregation:** Women are under-represented in all branches of leadership and do not enjoy the same opportunities for career advancement and promotion (USDoS, 2014). This is underpinned by persistent gender stereotypes which regard women as lacking leadership skills and better suited to administrative positions (LBIHR, 2011) despite the fact that women generally have higher levels of education (USAID, 2013).
- **Gender pay gap:** There is a significant gender pay gap and women's average monthly earnings are approximately 65.6% of men's (Armstat, 2013). In both the public and the private sector women are clustered in low paid jobs while men are clustered in the highest pay bracket.
- **Women in informal employment:** Estimates suggest that the incidence of informal employment is a little higher among women at 53.4%, than among men at 51% (NSS and ADB, 2010). The nature of informal employment differs between men and women. Almost half of women in informal employment are engaged in agriculture (47% vs 35.6% of men), followed by education (15.8%), health (9.3%), and wholesale and retail trade (7.8%) (NSS and ADB, 2010). Women are particularly likely to be engaged as unpaid family workers – 18.4% of women in employment compared to 6.5% of men are classified as contributing family workers (ILOStat, 2013).

Access to finance

- **Land ownership:** Ownership and access to land is partly determined by gender. Following Armenia's independence from the Soviet Union the government privatised land by distributing land plots previously administered by collective farms between private households. Land ownership was awarded to the head of the family meaning that in reality women only gained ownership of land in the

absence of a male head of family. Consequently, it is thought that there are low levels of female land ownership although there are no statistics on the percentage of land currently owned by men and women (OECD, 2012).

- **Access to credit:** There exist several barriers to women-owned firms accessing credit. First, women tend to be concentrated in smaller firms and face difficulties in accessing credit because banks generally prefer to focus on larger clients. This also results in women-owned firms having to put up more collateral as a percentage of the value of loans than men-owned firms. Second, because banks tend to have less experience in lending to women-owned firms, they often have limited understanding of their needs and do not reflect women's preferences in decisions about the pricing or design of credit products ADB (2012).
- **Women's entrepreneurship:** The 2013 WB IFC Enterprise Survey found that 24.7% of surveyed firms have female participation in ownership, below the average for Eastern Europe and Central Asia (31.4%). Official statistics based on all registered MSMEs in Armenia suggest that women's rates of ownership may be even lower than this— only 11% of all active MSMEs are owned by women. There are also some reports that men sometimes register their businesses in the names of their wives or daughters either to reduce their potential exposure to debt payments (since women tend to have lower levels of income and wealth) or to access financial products which are targeted at women. There is limited information about the sectoral distribution of women's entrepreneurship. On the whole, women entrepreneurs are thought to be concentrated in less prestigious, less capital-intensive and smaller business enterprises, especially subsistence-based activities in trade and retail activities. Other fields where reports suggest there are high levels of women entrepreneurs include services (especially beauty salons, catering and tailoring) and agriculture (especially horticulture and vegetable cultivation). By contrast, relatively few women are engaged in 'growth sectors' such as agro-processing and tourism.

Decision making

- **Representation in national parliaments:** The Electoral Code (2011) sets a 20% quota for women's representation in party lists and specifies that there must be a woman within the first 6 places on the list and that thereafter at least every fifth person on the list must be a woman (Article 100). However, the new law has had limited impact: women's representation in parliament increased from 9% in 2007 to only 10.6% in 2012. A key reason for this is that the electoral law allows parties to replace women candidates who withdraw after the election with men. Women often face several barriers to participating in politics including societal opposition, lack of access to patronage networks, a lack of grass-roots pressure in favour of women's participation and the fact that few women have the financial independence necessary to run for office.
- **Patriarchal norms and values related to the sexual division of labour:** Traditional gender roles dominate the Armenian family structure (OECD, 2012). There is widespread societal acceptance that men are the main breadwinners and exercise sole control over family decision-making. This is clearly reflected in the fact that evidence suggests that family planning decisions are often made by husbands and the husbands' family.

Table 2. Key indicators: Women and men in the Armenian economy

		Female	Male	All
Labour market	Labour force participation (% of population that are economically active) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	55	73	64
	Self-employment (% of female, male and combined employed population who are own-account workers) <i>ArmStat, 2013</i>	29.3	30.9	30
	Informal employment (% of female, male and combined employed population in informal employment) <i>ADB and NSS, 2011</i>	53.4	51	52.1
	Unpaid family work (% of all employees who are classified as 'contributing family workers, by gender) <i>ILOStat, 2013</i>	18.4	6.5	12.2
	Unemployment rate (15+ years) (% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) <i>ArmStat, 2013</i>	10.1	10.5	10.3
	Public sector employment (distribution of all employees by gender and institutional sector) <i>ILO Stat, 2012</i>	24.2	16	40.2
	Gender pay gap (Women's average earnings as a % of men's average earnings), <i>ArmStat, 2013</i>	65.6		
Business	Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all enterprises which are registered) <i>WB Enterprise Survey, 2013</i>	24.7		
	Bank account at formal financial institution (% of population with an account at a bank, credit union, other financial institution or the post office) <i>WB Findex, 2011</i>	18.2	16.7	17.5
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% of population who report borrowing money from a bank, credit union, microfinance institution, or other financial institution such as a cooperative) <i>WB Findex, 2011</i>	19.5	18.1	18.9
Political participation	Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) <i>IPU, 2014³</i>	10.7%	89.3%	[100%]

6.3 FYR Macedonia gender profileⁱⁱⁱ

Key points

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

Access to services

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

Access to employment

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

traditionally male-dominated sectors, such as mining (92%), electricity and gas (80%) and transportation and storage (85%) (Republic of FYR Macedonia, 2016).

- **Gender pay gap:** The law does not mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value (WBL, 2016). There is a medium gender pay gap and women’s average monthly earnings are approximately 8.8% of men’s (UNECE, 2014), which is lower as compared to other countries in the region such as Serbia (13.1%) and Croatia (11.3%).
- **Women in informal employment:** The share of informal employment is estimated at over 22.5% of the total employment in the country (51,328 out of a total 282,078 employed women are in some form of informal employment; and 89,314 out of a total 334,599 employed men) (Republic of FYR Macedonia, 2016).

Access to finance / property

- **Land ownership:** Women and men have equal rights to own and access land, as well as property other than land, under Articles 8 and 30 of the Constitution. According to Cozzarelli (2010), most land and property in FYROM is owned by men, mainly due to ‘traditional cultural practices’ that see land and property ownership as a male characteristic.
- **Access to credit:** Gender disparities are observed in terms of women’s access to finance. Data indicates that 64% of women compared to 80% of men have a bank account at a formal financial institution (WB Findex, 2014).
- **Women’s entrepreneurship:** About 30% of firms have female participation in ownership and 25.7% of firms have a female top manager (WB Enterprise Survey, 2013).

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

- **Representation in national parliaments, local government and the judiciary:** Women are well represented at the highest level of the judiciary: out of the 9 justices on the constitutional court, 4 are women and the chief justice is also a woman.
There are no quotas for women on corporate boards, in parliament or local government. However, there is a 33% quota for women on candidate lists for parliament, as well as 33% quota on candidate lists for local government. (WBL, 2016). The percentage of women in Parliament is high, as out of 120 parliamentary seats, 38 are occupied by women (IPU, 2016).
- **Labour legislation / industry restrictions:** Women cannot work in certain occupations the same way as men, such as mining, factory work or construction (WBL, 2016).

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

		Female	Male	All
Labour market	Labour force participation (% of female/male population aged 15+ years that are economically active) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	43.2	67.6	

		Female	Male	All
	Vulnerable employment (unpaid family workers and own-account workers) (% of male/female employment, by gender) <i>ILOStat, 2014</i>	19.4	24.9	
	Unemployment rate (15+ years) (% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	28.1	27.7	
	Gender pay gap (Women's average earnings as a % of men's monthly average earnings), <i>UNECE 2011</i>	8.8		
Business	Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all enterprises which are registered) <i>WB Enterprise Survey, 2013</i>	30		
	Bank account at formal financial institution (% of population with an account at a bank, credit union, other financial institution or the post office) <i>WB Findex, 2014</i>	64	80	-
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% of population who report borrowing money from a bank, credit union, microfinance institution, or other financial institution such as a cooperative) <i>WB Findex, 2011</i>	30.6	36.1	-
Political participation	Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) <i>IPU, 2016</i>	31.7	68.3	[100]

6.4 Georgia gender profile^{iv}

Key points

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

Access to services

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

Access to employment

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

⁴ http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/WDSContentServer/WDSP/IB/2015/04/09/090224b082d7a2a3/1_0/Rendered/PDF/0Missing0girls000and0policy0options.pdf

⁵ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.UEM.TOTL.MA.ZS/countries>

⁶ <http://data.uis.unesco.org/index.aspx?queryid=161&lang=en>

programmes as compared to 9% of men graduates in these fields. This gender segregation in education results in occupational segregation in the labour market.

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

Table 4. Gender segregation in employment (Source: Laborsta, ILO, 2008⁷)

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

Access to finance

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

⁷ <http://laborsta.ilo.org/STP/guest>

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

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

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

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

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

⁸ Labor force participation rate is the proportion of the population ages 15 and older that is economically active: all people who supply labor for the production of goods and services during a specified period.

		Female	Male	Female & Male
	Bank account at formal financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) <i>World Bank Financial Inclusion Database, 2014</i>	39.8%	39.6%	
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) <i>World Bank Financial Inclusion Database, 2011</i>	29.3%	28.6%	
Govern ment	Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) <i>Inter-parliamentary union 2014</i>	11%	89%	
	Representation in the judiciary (% of women/men judges)	51%	49%	

Key national gender equality laws, documents and enforcement agency:

- The Constitution of Georgia upholds the principle of equal rights for men and women at article 14.
- The 2004 Labour Code regulates employment in the private sector, while employment in the public sector is regulated by a separate law. The Labour Code prohibits gender discrimination.
- There were amendments to the Labour Code, enhancing the protection of the rights of women in the workplace (2013) and to the Criminal Code, criminalizing the use of services of (statutory) victims of trafficking in persons (2007) and introducing provisions defining the scope and categories of domestic violence (2012).
- There were amendments to the Election Code and the Organization Act on the Political Unions of Citizens, providing for financial incentives to political parties that nominate women candidates for parliamentary elections, in 2011 and 2013, respectively;
- In 2010, the Act on Gender Equality defined the legal mechanisms and conditions for the implementation of equal rights and opportunities of women and men.
- The draft Non-discrimination Law was adopted in 2014. This Law clearly states the unacceptability of discrimination on the basis of one's gender identity and sexual orientation along with race, skin colour, language, national, ethnic or social belonging, sex, pregnancy or maternity, marital or health status, disability, age, nationality, origin, place of birth, place of residence, internal displacement, material or social status, religion or belief, political or any other ground (Article 2, of the draft Law).
- Key enforcement agencies: The Office of the Public Defender is the body responsible for the implementation of the Act on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination (2014).

International instruments:

- **CEDAW:** Georgia ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in 1994, and the Optional Protocol to CEDAW in 2002. The most recent CEDAW report (2014) highlights the following concerns: Stereotypical attitudes regarding the roles and responsibilities of women and men in the family and society; growing number of murders of women by their husbands and other forms of domestic violence; trafficking in women and girls; women's participation in political and public life; concentration of women in low-paid jobs, lack of equal pay for

work of equal value and lack of childcare facilities; sex-selective abortions, according to SIGI index. The male/female sex ratio for the working age population in 2013 is 0.94 while the sex ratio at birth is 1.01; child marriage: Early marriage appears to be increasingly common in Georgia, according to SIGI index 2016. This may indicate that the law on minimum age of marriage is not effectively enforced. An UNICEF report states that early marriages primarily affect girls aged 14 and over, but girls as young as 12 are married as well. In some cases, early marriage is associated with the practice of bride kidnapping.

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

Table 6. Gender indices in Georgia⁹

	Index / %	Ranking
Human Development Index	0.754	76
Gender Inequality Index ¹⁰	0.382	77
SIGI index ¹¹	0.2035	Medium Discrimination
WEF Global Gender Gap Index ¹²	N/A	82
Population living below PPP \$1.25/day (2002-2011):	18%	79
Population living below national poverty line (2002-2011)	14.8%	N/A

⁹ Source: UNDP Human Development Report (2014); OECD SIGI (2014); WEF Global Gender Gap report (2015).

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

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

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

6.5 Jordan gender profile^v

Key points

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

Access to services

- **Transport:** Constraints on women's access to transport in Jordan include costs, personal safety and cultural perceptions of 'womanly' conduct (WB, 2009). Travelling alone on public transportation, particularly after dark, is often seen as unacceptable conduct for women (WB, 2011). Overcrowded trains and buses represent risks for women's personal safety as well as for their moral reputation. The lack of accessible transport services in rural and isolated areas primarily affects women (UNDP, 2013). Constraints on mobility also affect job searches: women are more likely to use indirect, impersonal methods of job searches, such as sending applications by post or registering with the government job service, rather than contacting employers in person (WB, 2013a). Women, especially unskilled women, generally live closer to work than men (WB, 2009). On average, only 5% of women travel more than 60 minutes to get to work, while only 11% of women (cf 27% of men) work in a different governorate than the one in which they live (WB, 2013a).
- **Water and irrigation:** Water scarcity is a major challenge in Jordan, one of the driest countries in the world. People living in rural areas are particularly affected by water scarcity as they generally pay more for their water, depend on fewer and more vulnerable water sources and earn much of their income from water-dependent agriculture (USAID, 2012). Problems are worse in the summer. Moreover, the large number of Syrian refugees in Jordan is placing considerable pressure on Jordan's already scarce water resources (NCCP, 2013). The governorate of Mafraq, whose population has doubled as result of refugee arrivals (including the Zaatari camp), has been particularly affected. This has included a rise in the cost of water for households, as a result of pipes running dry and households needing to buy more water from the tankers (Oxfam, 2013). Most households in northern Jordan are connected to piped water which is topped up by water trucks (Oxfam, 2013). The pipe system is old and it is estimated that as much as 50% is lost through leaks and people siphoning off water illegally (Oxfam, 2013). Many Jordanians pay extra for filtered water, claiming that piped water is not of drinking quality (Oxfam, 2013). Strain on water resources is expected to have a gendered impact in the country, where women are considered to have primary responsibility for household water consumption (USAID, 2010). Most

women do not work outside the home and so are responsible for household tasks (e.g. bathing, washing) involving water consumption (USAID, 2010). The care of those who fall sick as a result of waterborne illness caused by poor water quality is also likely to fall to women (USAID, 2010). Poor women in particular may need to exert more effort in order to secure and manage scarce natural resources, while men may be under pressure to migrate to urban areas to seek additional income sources (UNDP, 2013), leaving rural women at home.

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

- **Waste services:** There is very little information available about gender and waste management in Jordan. It is thought that women are primarily responsible for waste generated in the household (USAID, 2010). Waste dumping in landfill site and open dumpsites represents a major health hazard for neighbouring communities. The large influx of Syrian refugees has aggravated this situation, both in the camps and in surrounding communities (MPIC, 2013).
- **Internet access:** While more people and more women are getting connected, the gender gap in internet users remains at 6.9 percent for internet users (UN Women 2014). Internet users who are economically active (both employed and unemployed) are mostly males and social norms can restrict women's access to the internet, which affects their agency and access to finance, employment and services.
- **Education:** Access to education is characterized by relatively higher gender equality. Jordan has achieved gender parity in primary and secondary education and the literacy rate is 99% for both female and male youth (UNICEF, 2011). However, young women's access to education becomes limited when they marry (CEDAW, 2012) and women are under-represented in vocational and technical training. Educational curricula perpetuate conservative views regarding women's place in society. If women represent just over 50% of undergraduate students in universities, they are less likely to enrol in courses which lead to better-paid positions (JNCW, 2011).
- **Health:** Health outcomes have improved markedly in the last 30 years, notably due to a result of increases in government spending on health (WB, 2013a). Women are legally free to choose their own physicians, visit health clinics, and make decisions about most aspects of their health care (Husseini, 2010). However, social restrictions on women's movement may affect women's ability to travel to health services, especially in rural areas. Issues of sexual and reproductive health are highly taboo.
- **Childcare:** Women are majorly responsible for childcare. The requirement to provide crèches in workplaces with more than 20 women employees is often not respected in practice (AWO, 2012) and the lack of access to childcare is a major barrier to women's employment.

Access to employment

- **Labour market participation:** Women's labour force participation is low (16%), even by regional standards, despite high levels of education. In nearly half of all sectors, women represent less than 15% of the workforce (WB, 2013a). There are 5.6 times as many men as women working in the private sector (MPIC/UNDP, 2011). More traditional families will not allow their daughters and wives to work in the private sector unless it is a completely female environment, a family-owned business or

a firm where they personally know the business owner (MPIC/UNDP, 2011). Women's employment is concentrated in the public sector, which is seen as a socially acceptable employer for women, with working hours and facilities that make it easier to combine family and work responsibilities.

Women in rural areas are particularly affected by unemployment: unemployment rates amongst women in the north and south of Jordan are more than twice or three times the rate in the centre (WB, 2013a).

- **Migration:** Female migrant workers are particularly vulnerable to economic and physical exploitation, including sexual harassment and assault in the workplace (US Dept of State, 2014). CEDAW (2012) attributes this vulnerability to a lack of government oversight (i.e. lack of regular inspection visits to factories and private homes (where women work as domestic workers) to monitor working conditions and support (i.e. lack of shelters for victims). Syrians and Iraqis are particularly susceptible to poor terms and conditions of employment. According to a joint report by the Ministry of Planning and the UN, Syrian women are mostly employed in home-based informal sectors and businesses (e.g. cooking, baking, tailoring, jewellery-making, petty commerce), which were previously dominated by low-income Jordanian women (MPIC, 2013). As a result of financial necessity, Syrian children as young as 7 years of age are reportedly working long hours for little pay, sometimes in highly exploitative conditions (UNHCR, 2013). Some girls are employed, notably in domestic service and agriculture, but working refugee children are predominantly boys (estd 97%) working in services and retail (UNHCR, 2013).
- **Youth unemployment:** Youth unemployment represents a major issue for Jordan's economy, politics and society as a whole. Unemployment rates in the early stages of life affect the job prospects across the working life span of young people (ILO, 2013a). Despite having good access to education, the number of youth in the labour market in Jordan is very low, especially among young women (ILO, 2014). Indeed, 54.7% of young women aged 15-24 are unemployed compared to 26.7% of their male counterparts (ILO STAT, 2014).
- **Horizontal segregation:** The majority of women are employed in the public sector (48%, UNECE 2012), followed by the education sector that employs 41.8% of working women, while the health and social work sector attracts 14.3% of them (JDoS, 2012a). In 2011, women represented 34.2% of employees in financial institutions (JDoS, 2012a). Women are under-represented in scientific and technical fields where there are more job opportunities, mostly because they are under-represented in these fields of education and training (WB, 2013a).
- **Vertical Segregation:** The glass ceiling is still firmly in place for women in Jordan (ILO, 2013). Women constitute an important proportion of managers (40%) and professionals (58.2%) (JDoS, Q4/2013); however, men still hold the top posts, including in the public sector (MPIC/UNDP, 2011). Men earn 23% more than women in management positions (MPIC/UNDP, 2011).
- **Informal employment:** According to UNDP (2012), 45% of all waged employment in the private sector is informal (NB this is significantly higher than official figures cited in 'Key Indicators'). Men are more likely to be in informal employment: 48% of all working men are in informal employment, compared to 26% of working women. Men in informal employment are most likely to work in retail/services (32%), while women are more likely to work in medical/social services (17%).
- **Gender Pay Gap:** There is a gender pay gap in Jordan and women's average monthly earnings are 9.3% of men's (UNECE, 2012). The relatively small overall gap can be explained by the large proportion of working women in the public sector where the wage gap is lower (JWU, 2012). However, the gender pay gap is 40.3% in manufacturing, 21.1% in education and 26% in health and social work activities (JDoS, 2012). The average monthly salary in Jordan is around JOD 315 (€325)

for men and JOD 277 (€286) for women (JWU, 2012). The principle of equal pay for work of equal value is not implemented thus resulting to a persistent gender pay gap.

Access to finance/credit

- **Access to credit:** If there are no legal restrictions on women's access to credit or bank accounts, access to finance remains an issue, in great part as a result of collateral requirements to secure a loan. More than 97% of loans in Jordan require collateral, compared to 72% in the rest of MENA (IFC Enterprise Surveys). Collateral requirements for loans are typically limited to immovable assets, while movable assets (such as jewellery) are rarely acceptable (WB, 2013b). Women are less likely to own property (incl. land) because of inheritance rights and divorce rules that favour men. As such, microfinance is a popular source of credit for women.
- **Land ownership:** Despite the absence of legal restrictions on the ownership, women represent a small proportion of land owners in Jordan. In practice, property acquired jointly by a couple is most often registered in the husband's name. This makes women more vulnerable in the event of divorce, as it gives the husband control over the division of assets once the marriage is over (SIGI, 2012).
- **Women's entrepreneurship:** There are low levels of women's entrepreneurship in Jordan: only 15.7% of firms have female participation in ownership. Women entrepreneurs are predominantly involved in SMEs in services and non-durable manufacturing (garments and clothes). The proportion of women business owners and self-employed women is very low. Only 3.6% of firms in Jordan have a woman as the majority shareholder (IFC Survey, 2013). According to JNCW (2011), low levels of business ownership are due to obstacles in accessing credit, lack of administrative skills and expertise and generally low levels of self-esteem and self-confidence among women.
- **Inheritance rights:** Although the Personal Status Law prohibits social practices that deprive women of their right to inheritance, it is not uncommon for women to waive part or all of their inheritance in favour of a male relative (a process known as *takharaj*) as a result of social pressure. In some cases this happens after pressure (sometimes physical violence) from brothers and other male relatives (Husseini, 2010). In general, women are thought to face considerable pressure to renounce their rights, particularly in rural areas (WB, 2013b). This pressure is often justified on the grounds that men are expected to provide for their families. Some families circumvent inheritance rules by transferring assets to their sons before their death (SIGI, 2012). A 2010 amendment to the Personal Status Law was introduced to offer protection for women's inheritance rights. This means that there is now a 3 month 'cooling off' period after the division of rights, during which time heirs cannot renounce their rights (WB, 2013a). Many rural women may not be aware of their inheritance rights or how to defend their rights in court (Husseini, 2010).

Decision-making

- **Representation in national parliaments, local government and the judiciary:** Jordan introduced parliamentary quotas for women in 2003. There is a 10% (15 seats) quota for women in the lower house of parliament (1 for each of the 12 governorates and 1 for each of the 3 tribal councils) and a 30% (297 seats) quota in municipal councils (quotaProject, 2014). In the 2013 parliamentary elections, 18 women were elected to the lower house (3 of whom won outside the quota system). There are 9 female senators, appointed by the King (US Dept of State, 2014).
- **Labour legislation/industry restrictions:** The Constitution provides for 'special conditions' for women's employment: women are prohibited from working at night, as well as undertaking a list of jobs specified by legislation, including mining.
- **Decision making in households:** In addition to legal provisions, social norms strongly position the father or husband as the head of household, giving him the role of family guardian and the responsibility to provide financial maintenance and make major decisions affecting the family (WB,

2013a). In return for financial maintenance, women are expected to defer to male family members in decision-making and control of economic assets (2013a).

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

		Female	Male	Female & male
Labour force	Labour force participation rate (15+ years) (% of population aged 15+ who are economically active) <i>World Bank, 2014</i>	16%	67%	41.8%
	Self-employment (15+ years) (% of female/male population aged 15+ years that are economically active) <i>World Bank, 2012</i>	3.9%	18.2%	15.9%
	Unemployment rate (15+ years) (Share of labour force that is without work but available for and seeking employment) <i>ILO STAT, 2014</i>	21.2%	10%	11.9%
	Youth unemployment rate (15-24 years) (Share of labour force aged 15-24 <i>ILO STAT, 2014</i>)	54.7%	26.7%	31.8%
	Informal employment (% of female, male and all workers without a contract or social security coverage) (MOL, 2011)	28%	17%	26%
	Public sector employment (15+ years) (% of workforce that is employed by government) (Q4/2013 figures, JDoS)	51.4%	36.6%	38.8%
	Gender pay gap (Women's average earnings as a % of men's average earnings) (UNECE, 2012)		9.3%	
	Unpaid family workers (% of female, male and combined employed population who work in family businesses without payment) (Q4/2013, JDoS)	<0.5%	0.5%	0.4%
	Child labour (% of workforce that is employed by government) (Q4/2013 figures, JDoS)	9.3% of child labour	90.7% of child labour	1.6% (of all children)
Business	Firms with women as majority shareholders (% of all firms) (IFC Enterprise Survey, 2013)		3.8%	
	Firms with female participation in ownership		15.7%	

		Female	Male	Female & male
	(% of all firms) (IFC Enterprise Surveys, 2013)			
	Bank account at formal financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	17.4%	33.7%	-
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	3.6%	5.4%	-
Political Participation	Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) (2013 figures from WB Databank)	12%	88%	[100%]

6.6 Moldova gender profile^{vi}

Key points

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

Access to services

- **Rural-urban divide:** Rural settlements are disadvantaged in terms of physical infrastructure, public amenities, living conditions and access to social services. On average, female-headed households face a higher risk of poverty and access to services than men, because the main sources of income such as pensions and average wages are lower for women. There is a deficit of healthcare staff in rural areas and excess of health care staff in the urban space (NBS, 2012).
- **Water and sanitation:** HBS (Household Budgets Survey) data indicate that the share of households from the Centre¹³ and South connected to the water pipe in 2010 almost doubled compared to 2007, hence living conditions of the population have considerably improved in terms of access to services related to water supply, bathroom or shower. The most deplorable situation is in the North region, where only 34% of the households are connected to the water pipe. Access to water supply for the Central (41.1%) and South (54.3%) regions is higher. The sewerage system, toilet and bathroom are least accessible for population from the Central region. Housing amenities do not seem to depend on the sex of the household head. Even if there are some minor differences in the share of households headed by men or women in terms of bathroom availability or hot water installation in homes, these are mainly determined by the availability of these services in that region, and to some extent the overall household 'wellbeing' (NBS, 2012)
- **Transport:** There is no data available to indicate women's restricted access to public transport services.
- **Fuel and electricity:** The municipality of Chisinau is well connected to hot water (87.7%) and gas (90.1) services when compared to the rest of the country. Specifically, the North region population's access to hot water (18.8%) and gas (29.7%) is the lowest, followed by the Centre (hot water: 21.1%; gas:40.5%) and South (hot water: 31.4%; gas: 64.6%) regions (NBS, 2012)
- **Education:** Overall, gender gaps in net primary enrolment and completion rates are negligible, while net enrolment rates for both girls and boys at the secondary level are similar. However, boys and girls pursue different disciplines at the secondary level, leading to future occupational segregation. Gross enrolment rates for girls in higher education stood at 44% in 2010, compared to 33% for boys.
- **Health:** Male mortality in Moldova is high and of greatest concern; it is mainly attributed to road accidents and deaths resulting from alcohol abuse and homicides. In Moldova, alcohol consumption per capita for men is the highest in the world and is the leading health risk factor. In the past decade,

¹³ Data from NBS (2012) are analysed by region, as follows: Chisinau municipality, Centre, North and South regions.

female mortality declined in Moldova but still remains higher than that in ECA (147 versus 116 per 1000 in 2009). Notably, male mortality rate is still double the female mortality rate. Abortions are frequently conducted in unhygienic conditions using unsafe methods thus risking the health of Moldovan women, as a third of pregnancies end in abortion (World Bank, 2014).

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

Access to employment

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

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

- *Education:* There is gender segregation in education with more women and girls students in the education (72%), health care (69%), economy (63%), and arts (62%) fields of study. Men and boys are concentrated in physical culture and sports (80%), industry (65%), law (57%) and agriculture (55%) fields of study (World Bank 2014)
 - *Geographic location:* There is about an eight percentage point difference between the activity rates of urban and rural women and about a six percentage point difference between the employment rates of urban and rural women. This is mainly because the majority of the rural population is engaged in subsistence agriculture (usually not captured by national statistics). According to government statistics in 2014, 15.5% of men and 7.8% of women of working age were working abroad or looking for work abroad (United Nations, 2015)
 - *Social norms and values:* Among the factors for women's lower labour force participation in rural areas may be patriarchal norms that discourage women from actively seeking employment (World Bank, 2014)
 - *Family and marital status:* Employers have been said to discriminate against women with children (World Bank, 2014)
- **Horizontal segregation:** There is persistent gender segregation in traditionally female-dominated fields of study at the post-secondary level and women's underrepresentation in engineering, technological and other fields of education, negatively affecting their chances of integration into higher-paying sectors of the labour market (CEDAW 2013).
 - **Vertical segregation:** Women are overrepresented in the lowest paying sectors and jobs. Legislation stipulates different mandatory retirement ages for men and women (57 years for women and 62 years for men), resulting in unequal retirement, reinforcement of stereotypes and higher poverty rates among older women (CEDAW 2013). The overprotective maternity leave (126 days) in combination with the lack of paternity leave may reinforce the unequal division of family responsibilities between women and men.
 - **Gender pay gap:** There is a high gender pay gap and women's average monthly earnings are approximately 25.6% of men's (UNECE, 2011), which is comparable to other countries in the region

such as Ukraine and Belarus. The principle of equal pay for work of equal value is not implemented thus resulting to a persistent gender pay gap.

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

Access to finance/property

- **Land ownership:** Women and men have equal rights to own and access land in Moldova. According to the General Agricultural Census in Moldova (2011), the share of agricultural farms managed by women is 36.3% and 63.7% by men. Women's farms are mostly in the age group 65 years old and over (53.3%). Women's right to own property is irrespective of their marital status or type of marriage. The partial community of property regime means that all property purchased during a marriage is jointly owned by the spouses, while each spouse retains individual ownership of any property purchased prior to the marriage. According to SIGI (2014), real estate property is often inherited by the youngest son in the family, who is expected to care for his parents in their old age.
- **Access to credit:** Access to finance is an issue for both female and male owned firms regardless of the sector in which they operate. Data indicates that 19% of women compared to 16.4% of men have a bank account at a formal financial institution (WB Findex, 2014). Women are slightly more likely than men to use informal sources of financing.
- **Women's entrepreneurship:** The share of women-entrepreneurs in Moldova (27.5%) is comparable to the EU whereby on average women amount to 30% of the entrepreneurs (National Bureau of Statistics, 2012)
- The 2013 WB IFC Enterprise Survey found that 47.3% of surveyed firms have female participation in ownership, which is above the average for Eastern Europe and Central Asia (30.9%). Out of those, 56.9% are in the manufacturing sector. 25.7% of firms have a female top manager. Firms owned by women are more concerned about high levels of taxation and corruption than men are, but are still predominantly concerned about access to finance and a poorly educated labour force.

The profiles of women and men entrepreneurs differ as follows: (a) Women entrepreneurs are less educated than men (64% of female and 70% of male entrepreneurs have higher education); (2) Unlike most men, women tend to have little or no prior experience in entrepreneurship (50% of women and 0.2% of men were mainly carrying out household tasks before becoming entrepreneurs) (3) Women tend to manage micro-enterprises and not engage in export; (4) Women usually borrow funds to start a business from relatives; (5) Women often establish enterprises in the following sectors: trade, hotel, restaurant and real estate; and (6) Women tend to work more at new or young enterprises (Aculai, 2009).

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

Decision Making

- **Representation in national parliaments, local government and the judiciary:** No quotas have been introduced for women in either parliament or local government. Candidate lists of political parties are also not required to include female candidates. The representation of women in parliament is low, at 22.8% (IPU, 2014), but higher than other countries in the region in Azerbaijan (16.9%) or Armenia (10.7%). However, in 2012 the representation of women at local levels of government and the judiciary was low (World Bank 2014). There are no women justices on the constitutional court (WB/IFC, 2015).
- **Labour legislation/industry restrictions:** Women have limited decision-making power on the type of employment they can do. The Moldovan Labour Code prohibits women from heavy work and harmful working conditions, including underground work, with the exception of work in sanitary services and work not requiring physical effort. It is also forbidden for women to lift and carry heavy weights (according to Government Decision No. 264 of 6 October 1993). This limits the range of jobs that women can hold, leads to occupational segregation and women's confinement to low-paying sectors and activities, which also further exacerbates gender pay gap.

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

		Female	Male	Female & Male
Labour market	Labour force participation (% of female/male population aged 15+ years that are economically active) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	38	45	41
	Self-employment (% of female, male and combined employed population who are own-account workers) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	27.6	37.7	
	Informal employment (% of total employment) <i>ILOStat 2016</i>	27.1	34.7	14
	Unpaid family work (% of all employees who are classified as 'contributing family workers, by gender) <i>ILOStat, 2013</i>	3.5	1.3	-
	Unemployment rate (15+ years) (% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	2.6	4.2	3.4
	Public sector employment (distribution of all employees by gender and institutional sector) <i>NBS, 2011</i>	35	21	
	Gender pay gap (Women's average earnings as a % of men's monthly average earnings), <i>UNECE 2011</i>	25.6		
Business	Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all enterprises which are registered) <i>WB Enterprise Survey, 2013</i>	47.3		
	Bank account at formal financial institution (% of population with an account at a bank, credit union,	19	16.4	17.8

		Female	Male	Female & Male
	other financial institution or the post office) <i>WB Findex, 2014</i>			
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% of population who report borrowing money from a bank, credit union, microfinance institution, or other financial institution such as a cooperative) <i>WB Findex, 2011</i>	50.6	44.9	47.9
Business Government	Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) <i>IPU, 2014</i>	22.8	77.2	-

6.7 Mongolia gender profile^{vii}

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

<p>Key points</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mongolia is a multi-party parliamentary democracy. Its large territory is sparsely populated by a small population (under 3 million) that is mainly of Mongol descent (85%). Minority groups include Kazakhs (4%), Dorvod (3%) and Bayad (2%). • The country has experienced rapid levels of economic growth in recent years (peaking at 17.5% in 2011), spurred on by the major expansion of the mining sector, which now represents around 20% of GDP (WB, 2014a). Agriculture (including livestock herding) remains a key sector, but is diminishing in importance, and large numbers of rural residents have migrated to urban areas as a result of deteriorating rural livelihoods. • Mongolia’s legal framework is supportive of formal gender equality; however, there are still gaps in gender equality in practice. Deep-rooted social norms stem from nomadic-pastoralist traditions, in which there is a clear division of labour, with men in charge of economic production and women responsible for household responsibilities and childcare.
<p>Access to services</p>	<p>Rural-urban divide</p> <p>Rural populations’ needs and demands are often not met because of a lack of basic services, infrastructures and modern facilities, which are challenging to build and maintain over Mongolia’s vast but sparsely populated territory (Gov. of Mongolia, 2011). Overall mortality rates are higher among rural communities, which are attributed to a lack of access to medical services and clean water and sanitation facilities (UN Special Rapporteur, 2013).</p> <p>Around half of the population lives in Ulaanbaatar (USAID, 2010), where access to services has been affected by a large wave of rural to urban migration. Many rural migrants have settled around Ulaanbaatar in gers, the traditional Mongolian herder tents: the population of the ger areas is now estimated to make up about 60% of the total population of UB (WB, 2010a). This large-scale migration has placed additional pressure on hospitals, schools, roads, water supply and engineering facilities, and has resulted in a shortage of housing.</p> <p>Water and sanitation</p> <p>Due to climate change and limited water resources, access to water is considered one of Mongolia’s biggest socio-economic problems, especially in rural areas. It is estimated that only 24% of the total population receive piped water directly in their homes (33% in urban areas); in rural areas, this proportion decreases to 2% (WHO/UNICEF JMP, 2014). An estimated 65% of the urban population and 100 % of the rural population must collect water from sources outside their homes (Hawkins and Seager, 2009). Collecting water is largely regarded as a woman’s or child’s task in Mongolia. In practice, men and women are both significantly involved</p>

	<p>in water collection, but women perform the majority of water collection when done by hand, especially in rural areas (Hawkins and Seager, 2009).</p> <p>Some 32% of the rural population do not have access to any type of sanitary facilities (WHO/UNICEF JMP, 2014). Households in <i>ger</i> districts use pit latrines that have no ventilation (WB, 2010a). Various donors have offered programmes to improve latrines in these areas, but these have had limited impact (WB, 2010a).</p> <p>Transport</p> <p>Transportation costs reportedly increased as a result of the global financial crisis. This has had an impact on poorer workers, including women, who left formal wage employment for informal activities because the costs of transportation to go to work were too high (Reva et.al, 2011).</p> <p>Fuel and electricity</p> <p>Given harsh weather conditions, reliable and affordable heating is a key issue for Mongolian households. However, inadequate heating systems and fuel sources are contributing to worsening air quality in Ulaanbaatar and serious health risks (UN Special Rapporteur, 2013). The main sources of energy used by women for cooking in Mongolia include wood (34%), dung (23.3%) and coal (19.4%) (WB, 2011). Collecting dung for heating and cooking is generally a female task (Reva et.al, 2011). Because they remain primarily responsible for cooking and other indoor tasks, women could face health risks from exposure to indoor pollutants.</p> <p>Education</p> <p>A gender gap is observable at the highest levels of education. Girl's enrolment in tertiary education stands at 72%, compared to 50% for boys (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2012). Women are also reportedly more likely than men to seek additional training after leaving school (ADB, 2010). About two-thirds of the university graduates in 2009 were female (ADB, 2014). This is believed to reflect the general trend in Mongolia for families to invest more in girls' education than boys'. Boys are more frequently withdrawn from school to help earn income (ADB, 2014). As a result, educational attainment tends to be lower among male youth (ADB, 2010).</p> <p>Health</p> <p>Women generally enjoy equal access to health services in Mongolia, but there are some barriers, especially in rural areas (Gov. of Mongolia, 2011). Both men and women are at a higher risk of suffering from high blood pressure compared to regional averages (WHO, 2014).</p> <p>Childcare</p> <p>Only 11% of poor families have children in preschool. According to some reports, Mongolian families have to pay bribes in order to secure a place for their children in a childcare facility (Bazilli, 2012). It is believed that women's unpaid care workload</p>
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	<p>has increased since transition. Reductions in health and social services resulted in women having to spend more time caring for the young, sick, and elderly (ADB, 2010). Women spend roughly twice the amount of time as men on household and care duties, and this does not decline even when they are engaged in paid productive work in the labour market (WB, 2013).</p>
<p>Access to employment</p>	<p>Labour Force Participation (LFP)</p> <p>Female labour force participation stood at 57% in 2014 compared to 69.8% for men (LFS via ILOSTAT). This is a similar level to that of Central Asian countries (59%), but below the average for countries in the East Asia and the Pacific region (70%) (WB, 2012).</p> <p>Horizontal segregation</p> <p>There are strong patterns of gender-based occupational segregation: women are not encouraged to enter jobs that are deemed “unsuitable and unsafe” and it is considered that women should be protected from “hard jobs” (WB, 2013a). This tends to close off new employment opportunities for women in emerging sectors such as mining and mechanical engineering. In contrast, sectors with typically higher shares of female employment (such as the public sector) are currently shrinking (ADB, 2010).</p> <p>Vertical segregation</p> <p>Mongolian workplaces remain vertically segregated, although female representation in top management positions is relatively high by regional standards. A little more than 36% of businesses have a female top manager (vs 29.4% for East Asia and Pacific) (WB/IFC, 2013). The likelihood of having a woman as a female top manager is higher in small businesses (42%) than in medium-size businesses (32.4%) or large businesses (14.4%) (WB/IFC, 2013). Women are generally concentrated in mid-low level managerial and support staff positions both in the public and private sector (WB, 2013).</p> <p>Women in informal employment</p> <p>There is a significant informal economy in Mongolia, with an estimated 66% of the economically active population working in the informal economy, mostly in agriculture (WB, 2013). There is no gender-disaggregated data on informal employment, but it is thought that women are more likely than men to work informally. Over a third (35.1%) of Mongolian women who take part in the labour force are unpaid family workers (vs 10.3% of men) (WB, 2013b). Also, women account for an estimated 65% of informal traders or ‘street vendors’ in Mongolia (ADB/ILO, 2011). The gender wage gap is thought to persist in the informal economy: it is estimated that informal women workers earn on average only half of men’s wages (ADB, 2010).</p> <p>Gender pay gap</p> <p>There is a persistent gender wage gap in Mongolia: on average, women earn 81% of men’s monthly wages (2011 data via ILOSTAT). The wage gap is particularly pronounced in manufacturing, mining and financial sectors (WB, 2013). Women in high-level positions such as managers, specialists and engineers earn on average</p>

	<p>19-30% less than men (ADB, 2011). The gender wage gap is widening rather than closing (Ronnas, 2011). In 2000, women’s average wage was 92% of men’s average wage; by 2007, it had fallen to 86%; and by 2011 it was 83% (Ronnas, 2011). To a certain extent, this reflects an overrepresentation of women in low-wage sectors such as trade, and the overrepresentation of men in high-wage sectors such as mining and construction; however, the gender wage gap has also increased within individual sectors (Ronnas, 2011). According to ILO (2014), the government is trying to address the issue by increasing women’s employment in higher paid sectors and occupations, including mining and heavy machinery operation.</p>
<p>Access to finance/property</p>	<p>Ownership of land and other assets</p> <p>The law grants equal rights to men and women in terms of ownership of land and other assets. Women enjoy relatively high levels of land ownership, although the majority of land remains held by men (USAID, 2010). Approximately 49% of land titles in Ulaanbaatar and 36% of land titles in 8 regional aimag (provincial) centres have female participation in ownership (MCC, 2011). This is significantly higher than in Central Asian countries such as the Kyrgyz Republic (where 13% of land titles are owned by women), Kazakhstan (where 9% of farms are owned by women) and Tajikistan (where 8% of farms are owned by women) (UNESCAP, 2012; ADB, 2013; NAST, 2012). While titles in just one name are generally registered in the male name, most titles are registered in multiple names, indicating the value of continuing this practice to ensure women’s land rights (MCC, 2011). Despite the default property regime of joint ownership in marriage, assets acquired during marriage (including businesses) are more likely to be registered in the husband’s name: 58% of asset registrations are in the husband’s name, compared to 34% in the wife’s name (ADB, 2011; US Dept of State, 2014).</p> <p>Access to credit and financial services</p> <p>For women and men alike, lack of collateral is thought to be a major barrier to accessing credit. This is because bank lending in Mongolia is almost exclusively collateral-based, with immovable assets being the predominant form of collateral (Buckley and Rynhart, 2011). The required value of collateral to loans is high, which means that the size of loans is usually constrained by the value of collateral (Dulamragchaa and Izumida, 2011). Collateral requirements can pose particular challenges for women, as they are likely to own less land and other assets than men.</p> <p>Women’s entrepreneurship</p> <p>The World Bank / IFC Enterprise Survey indicates that women have an ownership share in 39% of Mongolia’s businesses, which is low by East Asian standards (the average is 55% for East Asia and Pacific) but closer to the Central Asian average of 36% (WB / IFC, 2013; WB, 2012). According to the WB/IFC Enterprise Survey, 35% of small businesses and 39% of medium-size businesses have female participation in ownership. This proportion rises to 88.4% for large businesses,</p>

	<p>which is very high compared to other countries in the region such as Kazakhstan (12.5%) and the Kyrgyz Republic (45.3%) (WB and IFC, 2013).</p> <p>Types of small business activities performed by women in Mongolia are thought to include running food stores, cafes and motorbike parts stores as well as spinning wool, producing souvenirs or making shoes (Reva et. al, 2011). In urban areas such as Ulaanbaatar, women entrepreneurs are reportedly actively involved in activities including tourism, manufacturing and trade (Aramand 2013).</p> <p>Women entrepreneurs have repeatedly identified insufficient access to finance and business development services as major constraints to doing business in Mongolia (IFC, 2014). Because of limited employment opportunities for women, Mongolian women are also less likely to have acquired the necessary managerial skills and experience to start a business in their previous careers (WB, 2013).</p>
<p>Decision making</p>	<p>Representation in national parliaments:</p> <p>Women’s political representation sharply decreased following the transition, from 25% of women Parliamentarians in 1990 to less than 5% in 2010. There is now a 20% legal quota policy in the 2012 Electoral law for women in Parliament, although there are no penalties for non-compliance (UNDP, 2012). There is a 40% quota for women in local government (WB, 2014).</p> <p>Impact of parental status</p> <p>There is evidence to suggest that parental status has an impact on Mongolian women’s participation in the labour force. Research indicates that the presence of children aged 15 years or younger in a household reduces the probability of female labour force participation (WB, 2013). According to Pastore (2009), the share of long-term and very long-term unemployment is significantly higher for young women with children.</p> <p>Parental status also influences the type of jobs chosen by women. Following the global financial crisis, some organisations reportedly chose to hire men over women for fear of incurring losses due to women’s entitlement to maternity leave (Reva et.al, 2011).</p>

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

		Female	Male	Female & Male
Labour market	Labour force participation (% of women, men and combined working age population that are economically active) (2014 LFS data via ILOSTAT)	57	69.8	-
	Self-employment (% of female, male and combined employed population who are self-employed) (2011 data via WB, 2013)	55	62	N/A

		Female	Male	Female & Male
	Informal employment (% of women, men and combined working age population that work in the informal economy) (2009 LFS via WB, 2013)	N/A	N/A	66
	Unpaid family work (% of active population that are unpaid family workers) (2011 data via WB, 2013)	35.1	10.3	N/A
	Unemployment rate (15+ years) (% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) (2014 LFS via ILOSTAT)	4.8	4.9	-
	Public sector employment (% of workforce that is employed by government) (2012 LFS via ILOSTAT)	13.2	11.2	24.4
	Child labour (% of girls & boys who are child labourers – i.e. those aged 5-17 working in contravention of ILO C138 or 182) (UNICEF, 2012)	10.6	10.3	10.4
	Gender pay gap (unadjusted and calculated as the difference between average earnings of men and average earnings of women expressed as a percentage of average earnings of men) (2015 data via ILOSTAT)	11.1		
Business	Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all firms) (WB Enterprise Surveys, 2013)	37.8		
	Bank account at formal financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) (WB FINDEX database, 2014)	93.2	90.3	N/A
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) (WB FINDEX database, 2011)	43	48.8	N/A
Government	Representation in national parliament (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) (IPU, 2016)	17.1	82.9	[100]

6.8 Serbia gender profile^{viii}

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

<p>Key points</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Republic of Serbia is a unitary parliamentary constitutional republic, with a population of 7 million. • The gender equality index in the Republic of Serbia is 40.6%, and the index of the EU-28 Member States is 52.9%. This number indicates that Serbia is lagging behind in achieving gender equality when compared to European standards. The greatest success in terms of gender equality has been achieved in the domain of decision-making power at the national level, which shows that the introduction of quotas for women’s political participation has been successful. On the other hand, the biggest setback in achieving gender equality in relation to the EU-28 was recorded in terms of women’s participation in the labour market and women’s access to financial resources.
<p>Access to services</p>	<p>Education</p> <p>The gap in the participation rates in tertiary education has been growing in favour of women. Gender segregation in educational fields remains high though, with much more concentrated female students in the areas of social sciences, humanities and arts.</p> <p>Health</p> <p>There are not prominent gender gaps in terms of access to health care. In 2014 among women was recorded slightly more persons with unmet needs for medical examinations (0.7 percentage points).</p> <p>Childcare:</p> <p>Labour force participation rates drop for women in childbearing years, and only 13% of children under the age of three in Serbia were enrolled in child care centres between 2010 and 2011 (UNECE 2010). This situation is even more pressing among the Roma population, where women’s employment rates are particularly low.</p>
<p>Access to employment</p>	<p>Labour Force Participation (LFP)</p> <p>Female labour force participation at 44.6% is particularly low, in part due to legislation on social security contributions, to the lack of affordable access to early childhood education and childcare for women during childbearing years and to cultural attitudes about gender equality. While achieving universal access to early childhood education is an essential long term developmental goal, increased access for low-income groups and Roma should be given priority. Measures addressing constraints to part-time work, however, can be taken in the short term. While primary and secondary enrolment rates are similar, in labour markets gender gaps become more salient.</p>

	<p>Horizontal segregation</p> <p>Gender differences in time use, limited child care enrolment, and skills profiles contribute to employment segregation and act as constraints on women’s ability to work and become entrepreneurs (USAID 2010).</p> <p>Vertical segregation</p> <p>Serbia is ranked higher than half of the EU Member States in terms of women’s decision-making power. This is partly the consequence of the introduction of legal quotas for the representation of lower represented gender (women) in the legislative bodies – National and Provincial Parliaments which is still not achieved in a number of EU Member States. However, this should not distract the attention for still prominent gender gaps in this domain: women’s representation in the national parliament stands at 34%, while 21% of Ministers are women and 19% of the regional assemblies are women. Only 15% of members of boards in largest quoted companies are women.</p> <p>Gender pay gap</p> <p>A gender wage gap exists at 16.7% and is highest among low skilled workers, where it is more than 20 percent (Avlijas et al. 2013).</p> <p>Women in informal employment</p> <p>In 2014, the female share of the informally employed in total employment was 23.5% for women and 20.9% for men (EIGE, 2016).</p>
<p>Access to finance/property</p>	<p>Land ownership</p> <p>Women and men have equal rights to own and access land and property other than land, under the Constitution (CEDAW, 2006), but respect for traditional customs might sometimes restrict women’s ownership rights. In rural areas, women often do not have de facto access to land, as if women buy or inherit land, tradition obliges them to register it in the name of their husband or another close male relative. The 2011 CEDAW report notes that a survey conducted in 2008 in one rural area found that women made up 10% of landowners. In Serbia, 18% of agricultural holdings were held by women (Cozzarelli, 2010). According to the official CEDAW report (2011), just 0.2% of property registered to Roma is registered in the name of Roma women.</p> <p>Access to credit</p> <p>According to USAID, women often experience difficulty in obtaining credit, because few women own property or land to act as collateral (USAID/Cozzarelli, 2010).</p> <p>Women’s entrepreneurship</p> <p>The 2013 WB IFC Enterprise Survey found that 29.8% of surveyed firms have female participation in ownership, below the average for Eastern Europe and Central Asia (30%). Only 14.3% of firms have a female top manager.</p>

Decision making	<p>Representation in national parliaments:</p> <p>Under the Law on Election of Members of Parliament, for every three candidates on an electoral list, one must be of the underrepresented sex. This is the case for national elections and local elections (SIGI, 2014).</p> <p>Patriarchal norms and values related to the sexual division of labour</p> <p>Stereotypes relating to gender roles remain strong in Serbia, with men considered to be the head of the household, and the role of breadwinner closely linked with that of being a 'real' man (World Bank, 2011). Women are seen as primarily responsible for childcare and domestic work in the home. Reflecting this, mothers receive an allowance from the state for their first, second, third, and fourth children (CEDAW, 2011).</p>
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Table 10. Key indicators: Women and men in the Serbia economy

		Female	Male	All
Labour market	Labour force participation (% of population that are economically active) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	44.6	61.1	
	Unemployment rate (15+ years) (% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed but available for and seeking employment) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	25.9	19.4	-
	Gender pay gap (women's average earnings as a % of men's average earnings), UNECE 2015	16.7		
Business	Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all enterprises which are registered) <i>WB Enterprise Survey, 2013</i>	29.8		
	Bank account at formal financial institution (% of population with an account at a bank, credit union, other financial institution or the post office) <i>WB Findex, 2014</i>	83	83.2	-
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% of population who report borrowing money from a bank, credit union, microfinance institution, or other financial institution such as a cooperative) <i>WB Findex, 2014</i>	8.2	9.6	-
Political participation	Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) <i>IPU, 2016¹⁴</i>	34	66	[100%]

6.9 Tunisia gender profile^{ix}

Key Points

- The Republic of Tunisia is a constitutional republic with a multi-party system. Islam is the State religion, and 98% of the population is Muslim. The country is still undergoing a political transition initiated by the 2011 Revolution, which led to the removal of President Ben Ali and marked the beginning of the political transition.⁷
- In general, Tunisia is regarded as the most progressive country on women's rights in the SEMED region; in practice, however, Tunisian society also remains governed by social norms that define women as caregivers and homemakers and men as breadwinners. Despite the Tunisian Code of Personal Status has been one of the most liberal in the region, its enforcement remains challenging for certain aspects. Women's access to the public sphere is often conditional on their ability to simultaneously continue to fulfil their domestic responsibilities.
- Tunisian women's socio-economic status is strongly affected by their place of residence and level of education. Rural women are more likely to be illiterate than their urban counterparts and less likely to be economically active or have access to prenatal care.

Access to services

Transport

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

Education

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

Health

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

Childcare

Pre-primary education is free for children aged 3 to 6 years (*Loi d'orientation sur l'éducation et l'enseignement scolaire*, art.4; 16). An estimated 44.3% of Tunisian children are enrolled in pre-primary education (MISC4, 2013). Ben Salem (2010) reports that women in modern Tunisia have less opportunity to benefit from the traditional support of their mothers, mothers-in-law, or sisters to help with childcare and housework, in part because these women may have their own careers or live some distance away. As a result, women who are strongly attached to their traditional domestic role reportedly suffer career

setbacks, and those who concentrate on their career rely on paid domestic help when they cannot count on family support (Ben Salem, 2010).

Access to Finance

Access to credit

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

Land ownership

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

Women's entrepreneurship

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

Inheritance rights

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

Access to employment

Labour market participation

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

Discrimination in recruitment

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

Unemployment

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

Horizontal segregation

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

Vertical Segregation

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

Informal employment

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

The gender pay gap

There is a persistent gender wage gap. Women earn on average 75% of men's wages: women's average monthly wages are estimated at 459 TND (€ 207), compared to 615 TND (€277) for men. The 165 TND (€ 74) difference corresponds to 34% of women's wages (ILO/CRES, 2012). Research on the distribution of salaries suggests that, while the gap between men and women is not significant for small earners (those

who earn between 200 and 400 TND (€90-180) per month), it widens as salaries increase. Moreover, far more women than men earn less than 200 TND (€90) per month (Ben Salem, 2010).

Agriculture

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

Decision Making

Representation in national parliaments, local government and the judiciary

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

Labour legislation/industry restrictions

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

Decision making in households

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

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

		Female	Male	Female & Male
Labour market	Labour force participation (labour force as a % of population over 15 years old) (ILO estimation, 2015)	27%	73%	-

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

Note: For further statistical data see Annex I. No data for % of women on boards.

Annex 7. Gender strategy advisory services in the Green Cities Facility

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

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

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

1. Gender assessment and baseline data setting:

- 1.1. Municipal sector gender assessments that further contextualise gender profiles (Annex 5) relevant to the Facility will be developed in order to better understand the distinct vulnerabilities of women and men and ensure that the Facility's activities address the different needs and priorities of women and men in beneficiary cities. The assessments will complement the existing profiles by providing more nuanced information on gender inequalities in terms of the sub-sectors in which the investments are envisaged.
- 1.2. Mainstream gender in the preparation and development of Green City Action Plans: the objective is to ensure that the planned work under GCAP (e.g. technical assessment which looks at social impacts amongst others as well as stakeholder-based prioritization) integrates the needs and priorities of men and women where relevant. The EBRD will ensure that the consultant teams contracted to prepare GCAPs include a suitably qualified social/gender expert.
- 1.3. At an investment level: all EBRD investments are subject to environmental, social and gender due diligence. MEI projects require systematic gender assessments within feasibility studies so as to better inform design; the requirement that all stakeholder engagement plans be gender-responsive to better inform delivery; and that corporate development plans address the needs of men and women for enhanced sustainability. It is assumed that standard due diligence, which

accompanies each investment, will in most cases be sufficient to develop a gender baseline. Should the gender assessment not be robust enough due to lack of data, which is sometimes the case especially in the area of municipal services, GCF funding will be used to undertake a detailed assessment (1.1) and to enhance the analysis.

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

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

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

3.1. Policy support on gender equality to foster an enabling environment for green city investments: facilitating access to employment or services via direct investments is not often sufficient to economically empower women unless institutions, laws, policies and social norms allow women to access and benefit from arising economic opportunities on the same footing as men. For example, women, girls and boys often suffer harassment on public transport as a result of inadequate lighting, poor security, crowded carriages or unsuitable infrastructure. There are numerous policy issues that create impediments to equality of economic opportunities and include discriminatory laws and discriminatory norms which adversely affect women's ability to participate in the economy; legal restrictions relating to women's working hours and the professions women can pursue or the absence of legislation, which penalises all forms of harassment or gender-based violence in the work place and public spaces, which affect women's rights and capabilities. For example, women in many countries across the world including in 6 countries of the Facility's region face some sort of legal barrier to employment, such as partial or complete employment bans in a number of occupations¹⁵, or restrictions on working hours, sectors and occupations that limit the range of jobs that women can hold and which lead to occupational segregation and women's confinement to low-paying sectors and activities. Most of these industries with employment bans for women are also the highest paid, which further exacerbates existing gender pay gap.

¹⁵ such as mining or construction, jobs requiring lifting objects above a certain weight, jobs considered too hazardous for women, jobs considered too arduous or morally inappropriate for women

In order to be effective in achieving 'greener' practices, diverse groups of citizens, women and men alike, need to be able to fully participate in and benefit from the Green Cities investments. The Facility proposes to provide policy support to foster an enabling environment for the Green Cities investments via policy dialogue on gender equality and women's economic empowerment. In line with the anticipated pipeline and the results of the GCAP assessment, the EBRD will engage in policy dialogue with relevant stakeholders at national, regional and municipal levels. Key themes for policy dialogue might include safe transport for all and increasing their awareness of gender-specific needs in transport; the importance of incorporating gender concerns into the design and delivery of municipal services; including provision of inclusive transport, water, waste water services and district heating and cooling systems.

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

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

Reporting and evaluation:

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

Annex 8. Gender Action Plan: Gender Advisory Services activities and expected results

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

<p>be gender-sensitive¹⁶</p> <p>(ii) GCAPs developed will include gender considerations</p>	<p>Concerns and questions raised by women and men are documented and addressed in GCAP, where appropriate.</p> <p>Evidence of gender reflected in social analysis undertaken for the preparation of GCAP (evidenced in GCAP technical assessments and stakeholder-based prioritisation).</p>	<p>are held on GCAPs</p> <p>(ii) Upon GCAP completion</p>	
<p>Gender assessments will be undertaken for all investments in pre-investment due diligence (i.e. within feasibility studies, environmental and social due diligence, stakeholder engagement) and will:</p> <p>(i) Identify any investment-specific potential gender adverse impacts and develop measures to mitigate¹⁷ them; evidence of the assessments delivered as part of the due diligence.</p> <p>(ii) Collect and present sex-disaggregated employment statistics of the service provider companies (e.g. number and % of women and men both in absolute terms and across positions).</p> <p>(iii) Analyse the infrastructure and services provision of the service provider companies from a gender perspective.</p>	<p>Number of pre-investment due diligence deliverables (reports or other) that include a gender assessment, sex-disaggregated employment statistics and an analysis of gender-sensitive service provision</p>	<p>On a rolling basis, at the time of the pre-investment due diligence</p>	<p>EBRD's E&S consultants who undertake Environment and Social Due diligence for each investment funded by GCF</p> <p>EBRD Gender Consultant funded by GCF</p>

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

¹⁷ In addition to the mitigation of potential gender adverse impacts in all GCF-supported investments, these gender assessments undertaken during pre-investment phase are expected to identify opportunities to enhance positive gender impact of projects by promoting gender equality with respect to access to services and employment (See the output 2 below)

<p>Output 2: Gender Advisory Services provided to service providers and municipalities to promote gender equality in their operations (both in terms of gender-sensitive service provision and women’s access to employment)</p>			
<p>At the investment level, based on the findings of the pre-investment gender assessment Technical Co-operation (TC) programmes will be designed and implemented to support municipal service providers promote equal access to employment for women and men in their respective workforce</p>	<p>Up to 4 investments in the Facility introduce a gender component to promote women’s access to employment in the relevant sub-sector.</p> <p>Number and % of women and men (employees as well as future recruits of the service provider companies) benefiting from capacity building and training opportunities provided by the Facility.</p> <p>Number and % of people trained is women (to be benchmarked against the baseline).</p> <p>Improved HR policies and practices with respect to gender (e.g. gender action plans approved and implemented by the service providers; improved/new HR policies and practices) (evidence provided by the clients).</p> <p>Increased female representation in the service providers’ workforce, both in absolute terms and across positions including high skilled roles that are male –dominated such as drivers and technical maintenance (% - to be benchmarked against baseline).</p>	<p>On a rolling basis, as sub-projects come through</p>	<p>EBRD Consultant funded by GCF</p>

<p>At the investment level, based on the findings of the pre-investment gender assessment Technical Cooperation (TC) programmes will be designed and implemented to support municipal service providers introduce gender-responsive infrastructure and services</p>	<p>Up to 4 investments in the Facility introduce a gender component in the area of gender-sensitive infrastructure and services.</p> <p>Number of recommendations¹⁸ provided to municipal service providers implemented</p> <p>Improved infrastructure design and service delivery that integrates gender considerations (measured against the baseline data collected during the pre-investment due diligence and recommendations provided).</p>	<p>On a rolling basis, as sub-projects come through</p>	<p>EBRD Consultant funded by GCF</p>
<p>Output 3: Policy dialogue activities to help foster an enabling environment to realise women’s economic opportunities</p>			
<p>Where and as applicable, the EBRD will work closely with eligible clients on policy dialogue activities to improve the regulatory and policy environment with a view to promoting women’s economic opportunities. Specifically the EBRD will support eligible sub-project clients to:</p> <p>(i) Based on findings from the gender assessments and through advisory services support, undertake a legal, regulatory and policy review at sub-</p>	<p>Areas for future policy dialogue activities to promote women’s economic opportunities identified</p> <p>Number of relevant policy dialogue roadmaps produced</p> <p>Increased awareness of relevant</p>	<p>By the Facility’s end date</p>	<p>EBRD supported by the EBRD Consultant funded by GCF</p>

¹⁸ Recommendations will be based on the results of the gender assessment and may include but not be limited to the following: design transport infrastructure with gender-responsive physical design features; improve mobility and safety for all passengers, men and women alike who were less mobile/ immobile due to unsafe/inconvenient transport; amend transport schedules and payment arrangements considering different travel patterns of women and men (off-peak hours, less affordability, etc.) (**transport**); Accessibility and design of solid waste collection points so that they meet the needs of both men and women (**solid waste**); to provide lay-out of streets, pedestrian areas and traffic control mechanisms that enhance personal safety and provide harassment-free and accessible public space for all, men and women (**street lighting**); to consider access, use and affordability questions in the delivery of water and wastewater infrastructure as well as district heating services for the most vulnerable groups of population (poor, female-headed households, etc.). Ensure that mechanisms to receive inquiries and complaints are designed to accommodate the needs of both men and women customers, reflecting their respective preferences in terms of channels for filing complaints (such as telephone hotline, mail or in person meetings) (**water and sanitation, district heating** as well as the rest of the municipal service providers). **This is neither a comprehensive nor an accurate list of recommendations that will be applicable to all service providers but rather some of the indicative actions that may be recommended (alongside others) in line with the results of the gender assessment.**

<p>project level to identify potential barriers to women's employment, specifically jobs and occupations that women are legally prohibited from accessing</p> <p>(ii) Develop and implement a comprehensive plan to ensure women and men are able to equally access opportunities connected to operations in terms of direct technical and operations skills and employment</p> <p>(iii) Increased employment and enterprise opportunities for women and men</p>	<p>stakeholders of policy and legal constraints to women's employment (e.g. attendance by the city administrators and other key stakeholders, e.g. policy makers of the events to discuss the suggested policy reforms, their active participation and adoption of the recommendations provided by the EBRD).</p> <p>Improved policy and legal environment for women's employment and gender-sensitive services provision (e.g. gender-sensitive municipal practices introduced; laws/regulations changed and/or discussions/process for actual changes initiated).</p>		
<p>Output 4: Networking and learning opportunities through the Green Cities Facility's knowledge platforms</p>			
<p>Enhance knowledge and learning of EBRD clients by providing knowledge building opportunities to integrate gender considerations in green city planning and investment, through:</p> <p>(i) Green Cities forums where gender will be the focus of panels, workshops and discussions. An annual forum will include the Facility's beneficiaries, potential future beneficiary city representatives, city representatives from beyond the Facility's region and representatives from international and national organisations focused on sustainable urban development.</p> <p>(ii) Provision of gender focused capacity building workshops, facilitated through the development process for Green City Action Plans</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of panels and discussions focusing on gender held in association with an annual Green Cities forum • Number of gender focused capacity building workshops conducted as a part of the GCAP process • Number of gender professionals engaged through the Global Platform for Sustainable Cities 	<p>At the time of the delivery of workshops, on a rolling basis</p>	<p>EBRD Consultant funded by GCF</p>



(iii) Inclusion of gender topics and discussions as a part of the Global Platform for Sustainable Cities events			
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Annex 9. Indicative budget for the Gender Action Plan

DIRECT EXPENSES				
The Fees section reflects all the consultancy work required to deliver all four outputs				
1. Fees (Remuneration):				
Job Titles	In the Field (days)	In Home Office (days)	Expert Rate	Total
Project managers	90	90	1,000	180,000
Senior consultants	190	235	800	340,000
Junior consultants	225	190	600	249,000
Facility support (mid-level)	This is a lump sum for the Facility's duration (5 years)		130,000	130,000
Total Fees				899,000
2. Per Diem Allowance:				
Place	Number		Per Diem	Total
In countries participating in the GrCF	240 (80 visits x three nights)		75	18,000
Total Per Diem				18,000
REIMBURSABLE EXPENSES				
3. Air Travel: (Full Economy Class or Equivalent)				
Routing	Air Fare	No. of Flights		Total
To and from the consultants' origin and clients' destination	450	80		36,000
Total Air Travel				36,000
4. Local Travel				
(Travel from home to departure airport and return, and reasonable local travel when abroad)				
Type of travel	Cost	Number of journeys		Total
Local travel	30	90		2,700
Airport pick up/drop off	40	150		6,000
Total Local Travel				8,700
5. Knowledge sharing platform, workshop,				

knowledge products			
Type of a product	Number	Fee	Total
Workshops	3 workshops (regional)	40,000	120,000
Supporting materials for knowledge building activities		30,000	30,000
Total knowledge sharing			150,000
6. Miscellaneous:			
Item	Comment		Total
Visas			1,000
Interpretation/translation	Translation of all project documentation into local languages		10,000
Communications	Communication costs incurred locally		3,000
Other Miscellaneous Expenses	Any other miscellaneous costs that cannot be foreseen at this stage		40,000
Miscellaneous Total			54,000
<u>OTHER</u>			
6. Contingencies			
Contingencies, utilisation only after prior approval by the EBRD			84,300
TOTAL			
			EUR 1,250,000.00

Annex 10. Case studies on the promotion of gender equality in green city investments

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

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

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

Bishkek Water Project, Kyrgyz Republic, 2010-11

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

Bishkek Public Transport Project, Kyrgyz Republic, 2010-11

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

Ivano Frankivsk District Heating Project, Ukraine, 2011-12

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

Bishkek Municipal Advisory Services, Kyrgyz Republic, 2012-13

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

Istanbul Ferries Project, Turkey, 2011 - 14

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

established as part of the efforts of a task force formed under the umbrella of the World Economic Forum. Also, the Company signed up to a Gender Equality Certification program of Kagider, a Women Entrepreneurs Association in Turkey, and got certified after having met the criteria in the area of equal opportunities.

District Heating projects in Kyzylorda, Aktau and Semei, Kazakhstan, 2014

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

Almaty Bus Sector reform, Kazakhstan, 2013-15

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

Osh Public Transport Project, Kyrgyz Republic, 2015- present

In 2015 EBRD developed a Gender Advisory Services Programme for the Osh Public Transport Company after pre-investment due diligence revealed that only 20 of the Company's 236 workforce were women and that only one of the company's 164 drivers was female. The Company expressed an interest in receiving Bank support to recruit more female drivers and to also make its services more responsive to the needs of all of its passengers, including women. Since the start of this programme, EBRD-supported consultants' team has undertaken a number of activities, which included a training session to bring together key staff from the City administration and the Company to look at the following: (i) how gender perspectives can be incorporated into HR management with a view to increasing employment opportunities for women; and (ii) transport service delivery. Further to the workshop, the programme finalised an in-depth situational analysis on equal opportunity in the workplace at the Company and on gender-sensitive and inclusive service delivery, based on which a

set of recommendations has been developed. The recommendations have focused on recruiting female bus and trolley bus drivers as they are currently the most underrepresented at the Company. In cooperation with the recently established Equal Opportunities working group, EBRD Project team is currently drafting an Equal Opportunities action plan based on the study findings and recommendations. In addition, five employees from Osh Public Transport Company and the Osh Municipality have recently joined municipal transport companies from Tajikistan to take part in a four-day study tour in Taipei in April 2016, which allowed the participants to directly experience the results of public transport sector best practice in the fields of equal opportunity, workforce management and occupational health and safety, and to further cement the progress that The EBRD and the Osh authorities are making in this area.

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Gender documents for FP087

Annex 16b Gender Action Plan

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

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

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

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

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

Activities	Indicators and targets	Timelines	Responsibilities
Output 1: Integrated climate smart watershed management			
(i) Improve local capacities of woman for climate action and watershed management with special focus in female-headed households (ii) Promote women access to government forestry and agroforestry incentives supporting water recharge and productivity with special focus on female headed households	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 15,000 women in project area, at least 50% of women-headed households surveyed. • 3,000 women in project area (limitations on land ownership) 	Start date Year 1 Q3 End date Year 7 Q3 Start date Year 2 Q2 End date Year 6 Q4	EE and Execution partners EE & Execution partners
Output 2: Grant facility for Community-led climate actions channeling funding to priority areas			

<p>(iii)</p> <p>(iv)</p>	<p>Awarding and implementation of medium grants for second level CBOs with special consideration for proposals with women heading households' as direct beneficiaries</p> <p>Awarding and implementation of small grants for grassroots organizations with special consideration for proposals with women headed households' as direct beneficiaries</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least 30% of total participants in capacity building and awareness activities are female organizations At least 10% of grants goes to women organizations in the project area. at least 50% of women-headed households surveyed. 	<p>Start date Year 2 Q4 End date Year 6 Q4</p> <p>Start date Year 2 Q4 End date Year 6 Q4</p>	<p>EE and execution partners</p> <p>EE and resource agency</p>
<p>Output 3: Climate related information provided to farmers and other target stakeholders for watershed management</p>				
<p>v)</p> <p>vi)</p> <p>vii)</p>	<p>Ensure women access to information generated by data collection, modeling, forecasting, and archiving</p> <p>Design and implement a participatory early warning system for agricultural practices and water management addressing differentiated capacities to enable the involvement of female heads of household in the system</p> <p>Capacity building for relevant actors at community, municipal and national levels for operation and maintenance, data interpretation, modelling and forecasting,</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 100% of women involved in project had improved access to information 100% of women involved in project – At least 30% of women benefit from early warning systems. At least 30% of women in capacity building activities 	<p>Start date Year 1 Q4 End date Year 7 Q4</p> <p>Start date Year 2 Q1 End date Year 5 Q1</p> <p>Start date Year 2 Q1 End date Year 7 Q4</p>	<p>EE and execution partners</p> <p>EE and execution partners</p> <p>EE and execution partners</p>

NOTE: Activities in this plan are embedded in the project document, and cost estimation is included there too. The project strongly promotes women participation; then in this plan, the percentages of women participation are included in all project activities and benefits. Dedicated studies and workshops to establish the baseline regarding women situation, as well as gender gaps are explained in the logical framework, thus included in the budget.

Annex 16a

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

Gender Assessment Report

Annex 16a
Gender Assessment Report

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

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1. Project Background

- 1.1 Regarding long-term impacts of climate change in Guatemala, changes in temperature and in the hydrological cycle are also expected to impact on ecosystems, causing them to shift from humid forests to dry and very dry forests. Due to climate change, the structure, composition and function of ecosystems are expected to change. This will affect ecosystems' ability to generate goods and services and, more important, its ability to ameliorate the impacts of change. As outlined in the Feasibility Study, climate change impact will be acute in the Western Highlands of Guatemala.
- 1.2 Therefore, the project's overarching objective is to reduce the impacts of climate change on the hydrological cycle in target watersheds through improved land use practices. This will lead to improved water recharge and productivity and contribute to the population's and ecosystem's increased resilience to climate change. Project activities will be implemented in three phases under the following logic: year 1 will have a focus on inception activities and leveling the field in terms of startup capacities for the existing and proposed steering structures and stakeholders, which will guarantee full implementation potential. During year 2 through year 7, main implementation of field activities and continued capacity building will take place. From year 6, the exit strategy will be implemented together with MARN and members of the National and Local Steering Committees, to include the development of knowledge products and sustainability arrangements, operation and maintenance plans, and measurement of project impacts at the outcome level.
- 1.3 The Project will achieve its objective addressing three result areas: 1) integrated climate-sensitive watershed management adapted to the local context of the Highlands, as a central element; 2) community-led implementation of climate actions in priority areas through funding from the grant mechanism; and 3) improved multi-level and multi-stakeholder access to climate information that enhances agricultural and water management practices and programs.

2. Women situation in Guatemala

- 2.1 Guatemala is a multiethnic country, made up of four ethnic groups: Mayan, Xinca, Garífuna and Mestizo. Guatemala's projected population for 2015 is 16 million people of which 51% are women¹. The condition, situation and position of women in Guatemala are determined by inequality, inequality and hierarchies that outline the roles assigned to women and men in society, resulting in a systematic disadvantage for women².
- 2.2 In relation to poverty, a population of 13.3 in extreme poverty is reported in Guatemala for 2011, Guatemala City reports 0.7% and for the project region (the West) an average of 14.5, so it is 1.2% above the national average and 13.8% the urban population³. As for educational indicators, primary school completion has reported a slight increase in time

¹ INE. Projection of population of Guatemala disaggregated by sex. 2015

² MARN. Environmental Gender Policy. 2015.

³ INE. Extreme poverty indicator. 2011

(1995 to 2014) and the gap between men and women has been decreasing, but there is still a difference between the number of men and women (on 2011 men 68% and women 65.3%; on 2012 men 68.6 and women 66.8; on 2013 men 72% and women 71.5%)⁴; general data about education indicates that 77% of men population is literate, compared to 60% in the case of women.

2.3 According to data from the INE⁵, women occupy 13 hours a day in labor activities, 7 of which are paid and 6 are non-paid. In comparison, men work an average of 11 hours a day, of which 8 are compensated. In Guatemala, for every 100 quetzals⁶ a man earns, a woman earns 68 quetzals generating a wage gap of 32%. Finally, in reviewing women's political participation, data indicate that women hold only 13% of decision-making positions in the country. When this data is disaggregated by rural population and ethnicity, indigenous women are in clear disadvantage.⁷ The proportion of maternal deaths is two deaths of indigenous women for every death of a non-indigenous woman, a tendency that has been maintained since the year 2000. The incidence of childbirths with medical and / or nursing care among the indigenous population has been slow to improve. In 1987, one in 10 indigenous women received specialized medical care, and 20 years later three out of 10 indigenous women received it⁸.

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

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

Household type	Men headed	Women headed	Total
Self employed agricultural household	3.9	1.0	3.3
Agricultural household with multiple activities	25.9	17.3	24.2
Agricultural employer household	0.1	0.0	0.1
Agricultural wage-earner household	23.0	7.9	20.0
Non agricultural household	47.0	73.8	52.5
	100	100	100

This data shows that out of small non-agricultural household, 73.8% are female headed households, while 47% stands for men-headed. It is the only category where female headed households are predominant. This information highlights the disadvantage situation of rural women in productive activities and confirms the need for actions to narrow the gap of women's participation and access to benefits, with a mayor focus on women-headed households⁹.

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

⁴ SEGEPLAN. Informe final de cumplimiento de los Objetivos de Desarrollo del Milenio. Guatemala. 2015.

⁵ National Statistics Institute

⁶ Quetzal is the national currency in Guatemala (Q) 1 USD equals aprox. 7,5 quetzal.

⁷ CEPAL. Observatorio de igualdad de género de América Latina y el Caribe. Notas para la Igualdad no. 3

⁸ Ministry of Health and Social Assistance. Health Profile of Indigenous Peoples of Guatemala. MSAS/OPS/OMS. 2016

⁹ USAID/IARNA/IDIES. Impacto económico de la agricultura de pequeña escala sobre las mujeres en el Altiplano Occidental de Guatemala. 2013

formal education, and 31,3% did not finish primary school, compared with 26.3% and 38.9% of men, respectively.¹⁰

- 2.6 The Government of Guatemala has made significant efforts to advance in gender equality and climate change, including: the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The first effort to build a women's policy was made in 1990, led by the National Women's Office (ONAM), and generated the National Policy for the Development and Promotion of Women in Guatemala. In 1991, the Government promoted the Social Development Plan --PLADES- 1991/1996, 1992/1996 and 1997/2000, that considered the first affirmative actions in favor of the promotion and development of women. However, it was just in 1997 that was agreed to elaborate the National Policy for the Promotion and Development of Guatemalan Women and the Plan for Equity of Opportunities 1999-2001, which was updated to the National Policy for the Promotion and Integral Development of Guatemalan Women - Equity Opportunities Plan - PEO 2008 - 2023.
- 2.7 Based on the above, government institutions in charge of protection and sustainable use of natural resources and environment, have also developed institutional policies to address gender inequalities, and now has the MARN's¹¹ Gender Environment Policy (Ministerial Agreement 248- 2015), the Institutional Strategy on Gender Equity with Ethnic and Cultural considerations, of INAB¹² (resolution point JD.05.38.2014); The Institutional Policy for Gender Equality and the Strategic Implementation Framework 2014-2023 of MAGA¹³ (Ministerial Agreement No. 693-2014). Additionally municipalities have established Municipal Women Offices (OMM, Spanish name), whose main attribution is to comply with the Policy for the Promotion and Integral Development of Guatemalan Women - Equity Opportunities Plan - PEO 2008 - 2023¹⁴.

3. Gender Considerations under Project

- 3.1 Due to climate change, changes are expected in the temperature and hydrological cycle, so some areas that are currently wet, will become dry. Changes in precipitation pattern will affect water availability for social and economic sector. Indeed, by the year 2000, Guatemala had a positive hydrological balance, i.e. water consumption was smaller than water supply, which was evident by the dominance of wet, very humid and rainy provinces. It is estimated, however, that Guatemala will be predominantly dry in 2080, because potential evapotranspiration will be greater than rainfall. In other words, Guatemala will become a deficit country in water terms. This will impact the availability of water and the composition of ecosystems, which will have an impact on the livelihoods of the peoples in the project area.
- 3.2 Given the geological, topographical and soil conditions in general, the vulnerability of Highlands communities will depend on the state of its ecosystems. Deforestation and forest degradation creates vulnerability by causing soil erosion, less infiltration (and greater runoff causing flood risk) and greater chances of landslides. Guatemala's increasing deforestation, ecosystem degradation, and alarming soil and water loss and contamination

¹⁰ USAID/MEASURE Evaluation. Encuesta de monitoreo y Evaluación del Programa del Altiplano Occidental, línea base 2013. 2014.

¹¹ Ministry of Environmental and Natural Resources.

¹² National Forests Institute

¹³ Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock and Food.

¹⁴ Established since 2010, by Decree 22-2010 (Article 96 BIS), and modified in 2016 (Decree 39-2016) to attribute them the fulfillment of the ... and readjust their attributions

have increased the country's systemic vulnerability, increasing the risk of being harmed by natural hazards (URL-IARNA 2012). Projections of climate change, however, identify the entire Guatemalan highlands as an area that may suffer from greater water stress in the medium and long term.

- 3.3 These situations affect women differently due to the reduction in the availability of water they would probably have to travel greater distances to collect and take it to their families, a similar case could occur with the availability of firewood and medicinal plants or foods that they obtain from. So, various manifestations of climate change, such as water scarcity (as seen in the context of this project) add more to the domestic burdens of women as compared to men.
- 3.4 It is also necessary to consider that in rural areas women have little access to paid work and the benefits of family economic activities, since in most cases it is the man who is responsible for obtaining the economic income and whether for paid work or for the sale of their agricultural surplus.
- 3.5 The participation of women is very important in improving the scope and results of the project. Mechanisms to ensure their participation have been developed in components and on indicators. The second subcomponent aims at increasing climate action locally by taking advantage of the strong community based organizations present in the area. For this, a grant facility will be developed to contribute to sustainable watershed management practices developed under the first subcomponent. Gender considerations will be mainstreamed in the selection criteria, capacity building program and monitoring system as to ensure that affirmative actions are taken to contribute to women empowerment in the rural context.

4. Applicable regulatory framework:

- 4.1 At the national level, the National Forest Landscape Restoration Strategy provides the overall technical framework for the project, determining the priorities that the country has defined; in addition, an analysis has been carried out for implementing this national strategy with a gender approach and balancing the opportunities of access to its benefits between men and women.
- 4.2 Law on fostering the establishment, recovery, restoration, management, production and protection of forests in Guatemala (PROBOSQUE) Is the current forestry incentive law that considers specific options for restoration for climate change mitigation and adaptation, but does not include specific indications for women, the project will encourage both men and women to access these incentives.
- 4.3 Actions in project will be developed following the guidelines of the National Policy for the Promotion and Integral Development of Guatemalan Women - Equity Opportunities Plan - PEO 2008 – 2023, and also Gender Environment Policy (Ministerial Agreement 248-2015), the Institutional Strategy on Gender Equity with Ethnic and Cultural considerations, of INAB (resolution point JD.05.38.2014); The Institutional Policy for Gender Equality and the Strategic Implementation Framework 2014-2023 of MAGA (Ministerial Agreement No. 693-2014).

5. Key areas of Project intervention:

- Integrated climate smart watershed management
- Grant facility for Community-led climate actions channeling funding to priority areas

- Climate related information provided to farmers and other target stakeholders for watershed management

6. Gender considerations in the project outcomes and result indicators

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

7. Gender criteria and responsible parties

Dimension	Gender Criteria	Responsibility
Governance dimension	% of Representation of women members in the governance structures of beneficiaries of the project	Executing Entity – EE and participating CBOs
	Experiences exchange of women members in the project	EE
Capacity building	Capacity plans and contents will include gender components, women empowerment subjects, etc. (in at least 30%)	EE / Partner agencies
	Women would be trained in climate resilience agriculture/forestry, water conservation and management and all related issues regarding the project	EE / Partner agencies

Knowledge Management	Case Studies on women experiences of empowerment, forest management, etc. Monitoring on gender disaggregated data to identify impact on gender issues	EE / Partner agencies
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The gender Action Plan is presented separately as Annex 16b

Gender Documents for FP088

The funding proposal of FP088 will not be considered by the Board at its twenty-first meeting.

Gender documents for FP089

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS



**UPSCALING CLIMATE RESILIENCE MEASURES
IN THE DRY CORRIDOR AGROECOSYSTEMS
OF EL SALVADOR (RECLIMA)**

**GENDER ANALYSIS/ASSESSMENT
AND
GENDER ACTION PLAN**

EL SALVADOR

FEBRUARY, 2018

Part I: Gender Analysis/Assessment:

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

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

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

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

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

General information at National level

Maternal mortality rate	52.6 per 100,000 live births (2014)
Infant mortality rate	14.5 per 1,000 (2014)
Educational status of girls and boys	National average education level is 6.9 grades for men and 6.7 for women, and the rate of school attendance for men is 30.9% and women 26.6%. Per age range: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• 4 to 12: School attendance rate of the population 4 to 12 years: 89.9% (2015).• 13 to 17: School attendance rate of the population 13 to 17 years: 79.3% (2015).• 18 to 29: School attendance rate of the population 18 to 29 years: 20.0% (2015).
Adult literacy rate (disaggregated by gender)	The illiteracy rate among females is 12.4%, while among males is 9.0%, representing a 3.4 percent gap (EHPM 2015)
Poverty rate	Total: 28.86% (2016)

	Rural: 39.72% (2016)
Labour force participation rate (disaggregated by gender)	54.0% of the working age population (WAP) are women, and 46.0% are men. This comprehensive participation rate or labor force is 80.2% among men and 46.7% among women.
Employment rate (disaggregated by gender)	Women represent 39% of those working at the national level, and this number is lower in the rural area (29%). 76.6% of rural women working perform trade related activities (42.1%), manufacture (17.8%), and domestic help (16.7%); while remunerated jobs in agriculture, fishing, and construction, are mainly performed by men (EHPM 2015).
Unemployment rate	Economically Inactive Population (EIP). In absolute terms, EIP represents 1,778,898 persons, most of them women (76.0%). Among the reasons women tell why they are not looking for a job, are: 68.7% because they have too much to do at home; 14.2% because they study; 9.1% because they cannot work, be because they have a disability, or old age.
Land tenure	Land tenure with husbandry activity: According to EHPM 2016, a total of 362,640 livestock producers were registered in the rural area with access to different types of land tenure; 313, 474 are men, and only 39,066 are women. Related to land property, there is an important lack of proportion and disparity among men and women. Of a total of 73,635 agriculture and husbandry producers owners of land, 87.9% are men (64,704), and 12.1% are women (8,931).
Access to tangible and intangible assets	Investment in tangible assets destined to men is greater (64%) that what consigned to women (36%). In the case of assets directly related to agriculture, it may be observed that of deliveries, 48% went to women and 52% to men who received: agricultural packages, irrigation systems, metallic silos, poultry modules. In case of intangible assets, 43% of women have had access to training and technical assistance, affirming they are the main deserters, since at the same time, they need to perform household duties and take care of the family, what befalls on them ISDEMU (2015).
Life expectancy (disaggregated by gender)	Women: 77,66 years (reported to 2015) Men: 68,57 years (reported to 2015)

Country of intervention

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

The Law on Equality, Fairness, and the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women in El Salvador (2011) establishes that women and men "are equal before the law and equivalent in their human and citizen conditions; therefore, they are legitimately deserving of equal protection of their rights by the corresponding institutions, and may not be subject of any discrimination that hinders their exercise of said rights. Because of the above, the laws and norms still keeping exclusion, rights diminishing, and legal capacity provisions against women, are considered discriminating" (art. 1).

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

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

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

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

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

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

What is the division of labour among women and men?

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

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

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

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

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

to feeding and achieving FSN, boys and girls reach a higher school level, and increase survival probability on girls.

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

Project footprint area

What is the situation of women and men?

Family farming plan, implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (MAG), gives priorities to families in survival conditions, dedicated to agriculture, in order to increase access to food and income generation in their homes. Nevertheless, the description of this Plan is not mentioned in affirmative actions addressed to overcoming economic advantages faced by women.

Women invest between twice or triple the time men invest in household chores, what is not remunerated, nor socially acknowledged as a contribution to family nor national economy from women. Time investment in household chores is intimately related to women's age, increasing as the woman ages.

In El Salvador, right to land property, as well as to water access, forests and biodiversity in general, is more restricted to women than for men; the use of these natural resources is conditioned by the division of labor based on gender; environmental pollution has specific impacts on women in the city and rural areas, and it is necessary that the State acknowledges women contribution to biodiversity conservation, implementing affirmative action policies, and guaranteeing the exercise of their rights in this environment. Lack of water in the rural area affects men and women differently, in detriment of women when we relate it to time, effort, health deterioration, and decision-making.

Even with all advances on gender matters, reality for men is different from that of women, being unfavorable for the latter.

In terms of the proposed project/program, will there be any anticipated differences in men's and women's vulnerability and adaptive capacity to climate change? If so, what are these?

Yes effectively, women are more at risk of vulnerability than men when we analyze climate change impacts.

Due to the traditional role assignment, women may assume a double or triple work day to overcome difficulties from drought, loss of crops, and other product losses due to climate change. In order to comply with the responsibility imposed by the care and protection of their loved ones: sons and daughters, grandfathers and grandmothers, relatives who require care due to health problems, even husbands. Among the risks to be faced are: women malnutrition, because the best food, or the little they may have, they give to their loved ones; health problems, physical exhaustion or exposure to violence and criminality due to the large distances needed to walk to obtain potable water. Migration to work in the cities as domestic help while leaving her family in the rural area, among others.

Are there existing gender inequalities that may be exacerbated by climate change impacts?

Yes. Families are significantly affected in their financial stability as a result of climate change. In order to satisfy health, nutrition and survival, families end up taking large debts and looking how to make their land more productive for crops.

One of the main gender inequities happens with technology access, agricultural inputs, and technical assistance during drought crisis, floods, crops losses, pest management, etc. Generally speaking, it is men who participate in these processes, and women have less probability to participate, due to their domestic load.

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

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

What are some of the inequalities that exist between different social groups? How do these inequalities affect people's capacity to adapt to climate change?

All Project beneficiaries are in a poverty situation, with food insecurity, in a territory with arid conditions for crops, lacking water access, because they are in the dry corridor.

Nevertheless, within this context, there are population sectors that have been identified as being more vulnerable, and have the previously mentioned profile, but also have certain specificities that influence their lesser capacity to adapt to climate change: indigenous people, youth, and women.

Indigenous people: they have been invisibilized, have little identity, have not had access to technologies, most do not hold land to produce crops, etc.

Youth: Do not find where they belong, have no access to technologies designed to fit their interest, have lost the love to see crops grow and land produce, migrate and look for other types of employment, as a result of the lack of opportunities.

And finally women, they have no access or control of natural resources, land, tangible, nor intangible goods. Have no access or control over economic income in their families, nor access to flexible credits, and many do not have autonomy either, what influences negatively their capacity to adapt to climate change.

What roles women and men are anticipated to play in the context of the project/program? What will these entail in terms of time commitment and need for mobility?

During the project implementation, beneficiary families will participate in equality of conditions, through the methodology of demonstrating families.

Mechanisms will be established to guarantee the active and effective participation of women, alliances will be performed in the territory with gender equality promotion entities such as ISDEMU, Ciudad Mujer, gender units in municipalities, gender units from MAG/CENTA and MARN, in order to guarantee at least 35% of women participation in the totality of the project, and that 35% of the budget will be destined to actions with women.

On the work with families, equitable distribution will be promoted for productive and reproductive labor through the gender training processes, producers, and technical personnel. There will be a guarantee not to overload women, and the time dedicated by the families as a whole to the project, be equally distributed among the members.

What resources (economic, financial, physical, natural, other assets) do women and men have access to? Who manages or controls access to these resources?

In general, men have access and control of lands and tangible goods, therefore during the implementation of the project, inputs deliveries and other goods will be delivered to organizations or families as a whole, assuring men and women are equally part of the decision making process

and control of resources. Delivery minutes must be signed by men as well as by women to close this gender gap.

Do women and men from vulnerable communities have equal access to information and opportunities necessary to participate and benefit fully from the anticipated outcomes of the project/program?

The project will promote equal participation of all benefited sectors, establishing conditions to ease access, control, and resource management. Family work will be promoted as an engine for the local economy and a more equitable society, promoting the participation of women heads of household, youth, and indigenous peoples; and hiring will be made from these sectors to have them as benchmarks, and thus promote together with the collective, their transformation and development. Capacities will be built not giving them solutions, but building within the community itself with participative governance processes, where they are the protagonists of their changes.

Do women have equal access to education, technical knowledge, and/or skill upgradation?

Yes. Both have equal access to education, but not the same conditions for full development, and much less the possibility to generate employment afterwards, due to the overload of reproductive work for women, and the lack of technical assistance.

Will services and technologies provided by the project/program be available and accessible to both women and men?

Yes. On project implementation, this disadvantage women have had will be taken into consideration to access technical assistance, inputs and technologies, promoting their participation in all actions as part of the demonstrating families, as heads of household, and as part of the organizations; at the same time they will be part of governance mechanisms and project monitoring.

To what extent do women and men from vulnerable communities participate in decision – making processes? What type of decisions are made by women? What are the constrains (social, cultural, economic, political) that restrict women’s active participation in household and community level decision – making processes?

Traditionally, there is a gap that relegates women to make decisions only on household matters, children, and the like, while men take productive and financial decisions. That is why during the development of the project, mechanisms and strategies will be established for men, as well as women to participate equally in decision-making on productive and reproductive matters; this at the level of families, organizations, municipalities, locally and nationally.

Are there any opportunities to promote the leadership of women in local governance/political systems and formal/informal institutions? If not, what are some of the constrains that hinder women from assuming leadership roles?

Yes. There are institutions and organizations that look after gender equality on decision making, in the territories. Through this project there is work done with these key stakeholders to strengthen women leadership, promote their participation in decision making spaces, among others.

What are the differential needs/priorities of women and men in the context of the project/program? Will the project/program be able to address their respective needs and priorities? If so, how?

Within the project's framework, technical assistance will be granted to establish agro-productive systems. Actions have been pointed out that will benefit women and men equally, and specific accesses such as building firewood efficient stoves, or access to water that will impact men and women differently.

Technical capacities will also be built for women, related to agricultural activities, to help them better adapt to climate change.
Have the needs of specific (and vulnerable) sub-groups been taken into account by the project/program (e.g. children, girls, women and men with disabilities, the elderly, and widows)?
These sub-groups are not directly benefited by project actions, but when working under the modality of farm, with the whole family, project implementation benefits will also be included.
Has the project/program recognized the distinct vulnerabilities of women and men and developed specific response strategies for each target group?
Yes. It has been considered, not only in the home farm model, but for women who have not accessed land, to establish family gardens to produce food for them and their families, to have greenhouses, specifically with young women and indigenous peoples, and technical assistance and capacity building with them.
Are the specific knowledge and skills of women and men, especially from vulnerable groups, being utilized to contribute to project/program outcomes and solutions?
Yes. Men as well as women have specific and complementary characteristics that will be strengthened through the different processes. Men already have the productive skills and knowledge, they received the training; that is an advantage to be taken, but that does not mean that because they already know, then women will not be taught and their capacity built; quite the contrary. If left as is, unequal access would continue being promoted. What happens with a woman without a husband who "complements her"? She would be out of the processes. That is the reason why actions are proposed according to the needs of the target population.
Has the project/program identified opportunities to challenge gender stereotypes and increase positive gender relations through equitable actions? If so, what are these opportunities and actions?
Yes. The project proposes to do without the stereotypes that women are not only in charge of the domestic side and care of the family, but also of productive matters, and participate in decision-making, having access to inputs, technologies, have their productive work valued, etc.

Strategy for Gender Equality

The strategy for gender equality of the project is focused on achieving that proposed interventions be inclusive, sustainable and resilient, at the same time they promote gender equality to give an efficient and timely response to the problems faced by the different groups of people, vis-à-vis the incidence of extreme climate events, such as drought. This strategy defines the action framework of RECLIMA on matters of gender, and is focused on supporting, mainly, the more climate change vulnerable populations, understood as those groups that base their main livelihoods on subsistence agriculture. This activity is characteristic for highly depending from climate, mainly rain; besides, the population who practices it, mostly women, young population and indigenous peoples, present acute poverty indexes and limited access to main productive resources such as land, technical assistance, and financing.

On the other hand, the strategy contributes to reducing social inequalities, including gender inequality, through the empowerment of women, the young population and indigenous groups. The strengthening of associative processes, as well as the development of new leaderships in communities, thereby contribute to improving governance in territories. The aim is also to create conditions for vulnerable populations to have access to project services and benefits, ensuring their full involvement in processes of improving their technical and associative capacities and their livelihoods improvement.

Comprehensive strategic actions are the following:

1. Hiring of project personnel incorporating inclusive processes of selection, establishing a hiring quota of 35% in women, and 5% of indigenous people. In these percentages of inclusion, the hiring of youth is considered.
2. Decrease of existing gender gaps between men and women through the inclusion of 35% of women participation in technical institutional strengthening, capacity building in the territory, leadership promotion and associative processes, restoration and conservation actions for natural resources, among others, that contribute towards the improvement of territorial governance.
3. Guarantee the incorporation of gender and social inclusion matters in capacity building processes at the departments of MARN and MAG that participate in the project through the incorporation of gender units from said institutions to support awareness processes and the creation of capacities.
4. Assure that in social controllership processes, the representation of vulnerable groups is guaranteed in decision-making: 35% of women, 5% of indigenous people, and 10% youth.
5. Liaisons among the National Civilian Police for Women, the Law on Equality, Equity, and Violence Eradication against Women, the United Nations Declaration on Indigenous Rights, and the National Plan of Indigenous Peoples, the Law for the Youth, with actions of the project in the territories, in order to create greater capacities in intervened municipalities, communities that are able to contribute towards decreasing gender inequalities, violence against women, and social exclusion.
6. Monitoring of qualitative and quantitative indicators compliance through measuring instruments that allow the evaluation of gender equity and social inclusion through project actions. Said instruments must have disaggregated information by gender, age groups, and ethnicities.
7. Establish mechanisms to guarantee access, control, and equitable property for men and women, be young or indigenous, of tangible goods (inputs, technology), and intangibles (technical assistance, trainings, decision-making), provided by the project in order to ensure the improvement of livelihoods for the populations in the intervention territories.
8. Support to local governments for promoting gender equality policies as a key action to correct existing inequalities in territories.
9. Inter-institutional synergies with entities that promote social and economic empowerment of women and other vulnerable groups.
10. Ensure the recruitment of women and youths in the coordination unit structure and implementing units in regions.
11. Evidence in activities and results processes of the project, gender equality and social inclusion advance in the intervention territories

Part II: Gender Action Plan

Activities	Indicators and targets	Timeline	Responsibilities
Impact Statement:			
<p>RETIDER proposes as an objective to generate resilience among the most vulnerable populations of the Dry Corridor of El Salvador, before climate change impacts 114 municipalities, starting from the implementation of agro-ecosystems models at the scale of landscapes, as an opportunity to improve livelihoods for the families, contribute to reduce greenhouse gas emissions through carbon capture, and assure the disposal and adequate management of water in the intervention territories. An institutional actions framework will be established to articulate actions in the territories stemming from the logical harmonization of public policies, geared towards climate change mitigation and adaptation.</p>			
Outcome Statement: Results statement			
<p>RETIDER includes a national strategy for the promotion of climate change mitigation and adaptation along the Dry Corridor of El Salvador. Within this framework, 70,000 small producers will be benefited, of whom 24,500 are women, and 3,500 are indigenous, through the sustainable agro-ecosystem models implementation, in a total area of 100,096 hectares. In total, a population of 315,000 people from climate change vulnerable populations will be benefited, among whom are included 165,000 women and 20,500 indigenous persons. Likewise, 1,707 families will be benefited through the implementation of healthy life actions. On water provisions, systems for water catchment will be installed for 21,700 families, directly benefiting some 97,650 people. With these actions, and the strengthening of climate information generation and monitoring, the strengthening of governability and governance, harmonization of public policies, and institutional strengthening that will promote the establishment of innovative agro-ecosystem landscapes, that at the same time contribute to capture 2,284,600 tCO₂-eq.</p>			
1. Component 1 Ecosystem restoration to ensure the provision of water resources, the implementation of sustainable agriculture practices and the transition to innovative productive landscapes.			
1.1.1. Number of farm plans produced by the Project beneficiaries according to sustainable agriculture models.	70,000 smallholders total (24,500 are women).	5 years	FAO and MAG/CENTAFAO and MAG/CENTA
1.1.3. Number of timber and fruit tree species nurseries run by women, youth and indigenous people.	5 nurseries (this activity will be developed by organizations of women, youth and indigenous).	5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG/CENTA
1.2.1. Number of technicians trained to undertake production activities with populations vulnerable to climate change.	1750 community extension agents (35% women)	5 years	FAO and MAG/CENTAFAO and MAG/CENTA
1.2.2. Number of technicians trained on sustainable production models.	60 CENTA technicians 37 GCF technicians (35% women)	5 years	FAO and MAG/CENTAFAO and MAG/CENTA
1.2.3. Number of beneficiaries trained to promote the implementation of sustainable agriculture models.	1750 community extension agents (35% women)	5 years	FAO and MAG/CENTAFAO and MAG/CENTA
1.2.6. Number of young people trained on the environment and new technologies for sustainable land use.	300 youth (35% women)	5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG/CENTA
2. Component 2 Strengthening the early warning system and the producers', technical extension agents', municipal governments', and other local economic stakeholders' and agents' knowledge of climate hazards for decision-making and risk reduction.			
2.1.1. Climate monitoring center strengthened to improve climate data collection and management.	30 specialist technicians hired (35% women) 200 environmental observers trained (35% women)	5 years	FAO and MARN
2.2.4. Number of social organizations and local communities trained in proper interpretation of climate information.	225 organizations 1750 community extension agents (35% women)	5 years	FAO and MARN
3. Component 3 Institutional and governance strengthening, and harmonization of public policies for sustainable land and landscape management to respond to climate change.			
3.2.1 Technical accompaniment for the Legislative Assembly to facilitate discussion spaces for decision-making on laws related to climate change adaptation and mitigation.	5 policies supported (RETIDER will support the National Women Public Policy)	5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG
3.2.2 Technical and institutional accompaniment on a ministerial level to facilitate discussion spaces for decision-making on laws related to climate change adaptation and mitigation.	5 policies supported (RETIDER will support the National Women Public Policy)	5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG

3.2.3 Technical accompaniment on a local/territorial level to facilitate discussion spaces for decision-making on laws related to climate change adaptation and mitigation.	5 policies supported (RETIDER will support the National Women Public Policy)	5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG
3.3.1. Number of government officials (MARN and MAG) and local governments trained to include climate change adaptation measures in their policies and plans, with a specific focus on agriculture and forest sectors.	40 officials from MARN and MAG (35% women) 228 municipal officials (35% women)		
3.3.3. Number of beneficiary organizations trained to participate in local planning and decision-making processes.	80 organizations (including women organizations)	5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG
3.3.5. Number of Municipalities, community organizations and smallholders participating in the management of rural water supply systems through water administration boards.	228 Water administration boards 114 Municipal environmental units 114 ADESCOs 456 Communities	5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG
3.3.6 Inter institutional framework created and in operation (Technical Steering Committee and the Territorial Steering Committee) to develop the monitoring and evaluation of the execution and impacts generated by RETIDER.	1 Technical Steering Committee operating 1 Territorial Steering Committee operating 1 Project Coordination Unit operating 2 Operative Technical Unit operating	5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG
		5 years	FAO, MARN and MAG

Gender documents for FP090

Renewable Energy Project (RRP TON 49450)

GENDER ACTION PLAN

PROJECT OUTPUTS	GENDER TARGETS AND ACTIVITIES	TIMELINE	BUDGET ¹	RESPONSIBILITY	MEANS OF VERIFYING THE ACHIEVEMENT OF TARGETS	POTENTIAL RISK AND BARRIERS IN THE DELIVERY OF TARGETS	RISK MITIGATING MEASURES
Output 1. Battery Energy Storage System in Tongatapu	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> During design and implementation, all community consultations will have a target of at least 50% female participation, including women only consultations in all the sites (baseline: 0) 	Q2 2018 – Q2 2020	USD 4,000 (estimated)	Implementing Agency (TPL) and through SGS during implementation	Sex disaggregated data of attendees in semi-annual GAP progress reports	Community stakeholders such as village chiefs may not see gender as a priority and discourage women only consultations	In addition to SGS, female members to the project team will assist in community consultation, information and training activities and ensure separate women meetings
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requirement for contractors to hire at least 20% women in both technical and non-technical work **(baseline: 0) 	Q3 2018 - Q2 2020	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Sex disaggregated pay sheets	Contractor considers it is hard to source women	Advertisements should encourage women to apply and head hunt if necessary through community leaders/chiefs and women's NGOs
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide toilet and sanitation facilities for men and women, separately if necessary* Ensure women-friendly design by providing reliable water supply, proper lock and lighting (baseline: 0) 	Q3 2018 -Q2 2020	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Site visits and site maps include separate male and female toilets		This requirement will be included in the contract.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure equal pay for equal work between male and female workers 	Q3 2018-Q2 2020	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Sex disaggregated pay sheets		No issue is foreseen but any

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective to keep both men and women workers safe on the job 	Q3 2018 -Q2 2020	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment		discrepancies will be reported No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported
Output 2: Grid-connected renewable energy generation on 'Eua and Vava'u islands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> During design and implementation, all community consultations will have a target of at least 50% female participation, including women only consultations (baseline: 0) 	Q3 2018 – Q2 2020	USD 4,000 (estimated)	Implementing Agency (TPL) and through SGS during implementation	Sex disaggregated data of attendees in semi-annual progress reports	Community stakeholders such as village chiefs may not see gender as a priority and discourage women only consultations.	In addition to SGS, female member to the project team will assist in community consultation, information and training activities and ensure separate women meetings
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requirement for the contractor to hire 20% women in both technical and non-technical work *(baseline: 0) 	Q3 2018 – Q2 2020	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Sex disaggregated paysheets	Contractor considers it is hard to source women	Advertisements should encourage women to apply and head hunt if necessary through community chiefs/leaders and women's NGOs
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide toilet and sanitation facilities for men and women, separately if necessary.* Ensure women-friendly design by providing reliable water supply, proper lock and lighting (baseline: 0) 	Q3 2018 – Q2 2020	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Site visits and site maps include separate male and female toilets		This requirement will be included in the contract.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job Contractors appointed 	Q3 2018 – Q2 2020	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment		No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported

	for construction will be informed of the required facilities before bidding						
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure equal pay for equal work between male and female workers 	Q4 2018 – Q2 2020	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Sex disaggregated paysheets		No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported
Output 3: Renewable - based hybrid system and mini-grids on outer islands.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> During design and implementation, all community consultations will have a target of at least 50% female participation, including women only consultations in all the sites (baseline: 0) 	Q2 2017 – Q1 2021 -	USD 8,000 (estimated)	Implementing Agencies (TPL and MEIDECC) and through SGS during implementation	Sex disaggregated data of attendees in reports	Community stakeholders such as village chiefs may not see gender as a priority and discourage women only consultations	In addition to SGS, female members to the project team will assist in community consultation, information and training activities and ensure separate women meetings
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requirement for the contractor to hire 20% women in both technical and non-technical work** 	Q1 2019 – Q1 2021	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Sex disaggregated paysheets	Contractor considers it is hard to source women	Advertisements should encourage women to apply and head hunt if necessary through chiefs/leaders and women's NGOs
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide support to women such as toilet and sanitation facilities and separately if required.* Ensure women-friendly design by providing reliable water supply, proper lock and lighting 	Q1 2019 – Q1 2021	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Site visits and site maps include separate male and female toilets		This requirement will be included in the contract.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ensure equal pay for equal work between male and female workers 	Q1 2019 – Q1 2021	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Sex disaggregated paysheets		No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contractor will be required to provide safety gear and protective equipment to keep both men and women workers safe on the job 	Q1 2019 – Q1 2021	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Site visit and inspection reports require sighting protective equipment		No issue is foreseen but any discrepancies will be reported
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prioritize the electricity connection of at least 10% women headed households and businesses 	By Q1 2021	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor with supervision from TPL	Records of newly connected households with verification on women-headed households/businesses		No issue is foreseen unless no women-headed households/businesses are present in the project area.
Output 4: Capacity Building and Project Management Support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All staff in MEIDECC, TPL and contractors will receive awareness session on sexual harassment. The contractors will submit to TPL a policy against sexual harassment to be implemented during the entire project duration 	Q2-Q4 2018	MEIDECC and TPL operating budget	All the tasks to be implemented by the Implementing Agency through the SGS	Report from sexual harassment awareness training. Sexual harassment policy	Lack of full participation from staff	This will be a mandated requirement by MEIDECC, TPL and contractor management
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enhance community electric societies' management capacities through facilitation of inclusion of at least 30% women in Electric Management Committees (baseline: 0) 	Q4 2018 – Q4 2021	MEIDECC budget	Principal contractor	Electric management committee reports	Contractor reports difficulty sourcing qualified women	Require liaison with community chief/leaders and women's NGOs to source qualified women
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide yearly business skills training on income opportunities from increased electricity supply with 50% women participation in each of the project site** (baseline:0) 	Q4 2018 – Q4 2021	USD 6,000 (estimated)	Principal contractor /TPL	Sex disaggregated data of trainees in reports	Contractor reports difficulty sourcing interested women	Require liaison with community chief/leaders and women's NGOs to source interested women
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A minimum of 30% women in key decision-making committees for the project 	Q4 2018	No budget required.	Implementing Agency - TPL	Key reports listing committee members	Lack of community enthusiasm or interest to include women	Women membership will be made as a requirement in forming project committees

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Include training on intrahousehold decision-making and sharing household labor, financial access and control with indicators to be built into the monitoring and evaluation framework to track women's and men's perceptions and behavior on economic and personal empowerment measures before, and after business skills trainings 	Q4 2018 – Q4 2021	USD 5,000 (estimated)	SGS to lead the perception study and engage an expert to assist	Perception study report pre-project, during project and on project completion Training reports	Lack of cooperation from the communities	Liaison with community chiefs/leaders and women's NGOs to undertake the study
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct at least 2 consumers' training on power budget management with a minimum of 50% female participation for each of the project community** (baseline: 0) 	Q4 2018 – Q4 2021	USD 5,000 (estimated)	Implementing Agency (TPL and MEIDECC) and through SGS and qualified trainer to be engaged	Training reports with sex disaggregated data	Difficulty sourcing interested women	Liaison with community chief/leaders and women's NGOs to source interested women
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct annual workshop with a minimum of 30% female participation on demand side management for community electric societies' customers (Ha'apai and Niuafu'ou)** 	Q4 2018 – Q4 2021	Contractor's budget	Principal contractor	Workshop participant reports with sex disaggregated data	Contractor reports difficulty sourcing interested women	Liaison with community chief/leaders and women's NGOs to source interested women
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct at least 2 trainings per year on project planning and asset management maintenance for MEIDECC, TPL staff and the community electric societies (Ha'apai and Niuafu'ou) with a minimum of 30% female participants. 	2018 -2021	USD 8,000 (estimated)	Resource Persons from TPL or qualified training to be engaged by TPL	Training reports with sex disaggregated data	Contractor reports difficulty sourcing interested women	Women participation from MEIDECC, TPL and community electric societies to be mandated. TPL will explore partnering with training institutions to provide trainings to women to maintain the project assets

							during project operational phase.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conduct workshop in the beginning of the project with a minimum of 30% female participants from MEIDECC and TPL staff on procurement, anticorruption and safeguards 	Q3 2018	MEIDECC and TEPL operating budget	ADB working closely with MEIDECC and TPL	Workshop participant reports with sex disaggregated data	None or lacking interested women participation	Women participation from MEIDECC and TPL to be mandated
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Train the Implementing Agency in collecting sex disaggregated data and include in the progress, monitoring and evaluation reports 	Q3 2018		SGS or expert to be engaged by MEIDECC	Training report and all progress, monitoring and evaluation reports	Lack of application of trainings in the report submission	Mandated requirement of reporting, if not included, reports need to be resubmitted with required information
<p>Note: (*) Based on the experience from existing project, not all sites may require separate toilets for men and women due to very limited number of women staff (1-2 part-time staff). (**) Priorities will be given to women headed households.</p> <p>A Social Development and Gender Specialist (SGS) will be engaged to assist the implementing agency in implementing and monitoring GAP implementation and providing capacity building activities. In addition to the Specialist, there will be at least one female member to the project team in charge of community consultation, information and training activities. A project brief will be held among traditional women and men leaders on the project including gender targets and their rationale. A dedicated semi-annual GAP progress and monitoring report will be submitted with gap performance indicators disaggregated by gender. Project performance reporting and annual reports will also collect and include gender disaggregated data.</p>							

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

Initial Poverty and Social Analysis

Project No. 49450-012
March 2018

TON: Renewable Energy Project

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

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Poverty, Social and Gender Assessment Tonga Renewable Energy Project

¹ Photo credit V. Narayan in Asian Development Bank (2016). *Pacific Energy Update 2016*. Manila: ADB, p. 21

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1 Introduction

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

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

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

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

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

The purpose of a Poverty and Social Analysis includes:

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

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

² Ibid, p. 8.

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

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

2 Background

2.1 Country Overview

The Kingdom of Tonga comprises 177 islands, 36 of which are inhabited. Tongatapu is the largest island in Tonga where 75 per cent of the total population live with 34 per cent of these living in Nuku'alofa, the capital and its peri-urban areas.³ In addition to Tongatapu, there are three other major island groups: Ha'apai and Vava'u and the Niuas. The country's total surface area is about 750 km.

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

As a small island economy and lower middle income country, Tonga faces geographic isolation with limited human resources, a high level of imports and low exports (mainly from agriculture and fisheries and cultural items) and is vulnerable to external economic shocks as well as natural disasters. High levels of remittances are necessary to boost domestic revenue. The ADB Member Factsheet for Tonga states that its "medium-term development depends on the continued implementation of structural reforms to improve productivity, remove bottlenecks to growth, and strengthen macroeconomic resilience."⁴

2.2 Population and Ethnicity

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

Male life expectancy is 73.8 years and female is 76.6 years.⁵ The population of Tonga is stable with a growth rate of 0.2 per cent. The average birth rate is 3.8 with emigration accounting for the difference as almost as many Tongans live overseas as within the country. There is also a high internal rural-urban

³ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p.4.

⁴ Asian Development Bank (2017). *Member Factsheet: Tonga*, p.1, <https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/publication/27805/ton-2016.pdf>, accessed 11/05/2017

⁵ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs: Population Division, <http://countrymeters.info/en/Tonga>, accessed 27 April 2017.

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

3. Poverty Assessment

3.1 National Economic Development

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

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

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

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

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

⁶ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 23.

⁷ Nelson, Carol and Fukofuka, Salote (2016). *Technical Report Gender Analysis - Tongatapu, Kingdom of Tonga*. Adelaide: AECOM Services for DFAT.

⁸ This is the latest available data cited in Nelson, Carol and Fukofuka, Salote (2016). *Technical Report Gender Analysis - Tongatapu, Kingdom of Tonga*. Adelaide: AECOM Services for DFAT, p. iv.

⁹ Ibid

¹⁰ Ibid, p. 4.

¹¹ ADB (2013). *Tonga Economic Update and Outlook 2012*. Manila: Asian Development Bank, p. 9.

¹² World Bank(2014). *Hardship and Vulnerability in the Pacific Island Countries*. Washington: World Bank, p. 56 and 63.

¹³ DFAT (2014). *Pacific Women Shaping Pacific Development Tonga Country Plan Summary*. Canberra: Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, p. 3.

2016 also considers there will be an expansion of support to vulnerable groups through welfare payments, services and lifeline electricity tariffs for low-income users.¹⁴

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

3.2 Poverty status

Although Tonga was classified as upper middle income by the World Bank in 2013-2015, it was reclassified as lower middle income in 2016. The fall in life expectancy has also led to the Human Development Index (HDI) reverting back to the level it was at in 1995.¹⁶ Tonga also did not meet the targets for MDG 1 eradicating poverty, MDG 3 on gender equality and the empowerment of women or MDG 6 on combatting diseases.

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

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

Table 1: Poverty Rates for Selected Countries in the Pacific

Country	2014
Cook Islands	<i>no data</i>
Fiji	31.0
Papua New Guinea	28.0
Samoa	26.9
Tonga	22.5
Tuvalu	26.3
Vanuatu	12.7

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

¹⁴ Asian Development Bank (2016). *Asian development outlook 2016 update. Meeting the low-carbon growth challenge*. Mandaluyong City, Philippines: Asian Development Bank, 2016, pp. 180-181.

¹⁵ Ministry of Finance and National Planning (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework 2015-2015: A more Progressive Tonga—Enhancing our inheritance*. Nuku’alofa, p. 57.

¹⁶ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku’alofa, p.13.

¹⁷ World Bank(2014). *Hardship and Vulnerability in the Pacific Island Countries*. Washington: World Bank, p. 68.

¹⁸ Asian Development Bank (2016). *Basic 2016 Statistics: Economic Research and Regional Cooperation Department*. Manila: ADB Development Economics and Indicators Division, p. 2.

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

Table 2: Food Poverty Line and Basic Needs Poverty Line 2001-2015

Measurement	Poverty Line TOPS			Proportion Below the Line					
	2001	2009	2015*	Household			Population		
Food Poverty Line				1.7%	2.0%	2.4%	2.8%	3.1%	3.8%
Per head per week	13.52	24.12	29.74						
Per head per year	703	1254	1546						
Basic Needs Poverty Line				12.2%	16.4%	15.8%	16.2%	22.5%	22.1%
Per head per week	28.20	49.73	56.71						
Per head per year	1466	2586	2949						

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

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

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

¹⁹ Government of Nauru Statistics Office and UNDP Pacific Centre (2014). *Nauru Hardship Report*. Fiji.

²⁰ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku’alofa, p.29.

²¹ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku’alofa, p.30.

²² Ibid.

²³ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku’alofa, p.30.

²⁴ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku’alofa, p.30.

Despite these statistics, the government considers that the general population is able to feed themselves from subsistence farming and fishing. The research for the TSDF II did not find any evidence or data to identify any person dying of hunger or living in destitution, which it claims is due to social systems acting as safety nets.²⁵ In addition, Osnat Lubrani, UN Resident Coordinator for the Fiji Multi Country Office, states in the Foreword to Tonga's Final MDG Report:

*Tonga has been doing a lot of work to reduce the number of people living in hardship and to ensure gender equality. There is a stronger emphasis for improving formal social protection mechanisms especially targeting the poorest of the poor and most vulnerable as evident in the increase in social protection programmes and subsequent budget allocations.*²⁶

3.3 Employment

MDG Target 1B (full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people) was not met with data illustrating that labour productivity has fluctuated with a reduction of the proportion of people in productive employment over recent years. The MDG report claims the ability of the economy to generate decent work for all is low due to few new jobs being available.²⁷ The TSDF II identifies that unemployment is highest among young people; women, especially single mothers; sex workers; victims of abuse; school drop outs; single women; the disabled; the landless and the elderly whom suffer the greatest hardship most due to the absence of a welfare system in Tonga.²⁸

The percentage of males over 15 years of age active in the labour force was 70 per cent in 2010, whilst this statistic was only 54 per cent for women.²⁹ The percentage of women in non-agricultural wage employment (industries and services) has not changed substantially over the last 25 years, remaining 30-35 per cent.³⁰ 43 per cent of Tongan women are income earners in subsistence farming and agricultural work. Most women are employed in unskilled menial work or subordinate positions and low paid positions.³¹ This includes subsistence agriculture and fishing, of which surplus is sold in the markets. The major income for women in the outer islands comes from handicraft production (80 per cent of employment for women) in addition to subsistence agriculture and fishing.

Within the public service almost half of the personnel are female. Despite women achieving a larger percentage of senior roles than in the past, this does not appear to flow on to women influencing governmental decision making or policy. Women are also predominantly represented in ministries traditionally seen as covering "women's issues" such health and education, while men dominate in hard infrastructure and energy. The private sector also illustrates a dominance of men in decision making roles with 423 male compared to 129 female employers (in 2010, latest available statistics).³² Pay equity is a serious issue with women only receiving 47 per cent of male income.³³

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

²⁵ Ibid.

²⁶ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. iii.

²⁷ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 31-33.

²⁸ Ibid, p. 12 and 42.

²⁹ United Nations Statistical Commission. (2010). Labor force participation, unemployment and economic sector of employment. <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/Worldswomen/Annex%20tables%20by%20chapter%20-%20pdf/Table4Ato4D.pdf>

³⁰ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 63.

³¹ JICA (2010). *Country Gender Profile: The Kingdom of Tonga*. Tokyo: JICA, p.p. iv-v.

³² UN Women (2014) Asia and the Pacific: Tonga. <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/countries/fiji/co/tonga>, accessed 22/03/2017.

³³ UN Women (2014) Asia and the Pacific: Tonga. <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/countries/fiji/co/tonga>, accessed 22/03/2017.

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

4. Social Context in Tonga

Tonga is a constitutional monarchy and transitioned from being a British protectorate in 1970. In 2009 a new Constitution significantly increased the role of the elected government; however the King retains direct authority for Foreign Affairs and Defence. Tongan society is structured through extended families, *kaingas*, which are headed by paternal males who “collectively make the decisions for the welfare and social obligations of the extended families”.³⁴ Social interaction is strongly influenced by the Royal family and nobility as well as the church. It is a ‘rank conscious’ society and age, sex and social status determine a person’s status.³⁵ A complex cycle of reciprocity and social exchange are required to maintain these systems. The TSDF II considers “One of the strengths of our traditional culture is the extent to which social support is built into our relationships of reciprocity.” However it also goes on to say “some of these social arrangements are helpful for the development of a progressive, dynamic and inclusive Tonga, while others have become a burden on progress, even a burden on the daily quality of life”.³⁶

The document identifies vulnerable peoples considered according to their age, as well as remoteness of island dwellers, various types of women (single headed households and the elderly) and the disabled. Specific strategies are identified in line with the quote above including the *TSDF II Organisational Outcome 2.7* which addresses better care and support for vulnerable people to ensure the elderly, youth, disabled and others with particular needs continue to be supported and protected despite shrinking extended families and other changing social institutions.³⁷

The TSDF II identifies “Traditional Values” as those based around a deep Christian faith focusing on stability, the maintenance of good relationships built on respect, reciprocal respect, reciprocity/sharing, humility, love/care, and duty.³⁸ It also identifies “Modern Development Values” based on the modern scientific world which may require a more individualistic focus than that prevailing in more traditional systems. “Western Values” are seen to be impacting on the social and cultural values of Tonga which includes modern developmental values that “tend to be more individually focussed, with more liberal views, which influence, for example, the style of their rule of law and human rights”. Finally “Asian and Other Values” are identified as a mix of traditional values and modern values. Interestingly the TSDF II states these

*value sets are not all of equal importance. Despite the many changes, we recognize the foundation importance of our Christian and traditional values. They lay the foundation of our Tongan inheritance... At the same time it is important that the development values do not compromise our traditional values, such as reciprocal respect in our exchanges, even when such exchanges seek to be more professional.*³⁹

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

³⁴ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p.6.

³⁵ Ibid p. 7.

³⁶ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku'alofa, p. 65.

³⁷ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku'alofa, p. 69.

³⁸ Ibid p. 39.

³⁹ Ibid, p. 40

*Closer partnership between government, churches and other stakeholders providing services to communities and support to community development to help promote stronger communities, better inclusion of all groups and human development.*⁴⁰

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

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

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

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

4.1 Education

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

Population aged 15 and older by sex and educational attainment (in %), Tonga: 2011⁴⁴

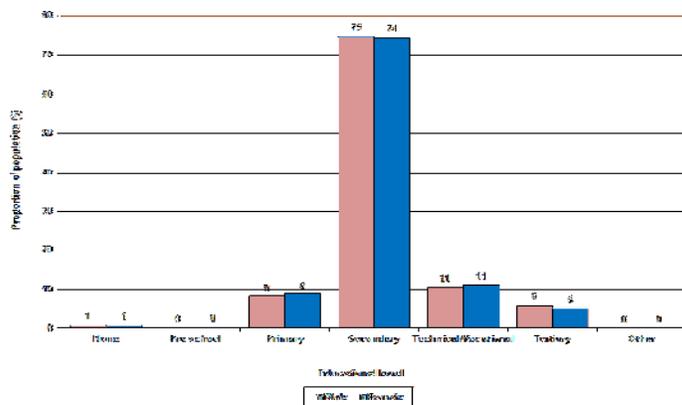
⁴⁰ Ibid p. 67.

⁴¹ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 44.

⁴² Stewart, Indira (2016), "LGBT community calls for change in conservative Tonga", Radio New Zealand, 9 October 2016, <http://www.radionz.co.nz/international/pacific-news/315201/lgbt-community-calls-for-change-in-conservative-tonga>, access 28/04/2017

⁴³ UNESCO Institute for Statistics 2016, cited in <http://countrymeters.info/en/Tonga>, accessed 17/04/2017.

⁴⁴ Secretariat of the Pacific Community (SPC), 2014. Tonga 2011 Census of Population and Housing, Volume 2: Analytical Report. Noumea: Secretariat of the Pacific Community and Tonga Department of Statistics, p. 40.



The presence of women in higher education does not translate to their positions in the labour market as the majority of graduates marry and remain at home, not using their skills in the marketplace.⁴⁵ Interestingly UNESCO statistics illustrate that women dominate as teachers in primary education (95.5 per cent), and marginally in secondary education (54 per cent) but only comprise 23.3 per cent of teachers at tertiary level, but again these statistics are from 2010.

The University of the South Pacific has a campus in Tonga. Many students also access scholarship programmes to universities in Australia and New Zealand. The Tonga Institute of Science and Technology (TIST) traditionally provided technical training to males due to the focus on training in maritime, automotive engineering, carpentry and joinery, electrical engineering and welding. Since the 1990's vocational training courses in tourism, hospitality, agriculture, accounting and IT have since been introduced which have opened up options for women. Church-based vocational training institutes also provide certificates in cookery, hospitality, sewing, tourism, business, IT, art and craft and secretarial skills.⁴⁶

Tonga's MDG report in 2015 acknowledges that prior to 2000, training courses from technical institutes were seen by women as 'culturally appropriate' for men only. It now considers that more choices are available; and that there should be a change in the trend in the next decade or so where the share of women in wage employment improves substantially.⁴⁷

The UNDP report of 2009 *Pacific Sisters with Disabilities: At the Intersection of Discrimination* considers the education policies of Tonga provide a good example of promoting inclusive education, including in rural and remote areas.⁴⁸ Children with disabilities are included in the formal primary education system to ensure they learn the skills for economic and social life, without becoming a burden to their families and communities.⁴⁹

4.2 Health

Tongan maternal mortality rates have drastically declined, from 205 per 100,000 live births in 1995 to 110 in 2015. 99 per cent of births are attended by a skilled birth professional.⁵⁰ Tonga also has a low infant mortality rate (averaging around 15 per 1,000 live births), which is considered to be a result of a

⁴⁵ JICA (2010). Country Gender Profile: The Kingdom of Tonga. Tokyo: JICA.

⁴⁶ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 85.

⁴⁷ Ibid, p. 70.

⁴⁸ Stubbs, Daniel and Tawake, Sainimili (2009). *Pacific sisters with disabilities: at the intersection of discrimination*. Suva: UNDP Pacific Centre, p. 41.

⁴⁹ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 158/

⁵⁰ World Health Organization. (2014). Women: Data by country, <http://apps.who.int/gho/data/view.main.1630>

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

The total fertility rate for Tonga is 3.7 births per woman. The OECD member country rate is 1.7 and least developed countries are at 4.1; so this is very high. However it is the same rate as Kiribati and PNG with the Solomon Islands at 3.9 and Samoa at 4, making it not unusual for the Pacific (although Fiji is only 2.5).⁵² The *ADB Economic Update and Outlook for Tonga* in 2012 considered contraceptive services to widely available, at least for married women, but states that rates of use are reported to be low.⁵³ UN Women states that as of 2011 only 27 per cent of Tongan women were using a form of contraception, which is lower than was recorded in 1990.⁵⁴ HIV/AIDS prevalence in Tonga is low. Official statistics illustrate a decline for sexually transmitted diseases in the past 30 years however serious under reporting is also suspected to exist.⁵⁵

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

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

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

4.3 Gender Based violence

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

⁵¹ ADB (2013). *Tonga Economic Update and Outlook 2012*. Manila: Asian Development Bank, p. 31.

⁵² World Population Prospects, quoted from World Bank website <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SP.DYN.TFRT.IN>, accessed 10/05/2017

⁵³ Ibid, p. 32.

⁵⁴ World Health Organization. (2014). Women: Data by country, <http://apps.who.int/gho/data/view.main.1630>

⁵⁵ McMillan, Karen (2011). Tradition, Respect and Reputation: Cultural, Familial, and Personal Risk Attached to Condom Use for Young People in Tonga, in *Intersections: Gender and Sexuality in Asia and the Pacific* Issue 26.

⁵⁶ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku’alofa, p. 68.

⁵⁷ World Bank(2014). *Hardship and Vulnerability in the Pacific Island Countries*. Washington: World Bank, p. 70.

⁵⁸ UN Women (2014) Asia and the Pacific: Tonga. <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/countries/fiji/co/tonga>, accessed 22/03/2017.

⁵⁹ Cited in Commonwealth of Learning (2015). *Gender Profile: Tonga*. London: Commonwealth of Learning, p. 3.

⁶⁰ Stubbs, Daniel and Tawake, Sainimili (2009). *Pacific sisters with disabilities: at the intersection of discrimination*. Suva: UNDP Pacific Centre, p. 45.

sexual violence and 91 per cent of women had experienced, at least once in their lifetime, controlling behaviour from their husband. It also identified that perpetrators of violence are just as likely to be well respected and educated Tongan men.⁶¹

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

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

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

4.4 Civil Society Partnerships

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

The Civil Society Forum of Tonga is a national umbrella organisation for Tongan CSOs/NGOs with a vision to “to provide strong leadership to develop an effective Civil Society Sector in Tonga”. Its mission statement articulates that it is

*committed to creating a conducive environment for all Civil Society Organisations development through open dialogue, equal participation, partnership, collective decision making and consensus building. CSFT will continue to empower Civil Society Organisations by providing opportunities for capacity building and leadership development.*⁶⁶

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

⁶¹ Ma'a Fafine mo e Famili (2009). *National Study on Domestic Violence against Women in Tonga*. Nuku'alofa.

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

⁶³ UN Women (2014) Asia and the Pacific: Tonga. <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/countries/fiji/co/tonga>, accessed 22/03/2017.

⁶⁴ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku'alofa, p. 118.

⁶⁵ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 43.

⁶⁶ Civil Society Forum of Tonga, <http://www.piango.net/PIANGO/NLU/NLUs/tonga.html>, accessed 2/05/2017.

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

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

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

5. Gender Specific Issues

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

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

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

⁶⁷ Cited in ADB (2015). *Civil Society Briefs: Tonga*. Manila: ADB, p. 2

⁶⁸ Ibid, p. 3.

⁶⁹ Last updated 2014, Gender Equality Index website, <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/GII>, accessed 21/03/2017.

⁷⁰ Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Women in Parliament website*, <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>, accessed 20/03/2017

⁷¹ "Tonga women activists to press for reserved female seats in Parliament", ABC News, 10/03/2017, <http://www.abc.net.au/news/2017-03-10/tonga-women-activists-to-press-for-reserved-female/8344942>, accessed 20/03/2017

⁷² Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 71.

⁷³ Ibid, p. 71.

⁷⁴ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 73.

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

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

5.1 Institutional Framework for Gender

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

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

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

The policy goal is to:

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

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

⁷⁵ ADB (2013). *Tonga Economic Update and Outlook 2012*. Manila: Asian Development Bank, p. 36.

⁷⁶ Government of Tonga (2014). *Revised National Policy on Gender and Development (RNPGAD)*. Nuku'alofa, p. 9.

⁷⁷ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku'alofa, p. 71.

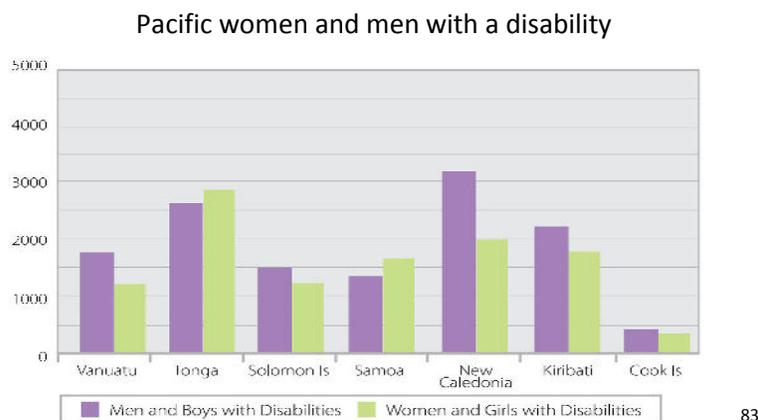
⁷⁸ Government of Tonga (2014). *Revised National Policy on Gender and Development (RNPGAD)*. Nuku'alofa, p. 10.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

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

6. Disability Specific Issues

According to UNESCAP, an estimated 17% of people in the Pacific have some form of disability in 2013.⁸¹ The World Health Organisation estimate global rates at 15 per cent with 2-4 per cent experiencing significant difficulties in functioning.⁸² The graph below illustrates that only Tonga and Samoa have more females with disabilities than men (of those listed).



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

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

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

⁸⁰ Ibid, p. 12.

⁸¹ Pacific Disability Forum, <http://www.pacificdisability.org/About-Us/Disability-in-the-Pacific.aspx>, accessed 1/05/2017.

⁸² WHO 2011 World Report on Disability, http://www.who.int/disabilities/world_report/2011/report/en/, accessed 1/05/2017.

⁸³ Stubbs, Daniel and Tawake, Sainimili (2009). *Pacific sisters with disabilities: at the intersection of discrimination*. Suva: UNDP Pacific Centre, p. 17.

⁸⁴ Ibid, p. 54.

⁸⁵ Government of Tonga (2014). *National Policy on Disability Inclusive Development 2014-2018*, p. 4.

⁸⁶ Government of Tonga (2014). *National Policy on Disability Inclusive Development 2014-2018*, p. 3

effective participation and inclusion in society; respect for difference and acceptance of persons with disabilities as part of human diversity and humanity; equality of opportunity; accessibility; equality between men and women; respect for the evolving capacities of children with disabilities and respect for the right of children with disabilities to preserve their identities.

Priority areas of the Policy include legislation; ratifying CRPD; education, training and sports; access to health services; employment and livelihoods; mainstreaming disability across Tongan Government and civil society; awareness and advocacy; strengthening disabled persons' organisations in Tonga; and addressing women with disabilities, acknowledging their multiple discrimination due to their gender and their disability. It quotes a UNFPA study in Tonga that identified violence towards women with disabilities as often perpetrated by family members.⁸⁷ The study also considered that Tongan women with disabilities have less access to sexual and reproductive health services compared to women in general. The objectives in NPDID states that violence against women with disabilities will be effectively addressed.

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

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

7. SECTOR SPECIFIC ISSUES:

7.1 Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction

Tonga is ranked as the second most disaster prone country in the world based on exposure, susceptibility, coping capacity, and adaptive capacity. Cyclone Ian which hit Tonga in January 2014, was the most powerful storm ever recorded in Tonga and impacted approximately 5,000 people, or 66% of the local population of Ha'apai. USD\$53 million worth of damages was wreaked on housing, business, agriculture, power infrastructure, and education.⁸⁸ No sex disaggregated data is available from this; however a UN Women report cites the Safety and Protection Assessment of Cyclone Ian identified women as sole income earners in Ha'apai being adversely affected when due to the loss of pandanus leaves, the main material used for weaving.⁸⁹ Data is available to substantiate that 70 per cent of the adults who died in the 2009 tsunami and Tongan ferry disaster were female.

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

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

⁸⁸ Asian Development Bank (2016). *Pacific Energy Update 2016*. Manila: ADB, p. 21

⁸⁹ Morioka, Kate (2016). Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction. *Bangkok: UN Women*, p. 25.

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

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

The *National Disaster Management Legislation 2007*, the *First National Communication* (NC) in 2005, *Second National Communication* in 2012 or the *Intended Nationally Determined Contribution* (INDC) (no date) do not address issues of gender or disability. They do mention social and poverty issues with the First NC report in 2005 stating “energy services drive economic and social development”⁹⁰ and is echoed by the Second NC report which states “an affordable, reliable power supply is basic to economic and social wellbeing”.⁹¹

The INDC states the primary focus of the government’s national climate mitigation approach is poverty alleviation with a lack of climate proofing investments further risking Government’s poverty alleviation commitments and national development. It identifies the higher levels of poverty on the outer islands.⁹² Social issues are discussed in general terms, in terms of energy constraints impacting on social issues but details on are not identified on what specific social issues these are.

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

In the Hyogo Framework for Action report for the 2011-2013 period, Tonga considered it met all the gender indicators, being one of the few Pacific Islands countries to do this. It claimed gender issues were addressed in disaster risk planning, assessments, recovery and decision-making processes. The report stated that gender issues are ‘acknowledged’ by government agencies, with strong gender commitments in the sectoral policy and programmes of social welfare, health, agriculture and water.⁹³ It does make the statement that “gender issues are generally not yet perceived as a strong driver of DRR achievements even though gender and division of labour are practiced during disasters”,⁹⁴ and it

⁹⁰ Government of Tonga (2005). *First National Communication*. Nuku’alofa: Government of Tonga, p. 25.

⁹¹ Government of Tonga (2012). *Second National Communication*. Nuku’alofa: Government of Tonga, p. 101.

⁹² Government of Tonga (no date). *Intended Nationally Determined Contributions*. Nuku’alofa: Government of Tonga, p. 3.

⁹³ Government of Tonga. (2012). *National progress report on the implementation of the Hyogo Framework for Action (2011-2013) – Interim Report*.

⁹⁴ Ibid, p. 48.

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

An assessment was made of climate change and disaster risk reduction projects in Tonga using the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Gender Marker in 2009. This review identified that nearly half of all projects were completely gender-blind and another quarter of all projects had limited or purely cosmetic reference to gender or social vulnerability.⁹⁵ It also stated that projects were more likely to overlook gender issues if the project was directly funded by a line ministry, with an increased focus on gender in the design of projects funded by ADB or UNDP as an implementing partner.⁹⁶

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

7.2. Energy

89 per cent of households in Tonga have access to grid electricity; however 90 per cent of this power generation is from imported diesel, increasing Tonga’s exposure to fluctuating fuel prices, paired with higher transport costs for those in the outer islands. Renewable energies have the potential to decrease tariff prices, increase energy efficiency and security as well as decrease emissions. The Government of Tonga has committed to 70 per cent of electricity to be generated from renewable sources by 2030, however in 2015 renewable energy only accounted for approximately 9 per cent⁹⁷. Furthermore at the beginning 2016, a total of 1.3MW of grid connected solar power generation has begun installation in the outer islands through the on-going Outer Island Renewable Energy Project. The Tonga Renewable Energy Project is supporting this target through the development of solar, integrated diesel systems and wind generation.

Tonga Power Ltd. is the state-owned electricity provider, and claims that Cyclone Ian affected 90 per cent of Ha’apai’s distribution lines; 40–70 per cent of electricity poles; 65 per cent of transformers; 90 per cent of transformer structures; and 95 per cent of streetlights. As such, climate-proofing the electricity network is essential. ADB provided assistance to address the response from Cyclone Ian, including a gender mainstreaming approach encompassing the training and hiring of seven female workers to support the installation of power lines and the operation of heavy machinery.⁹⁸

7.2.1 Energy, poverty and social issues

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

⁹⁵ Government of Tonga. (2015). *Draft Climate Financing and Risk Governance Assessment*. Unpublished.

⁹⁶ Morioka, Kate (2016). Time to Act on Gender, Climate Change and Disaster Risk Reduction. *Bangkok: UN Women*, p. 50

⁹⁷ Asian Development Bank (2016). *Asian development outlook 2016 update. Meeting the low-carbon growth challenge*. Mandaluyong City, Philippines: Asian Development Bank, 2016, pp. 112.

⁹⁸ Asian Development Bank (2016). *Pacific Energy Update 2016*. Manila: ADB, p. 21

The need for energy systems to be linked to poverty alleviation thus becomes an essential strategy. Cambridge University's 2012 *Global Energy Assessment - Toward a Sustainable Future* states:

Energy systems in developing countries and associated economic and welfare policies need to be redesigned to ensure an emphatic pro-poor orientation that will move toward universal access to cleaner and affordable forms of energy in key economic sectors that the poor rely on such as health, water, education, agriculture and transport....Experiences in developing countries point to an overarching conclusion: when power sector reforms were introduced with the sole intention of improving the performance of utilities, the expected and hoped-for social benefits did not necessarily follow. Where governments maintained a role as instigator or at least regulator of improved access to electricity by the poor, tariffs for poor households tended to decrease and levels and rates of electrification tended to increase⁹⁹.

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

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

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

This statement by the Prime Minister articulates that a more resilient energy supply is necessary for Tonga as a part of its poverty alleviation strategy with targeting affordable energy a critical aspect for poor people. The TDSF II Organisational Outcome 4.1 calls for "more reliable, safe, affordable and widely available energy services built on an appropriate energy mix moving towards increased use of renewable energy".¹⁰¹ The Strategy identifies the need for access to energy to enable access to clean water, education and health services and food security as well as communication systems, transport and wider services, especially for the outer islands.

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

7.2.2 Women in the energy sector

UN Women's study of gender, climate change and DRR in the Pacific (2016) found that a third of the projects were completely gender-blind although many focused on energy, agriculture, water resources, promotion of community resilience, and coastal zone management. Those that did mention gender referred to women in terms of women as vulnerable rather than in active decision making positions.¹⁰² It is essential to broaden the scope of women in energy to encompass women's economic development and empowerment through decision making and employment. In addition, access to efficient, reliable,

⁹⁹ Karekezi, S., S. McDade, B. Boardman and J. Kimani (2012) Chapter 2 - Energy, Poverty and Development. In *Global Energy Assessment - Toward a Sustainable Future*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, p. 155

¹⁰⁰ Kingdom of Tonga (2011). *Tonga Energy Road Map 2010 - 2020*. Nuku'alofa, p. xi.

¹⁰¹ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku'alofa, p. 20.

¹⁰² Ibid, p. 48.

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

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

As men generate or have more control over cash income, they usually also control most of the household decisions to invest family income in new energy sources—for example, dry batteries, solar home systems (SHS), and home appliances. For female-headed households, lack of collateral and cash income impedes ability to obtain credit to access modern energy (services and appliances).¹⁰³

Women also face energy challenges in the formal sector with women-headed businesses generally having lower access to finance and energy-related services (such as grid electricity) than men. UNDP claims addressing both women's and men's contributions and concerns increases access to and benefits from grid and off-grid electricity/energy sources. Conversely, failure to consider gendered interests, limits the effectiveness and sustainability of energy programmes.¹⁰⁴

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

The Pacific Energy and Gender Network (PEG) was established in 2003. The group's mandate was to (i) mainstream gender into energy and policy planning, (ii) improve networking at national and regional level with relevant stakeholders, (iii) strengthen information dissemination in order to increase awareness of energy and gender issues, (iv) provide technical assistance, (v) improve gender and energy training; and (vi) capacity building at different levels.¹⁰⁵ It developed the *Pacific Energy and Gender Network Strategic Action Plan (PEGSAP, 2006 – 2008)* in December 2005. A *Regional Strategic Planning Workshop* was held in Nuku'alofa in April 2009 to review this document and adopt and endorse the *Pacific Energy and Gender Network Strategic Action Plan 2009 – 2014*. The review of the first plan was conducted by the Gender Issues Officer of the Pacific Island Forum Secretariat (PIFS) in collaboration with PEG members. The Pacific Islands Applied Geoscience Commission (SOPAC) coordinated the initiatives related to the implementation of the Strategic Action Plan. The details below provide information on the Strategic Action Plans, but an internet search has found no current information for either the implementation of the Plan or the existence or activities of the PEG Network since 2009.

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

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

¹⁰⁴ UNDP (2013). Gender and Energy. New York: UNDP and GGCA, p. 2-3.

¹⁰⁵ Pacific Islands Applied Geoscience Commission (2009). *Pacific Energy and Gender Network Regional Strategic Planning Workshop Report*. Nuku'alofa, p.5.

aspects at all level.¹⁰⁶ Recommendations highlighted the need for gender mainstreaming be targeted as direct technical assistance to national energy offices (or equivalent); PEG members to be consulted when developing proposals for funding; and for the 2009 – 2014 PEGSAP to be added as a strategic document in the Pacific Islands Energy Policy (PIEP) and its strategic action plan having a clear linkage to the PIEP.

The *Pacific Energy and Gender Network Strategic Action Plan 2009 – 2014* had three overarching strategies: to build national capacity to ensure gender is mainstreamed into national energy policies and energy projects; conduct research and analysis on energy and gender linkages and gender mainstreaming of the energy sector at the national and local levels; and to strengthen networking and cooperation with relevant international, regional and national institutions.¹⁰⁷ The activities included in these strategies are contained in Annex 1.

Gender CC - Women for Climate Justice (a global network of organisations, experts and activists working for gender equality, women’s rights and climate justice based in Berlin) worked with SPC to develop a *Toolkit to Mainstream Gender into Energy, and Climate Change Community Based Adaptation Projects in the Pacific— To assist community practitioners in the Pacific working in Energy and Climate Change Community Based Adaptation*.¹⁰⁸

In 2010 Gender CC worked with SPC’s Energy Programme of the Economic Development Division to review gender mainstreaming in IUCN’s Renewable Energy Projects in Tuvalu, Tonga, Vanuatu, Samoa and Palau. A literature review mapped the gender, energy and development nexus and developed action plans for mainstreaming gender into the five SIDS IUCN Energy Projects. In Tonga this included a Solar PV Project on the Island of Mounga’one with the Department of Energy. The field visit was conducted to the island identified that the energy service enabled women to weave mats after daylight with the newly established lighting. This freed up women for other activities during the day. Children were also able to do their homework with in the evenings, and mobile phones assisted them to talk to family members living in other islands or overseas. The maintenance of the PV system was primarily seen as a role for men, however the review identified that there was no reason that women could not be trained to do this maintenance work. As the men were often away from the island, fishing or working on the main island, women’s management of the system was seen a practical intervention to both increase women’s capacity and also challenge gender norms.¹⁰⁹

7.2.4 National Policy on energy

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

Key action 4.2.6:

Support initiatives to improve conservation of energy (in particular in relation to electricity consumption and transport) and promote technologies for renewable energy as a mitigation and adaptation measure keeping in mind that energy services must serve the needs of the household and for the livelihood

a) Analyse the Tonga Energy Road Map (TERM) for gender mainstreaming and the collection of disaggregated data and for how the road map will impact on household livelihoods

b) Develop an IEC campaign on how households can contribute to energy conservation; monitor the campaign for impact.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid, pp. 10-12.

¹⁰⁷ Pacific Islands Applied Geoscience Commission (2009). *Pacific Energy and Gender Network Regional Strategic Planning Workshop Report*. Nuku’alofa, p.12.

¹⁰⁸ Gender CC (No Date). *Toolkit to Mainstream Gender into Energy, and Climate Change Community Based Adaptation Projects in the Pacific*.

¹⁰⁹ Ibid p. 20.

- (c) *Tonga's Cabinet endorsed the Tonga Energy Objectives in 2016*
- (d) *Tonga's Cabinet endorsed the Tonga National Energy Policy in 2016*
- (e) *Drafting of National Energy legislation as umbrella legislation for existing energy related legislations in the country.*
- (f) *Alignment of electricity regulatory roles with the government policies and focus..*
- (g) *Lifeline Electricity Tariff Policy and Guidelines*

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

7.2.5 Solar and wind initiatives in the Pacific

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

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

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

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

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

¹¹⁰ Ibid, p. 46.

¹¹¹ Losirene Lakanivalu (2016). 'Solar mama' plan powers Pacific, Cook Island News, Monday November 28, 2016, <http://www.cookislandsnews.com/national/local/item/61888-solar-mama-plan-powers-pacific/61888-solar-mama-plan-powers-pacific>, accessed 18/04/2017

¹¹² SPBD Solar Lighting Loan lighting up homes in the Solomon Islands, Pacific Women in Business website, <http://pacificwomeninbusiness.com.au/blog/inspiration/spbd-solar-lighting-loan-lighting-homes-solomon-islands/>, accessed 19/04/2017

for women to maintain home based businesses. It is currently operating in the Solomon Islands and Vanuatu.¹¹³

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

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

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

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

Project Gender Action Plan Summary

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

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

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

¹¹³ Island Lights Project, Women's Federation for World Peace Australia website, <https://www.wfwpaustralia.org/island-lights-project>, accessed 19/04/2017.

¹¹⁴ Women and Wind Energy website <http://www.womenofwindenergy.org/november-wowe-expanding-to-advance-women-across-the-renewable-energy-spectrum.html>, accessed 19/04/2017

¹¹⁵ Herman K. Trabish (2013). Women in the Wind Industry, Green Tech Media website, <https://www.greentechmedia.com/articles/read/why-does-the-wind-industry-need-women>, accessed 19/04/2017.

opportunities to be potentially built by the private sector. Again the GAP points to liaison with local women's NGOs to assist in identifying interested and capable women to meet the targets.

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

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

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

Annex 1: Summary Poverty Reduction and Social Strategy

Country: Project Title:

Lending/Financing Modality: Department/ Division:

<p>I. POVERTY AND SOCIAL ANALYSIS AND STRATEGY</p> <p>Targeting classification: General Intervention</p>
<p>A. Links to the National Poverty Reduction and Inclusive Growth Strategy and Country Partnership Strategy</p> <p>This project is in line with ADB’s country operations business plan for Tonga, the Tonga Strategic Development Framework II 2015-2025, the Pacific Approach 2015-2020, which promotes job creation, inclusive economic growth and human development and the Revised National Policy on Gender and Development.</p>
<p>B. Results from the Poverty and Social Analysis during PPTA or Due Diligence</p> <p>1. Key poverty and social issues</p> <p>ADB identifies the latest poverty statistics in Tonga (for 2009) at 22.5 per cent, which is lower than many neighbouring Pacific countries.¹¹⁶ Tonga did not meet the MDG targets for poverty and it is highly susceptible to price shocks due to the reliance on food and fuel imports. Although there is no absolute poverty, due in part to a high level of remittances, and subsistence farming and fishing; there is a high level of income disparity. Households on Tongatapu have approximately 15 per cent above the national average of GDP per capita whilst those in the outer islands such the Ha’apai island group have a GDP about 40 per cent below the national average.¹¹⁷ Data also revealed that female headed households account for 24.6 per cent of those falling below the Basic Needs Poverty Line and that 29.5 per cent of children living in female headed households are in households below the Basic Needs Poverty Line.¹¹⁸</p> <p>The <i>Tonga Strategic Development Framework II (2015-2025)</i> addresses issues for those most vulnerable including those in the outer islands, the elderly, youth, women, single headed households, the landless, unemployed and the disabled. The government has developed a progressive policy and approach to disability issues (<i>National Policy on Disability Inclusive Development 2014-2018</i>) and a solid <i>National Policy Statement on Gender and Development and Strategic Action Plan 2014 – 2018</i>. There are however no government documents addressing the needs of the LGBTI community and homosexuality is against the law.</p> <p>2. Beneficiaries.</p> <p>The beneficiaries of the Project are the residents of Tonga without access to electricity. 90 per cent of Tonga’s power generation is from imported diesel. Renewable energies have the potential to decrease tariff prices, increase energy efficiency and security as well as decrease emissions. The Tonga Renewable Energy Project is supporting Tonga to develop further solar, integrated diesel systems and wind generation in outer islands and installation of batteries in wind and solar farm in Tongatapu. It will significantly increase electricity generation reaching those without energy supply. From the poverty assessment it is clear that women headed households are the greatest proportion of the population living below the Basic Needs Poverty Line, and as such should be prioritized in the project in all trainings and capacity building activities.</p> <p>Impact channels.</p> <p>The project will address poverty, social issues and gender through increasing the resilience and sustainability of</p>

¹¹⁶ Asian Development Bank (2016). *Basic 2016 Statistics: Economic Research and Regional Cooperation Department*. Manila: ADB Development Economics and Indicators Division, p. 2.

¹¹⁷ Government of Tonga (2015). *Millennium Development Goals Final Report*. Nuku’alofa, p.30.

¹¹⁸ Government of Tonga (2015). *Tonga Strategic Development Framework, 2015–2025*. Nuku’alofa, p.30.

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

4. Other social and poverty issues.

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

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

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

5. Design features.

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

C. Poverty Impact Analysis for Policy-Based Lending. N/A?

II. PARTICIPATION AND EMPOWERING THE POOR

1. Summarize the participatory approaches and the proposed project activities that strengthen inclusiveness and empowerment of the poor and vulnerable in project implementation.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Indicate in each box the level of participation by marking high (H), medium (M), low (L), or not applicable (N) based on definitions in ADB's Guide to Participation.

Information gathering and sharing (M) Consultation (L) Collaboration Partnership

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

Yes. No.

III. GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

Gender mainstreaming category: Effective Gender Mainstreaming

A. Key Gender Issues are:

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

Women in Tonga dominate the informal sector with their role in agriculture and food production not recognised fully in official statistics as 39 per cent of households produce crops to sell through markets and roadside stalls in the informal economy, as well as handicrafts generally sold through the informal market.¹¹⁹ Most women are employed in unskilled menial work or subordinate positions and low paid positions with the major income for women in the outer islands comes handicraft production (80 per cent of employment for women). Women's ability to participate in their own businesses due to their inability to own land, thus lacking financial assets.

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

¹¹⁹ Ibid

infrastructure and energy. Pay equity is a serious issue with women only receiving 47 per cent of male income.¹²⁰ Data identifies that female headed households comprise 22 per cent of all households and are considered the most vulnerable, with least access to resources.

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

General health and education standards are high for Tonga with little gender disparity. The main health issues for women are obesity, diabetes and cardiovascular diseases with the average weight for women increasing over 30 years by 21.1kg to 95.0kg. A study from *The Lancet* found 52.6 per cent of Tongan girls compared with 34.5 per cent of Tongan boys are overweight.¹²¹ Violence against women is the other major health and social issue with a national study in 2009 identifying 68 per cent of Tongan women and girls affected by physical violence perpetrated by predominantly their fathers or teachers. It also noted that violence is exacerbated by living with extended family, alcohol consumption and economic hardship faced by men.

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

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

B. Key actions.

Gender action plan Other actions or measures No action or measure

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

IV. ADDRESSING SOCIAL SAFEGUARD ISSUES

A. Involuntary Resettlement

Safeguard Category: A B C FI

¹²⁰ UN Women (2014) Asia and the Pacific: Tonga. <http://asiapacific.unwomen.org/en/countries/fiji/co/tonga>, accessed 22/03/2017.

¹²¹ Cited in Commonwealth of Learning (2015). *Gender Profile: Tonga*. London: Commonwealth of Learning, p. 3.

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

2. Strategy to address the impacts.

3. Plan or other Actions.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Resettlement plan | <input type="checkbox"/> Combined resettlement and indigenous peoples plan |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Resettlement framework | <input type="checkbox"/> Combined resettlement framework and indigenous peoples planning framework |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Environmental and social management system arrangement | <input type="checkbox"/> Social impact matrix |

B. Indigenous Peoples

Safeguard Category: A B C FI

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

Is broad community support triggered? Yes No

2. Strategy to address the impacts. N/A

3. Plan or other actions. None

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Indigenous peoples plan | <input type="checkbox"/> Combined resettlement plan and indigenous peoples plan |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Indigenous peoples planning framework | <input type="checkbox"/> Combined resettlement framework and indigenous peoples planning framework |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Environmental and social management system arrangement | <input type="checkbox"/> Indigenous peoples plan elements integrated in project with a summary |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social impact matrix | |

V. ADDRESSING OTHER SOCIAL RISKS

A. Risks in the Labor Market

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

M unemployment L underemployment L retrenchment L core labor standards

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

B. Affordability

C. Communicable Diseases and Other Social Risks

1. Indicate the respective risks, if any, and rate the impact as high (H), medium (M), low (L), or not applicable (NA):
L Communicable diseases N/A Human trafficking

Others (please specify) _____

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

VI. MONITORING AND EVALUATION

1. Targets and indicators:

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

Required human resources:

A Social Development and Gender Specialist is required as a core member of staff to ensure the appropriate target groups are active in the project, identified as beneficiaries and that gender issues and sex disaggregated data is tracked through the monitoring.

2. Information in PAM:

The PAM will require sex-disaggregated data collection for indicators of gender participation in community consultation, training activities and employment statistics. GAP report will detail the progress of implementation, with a separate section also addressing ongoing issues for women in the project sites.

3. Monitoring tools:

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

ANNEX 2: REFERENCES

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Gender documents for FP091

Gender and Social Inclusion Action Plan

I. Gender Overview

In 2015 Kiribati ranked 137 out of 180 countries in the United Nations Human Development Index, with insufficient information for a gender ranking in the United Nations Gender Development Index (GDI)¹. Kiribati has achieved gender parity in primary education. Gender balance in education is an issue in secondary education in Kiribati with the number of female students vastly outnumbering the number of males. For secondary education, total female enrolments ranged from 10 per cent higher in Form 1 to 60 per cent higher in Form 7 in 2014².

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

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

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

II. Cultural Issues and Gender Relations

The 2015 census showed the population of 110,136 with more females (56,040) than males (54,096). More males and females live in urban settings than in rural areas, with females outnumbering males in the urban areas. Life expectancy at birth is 63.7 years for males and 68.8 years for females⁴. See Table 1.

Table 1: Population by Sex and Age Group in South Tarawa

	Total	Male	Female	Total	0-5	6-14	15-17	18-49	50+
Kiribati	110,136	54,096	56,040	110,136	17,476	20,962	7,089	49,972	14,637
STarawa	56,388	27,159	29,229	56,388	7,654	9,656	3,567	27,385	7,126

Source: 2015 Kiribati Population and Housing Census.

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

¹ <http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/GDI#b>. The GDI measures gender gaps in human development achievements by accounting for disparities between women and men in three basic dimensions of human development— health, knowledge and living standards.

² KDP 2015.

³ World Health Organization (WHO) Global Health Observatory

⁴ CIA. 2016

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

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

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

Laws and Policies on Gender Equality

Kiribati ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in April 2004. In September 2013, the Government of Kiribati signed the instrument of accession to the UN Convention Against Corruption and the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. The ratification of the two optional protocols to the Convention on the Rights of the Child occurred in 2014.

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

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

Kiribati's constitution affords women formal equality before the law but stops short of affording them all the benefits and outcomes required under CEDAW. While these constitutional anti-discrimination provisions exist, they do not include sex as protected ground. Notably, while there is a provision providing protection from discrimination on the

grounds of race and political opinion, there is no protection from discrimination on the basis of sex, sexual orientation or disability (UN Human Rights Council 2010). While the constitution provides for the protection of fundamental rights and freedoms, like most countries, they are subject to certain qualifications and limitations. In particular, Kiribati's customary laws are given recognition in the Courts including for Civil cases the ownership by custom of water or of rights in, over or to water (*Laws of Kiribati Act, 1989*).

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

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

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

The SPC report⁵ states that the Aia Mwaea Ainen Kiribati (AMAK) was established as a non-government organization in 1982 to serve as an umbrella organization for the various church affiliated women's organizations. Following a national conference, AMAK was dissolved as an umbrella organization and an arrangement was set up to integrate government and NGO functions. In more recent years, there has been a separation of function of Government and NGO with AMAK now functioning as an NGO and the Ministry of Women, Youth and Social Affairs established to take over the oversight of Government's commitments to gender equality and women's empowerment. A restructuring of AMAK, the umbrella organization for women's groups, is scheduled for the near future (*personal communication Principle Women's Department*). At the present time, women's groups in South Tarawa function independently upon the request of international and national agencies.

The Principle attends regional meetings and prepares documents for government use. She is currently compiling the data required for the Government's CEDAW report. The SPC report⁶ indicates that Kiribati's initial CEDAW report has been compiled, and is in draft form awaiting Government endorsement before it is submitted. Capacity constraints are one of the main reasons for the delay in complying with the reporting obligations.

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

⁵ SPC. Undated.

⁶ Ibid.

small. In the 2007 elections, three women were elected. In the 2011 elections, all three incumbent women MPs won their seats, plus one more woman candidate was elected. Of these four women MPs, one continued as Vice President, and another was selected as Minister of Education. Following the election process in December 2015 and January 2016, three women were elected, joining their 41 male counterparts as the new Members of Parliament of Kiribati, with women therefore currently comprising 7% of Members of Parliament⁷. At the local level, only seven out of 142 Island Councilors are women (5% of Island Councilors).⁸

At the same time, anecdotal evidence from project staff and government executives has indicated that women in Kiribati play a pivotal role in driving a number of progressive initiatives – particularly those with social impacts – and are key in influencing their success. Examples of this include the significant work carried out during KAP III to improve community and beach cleanliness, as well as WASH initiatives spearheaded by Mother Communities comprised primarily of women⁹. Women have been instrumental in both supporting these initiatives and ensuring a degree of activity continuation. This important decision-making role that women play in Kiribati – in Government ranks and otherwise - is currently unrecognized / undocumented. Further research in this area is recommended in the project Gender Action Plan.

Gender Gaps in Economic Development

Women's share of wage employment in the non-agriculture sector—industry (e.g., construction and manufacturing) and services—is commonly used as a measure of gender equality in formal sector employment. Women hold a nearly equal share of these jobs in Tonga (48%), Kiribati (47%), the Cook Islands (47%), and Niue (46%). Women's share is lowest in Timor-Leste (31%), Fiji (33%), and Solomon Islands (33%).¹⁰

Employment in South Tarawa

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

Tables 2, 3 and 4 present this data.

⁷ The House of Assembly has 46 members, 44 of whom are directly elected for a four-year term representing electorates; one representative of the Banaban Community; and the attorney general as ex-officio member.

⁸ *Kiribati National Statistics Office*. 2015

⁹ Personal communication November 2017.

¹⁰ ADB 2016

Table 2: Population 15 years and over, sex and work status 2015

	Employee			Self-employed			Employer			Subsistence		
	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F
	Kiribati	15,731	9630	6101	9292	4856	4436	143	70	73	2788	1562
STarawa	11116	6884	4232	2505	924	1581	109	53	56	737	416	321

Source: 2015 Kiribati Population and Housing Census.

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

	Not Employed		
	Total	Male	Female
	Kiribati	43540	18147
S Tarawa	23604	9515	23604

Source: 2015 Kiribati Census. Kiribati National Statistics Office

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

	Total			Male			Female		
	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No
	Kiribati	43,540	17,114	26,426	18,147	7,884	10,263	25,393	9,230
STarawa	23,604	10,487	13,117	9,515	4,657	4,858	14,089	5,830	8,259

Source: 2015 Kiribati Census. Kiribati National Statistics Office

Economic Status of Female Headed Households: An analysis of Kiribati's HIES¹¹ finds that '[t]he gender of the head of household appears to play a small but important role in determining the likelihood of a household being in poverty in Kiribati. Nationally just under one in five households was headed by a female' (KNSO & UNDPCC 2010, p.5). FHHs were over-represented in the lowest three expenditure deciles. Women make up 49% of those falling below the poverty line (KNSO & UNDPCC 2010).¹²

Education

Literacy

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

¹¹ Conducted in 2006. The next Kiribati HIES is scheduled for 2017.

¹² Governance and Social Development Resource Centre. 2012

¹³ ADB 2016

¹⁴ As noted in ADB 2016, sex disaggregated tertiary education statistics are not available.

Health

Kiribati faces a double burden of disease, with high mortality and morbidity from both communicable and non-communicable diseases (NCDs). NCDs, in particular heart disease, hypertension, diabetes and cancer are becoming more prevalent. This is contributing to increased hardship in the community and higher health service costs. Most of the increase in non-communicable diseases arises from poor nutrition. As of 2008, 53.6% of females over the age of 20 were obese, compared with 37.7% of men (WHO, 2015). The number of maternal deaths in 2015 was three, down from six in 1990.¹⁵ The SPC report states that at present it is difficult to gauge the accurate level of maternal death as data needs to be strengthened in this area. The teenage birth rate is relatively high with (49 births per 1000 age 15 – 19) (ADB 2016a), with 1.4% of births reported in the 2015 Population and Housing Census occurring in girls between the ages of 11 and 14. A broad range of reproductive health services are available but culture, tradition and religious views are a major barrier of women's access, particularly in outer islands.

Gender and Waterborne Disease

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

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

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

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

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

¹⁵ UN agencies. 2015

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

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

Child Protection

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

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

III. Gender and Water Supply

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

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

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

The role of men in fetching water is linked to the purchase of rainwater for HH consumption. Males can be seen along the roads in South Tarawa carrying containers of water such as pails or other receptacles. This work is considered heavy work and as

such is undertaken primarily by men. Household wells are generally located within a few feet from the residence so carrying water from the well is not usually an onerous task.

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

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

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

Source: 2015 Kiribati Population and Housing Census

2. Financial Literacy for Water Customers

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

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

The study found that low-income households have low-moderate levels of financial competence. This means most households are only able to competently undertake a subset of the financial activities required by the household to manage money effectively. Households are generally better at managing immediate and shorter term financial activities, and are less competent in managing longer term financial activities (including activities which require forward planning) and more complex financial activities, including activities which require engagement with the formal financial system. Overall, understanding of the cost of money was found to be very low.¹⁶

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

¹⁶ No sex disaggregated data is available.

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

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

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

The regional goals to be achieved by 2020 include:

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

3. Social Inclusion/Water Use Strategies

The Kiribati Program Poverty Assessment (*DFAT March 2014*) found that there is no direct translation for the word “poverty” in i-Kiribati communities as very few people were considered to ‘have nothing’ (te kain nano ni kannano), a concept roughly equivalent to ‘destitution’ in English (*ADB Kiribati Participatory Poverty Assessment 2007*). Having access to only traditional food was seen as hardship (te maiu ni kanganga, as the notion of difficulties in providing for family needs). This supports the common view that ‘hardship’ is a more appropriate concept than ‘poverty’ for the Pacific. The study identified poverty in Kiribati as linked to a number of trends:

- An increasing need for cash as more people lead increasingly urban lifestyles;
- Employment and ways to earn cash are limited;
- The traditional way of living is under threat; and
- The exclusion of certain groups remains an issue – people with disabilities and unemployed youth.

The project population includes people of all income levels, occupations and lifestyles. Each HH, depending on its resources, will develop a “water use strategy”, a strategy built on access to HH wells, rainwater and Public Utilities Board (PUB) water, whether from the tap or from a tanker. It is important to ensure that poorer HHs are not paying a greater percentage of their HH income for their water because of reduced access to other safe

water options. For example, income earners with built-in rainwater tanks have a free source of water, whereas those with traditional roofing buy rainwater from the maneaba or church at 50 cents a bucket. In rain rich years, the poor will still have to buy drinking water – rainwater or PUB water – or use water from their wells. Water from wells and the PUB water is usually boiled, but there is a belief that rainwater is pure to drink. Studies have shown that this belief is not justified, particularly as the containers in which rainwater is placed are often contaminated (MHMS Jan-Aug 2013 Water Monitoring Results in ADB 2014). The project must ensure through its pricing mechanisms that poorer HHs are not penalized because of their increased need for PUB water.

IV. Gender Equity and Social Inclusion Action Plan

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

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

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

Other Project costs linked to the Information, Education and Communication program (IEC) will be resourced by the GAP. These costs are noted under Output 2 in the GAP and are primarily "hard costs" associated with the IEC program to ensure gender sensitive materials are developed and available throughout the life of the project. "Soft costs" associated with the IEC will be funded through the Project Participation Plan and Stakeholder Communication Strategy (SCS) where activities will focus on village level house-to-house visits to inform and engage all beneficiaries. These consultations will focus on supporting behavioral change in maintaining the PUB reticulated water supply to each HH and willingness to pay for 24/7 safe water supply. This is further detailed in the SCS.

The PMU will be responsible for ensuring that the social and gender related design measures and targets are properly resourced, monitored and implemented as designed. An International Social Development and Gender Specialist will be contracted to coordinate the GAP implementation and monitoring. Sex-disaggregated baseline data will be collected and used to monitor GAP implementation and impact, and reported during quarterly and mid-term reviews using the ADB GAP reporting template.

The project will provide sufficient resources to implement the GAP. Total cost is estimated to be USD 48,000. The following strategies are proposed to address gender disparities in this project:

Gender Equity and Social Inclusion Action Plan (GESIAP)

Project Objective: Provide South Tarawa’s population with reliable access to a safe water supply under a changing climate:							
Project Outputs	Gender Targets and Activities	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget Required¹⁷	Means of Verifying the achievement of targets	Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets	Risk Mitigating Measures
Output 1 <i>Water supply infrastructure is improved through construction of desalination plant (s) with solar power and new network</i>	Establish new connections in project areas and informal settlements (total HHs: 7877 2015 census), which will benefit 100% of female-headed HHs as well. Baseline: 4135 water connections as of 2015 of which approx. 20 - 25% are Female headed households ¹⁸	Q2 2019 – Q1 2021	MISE staff and project engineers/ social and gender specialists	No cost for gender action – project will cover all HHs	Social Development and Gender Specialist (SDGS) collect sex-disaggregated data on connections for semi-annual Safeguard Progress Reports	Female headed households will be relegated as secondary priority.	Tracking of HH data early in the implementation to identify female headed households to be included in the list
	Women, poor, youth and vulnerable as well as disabled participate in project orientation and consultations and focus group discussions. Women-only project orientation sessions will be conducted. Male-only project orientation sessions will also be conducted due to men’s role in carrying water and the need to engage men to not damage the water supply piping. Target: Total participants will include 50% women and 50%	Q2 2018 - Q4 2024	MISE staff and project engineers/ SDGS/PDA consultant	USD8000	Meeting minutes, photos and attendance sheets	Community leaders do not recognize the need for both women’s and men’s participation.	As part of the GESIAP, implementing these meetings is an important performance indicator for IA reporting and non-compliance will be noted. Women and men only consultations will be conducted.

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

¹⁸ Data provided by PPTA Economist. The 2006 HIES stated that between 20% and 25 % of HHs were female-headed.

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

Project Outputs	Gender Targets and Activities	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget Required ¹⁷	Means of Verifying the achievement of targets	Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets	Risk Mitigating Measures
	male participants for total project consultations/orientations Baseline: 0 (all target consultations will only take place during project implementation)						Timing of the meeting will be sensitive especially to women’s availability.
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Contractors engaged at least 10% women Orientation and guidance on labour standards, gender equality in wages, safety and hygiene to all contractors at commencement of work and monitor implementation Target: 100% of contractors Baseline = 0 Separate toilet/sanitation facilities for men and women workers (Baseline: 0) 	Q2 2019-Q1 2021	Contractors	No cost – part of MISE contract preparation and contractor’s contract Orientations and building toilet facilities for women are part of the contractors budget and supported by SDGS	Number of contractor orientation sessions, women staff employed, toilet facilities for both men and women reported in project progress report.	Support is not provided to ensure relevant clauses are in place. Orientations are not all inclusive of staff. Building separate toilets for women is not prioritized.	MISE staff monitors work sites to ensure orientations are done on time, toilet facilities for women are available and clauses and gender equality standards are followed.

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

Project Outputs	Gender Targets and Activities	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget Required ¹⁷	Means of Verifying the achievement of targets	Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets	Risk Mitigating Measures
	Community engagement in civil works will include at least 10% women. Baseline = 0	Q1 2020- Q4 2024	Contractor	Part of the contractor’s contract	Project progress report/billing statement	Women will not be prioritized in community engagement	Specific work opportunities suitable for women will be identified and target for women engagement agreed with the contractor
Output 2 <i>Water supply infrastructure management is improved</i>	Lifeline water tariff method developed by PUB with stakeholder communication program targeted at all HHs including poor households, low-income female-headed households, and vulnerable households Target: 100% of Women headed households served by PUB (estimated 1,033 in 2015) Baseline = 0 (the project will be the first to implement communication program on tariff method)	Q2 2018 – Q4 - 2024	MISE/PMU Directors/Staff/ WASH consultants	Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 1 “Water is Life” budget	Lifeline tariff publicized and implemented. PUB public awareness programs and billing documents	Planning for the public awareness program is not in place and implementation is too late	The project activities will give priority to the early implementation of this component as identified during the PPTA
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> O&M firm will employ at least 10% women Orientation and guidance on labour standards, gender equality in wages, safety and hygiene to all O&M firm employees at commencement of work 	Q1 2020- Q4 2024	O&M firm supervised by PMU	Orientations and building toilet facilities for women are part of the O&M firm’s budget and supported by SDGS	Number of contractor orientation sessions, women staff employed, toilet facilities for both men and women reported	Support is not provided to ensure relevant clauses are in place.	PUB staff monitors work sites to ensure toilet facilities for women are available and clauses and gender

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

Project Outputs	Gender Targets and Activities	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget Required ¹⁷	Means of Verifying the achievement of targets	Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets	Risk Mitigating Measures
	<p>and monitor implementation Target: 100% of contractors Baseline = 0</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Separate toilet/sanitation facilities for men and women workers (Baseline: 0) 				in project progress report.	<p>Orientations are not all inclusive of staff.</p> <p>Building separate toilets for women is not prioritized.</p>	equality standards are followed.
	Vocational training for technical and administration staff and mentoring and training for managers in PUB will include 30% women staff.	Q1 2020- Q4 2024	PUB with support from PMU	Part of the project cost under Output 2	Training reports with gender disaggregated records of participants	Perceived as additional workload by the staff including women	Trainings will be made mandatory and proper planning will be in place to ensure right schedule
	Using a variety of social science techniques, qualitative data is collected over the life of the project in 4 – 6 project areas to measure improvements in the quality of women's lives due to safe water usage. These could include baseline, mid and end of project surveys. (Baseline = N/A)	Q2 2018 – Q4 2024	PUB Client Service Manager/ and Unit staff and PMU staff including SDGS	Included in the IEC program costs	PUB Client Service Manager/Unit and PMU staff including social and gender specialists	Planning for these studies is not in place and implementation is too late	SDGS will follow the progress of the planning/implementation and report to MISE/ADB
	PUB water supply clients provided with quarterly Financial Literacy training to ensure ability to pay for water usage when required (target: 75% women, 25% men as	Q3 2019- Q2 2024	PMU to identify and contract financial literacy trainers	USD 40,000	Financial literacy training packages available for review	Financial literacy is seen as outside the PUB responsibility	SDGS will follow the progress of the planning/implementation and

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

Project Outputs	Gender Targets and Activities	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget Required ¹⁷	Means of Verifying the achievement of targets	Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets	Risk Mitigating Measures
	managing HH resources); Baseline = 0						report to MISE/ADB
	Project staff in MISE and contractors receive awareness session on sexual harassment. The contractors will submit to MISE a policy against sexual harassment to be implemented during the entire project duration (baseline: 0)	Q1 2019 – Q4 2024	MISE supported by SDGS	No additional cost. Sessions will be delivered by MWYSA VAW unit staff.	Report from sexual harassment awareness training. Sexual harassment policy	Lack of full participation from staff	Staff attendance will be mandatory and non compliance reflected in PPMS and Semi-annual Safeguard report
	GESIAP training provided to PMU staff, project implementation support consultants and relevant MISE/PUB staff (100 total estimated number comprised of 25% women participants)	Q1 2019 – Q4 2024	MISE Director/PUB staff/PMU staff to ensure attendance	Part of the PMU cost	Training reports and attendance sheets	GESIAP orientation may not be considered important	The SDGS will work with the PMU/MISE and PUB management to prepare and present the GESIAP sessions
	GESIAP implementation monitored and reported	Q1 2019 – Q4 2024	PMU staff including SDGS responsible to provide monitoring reports to ADB	Part of the PMU cost	Indicators to monitor GESIAP contained in PPMS Quarterly, semi-annual and annual reports including GESIAP reporting submitted to ADB	The PMU may not appoint someone to collate Indicator data for PPMS reports	The SDGS specialist will ensure that GESIAP data is collected and reported through PPMS
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least <u>34%</u> of new recruits to MISE's Water & Sanitation Engineering 	Q1 2019 – Q4 2024	MISE Director/PUB staff	Inc. in Project Training Budget	Presence of new female recruits. GESIAP	Women with technical training may not be	The project team should advise through media and

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Project Outputs	Gender Targets and Activities	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget Required ¹⁷	Means of Verifying the achievement of targets	Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets	Risk Mitigating Measures
	<p><u>Unit (WSEU) technical recruits</u> are women</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 25% of PUB/MISE staff (total number 300) trained through the project includes at least 30% women. 				monitoring reports.	<p>available to recruit</p> <p>Perceived as additional workload by the staff including women</p>	<p>networks that female technical recruits will be sought.</p> <p>Trainings will be made mandatory and proper planning will be in place to ensure right schedule</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> During capacity building, overall project’s gender sensitive grievance redress mechanism (GRM) developed and publicized to ensure all project beneficiaries know the GRM procedure. Sex-disaggregated data will be prepared to identify the sex of complainants, the nature of their complaint and the resolution of the complaint. The PMU Safeguards Specialist will review the register and 	Q1 2018 – Q4 2024	MISE Director/PMU staff to gather sex disaggregated data	No additional cost. Included as a topic in Project Consultations	Approved GRM documents available for review	The value of a gender sensitive GRM and gender disaggregation of complaints may not be recognized.	The SDGS will work with the MISE and Safeguards Manager (PMU) to develop a gender sensitive GRM

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

Project Outputs	Gender Targets and Activities	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget Required ¹⁷	Means of Verifying the achievement of targets	Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets	Risk Mitigating Measures
	interview women to corroborate equal treatment for male and female complainants. .						
Output 3 <i>Hygiene practices among South Tarawa's population are improved</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least 50% of community mobilizers contracted through the NGO for community WASH campaign will be women (Baseline =0) Note: Lesson from STSISP is that it is important for gender balance across the implementing team as whilst more women were employed as mobilisers this resulted in limited engagement from men within the target audience) 	Q3 2019-Q2 2024	MISE with support from PMU	Part of INGO and Community partnership contracting process (WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 2 "WASH Community Partnership")	Data collected for GAP reports	Suitable women not available due to other commitments and lack of information on the engagement opportunities	Wider circulation of the demand for women mobilizers and engagement with local leaders and local NGOs to identify potential women candidates

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

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

¹⁹ World Bank, Global Environment Fund (GEF), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), DFAT and the Government of Japan are funding the Kiribati Adaptation Programme (KAP), now in phase III. KAPIII activities include rehabilitation of reservoirs along the transmission main and preparation of detailed designs of the distribution network in Betio, Bairiki and Bikenibeu.

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

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

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

Project Outputs	Gender Targets and Activities	Timeline	Responsibility	Budget Required ¹⁷	Means of Verifying the achievement of targets	Potential risk and barriers in the delivery of targets	Risk Mitigating Measures
	Monthly WASH awareness-raising seminars and activities through the community partnerships including – Women’s Groups (faith and non-faith based), and encouraging minimum 50% women in group membership for Mother Heath Committees and Youth Groups. For engagement with schools at least 50% of student participants are girls (note 53% of 2017 student enrolments were females (7103 students). Baseline = 0	Q3 2019-Q2 2024	MISE/Contracted NGOs/INGOs	Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 2 “WASH Community Partnership” budget	Data collected for GAP reports	Gender Ratio is hard to maintain due to preponderance of females	GAP data report review will reveal non-compliance
	At least bi-annual Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning surveys to allow feedback mechanisms from community members on the WASH Community Partnership program. 50% of those consulted are women including 10% Female Headed Households (Baseline =0)	Q3 2019-Q2 2024	MISE/Contracted WASH NGOs/INGOs	Incorporated as part of the WASH Awareness Program (WAP) - Part 2 “WASH Community Partnership” budget	Data collected for GAP reports	Lack of cooperation from community members particularly women	Awareness building among community members will reinforce the importance of their involvement and participation including in providing feedback
<p>Budget required to Implement GESIAP: USD 48,000</p>							

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Gender documents for FP092

Gender Analysis/Assessment and Gender and Social Inclusion Action Plan - Programme of integrated development and adaptation to climate change in the Niger basin (PIDACC/NB)

PART I: GENDER ANALYSIS/ASSESSMENT

Context and background

The Niger River Basin is a backbone of the West African economy. However, the river Niger system has been threatened for more than two decades by desertification and poor exploitation practices of its natural resources, with alarming prospects. Severity of food insecurity due to droughts and wider climate variability is exacerbated by the populations' significant vulnerability and poverty.

The vulnerability to climate change and variability, food insecurity and food crises have a significant gender dimension, because women are among the most vulnerable groups, owing to their limited social and economic power in the Niger basin. Differentiated power relations between men and women and unequal access to and control over assets mean that men and women in the Niger basin do not have the same adaptive capacity. Instead, women have distinct vulnerability, exposure to risk, inadequate coping capacity, and inability to recover from climate change impacts (Masika 2002¹).

Gender inequalities in the Niger basin heighten women's vulnerability, which is required to better mainstream their needs into the Programme of integrated development and adaptation to climate change in the Niger basin (PIDACC/NB). In the Niger basin countries, women represent only 8% of landowners and access only 10% of the credit available in West Africa, although they provide at least 50% of agricultural labour. High dependency on land and natural resources for livelihood generation makes women more vulnerable.

The approach of the planned PIDACC program in overcoming the challenges to achieving climate resilient food security and restoration of environmental integrity, is to analyze gender imbalances that exist in the communities where the projects are planned with respect to resources, capacity for action, and outcomes, in order to build resilience, which will in turn improve food security. The resilience will be built across project components which include (i) Development of ecosystems and natural resources resilience (ii) Development of population resilience and (iii) Programme coordination and management

Gender Inequality

Gender-based inequalities in access to livelihood assets, division of labor, and participation in decision-making processes result in women's and girls' increased vulnerability to the risks of natural disasters like droughts in the Niger basin. Reducing inequalities based on gender and empowering women to participate more fully in social-economic growth are thus recognized as essential to reducing poverty and achieving development goals within the Niger Basin Authority (NBA) countries (see Table 1). Under its Gender Strategy, NBA has committed to mainstream gender considerations in all its operations and support gender-specific activities, especially in areas where gender disparities are most severe. The natural resources of the Basin provide a key entry point not only for poverty alleviation but also for gender empowerment. Production systems in the Niger Basin have been particularly affected by the impacts of climate variability and change that have resulted in increased vulnerability of ecosystems and declining yields and agro-forestry-pastoral production. These climatic events combined with bad practices have led to recurrent food

¹ Masika, Rachel. 2002. "Gender and Climate Change." *Gender and Development Journal* 10 (2): 2-9.

crises and the deterioration of living conditions of the population (famine, insecurity, instability, migration etc.). Rural women, mainly active in the primary sector and dependent on weather conditions and natural hazards, would thus be most affected by the effects and impacts of climate change. It is thus perceived that the improved management of the Niger Basin's natural resources – to be brought about by the Project - will be particularly beneficial to poor rural women.

Table 1: Gender data for the Niger Basin countries

Country	Literacy rate Female (F)-Male (M), CIA (2015)	Ratio of women (15-64 yrs) in labor market	Number of women in Parliament	SIGI ² and GII Indexes	Existing Gender Policy
Cameroon	M: 81.2% F: 68.9%	65.3%	56 (31.1%)	SIGI: 0.2803 GII: 0.587	National Gender Policy
Ivory Coast	M: 53.1% F: 32.5%	53%	23 (9.2%)	SIGI: 0.2537 GII: 0.679	National Policy for Gender Equality, Equity and Gender (2009);
Niger	M: 27.3% F: 11%	40%	25 (14.6%)	SIGI: 0.4415 GII: 0.713	National Policy for Equity and Gender (2008);
Benin	M: 49.9% F: 27.3%	68%	6 (7.2%)	SIGI : 0.278 GII : 0.614	Gender National Policy Promotion (PNPG, 2009)
Guinea	M: 38.1% F: 22.8%	66%	25 (21.9%)	SIGI: 0.3206 GII : NA	National Gender Policy (2011)
Nigeria	M: 69.2% F: 49.7%	48%	20 (5.6%)	SIGI 0.3911 GII : NA	National Gender Policy (2007)
Chad	M : 48.5% F: 31.9%	64%	28 (14.9%)	SIGI: 0.4665 GII : 0.706	National Gender Policy (2011)
Burkina Faso	M: 43% F: 29.3%	77%	12 (9.5%)	SIGI 0.2819 GII: 0.631	National Gender Policy (2009)
Mali	M: 48.2% F: 29.2%	51%	13 (8.8%)	SIGI: 0.5164 GII: 0.677	National Gender Policy (2011)

Sources : <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.FE.ZS/countries>

<http://hdr.undp.org/en/composite/GII> for Gender Inequality Index (2014)

The Human Development Report 2016 shows worsening values of its index for the 9 countries targeted by the program. They figured among the bottom in the global list in term Human Development Index: from Nigeria which occupies the 152nd, Senegal 162, Benin 167, Côte d'Ivoire 171, Mali 175th, Guinea 183rd, Burkina Faso 185th, Chad 186th and Niger 187th³. Out of Burkina, Nigeria and Benin, 6 of the 9 countries are among the lowest ranking in terms of gender inequality index: from Cameroon 41st, to Mali 50th out 52 countries^{4,5}. This situation has a negative impact on the lives of women and men and creates social and ecological imbalances. Socio-cultural constraints form the basis of the obstacle to girls' schooling and hence women's access to decision-making bodies. And women's limited financial and decision-making autonomy limits their access to health care.

Table 2: HDR Indicators

² SIGI = Social Institutions and Gender Index; GII = Gender Inequality Index

³ UNDP Human Development Report 2016

⁴ AfDB Gender Equality Index 2015

⁵ The AfDB Index reflects women's status in three dimensions of equality: economic opportunity⁵, social development⁵ and law and institutions⁵. The ranking is based on a score of 0-100, with 100 representing perfect gender equality.

Country	Human Development Index	Gender Inequality Index		Economic Opportunities		Human Development		Law & Institutions	
	Rank	Rank	Overall Score	Score	Bank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank
Burkina Faso	185	22	56.6	63.3	23nd	60.1	31st	46.4	22nd
Nigeria	152	23	54.7	66.2	18th	59.0	32nd	39.1	30th
Benin	167	29	52.0	61.5	24th	47.3	41st	47.3	20th
Cameroon	153	41	46.7	53.9	33nd	64.7	27th	21.6	42th
Côte d'Ivoire	171	43	43.7	33.9	49th	57.0	37th	40.1	29th
Chad	186	44	42.2	70.7	11th	24.2	51st	31.7	34th
Niger	187	45	42.2	50.5	40th	41.5	45th	34.5	32th
Guinea	183	48	39.5	44.5	45th	39.5	48th	34.7	31st
Mali	175	50	33.4	32.2	50th	46.7	42nd	21.3	43nd

Source: Adapted from Human Development Index, Africa Gender Equality Index 2015

Unequal Participation. Women in the Niger basin are still absent from the climate change and natural resource-related decision-making processes at all levels. Equal participation in community-based decision making remains a complex and difficult goal to achieve, especially in the contexts of highly unequal gender relations. Within the Niger basin and the Sahel in general, women's participation has low social visibility, and this has repercussions on social development strategies implemented to support or assist vulnerable households. Resilience is inconceivable without rural women. Women in all countries remain largely under-represented in the political sphere despite gender quota laws to increase the percentage of women in the national legislature in Niger and Burkina Faso. The average of women parliamentarians are below the world average of 23.3% except Cameroon with 31.3%: Mali 8.8%, Niger, Chad 12.8%, Burkina 11.1%, Benin 7.2%, Nigeria 5.6%, Guinea 21.9%, Côte d'Ivoire 11.5%⁶.

Legal and Policy framework and Institutional mechanism: since the mid-2000s, almost every country has created a national gender policy or strategy. However, there are still legislation that is discriminatory against women. In practice, gender is still considered mostly as an afterthought and gender policies are often not implemented effectively. Patriarchy and lack of political will, conflicting tripartite legal system of civil, customary and Sharia laws coupled with scarce resources contribute to effective implementation of any gender responsive legal and regulatory framework. In some countries like Niger and Chad, attempted by the State to introduce equality and gender equity in the field of personal status have in the past been met with strong resistance, following the example in both countries of the Family Code: the project in both countries is put on hold because of the strong opposition of religious organization. In Nigeria as well, the country suffered a huge setback in the recent (15 March 2016) Senate rejection of the Gender Equality and Opportunity Bill, known in full as "A bill for an Act to Incorporate and enforce certain provisions of the United Nations Convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women, the Protocol of the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the rights of women in Africa, and other matters connected therewith, 2016".

At regional level, CILSS has adopted a gender policy and is increasingly mainstreaming gender issues in different policy sectors. But, in practice, gender is still considered mostly as an afterthought and gender policies are often not implemented effectively. In addition, the integration of gender issues into CILSS programming and institutional mechanisms for monitoring and

⁶ <http://www.oecd.org/swac/maps/50-Women-deputies.pdf>

evaluation (gender-sensitive outcomes and indicators) has not been systematized according to the gender approach.

Table 3: Gender Policies and Institutional frameworks at national level

Countries	Institutional mechanism	Main national Gender Policies and strategies
Benin	National Council for the Promotion of Equity and Gender Equality chaired by the Head of State	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constitution (1990) • National policy for the promotion of gender in Benin (2008) • Code of Persons and Family (2004) • Law on "Prevention and Repression of Violence against Women". (2011) • National Policy on Girls' Education, adopted by the Government (2007).
Burkina Faso	Ministry for the Advancement of Women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constitution 1991, revised successively in 1997, 2000, 2002, 2009, May and June 2012, • National Gender Policy (2009) • Law n ° 034-2012 / AN of 02 July 2012 • Gender Quota Act (2009) • Law No. 034-2009 / AN of 16 June 2009 on rural land tenure • Individual and Family Code (CPF) of 1989 (under revision) • Law No. 043/96 / ADP of November 1996 on the Prevention and Punishment of FGM
Chad	Ministry of Social Affair, National Solidarity and Family	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constitution and Civil Code. • National Population Policy and the 1995 • Policy for the Integration of Women in Development • National Gender Policy (PNG) 2007
Cameroon	Ministry for the Promotion of Women and the Family	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Constitution of 1996 • Civil Right • Decree No. 81/002 of 29 June 1951
Côte d'Ivoire	Ministry of Solidarity, Family, Women and Children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Policy on Equal Opportunities, Equity and Gender (2009) • National Strategy to fight Gender-Based Violence (SNLVBG) • Solemn Declaration of Côte d'Ivoire on Equal Opportunities, Equity and Gender (2007) • Strategic Plan for Girls' Education in Côte d'Ivoire (2007) • National Equity Policy, Equity and Gender 2009 • Action plan for the implementation of Resolution 1325
Guinea	Ministry of Social Affair, Promotion of Women and Children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Civil Code 2002 • National Gender Policy (2011)
Mali	Ministry of Promotion of Women, Children and Family	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Gender Policy (2011) • New Individual and Family Code (2011)
Niger	Ministry of Promotion of Women and Child Protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Gender Policy 2008-18 (2008) • Ten Years Implementation of Gender National Policy, 2009-2018
Nigeria	Federal Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National Gender Policy Strategic Framework - implementation plan 2008-13 (2008) • National Gender Strategic Implementation Framework (NGSF)
RECs		Regional Policies
CILSS	Department of Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Policy (2009)
AfDB	Department of Gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender Policy (2001) • Investing Gender Equality for Africa's Transformation 2014-18

Ministries in charge of gender issues have usually very large portfolios— ranging from youth, sports, family. They are often understaffed, under-funded and not taken seriously. Budgets allocated to gender-specific issues within sectoral policies remain tiny; disaggregated gender data

is missing. To make some decisive progress, strong political will must come from the very top level, including from key ministries such as economic affairs, budget and strategic planning.

Socio-economic indicators

Education: the gender gap is progressively closing, but none of the country is projected to achieve gender parity in primary and secondary education. The most persistent barriers to girls' education are: early marriage and early motherhood, traditional seclusion practices, the favoring of boys when it comes to family investment in education and the gendered division of household labour.

Despite the efforts made, in some areas girls' enrollment rates are still relatively low and school losses are considerable in this category. Huge strides have been made in getting more girls into schools, but when it comes to assessing educational outcomes, the results are much less impressive. These countries also have the lowest literacy rates for women compared to men with the exception of Cameroon.

Table 4: Social Economic Indicators in the Niger basin countries

Country	Gross enrolment ratio, Primary (%), 2015		Gross enrolment ratio, Secondary (%), 2015		Adult literacy rate, population (%), 2015	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Benin	123.7	134.2	46.8	66.7	27,3	49.9
Burkina Faso	86.1	89.9	32.2	35.1	28,3	47.9
Cameroon	110.7	123.5	53.5	62.6	68,9	81.2
Chad	31,8	48.4
Côte d'Ivoire	88	99.2	36.6	51.0	32,7	53.3
Guinea	22,9	38.1
Mali	72.1	79.3	36.8	45.6	22,2	45.1
Niger	66.8	77.9	17.2	24.2	11	27.3
Nigeria		69.2

Source: Afdb Statistics department, based on data from UIS

Progress towards gender parity (GPI) in secondary education has been much slower Burkina Faso, Chad, Guinea and Mali are among the 11 sub-Saharan Africa countries projected to be far from the target globally, with GPIs below 0.80 but have made strong progress towards reducing gender disparity to improve the situation of girls⁷.

Health: The low observed life expectancy could be attributed to poor social and economic conditions and the grave impacts of malaria, HIV/AIDS and related diseases. In all situations, regardless of the level of survival, females enjoyed higher life expectancy.

Women have poor access to health care; this justifies the high rates of maternal mortality, which varies from Nigeria, whose rate is 814 per 100,000 births to Burkina Faso 371 per births. Infant Mortality Rates appeared to have generally improved for countries with better social and economic Conditions that were free from conflict, drought and HIV, malaria and tuberculosis (TB) of less than 100 per 1000 live births.

⁷ http://en.unesco.org/gem-report/sites/gem-report/files/regional_overview_SSA_en.pdf

Table 5: Health Indicators

Country	Life expectancy		Total fertility rate 2017	Maternal mortality ratio 2017	Infant mortality rate 2017
	Female	Male			
Benin	61	59	5.0	405	67
Burkina Faso	61	58	5.7	371	65
Cameroon	58	55	4.8	596	57,1
Chad	53	51	6.4	856	85
Côte d'Ivoire	53	51	5.0	645	64
Guinea	60	59	4.9	679	59
Mali	59	59	6.0	587	56
Niger	63	61	7.3	553	61
Nigeria	54	53	5.5	814	69

Source: Afdb Statistics department, based on data from HDR 2016, WDI, CME, 2017 World Population Data

Seven of the countries rank among the top 20 countries in the world with the highest rate of *child marriage*: Niger (1), Chad (3), Mali (5), Guinea (6), Burkina Faso (8), and Nigeria (14). In Niger, three out of four girls marry before their 18th birthday, contributing to the highest fertility rate in the world of more than seven children per woman. Nigeria and Niger are among the top 20 countries with the highest absolute number of child marriages, with 1.193 million and 244 000 married girls, respectively.⁸ Indeed, all countries are experiencing growing demographic pressure and Niger is leading the world's most fertile countries with 7.3 children per woman directly followed by Chad, Mali Burkina Faso and Nigeria. With the exception of Cameroon and Guinea, the other countries had total fertility rates of more than five children per woman. One of the main causes of the rapid population growth within the region is the relatively high fertility rates. Although there has been some reduction in total fertility rates from the beginning of the 2000s, the number of births per woman has been high. Compared to other sub regions, the fertility rates are still high, indicating lower efforts at controlling population.

The practice of *Female Genital Mutilation/cutting* (FGM/C) is widespread in in all countries covered by the program but its prevalence varies considerably from one country to another - ranging from 2% in Niger, 44% in Chad to 97% in Guinea⁹. To protect girls and women against female circumcision, Nigeria has passed a law in May 2015 to formally forbid female circumcision. However, implementing these laws remains a key challenge.

Societies are tolerant of *Gender based violence*. In most the countries, rape is prohibited by law but although police often arrested and detained perpetrators, rape cases were not usually investigated and in most cases suspects were released, or women were sometimes forced to marry their attackers. A key problem in all countries is the under-reporting of gender-based violence and the culture of impunity. Socio-cultural norms that place value on the authority of husbands prevent women from reporting domestic violence..¹⁹ In addition, the persistent insecurity and climatic shocks are increasingly worsening the adversity faced by many communities. Due to insecurity, many civilians are exposed to rights violations and abuse. More than 790 cases of sexual and

⁸ UNICEF's State of the World's Children 2015; Girls not Brides

⁹ UNICEF, Global Databases, based on DHS, MICS and other nationally representative surveys, October 2014 update.

gender-based violence were reported in 2016 and many survivors do not receive assistance. In Nigeria, women and children have especially suffered grave gender based violence: girls and women were sexually exploited, raped and subjected to violence. Boys and girls were forcibly recruited by Boko Haram and used as suicide bombers or forced to kill.

Employment /Unemployment: unequal access to education limits women's opportunities in the field of skilled employment while they are highly integrated into the informal sector. In addition, labour force survey data from various countries of the region also indicate that women are overly represented in informal own-account work.

Table 6: Employment and unemployment rates

Country	Labour Force participation rate (2016)		Employment rate 2016 (%)		Unemployment rate 2016 (%)	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Benin	70	73,4	69,3	72,6	0,9	1,1
Burkina Faso	76,6	90,6	87,2	87,2	2,1	3,8
Cameroon	71,1	81,2	67,3	78,1	5,3	3,8
Chad	64	79,3	59,5	75,5	7	4,8
Côte d'Ivoire	52,5	80,9	46,7	74,2	11	8,3
Guinea	79,4	85,1	73,5	79,8	7,4	6,3
Mali	50,3	82,3	44,6	77,3	11,4	6,1
Niger	40,3	89,3	39,7	86,5	1,5	3,1
Nigeria	48,5	64,1	45,7	61,3	5,8	4,4

Source: Afdb Statistics department, based on data from ILO

Inequalities in access to employment persist as women continue to experience more difficulties than men due to cultural and social considerations. Thus, despite the high activity rate, the quality of employment remains precarious. In addition, 9 in 10 informal workers are women and youth, but the lack of social protection, skills' upgrading and productive income often trap these groups into poverty and exclusion from economic growth and development, with only about 10 percent of operators benefiting from social protection schemes¹⁰.

Like in other Sub-Saharan Africa, rural women in the region covered by the programme generally work 12 to 13 hours more per week than men. women are the basis for a number of activities (exploitation of individual plots, small-scale and commercial activities, gathering and processing of harvesting products, processing and marketing of fish etc.). In addition, women participate in all community development activities. Also, the chore of wood is chiefly entrusted to women. The frequency of exits depends on the needs of the household and varies from 0.5 to 2 times per week while the load on the head can exceed 20 kg.

Land and property rights. In the face of social change, women are increasingly responsible for supplying households with food, whereas, paradoxically, they have less access to factors of production (such as land, agricultural inputs, livestock, etc.)¹¹. Actual land rights limit women's access to credit for diversifying income sources and for recovery from losses. Access to land and property for women in all countries is essential for food production and sustainable livelihoods and

¹⁰ <http://www.un.org/en/ecosoc/integration/2015/pdf/eca.pdf>

¹¹ Oxfam Research Reports June 2014; Food Crisis, Gender, And Resilience In The Sahel; Lessons from the 2012 crisis in Burkina Faso, Mali, and Niger

it is dependent on natal and marital affiliations. They are consistently less likely to own land, have fewer rights to land, and the land they do own or have access to lower quality. Post-colonial land distributions, formalization of individual land rights, and subsequent land transactions frequently vested titles to land in the head of the household only. While clan elders continue to facilitate allocation of land and patrilineal inheritance procedures, their authority to regulate and protect women and children from land grabbing, distress land sales, and forced eviction upon spousal death or divorce has been weakened. In general, married women access land held under customary tenure through their husbands. These women are especially vulnerable to losing their land when their husbands become ill or die. Traditional land tenure systems have often been transformed in ways not beneficial to women, while positive changes in statutory law to protect women's rights may have a limited effect due to the lack of enforcement and cultural and social norms that may limit women's willingness to exercise their rights under the law. In all countries, succession in rural area is primarily governed by customary and/or Islamic law. Under customary law, women do not inherit from deceased husbands at all. Under Islamic law, a widow will only inherit one quarter of the property. Girls generally inherit only one half of the share inherited by boys.

Table 7 Table available data percentage of female agricultural holders out of total agricultural holders

Country	Year	% female	Source
Benin	2012	13	CEDAW
Burkina Faso	1993	8.4	Agricultural Census
Chad		NA	
Cameroon	2011	2	Cameroon Gender Equality Network
Côte d'Ivoire	2001	10.1	Agricultural Census
Guinea	2000-2001	5.7	Agricultural Census
Mali	2004-2005	3.1	Agricultural Census
Niger	2007	4.6	INS
Nigeria	2007	10.0	Collaborative Survey on Socio-economic Activities

Source: <http://www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/data-map/statistics/en/>

Gender impact of climate change in the NBA

For many years, West Africa, and particularly the Sahel region, has experienced chronic food insecurity aggravated by increasingly frequent food crises, which most often occur following poor harvests, chiefly caused by droughts. The United Nations estimated that 18.7 million people in the Sahel region of West Africa were affected by the 2012 food and nutritional crisis caused by drought, scarce rainfall, scanty harvests, spiralling staple food prices, and displaced populations. The countries most seriously affected by the Sahel crisis of 2012 were Mali, Niger, Burkina Faso, Chad, Mauritania, and, to a lesser extent in northern Cameroon. The most seriously affected populations were women, small-scale herders, poor households with limited access to means of production, and households that habitually depended on seasonal emigration, as well as communities in areas marked by insecurity. In June 2012, it was estimated that in the Sahelian belt, 64% of households headed by women were in situation of food insecurity¹² In Niger the food crisis reached 15% in 2012 (ANCITEF, 2013) and 46% of all women in the country suffered from anemia which is considered as a serious problem.

¹² <http://www.td.undp.org/content/dam/chad/docs/docpays/UN-TD-rural-woman-2013.pdf>

Gender inequalities that have been deepened by the climate crisis and malnutrition were at critical levels in many communities throughout the region in 2016: 6 of the 9 countries (Burkina, Faso, Mali, Chad, Niger, Cameroon and Nigeria) are part of the region where more of more than 30 million people struggled with food insecurity; one in five children under the age of five suffers from acute malnutrition and where 4.9 million people have fled from their homes¹³. Some improvement has been observed in Burkina Faso, Niger and Mali since then. However, in certain zones of Chad and northeast Nigeria the global acute malnutrition prevalence rate is as high as 30 per cent, double the emergency threshold. It should also be stressed that in times of food crisis, consumption tends to be towards cheap products and home-made preparations: from millet to products such as tubers (cassava, wild yams, etc.) or wild fruits. These food shifts increase the time spent on research and preparation of food (gathering, picking, cooking), depriving women of the time needed for their production activities, their supervision of children, education, leisure and rest. In addition, education and health of women and girls are most often seen as superfluous luxury and are eliminated, first, from the family budget.

Women are often the first to reduce their food intake even when they are pregnant or breastfeeding because of the cultural norm. With water shortages and depletion of forests (as a result of wildfires, droughts, desertification, land degradation, and other occurrences), women and girls walk longer distances to collect water and fuelwood, sometimes far from the safety of their households with risks of sexual violence along the way. Decreased water resources may also cause women's health to suffer as a result of the increased work burden and reduced nutritional status. This decreases the time available for food production and preparation, with consequences for household food security and nutritional well-being.

As a result of droughts women and girls face a triple burden in some cases: to survive, care for their families and evade sexual violence in the process. Droughts in the Niger basin also frequently result in the degradation of water sources. Children and pregnant women are particularly susceptible to diseases such as diarrhea that thrive in such conditions. Because of their roles in managing household water supply and domestic chores, women take greater risks. Further, because they lack mobility and resources, elderly women, those with disabilities, pregnant and nursing women, and those with small children remain most at risk in cases of emergencies.

The social structure of Sahelian communities has changed considerably over the years. This change is chiefly manifested in the redefinition of roles and responsibilities within households. The 2012 food crisis has revealed that women have taken on increasing responsibilities from a number of standpoints. Their contribution to maintaining their households in times of crisis is tacitly expected, even though this increased responsibility within the household is not always reflected in increased power within the community. Indeed, because they have only a subsidiary role in relation to household responsibilities and are relegated to the sidelines when it comes to community-based management in general, women continue to have limited access to factors of production. This should limit their ability to increase the support they provide for their households in times of crisis. It has been found that women's ability to negotiate or influence decision making within their households enhances household food security. But in the region, participation around the management of food security is more difficult to achieve in polygamous households, where the

¹³ OCHA, 2017 Sahel Overview of humanitarians needs and requirements

tendency of consumption sub-units to emerge around the different wives constitutes a daily threat to family cohesion.

PART II: GENDER AND SOCIAL INCLUSION ACTION PLAN

At the onset of the project, a further gender analysis will be undertaken to identify (i) gender disparities that may affect the success of the project; (ii) opportunities within the project to improve women's access to basic services, economic opportunities or decision making; and (iii) specific components or other mechanisms to ensure that both women and men participate in and benefit from the project.

Women will be particularly encouraged to take their role in project implementation as well as being part of various committees, while the project will promote gender equity in the areas of management of project implementation. The resources available for capacity building can provide the necessary support and training to women in the technical, organizational and leadership domains. The project endeavours to benefit an equal number of men and women, as shown – where relevant – in the Project Results Framework.

Project design will ensure that men and women have equal access to production resources, means, and profits (credit, technical support for agricultural and pastoral production, sustainable access to land). The project activities will adopt gender-sensitive approaches, whereby women's participation in training workshops, on-the-ground interventions, multi-stakeholder forums and user groups will be strongly promoted.

While the main IPDACC project has yet to develop its strategy for gender mainstreaming, the approved GEF funded component (\$12million) has adopted a gender-sensitive approach under that aims at: (i) contributing as much as possible to the reduction of gender based inequalities that exist in the project area, (ii) encouraging both men and women to participate in project activities and ensuring that their specific needs are taken into account, and that they all benefit from the project; (iii) creating conditions for equitable access by men and women to project resources and benefits; and, (iv) creating conditions for equitable participation in project implementation and decision making processes. The project's gender mainstreaming strategy will ensure that the various socio-economic benefits generated under the project are felt equally by both women and men.

The project preparation also took into account the specific needs of women through the implementation of local development programs of actions and measures aimed at women (establishment of multifunctional platforms, improved stoves, revolving credit, etc). During implementation, the program will ensure that women are represented in all decision-making bodies.

The project will thus establish a large number of Management Committees to be trained for the maintenance and operation of new infrastructure established under the project, and ensures that at least 30% of Management Committee members shall be female. Gender actions and indicators for the Pidacc program components are presented in the table:

The proposed gender action plan (see below) will be further analyzed for implementation during Y1 of the PIDACC. [As part of the Gender Action Plan \(GAP\), the program will promote women's representation on community level action committees and involve women in planning and undertaking adaptation activities. The program will also Increase women's access to agricultural](#)

extension and land resources within the context of climate smart agriculture. The program will also promote gender-sensitive budgeting in local administrations.

Roles and responsibilities, for implementation of the gender action plan

The project GAP, will be implemented at a regional level by the NBA and at a national level by the national coordination units in each country. A project baseline will be established in Year 1, (i) that allows for monitoring changes in activities, perceptions and attitudes that relate to women's participation (ii) that allows for monitoring distributional issues within the household (iii) that allows for monitoring changes in women's time budgets and labour burden and (iv) that allows capture of women's access to land for farming / gardening.

The project will monitor gender actions through a GAP, including the number of beneficiaries (gender disaggregated) as well as gender sensitive project output, outcome and impact indicators. Supervision arrangements will comprise: (i) Safeguard specialists (Social and gender at the African Development Bank for implementation support supervision)—AE; (ii) Social Development and gender specialists at the regional level by the Niger basin Authority—EE and (iii) Social Development and gender specialists at the NPCU who will cover community development and gender aspects as well.

The specialists will be responsible for incorporating the Gender Action Plan into project planning and implementation including supporting/assisting design (and if required, implementation) of awareness workshops and training, establishment and monitoring of sex disaggregated data and indicators for project performance and monitoring.

Engaging with different gender groups and grassroots organizations from the beginning will help the identification and implementation of gender-equitable activities.

A number of measures will be put in place at the start to help guide implementation of gender equitable activities, particularly when collecting gender-disaggregated data. These include: (i) Ensuring there are sufficient funds to support gender-related activities and facilitate the participation of traditionally marginalised communities members (ii) Establishing mixed-gender field teams (iii) Scheduling activities at times and places that are convenient for different gender groups (iv) Making sure that field coordinators, facilitators and translators communicate with women and men participants in a language in which they feel comfortable (v) Managing group dynamics and promoting the equal participation of all participants and (vi) After discussions with women's and men's groups separately, bringing groups together to exchange and learn from people's different perspectives.

The PIDACC RPCU will report on progress of Gender Action Plan activities in quarterly progress reports to AfDB and the government. Other training providers, non-government organizations may be hired to implement different Gender Action Plan activities with guidance from the social and gender specialists.

Table 8: Gender Action Plan

Activities	Indicators	Timeline	Responsibilities
<p>Impact Statement: Increased resilience and improved livelihoods of vulnerable communities, including women and girls, to the negative impacts of climate change</p> <p>outcome statement Improved adaptive capacity and reduced exposure to climate risks of women and girls in the region covered by the programme</p> <p>Output(s) Statement: ; (i) Equal access for women to adoption of diversified, climate-resilient livelihood options; (ii) Gender responsive and equal participation of women in institutions, coordination mechanisms and regulatory frameworks; (iii) Improved capacity of gender mainstreaming climate change and resilience at national and regional level</p>			
<p>C 1 : Development of the resilience of natural resources and ecosystems</p>			
<p>S/C 1.1 Protection of resources and ecosystems Protection of the resources and ecosystems</p>			
<p>i) Land certification/titling policy enacted and implemented— (Access to land for 9,000 women)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ratio in volume of land as accessed by women and men, compared to baseline Community satisfaction (disaggregated by gender and poverty ranking) with changes in land access and titling 	<p>By year</p>	<p>EE</p>
<p>ii) New gender-responsive CSA technologies in crop and livestock production developed through research and transferred to extension services</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ratio between the amount and type of agricultural inputs that women and men use, compared to baseline 	<p>Year 6</p>	<p>EE</p>
<p>iii) Extension packages on good practices in gender-responsive CSA developed by extension services this will include (i) establishment of 45 multifunctional platforms for women's groups and (ii) support for the functioning of 100 women's groups working in natural resources management</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> % of women capable of handling improved pastoral and agriculture activities Community satisfaction (disaggregated by gender) with changes in natural resources management 	<p>Year 6</p>	<p>EE</p>
<p>iv) Training for men and women farmers conducted on gender-responsive CSA technologies on-farm or at functional farmer training centers (agro-meteorological data use support for 10,000 women in their agricultural activities, sensitizing 500,000 women on climate change adaptation techniques and other resources).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of women farmers implementing climate resilient agriculture technologies and practices Number and percentage of women and men trained in sustainable production technologies, soil and water conservation, agroforestry, etc. 	<p>Year 6</p>	<p>EE</p>
<p>S/C1-2 Strengthening the shared management of natural resources</p>			
<p>v) Ensure participation of women and men in O&M, data modelling, forecasting, training for staff National agencies</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proportion of males and females reached by climate related early warning systems and other risk reduction measures No of people with skills on climate and weather information (disaggregated by gender by sex and age group) 	<p>Year 6</p>	<p>EE</p>

Activities	Indicators	Timeline	Responsibilities
<p>Impact Statement: Increased resilience and improved livelihoods of vulnerable communities, including women and girls, to the negative impacts of climate change</p> <p>outcome statement Improved adaptive capacity and reduced exposure to climate risks of women and girls in the region covered by the programme</p> <p>Output(s) Statement: ; (i) Equal access for women to adoption of diversified, climate-resilient livelihood options; (ii) Gender responsive and equal participation of women in institutions, coordination mechanisms and regulatory frameworks; (iii) Improved capacity of gender mainstreaming climate change and resilience at national and regional level</p>			
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender impact analyses conducted to identify gender-specific needs and protection measures related to floods, droughts, and other climate change related disasters in the basin. 		
vi) Promotion of improved climate resilient pastoral and agriculture activities for women farmers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of women and men receiving environmental services payments for protecting watersheds or areas of high biodiversity in PIDACC program areas 	Year 6	EE
C 2: Development of population resilience			
S/C 2.1, Implementation of Climate Resilient Growth Infrastructure			
vii) Policy support to facilitate access to production inputs and financial services in place—this will include (i) provision of support for the establishment of 30 SMEs for women (ii) financing of 60 integrated sub-projects supported by women	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Percentage of increased income for pastoral and agriculture activities for women 	Year 6	EE
S/C 2.2 Strengthening of the community capacity for adaptation to Climate Change			
viii) Baseline and targets for Gender Interventions established and integrated into work planning, reporting, Monitoring and evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sex-disaggregated indicators established for project performance M&E system¹⁴ 	Year 1	
ix) Integration of strategies in human capital development programs to increase women’s participation in the workforce and improve their productive contribution to the program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender Specialist recruited at the regional (NBA) level National social development/gender expert recruited for each NPCU at country level 		

¹⁴ ; monitoring will be on-going to ensure activities are effectively carried out and targets reached; progress reports to include gender-related achievements and constraints.

Gender documents for FP093



GREEN
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GENDER ASSESSMENT AND ACTION PLAN

BURKINA FASO YELEEN RURAL ELECTRIFICATION PROGRAMME

1. INTRODUCTION

The population of Burkina Faso is estimated at 17.9 million people in 2014, of which around 51% are women, and 46.2% of female heads of households. Burkina Faso ranks 185th in terms of the Gender Equality Index in the 2016 Human Development Report, out of 188 countries surveyed. This situation is the result of inequalities based on perceptions and social practices that restricts women's rights and reduces their access to economic and social opportunities in relation to men, such as financial inclusion or political commitment.

Country	Human Development Index	Gender inequality Index		Economic opportunities		Human Development		Law & Institutions	
	Ranking	Ranking	Total score	Score	Bank	Score	Ranking	Score	Ranking
Burkina Faso	185th	22nd	56.6	63.3	23rd	60.1	31st	46.4	22nd

Source: Human Development Index, Africa Gender Equality Index 2015

2. SOCIAL NORMS

The patriarchal system perpetuates lineage and inheritance favourable to men, and impacts the fertility preferences. More than 44% of Burkinabè would like or would have liked their eldest to be a boy, compared to 17% a girl. Gender bias in resource allocation and under-investment by households in girls' health and nutrition has negative consequences for their health and for society as a whole.

On the other hand, nearly six out of ten Burkinabe (59%) say that girls and boys should not spend the same amount of time on household chores, assuming that these are female responsibilities. In practice, girls allocate four hours a day to these tasks, compared to four hours a week for boys, a time that increases over the course of their lives and goes up to six and a half hours a day for women. They also allocate an average of two and a half hours a day volunteering on plots or in family businesses.

Another consequence of discriminatory social norms is that in half of the households, decisions about the education or health of children are made by the father alone, which 40% of the population considers justified. In terms of inheritance: 25% of the population considers that the restriction of inheritance rights of widows is acceptable. Two thirds of widows have inherited the majority of the property of their deceased husbands (with their children).

3. LEGAL AND POLICY FRAMEWORK AND GENDER INSTITUTIONAL MECHANISM

The government's action revolves around the implementation of the National Gender Policy and the 2017-2019 Operational Action Plan. In addition, the 2016-20 National Plan for Economic and Social Development (PNDES) aims to reduce gender inequalities by increasing the number of female business owners from 21% in 2015 to 50% in 2019, by promoting decent jobs opportunities for women and increasing their access to technical and vocational training, etc.

Regarding land access, the law 034-2009 on rural land tenure advocates that managed land be granted to women.

The government has put in place reforms to combat violence against women. Thus, the application of prison sentence for rape, introduced explicitly in the penal code in 2015, began to be applied in 2016. However, in general, sectoral policies insufficiently integrate the gender dimension, which is reflected on the planning of activities, the results of achievements and the evaluation of the results of effect and impact. It should be noted that there is a scarcity of up-to-date disaggregated statistics by gender in the different development sectors.

Main policies and gender strategies

- Constitution of Burkina Faso of 1991: equality advocated whatever the gender
- 1988 Family and Person Code: Social Justice in the Family
- National Gender Policy (2009)
- Law n ° 034-2012 / AN of 02 July 2012 on agrarian and land reorganization
- Law on the quota of 30% of women on the electoral lists (2009)
- Law No. 034-2009 / AN of 16 June 2009 on rural land tenure
- Act No. 043/96 / ADP of November 1996 on Female Genital Mutilation
- Same right of access and exploitation of land for men and women

The Ministry of Women's Promotion and Gender main mission is to ensure the implementation and monitoring of the Government's Policy on the Socio-Economic Promotion of Women. At the institutional level, the initiatives undertaken since the creation of the Ministry in terms of gender mainstreaming have not produced the expected results. There is a lack of mechanisms for consultation and coordination between the key players:

- 1) the national council and the regional and municipal councils for the promotion of gender,
- 2) the gender units provided for in each government institution,
- 3) the consultation framework of the PTFs (including the Swiss Cooperation, World Bank, UNDP, UNFPA, etc.) and the TFP Common Gender Fund.

The main reasons are the low level of ownership of gender issues by policy makers, the lack of technical and institutional capacity and the lack of allocations to drive the implementation process.

Civil society organizations of women in civil society suffer from their weak structure and the absence of a national coordinating umbrella structure.

Governance: Despite the introduction in 2009 of a 30% quota of women listed as candidate for parliamentary and municipal elections, in to promote their access to politics, women represent only 11% of MPs since the 2015 elections (compared to 19% in 2012).

Poverty: According to the 2014 Multisectoral Continuous Survey, 40% of the population lives below the income poverty line.

The National Institute of Statistics and Demography (INSD) reveals that poverty is mainly rural in Burkina Faso (more than 92% of the poor live in rural areas). The poverty line is 153,530 FCFA, approximately 272 dollars in Burkina Faso. Poverty is function of the level of education of the head of the household, the sex, the age and the size of the household. For example, individuals living in female-headed households, those headed by women under 45 years old, and those headed by polygamists are generally poorer than others.. In this regards, the poverty rate for female-headed households is 11% higher than for men.

Education: At the primary level, parity is almost reached between girls and boys, which is not the case at the secondary and university levels: the average enrollment rate for boys is 35% and 32% for girls. In the field of non-formal education, 56.8% of boys aged 15 to 24 are literate compared to 43.8% of girls.

Health: At the level of health indicators, it should be noted that the total fertility rate (5.6 children per woman in 2014) and the growth rate (around 3%) are among the highest in the world. Investigations show that almost all women in Burkina Faso receive prenatal care from a trained provider. Maternal mortality was 371 deaths per 100,000 births in 2017. It depends on a number of factors, including authorization from the spouse, the level of financial resources, distance from the health service, and so on. Infant mortality rates seem to be improving overall.

Life Expectancy		Fertility rate 2017	Maternal mortality rate 2017	Infant mortality rate 2017
Women	Men			
61	58	5.7	371	65

The widespread early marriage particularly discriminates against girls and largely explains the large demographic growth of the country. The law allows a girl to be married at 17, against a legal minimum age of 20 for men. No less than 44% of married women were under 18, compared with 3% of men. The stability of these rates between different age groups suggests that this practice is not decreasing. On the contrary, its persistence seems linked to a high level of social acceptance, since 44% of Burkinabè believe that it is acceptable for a girl to be married before the age of 18.

More than one in three women (37%) have been victims of domestic violence in their lifetime, compared with one in five men (16%). The law prohibits all forms of violence against women and girls, however domestic violence is not criminalized. Social norms enable the average person to state that a man can beat his wife for one reason or another, while only 4% believe that a woman can beat her husband.

Despite its prohibition, the practice of excision is also common. Two-thirds (63%) of women aged 15 to 45 are circumcised.

Agriculture: The agro-forestry-pastoral sector employs nearly 90% of the population and accounts for 33.7% of GDP in 2016 (ADB, OECD, UNDP, 2017). Women account for 52% of household farm workers and work several hours on family land before attending to their own fields, whose crops are for home consumption or sale. The General Agricultural Census (GAM) indicates that small ruminant breeding is practiced by 42.2% of women. As for fishing activities, women are present in the processing and marketing of fish.

Access to land ownership: This remains a challenge for women. They make up 55% of the agricultural labour force, but not more than 40% of land owners. When they are land owners, their decision-making power remains limited. Only 14% of female land owners have the opportunity to sell their land, compared to 32% of men, because of customary law and community land management practices. Households headed by women use traditional equipment (hoes, dabas ...), in 96% of cases, while 21.5% of households headed by men in comparable situation, use plows. In addition, women's access to agricultural extension services remains low.

Access to financial services: Two-thirds of those with an account at a bank or other financial institution are men, while that 15% of the population say that men and women should not have the same decision-making power with regard to financial services

Employment: Unequal access to education limits women's opportunities in the area of skilled employment while they are highly integrated in the informal sector.

Women are responsible for all the production, processing and marketing of their agricultural products. In addition to these economic activities, the burden of children and the exclusivity of domestic tasks are also devolved to them. The multiplicity and size of these tasks greatly reduce women's free time, which does not allow them to devote themselves entirely to certain income-generating activities that can raise their standard of living and that of their families. Thus, the number of hours of work per week in rural Burkina Faso is 96 hours while that of men is 56 hours.

Participation rate into workforce (2016)		Employment rate 2016 (%)		Unemployment rate 2016 (%)	
Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
76,6	90,6	87.2	87.2	2,1	3,8

Source: Afdb Statistics department, based on data from ILO

According to the National Survey of Manpower in the Public and Private Formal Sectors (2018), the participation rate is higher for men than for women: 76.8% for the former and 60.2% for the seconds. Women generally occupy positions at the bottom of the ladder because of socio-cultural burdens. Inequalities in access to employment persist as women continue to experience more difficulties than men because of cultural and social considerations. Thus, despite the high activity rate, the quality of employment remains precarious. In addition, 9 out of 10 informal workers are women and youth, but the lack of social protection, skills upgrading and productive income often traps these groups in poverty and the exclusion of economic growth and development.

Water: The search for drinking water for domestic use requires more than 30 minutes per day for 26.8% of households, mainly women. In general, we note that participation in the water chore remains unequal according to sex. The collection of domestic water is the responsibility of women and girls who are involved intensively in all tasks of water collection. This perception of the role of women in relation to water fetching is largely related to socio-cultural considerations and the sexual division of labor.

In terms of information and communication technologies, mobile phone ownership is more favourable to men than women (79% for men versus 52% for women).

Energy: Because of their role in families and communities in energy supply, women are the first to be exposed when these essential resources are absent, difficult to access or dangerous to use. The time and physical strength they devote to researching this commodity is considerable and greatly reduces their working time to production and capacity building activities.

2013 statistical data revealed that male-headed households have a wider access to energy (85.2%) compared to 82.4% for female-headed households. More than 90% of Burkina Faso's population do not have access to modern cooking fuels. The rate of household access to butane gas is 4.8% nationally and about 12.2% of households use improved cooking stoves. The coverage rate for electrification is 28.6% and shows strong disparities between urban and rural areas.

As a result, the energy availability crisis forces millions of people to resort to traditional biomass, resulting in a health crisis with high levels of deaths resulting from pneumonia, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and lung cancer. An ECOWAS study shows that Burkina is among the countries with the highest number of annual adult deaths due to chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in West Africa (1,200 cases) and number of death of children under 5 years (15,300).

Biomass is used for domestic cooking where women predominate. Data on national time schedules in West Africa shows that women spend between 2 and 35 times more minutes per day on domestic cooking activities than the rest of the household members.

At the level of energy policies and strategies, the link between gender equality and energy poverty is discussed, but they do not provide a specific approach to addressing the gender challenges of the sector.

National Energy Policy	National Renewable Energy Policy	National Energy Efficiency Policy	Gender in Energy Policies	Linkage between Gender policy & Energy
Oui	Non	Non	Oui	Oui

In addition, women hold decision-making positions in the energy sector in both the public (25% of the Ministry of Energy employees are women) and private sectors.

4. GENDER ACTION PLAN AND SOCIAL INCLUSION

4.1. Gender impact in the field of electricity

The rural electrification project will improve the living conditions of about 150,000 households and rural community service infrastructure will benefit from access to electricity

The project will ensure the inclusion of women at all levels of the project 700,000 beneficiaries including at least 50% women. Access to electricity will help lighten women's domestic chores and save them time to engage in income-generating activities through the structures. Improving electricity supply will also have a positive impact in terms of maternal and newborn health, as well as in terms of reducing gender-based violence (lighting helps to reduce aggression against women).

The project has adopted a gender-sensitive approach in order to: contribute as much as possible to (i) encourage men and women to participate in project activities and ensure that their specific needs are taken into account, and that they all benefit from the project; (ii) create the conditions for equitable access of men and women to project resources and benefits; and (iii) create the conditions for equitable participation in project implementation and decision-making processes. The gender mainstreaming strategy of the project will ensure that different socio-economic benefits generated by the project are also felt by women.

It is expected that the information and awareness campaigns to be carried out under the project will enable people to effectively manage the use of electricity and avoid related domestic accidents.

To do this, the project will ensure that female-headed households are connected to the network on the same basis as those headed by men. In addition, the project will ensure equitable access of women to decent work in the project.

Women will be particularly encouraged to assume their role in the implementation of the project and to serve on various committees, while the project will promote gender equality in the areas of project implementation management. Resources available for capacity building can provide the necessary support and training for women in technical, organizational and leadership areas.

Project activities will adopt gender-sensitive approaches, in which women's participation in training workshops, field interventions and user groups will be strongly encouraged.

The project preparation also took into account the specific needs of women through the implementation of local development programs of actions and measures in favour of women (establishment of multifunctional platforms, improved stoves, access to c, etc.). During implementation, the program will ensure that women are represented in all decision-making bodies.

The Gender Action Plan primarily targets women but will ensure that young people and physically disabled people, both female and male, are included. Indeed, the project ensures an inclusive energy development. Excluded in most cases, vulnerable people are often considered as not fit by limited capacity staff or are just excluded. In this regards, a gender sensitive communication will be set also for young men and women as well as the disabled people. In addition, training will be provided in accessible spaces for disabled people by male and female trainers (including, if possible, disabled people). In addition, all activities will take into account the needs of men and women, young people, disabled people.

4.2. Proposed gender action plan for the project

The action plan is closely aligned with the rural electrification project. Indeed, the project provides electrification with solar powered mini-grids as well as assistance from banks financial institutions. It is therefore important to promote women's access to the project's strategic interventions.

Energy – The Burning Issues: in Burkina Faso, as within the ECOWAS region, and most of South Saharan African countries; there is heavy dependence on traditional biomass with 85% of people still cooking with charcoal and

firewood; biomass represents 57% of final energy consumed¹. A large number of women and men particularly those with low incomes or those living in rural areas are more disadvantaged than most in terms of their ability to access electricity and modern energy. In most sub-saharan countries, lack of access to electricity (apart from South Africa with 85.4%² access rate); and other forms of energy adversely affects their businesses, more importantly deprives them of their right to enjoy a better standard of living with subsequent depression of the overall economy. These are the energy poor. The energy poverty – defined as the lack of adequate modern energy for the most basic needs of cooking, heating, lighting, income generation, community schools and health centres is limiting human development in many spheres, including but not limited to education, nutrition and food security, water and sanitation, market-based work, health, and gender relations.³

Figure 2: The energy ladder: Household energy and development inextricably linked.

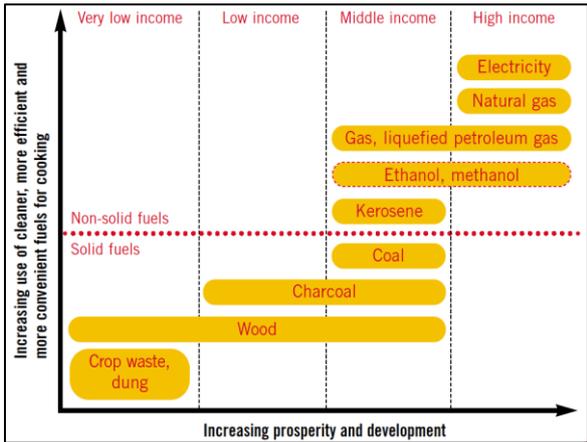


Figure 3 More electricity empowers women.

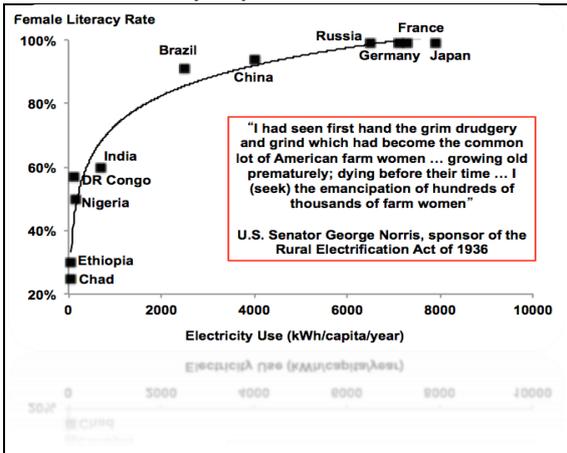


Figure 2 above, shows that better access to cleaner and cheaper energy (in terms of time and effort) and more efficient energy services comes with increased level of productivity and invariably increasing income. This establishes the inverse relationship between energy poverty and gender productivity. “Energy poverty” disproportionately hurts women and children who are forced to spend up to 20 hours a week gathering biomass (wood, dung, crop waste) and drinking water, instead of going to school, learning, and improving their situation. Indeed the current situation being faced by most rural African women and in this case women in Burkina, was faced by rural farm women in America in the early part of the last century as illustrated in Figure 3⁴ above.

Women and men experience energy poverty differently. Women, mostly the rural and urban poor, are at the bottom of the energy ladder depicting the gendered nature of the experience of poverty with women bearing its worse consequences. More educated and affluent women can afford to use electricity or liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) for cooking. The use of inferior fuels (e.g. cow dung, twigs, paraffin, charcoal, firewood etc.), with very few alternatives for rural and urban poor women and men, more adversely affects women than men. The primary source of energy for most of the rural people in Burkina Faso is biomass which may be sourced in some cases more than five kilometers away. This has a negative impact on women, not only in travelling long distances on foot but women and their children normally carry heavy loads of firewood on their heads, which can compromise physical health and wellbeing. Moreover, according to WHO reports, exposure to indoor air pollution is responsible for **over 4 million deaths a year**, worldwide, easily making it the most critical environmental killer humans face – more death than Malaria, HIV/AIDS, and Lung Cancers combined.

On energy (electrification) access: i) there is differential access by men and women to electrification, possibly because of socioeconomic status; ii) women and men have different preferences for off-grid lighting products

¹ Situation Analysis of Energy and Gender Issues in ECOWAS Member States 2015
² World Bank: World Development Indicators: Electricity Production, sources and Access
³ Nigeria Country Gender Profile (draft), African Development Bank, 2016
⁴ Jude Clementine, Contributor on oil, natural gas and electricity, FORBES

and appliances; iv) in patriarchal societies of which Burkina Faso is one, men usually make buying decisions within the household with men going for 'luxury' type goods rather than domestic appliances that can help lessen the domestic chores of women; also men and women use electricity differently.

The mechanical power and productive uses of energy, even within the agricultural sector, is different for men and women as they have varying roles in farming and employ energy efficient technology differently. Men and women grow different crops, partly because of culture, partly because of resource constraints and access to appropriate technology and extension services. More women are involved in manual or low-tech agro-processing than men. More men are involved in energy-intensive manufacturing than women, with better financial outcomes. However modest changes are occurring in response to changing socio-economic trends in the country.

Figure 4
Children studying – life when there isn't reliable electricity



Figure 5
Alternative energy sources.



Sources: ECOWAS Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency (ECREEE) publications

Energy and development gender implications: Women in electrified households are said to be more likely to find paid work outside of the home with no significant change for men. Men are reported to be better positioned to acquire and make use of mechanical power for productive use and, therefore, are more likely to increase their productivity and income. Access to electricity allows both men and women to engage in more income-generating activities. Modern cooking fuel and cooking appliances decrease exposure to harmful air pollutants for both men, women and children; in some cases men are more at risk where they are responsible for cutting and burning wood for charcoal. There are better education outcomes with electrification, as school attendance increases for both male and female children but more for female children by releasing domestic labor constraints on women and girls. Electrification allows school children, both girls and boys, to study at night therefore increasing performance (see figure 5 above); countries with better access have higher female literacy rates.

Women's entrepreneurship in clean energy: African Development Bank, the Department of Gender, Women, and Civil Society as part of its implementation of Gender Strategy Pillar II on Women Economic Empowerment, looked at business opportunities in the infrastructure sector. In this regards, the department with other development partners has commissioned a Pre-feasibility Study on Business Opportunities for Women in a Changing Energy Value Chain in West Africa. This pre-feasibility study is part of the ECOWAS Centre for Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency (ECREEE) project. The validation workshop took place in April 2018 which was attended by women owned business in the energy sector.

The Pre-feasibility study aimed at identifying barriers and challenges to promoting women entrepreneurship in the energy sector across West Africa, and using this information to develop a gender responsive, regional energy market development strategy that taps into the innate entrepreneurial capacity of ECOWAS women.⁵

Results from the study show two types of forces impacting business models and transformations in energy-based businesses. These are (i) external forces (i.e. changing energy generation, transmission, storage, and distribution

⁵ This study evaluated the drivers of change not only through secondary data (collected from study reports and data collected from agencies) but also primary data (collected through field interviews with women entrepreneurs).

dynamics), (ii) and internal forces (i.e. a company’s strategic capabilities which include its operational, human resource and financial dynamics). Both external and internal forces are **drivers of change** in the energy value chain which bring about changes in market models in the locality, country or region.

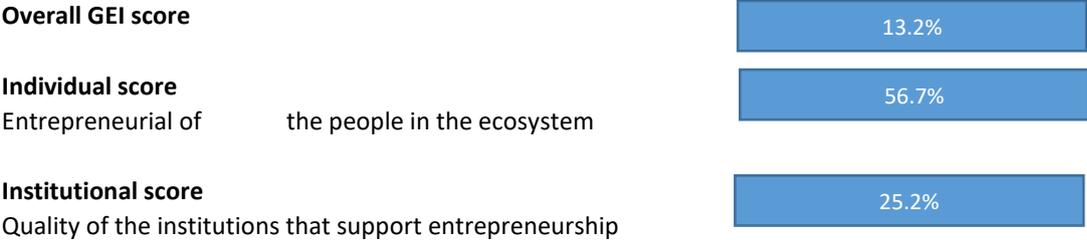
The study considers that women entrepreneurs act as agents of change on the energy value chain, capitalizing on the changes that happen in the energy market to deliver benefits – in the form of better products and services to consumers (‘beneficiaries of change’) creating both economic and social impact. Women entrepreneurs, acting as agents of change, are required to undergo certain transformations in their business models in order to adjust to the changing market models.

Figure 6: Challenges to Women’s Entrepreneurship in West Africa

The challenges that exist for women entrepreneurs range from handling operational complexities, technological expertise, employee training and development, recruitment challenges to financial foresight. The necessity to balance personal and business responsibilities, deal with cultural stigma and lack of technical (and or operational) and financial expertise, exerts pressure and restricts the growth of women-owned business, hence there is an urgent need to address their business challenges to help them thrive and succeed in the face of West Africa’s energy transition.

Women’s Access to Climate Financing: “A growing emphasis on renewables is a response to both climate change and security of supply concerns”. Electricity generation from renewable sources accounted for an average of 61.5% of the total final electricity consumption across the 4 selected countries⁶ (with Nigeria being highest at 87% and Senegal the lowest at 43%)⁷. There is such continuous pressure to produce more electricity from renewable energy resources than through fossil fuels.

Challenges and Proposed Interventions: based on the rankings, the following table identifies the strengths and weaknesses of the women’s entrepreneurship:



Component scores

Risk Acceptance	36%
Human Capital	21%
Risk Capital	29%
Start-up Skills	7%
Internationalization	7%
Process Innovation	0%
High Growth	0%

⁶ Large-scale hydroelectric power contributed the highest share of electricity generation.
⁷ <http://gtf.esmap.org>

Tech Sector		0%
Networking		0%
Product Innovation		0%

Recommendation and proposed interventions: the study recommended the following measures to be taken to support women in the renewable energy sector value chain. However, within the scope to the proposal, few activities will be selected presented in the action plan.

<i>Area of relevance</i>	<i>Measures</i>
<i>Policy & Regulatory</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">  Public procurement system with preferential allocation for women entrepreneurs  Women representation for international delegations led by the Ministry of Energy (Renewable) to energy innovation events  Cooperation with foreign research labs and national energy commissions to identify and introduce new renewable technologies for women entrepreneurs, e.g. with MIT/Stanford Labs  Initiative for women SME preferential licensing mechanisms (with standardized process, cost, and time deadlines)  Further research to identify women in energy and agriculture (E&A) projects for funding through governmental and AfDB channels  Set-up an agency within the Ministry of Economy to provide foreign investors with a one stop shop to acquire shares in local women-owned businesses – also act as the sole source of information in all issues related to foreign investments in local companies
<i>Operational</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">  Supply chain related training program for women entrepreneurs  Provide supply chain software/s at subsidized prices for women entrepreneurs  Develop an operating manual for women businesses that can offer an operations blueprint and can be used to train employees
<i>Commercial</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">  Comprehensive training on legal aspects of company operations – registration, operation, franchising/agency, and financial aspects  Training on tax planning for SMEs
<i>Technological</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">  Setting up an energy focused business incubation center with a regional and women focus  International tie-ups to share and transfer private commercialized technologies  Setting up optimal patent to allow women entrepreneurs to register patents
<i>Human Resources</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">  Technical training on different energy systems – installation and maintenance  Financial training on managing financial accounts
<i>Financial</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">  Mapping of banks that can provide training on banking products and their application to women-owned businesses  Create partnerships with local commercial banks, with export credit agencies in the exporting country focused at women-owned businesses

Conclusion : the participation of women into all levels of the energy value chain will lead to more effective clean energy initiatives, unlock greater return on investments, and expand the prospects of reducing emissions.

4.3. Implementation of the Gender Assessment action plan

A committee including relevant representatives of the Ministry of Gender and the Ministry of Youth, as well as of the National Statistical Institution, and representatives of civil society working in the field of gender, will be set up under the leadership of the Ministry of Energy. This committee will coordinate the activities implemented in the field of gender. In addition, a technical team composed of a gender expert responsible for the implementation of the activities, representatives of the gender units of the various ministries involved in the project as well as consultants will be set up as part of the implementation of the project.

In addition, consultants will be recruited to provide technical assistance, including capacity building. According to the Bank's rule, consultants will be selected according to the country's procurement rule by a committee comprising the Ministries of Energy, the Ministries of Gender and Youth, and the FDE / ABER. The AFBD will give its no objection to the selected consultants.

A more detailed gender analysis will be elaborated in September 2018 by a gender expert according to a participatory approach, with consultations at the ground level . The gender analysis will be elaborated in close collaboration with the Ministry in charge of gender. The gender analysis will be based on stakeholders' engagement at the community level and organizations level. It will particularly aim at teasing out the opportunities and challenges in the particular context for women/men and female heads of households (at the community level) and suppliers of services (their role, contribution and challenges in supporting gender related tasks through the project).

It is also mandatory for the bank to ensure that the stakeholder engagement modality should be such that it ensures the participation and effective engagement of women and female heads of household. In this regards, the project will ensure that 50% of the people consulted are women including female heads of households at all level of the project cycle. The Ministry of gender, the women civil society organisations, the network of women entrepreneurs, the gender focal points of the ministries will be also involved in the stakeholder engagement.

4.4. Gender Action Plan

Activities	Indicators and Targets	Timeline	Responsible organisations	Costs ⁸
Impact statement: Improved access to clean energy services for all households including the poor ones and the ones headed by women				
Outcome 1: reduced time spent by women in household chores Indicator: Average number of hours per week spent on domestic work and unpaid care, by sex for women Target: 70 hours of weekly domestic work				
Result 1.1. Indicator 1.1.1. Increased new connections for women consumers including women heads of households and their dependents Target: 367,303 women around 9,000 households headed by women to be defined Indicator 1.1.2. Reduced incidence of respiratory disease due to clean energy solutions Improvement to clean cooking Target: to define 1000 improved stoves Indicator 1.1.3. Improving the quality of basic services Target: to define 15 health centers, 27 schools and 5 water pumps				
<i>Activities will include:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>new connection services to households headed by poor and socially excluded women (FHH)</i> - <i>Allocation of improved stoves to poor and female-headed households</i> - <i>Energy connected Health centers, schools, markets</i> 	<i>Database with desegregated data</i> <i>Evaluation report</i>	<i>By 2019</i>	<i>Consultant</i>	<i>To be defined</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Training in renewable and clean energy technologies</i> 	<i>Number of women and disabled persons (male and female) trained in clean energy technologies</i> <i>Target: 30 (20 women; 10 disabled of which at least 5 will be female)</i>	<i>By 2020</i>	<i>Consultant</i>	<i>To be defined</i>

⁸ All budget will be an integrated part of the TA grants financed by AfDB.

- <i>Training of women and disabled persons in business development services</i>	<i>Number of women and disabled persons(male and female) business development services Target 30(20 women; 10 disabled of which at least 5 will be female)</i>	<i>By 2020</i>	<i>Consultant</i>	<i>To be defined</i>
- <i>Dialogue and advocacy with financial institutions and beneficiary companies for internships for women in RE related institutions</i>	<i>Number of young women with internships in institutions working on RE or RE financing Target: 10</i>	<i>By 2020</i>	<i>Consultant</i>	<i>To be defined</i>
Outcome 2: Increased participation of women, in clean and renewable energy <i>Indicator 2.1:</i> Number of women joining Burkina Faso women's energy network <i>Target: 100</i> <i>Indicator 2.2 :</i> Number of women and youth participating in ER investment teams				
Output 2.2 Creation of Women in energy Network <i>Indicator 2.2.1 :</i> Number of staff in financial institutions trained on gender responsive climate finance <i>Target: 20</i> Output 2.3 Capacity building of women and youth in RE <i>Indicator 2.3.1 :</i> number of women and youth trained in RE technologies and business development related to renewable energy transactions. <i>Target: to be defines</i>				
<i>Activities will include: Support to financial institutions to develop products for climate finance</i>		<i>By 2019</i>	<i>Consultant recruited for RE capacity building</i>	<i>US\$ 30,000</i>
- <i>Diagnostic study on women in renewable energies in Burkina Faso</i>	<i>A finalized diagnostic report</i>	<i>By 2019</i>		
- <i>Development of a database on women in renewable energies (virtual)</i>	<i>Virtual database developed and updated every year</i>	<i>By 2020</i>		
- <i>Launch of the women's network in renewable energies</i> - <i>Annual newsletter of Women in RE highlighting women's achievements in the sector</i>	<i>Number of women joining the Women in RE network Target: 100 women</i>			

<i>Training in renewable and clean energy technologies</i>	<i>Number of women and disabled people (men and women) trained in clean energy technologies Target: 30 (20 women including 10 disabled with at least 5 women)</i>	By 2020	Consultant recruited for RE capacity building	<i>US\$ 15,000</i>
<i>Training of Women and Persons with Disabilities in Business Development Services</i>	<i>Number of women and disabled people (men and women) trained in clean energy technologies Target: 30 (20 women including 10 disabled with at least 5 women)</i>	By 2020	Consultant recruited for RE capacity building	<i>US\$ 15,000</i>
<i>Dialogue and advocacy with financial institutions and beneficiary companies for internships for women and youth in RE institutions.</i>		By 2020	Consultant recruited for RE capacity building	<i>US\$ 15,000</i>
Outcome 3: Capacity Building of Financial Institutions in Burkina Faso in Gender-Sensitive Climate Finance <i>Indicator 3.1:</i> % of financial institutions in Burkina Faso implementing gender-sensitive programs by 2020				
Output 3.1 Training Program for Financial Institutions on Gender-Sensitive Climate Financing <i>Indicator 3.2.1:</i> Number of staff of financial institutions trained on gender-sensitive climate finance Target: 20 Output 3.2 A gender-sensitive knowledge base on climate finance for climate change <i>Indicator 3.3.1:</i> Number of knowledge products developed.				
<i>Activities will include: - Support to financial institutions to develop products for climate finance - Train credit and loan officers of all financial institutions in gender-sensitive climate finance - Development of guidelines for gender-sensitive climate finance - Monitoring the performance of financial institutions on gender-sensitive climate finance - Support for financial institutions to review funding criteria to target the participation of both male and female owned enterprises in renewable energy financing</i>	<i>Number of loan and loan officers in financial institutions trained in gender-sensitive climate finance Target: 20 (at least 50% women) % Increase in the number of businesses owned by women receiving funding for ER initiatives Target: 10% increase by 2020</i>	By 2020	Consultant recruited for capacity building	<i>US\$ 30,000</i>

<i>Documentation case studies and emerging best practices on gender-sensitive climate finance</i>	<i>Number of knowledge products developed on gender and renewable energy. Target: 3 by 2021</i>			<i>US\$30,000</i>
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Annex XIII: Gender Assessment and Action Plan

Ensuring climate resilient water supplies in the Comoros Islands

I. Introduction

The proposed project is designed to support the Government of Comoros's efforts to address climate and water related disaster risk, including droughts, floods and water quality that impact the country's drinking and irrigation water supply. The total direct beneficiaries will be 470,000 (51% female and 49% male) who will benefit from improvements to drinking and irrigation water supply infrastructure resilience. Furthermore, 800,000 people (46% female and 54% male) will benefit from improved national and sub-national climate resilient water governance in Comoros.

This gender assessment provides an overview of the gender situation in Comoros, with a specific focus on climate-resilient water supplies and Integrated Water Resources Management, identifying gender issues that are relevant to the project and examining potential gender mainstreaming opportunities. This gender assessment is based on:

- A desk review of relevant national policy documents, including the National Gender Equity and Equality Policy (PNEEG), the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRGSP), Comoros development strategy for 2015-2019 and others;
- Recommendations and lessons learned from past studies and assessments on gender from the Government of Comoros, the United Nations, civil society organisations, the private sector and multilateral development banks;
- Stakeholder consultations.

II. Gender equality and social inclusion in Comoros

Comoros is a least developed country (LDC), with one of the lowest human development rating (ranked 159 out of 188 countries), and an economy heavily reliant on agriculture for food security, poverty alleviation and economic growth. The Human Development Index for Comoros is 0.503 (0.443 for women and 0.545 for men), indicating a net gender difference in health, education and standard of living.¹ The Government of Comoros recognizes the importance of gender mainstreaming in ensuring sustainable development and reducing poverty through various policies and actions.

Comoros is a Muslim country and culture is firmly anchored in religious traditions and customs. Religion has a strong influence on gender roles and most religions are androcentric, emphasizing male interests and male power.² In this way, Islam is predicating women's position as that of the homemaker, focusing on the family, with little power and lower status as compared to men. Despite the strong patrilineal traditions

¹ Ibid.

² Holland, J. (2006). *Misogyny: the world's oldest prejudice (1st Carroll & Graf ed.)*. New York: Carroll & Graf: Distributed by Publishers Group West.

stemming from religion, Comorian women have acquired a certain presence in society due to parallel matrilineal traditions. Oftentimes, Comorian women have the power of decision within the family and they are also able to take employment outside of the home. This shows signs of openness to women's participation in society, more so than other similar Muslim countries in the region.

Addressing gender dimensions within the project design and implementation, this proposal works to identify and integrate interventions to provide gender responsive and transformative results. Women and girls are more vulnerable than other parts of the society, including to the effects of climate change, often due to existing social norms. The risks and impacts of climate change further aggravate women and youth's relative poverty.

As part of this analysis, women and youth are seen as agents of change and key players in efficient water management practices. Some of the key recommendations emerging from this analysis include the need to train women and youth ground on gender-sensitive techniques on water management, to establish and formalize women-led Water Management Committee and ensure gender inclusion in various policies and national documents. The Gender Action Plan in Section IV includes the complete list of recommended gender actions.

Poverty

Comoros is a Least Developed Country (LCD), as classified by the UN system. 80% of the population living in rural areas is considered poor, with 46 per cent living in absolute poverty (living on less than 1.25 dollar (equivalent to 522.737 KMF per person per day).³ Looking at gender differences, 30.4% of women live below the poverty level compared to 38.6% men. This gender difference (in women's favor) is skewed due to the fact that many women are economically dependent on family members to provide for them.

Gender differences in income levels are substantial with men earning an average of 2'123 dollar (GNI, PPP), and women 778 dollar (equivalent to 325,252 KMF)⁵. This difference in income is due to a majority of women doing unpaid work (such as housework, agricultural and farming activities).

Labor Force Participation

The number of households headed by a single woman is 40.2%, compared to 2.8% of households headed by a single man. Female-headed households comprise an average of 3.9 dependent individuals whereas male-headed households have an average of 3.4

³ International Labor Organistaion (2015). Programme Pays pour le Travail Décent 2015-2019. http://www.ilo.org/addisababa/countries-covered/comoros/WCMS_445887/lang--fr/index.htm

⁴ 1 USD = 418.063 Comorian Franc (KMF)

⁵ Ibid.

dependent individuals.⁶ Furthermore, 47% of the unemployed are women, with only 13.7% of women in the wage-earning group.

Across Africa, there has been a general rise of female single-parent households⁷. Children in households headed by a woman show higher educational participation and performance. This is because when women are in charge of the household economy they tend to invest more money in their children's education. However, single women might be more vulnerable in terms of their lack of power and decision-making on a community and national level. Their rights are less looked after and, thus, "most African single-mother homes miss not the father as such, but his connections and the fruits of nepotism and patronage that they bring."⁸

Education

There has been a slow albeit positive development in education in Comoros. In 2014, the expected years of schooling were 11.0 for women and 11.9 for men⁹. In 2012, the school enrolment rate was 79.4 per cent of children where the ratio of girls to boys was 0.96 for primary school: 0.96, and 0.89 for secondary school.¹⁰

When looking at years of schooling, there are net differences between men and women. There is almost 2 years gender difference of years in school; on average, men go to school 5.6 years and women 3.7 years.¹¹ There are also considerable gender differences in the literacy level; women scoring significantly lower than men at 71.2 percent and 80.7 percent respectively (total average of 75.9 per cent).¹²

The primary school dropout rate is 44.6 per cent¹³. Considering the gender differences in education, looking at women's lower levels of education, there is reason to believe that girls drop out of school more frequently than boys do. However, gender disaggregated data on actual school dropout is not available at the time of writing. Women also attain higher levels of education at a much slower pace than men do and, consequently, have much less access to specialized (and higher paid) professions.

⁶ African Development Bank (2009). Gender Profile of the Union of the Comoros. <https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/Comoros%20-%20Country%20Gender%20Profile.pdf>.

⁷ World Family Map (2014). <http://worldfamilymap.ifstudies.org/2014/articles/executive-summary>

⁸ Mungai, C. (2014). Children 'better off' with single mothers in poor nations, report suggests. Mail & Guardian Africa, 13 July, 2014. <http://mgafrica.com/article/2014-07-10-children-better-off-with-single-mothers-in-poor-nations-report-suggests>

⁹ Human Development Report (2015) (data from 2014). hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2015_human_development_report.pdf

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ Ibid.

¹² African Development Bank (2016). Country strategy paper 2016-2020. <http://www.afdb.org/en/documents/document/comoros-2016-2020-country-strategy-paper-87573/>

¹³ Human Development Report (2015), this data point is from 2003. hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2015_human_development_report.pdf

Political participation in decision making

Women have very little influential power on national levels. Studies show that women's empowerment and equality is important to ensure sustainable development in terms of increased productivity, effectiveness, climate resilience and increased health and well-being.¹⁴

Comorian women have the right to vote and to be elected. Women are not subject to discrimination in relation to civil and political rights. The General Commission for Solidarity and Gender Promotion is the Government entity responsible for gender equity. There are also gender focal points in each Ministry to safeguard gender equality issues. The willingness of the Government to include more women as well as adopting a gender perspective is important¹⁵. Still, progress is slow, and women rarely get elected to political office. In fact, women hold only 3 per cent of parliamentary seats despite increasing numbers of female candidates available. In practice, political instability and lack of resources result in little or irregular progress in terms of gender equality and the protection of women's rights.

On the community level, women are in general more involved in decision-making and are often bearer of important aspects of climate-related projects. Unfortunately, when community projects are put in place and financed by the government, women are at times, vaguely consulted.¹⁶

Access to Resources

Owing land offers independence for women and can be an important form of income and security. The right to own land is an important right that women do not benefit from universally and at the same level as men. According to a tradition of matrilineal rule in the Comoros, women can inherit and own land. However, in reality inheritance is shared between boys and girls with boys usually receiving more than girls by cultural tradition and Islamic law¹⁷.

Access to financial resources is also limited for women. In Comoros, women entrepreneurs often are not able to comply with loan requirements and as a consequence, they are not able to access conventional bank credit. The most commonly used and accessed financial measures are provided by micro financial institutions (MFIs), with more than 50% of MFI customers being women (AFDB, 2009).¹⁸

¹⁴ Habtezion, S. (2013). Overview of linkages between gender and climate change. Global Gender and Climate Alliance & United Nations Development Programme; World Bank (2011). Gender and climate change: 3 things you should know. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

¹⁵ African Development Bank (2016). Country strategy paper 2016-2020.

<http://www.afdb.org/en/documents/document/comoros-2016-2020-country-strategy-paper-87573/>

¹⁶ Notes from meeting with gender actors on the Comoros on November 30, 2016.

¹⁷ African Development Bank (2009). Gender Profile of the Union of the Comoros.

<https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/Comoros%20-%20Country%20Gender%20Profile.pdf>

¹⁸ <https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/Comoros%20-%20Country%20Gender%20Profile.pdf>

Water, Sanitation, Health and Wellbeing

Limited access to clean and potable water, hygiene and sanitation are one of the primary cause of child mortality in Comoros. Clean potable water is only available to 13% of the population, resulting in various health implications for women and children. Furthermore, due to limited and low access (66.2% of the population) to sanitation infrastructures and human waste management infrastructures (i.e. toilets), and poor management of hospital waste, leading to water contamination and to high prevalence of diarrhea, malaria, cholera, typhoid epidemics and water-borne diseases.

Women are the main victims of water-borne, and vector-borne disease and are carrying the risk, as they are responsible for fetching water, which also reduces the time available to actively participate in the labour market and increase their household income. It is estimated that women and girls devote up to two hours a day to fetching water, hence reducing their time available for work by 25% (based on a regular 8-hour working day).¹⁹

Women and girls often need to walk long distances to latrines facilities, which are often not available at a household level. This poses a security risk and is an additional burden to women and girls. It was documented that women often consume less water during the day in order to avoid going outside during the night, this makes women more sensitive to infection disease (e.g. urinary tract infections and kidney problems). Moreover, the lack of hand-washing after defecating and before preparing food and when caring for children has increased the spread and prevalence of diseases.

In the island of Grand Comore, more than half of the population lives within 5km from the shoreline, and the primary source of potable water is sourced through rainwater from roofs into tanks, which often leads to health issues with bacterial contamination. Freshwater is also distributed to about 20 localities (or 35% of the population) who could afford this, by water trucks delivering from 54 wells in the volcanic aquifers of the coastal zone. However, only 30% of the wells provide groundwater with Total Dissolved Solids (TDS) at 3g L⁻¹, instead of TDS with less than 1g L⁻¹, as recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO).²⁰

The government of Comoros is strengthening water management capacities in terms of water treatment in emergency and disaster preparedness through capacity building trainings on the use of pre-positioned portable water treatment units on the three islands of Comoros.²¹ However, additional efforts are needed to strengthen government's capacity on water management, and to provide safe potable water to the communities of Comoros.

As part of UNICEF 2015-2019 country programme, Nutrition and WASH (Water, Sanitation and Hygiene) sub-component to screen and treat malnourished children and provide counseling to parents of children under 2 years of age. This sub-component also aims to distribute micronutrients to pregnant women, and to make systematic the

¹⁹ https://www.unicef.org/about/annualreport/files/Comoros_2016_COAR.pdf

²⁰ J.-C. Comte et al. / Journal of Hydrology: Regional Studies 5 (2016) 179–199

²¹ *ibid*

distribution of Vitamin A and biannual deworming of children from 6 to 59 months of age. The overall goal is to ensure equitable access to drinking water and to a healthy environment, and to encourage women and children to adopt better practices with regard to sanitation and hygiene.²²

Through this project, water security and the provision of potable clean water will have a direct impact of women and girls, and children and youth through improved health and wellbeing. In order to reduce water demand during periods of drought, the project will reduce borehole pumping rates which will reduce salinity risks and will improve water treatment, allowing water to be stored and increasing the quantity of potable water. This will have a direct benefit to women, youth and children as high salt intakes in their water supply will be reduced, in line with WHO's recommendation, and this will have a positive impact on health and nutrition.

Gender Based Violence

Gender based violence (GBV) is common in Comoros, and women and girls suffer from physical, sexual and psychological violence, most often from family members and in-laws.²³ The combination of several factors, for example, lack of support for women, traditional gender norms as well as embarrassment and denial, prevent women and girls from denouncing violence and abuse, and, thus, it remains difficult to collect data on the actual prevalence of gender-based violence.

Some efforts have been made in order to improve the protection of women and children's rights in the Comoros, but help is not available in a regular manner. There is reason to believe that climate adaptation projects will help reduce the occurrence of violence indirectly by reducing the stress on couples and families, by providing opportunities for women and youth to actively participate in the project's interventions through capacity buildings and training workshops, by minimizing the time spent to fetch water and creating economic opportunities for women and youth.

III. Mechanisms to address gender inequality in Comoros - legal and administrative framework

There is a general willingness to support gender equality in the country, rendered evident by the ratification of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in 1994 as well as the adoption of the National Gender Equity and Equality Policy (PNEEG) in 2007. In the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRGSP), updated in 2009, women's rightful place in the decision-making and development process has been clearly emphasized. Also, the Comorian Government expresses its support for the development of gender equality in its development strategy for 2015-2019²⁴. The

²² https://www.unicef.org/about/execboard/files/2014-PL5_Comoros_CPD-final_approved-EN.pdf

²³ African Development Bank (2009). Gender Profile of the Union of the Comoros. <https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/Comoros%20-%20Country%20Gender%20Profile.pdf>.

²⁴ Stratégie de Croissance Accélérée de Développement Durable (SCA2D) 2015-2019.

http://www.comores-online.com/wiki/Strat%C3%A9gie_Nationale_de_D%C3%A9veloppement#Strat.C3.A9gie_de_Croissance_Acc.C3.A9l.C3.A9r.C3.A9e_de_D.C3.A9veloppement_Durable_.28SCA2D.29_-_2015_.

strategy mentions that special attention will be paid to questions associated with human rights and gender equity in relation to the four main objectives of the strategy: sustainable development, employment and integration, mitigation and adaptation to climate change impacts and governance²⁵.

To protect women's health, education and to offer support, several women's associations are active in the area. Women's associations can be extremely helpful in advocating women's rights, raising awareness and informing about the importance of women's participation in communities and projects. Women's organizations can also help organize women, collect relevant data as well as assist in training and capacity building. Numerous examples exist of women's associations participating in sustainable development projects to support women's situation; development of irrigation techniques to improve household food production, tree planting, water management, income generation through improved agricultural activities, and so on.²⁶ Wherever possible, the implication of women's associations can be a valuable asset to projects and help create real, sustainable change.²⁷

The Constitution of the Union of the Comoros prohibits all forms of gender-based discrimination. The importance of gender mainstreaming is recognized in the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2009), in which the Government underlines the importance of women's participation in decision-making²⁸.

IV. Gender issues in response to immediate threats of water scarcity

In Comoros, nearly 87% of the population does not have access to safe and clean water supplies. The average water consumption is below the World Health Organization's recommendation of 50 liters per day per person (28 liters per day per person).²⁹ Additionally, agriculture is the most vulnerable sector in Comoros, highly dependent on sufficient rainfall and irrigation. National agricultural production currently meets only 40 % of food needs and is a source of employment for women and man.

In Comoros, women and girls are traditionally in charge of collecting water and are additionally affected by increasingly scarce water supplies. Due to increased rainfall patterns and temperatures, rivers are drying up, and the yields of wells are diminishing. Consequently, distances to safe water resources are predicted to increase in rural areas. Women and girls in Comoros have to walk approximately 195 meters to the closest water source. To get the minimum amount of necessary daily water, women and girls walk this distance, back and forth, up to five times per day; which results in about 2 kilometers per

²⁵ <http://www.gouvernement.km/index.php?id=7> and http://www.comores-online.com/wiki/Strat%C3%A9gie_Nationale_de_D%C3%A9veloppement#Strat.C3.A9gie_de_Croissance_Acc.C3.A9l.C3.A9r.C3.A9e_de_D.C3.A9veloppement_Durable_.28SCA2D.29_-_2015_.

²⁶ The Women and Gender Constituency (2015). Gender-just solutions. <http://wedo.org/genderjustsolutions/>

²⁷ Ibid.

²⁸ African Development Bank (2009). Gender Profile of the Union of the Comoros. <https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Project-and-Operations/Comoros%20-%20Country%20Gender%20Profile.pdf>.

²⁹ Stratégie et Programme d'AEPA aux Comores (2013). Annexe 3: Contexte socio-économique de l'AEPA.

day per household.³⁰ Women spend an average of 2 hours per day collecting water. Water collection is increasingly demanding and represents an opportunity cost in terms of time and labor. The quality of the available water is often questionable. Poor water quality leads to increased health issues and disease, such as typhoid fever, diarrhea and various water-borne diseases.

Women are responsible for the majority of household food production in the Comoros. Agriculture, including food production, is suffering the effects of climate variability and the lack of water with an increase in food scarcity. Children's malnutrition and slow development rates are increasing (25.8 per cent and 44 per cent respectively in 2004) with more recent statistics showing that more than 42% of Comorian children age five and under suffer from chronic malnutrition.³¹ Food scarcity also leads to increased prices and dependency on imported food supplies.³² Women are forced to draw on their already limited budgets to buy food for their families, exacerbating their financial situation.

Sanitation and hygiene is extremely important for health and wellbeing and depends heavily on the access to clean water. An important problem lies in early detection and correct monitoring of epidemic outbreaks in water sources.³³ Sanitation and hygiene are seen as women's issues. However, women have very little influential power in decisions related to safe sanitation. Increased access to safe water in combination with awareness training can considerably lower risks related to sanitation and hygiene.

Girls are disproportionately affected by climate change as compared to boys. Typically, when resources are limited and families have to choose which children to send to school, boys usually have priority.³⁴ More, when increased help is needed in the households (for example after climate shocks), girls are held back from school to help out, not boys. In the Comoros, girls are traditionally involved in housework, particularly in collecting water. With increased scarcity of water, girls will have to spend more time collecting water, taking time away from school and other chores. Girls are also particularly influenced by the lack of safe sanitation. Previous projects show that when proper sanitation is lacking, children, especially girls, are discouraged to relieve themselves, resulting in increased school absenteeism, especially during menstruation.³⁵

As mentioned above, in Comoros women are responsible for collecting and managing water for the households. A few Water User Associations such as SOGEM are functioning well and have trained women to be involved with the Integrated Water Resources Management (one-quarter of participants received training). However, women's voices are not sufficiently heard and not enough women are implicated in training due to technical and financial constraints. Women have little to no decision-making power and therefore, very little influence on important decisions related to water allocation and

³⁰ Ibid.

³¹ Ibid.

³² Second National Communication to the UNFCCC of the Union of Comoros (2012)

³³ Commission de l'Océan Indien (2011). Rapport national Comores: Etude de vulnérabilité.

http://www.commissionoceanindien.org/fileadmin/resources/Aclimate%20Etudes%20Asconit-Pareto/20110819_vulnerabilite-comores.pdf

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ UN Water (2006). Gender, water and sanitation: A policy brief.

<http://www.unwater.org/downloads/unwpolbrief230606.pdf>

development. ³⁶ The Gender and Water IWRM Resource Guide states that: “Women should be recognised as central to the provision, management and safeguarding of water.”³⁷ Involving women in water projects is not only the right thing to do, women provide knowledge, skills and their perspective to help mitigate vulnerability to climate change, improve livelihoods, productivity and the well-being of their communities. In the extension, women’s implication in (all) climate-related projects will help fully empower women, improve women’s human rights and reach the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal of gender equality by 2030.

V. Gender analysis and expected outcomes

The present gender analysis was carried out at the onset and design of the current project. The gender analysis was done by desk review and based on available data from previous studies and reports about the Comoros as well as previous climate change projects. Stakeholder consultations with local officials and women’s organizations took place at the end of November-beginning of December 2016. The analysis also integrates gender perspectives in indicators, targets and project activities, to ensure a holistic gender approach.

Consultations during the project design took place with a range of stakeholders and partners, including UN agencies, National Commission on Solidarity, Social Protection and Genre, Ministry of Energy, Agriculture, Fishing, Environment, Land Planning and Urbanism (MEAPEATU- DGEF, DGEME and other relevant departments of MEAPEATU), the Comoros Water and Energy Agency (MA-MWE), the National Agency for Civil Aviation and Meteorology (ANACM) National Bureau for Gender Advocacy, NGOs, Civil societies and women and youth groups. Results from the consultations are detailed in the Stakeholder Engagement Report and Stakeholder Action Plan annex included in full as an additional annex as part of the proposal.

Summary of gender-specific stakeholder consultations are outlined below:

- Stronger link between gender-related issues and development work is needed;
- Gender-specific data needs to be collected and disseminated in a systematic manner, as the three censuses conducted in 1980, 1991 and 2003 do not include gender-disaggregated data;
- Awareness campaigns on gender-specific issues are needed;
- Local expertise should be used when tackling gender-related issues and mainstreaming gender into national level-education;
- During period of prolonged drought and water scarcity, private type of initiatives are carries out by women and youth;

³⁶ Human Development Report (2015).

hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2015_human_development_report.pdf

³⁷ UNDP (2006). Gender and Water IWRM Resource Guide.

http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/librarypage/environment-energy/water_governance/resource-guide-mainstreaming-gender-in-water-management.html.

- Women are rarely consulted in government-led decision-making processes, however, on a community level, women's views and opinion is taken into account;
- Women's knowledge on women's rights varies from one island to another, but also from different women's communities residing in the same island.

This gender analysis addresses women and youth's issues, needs and priorities as outlined during stakeholder consultations, and extensive project design and completes the project proposal to ensure women's and youth's integration in the project activities as well as the development of gender adapted efforts. This analysis underlines the importance of women's role in the society and the existing inequalities between men and women. The project design and implementation will integrate the aspect of gender in the following manner:

- 1) All indicators in the logframe have been gender disaggregated where appropriate to compare situations of men and women.
- 2) Gender-sensitive study will be undertaken at midterm to verify and monitor the implementation of gender-specific activities and at end of project, within the targeted river basins and district. The results of the midterm study will be incorporated in the Gender Action Plan and targets will be re-assessed, if needed.
- 3) The socio-economic analysis detailed the current situation for women in terms of the time spent collecting water (2 hours per day in rural areas). Women will be primary beneficiaries through the reduction of the water collection time.
- 4) Water Management Committees and IWRM committees will have at least 50 per cent female representation.
- 5) All training will target 50% women in institutions (ministries, NGOs, Water User Associations) with the exception of the IWRM committees which will have a minimum of 30% women beneficiaries. The IWRM Committees must represent all concerned sectors such as agriculture, manufacturing and distilleries that are generally led by men. Also, all training activities will aim to have at least 50% female trainers.
- 6) Improvements relative to integrating water resource knowledge into professional, Master's and continuing education programmes will ensure that women represent 50% of the beneficiaries. This will ensure that women can also serve as the next technical savvy recruits for such organizations/institutions.
- 7) The Water Security Plan and Watershed Management Plans will have sections that explicitly state how to consider women in planning and implementation of activities.
- 8) Women will receive training on how to maintain local water management systems such as monitoring small water infrastructure and treatment systems, indicating when they are in need of repair and on preventing water use inefficiencies (e.g., leaks) (ensuring that at least 30% of the trainers are female).

In this project, gender-specific targets and indicators were designed, including the following **Gender-specific indicators**:

- Gender aspects integrated in the new Water Code;
- Number of women and youth engaged in the discussion on water tariffs;
- Number of women and girls, youth and children engaged in trainings on best practices for water management, health and wellbeing and nutrition;
- Number of women trained to lead Water Management Committee discussions;
- Number of men and women trained in Water Management Committees;
- Number of men and women trained on the use of UNICEF Drinking Water Safety and Security Planning climate risk reduction and operation procedures;
- Number of reports and surveys with integrated gender considerations;
- Number of women and men included in the IWRM Committees (at least 30% women);
- Women representative/s included in development of IWRM Plans of Action for expertise and to ensure that women's situation is taken into account and that women receive the necessary information;
- Number of women leading community-based soil and water conservation measures;
- Number of men and women participating in recharge zone improvement activities;
- Number of men and women in the IWRM committees;
- Number of men and women receiving awareness training;
- Number of single women-led households receiving awareness training;
- Number of women involved in budgeting and monitoring training;
- Number of public awareness workshops, including a gender component;
- Gender disaggregated % of population with access to improved water management information on floods and drought periods;
- Number of women and men field agents receiving training;
- Number of men and women as trainers;
- Number of women farmers and other rural stakeholders receiving and using advisories for water management;
- Number of men and women participants in training of trainers' sessions;
- Number of women and men receiving training through vocational and educational programmes;
- Ensure that women and youth are informed of the project activities;
- Grievance mechanism established;
- Time saved for water collection by women and girls;
- Number of women involved in Water User Associations;
- Number of schools with improved water supply and number of children benefited;
- Number of women staff members involved in flow meter installation;
- Ensured equitable access to potable water resources for men, women and youth.



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Gender Action Plan and Budget

This Gender Action plan provides suggested entry points for gender-responsive actions to be taken during project implementation. In addition, specific indicators and targets are also proposed to measure and track progress on these actions at the activity level. This can be incorporated into the detailed M&E plan which will be developed at the start of implementation and provides concrete recommendations on how to ensure gender (including disaggregated data) continues to be collected and measured throughout the project implementation.

Objective	Action	Targets and Indicators	Partner Institution	Timeline	Allocated budget (\$)
TOTAL					2,727,931
Output 1: Climate informed water supply planning and management					
Activity 1.1: Prepare recommendations and legal guidance on the integration of climate change adaptation into the national (federal) and regional (state) water sector agencies governance frameworks, regulations and operations.	1.1.1 Legal consultancy for existing legislation review on Climate Resilience inclusion, drafting of Primary (Water Code) and Secondary legislation, regulations; and 3 rounds of consultation meetings with national agencies. 1.1.2 Consultancy providing recommendations on the climate resilient water planning, budgeting and operations with special focus on the project targeted areas (with special focus on gender mainstreaming)	Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women and youth beneficiaries Indicator: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender aspects integrated in the new Water Code. Number of men, women and youth engaged in trainings on best practices for water management 	Gender expert and National Commission for Gender (NCG)	Q3, Year 1 to Q1, Year 4	283,625
Activity 1.2: Develop water sector climate change risk reduction awareness raising programme for national and state agencies and establish CCA knowledge and information exchange	1.2.1 Design of awareness raising webinars (with focus on gender) 1.2.2 Set-up of an open access (web based) central knowledge platform hub for accessing global/regional climate vulnerability assessments and adaptation	Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women beneficiaries Indicator: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of documents with gender considerations; 	Gender expert, NCG, Gender Representative in in DGEF / DGEME, MA-MWE, ANACM	Q3, Year 1 to Q4, Year 5	174.361



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mechanisms	awareness materials available to all authorities involved in the water sector and agriculture planning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collect data on the number of men and women accessing central knowledge platform 			
Activity 1.3: Develop and apply criteria for assessing socially sensitive water pricing mechanisms ensuring prices take into account the actual costs of production, storage and processing required in view of the projected climate stresses	<p>1.1.3 Technical consultancy services on systematic approaches to water sector climate risk assessment and risk reduction (ie. UNICEF Drinking Water Safety and Security Planning -DWSSP) and assistance on inclusion in work programmes and planning.</p> <p>1.3.1 Consultancy services to conduct economic and social analysis/evaluation, on-the-ground survey, evaluation, analysis of water users and service providers across all 3 islands to determine acceptable tariff structures required to sustain climate resilient water supplies.</p>	<p>Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of women and youth engaged in the discussion on water tariffs 	Gender expert, NCG, Gender Representative in in DGEF / DGEME, MA-MWE, ANACM	Q3, Year 1 to Q4, Year 5	174.361
Activity 1.4: Develop planning guidance on source protection and water quality standards in view of climate change, operating procedures during periods of drought/floods; and safety plans	<p>1.4.1 Consultancy services to collect best practises on Drinking Water Safety and Security Planning (DWSSP), including source protection, drought and flood event O&M, and water quality monitoring requirements, tailored to Comoros national state sector planning and regulatory requirements - with consultations on each island.</p> <p>1.4.2. Preparation of Safety Plans under the Water Master Plan to respond to (i) intense precipitation</p>	<p>Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women</p> <p>Indicator:</p>	Gender expert, NCG, Gender Representative in in DGEF / DGEME	Q3, Year 1 to Q4, Year 5	174.361



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	(ii) increased or prolonged drought (iii) saline intrusion				
1.5. Design and conduct trainings on best practices and gender-sensitive techniques of climate change adaptation in the context of water management, health and nutrition among national, regional and local water stakeholders	1.5.1 Consultancy services to develop and deliver climate change national and state (island) level training programme (4 x 3-day workshops to 20 agencies) on water adaptation best practices and gender-sensitivity in water management, health and nutrition	Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women and girls, children and youth beneficiaries Indicator: <ul style="list-style-type: none">Number of women and girls, youth and children engaged in training programmes on improved health and wellbeing conditions, and improved nutrition	Gender expert, NCG, Gender Representative in in DGEF / DGEME, MA-MWE, ANACM	Q3, Year 1 to Q4, Year 5	100.000
1.6 Strengthen decentralized water resources management capacities to undertake climate risk reduction assessments and develop and deliver awareness campaigns and training programmes to Water Management Committees and users	1.6.3. Train DGEF / DGEME and their decentralized island (DR) agencies in the planning and regulation of climate risk reduction approaches to water management at the communal level and implement the tariff standards for water 1.6.4. Organize 8 participatory workshops to train all members of water management committees to use UNICEF Drinking Water Safety and Security Planning climate risk reduction design and operation procedures	Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women Indicator: <ul style="list-style-type: none">Number of men and women trained on the use of UNICEF Drinking Water Safety and Security Planning climate risk reduction and operation proceduresNumber of women trained to lead Water Management Committee discussions;Number of men and women trained in Water Management Committees	Gender expert, NCG, Gender Representative in in DGEF / DGEME, MA-MWE, ANACM	Q3, Year 1 to Q4, Year 5	174.361



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Objective	Action	Targets and Indicators	Responsible Institution(s)	Timeline	Allocated budget (\$)
Output 2: Climate Informed Water Resources and Watershed Management including forecasting and early warnings of climate risks					
Activity 2.1: Establish climate resilience focused IWRM Committees and Watershed Risk Reduction Action Plans in the project intervention areas	<p>2.1.1 Establish and formalize the IWRM management committees in each watershed, prioritising climate resilience and adaptation approaches</p> <p>2.1.2. Carry out a mapping survey of areas vulnerable to climate risks, particularly those exposed to saltwater intrusion to allow analysis of risk scenarios</p> <p>2.1.3. Train IWRM committees understanding of climate risks and adaptation options that ensure access to adequate water quality</p> <p>2.1.4. Develop action plans for river basins, taking into account climate change impacts on rainfall patterns, floods, rising temperatures and increasing salinity</p> <p>2.1.5. Provide expert consultant(s) for the development of Water Code Decrees to integrate IWRM best practices to address the risks of climate change and facilitate knowledge exchange and formal collaboration between IWRM Committees and DG / REF</p>	<p>Baseline: 0</p> <p>Target: 50% women beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of reports and surveys with integrated gender considerations; • Number of women and men included in the IWRM Committees (at least 30% women). • Women representative/s included in development of IWRM Plans of Action for expertise and to ensure that women’s situation is taken into account and that women receive the necessary information • Number of women leading community-based soil and water conservation measures. • Number of men and women participating in recharge zone improvement activities. 	NCG and Gender Representative for DGEF	Q4, Year 1 to Q2, Year 5	139,223



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<p>Activity 2.2 Implement the water protection and risk mitigating measures on the ground/operationalize the risk reduction plans</p>	<p>2.2.1. Implement soil conservation measures at community level in watersheds of 15 target areas to reduce increase rainfall intensity erosion</p> <p>2.2.2. Upgrade community-based recharge areas in 11 watersheds to protect drought flows through reforestation and to other appropriate techniques</p>	<p>Baseline: 0 Target: 30% women beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Number of single women-led households receiving awareness training;• Number of public awareness workshops, including a gender component.	<p>NCG and Gender Representative for DGEF</p>	<p>Q4, Year 1 to Q2, Year 5</p>	<p>119,301</p>
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<p>Activity 2.3 Establish water source protection zones and raise public awareness on climate risk reduction benefits of watershed management</p>	<p>2.3.1. Legal advisory services to be provided to IWRM committees for the implementation of climate resilience establishing watershed-specific zoning regulatory frameworks for the protection of recharge areas</p> <p>2.3.2. 8 training to Train IWRM committee trainers in mainstreaming climate change adaptation, integrated water resources management strategy, planning and budgeting, business models, management fees and performance monitoring.</p> <p>2.3.3. Organize 5 public awareness workshops on increasing watershed resilience to climate change and ensuring the preservation of water resources good water management practices, including soil and water conservation, and reforestation</p>	<p>Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender disaggregated % of population with access to improved water management information on floods and drought periods; • Number of men and women as lead trainers. • Number of public awareness workshops, including a gender component. • Number of men and women participants in training of trainers' sessions. 	<p>NCG and Gender representative in DGEF / ANACM, MA-MWE</p> <p>University of Comoros</p> <p>Meteorology Department</p>	<p>Q4, Year 1 to Q3, Year 5</p>	
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<p>Activity 2.4 Establish water resource monitoring network and upgrade the existing monitoring infrastructure to enable the collection of the required climate/weather data</p>	<p>2.4.1. Strengthen the dissemination of information on the water cycle and seasonal forecasts through the media and communication networks 2.4.2. Acquire and install 6 agrometeorological stations in the targeted areas of the three islands 2.4.3. Acquire and install 20 automatic rain gauges covering the three islands climate risks on water resources 2.4.4. Acquire and install radar to improve protection of water resources and storage units during periods of heavy rainfall 2.4.5. Acquire and install 9 flow measurement equipment on two islands 2.4.6. Acquire and install 43 piezometric probes for the monitoring of saline intrusion in Grand Comore 2.4.7. Strengthen the structure (climate proof) of the national hydrometeo services infrastructure to withstand with climate shocks and disasters</p>	<p>Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of women farmers and other rural stakeholders receiving and using advisories for water management. 	<p>NCG and Gender representative in DGEF , ANACM, DGEME, MA-MWE</p>	<p>Q4, Year 1 to Q4, Year 4</p>	<p>115,872</p>
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<p>2.5: Build the capacities of the meteorological services to analyse and produce drought and flood forecasts for targeted users, including for flood early warning system</p>	<p>2.5.1. Design and provide training to the staff of the meteorological services to develop and apply dynamic and statistical tools for seasonal forecasting</p> <p>2.5.2. Develop standardized operational procedures (SOPs) for the collection, processing and analysis of water cycle data as well as alert thresholds</p> <p>2.5.3. Design and provide training for 20 field workers on the installation and maintenance of measurement equipment</p> <p>2.5.4. Expert training design and delivery for 10 staffs of meteorological services on (i) drought indexing, (ii) preparation of annual, quarterly and monthly rainfall prediction, (iii) water resource projections based on water balance analysis; (iv) assessments/reporting to notify the relevant authorities on the droughts and floods (EW basis)</p>	<p>Baseline: 0</p> <p>Target: 50% women beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Number of women and men receiving and using advisories for water management. 	<p>NCG and Gender representative in DGEF / ANACM</p> <p>University of Comoros</p> <p>Meteorology Department</p>	<p>Q4, Year 1 to Q4, Year 4</p>	<p>115,872</p>
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<p>2.6 Build the capacity of the key government, local authorities and committees to interpret the climate information and raise awareness of the local population to act upon the forecasts and EWS.</p>	<p>2.6.1 Conduct 8 trainings for the key government and local officials, committee trainers (that will be appointed within the committees) to interpret the climate information provided by the meteo services and identify the appropriate communication channels (e.g. different information for water services providers vs. rural farmers).</p> <p>2.6.2. Conducting awareness raising campaigns (through media) to sensitize communities to the use of forecasting and alert information on the impacts of climate risks on water resources</p> <p>2.6.3. Design new university web-based modules (1 for undergraduate and 1 for graduate students to be rolled out in the relevant specialisations/degrees such as engineering etc.) with focus on the climate change reduction</p> <p>2.6.4. Acquire hydrogeological control equipment to supporting existing university research to enable them to have capacity to conduct water quality</p>	<p>Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of government officials (men and women) trained in the interpretation of climate information • Number of community members (men and women) taking part of sensitization campaigns • Number of women enrolled in web-based modules and learning about climate change • Number of women and men receiving training through vocational and educational programmes. 	<p>NCG and Gender representative in DGEF / ANACM</p> <p>University of Comoros</p> <p>Meteorology Department</p>	<p>Q4, Year 1 to Q4, Year 4</p>	<p>115,872</p>
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Annex XIII Additional Background Details

Objective	Action	Targets and Indicators	Responsible Institution(s)	Timeline	Allocated budget (\$)
Output 3: Climate Resilient Water Supply Infrastructure					
Activity 3.1 Undertake climate risk assessments of existing groundwater abstraction wells to develop risk reduction pumping strategies, and construction of additional boreholes in zones at risk of drought water scarcity in Grande Comore	<p>3,3.1. Site selection confirmation for new production borehole siting based upon review of groundwater piezometer installations.</p> <p>3.1.2. Step test salinity pumping tests of 6 existing production boreholes in Zones 1 to 5 to determine optimum pumping rate</p> <p>3.1.3. Design of 5 new production boreholes in Zones 1, 2, 3 and 4.</p> <p>3.1.4. Drilling, testing and commissioning of new production</p>	<p>Baseline: 0</p> <p>Target: 50% of beneficiaries are men, women and youth engaged in information dissemination activities.</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure equitable access to potable water resources for men, women and youth; • Ensure that women and youth are informed of the project activities; • Grievance mechanism established. 	NCG and Gender Representative in DGEF / DGEME , MA-MWE	Q4, Year 1 to Q1, Year 6	346,900



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<p>Activity 3.2 Build infrastructure to increase resilience of water supply facilities to extended duration low flow periods, greater intensity flood flow damage and flood flow higher turbidity and bacteria loadings (Grande Comore, Anjouan island and Moheli island)</p>	<p>3.2.1 Grand Comore Island Construction of reservoir tanks, treatment plants, distribution network extensions and irrigation impluviums</p> <p>3.2.2. Anjouan Island Flood protection upgrades to surface water intakes, treatment plants, storage tanks and network extensions, and livestock and irrigation watering basins and troughs</p> <p>3.2.3 Moheli Island Flood protection upgrades to surface water intakes, treatment plants, storage tanks and network extensions, and livestock and irrigation watering basins and troughs</p>	<p>Baseline: 0 Target: 50% women beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of women, men and youth with access to safe water; • Time saved for water collection by women and girls; • Number of women involved in Water User Associations. • Number of schools with improved water supply and number of children benefited. 	<p>NCG and Gender Representative in DGEF / DGEME</p>	<p>Q4, Year 1 to Q4, Year 7</p>	<p>346,900</p>
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<p>Activity 3.3. Installation of flowmeters to support climate resilient tariff adjustments, and leakage reduction programmes to improve the water pricing and management system taking into account the additional costs associated with climatic hazards</p>	<p>3.3.1. Installation of meters to improve the water pricing and management system taking into account the additional costs associated with climatic hazards</p> <p>3.3.2 Training to the water providers on the leakage detection and leakage reduction programming, operations and maintenance of meters</p> <p>3.3.3. Consultancy to analyse the consumption patterns and draft guidance for the water providers with respect to tariffs/pricing</p>	<p>Baseline: 0</p> <p>Target: 50% women and youth beneficiaries</p> <p>Indicator:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of women staff members involved in flow meter installation; • Ensured equitable access to potable water resources for men, women and youth; 	<p>NCG and Gender Representative in in DGEF / DGEME , MA-MWE</p>	<p>Q4, Year 1 to Q4, Year 7</p>	<p>346,900</p>
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Transforming Financial Systems for Climate

Gender Equality Approach and Strategy

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List of Acronyms and Definitions

‘a Project’ or ‘Projects’	Refers to the partnership between AFD and a Local Financial Partner, meaning a credit facility possibly combined with a technical assistance facility and/or guarantee scheme, to be financed in the framework of the Program
‘Subprojects’	Refers to the loans granted by a LFP to local companies in the framework of the Program
‘the Program’	Refers to the whole AFD-GCF initiative ‘Transforming Financial Systems for Climate’
AFD	<i>Agence Française de Développement</i> (French Agency for Development)
E&S	Environmental and Social
ESDD	E&S Due Diligence
ESIA	Environmental and Social Impact Assessment
ESMS	Environmental and Social Management System Refers to the whole procedures, tools, processes and organizational arrangements and capacities set up by an organization to manage E&S issues and E&S risks in particular
ESRM	Environmental and Social Risk Management
FI	Financial Intermediary/ies
GCF	Green Climate Fund
IFC	International Finance Corporation
ILO	International Labor Organization
LFP	Local Financial Partner
NDC	National Determined Contributions
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PS	Performance Standard(s)
TA(P)	Technical Assistance (Program)
TORs	Terms of Reference
UN	United Nations

I. AFD's approach to Gender Equality

AFD has built experience and expertise on integrating gender objectives to financed projects, through a specific approach tailored to the stakes of each project and to the needs of beneficiaries and project partners. Such approach is developed below.

In 2013, AFD launched its own strategy process through its 2014–2017 Transversal Integration Framework on gender and the reduction of gender inequalities. This gender policy aims to promote equal opportunities for men and women and to improve the efficiency and sustainability of operations financed by AFD, through three main operational priorities:

- Preventing gender inequalities in AFD operations;
- Promoting gender equality as one of the objectives of the interventions;
- Supporting the evolution of society on gender issues.

To promote AFD gender approach and to encourage better integration of gender in the project cycle, AFD gender strategy focuses on:

- 1) Developing a gender equality approach specific to AFD's intervention sectors and countries;
- 2) Systematically integrating gender issues throughout the project cycle;
- 3) Assessing and building knowledge on experiences;
- 4) Strengthening AFD's capacities on gender issues;
- 5) Building capacities of AFD's partners on gender issues;
- 6) Participating in debates and discussions on gender and development issues.

The implementation of this strategy is based on a decentralized approach implemented within AFD teams, with a network of trained gender focal points in all AFD teams and particularly in local offices, supported by the Environmental, Social, and Sustainable Development Unit, which bears the technical expertise on gender. Such organization allows the promotion of equality in access to and control of resources and income, in participation of men and women to all project components, and in capacity-building and empowerment of project beneficiaries. This approach applies to all projects financed by AFD without discrimination.

1.1. Methodology

To support, monitor, and report on the integration of gender equality objectives in AFD-funded operations, specific method and indicators have been set up.

First of all, AFD uses the OECD DAC¹ marker on gender equality to screen and report on all projects as follows:

- 7) 0: the project has no objective in terms of reduction of gender inequalities.
- 8) 1: the project has a specific objective to reduce gender inequalities.

¹ Development Assistance Committee

9) 2: the project’s main objective is to reduce gender inequalities.

OECD markers on gender equality are assigned during the ex-ante analysis of the project and its categorization. This scoring system tracks the progressive efforts allocated to this issue. Any project strengthening gender equality and women’s empowerment or reducing gender discrimination and gender-based inequalities will be marked 1 or 2. It is important to note that these markers are chosen at the beginning of the investigation, and fixed at the time of granting.

In addition to that, AFD’s internal sustainable opinion includes a gender equality dimension, consistent with the OECD CAD markers but allowing more accurate analysis, as detailed in Table 1.

AFD Sustainable Development Indicators	Contents	Equivalence with OECD CAD markers
-2	There is important risk of enhancing gender inequality through the project	0
-1	There is an opportunity to reduce gender inequality through the project but no dialogue or specific measures have been considered to do so	0
0	There is no specific gender issue to be addressed by the project	0
+1	Needs and interests of men and women have been analyzed and discussed with the partner but no specific objective or measure have been designed	0
+2	One of the project’s objectives is to ensure effective access to women to the opportunities created by the project	1
+3	Women empowerment and structural reduction of gender inequalities is part of the project’s main objectives OR is a cross-cutting objective of the project	2

Table 1 - AFD Sustainable Development Analysis on Gender Equality

As per the CAD marker screening, the sustainable development analysis is fully integrated to the project cycle from the project’s identification phase to the final financing decision, and is validated by the sustainable development opinion, issued by a structure independent from AFD’s Operations Department.

In order to ensure the proper implementation of gender analysis and integration of gender equality objectives to AFD-funded operations, quantitative and qualitative gender analyses are thus defined during the whole project appraisal, including:

- 10) Pre-identification stage - understanding the roles and responsibilities of men and women and different social groups in the project by making an inventory of gender relations, and developing and maintaining a regular dialogue with partners in the countries;
- 11) Identification stage – conducting initial gender analysis and assessment, in order to identify project risks and opportunities in terms of gender issues;
- 12) Feasibility studies/ex-ante evaluation stage - improving the analysis to ensure the communities’ motivations are well understood (this analysis articulates with the overall feasibility studies of the project), identifying relevant indicators and precisely defining costs related to the implementation of a gender strategy for the Project;
- 13) Granting stage - confirming that the studies conducted have addressed all gender issues;

- 14) Execution stage - integrating gender issues into the contract documents and developing indicators to perform on-going monitoring and evaluation of these actions and their effectiveness.

The gender analysis is conducted by AFD E&S and Gender team of experts, and, as such, is linked to E&S due diligence².

1.2. Tools and Supporting Mechanisms

As stated above, the support to gender analysis and assessment, and integration of gender equality objectives to Projects is carried out by AFD's Environmental and Social Experts, who are fully part of the Project team and participate as much as needed to Project appraisal, being part of evaluation missions if necessary, in order to ensure not only appropriate E&S risk management, but also proper gender analysis to promote the definition of gender equality objectives. This team is also in charge of organizing and/or supporting internal training sessions on gender, both at headquarters and local offices level, and continuous capacity-building of AFD teams.

In addition to that, AFD has developed a series of tools to help the conduction of gender analysis on projects, such as gender country profiles, sectoral gender toolkits, etc. Such tools are available for AFD teams and partners, being published on AFD's website³.

II. Gender Strategy for the Program

2.1. Main Stakes and Challenges

Considering the objectives and sectors targeted by the Program, gender-related activities can be addressed through:

- (i) **Cross-cutting approaches to gender equality:** whatever the sector of intervention and eligibility criteria, Projects can be analyzed and include cross-cutting approaches to gender equality, through:
 - i. **Gender-based analysis of climate change exposure:** since all Projects to be part of this Program intend to fight against climate change, the possible differentiated impacts of climate change on men and women can be analyzed on all projects. Particular attention must be put on the possible increased vulnerability of women to climate change, but also on the role women can play in fighting against climate change and developing adaptation strategies and activities. Whenever possible, specific activities will be integrated to Projects in order to reduce vulnerability of women and increase women's role in climate change adaptation and mitigation.
 - ii. **Capacity-building of project partners (LFPs and end beneficiaries) on gender-related topics:** thanks to technical assistance programs, the organization of

² As described in the E&S Framework.

³ <https://www.afd.fr/fr/page-thematique-axe/egalite-des-sexes>

awareness and training sessions for LFPs and/or their clients can be easily integrated to the Projects. Particular attention will be put on gender and climate topics, and, according to each Project, to the sector(s) targeted.

(ii) **Specific thematic approaches:** in line with the objectives of the Program, gender equality objectives will be also considered looking at the following specific issues:

- **Women economic participation:** promotion of gender equality at work within LFPs and their clients, women empowerment and economic participation on subprojects, support to women entrepreneurship, financial inclusion of women, etc.
- **Equal access to services:** access to energy and water, access to housing, etc., with specific attention granted to female-headed households.

Table 2 introduces example of gender components and activities according to the sectors targeted by the Program.

Sectors	Mitigation	Adaptation
Industries / Services	Energy efficiency of industrial processes and in buildings Renewable energy development (incl. IPP, auto consumption, etc.)	Reduction of water leakages Water re-use systems Construction of infrastructures resilient to climate change
<i>Examples of gender-related activities</i>	Gender equality at work and gender action plans for beneficiary companies	Gender equality at work and gender action plans for beneficiary companies Analysis of gender issues and stakes in Subprojects including access to water
Agriculture / Forestry	Methanization of agriculture waste PV solar systems for irrigation /Sustainable forestry exploitation	Irrigation monitoring and control system Rainwater harvesting system Adaptation of cultivated species
<i>Examples of gender-related activities</i>	Analysis of the roles of men and women in agriculture and forestry Training sessions to new technologies adapted to the roles of men and women	Analysis of the roles of men and women in agriculture and forestry Training sessions to new technologies, techniques and/or species adapted to the roles of men and women in agricultural production
Individuals / Professionals	Solar water heaters, bio digesters, PV solar power/High energy performance / quality housing	Installation of water flow limiting devices
<i>Examples of gender-related activities</i>	Specific support (e.g. investment grants) to female-headed households in access to energy efficient or renewable energy devices	Engagement of both men and women in devices management (training and management committees)

Table 2 - Examples of gender-related activities per sector

The Gender Approach for the Program is Project-specific. Specific indicators and activities are therefore defined on a case-by-case basis according to the framework established in Annex 1 – Indicative Gender Action Plan for the Program.

2.2. Methodology

The approach to gender analysis and assessment for the Program is based on and will refer to AFD's approach to gender and equality between men and women, and GCF's guidelines to gender analysis/assessment and Gender and Social Inclusion Action Plan Templates.

Minimal Requirements

In line with AFD and GCF's gender approaches, each Project is assessed to comply at least with the following requirements:

- Basic gender analysis: the roles of men and women in the sectors targeted by the Project are assessed (e.g. through the feasibility study) and the findings of gender analysis clearly appear in Project appraisal documentation. Project appraisal documentation details why (or why not) gender is an objective of the Project.
- Sex-disaggregated data: quantitative indicators for the Project are sex-disaggregated where relevant.
- Integration of gender into ESDD for Subprojects: ESDD include risk analysis in terms of gender inequalities, and defines measures to avoid, minimize or offset such risk.

Such basic assessment is conducted by AFD Gender Expert during Project Appraisal, with the support of AFD Project Managers and local offices.

Definition of gender objectives

On the basis of the initial gender analysis and in line with AFD methodology as described above, specific or general objectives are designed to promote gender equality through the project. Such objectives can be formulated at the level of the LFP (e.g. gender action plans to strengthen gender equality at work, to train personnel on gender-related issues), at the level of Subprojects, in line with the targeted sector, or both. These objectives are based on the initial assessment and are discussed and agreed with LFPs, with AFD overall coordination. Whenever necessary, specific baseline studies are conducted in order to identify gender equality stakes in the country, sector, and possibly within the LFP, and to define gender-specific indicators for the Project.

- **Examples of Projects with gender general objectives:**
 - A project that supports gender equality at work within the LFP and its clients as an eligibility criteria to a credit facility
 - A project aiming at supporting women entrepreneurs through training, and target beneficiaries
 - A project supporting energy efficiency in social housing with focus on single-headed families
- **Examples of Projects with gender specific objectives:**
 - A project in which the LFP conducts a gender assessment and designs and implements a gender action plan to enhance gender equality within its internal organization
 - A project that includes a specific study on the role of women in designing and participating to climate change adaptation activities in agriculture
 - A project that includes specific awareness and training sessions to promote gender equality in the management of community water management infrastructures

Implementation of gender activities

Technical Assistance Programs are crucial in implementing activities that promote gender equality within the Program. Since awareness and training are key to the development of gender equality, specific expertise in that field is to be considered in the TA recruitment. Thanks to the support of gender experts in a punctual or continuous basis – depending on a Project’s gender objective – TA activities are designed and implemented, as for instance:

- Support to the design and implementation of gender action plans for LFPs and end beneficiaries
- Support to gender analysis within E&S due diligence
- Design and conduction of awareness campaigns for end beneficiaries
- Design and conduction of a capacity-building program including tools and training sessions for LFP staff
- Conduction of gender specific studies, e.g. on the roles of men and women in the sector targeted by the Project
- Organization of knowledge-sharing events between stakeholders involved in gender-related topics
- Design of awareness and communication tools to support the promotion of gender equality
- Knowledge management activities with gender focus
- Support to the inclusion of gender data in monitoring and evaluation systems

Synergies have to be looked at between Projects, not only to ensure consistency within the Program, but also to encourage learning between peers. Activities such as seminars or workshops between LFPs with specific focus on gender are encouraged.

Gender Action Plans

Based on the objectives adopted for each Project, a Gender Action Plan must be defined with the LFP and other relevant Project stakeholders during Project appraisal. This Gender Action Plan will follow the GCF template as per Annex 2 – Gender Action Plan template for Projects and its definition will fully involve AFD’s Gender experts.

Annex 1 – Indicative Gender Action Plan for the Program

Activities	Indicators and Targets	Timeline	Responsibilities	Costs
<p>Impact Statement: Increased resilience of vulnerable communities, including women and girls, to the negative impacts of climate change, and increased involvement of women in private sector activities targeting climate change adaptation and mitigation.</p> <p>Outcome Statement: 100% of the LFPs involved in the Program have built capacity on gender. At least 50% of the Projects developed through the Program include a gender equality objective.</p> <p>Output(s) Statement: Write the output statement here. In many cases, there will be more than one output for a project or program; therefore, for each output statement a separate row should be created followed by associated activities, gender – performance indicators, sex – disaggregated targets, timeline and responsibilities. (<i>Note: an output statement highlights what the project/program intends to achieve in the short term due to project/program activities. Example of an output statement in, say, an energy efficiency project/program is: installed meters, new and subsidized service connections and improved supply quality</i>).</p>				
<p>1. Cross-cutting approaches to gender equality:</p> <p><i>Gender-based analysis of climate change exposure</i></p> <p><i>Capacity-building of project partners (LFPs and end beneficiaries) on gender-related topics: training sessions, awareness campaigns, continuous capacity-building, etc.</i></p>	<p>100% of Projects appraisal processes integrating gender</p> <p>Nb. of gender-specific studies conducted</p> <p>Nb. of training sessions on gender and climate conducted</p> <p>Nb. of LFP staff members trained on gender-related topics (sex-disaggregated)</p> <p>Nb. of awareness sessions conducted</p>	All along Program implementation	AFD LFPs Technical Assistance	To be determined according to each Project
<p>2. Sector-specific approaches</p> <p><i>Women economic participation: promotion of gender equality at work within LFPs and their clients, women empowerment and economic participation on subprojects, support to women entrepreneurship, financial inclusion of women, etc.</i></p> <p><i>Equal access to services: access to energy and water, access to housing, etc., with specific attention granted to female-headed households.</i></p>	<p>Nb. of gender equality in the workplace assessments conducted</p> <p>Nb. of LFPs having adopted a gender action plan</p> <p>Nb. of LFPs clients having adopted a gender action plan</p> <p>Nb. of gender-specific investments</p> <p>Nb. of women-owned businesses supported</p> <p>Nb. of men and women final beneficiaries</p> <p>Nb. of female-headed households beneficiary</p> <p>Nb. of training sessions adapted to gender-specific issues conducted</p>			

Annex 2 – Gender Action Plan template for Projects

Activities	Indicators and Targets	Timeline	Responsibilities	Costs
<p>Impact Statement: Write the project/program impact statement here (<i>Note: an impact statement briefly summarizes, in lay terms, the difference the project/program will make over time. It also states the long – term gender, social, economic, environmental impacts to which the project/program will contribute.</i> <i>Examples of impact statements in, say, a climate change/energy efficiency project/program: increased resilience of vulnerable communities, including women and girls, to the negative impacts of climate change; improved access to affordable, year – round clean energy services for all households, including poor and female – headed households.</i></p> <p>Outcome Statement: Write the project/program outcome statement here (<i>Note: the outcome statement should be specific, measurable and let project managers know when project goals are achieved. An outcome statement describes specific changes in knowledge, attitude, skills, and behaviours that will occur due to actions undertaken by the project/program.</i> <i>Example of an outcome statement in, say, a gender – responsive energy efficiency MSME project/program: improved business opportunities for an estimated X no./percentage of women – led/owned energy efficiency enterprises.</i></p>				
<p>Output(s) Statement: Write the output statement here. In many cases, there will be more than one output for a project or program; therefore, for each output statement a separate row should be created followed by associated activities, gender – performance indicators, sex – disaggregated targets, timeline and responsibilities. (<i>Note: an output statement highlights what the project/program intends to achieve in the short term due to project/program activities.</i> <i>Example of an output statement in, say, an energy efficiency project/program is: installed meters, new and subsidized service connections and improved supply quality.</i></p>				
<p>(<i>This is the place where the project/program team inserts a brief list of activities. Activities are those that tell us what the project/program will do; sometimes referred to as interventions. Examples of activities associated with the above output are:</i>)</p> <p>(i) Poor and socially excluded female headed households (FHH) provided new meters</p> <p>(ii) Poor and vulnerable FHHs provided with new service connections</p> <p>(iii) Increase in female-headed, start-up, energy-based microenterprises</p> <p>(iv) Women self – help groups (SHGs) trained as trainers for the implementation of gender-sensitive energy user awareness programs</p> <p>(v) Public awareness program implemented, targeting women’s spaces and men, to include information on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provision of concessionary/subsidized rates for households below the poverty line • support for metering and easy payment systems 	<p>Outline the indicators and targets here (<i>Note: A good indicator should be able to measure the quantity, quality and timeliness of products (goods or services) that are the result of an activity, project or program. On the other hand, a target should – in the case of the GAP – be disaggregated by sex. Targets, disaggregated by sex, is an effective way to measure quantifiable [and differential] results for women, men, girls and boys. Examples of gender – performance indicators and sex – disaggregated targets are:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • X% FHHs and X% of other vulnerable HHs (e.g. widowed, minorities, differently – abled, the elderly) in project areas • X% of poor and vulnerable FHHs in 	<p>(<i>This is the place where the project/program team inserts the timeline for each of the indicators/targets. Examples are shown below:</i>)</p> <p>By X year</p> <p>By X year</p>	<p>(<i>Highlight here which party/organization /entity/partner will be responsible for ensuring the achievement of targets, as outlined in the indicator and targets column. Examples are provided below:</i>)</p> <p>Accredited Entity/Executing Agency</p>	<p>(<i>This is the column to insert the approximate budgetary allocation for undertaking each activity. Examples are provided below:</i>)</p> <p>US\$ X</p> <p>US\$ X</p>



Gender documents for FP096

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO GREEN MINI-GRID PROGRAM

GENDER ASSESSMENT AND ACTION PLAN



1. Introduction

This gender assessment provides a summary of the Democratic Republic of Congo's (DRC) gender equality situation with a specific focus on addressing the intersectional nature of energy poverty in the target areas. The assessment identifies entry points to increase understanding of the intersectional nature of energy poverty, and support the participation of women and youth in the renewable energy sector of the DRC.

2. Background

The Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) is the biggest and fourth most populated African country, with a population of around 80 million people – 52% of which are women - with 33% of total population under the age of 15. The DRC has one of the lowest electrification rates in the world at 9% - 27% in urban areas, and less than 1% in rural areas. The DRC has a population growth rate of 3.2%; an HDI ranking of 188/176 /1 (in 2014); and a Gender Inequality Index valued at 0.7. A SIGI Value of 0.4276 highlights high gender inequality reflecting a discriminatory family code, inequality in physical integrity, limited access to resources and assets, and lack of freedom as a citizen. The Gender Development Index for the DRC is 0.833, placing women's human development at about 83% that of men. The country has an adult illiteracy rate of 34.1% female, and 11.2% male.

Political participation of women is limited - following Ordinance No. 17/025 establishing the powers of ministries, there have been 5 women, or 10.8% of the 46 members of the Government; in the National Assembly, there are only 49 women out of 500 elected deputies; and the Senate has six women out of 108 senators. The 2015 revision of the electoral law dropped the 30% quota for women, which could be viewed as a challenge to increasing women's political participation. The provincial and local level has even lower representation of women in political, economic and administrative affairs. In 2017, there was only one woman among 26 heads of the provincial executive; in 2015, 43 of 684 Provincial representatives (6.2%) were women.

The fragile political situation in the DRC as a result of longstanding conflict has contributed to the majority of the population being faced with limited access to education, health and employment opportunities. Economic and social inequality among the population continues to widen with 63% living under the poverty line. Strong male-dominant gender norms determine gender relations in the country, and discriminatory legislation persists, especially in the Family Code – which stipulates that men are the head of the household and women must obey them. Traditional harmful practices such as early and forced marriage still exist – 37% of girls in the country are married before their 18th birthday.

3. Gender Policy Framework in the Democratic Republic of Congo

The country ratified several regional, sub-regional and international legal instruments on gender and human rights including: the SADC Memorandum of Understanding on Gender and Development; Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women; Maputo Protocol (The Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa); UN Convention on the Rights of the Child; the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; and the UN Security Council Resolution on Women, Peace and Security (UNSCR1325). Implementation of policies remains a challenge due to difficulty in awareness raising as a result of the size of the country, insufficient budget allocation by government, limited capacity of public implementation agencies, and continuing conflicts in certain areas.

The Ministry of Gender, Family and Children is in charge of gender mainstreaming, with a gender focal point assigned to each line ministry. A gender mainstreaming mechanism was established but poor technical and coordination capacity of the Gender Ministry and gender



focal points has meant sufficient progress is yet to be made. A minister in charge of gender is allocated to each provincial government, with a Gender Division in its administration. The Thematic Group on Gender can be found at national level to coordinate stakeholders, but it is poorly managed.

The DRC developed a National Gender Policy (2017-2021), which aims to achieve gender equality and social empowerment. Five strategic axes were selected for its implementation: (i) the consolidation of gender equality and the empowerment of women; (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.

4. Participation in the Economy

Women's labour force participation stands at 50%, however women face more challenges than men. Women have less access to skilled jobs compared to men (8% in paid employment against 12% of men), and they tend to be marginalized in the labor market outside the agricultural sector. In 2014, women's unemployment rate was 6.7% compared to 9.4% for men, and only 45.3% of the population aged between 15 and 24 years is economically active. Among 15-24 year olds, the female-male ratio of unemployment is 104.8% - young women are more affected by unemployment than young men. Women's labour is mostly concentrated in subsistence agriculture (70%) and small business in the informal sector (60%), and they participate in economic activities as much as men. Only 2.8% of salaried workers are women.

The rural population accounts for 70% of the country's total population, 60% of whom work in the agriculture sector – the majority at subsistence level (70%) practiced on small individual or family farms.

5. Education and Health

Articles 43 and 44 of the Constitution stipulate free obligatory education and the eradication of illiteracy. However, girls often drop out of school due to early marriage and pregnancy, which leads to a gender gap in education. 44% of school age children start primary education later than the official age of six. The gender gap in education is especially pronounced in secondary education. The reasons for girls not going to school include early marriage, forced marriage, and adolescent pregnancy. The double shift faced by many girls in rural areas whereby they have to perform household tasks such as searching for water and firewood further adds an increased burden. Especially since such household tasks are sometimes performed in the dark due to limited lighting at home and in public spaces – putting girls at risk of harassment and attack. Sexual harassment from teachers and early marriage are further burdens because schools bar pregnant students from attending classes, and most girls in such situations end up dropping out of school.

The government has been trying to address the high youth unemployment rate by establishing policies, plans and councils where youth can express their opinions. Vocational training is one such attempt, with several ministries involved but there lacks a unified vocational training system. Women's participation in technical training is low, and there are few options for women's business start-ups to access skills development, finance, and comprehensive support.

In 2015, the maternal mortality rate was 693 per 100 000 live births – well above the Sub-Saharan Africa average of 546.234. Around 20% of women die for reasons related to childbirth, this can be attributed to: lack of access to medical treatment; poor health facilities; lack of lighting in existing health facilities; early marriage; and high birth rates. On average,



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women give birth to their first child at the age of 19.9 years; of women aged 20-24 years, 25% were younger than 18 years old when they had their first child. Abortion is only legal in cases where the mother's mental or physical health is in danger. The contraceptive prevalence rate is 23.1%, and the total fertility rate per woman is 5.8 children.

Five main causes contribute to 55% of deaths in the DRC – fever/malaria, diarrhea, respiratory infections, tuberculosis and neonatal conditions. Increasing access to electricity and clean cooking solutions would have a positive effect on the country's mortality rate by eliminating toxic fumes and black carbon caused by kerosene and carbon, and also reduce incidences of burns due to improved lighting.

6. Access to Resources and Assets

Gender norms restrict women's access to resources and assets – for example, assets obtained within marriage are registered under the husband's name, and regarded as assets of the husband, his parents and brothers. Legally, marital property is administered by the husband, and women and men do not have equal ownership rights to immovable property. Women can inherit according to the law but they cannot own a house due to prevailing social norms. Women are not legally recognized to be heads of households, and there is no prohibition on discrimination based on marital status in access to credit.

Legally, there shouldn't be any discrimination based on gender for right to land concessions, but attitudes and customs tend to discriminate against women. Despite the nationalization of all land and introduction of formal legislation governing land use rights, a significant percentage of land remains under customary law. Women, especially those who are married thus have very limited access to land, and even though women make up the majority of the agriculture labour force – the best land is still in the hands of men.

Women also lack access to new technology – thereby segregating them to subsistence agriculture. Due to gender norms, women hand over their incomes from agriculture to their husbands and are not able to make productive investments for productive assets, such as improved inputs, technologies, seeds and fertilizers, which keeps their productivity low.

Limited access to resources and assets increases women's energy poverty – and women as both consumers and suppliers of energy remain invisible in the sector. Energy access rates of women tend to be lower than that of men due to disproportionate access and consumption levels.

7. Access to Finance

More than 95% of the DRC population is unbanked – compared to the continental average of 76%. Such an underdeveloped banking sector makes domestic credit scarce and expensive - particularly for micro, small, and medium enterprises – in 2013, only 7% of Congolese firms used banks to finance investment.

Article 448 of the 1981 Family Code 1981 stipulated that married women cannot sign contracts, be employed, open bank accounts, obtain loans, start businesses, or travel

Gender-specific problems in relation to roles in energy production and use

- Women and men have different energy needs linked to their gender roles.
- Women and girls bear the main burden of biomass collection.
- Women are poorer than men (both in resources and time).
- Women are generally disadvantaged in terms of ownership and access to land, natural resources, credit, information and decision-making, at all levels.

Global Gender and Climate Alliance (2011)



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without their husband's permission. This limited their access to credit and other banking services. The Family Code was revised in 2017, and women can now open a bank account without their husband's permission – it is too early to quantify any positive impact on gender relations.

8. Challenges and Entry Points for Mainstreaming Gender in the Energy Sector

The participation of women and youth across the energy value chain is very limited – sector policies do not address the challenges they face, and barriers such as lack of access to credit and training limit the possibilities for women and youth to develop and use energy-based technologies and clean cooking solutions.

The proposed Green Mini-Grid (GMG) Program aims to improve the DRC's social and economic development by reducing energy poverty in rural areas. Energy encompasses all productive, subsistence and leisure activities - but women and men don't have equal access to energy due to gender-defined roles in energy production, distribution and use in households, communities and the market.

Women and youth can play a crucial role in energy production, distribution and use if they are given the requisite technical assistance, and an enabling environment to participate in the sector. Rural electrification can have a positive impact on home businesses by extending working hours, and introducing new business opportunities. Promoting the use of clean cooking solutions would decrease the time burden faced by women and girls; and positively impact public health, income generating opportunities, education, environmental management, and gender equality. The DRC Green Mini-Grid Program offers an opportunity to address the gendered nature of energy poverty in the target areas through a series of integrated actions to increase the participation of women and youth in the renewable energy sector, and promote the use of clean cooking solutions. Three entry points have been identified below.

I. Policy dialogue and Capacity Building – Create an Enabling Environment within the Ministry of Energy and the Société Nationale d'Electricité (SNEL)

The public sector in the DRC is faced with poor human and financial resources and there is little understanding of the intersectional nature of energy poverty. Therefore policies and programs of the Ministry of Energy and SNEL do not address the challenges faced by women and youth as a result of energy poverty. In order to create an enabling environment, a 'Gender Mainstreaming Policy and Action Plan in the Energy Sector' will be prepared modeled on the ECOWAS

(https://www.afdb.org/fileadmin/uploads/afdb/Documents/Generic-Documents/ECOWAS_Policy_for_Gender_Mainstreaming_in_Energy_Access.pdf) and Botswana best case examples (http://www.energia.org/cm2/wp-content/uploads/2015/02/06.-Case_Study_Botswana.pdf).

CASE STUDY: Solar-Powered Robotic Traffic Officers Direct Cars in Kinshasa

Women's Technologies (Wotech), a Congolese cooperative employing female and male engineers - led by engineer and entrepreneur Thérèse Izay Kirongozi - was hired by Congolese authorities to develop humanoid robots to regulate traffic in the DRC's capital. The robots work by video recording traffic behavior and transmitting footage to the police to deter drivers from breaking road regulations. The robots, powered by solar panels stand at 2.5m high and are made of aluminum. Residents reported that they mistrust human traffic officers due to high levels of corruption. Officials reported fewer road incidents since deployment of the robotic models, and Kinshasans reported that traffic surrounding robotic officers has eased.



The DRC is faced with high youth unemployment rates - particularly in the rural areas -and women are relegated to subsistence farming and unskilled work. The DRC can harness the untapped talent of women and youth in the target areas by:

- providing training to women and youth to improve their professional skills and employability by the tendered GMGs in the target areas;
- strongly encourage women-led GMGs or GMGs with a high number of women/youth employees to be involved in the tendering process;
- place targets for successful GMGs to allocate a 40% minimum of out of their total employees to be women and youth in the target areas.

II. Knowledge Building on the Intersectional Nature of Energy Poverty

Lack of energy sources for lighting, cooking, heating, transport and economic production inhibits the productivity of women, men and society at large. Yet women and youth – as both consumers and suppliers – remain invisible in the energy sector. In order to design sustainable projects that take into account the realities of the differences in needs, constraints and opportunities between women and men in relation to energy infrastructure and the development of services. Renewable energy solutions such as solar, clean cooking solutions, and biogas have the great potential to aid in the development of small-scale enterprises. The following activities have been proposed to build evidence and unpack the age-gender-energy nexus in target areas:

- preparation of site specific gender analyses and action plans to guide implementation of the program. The site specific gender analyses will look at the unequal position of women; their access to equal decision-making and control over resources and assets. Site specific gender-disaggregated data will be collected to establish baselines and support monitoring and evaluation of the program. The site specific gender action plans will identify feasible interventions to address some of the underlying causes of gender inequality, and ensure that the project attains sustainable impacts.
- market scoping study on business opportunities for women and youth in the clean cooking sector of target areas. It will identify investment operations and technical assistance opportunities to be implemented in the later phase of the program with additional fund-raising.

III. Stakeholder Consultations

The AfDB Environmental and Social Impact Assessment Procedures require extensive stakeholder consultations in all projects, where target groups include women and youth. The tender process for mini-grids will include a requirement for complying with AfDB ESIA standards with stakeholder consultations including women and youth to inform planning and implementation. This will ensure that decision making includes women, men and youth - information such as the process of tariff setting and use of mobiles for bill payments will be collected.

9. Conclusion

Building evidence and increasing the participation of women and youth in the renewable energy sector will lead to: implementation of more effective renewable energy initiatives, greater return on investments, and the achievement of more equitable and sustainable climate change results.



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<p>Under Output 2.2</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Documentation of a market scoping study on business opportunities for women and youth in the clean cooking sector - Documentation of site-specific gender analyses to support technical and feasibility studies 	<p>Preparation of market scoping study Target: 1</p> <p>Site-specific gender analyses included in Annexes of project technical and feasibility studies Target:3</p>	<p>By 2020</p> <p>By 2019</p>	<p>Consultants recruited for site-specific gender analyses and market scoping study (monitored by the AfDB task manager and gender department to ensure activities are in line with AfDB and GCF guidelines)</p>	<p>US\$50,000</p>
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Central American Bank for Economic Integration

Productive Investment Initiative for Adaptation to Climate Change Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama and Dominican Republic

Gender Assessment

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1. Introduction

1.1 Purpose

The purpose of this document is to provide general information on the main socio-economic aspects of Central America, Panama and the Dominican Republic in terms of gender. It also identifies some central issues for rural women in the region, such as land tenure, access to water, and their relationship to climate change. Finally, the financial system is characterized in a conceptual and general way, from a gender perspective, to have a framework in accordance with the objectives of the programme Productive Investment Initiatives for Adaptation to Climate Change.

All the quantitative information corresponds to the latest available figures and not all information presented is availed in the same way, it varies by country.

1.2 Summary of the proposed Programme

This Programme's primary objective is to increase resilience to climate change of Micro, Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (MSMEs) in Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama and the Dominican Republic by removing barriers to access financial and non-financial services for adopting and implementing climate change best adaptation measures.

The initiative will promote innovation and provide solutions of adaptation to climate change through the following specific objectives:

1. To reduce the obstacles to credit access for MSMEs. Access to lending will be promoted through financial and non-financial mechanisms that will help reduce the risk inherent to all production activities. These systems will be supported through the network of Intermediary Financial Institutions (IFIs) accredited by CABI across the region. Through this financing, the implementation of best adaptation measures with a natural resource conservation approach, as well as the consolidation of production systems adapted to climate change, will be promoted (Component 1).
2. To strengthen the beneficiaries' capacities through training and technical assistance services to develop best adaptation measures for production models, improving their organizational capabilities and introduction of new technologies for adaptation to climate change (Component 2).
3. To promote adaptation measures through an incentive scheme that increases MSMEs resilience. This incentive will award MSMEs willing to

prepare themselves to face climate variability adequately, while preserving natural resources and assets, and CMNFIs (Cooperative, Micro-Finance and Non-Bank institutions) promoting the access to financing for adaptation measures, as well as their successful implementation (Component 3).

Beneficiaries of the Programme:

- Rural Micro, Small and Medium-sized Enterprises (MSMEs): most of the sectors that are linked to small-scale farmers have a significant level of vulnerability. These sectors are related to coffee and cocoa agroforestry, agro-ecologic production, silvopastoral systems, eco-tourism, productive activities related to forests, artisan fisheries and small-scale aquaculture systems, among others.
- Intermediary Financial Institutions (IFIs): All types of IFIs will be eligible for accessing the GCL and for receiving Technical Assistance, provided that technical and financial standards and requirements are met in each case. Only Cooperatives, Microfinance institutions and Non-bank financial institutions (CMNFIs) will be eligible for receiving Adapt-award under this initiative. Please refer to the Feasibility Study for understanding the reasons to involve all types of IFIs, the expected reach of the different types of IFIs, and statistics of proportion of credits granted by CABEL's programmes per type of IFI and per type of MSME. Please also refer to Section 5.5 of this Assessment for further details on the reach to women by the intermediation programmes within CABEL.

Since the main tool of the Programme is the provision of credit to rural vulnerable MSMEs for the adoption of adaptation to climate change practices, a series of activities have been dedicated to bridge the gender gap. Not only they will receive credits (Component 1) but specific capacity building in gender issues will be provided to IFIs and MSMEs, specific resources for women will be allocated for making possible that women can assist to the Technical Assistance activities - that include as well training in access to finance for adaptation to climate change -, specific resources for training women leaders will be allocated, and a systematization of gender inclusion in the project - including access to finance for adaptation to climate change - will be performed, among others (Component 2). Finally, a differential has been introduced for Adapt-awards for women-led MSMEs. The higher percentage of Award is expected to motivate the will of having women in the leadership of the MSMEs; conversely, the benefit of the Award is translated in further opportunities for accessing to further training, further connection to experiences of ACC, and more. All these measures have been gathered in the Gender Action Plan accompanying this document.

1.3 Gender Equality Policy

Central American Bank of Economic Integration (CABEI) has its own Gender Equality Policy, to incentive gender and women's autonomy. It was adopted in 2010 and establishes the guidelines that have been considered in the design of CABEI's Institutional Strategy 2015-2019 to implement this approach across the different instances of the Bank. The Policy strengthens the work with member countries to promote equality and the empowerment of women through the implementation of a gender perspective in their operations.

Its guidelines are:

1. To promote the generation of employment and income, with gender equal conditions
2. To design and implement programs, products and projects with gender equality
3. To promote gender inequities analysis and the factors which produce them
4. To incorporate best practices to work with gender equality
5. To communicate and disseminate gender impacts and outcomes
6. To incorporate gender equality approach within CABEI

1.4 Gender and institutions in the region. National Gender Equality Mechanisms

The Mechanisms make up the public institutions that States and Governments have implemented in each country to ensure the advancement of women.

In Central America, the situation created by Beijing¹ has supposed advances in government between 1994 and 1999, which had not occurred in the previous twenty years. During these five years, it has not only completed the creation of national mechanisms across the region, but there has been a qualitative change in the institutional status of them².

Achievements at the institutional level in Central America have begun with both the commitments made in Beijing and the agreements established in various presidential summits, which require different governments to strengthen their

¹ The Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995, marked a major turning point for the global agenda of gender equality. The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, adopted unanimously by 189 countries, constitutes a program for the empowerment of women, and the development of the Declaration and Platform for Action took into account the key global policy document on gender equality.

² In Guatemala, for example, exists the Institute for Women; in Nicaragua, the Nicaraguan Institute for Women (INIM) created in December 1987; in El Salvador, the Salvadoran Institute for the Development of Women (ISDEMU) exists from March 1996; in Costa Rica, the National Institute of Women (INAMU) was created May 1998; in Honduras, Women's Institute (February 1999); and in Panama, the National Directorate for Women in the Ministry of Youth, Women, Children and the Family, created in 1997.

national mechanisms and developing public policies for women. The particularity of these Presidential agreements is that, unlike the commitments made in Beijing, these are no longer indicative but strictly binding.

National Mechanisms of Gender Equality Mechanisms in the region are characterized by:

- Emphasizes the experience of some Mechanisms in the development of specific instruments to mainstream gender equity in national and municipal budgeting processes and in the development of gender indicators and statistics.
- Still in a process of institutional consolidation.
- Have a relative leadership in the design and implementation of public policy, particularly with regard to its guiding role towards the rest of the State and the inclusion of the Public Gender Agenda in its actions.
- Incipient interest in focusing gender mainstreaming in universal policies and programs and in intentionally implementing its Framework Policy (National Gender Equity Policies and Plans). Special difficulty is observed in the mainstreaming of gender equity in policies that touch upon structural processes of the State, such as budget, planning and investments, decentralization and modernization of public management.
- Emphasizes the experience of some Mechanisms in the development of specific instruments to mainstream gender equity in national and municipal budgeting processes and in the development of gender indicators and statistics.
- Mechanisms have fold out in the mainstreaming of gender equity in specific issues, such as the inclusion of gender equity in planning for the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.
- Areas covered mainly refer to violence against women and the participation and citizenship of women.
- General weakness in monitoring and evaluation of its actions and Framework Policy, as well as precarious information available for decision-making.

According to an analysis by AECID (for the elaboration of its Regional Cooperation Program with Central America), the National Mechanisms for Gender Equality³ can be classified as follows:

- with low institutional consolidation and a wide margin of action: Dominican Republic, Honduras, Guatemala and El Salvador. They are Mechanisms with better possibilities of being consolidated institutionally, since they register greater reflective capacity for analyzing, evaluating and proposing new courses of action,

³ Regional Cooperation Program with Central America. Plan of Action for Gender Equity. Diagnosis and Operative Plan 2007-2008. AECID.

- with low institutional consolidation and wide scope for action: Dominican Republic, Honduras, Guatemala and El Salvador have Mechanisms with better possibilities of being institutionally consolidated, because they register greater reflective capacity, when analyzing, evaluating and proposing new courses of action,
- with a significant degree of institutional consolidation (close to 50% of their conversations are "profile") and limited scope of action: Costa Rica,
- in a process of institutional consolidation: Nicaragua.

Regarding to the lines of action that Mechanisms carry out, Guatemala stands out as the only one that focuses its action on "gender mainstreaming" and "framework policies". It is the only case oriented to the design and coordination of public policy.

Gender mainstreaming modalities developed by the Mechanisms range from the consideration of specific issues, such as sectorial policies and basic services to the population (Panama, El Salvador, Honduras) to the incorporation of structural issues such as budget, planning instruments and decentralization process (Guatemala and Nicaragua). The Dominican Republic could be considered an intermediate case, since it considers specific topics such as structural issues.

1.5 Regional Policy on Gender Equality and Equity - Central American Integration System (PRIEG - SICA)

The incorporation of gender perspective and its institutionalization as a transversal axis in the process of Central American integration is relatively recent in SICA, and two main events can be identified along its route: creation of the Council of Ministers of Women of Central America (COMMCA) in 2005, and the issuance of the Declaration of Panama on Gender, Integration and Development, adopted at the XXXV Meeting of Heads of State and Government, in June 2010, which meant a renewal of commitments to gender equality, relevant to the integrationist agenda of the development of the countries that make up the SICA. In response to this resolution, the Heads of State and Government of the Central American Integration System (SICA), at its XLII Ordinary Meeting, held on December 14, 2013 in Buenaventura, Panama, approved the Regional Policy for Equality and Gender Equity (PRIEG-SICA), developed and promoted by COMMCA as of January 13, 2014, when it was launched in Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic.

PRIEG / SICA, in addition to representing the regional commitment to the gender issue, is a guiding policy that establishes a route and guidelines for gender mainstreaming in the institutional framework of SICA and its member

states. Its guidelines will be embodied in sectoral and institutional action plans as well as in national and regional development policies and plans. The policy, created with the accompaniment of international cooperation agencies, and particularly the Government of the Republic of China (Taiwan), establishes 7 strategic axes that respond to certain specific objectives: 1) economic autonomy; 2) equality education; 3) comprehensive management and prevention of disaster risk; 4) health in equality; 5) security and life free from violence; 6) political participation and decision making; 7) conditions for the implementation and sustainability of the policy.

1.6 Social and political women's participation

Compliance with government commitments and agreements⁴ with regard to promoting women's equitable participation in decision-making spaces in the public and political spheres has been slow in Central America (and Latin America), which reflects in its still smaller presence in the main positions of public and political responsibility.

As for the Judiciary, at the end of the 20th century, women had not managed to surpass 25% of the Supreme Court Justices (despite the feminization of the legal profession in all countries and even though they have in average the third part and half of the lowest hierarchical courts).

In the area of parliamentary representation, only Costa Rica increased significantly the proportion of women in the national parliament by more than 16%, as in Panama, which increased in 2005 by 7% over the year 2000. The rest of the countries increased only on the order of one percentage point with respect to the previous measurement.

In relation to the approval of laws or regulations based on gender equity in the country, the situation is as follows:

Table 1. Status of some types of laws in favor of gender equity

Country	Equality included in Constitution	Universal Education Law	Teenage pregnancy	Violence
Belize
Costa Rica	√	√	√	√

⁴ In order of importance: the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW, UN - 1979 and ratified by all Central American States), "Forward-looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women" (III World Conference on Women, Nairobi, 1985), the instruments agreed at the VI Regional Conference on the Integration of Women in the Economic and Social Development of Latin America and the Caribbean (Mar de Plata, 1994) and IV World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), as well as the Presidential agreements of the Second Summit of the Americas (Santiago, 1997)

El Salvador	√
Guatemala	√	√	No	√
Haiti	√	√	√	√
Honduras	√	No	...	√
Nicaragua	√	√	No	√
Panamá	√
Rep. Dominican	√	√	No	√

Source: Regional Cooperation Program with Central America. Plan of Action for Gender Equity. Diagnosis and Operative Plan 2007-2008. AECID

From the juridical and normative point of view, the great majority of the countries of the region show progress in these matters. However, there is a gap between these more qualitative advances in the development of societies and the more direct impacts of government policies and programs on the specific situation of gender equity, and particularly the advancement of women.

2. Socio-productive gender diagnosis in Central America

2.1 Population's general data

According to Pan-American Health Organization, the estimated population for Central America and the Dominican Republic in 2010 was about 54 million inhabitants; women were about 27 million. Among them, about 50% (range 48.1% - 55.1%) are women of childbearing age (MEF). The masculinity index for the region is 98.4 men per 100 women. Costa Rica and the Dominican Republic report a higher proportion of male population

Table 2. Central America, Panama and the Dominican Republic population by sex, masculinity index and MEF proportion by country (2010)

Country	Population	Men	Women	MEF proportion	Masculinity index
Costa Rica	4,694.62	2,385.75	2,308.87	55.1	103.3
El Salvador	7,453.30	3,669.75	3,784.24	53.1	97
Guatemala	14,453.30	7,000.21	7,361.46	48.1	95.1
Honduras	7,614.35	3,797.41	3,816.93	51.6	99.5
Nicaragua	5,815.52	2,878.52	2,937.00	53.3	98
Panamá	3,496.80	1,761.81	1,734.99	52.7	101.5
Central America	43,742.26	21,656.77	22,095.49	---	98
Dominican Republic	10,168.85	5,094.53	5,074.32	51.8	100.4
Region SICA	53,911.11	26,751.303	27,169.807	---	98.4

Source: Health in America, 2007, Volume II- Countries

Data about male and female labor participation in the region reveal an important gender gap in favor of males, which is reflected through an average difference of 32 percentage points. The gap widens in rural areas, with a difference of almost 43 percentage points, being Honduras the country with the greatest gender gap.

Table 3. Labor participation by sex, in Central America and Dominican Republic, by area of residence (2006).

	Costa Rica	El Salvador	Guatemala	Honduras	Nicaragua	Panamá	Dominican Rep.	Total
Men	73.5	71.6	80.3	74.9	71.6	74.6	72.3	74.1
Urban	75.5	67.6	76.1	68.9	66.4	71.7	71.6	70.7
Rural	74.9	77.7	84.1	80	78.4	79.8	74.1	78.4
Women	40.7	42.7	40.1	36.1	39.8	42.8	46.1	41.2
Urban	45.3	48.5	48.7	44.4	45.7	46.8	49.4	47.0
Rural	33.3	32.9	31.9	27.7	30.7	34.4	36.7	32.5

Source: Labor market in Central America and the Dominican Republic. II Regional Report. Labor Observatory of Central America and the Dominican Republic (2006)

2.2 Education

Although gender inequality in education has declined, especially since the 1970s, the Region keep having discriminatory characteristics. Inequalities in the average study rate among the population aged 25-59 remained stable in El Salvador: between 1994 and 2007 a gender gap of about 0.7 years of schooling persisted. In Guatemala, the gap increased from 1.0 in 2002 to 1.2 in 2007. It is worth mentioning that during this period the average rate of study in Costa Rica, Honduras and Nicaragua shows no inequality.

Table 4. Average years of study of population aged 25-59 years in rural areas, 1994-2007.

Year	Costa Rica		El Salvador		Guatemala		Honduras		Nicaragua	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
1994	6,0	6,0	3,0	2,3	3,4	3,4	2,4	2,3
1999	6,5	6,5	3,3	2,6	3,5	3,6	3,2	3,2
2002	6,5	6,4	3,9	3,2	3,0	2,0	3,3	3,3	3,2	2,9
2005	6,8	6,9	4,3	3,5	2,8	1,9	3,4	3,6	3,6	3,5
2007	6,9	7,0	4,6	3,9	3,2	2,0	3,8	3,9	3,3	3,2

Source: CEPAL. No homogeneous data available for Panama and the Dominican Rep.

Illiteracy rate also shows gender inequalities and it is higher among females than males. In Guatemala in 2002, illiteracy rate was 21.9% for men and 34.4% for women. This indicator also presents differences in relation to the urban and

rural geographical area; for El Salvador during the same year, the overall illiteracy rate was 11.1% in urban areas and 30.3% in rural areas.

Educational gap doesn't only arise from the point of view of illiteracy, but also from the prioritization of access to education for men, the discontinuity of studies for women by the assignment of other tasks or by early pregnancies, consequent delay in access to employment and the recognition of the qualification (same education as men does not generate equal income for women).

On the other hand, education is lower in rural areas and affects rural poor women even more. They have lower levels of education than poor urban women. For example, in El Salvador, the difference between "uneducated" rural poor women (33%) and "uneducated" urban poor (29%) is about 10 percentage points. The same occurs in Honduras (28% versus 18%), Panama (34% versus 25%) and Costa Rica, where the largest difference is 9 points among rural poor women (33%) and urban poor women (24%) with "incomplete primary"

The highest percentages of "uneducated" poor women are in El Salvador (39%) and in Panama (34%) rural areas. If it is added the percentages for "without education" and "incomplete primary", the result is a high percentage of poor women in rural areas with very low educational level: 78% in El Salvador, 68% in Honduras, 62% in Panama and 56% in Costa Rica. Less than 5% of rural poor women have complete secondary or some higher education. This situation shows the cycles of intergenerational reproduction of poverty but it is also a factor that limits the possibilities and opportunities of women to improve their job placement and opt for higher income.

2.3 Occupation, employment and labor force participation

FAO estimates that women's participation in economic activities has increased in recent decades (from 30.8% in Nicaragua in 1999 to 41.8% in El Salvador in 2002), but less in rural areas. Women's participation takes place in sectors of low productivity, especially in rural areas where they work part-time, are subcontracted or perform activities that require low training.

According to the UNDP's international indicators, Central America and the Dominican Republic have seen a growth in female participation in the Economically Active Population (EAP), which represented 50% in 2000 and reached 58% on average for the region in 2011. However, the average percentage of women without their own income is more than 35%, which is considerably higher than that of men in this situation.

Female participation rates in economic activity account for half of that of men in urban areas (40 and 80%, approximately), and this proportion remains in all age groups of 15 to 49 years. The highest rate of female participation (54%) occurs

in the age range of 25-34 years; this means that women remain in employment even though they are exercising their reproductive function, which obviously creates difficulties because of the lack of public services that support the care of children. Women with 13 and more years of education have participation rates that double those of women with limited or no education.

The economic participation rate for rural women is almost marginal as it accounts for about one-third or less of male participation rate. In fact, it is known that they have a greater presence in the peasant economy, but the characteristics of their work make invisible their contribution, which is not captured by current tools of statistical registration.

The particular forms adopted by the occupational insertion of rural women goes from the care of vegetable garden and domestic animals, the production of handicrafts and commercialization of these products, to their participation in the work of planting and harvesting of family plot. It is also common that their work is hidden in the forms of family subcontracting used by large estates.

In urban areas, the insertion of female economically active population (EAP) tends to focus on labor categories of very low productivity - and income - such as domestic service, self-employment and unpaid family tasks. In Guatemala and Honduras they absorb about half of the female EAP. In contrast, in Costa Rica salaried workers predominate, both in the public and private sectors, who, thanks to their higher levels of education, often have a better situation. The male EAP in the three countries considered is also mostly wage earners, and micro entrepreneurs and self-employed workers are better off than their female counterparts. Women professionals and technicians show a similar participation to the masculine one, which would be reflecting the increasing incorporation of women to higher education - often with more education than men -, as well as a greater opening to its contracting. At the same time, male labor with less education - not professionals or technicians - receives greater acceptance in both large and small companies.

Men are more employers than women, which is explained by the obstacles that women face in gaining access to higher income categories.

In rural areas, women mainly participate as unpaid family members, temporary wage earners and workers in large plantations of products for exportation, and as domestic and self-employed workers. The number of women who own land is very small, and even fewer are those who are employers.

Women participate actively in agricultural and livestock activities: production, collection and processing of food (basic grains, vegetables and fruits), care of livestock and poultry, in addition to other productive activities such as crafts, agro industry, marketing, sewing, etc.

The agricultural sector is an important source of employment. In Honduras, Nicaragua and Mexico, half male heads of household are employed in some agricultural activity. Female heads of households employed in the sector represent a significant percentage in Guatemala (17.5%), Mexico (15.1%), Honduras (14.2%) and Nicaragua (9.1%). In countries such as Costa Rica, El Salvador and the Dominican Republic, the participation of women is lower, between 2% and 4%.

The percentage of male heads of household employed in agricultural activities represents 49% in Honduras, 34.2% in Panama and 31.2% in Mexico. In contrast, in Costa Rica it reaches only 9%. For their part, female heads of household in Honduras and Panama represent 10% of the total employed in rural area. The Dominican Republic and Costa Rica are the countries in the region with the lowest percentage of female heads of households engaged in agriculture.

The participation of employed in livestock activities is smaller; the case of Honduras stands out, where employed women represent 4.2% of the total women employed. Farmers represent between 10% and 20% of male heads of household. They are characterized by being temporarily employed in intensive activities with low remuneration, long working days and without training; they have neither land nor productive assets. On the other hand, women employed as agricultural laborers represent between 0.6% and 4% of the total women employed.

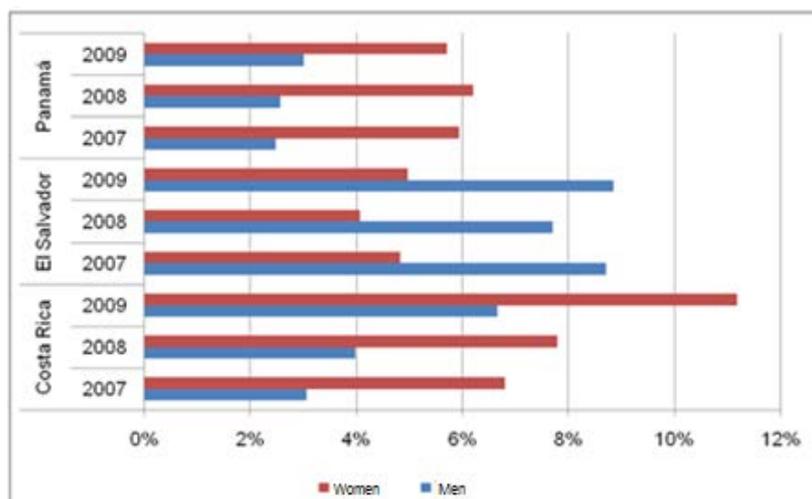
In Central America, although during the last decades there has been progressively a greater job placement of women, their participation rates are still 40% and 50% lower than those of men. In most countries of the region, female labor force participation rates are between 35% and 40%, according to the most recent measure available (2009). It should be noted that in Costa Rica, El Salvador and Panama, the incorporation of women into the job market was greater than that of men in 2009. In contrast, in Nicaragua, the absolute reduction experienced by the labor force in 2009 concentrated on women, who were discouraged to continue looking for employment.

Central American women have an unemployment rate of 4.8% while for men it is 4.1%. In some countries, such as Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Panama and Nicaragua, female unemployment tends to double in comparison with men in the 18-24 age group. For young women, gap widens significantly. In all countries, female youth unemployment doubles total female unemployment. The Dominican Republic, Panama and Nicaragua have figures above 20% of unemployment among young women, being the highest in the region. Costa Rica has figures close to 20%.

In rural areas of Costa Rica, the unemployment rate for rural women in 2009 was 11%, 5% higher than that of men (7%) and in Panama, although the gap is

lower (3%), the unemployment rate for women was double that of men. In contrast, in El Salvador unemployment rates for men are higher than for women.

**Figure 1. Unemployment rate in rural areas, by sex.
Panama, El Salvador and Costa Rica (2007-2009)**



Source: Project "Determinants of Rural Poverty in Central America: Challenges and Opportunities for Action". Final report: Poverty and job market in rural women in Central America. IFAD-FAO-RUTA, 2012.

The unemployment rate for poor women increased significantly, especially in Costa Rica; it reached 30% in 2009, which contrasts with the levels of El Salvador and Panama, below 10%.

2.4 Information about poverty and gender in rural areas

Poverty in Central America is widespread in rural areas: about 20 of 42 million people are in this condition, and 8 million of them are indigent (extreme poverty). According to the poverty estimation for 2009, the incidence of poverty in Central America at regional level was 47% in general poverty and 18.6% in extreme one.

Poverty affects men and women differently. The female population faces on the one hand the precariousness of family incomes and the lack of social services, and on the other, the conditions of subordination that restrict the exercise of their rights and decision-making. Its position in society puts women at a disadvantage in economic activity, where it has a lower rate of participation, more unfavorable forms of occupational insertion, and huge income disparities vis-à-vis the male population. These disadvantages, which interact with the unequal division of resources and responsibilities within the household, weigh more on poor women and especially on those who are heads of households.

Poverty conditions are even more dramatic for indigenous women. The Central American indigenous population amounts to more than seven million inhabitants, who traditionally have been marginalized from the most basic services. Their rates of fertility, illiteracy, malnutrition and infant mortality are higher than those of the rest of the population, plus the problem of communication, because they live in dispersed and hard-to-reach populations and because a significant proportion of indigenous women speak only the language of their ethnic group.

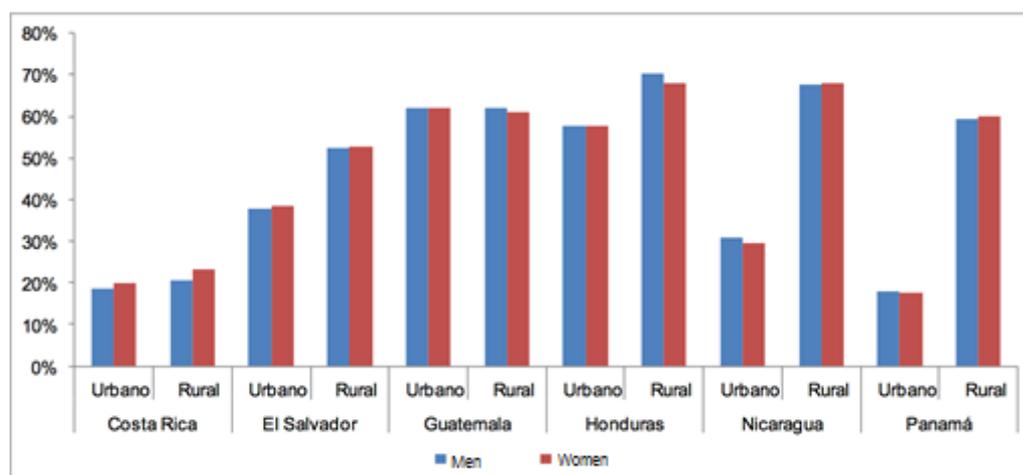
A distinctive characteristic of poverty evolution in the region is that during the first decade of the 21st century, the magnitude of the reduction was the largest at the regional level: in Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador and Nicaragua, extreme poverty decreased by 1.7 % and 11.1% more than total poverty. The reduction was even greater in rural areas of Nicaragua, Guatemala and El Salvador, where the drop in the incidence of extreme poverty was 39.3%, 16.5% and 9.8%, respectively.

Although poverty reaches very different magnitudes in the Central American countries, it affects a relatively similar percentage of the male and female population, except in Costa Rica and Panama. According to the Social Panorama of Latin America (CEPAL, 2009), the exposure to poverty of women is notoriously higher than of men in Panama (1.37 times) and Costa Rica (1.30 times), which contrasts with the other Central American countries where the incidence is relatively similar between men and women.

Even though in all countries there is a greater incidence of poverty in rural areas, except in Guatemala where it is similar to that of urban areas, it affects in a similar proportion to men and women. Only in Costa Rica and to a lesser extent in Panama, the incidence of rural women's poverty is greater than of rural men. In Costa Rica, the incidence of poverty among rural women was 3% higher than of men in 2009 (20% for men and 23% for women), while in Panama it was 1% higher (59% for Men and 60% for women).

It should be noted that in Honduras the gender gap is rather in favor of rural women, as the incidence of male poverty (70%) in 2009 was 2% higher than of women (68%).

**Figure 2. Incidence of poverty, by area and sex.
Central America (2009)**



Source: "Determinants of rural poverty in Central America: challenges and opportunities for action". FIDA, FAO, RUTA, Costa Rica, 2012. (Data from Guatemala correspond to 2011 and those from Panamá to 2008). No comparable data has been found for the Dominican Rep.

For the period 2007-2009, the incidence of women's poverty increased in Costa Rica (21% -23%), El Salvador (50% -53%) and Honduras (51% -68%), while declined in Panamá, Nicaragua and Guatemala. The reduction in the incidence of female poverty during the period 2007-2009 in Guatemala, Nicaragua and Panamá coincides in 2009 with a greater incorporation of women into the job market compared to men, which could be an indication of the phenomenon of "Added "in times of crisis.

In Costa Rica, the gender gap during the period 2007-2009 was increased from 2% to 3%, which indicates that as a result of the economic contraction the phenomenon of poverty feminization get worse. The incidence of women's poverty in this country rose from 21% to 23% in 2009, while in the case of men the variation was lower (19% to 20% respectively).

El Salvador also increased its poverty, but only in rural areas a gender gap was created: the incidence for women was 53% while for men 52%. In Honduras, the gap also widened but in favor of women as the increase in poverty in this country affected men more severely: while for rural women the incidence increased by 17% (51% to 68%) for rural men the increase was 19% (51% to 70%).

In Central America for every 100 poor households run by a man there are between 101 and 119 households in the same condition but are run by a woman. This gap is deepened in the case of indigence: for every 100 indigent households in charge of a man there are between 98 and 129 homes in the same condition in charge of a woman.

The percentage of poor female-headed households is the majority in some countries. In 2007, women were the heads of a larger poor population, such as Panama (44.3% against 50.5% of men) and Dominican Republic (44.3% against 50.5% of men). The trend was reversed in El Salvador in 2005.

The incidence of poverty reaches its highest level in households headed by women in Costa Rica and Panama. And poor female-headed households are also higher than male-headed households in urban areas of El Salvador and Honduras.

Households with female headship are more vulnerable due to the precarious insertion that often affects the women who lead the family. They face difficulties in combining domestic responsibilities and extra domestic work to earn incomes, as many do not have the necessary preparation or social services to support their needs. For this reason, it is more frequent for poor households with female heads to receive lower incomes, as observed in Costa Rica, where 19% of male-headed households had incomes below the poverty line, while that proportion rose to 28% in female heads. This difference is accentuated in rural areas.

2.5 Women economic autonomy as a poverty dimension

One of the factors that evidence gender gaps in access to opportunities is the high percentage of women who do not have their own income (from job or other). In 2010 the female population in this condition was about 32.4% in contrast to only 12.5% of men. In rural areas the female population that does not receive monetary income and are not students rise to 38.1%. This shows that rural women, in addition to having greater difficulties in gaining access to a paid job, must face the invisibilization of their domestic work, are economically dependent and lack of autonomy. Although this also happens in urban areas, in rural areas the magnitude of this problem is much higher.

In rural areas of Central America, the proportion of women without their own income is over 40% in most countries and reaches its maximum level in Guatemala where 52% of women were in that situation in 2010. Although in 2005 the magnitude of this phenomenon was greater, it affects women more than men. The largest gaps in the percentage of the population without their own income are presented in Guatemala, Costa Rica and Honduras, however, in Panama the proportion of women in this condition is four times greater than that of men.

**Table 5. Percentage of rural population without own income, by sex.
Central America (2005 and 2010)**

Country	2005			2010		
	Men	Women	W-H	Men	Women	W-H
Costa Rica	8,8	51,8	43	11,6	45,2	33,6
El Salvador	21,3	59,6	38,3	18,7	43,9	25,2
Guatemala	14,9	57,8	42,9	10,4	52,0	41,6
Honduras	14,7	55,0	40,3	17,2	49,3	32,1
Nicaragua	26,5	73,2	46,7			
Panamá	9,1	47,6	38,5	8,3	36,3	28,0

Source: CEPAL, 2005 series: data from Honduras correspond to 2003, and those from El Salvador and Guatemala to 2004; and series 2010: data from Guatemala correspond to 2006. No comparable data has been found for the Dominican Rep.

2.6 Invisibility of rural women's work and the use of time

A high proportion of rural women occupied in agriculture are unpaid family workers, which place them at a disadvantage situation because they do not receive an economic reward for their activities. There is also a high percentage of women who contribute to agricultural production and who have not been taken into account by statistics.

Hours worked by women range from 21 to 37 hours per week. However, on average, women engaged in some agricultural activity work less hours than men (70% of men's total hours), according to what the statistics show.

According to data available for Guatemala, women spend about 13 hours a day in the care of their families. Domestic work includes tasks that require a lot of physical effort such as the search and transport of firewood and water, to which women spend between 3 and 4 hours a day. In addition, they work with men in the agricultural production dedicating between two and three hours daily to activities of irrigation, cleaning of the ground, fumigation and harvest. Therefore, the women's daily work day extends to 15 or 16 hours approximately, while men works 13 or 14 hours in the agricultural production not participating in domestic tasks.

Women perform more than one job: they are artisans, merchants, employees, spend about 90% of their time in the care of the domestic group. A high percentage of women perform other activities besides their main activity. In the case of Guatemala, 42.7% of the women who reported their agricultural activity as the principal one carried out other activities, compared to 2.7% of men. The same happens in Nicaragua, where 8.6% of women reported doing other agricultural activities and only 0.4% of men do.

3. Women's access to productive resources

3.1 Access to water

Water is not only a productive resource; mainly, is a resource for the reproduction of life, a basic right that people have to be guaranteed to think about any alternative of possible development.

Millions of people in Central America are deprived of drinking water and their distribution systems, which particularly affects children and women, as they mostly collect water for domestic use where there is no potable water supply. They are the ones who make enormous efforts to obtain water which is not only scarce but of low quality, which exposes them to health risks and diseases.

According to reports from the IV World Water Forum held in Mexico (March 2006), Latin America has made significant progress in the supply of drinking water, whose population with access to water has increased from 33% in 1960 to 85% in 2000. However, there are still 67 million people without access to potable water, of which 51 million live in rural areas, 26 million in urban and peri-urban areas and 60% are women.

Likewise, the situation in Central America and the Caribbean is even more critical than in the rest of the continent: according to the Pan-American Health Organization, about 14 million people do not have a potable water supply: 35% total population. In addition, 40% of the rural population (more than 11.5 million people) is affected by the lack of these services: more than 60% of these people are women and girls.

3.2 Access to land

Lack of land prevents women from accessing other essential resources and services such as credit and technical assistance. Without a plot to provide as a guarantee it is not possible to obtain a formal loan. It also excludes them from most public investments and technical assistance programs, which often require their own land to develop production.

Given the limited possibilities for rural women to earn their own income, the possession of an asset such as land means a significant change that allows them to advance in their economic autonomy. Expanding women's access to land and other productive assets, as well as technical and financial assistance, would improve agricultural productivity by up to 30%, which would help to eradicate hunger and rural poverty. It would allow for more food and lower prices in the market, helping to achieve food sovereignty. It would also improve employment and income levels in local economies.

The distribution of land ownership in Central America responds in part to agrarian reform processes, which were characterized by their lack of consideration and understanding of the situation of women and their relationship to rural development. Male heads of household were benefited from the distributions. In Guatemala during the period from 1953 to 1993, of the allocation granted by the National Institute of Agrarian Transformation, only 9% benefited women and only 1% was able to access credit. In Honduras, the agrarian reform started in 1975 had only 3.8% of women beneficiaries. In El Salvador, data from the Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock say that by 1991, agrarian reform benefited only 4.7% of women. For Nicaragua the data show that in cooperatives (distribution mode that concentrated more women), 10.5% of the members were women. In Costa Rica, between 1962 and 1988, only 11.8% of the direct beneficiaries were women. This situation changed in 1990, when the percentage of women increased to 38.7%. A similar situation arises in Panama, where women's access to land has varied from 24.7% in 1988 to 29.3% in 1991, decreasing in 1992 to 27.4% and increasing to 28.3% in 1993.

In agrarian reforms women were penalized because they had to carry out paperwork and meet criteria such as knowing how to read and have official documents (birth certificate or an electoral letter). On the other hand, the land that the women have received in the majority is small and of inferior quality, being the previous one a limiting in the productive development by the size of the land that they own.

Gender gap in access to land has continued to widen. According to available data, women barely own 12% of the land in Honduras and use 15% in Guatemala. In the case of El Salvador, only 13% of property titles are in the name of a woman. And in Nicaragua, 23% of farms are managed by women, but there are significantly smaller than those managed by men.

On the other hand, women are in an unfavorable position in the process of land inheritance, due to discriminatory socio-historical factors. Parents prefer to give their land to male children and if they do not have a male offspring they favor a nephew or other male family member (according to FAO and World Bank studies). Few women are aware of their right to inherit, although inheritance is the most important means of obtaining land for women. Increased dissemination of property rights would increase female representation as a landowner.

4. Gender considerations on climate change

According to UNDP ⁵, gender inequalities intersect with the risks and vulnerabilities associated with climate change. Their historical disadvantages, added to limited rights, limited access to resources, and limited participation in decision-making venues, makes women highly vulnerable to climate change. Climate change is likely to increase the existing gender disadvantage patterns.

Women are more affected by climate change, but nonetheless contributes significantly to their combat. Thus, existing gender inequalities reduce the capacity to cope with climate change.

According to FMICA ⁶, impacts from climate change will have significantly different effects on Central American women – and in some cases even more rigorous – given the fact that because of their high levels of discrimination-based vulnerability, women are among the most impoverished and uninformed sectors of the population.

It is important to adopt a gender approach in policy making and in programs about climate change, and is crucial that women can participative actively in the negotiations which produce this approach.

5. Finance and gender inequalities

5.1 Factors determining access to financing by women

Gender inequalities in the financial area exist and have a negative impact on women's life experience. Gender inequalities produced by the financial sphere limit economic autonomy and women's economic rights. They are inequalities that refer to a type of structural discrimination exercised by the financial system and which are invisibilized regarding to other social areas on which there is greater awareness.

The formal financial system in developing countries has shown more resistance to offering credit to women. Commercial banks tend to prefer men, because run big business and are more likely to control assets. Some initiatives of the NGO sector in relation to microfinance and programs especially directed at women have been some of the responses aimed at alleviating this obstacle.

⁵ Human Development Report, UNDP, 2007 in Aguilar, L., 2009

⁶ Gender and Climate Change: Central American Women's Contributions to Regional Climate Change Policies, June 2010. Women's Forum for Central American Integration, FMICA.

Literature shows how the gender variable is a core factor that reflects inequality in access and use of the financial services. An analysis of some factors related to access, use or financial culture reveals both differences and inequalities, many of which are a consequence of the actual disadvantage situation of women, especially in relation to income.

There is a correlation between gender and income level, educational level and age, which increases the inequality gap for women in the formal financial system. This situation is aggravated by some gender stereotypes that contribute to increasing them

Some studies argue that a significant gender difference in the area of financial intermediation is the perception of discrimination that some people may have in access to resources. One of the main reasons for women for not applying for a loan is the perception of has fewer possibilities.

Gender stereotypes condition the way in which women are perceived by banks. Although such relationships take place in contexts where there are no formal gender barriers to access to financial services, is a tendency to recognize the capacity of women for economic management at home and family environment, while is presumed for them greater difficulties, or less interest, or less competence to do so in the field of "big" businesses. The stereotype could influence the form, quantity and quality in which financial institutions provide information to women, presupposing their limitations in understanding complex financial processes, and showing less confidence and interest in them

Recent studies in Latin America and the Caribbean conclude that there are significant gender gaps in the ownership of bank accounts and in the use of financial savings and credit products. There are obstacles, constraints (financial and non-financial) and gender stereotypes that help explain and understand the variation in women's access to finance in some countries⁷.

Data shows a persistent gender gap for developing countries in the ownership of bank and savings accounts, as well as in indebtedness. Even after control a number of individual characteristics such as income, education, employment status, residence and age, gender is still the definite factor in access to and use of financial services: women borrow less and for smaller amounts, they come more frequently than men to informal financing circuits, they have fewer titles of property and, therefore, they have fewer assets to offer as guarantee, many procedures still require the husband's signature, being this requirement less probable for men, which increases transaction costs, cultural norms in some contexts significantly restrict women's mobility and social relations, etc.

⁷ Financial Inclusion and Legal Discrimination against women: Evidence from Developing Countries Asli Demirguc-Kunt, Leora Klapper and Dorothe Singer. The World Bank, Development Research Group (2013)

The main factors that illustrate gender gaps in access to financing can be summarized as follows:

1. Difficulties of access to institutions limit the autonomy of women, when it's require the authorization of a male relative; but limitations on mobility, the possibilities of working, establishing a business or the existence or non-existence of anti-discriminatory gender clauses in their respective countries also restrict that autonomy.
2. Use of property is another determining factor for access to financial services: the ability and possibility to own, manage, control and even inherit it affects the opportunities of women to provide assets as guarantees or to be able to hold goods' title deed financed with loans.
3. Possession of assets, or the capacity to have them, has a very determinant weight in the possibility of accessing credit, because it conditions the guarantees that women can offer and they have a very significant influence in the size of the businesses and the companies that they can undertake.
4. Wage gap is a determining variable that affects the ability of women to access credit due to the limits of indebtedness established by financial institutions to prevent the client from using a higher percentage of their monthly income set aside for that concept.
5. Information provided by entities to women, the impact they have on the negotiation of credit conditions, personal and family situation, etc. are elements that also condition that access.
6. Having a certain credit history is an element that determines entities' evaluation regarding the success in the payments' fulfillment of the person requesting financing. If the information about credits requested by married couples is registered in the name of a man, this simple fact affects women's credit history and their ability to access credit in the future.
7. Prejudice about women's reduced ability to compete in financial matters is also a conditioning factor. There is a stereotype that women have more difficulty understanding complex financial processes because of their lower financial culture.
8. Factors related to inequality in the financial sphere is related to the level of financial education. The demand for financial competence is increasing and women may find another threshold of vulnerability to these demands.

5.2 Access to finance and credit: Central America and rural women

According to data collected by the World Bank in Nicaragua and El Salvador, although formal credit is limited for both men and women, men use it to a greater extent (55% men and 45% women according to data from Small Claims Guarantee Fund Companies in El Salvador).

The difference in access to financial services between men and women is more pronounced in rural areas. In El Salvador and Nicaragua, only 12% of men and 7% of women have access to credit. In Nicaragua, the gender differences in the granting of formal credit are marked (one woman for every five men). In contrast, women are favored in informal credit: one woman for 0.8 men (FAO, 2005). It is estimated that in 2005, 81% of loans granted to rural women were unconventional.

Even though men account for most rural loans, 70.3% in the case of Nicaragua⁸, some financial institutions, especially microcredit ones, prefer to deal with women because they show greater discipline in payments. However, women face obstacles to access credit due to the high workload (paid and unpaid), lack of education (which limits paperwork) and few guarantees. This discourages them to undertake new activities with greater remuneration.

Both men and women received informal credit, which in some cases benefited women more. Some NGOs show a clear preference for working with women (65-80% participation) because they consider them to be better payers and to make better use of credit for the benefit of the whole family.

There is also a large difference between the size of credits granted to men and women. According to a study by the International Foundation for the Globe Economic Challenge in Nicaragua, the size of loans granted to women compared to those granted to men was almost 1: 5 in formal credit; while in informal credit ratio was 1: 0.8 in favor of women. These differences reflect business constraints and strategies according to gender. On the other hand, it is recorded that men often use credit to improve and increase their business, while women invest in lower risk operations that provide a flow of income for the family. Another factor that influences the size of the credits is the lack of guarantees (especially, the land) of women.

5.3 MSMEs and Microfinance

Based on available information (National Financial Systems - NFS), 64% of El Salvador's MSMEs were known to be in the hands of women (National Commission for Micro and Small Enterprises, 2011), in Panama in 2010 57% of

⁸ "Gender diagnosis for rural economy in Nicaragua", Torres, M.O., World Bank and Inter-American Development Bank, 2008.

micro-enterprises were led by women (Ministry of Economy and Finance); in the Dominican Republic (January 2009 data), about 45% of MSMEs were led by women (National Competitiveness Council); in Nicaragua, 55% of MSMEs were administered by women (Ministry of Development and Industry and Commerce of Nicaragua); and in Costa Rica there is an improvement in the participation of women, since in 2011 they constitute 31% of the number of clients with MSMEs credit in the NFS.

Rural women play an important role in the productive process; however, lack of resources constitutes the greatest obstacle to their empowerment and development. Improving access to credit allows them to increase their income, decision-making power, self-esteem and their position in home and community. As Cheston and Kuhn (2002)⁹ mention: "access to microfinance can create a virtuous spiral of economic development by increasing the welfare and social and political power of women."

In Central America, ways of rural financing have undergone various transformations. In the past, the State provided strong support through rural credit and technical assistance. However, in the 1990s the structure of rural credit was modified, because at the same time the liberalization of the agricultural sector occurred, the State withdrew from the granting of rural credit, disappearing from many rural areas without being replaced by private banks. Agricultural sector was considered as risky and with few guarantees. The state abandoned its support to small producers, allocating financial services to large producers. Also, microcredit programs were initiated, with a focus on women.

The Latin American Association of Financial Institutions for Development groups data from the main financial institutions of development of Latin America. In a 2000 survey, it was observed how countries that have agricultural banks have a high agricultural GDP and a strong active population engaged in agriculture. The 2010 data from the Central American and Caribbean Microfinance Network (REDCAMIF) show that of the 128 affiliated institutions, on average, the percentage of women clients is 52.4%, but only represent 32.9% of the portfolio. Rural clients accounted for 45.5%, but the portfolio for agricultural and forestry activities represented only 15.6%.

5.4 Credit to climate change

About access to credit by women with the purpose of making investments specifically to favor resilience in the face of climate variability, no precedents - and thus no studies- have been found. Therefore, in order to provide an approximation of this aspect, an analysis of the participation of women and men

⁹ "Empowering women through microfinance", UNIFEM. 2002.

in the CAMBio project, as well as in the history of intermediation programs within CABI, have been performed and included in the next section.

With regards to the project with most of similarities with the proposed project, *Proyecto regional "Mercados Centroamericanos para la Biodiversidad (CAMBio)"*¹⁰ and its prolongation, "*Biodiversity friendly MSMEs*", a total of 22 IFIs have participated, having disbursed more than USD 56 million. The majority of the participating IFIs have corresponded to non-banking institutions. The table below shows a detail of the numbers.

In order to have an approach to the type of beneficiaries that this project will likely reach, this section offers an analysis of the results of the CAMBio project. As presented in the Introduction section, the project was successfully implemented with the same intermediation scheme as the one proposed in this project. This project is taken as a basis for the new project because it focused on access to credit for MSMEs for environmentally friendly investments and thus it is the most similar experience in CABI, and constitutes a foundation of the new proposal

CAMBio has granted 12,107 loans to date, reaching a total of 26,036 beneficiaries. 60% of the more than 56 million disbursed have been awarded to medium-sized enterprises, 26% medium and 14% small. However, in terms of number of loans granted, the vast majority, 92%, have been granted to small businesses. This responds to a logic of credit decision capacity for different types of businesses: it is important to note that a significant portion of the loans were micro scale

CAMBio's database allows analyzing women's participation under two aspects: first, how many women and how many men gained access to credit, either because they have applied directly or because they have obtained it through their cooperative; on the other, how many women, men and organizations had the credit in their names. Thus, it can be seen that 37 % of the total beneficiaries having the credit in their names, were women. As for credits direct application, 70% of the total amount was recorded in legal entities (organizations, cooperatives, companies), representing 6 % in terms of quantity. It is important to note that this figure does not allow knowing the portion of women and men that accessed to credit under the "legal entity" category

¹⁰ The project CAMBio, *Central American Markets for Biodiversity: Mainstreaming biodiversity conservation and sustainable use within micro-, small, and medium-sized enterprise development and financing*, was a tripartite initiative of the GEF (Global Environment Facility), UNDP (United Nations Development Programme), with financial support from CABI (Central American Bank for Economic Integration). The main objective of the project was to remove financial barriers by providing loans to Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises that facilitate technology adoption and cause the transformation of production practices that contribute to biodiversity conservation.

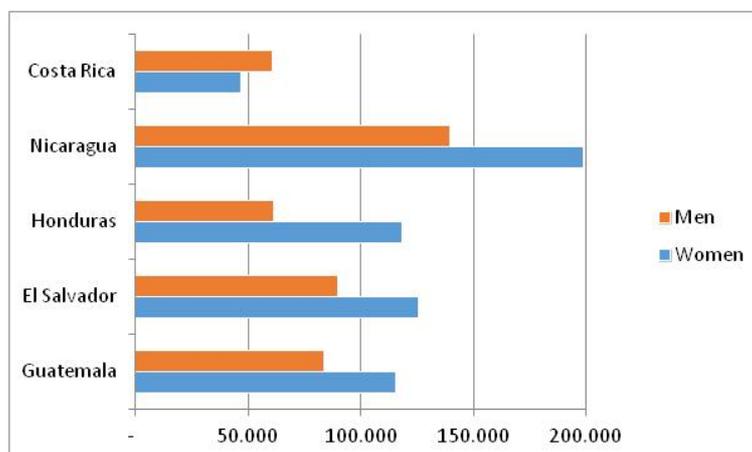
Figure 3. Number and amount of sub-loans by gender/legal entity in CAMBio project



5.5 Experience with Intermediation projects focused on MSMEs

Although CAMBio constitutes a reference due to its thematic approach, it is worth observing the trends in the whole history of intermediation within CABEL's programs directed to the MSME sector, which bring other type of distribution.

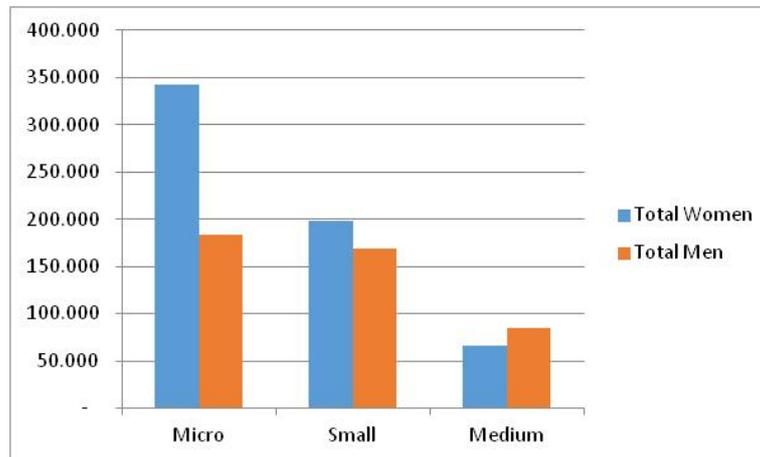
Figure 4. Number of sub-loans granted to the MSME sector by CABEL's programs by gender and by country (1996-2016)



Note: no statistics for Panama and Dominican Republic, where programs were not implemented

These numbers show that, apart from Costa Rica, women have been historically more prevalent than men as beneficiaries of intermediated credit. Honduras is the most relevant example, with 66% of the sub-loans been provided to women.

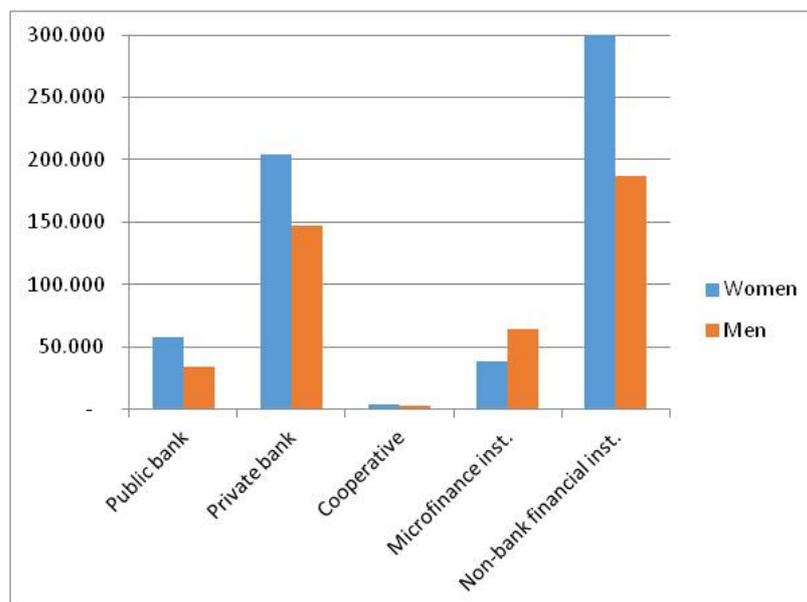
Figure 5. Number of sub-loans granted to women and men through intermediated credit, per size of enterprise (1996-2016)



It can also be observed that women are more present in the credit access through micro and small enterprises. This is consistent with the diagnosis performed in the sector in Central America (see statistics presented in previous section).

Regardless of these figures, this new initiative will incorporate a gender perspective in order to ensure gender equity. Please see project's gender approach in Section II-A, and project's benefits in terms of gender equity in Section II-C

Figure 6. Total beneficiaries women and men having accessed intermediated credit, per type of IFI (1996-2016)



The difference in women's access according to the type of IFI is significant: in the case of public banks, non-banking institutions and private banks, there has been correspondingly 25%, 24% and 16% more access for women than for men. The opposite happens with the microfinance institutions, through which 25% more men have access to credit than women.

6 Gender issues raised during stakeholder consultations

The engagement with NDAs, civil society organizations and other relevant stakeholders has been developed in two main stages:

- ✓ The first one, before the submission of the Concept Note: interviews to CAMBio beneficiaries were performed between the 23rd and the 26th August 2016: 8 MSMEs, 1 IFI and 2 Technical Assistance Providers were consulted; interviews to beneficiaries of other CABEL's programmes were undertaken during workshops with IFIs and MSMEs.
- ✓ The second one, after the submission of the Concept Note to the GCF, which allowed the completion of the consultations under a multi-stakeholder engagement process. From the 26th of July to the 3rd of August 2017, meetings with stakeholders from Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua and Costa Rica were held; during September and October 2017, interviews were undertaken with stakeholders in Panama and the Dominican Republic. The objective was to inform them about the Programme and gather their opinions so to consider them in the design. In total, 11 IFIs, 13 MSMEs and 3 NGOs were consulted. Meetings with the NDAs of the 7 countries were also held with the objective of sharing the stages of this process and confirm the alignment of the objectives of the Programme with the national climate change strategies and commitments.

Both processes are summarized in Section E.5.3 of the FP; please refer to Annex II – Stakeholder engagement -, for a complete description of the interviews, records and outputs, including climate change impacts observed and recommendations for a new initiative, as well as supporting documentation of the meetings.

Main gender aspects raised during the consultations are summarized below:

1) MSMEs

Most of the MSMEs consulted could address or respond to questions on gender issues. **Many of the MSMEs had in their own organization a significant participation of women**, e.g. a coffee cooperative in Honduras counts with a gender committee; an agro-touristic project in Nicaragua is an all-women company; another agro-touristic project employs more women than men; the Costa Rican organization Nala-Kalú is presided over by 2 women; in

the Association of Talamanca Small-scale producers in Costa Rica most are women (60%) and they also are the majority in the directors' board.

Although there is a significant presence of women in the interviewed MSMEs, they are conscious of the **barriers** women face when accessing credits or when accessing technology. Also, they acknowledge the impact that climate change has especially on women.

When asking about the **needs** of women in the rural areas with regards to credit and adaptation to climate change, most of them responded with Technical Assistance in different ways:

- ❖ Accompaniment, close follow-up. Self-esteem to be strengthened.
- ❖ Support for diversification.
- ❖ Production plan.
- ❖ Support for accessing credits, since many of them are illiterate or with low levels of education.

Other demands are related to:

- ❖ the simplification of procedures for accessing credits and developing projects;
- ❖ to lower the requirements to be met;
- ❖ and to foster women's participation and control of the economic resources.

2) IFIs

The majority of the IFIs interviewed highlighted the high participation of women in their portfolios. This is the case for AYNLA, microfinance institution in Guatemala, with 55% of women in the case of associations; for Génesis Empresarial, non-banking institution in Guatemala, with women present in the 70% of the portfolio; ODEF Financiera, microfinance entity for the agricultural sector in the northwest of Honduras, with 50% of women; and LAFISE BANCENTRO, a commercial bank of Nicaragua, with 52% of women in their portfolio. The mortgage bank Banco Hipotecario in El Salvador also affirms having a good percentage of women clients among the MSMEs and good background in credits for women.

Other entities such as FDL, financial institution in Nicaragua that participated in CAMBio with silvopastoral systems, water harvesting, improved seeds and grassland consolidation, affirms however that the agricultural portfolio is predominantly male.

All the same, all the IFIs interviewed see that women have more difficulties with accessing credits.

With regards to their obstacles, they highlight:

- ❖ Rurality, poverty and low schooling are concentrated in women.
- ❖ Lack of self-esteem.
- ❖ General sexism.

With regards to their advantages, they highlight:

- ❖ Greatest payment responsibility.
- ❖ They are the ones who want to learn the most, their productions being more resilient.

With regards to the strategies, they suggest:

- ❖ Close follow-up, accompaniment.
- ❖ Technical support in commercial capacities, credit management.
- ❖ Encouraging women empowerment by promoting their control of the money.
- ❖ Gender training at the level of technicians.
- ❖ Flexibility when asking requirements.

7 How this Programme addresses identified barriers

The project is directly implementing the gender perspective focused on almost all of the identified barriers. Please see the table below, that has been included as well in the Gender Assessment.

Barrier identified	How the Programme addresses this barrier
Lack of women participation	<p>Participation of women will be fostered by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dedicating resources for their access to the Programme (training in gender issues through the whole circuit, from the AE, to the IFIs, the Technical Assistance Providers and the MSMEs, support for women's mobility for their participation in training, workshop for female leaders). • The engagement of the Programme for promoting and prioritizing collective / cooperative / associative projects, that usually involve higher participation of women. • Providing higher resources for adapt-awards if the MSMEs are women-led. • Working with all types of IFIs (from

Barrier identified	How the Programme addresses this barrier
	<p>commercial banks to cooperatives) and promoting various scales of credits: aspects that involve further reach of credit to women.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hiring an environmental and social specialist with competencies in Gender issues, for being part of the Programme Management Unit, during the whole duration of the Programme.
Close follow-up, accompaniment	This aspect will be covered during the described TA activities and resources focused on participation of women.
Support for diversification of the production / technical knowledge on adaptation to climate change	<p>This aspect will be covered by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The training activities on climate change and adaptation to climate change measures. All training will take into account the gender perspective, from the moment of the call, to the mobility needs. • The monitoring of women's participation in trainings. • The monitoring of women accessing credits. • The monitoring of women implementing adaptation measures. • The monitoring of women receiving Adapt-awards. • The monitoring of women participating from the Knowledge Sharing component. • This will all be addressed as well in the workshops dedicated to analyse participation of women in the Programme and its associated Study.
Production / Business plans / financial education	This aspect will be covered during the described TA activities (particularly pre-investment activities) and resources focused on the participation of women.
Too complex procedures/forms to access credit	The complexity of procedures was an issue raised during the programme CAMBio I and highlighted by the Final Evaluation of the programme. This aspect has been addressed by the simplification of the forms and by considering technical accompaniment focused on women.
Promoting women's control of	This aspect will be covered by the

Barrier identified	How the Programme addresses this barrier
the money	<p>Programme by all the activities related to women's participation.</p> <p>CABEI expects having more women participating due to the described capacity building activities; and to give further impulse to women having control of the money, CABEI proposes as strategy that the Adapt-awards will be higher if the MSMEs are women-led.</p>
<p>Visibilization of gender issues within technicians and IFIs' staff, including how the IFIs evaluate credit history, prejudice about women's reduced ability to compete in financial matters.</p>	<p>This aspect will be covered by the training activities on gender issues for CABEI, IFIs staff and MSMEs.</p>
<p>Collateral / guarantee requirements</p>	<p>The Programme will not directly address the collateral / guarantee barrier for several reasons:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In CAMBio I there was a component of guarantees that failed: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ There was not much demand of this product, since there were guarantee programmes offered by the governments or international bodies. ○ The small amount of guarantees that were granted by the programme, were forfeited. • The financing sector senses guarantees as an insecure instrument. They see this instrument as high risk. • To have this guarantee does not ensure that the IFI would not be requesting complementary guarantees (e.g. mortgage). Therefore, the added value would not be high. <p>However, the capacity building activities for pre-investment and the ones focused on women, will address this issue and will provide guidance for accessing existing guarantee programmes or negotiating conditions.</p>

This Programme will address most of the women's needs raised by the IFIs and the MSMEs with the general and the women-oriented Technical Assistance activities in Component 2. And will foster further the reach of women by a differential set for granting the Adapt-Awards in Component 2.

Please see the Gender Action Plan of the Programme for the details of the proposed activities.

GENDER ACTION PLAN

The objective of the " Programme for Productive Investment Initiatives to Adapt to Climate Change in Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama and The Dominican Republic" aims to improve the capacity of micro, small and medium-sized enterprises in region for implementing adaptation measures, in equal conditions for men and women, considering that women present greater difficulty to be inserted in the financial market and more vulnerable to the effects of climate change.

The Gender Action Plan considers the Central American Bank for Economic Integration's Gender Equality Policy -mentioned in the Gender Assessment document- and the activities proposed are align with the guidelines of that Policy.

The Gender Action Plan proposes the following specific objectives to achieve the overall objective of the Programme in terms of gender equality.

Specific objectives:

- a. To reduce women's barriers to access to financial services for adaptation to climate change, for empowering them in managing their resources, and promoting processes to formalize access to credit and financial tools.
- b. To strengthen organizational, productive and administrative women's capacities, through technical assistance for MSMEs in gender equality aspects, identifying MSMEs where women own it, where are more women as employees or in those that have a greater number of women members, to work with them on specific aspects of adaptation to climate change and access to financial services.
- c. To improve IFIs' mechanisms in relation to access to financial services with a gender approach, working with these institutions to show the importance of incorporating gender's view and adapt its existing instruments to the specific needs and problems of women.

Actions to mainstream the gender strategy in the Programme:

- Mechanisms of information generation (quantitative and qualitative) will disclose and analyze data disaggregated by sex and by age.
- Proposals for technical assistance will include information disaggregated by gender to feed the monitoring system of the Programme.
- Cases' systematization and identification of successful cases should be done with a gender approach and consider specific experiences of women.
- Communication materials and documents will be prepared with an inclusive language.
- Communication and dissemination materials will be developed on gender actions carried out by the Programme and on the gender approach adopted, based on the CABI's Gender Equality Policy.

Programme Structure

Component / Output	Action / Activities	Indicators and targets	Timeline	Responsibilities
Cross-cutting	Taking the Programme CAMBio as baseline and the Gender Assessment as a basis, an assessment of lacking gender aspects with the objective of ensuring that the information is homogeneous between countries, more complete and detailed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assessment completed 	Assessment completed in month 3 from the Programme start date.	Environmental and Social Specialist from PMU (CABEI)
Component 1. Innovative financial mechanisms for adaptation measures				
Output 1.1 Credits for adaptation for MSMEs implemented.	Credits provided to women-led MSMEs.	<p>Finance women-led MSMEs to enhance women access to credits for adaptation to climate change and to empower women access to financial services.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least 33% of MSMEs led by women receive and implement credits for adaptation 	At least 660 women-led MSMEs are financed in year 2.5 and at least 1,650 are financed in year 5.	<p>Regular Officers and person in charge of Environmental and Social analysis from IFIs</p> <p>CABEI's Regular Officers, including PMU and IFIs Project Officers</p> <p>Environmental and Social Specialist from PMU (CABEI)</p>

Component 2. Capacity building for the Development of Production Models Resilient to Climate Change

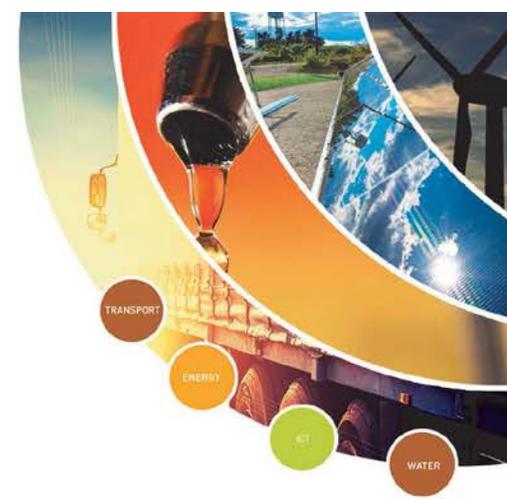
<p>Output 2.2 IFIs and MSMEs with enhanced capacities in adaptation strategies and organizational development</p>	<p>Activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Annual trainings in gender issues for IFIs - at least 1 per country per year ● Ongoing formation on gender issues for MSMEs ● Workshops with women leaders and employees of MSMEs, on adaptation to climate change and financial services. 	<p>Enhance IFIs and MSMEs capacities in adaptation on climate change with gender perspective and empower women (of MSMEs) capacities in specific issues of adaptation on climate change and financial services</p> <p>- 35 trainings</p> <p>- 15 activities of ongoing formation, with specific resources to support women on the field</p> <p>At least 30% of women of MSMEs are supported and participate in programme activities during the five years</p> <p>- 10 workshops</p> <p>At least 80 women participate</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● One per year in each of the 7 countries, from year 1 to 5. ● 3 activities per year, from year 1 to 5. ● 2 per year in 2 different countries, from year 1 to 5. 	<p>Environmental and Social Specialist and Capacity Building Officer from PMU (CABEI)</p> <p>Environmental and Social Specialist and Capacity Building Officer from PMU (CABEI)</p> <p>Environmental and Social Specialist and Adaptation Specialist and Capacity Building Officer from PMU (CABEI)</p>
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<p>Output 2.3 Visibility and dissemination of project activities and results</p>	<p>Activities Workshops for analyzing women and young people participation the ongoing processes with CABEL, IFIs and TASPs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Study of insertion of women and young people in the processes, focused on financial services and gender perspective • Identify and systematize lessons learned on working with women and access to credit for climate change 	<p>Evaluate women and young people participation across the Programme, with all technical staff involved</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2 workshops <p>Generate information about women's and Young people access to financial services for adaptation to climate change</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 regional study <p>Make visible women's participation in the Programme, reporting on the effectiveness of the gender strategy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 systematized experience 	<p>Year 3 and year 4 of the Programme implementation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Year 3 of the Programme implementation • Year 4 of the Programme implementation 	<p>Environmental and Social Specialist and Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist (CABEL)</p> <p>Environmental and Social Specialist and Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist (CABEL)</p> <p>Environmental and Social Specialist and Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist (CABEL)</p>
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Component 3. Incentive scheme to promote adaptation measures to be implemented by MSMEs (Adapt-Award)				
<p>Output 3.1. Incentives awarded</p>	<p>Higher amount of incentives provided to MSMEs led by women; higher amount of award provided to CMNFIs per project from MSME led by women. Women-led MSME receive 15% of credit awarded; men-led MSME receive 8% of credit awarded. CMNFI receives 5% of credit awarded per project by women-led MSME; receives 4% of credit awarded per project by men-led MSME.</p>	<p>Provide higher incentives MSME led by women.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> At least 33% of women-led MSMEs receive Adapt-awards. <p>The Programme aims to define women-led MSMEs as satisfying either of the following conditions:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> MSMEs with 51% or more ownership by women; or MSMEs with at least 30% women on the Board of Directors or in senior management positions; or At least 40% women employment. 	<p>Across the five years of the Programme implementation</p>	<p>Regular Officers and person in charge of Environmental and Social analysis from IFIs</p> <p>CABEI's Regular Officers, including PMU and IFIs Project Officers</p> <p>Environmental and Social Specialist from PMU (CABEI)</p>
Component 4. Programme management and M&E				
<p>Sub-component 4.2 Monitoring and Evaluation</p>	<p>Actions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Monitoring the process of participation of women and men, through the measurement of qualitative and quantitative variables and indicators. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Annual gender reports with all the information for monitoring the process of participation of women and men. These will include the results of basic indicators Among case-studies, one of them will be on women empowerment and climate change A gender section included in each annual report and in the mid-term evaluation, results evaluation and final report. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Annual report from year 1 to 5 of the Programme implementation Year 3 of Programme implementation Annual reports from year 1 to 5 and mid-term evaluation in year 3. 	<p>Environmental and Social Specialist and Monitoring and Evaluation Specialist (CABEI)</p>

GROWING A FOCUSED SUSTAINABLE AND DEVELOPMENTAL DBSA

Gender documents for FP098



Author	Nthabiseng Tlhoale
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Unit	Investment Support
Client	
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1.1. Introduction

This report provides an overview of the gender situation and key gender matters in South Africa, Lesotho, Namibia and Swaziland. In addition the assessment also discusses gender issues that are relevant to the Programme. This report used data collected from various sources, and the cited material can be provided upon request. In addition to the gender assessment, a gender action plan is also included in this assessment document. The report provides an overview of gender matters within SADC as a region, and also the gender matters in the individual countries mentioned.

1.2. Gender Mainstreaming within SADC Region

In 1996 the SADC Gender Unit was established, following a decision taken by the SADC Heads of Governments. This was after a call was made for the development of a coordinating mechanisms for gender equality and women empowerment at a regional level. The SADC Gender Unit facilitates gender mainstreaming in all SADC institutions through the following activities:

- Working to **support all the structures and institutions to mainstream gender** in their policies, programmes and activities;
- **Building capacity on gender analysis** to facilitate planning for programmes and projects;
- **Sensitize, enroll, engage and empower our stakeholders** to understand, appreciate and make the case for gender concerns, and priorities; and
- **Developing and providing the technical guidance** in accelerating and strengthening gender mainstreaming and women's empowerment programmes.

(Source: www.sadc.int)

a) Poverty and Economic empowerment

According to studies undertaken, women constitute more than 50% of the poor population in SADC and poverty can only be addressed through programmes which specifically target the majority of the poor. Women constitute the majority of the poor in the region for a number of reasons including high illiteracy rates, restrictive and discriminatory laws, and limited access to, and control over, productive resources.

The economic empowerment and improvement of women not only benefits them, but also contributes towards sustainable development and poverty alleviation. Women spend a higher percentage of their income on feeding and educating their children, which is aimed at the wellbeing of their families. Economic independence of women, is crucial as it counteracts exploitation, feminization of poverty, discrimination and disregard of their fundamental human rights. Gender equality at the economic

level therefore contributes directly to the reduction of poverty and overall development. (Source: www.sadc.int)

The SADC has since developed the SADC Women's Economic Empowerment Framework, with the intention being to coordinate and implement the SADC region's commitments on women's economic empowerment.

Article 17 of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development deals specifically with economic empowerment, with the following being the proposed commitments:

- **Adopt policies and enact laws** which ensure equal access, benefit and opportunities for women and men in trade and entrepreneurship, taking into account the contribution of women in the formal and informal sectors;
- **Review their national trade and entrepreneurship policies**, to make them gender responsive; and
- With regard to the **affirmative action provisions** in Article 5, introduce measures to ensure that women benefit equally from economic opportunities, including those created through public procurement process.

b) Politics and Decision making

Southern African Development Community (SADC) Member States are proactively working towards equal representation of men and women politics and decision making positions at all levels such as in Cabinet; Parliament, Council, Management of the Public Services, Chief Executive Officers and Boards of State Owned Enterprises/Parastatals as well as the Private sector. A number of countries, including Angola, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Tanzania, have on average more than 30 % women's representation in the upper and lower houses of parliament. A number of countries have legislated minimum quotas for women's representation in parliaments. (Source: www.sadc.int)

Article 12 of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development (2008) requires that "States Parties shall endeavor that, by 2015, at least fifty percent of decision-making positions in the public and private sectors are held by women including the use of affirmative action measures as provided for in Article 5. The SADC Gender Protocol Barometer produced by the Southern Africa Gender Protocol Alliance was developed with the intention of measuring progress in the implementation of the SADC Gender Protocol by the Member States. However at the time of the writing of this report, it was not known what progress had been made thus far.

c) Administrative Framework pertaining to Gender Equality

Member states of the SADC region are signatories to the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development, and have pledged to facilitate and encourage the integration and mainstreaming of gender issues into the initiatives and programmes undertaken in SADC, to ensure sustainable development of the region. The objectives of the SADC Gender protocol are as follows:

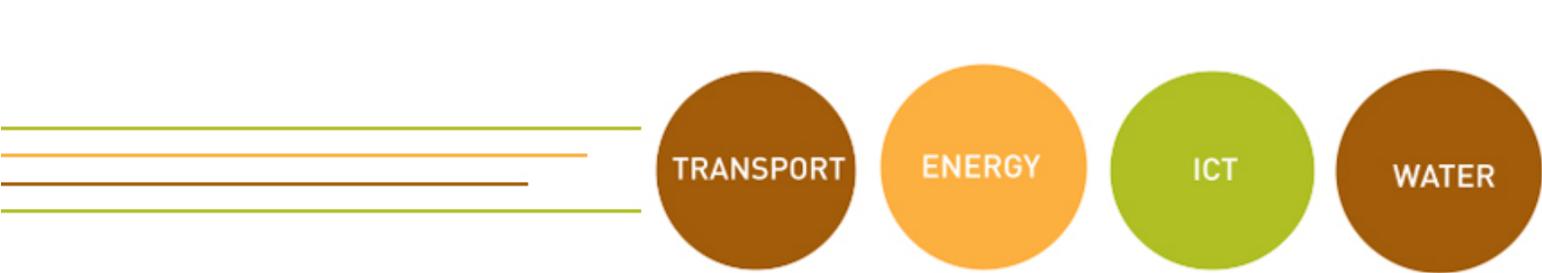
- To provide for the empowerment of women, to eliminate discrimination and to achieve gender equality and equity through the development of gender responsive legislation, policies, programmes and projects;
 - To harmonize the implementation of the various instruments to which the SADC member states have subscribed to at the regional continental and intercontinental level, on gender equality and equity;
 - To address emerging gender issues and concerns;
 - To set realistic, measureable targets, time frames and indicators for achieving gender equality and equity;
 - To strengthen, monitor and evaluate the progress made by SADB member states towards achieving the targets and goals set out in the Gender protocol; and
 - To deepen regional integration, attain sustainable development and strengthen community building.
- (Source: SADC Protocol on Gender and Development)

1.3. Analysis of Gender Matters in South Africa

a) Existing Gender Inequality

The World Bank's South Africa Economic outlook report (2016), revealed that South Africa remains one of the most unequal societies in the world, and that currently there is insufficient economic growth. The share of national consumption between the richest and poorest remains stubbornly stable: 20% of the richest population accounted for over 61% in consumption in 2011 down from a high of 64% in 2006. Meanwhile, the bottom 20% have been seen to remain fairly constant at below 4.5% (Statistics South Africa 2014).

According to the World Bank report, access to finance is a major challenge for small to medium enterprises ("SMEs"), and the main reason for this is the lack of suitable financial products offered by banks, and inadequate capacity of local business founders to present their funding needs to financial institutions. (World Bank South Africa Economic outlook, 2016). For women owned companies and organizations, access to finance is even more difficult to attain. As such the proposed Programme should ensure that women led organizations and companies are effectively included in the process. The following section provides a synopsis of the breakdown of the key societal issues in South Africa, in terms of gender split.



TRANSPORT

ENERGY

ICT

WATER

b) Poverty

The last decade has witnessed a marked increase in the number of people who are classified as poor across the world, including South Africa, where three-quarters or 71% of the rural households were found to be poor. Over three in five (61%) of African households are poor compared to 38% of coloured households, 5% of Indian and 1% of white. Poverty has placed the greatest stress on family units but also on women, children and young people. Statistics South Africa (“StatsSA”) in their Vulnerability Indicator report (2016) indicates that approximately 10.3% of males in South Africa are vulnerable to hunger, as compared with 13.8% of females. So more females are likely to experience hunger than men.

Inequalities still exist among men and women, even though the South African national government has put in place some measures and programmes to allow for the empowerment of women. Women continue to experience the increasing deepening of a phenomenon called the feminization of poverty because of various other socio-economic factors such as the gendered division of labour in the household, the low value accorded to women’s work, and the concomitant clustering of women in low-paid jobs.

c) Education

The Vulnerability Indicator report (2016) by StatsSA indicated that 86.7% of South African males are functionally literate, whereas only 84.1% of women in South Africa are functionally literate. 57.8% of women have education up until Matric level, as compared to 55.7% of men. As thus women still lack behind in terms of basic literacy levels as compared to men, even though the gap in this case is not significantly big.

d) Income and Labour force

The table below indicates that more men than women participate in the South African labour force, and the information obtained from Statistics SA indicates that this disparity is in both the formal and informal employment sectors. This then indicates the importance of uplifting women and capacitating them, thereby enabling them to be in a position to participate meaningfully in the economic and employment sector. The gender disparity portrayed in the South African context are not different from the realities women are faced with in Lesotho, Swaziland and Namibia since the industry structure is similar.

Table 1: Labour force statistics for Sub-Saharan Africa, South Africa and the world

Region	Economic structure, participation and access to resources						
	labour force participation rate (% of population ages 15+)	labour Force participation rate, Youth (% ages 15-24)	Employment to population ratio (% ages 15+)	Unemployment rate (% of labour force ages 15+)	Account at financial institution (% ages 15+)	Mobile account (% ages 15+)	Saved any money last year (% ages 15+)

	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male								
Sub-Saharan Africa	64	77	51	56	58	71	9	7	25	33	10.3	12.8	58	62
South Africa	45	61	24	29	32	47	29	22	69	69	13.9	15	66	67
World	50	77	39	55	47	72	6	6	57	64	1.6	2.5	54	59

Source: World Development Indicators (2016), The little data book on Gender, World Bank group.

e) Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality

South Africa achieved democracy in 1994. Central to this democracy was a commitment to equality, including gender equality and the empowerment of women. The founding principles of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa include human rights, equality and freedom for everyone in South Africa. Chapter 2: Section 9 of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), emphasises the need for equality for all mankind within the country. According to this section of the constitution, there shall be no unfair discrimination against anyone on the basis of race, gender, sexual orientation, disability, etc.

After 1994, the principle of gender equality influenced policy and legislation formulation in economic and development related areas such as access to employment, land, housing, water, health care and public works programme among others. Furthermore, the South African government developed and implemented key domestic development programmes with an overarching focus to address the legacy of colonialism and apartheid. These included inter alia, the Reconstruction and Development Programme (“RDP”); Growth, Employment and Redistribution (“GEAR”) Shared Growth Initiative – South Africa (“ASGISA”) and many others. These programmes have culminated in the master development plan for the country, namely the National Development Plan (“NDP”). Although these programmes, were meant to advance the country, they did not specifically focus on women, resulting therefore in the challenge of unemployment, poverty and inequality continuing to impact negatively on women in particular.

Additional programmes such as the Presidential Infrastructure Coordination Commission (“PICC”) and Operation Phakisa and the Green Economy have been put in place with the sole aim of providing the much-needed jobs and grow the South African economy.

At an international scale, the South African Government ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (“CEDAW”). The South African Government also recognises the Beijing Declaration and Platform of Action, and of the areas of concern under the Beijing Declaration, South Africa has prioritised the following:

- Women and poverty;
- Women and education
- Women and economic empowerment;

- Women in power and decision-making; and
- Improving the conditions and situation of the girl child.

At a regional scale, South Africa is a signatory to the SADC Declaration on Gender

However, there is a concern that even with the various programmes and strategic plans and documentation in place, the advancement and upliftment of women across various sectors in South Africa is still lacking.

f) Gender and water sector in South Africa

South Africa is a water stressed country characterized by low rainfall, limited underground aquifers, and a reliance on significant water transfers from neighboring nations. Amid these challenges, the country has made a considerable progress with access to water. Access to clean basic water has improved from 77% in 2000 to 85% in 2015 (JMP, 2017). Disparity with regard to access to basic water exist between urban and rural areas where access in urban areas was estimated at 97% and only 63% in rural areas. Access in urban areas is mainly through piped water in dwelling/yard/plot and in informal settlement and peri-urban areas the service could be through public standpost while in rural areas it is mainly through public standpost. Access to basic sanitation was estimated at 73% in 2015, an increase from 59% in 2000 (JMP, 2017).

In South Africa, recognizing the role women play in the water sector is significant, hence, gender mainstreaming in the water sector is essential, as women are still lagging behind men in a number of indicators. With the realities of climate change, South Africa has recently experienced severe droughts, particularly in the Western Cape where more than 33 300 jobs losses were recorded, cereal production decreased by 32%, wheat by 21% and canola by 21%. The associated monetary losses were calculated to be over R1 billion.

The 2012 water sector survey indicated private sector jobs which indicated gender disparity where more men (62.2%) were employed than women (37.8%). Gender disparity in municipalities indicated 69.4% male employed as opposed to 30.6% women. Employment in the water intensive sectors such as construction, agriculture and transport and storage amounts to almost half a million people in Western Cape alone (203 661; 170 662 and 108525 respectively).

In response to climate change, the country is envisaged to implement water related projects that promote water efficiency and treatment. Such projects will create jobs, grow business and the economy through development of water value chain with the ultimate goal of alleviating poverty. In addition, such projects will build resilience to drought of all vulnerable groups while ensuring greater water use efficiency and promoting use of alternative water. In water intensive sectors, the projects will build business resilience for and will contribute to more resilient and sustainable cities and businesses.

It is estimated that the CFF will create at least 132 jobs in the water efficiency treatment and production projects, of which 59 jobs will be for females.

g) Gender and waste management in South Africa

With regard to men and women's role in the water sector, men are perceived to be engaged in productive roles and women in reproductive roles such as managing household waste. Gender mainstreaming in waste management sector is key for successful management of waste and promoting a cleaner environment with responsible consumption and production.

In addressing vulnerabilities to climate change in waste management, South Africa will implement projects that promote sustainable use of resources in waste-to-energy, biomass and biogas. Such projects will create jobs, grow business and the economy, ensure greater use of resource efficiency, and reduce GHG emissions.

The IDC estimated various number of jobs to be created within green technologies. Those are: waste-to-energy (70 short term; 354 in medium term and 1 178 in long term); biomass combustion (115 short term; 14 504 medium term and 37 270 long); anaerobic digestion (131 short term; 385 medium term and 1 425 long); and pyrolysis/gasification (240 short term, 1 688 medium term and 4 348 long term).

It is estimated that the CFF will create at least 1 034 jobs in the waste to energy sector of which 465 will be for females.

h) Gender and energy in South Africa

In the energy sector, South Africa will address vulnerability to climate change through addressing gender inequalities by creating more jobs for women, and through the provision of cleaner energy. The manufacturing opportunity in local lamination of solar PV panels provides a significant opportunity for gender-sensitive development. There are examples of current facilities with 80% of employees in PV lamination facilities being women.

It is estimated that the CFF will create 2 700 jobs in renewable energy generation of which 1 215 will be for women.

1.4. Analysis of Gender Matters in Lesotho

a) Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality

Lesotho Government does has a Constitution that recognizes the rights of women. However because Lesotho applies a dual legal system (consisting of both customary and common law), in some instances the provisions of customary law override the provisions of common law, especially when coming to aspects of gender equality. Lesotho is a party to the CEDAW.

According to Gender Index at times it appears that the customary and common laws in the country are inconsistent with each other. There are cases whereby common law allows for women to have rights and

access to financial resources, land and inheritance, but in some parts of the country customary law is still respected more than common law. But generally it appears that the government prefers to implement the provisions of common law more than those of customary law.

In some parts of the country cultural and traditional norms are still followed, whereby in cases of domestic violence, some women go to the extent of believing that men/husbands have the right to 'punish' their spouses. The country does not specifically have a Domestic Violence Act, but there are provisions in other applicable pieces of legislations against acts of violence.

Lesotho does have a National Policy on Gender, and there is also a Ministry of Gender dedicated towards gender matters in the country.

b) Status quo on Gender aspects in Lesotho

The following is an indication of the status quo with regards to the status of women in Lesotho, as outlined by the African Development Bank: Indicators on Gender, Poverty and the Environment (2017):

- Females made up 50.4% of the total population in the country in year 2016; a figure that has decreased from 51.5% in year 2000.
- Life expectancy at birth for women in 2016 was standing at 50yrs, as compared to 48yrs in 2000. By contrast, for men the life expectancy was standing at 50yrs in 2016; up from 47yrs in year 2000. This trend indicates that indicates that women are likely to live longer than men. However in both cases it can also be argued that positive changes in the quality of life has increased life expectancy for both sexes.
- Females made up 45.3% of the total labour force in 2016, a decrease from the 48.8% in 2000.
- In year 2016 25% of women held positions in the Lesotho Parliament, with 21.7% holding ministerial positions.

Generally it appears that Lesotho as a country has made provisions (through legislation, regulatory frameworks and other initiatives) to ensure that they reach set targets for gender equality and equity. However big strides still need to be made.

c) Gender and the Water Sector in Lesotho

Lesotho is endowed with abundant water resources, and has made a considerable effort in with regard to access to safe drinking water. Provision of basic clean water has improved from 66% during 2000 to 72% in 2017 (JMP, 2017). Access to basic water is more in urban (87%) than rural areas (66%). Lesotho is one of the six countries in Eastern and Southern Africa where collecting water takes more than 30 minutes for more than 3 quarters of the population. Access to basic level of sanitation in Lesotho was estimated at 44% in 2015 (JMP, 2017) and 43% of the population using basic level of sanitation were located in rural area while 46% of the urban population were using basic level of sanitation. Although the country has made a remarkable progress towards achieving goal 6.1 and 6.2, of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), progress made has not yet resulted in gender disaggregated specific analysis of the water sector in the country.

Lesotho is not different from most of the Sub-Saharan African countries where the burden of fetching water rest with women and girls while lack of access to basic sanitation facilities impact most on women and girls. Most of the sanitation facilities in rural areas are pit latrines and cleaning and maintenance of such facilities rest mostly on women and girls. However, lack of gender desegregated data on sanitation related indicators such as those reflecting cultural sensitivity, different priorities between men and women, and constraints by men and women in sanitation related activities hinders evidence-based arguments and related policies directed at improving equality in access to water and sanitation services.

d) Gender and waste management in Lesotho.

With regard to household waste, it is commonly know that women are responsible for disposing of household waste where over 90% of households particularly in rural areas (Government of Lesotho, 2011) do not have access to waste disposal services. And are despising of their refuse in own dumpsite. The lack of waste disposal services increases women workload and increases the time spent on managing the service at household level thereby increasing their exposure to health risks through direct exposure to dumpsite and possible contamination of ground water resources, thus compromising a resource which many households depends on.

With regard to waste-to-energy, Lesotho implemented biogas plans in several parts of the country, however, there are challenges with regard to acceptance of technology.

e) Gender and energy in Lesotho

Lesotho rural households requires energy mainly for cocking, lighting and space heating. Data indicates that urban areas of the country have access to modern forms of energy while rural areas rely more on traditional forms of biomass for fuel. The country's energy balance indicates that biomass energy contributes about 66% of the energy mix (Sustainable Energy for All, Undated). More than 90% of fuel used for cocking in Lesotho consist of traditional biomass comprising of shrubs, crop residue and dung while the country uses more than 95% of fuel for space heating comprising of fuelwood, dung, coal and gas. Again, collection of such fuel rests upon women and girls. Traditionally, woman and girls are responsible for preparing food for the family, which in many instances extend towards ensuring availability of fuel for space heating. When using traditional biomass for fuel, women and girls becomes exposed to indoor air pollution, hence increased respiratory disease in the country. Again, time spent on collecting fuel for cocking and heating cannot be over emphasized as poorer households are estimated to spend at least two hours a day collecting fuel given the terrain of the country.

Given the heavy reliance on traditional biomass for cocking, and space heating by rural women and girls in Lesotho, and the associated risk of fuel scarcity, health and safety, the need for renewable energy to cook and heat homes cannot be overlooked. Lesotho rural women and girls require renewable energy that is efficient, less labour intensive, save and not harmful to their health for cocking and space heating. When looking at the entire households fuel value chain that encompasses fuel kitchen designs, transportation of fuel in rural Lesotho, space heating and food preparation and processing, it is evident that the country's household energy programme has been under-resourced. It is clear that Lesotho is

heavily dependent on biomass-based renewable energy for basic needs, therefore projects looking at new biomass technologies that are aimed at promoting the women's access to traditional biomass resources should be supported.

When taking in to account time spent by women and girls collecting fuel for biomass which in Lesotho is more than two hours daily, it becomes visible that a fraction of women's economic contribution is unpaid, not valued and not acknowledged. Coupled with other household chores which rest on women and girls such as collecting and or pumping water, there is less focus in technology development that is aimed at improving women's work, and gender disparity widens. To reduce gender disparities between men and women, and to improve women's work, renewable energy technologies that are labour and time saving needs to be investigated.

Lesotho needs to invest in renewable energy that addresses women's contribution to the economy, improves profitability, and encourages energy-intensive microenterprises. The percentage of households that are using energy efficient stoves is growing, but reliance on traditional biomass is unsustainable as fuelwood is increasingly becoming scarce.

1.5. Analysis of Gender Matters in Swaziland

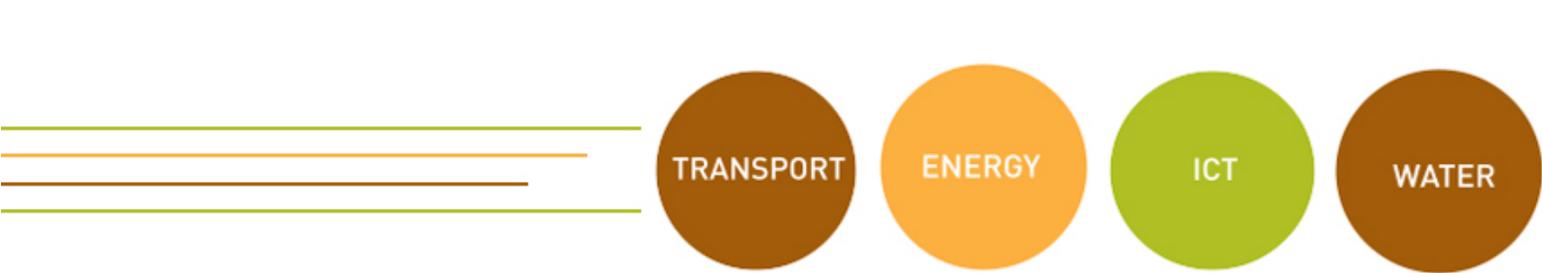
a) Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality

Section 20 and Section 28 of the Constitution of Swaziland (2006) provides for the same legal right between men and women. Swaziland is also a signatory to the CEDAW, and the SADC Protocol on Gender. However in Swaziland, the complexity of the strong adherence to cultural norms and practises arguably threatens some efforts for gender equity and gender equality. The National Gender Policy was adopted in 2010.

b) Status quo on Gender aspects in Swaziland

The following is an indication of the status quo with regards to the status of women in Swaziland, as outlined by the African Development Bank: Indicators on Gender, Poverty and the Environment (2017):

- Females made up 50.5% of the total population in the country in year 2016; a figure that has decreased from 51.6% in year 2000.
- Life expectancy at birth for women in 2016 was standing at 48yrs, as compared to 49yrs in 2000. By contrast, for men the life expectancy was standing at 50yrs in 2016; up from 48yrs in year 2000. This trend indicates that indicates that men are likely to live longer than women, but what can be deemed as concerning is that while the life expectancy for men increased in the same time period, it decreased for women. As thus it can somewhat be argued that factors that increased the quality of life for men in the stated period, did not necessary increase the quality of life for women.
- Between the period 2000 to 2015 the number of women living with HIV/AIDS also increased.



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- Females made up 39.3% of the total labour force in 2016, an improvement from the 36.0% in 2000. Also interesting is that records show that despite challenges 59% of women are self-employed and approximately 70% of small enterprises are women-owned.
- In year 2016 6% of women held positions in the Swati Parliament, down from 14% in year 2000. However at ministerial level 26.3% of women held positions in year 2015, up from 13.3 percent in year 2005. There has however not been much of a change over the years in terms of the percentage of positions held by women in sub-ministerial and administrative management positions.

In addition to what has been stated above, the According to Gender Index the following are some of the challenges also experienced by women in the Swati nation.

- There are still challenges with access to formal and adequate healthcare services, as most properly development healthcare facilities are based in urban areas, albeit the fact that approximately 70% of the population resides in rural areas.
- With regards to education, there appears to be very little gender gaps between the sexes at primary school enrolment stage. However at secondary and higher education levels, more men than women are in school. It is thought that gender inequalities in education start being prominent at age 16.
- The Sexual Offences and Domestic Violence Act was passed in 2013, but still needed support from the Royal Household. Even though the law specifies that domestic violence and sexual abuse/assault are criminal offences, there appears to be little action on the ground with regards to prosecutions, convictions and punishment measures.
- The Constitution through recognizes gender equality, and this was extended to include access to land for both sexes. But in reality access to land still favours men due to cultural and patriarchal systems, more because the right to access of land has not been legislated. In some part of the country women are allowed access to land only through a male relative, and not on their own. However in other parts of the country tribal laws recognise the increasing rate of female-headed households, and thus allow female access to land.
- Barriers also exist with regards to access to credit for women, with most women requiring spousal permission to access credit. In some instances women do not have collateral for credit, especially in cases where property is registered under the husband's details.
- Women's access to movement is somewhat still restricted and controlled, albeit the Constitution (Section 26) indicating that women have a right to freedom of movement. In some instances women require the permission of their husbands for the issuing of travel documents and passports, to provide an example.

The trends displayed above indicate that there might not be much implementation of gender equality initiatives and policy requirements, in order to meet the objectives and goals of gender equity and equality in Swaziland. Very serious measures have to be taken to address the matter. Government needs to be visibly pro-active in how it addresses issues of women empowerment, especially because Swaziland is a signatory to the SADC Protocol on Gender and other associated regulatory frameworks. Being a signatory should not just be an administrative duty, but there should be visible implementation on the ground.

c) Gender and water sector in Swaziland.

Gender issues in the water sector in Swaziland are not different from gender disparities as experienced in Lesotho and Namibia except the fact that in Swaziland, King Moswati III is the last remaining Monarch in Africa. King Moswati has demonstrated that he is unwilling to change the status quo and promotes aspects of patriarchal society where women are openly treated as inferior to men (ACTSA, 2016). Access to basic water in Swaziland was estimated at 68% and lower than most countries in southern Africa. Access to basic water was more in urban areas (95%) than in rural areas (60%) (JMP, 2017).

Access to basic sanitation was lower at 58% nationally where access in both rural and urban areas were the same at 58%. Open defecation is mostly practiced in rural areas (14%) than in urban areas (1%). A study on gender roles and relationships (Peter, 2006) indicated how gender roles and relations between men and women influences access, allocation and use of resources in rural Swaziland. Therefore, where decision regarding management and access to sources of water are gender blind, negative implications could result. The study also highlighted implications for gender roles and relationship for water management areas.

d) Gender and waste management in Swaziland

Gender mainstreaming in waste management highlights the differences in the way men and women handles waste. Waste generated in households have the potential for reuse and recycling and as such could create small enterprises for men and women. Waste management at household level is commonly the responsibility of women and girls, therefore, recycling and reusing waste presents opportunities for women and girls who are usually excluded from contributing to the economy due to the roles they play which are labour intensive, time consuming and often viewed as not contributing to the economy.

In urban areas, waste management is usually the responsibility of municipalities concerned, and increasingly, the role of private sector is important in waste management value chain including collection, transportation, treatment, processing, separate collection, recycling, composting and disposal. Gender sensitive projects aimed at promoting gender equality while supporting the role of women in environmental protection would benefit the Swazi women.

e) Gender and energy in Swaziland

Swaziland National Gender Policy, 2010 (Swaziland Government, 2010) realizes the role of women in management of natural resources, particularly in the energy sector. The policy indicated that women are in most cases hit hard by the effect of environmental mismanagement due to the roles they play in resource mobilization and planning. Women's dependency on natural resources for their basic needs such as fuelwood remains to be the major concern in most developing countries where access to electricity for cooking and heating is mostly in rural areas. The policy advocate for capacity building for men and women to generate, use and disseminate knowledge on appropriate and efficient energy technologies for households use.

1.6. Analysis of Gender Matters in Namibia

a) Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Protecting Gender Equality

Article 10 of the Namibian Constitution guarantees equality before the law for all people in Namibia, as well as non-discrimination based on gender/sex. In 1992 Namibia ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All forms Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and in 2004 the country ratified the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of women in Africa. The Namibian government is also a signatory to the SADC Protocol on Gender.

Namibia drafted and adopted its first National Gender Policy in 1997. However the policy was amended in response to the need to address identified shortcomings, such as the inadequate knowledge and understanding of gender mainstreaming, poor skills for gender analysis and poor coordination between stakeholders. In March 2010 the revised National Gender Policy (2010 – 2020) was adopted, in line with the National Development Plan. The policy addresses gender issues with regards to poverty and rural development, gender- based violence, health and HIV/AIDS management, governance and decision-making, programmes for the girl-child, and conflict resolution and peace building, amongst other matters.

One of the key issues about the Namibian Gender Policy is that it provides suggestions and recommendations on how adequate institutional frameworks can be created to facilitate and ensure the realisation of the goals and objectives set in the Policy document. In the country the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare has been established, and at the regional and national level there is also the National Permanent Gender Task Force (Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, 2010. National Gender Plan (2010-2020).

b) Status quo on Gender aspects in Namibia

The following is an indication of the status quo with regards to the status of women in Namibia, as outlined by the African Development Bank: Indicators on Gender, Poverty and the Environment (2017):

- Females made up 51.3% of the total population in the country in year 2016; a figure that has increased from 50.9% in year 2000.
- Life expectancy at birth for women in 2016 was standing at 68yrs, as compared to 57yrs in 2000. By contrast, for men the life expectancy was standing at 63yrs in 2016. This indicates that women are more likely to live longer than men.
- In 2015 the health life expectancy for women stood at 59years, whilst it was 56 years for men. Infant mortality rates in 2015 stood at 29.4% per 1000 for female children, as compared to 32.9% per 1000 for male children.
- Females made up 48.9% of the total labour force in 2016, an improvement from the 44.7% in 2000.
- In year 2016 41% of women held positions in the Namibian Parliament, up from 24% in year 2000. At ministerial and a sub-ministerial levels the percentage of women holding such positions also increased remarkably. This is an indication that the Namibian government is taking initiatives

to bridge the gender gap at decision making level, and also in line with the requirements of the SADC Protocol on Gender.

Regardless of the steps taken thus far, and without giving recognition to the positive results that have occurred as a result of the efforts taken, there are still aspects of gender inequality that exist in the Namibian government. For example the Gender Pay Gap in Namibia currently sits at 11.4% per annum; implying that women have to work an additional 47 days per year in order to match their male counterparts in earnings. Women still do not fare well with regards to economic participation, financial remuneration and economic opportunities, as compared to their male counterparts (Global Gender Gap Index).

Advancements towards the attainment of gender equity and gender equality in Namibia is necessary, and the implementation of this programme can play a role towards that goal.

c) Gender and water sector in Namibia

Namibia still struggle with access to water and sanitation, particularly in rural areas. In 2016, the percentage of households with access to safe water for drinking was estimated at 92.9%, (NSA, 2016), an increase from 80% that was recorded in 2011(NSA, 2011). Disparity exist with regard to access to safe water for drinking between rural and urban areas where more access is in urban (99.4%) than rural areas (85.0%). Of the urban households who have access to safe drinking water, about 40% have access to piped water inside while 31.9% have access to piped water outside (JMP, 2017). Of note is the 15% of the rural households who do not have access to safe drinking water and have resorted to using borehole with tank uncovered, unprotected wells, rivers, canal and dams.

With regard to gender roles between men and women in the water sector, girls are more likely than boys to be engaged in fetching water, particularly in rural households. On average, women and girls spend 2 hours fetching water, and the latter add to the time women and girls spend on unpaid work (Gender Index, 2018). The rural Namibian women and girls constitute 75% of the workforce involved in collecting water and fetching firewood (AFDB, 2006). Nearly 56% of rural households involves girls in fetching water compared to 15% of boys. When factoring in time spend to collect water, the Namibian women spend more than two hours daily on household chores than men.

Although Namibia has a low population, its large land mass and the spread of population in rural areas makes it difficult for the government to provide accessible and affordable water supply to rural communities. For the rural households who are using communal taps, it was estimated that more than one third of households in rural areas live more than 500 meters away from the water source while more than 15% were living more than a kilometre away. The distance to water source plays an important role in determining the time women can spend in collecting water. The nearer the improved water source to household increases time women can spend on other chores such as caring for the sick, cooking etc. However, the closer the water source is to household has other unintended consequences such as increased water use by households, therefore, increasing time spent on the associated task.

Understanding labour dynamics between men and women is crucial to ensure that water and sanitation projects are designed and implemented in a manner that alleviate the burden of women and girls. For

example, The Himba tribe in Kunene District of the northern Namibia is one of the community where women benefitted from improved water and sanitation facilities by Red Cross. The Himba tribe was known to move around in search for water. With the improved drinking water sources and improved sanitation facilities, the community ceased to move around, while women and girls have enjoyed being positively impacted by water and sanitation programme. Other than reduced time to fetch water, improved water sources have brought about reduced water related diseases; increased school attendance by girls; and women were trained on repairing hand pumps. Men's responsibility with regard to access to water was limited to digging of wells.

The government has made a considerable effort in providing improved water to its citizens, however, the lack of data reflecting gender differentiated access and needs hampers any efforts directed towards gender mainstreaming in the water sector in the country.

d) Gender and waste management in Namibia

The Namibian men has the responsibility to make decisions and control the family's resources while women are left to handle day to day running of the household including among other, the responsibility to manage household waste. Since only 30.9% of households in Namibia have access to refuse removal, data suggest that the burden of household waste management for households without access to such service rest with women and girls. Traditionally, gender roles and responsibilities are taught at an early age and thus girls grow up understanding their roles. The burden of household waste management is more for rural women and girls than their urban counterparts where access to waste removal services is higher in urban (65%) than in rural areas (8.4%). In rural areas, household waste management involves burning the rubbish (27.9%) or disposing it in pits (28%) (AFDB, 2006) a chore done mostly by women and girls.

With regard to waste-to-energy, the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP, 2003) indicated that about 10 biogas plants were implemented across the country and mainly for domestic use. Given the reliance on biomass for fuel for cooking and heating, the use of waste-to-energy has proved to have benefited Namibian women where cow dung is used as the raw materials to produce biogas. In areas where fuel wood resources has dwindled due to lack of alternative fuels, biogas would benefit women and girls the most as it is in line with the National Biomass Programme of 1998 which was aimed at addressing the needs of communities faced with biomass resource problems.

e) Gender and energy in Namibia

Globally, women's role in energy has been underestimated due to the stereotype that women are not capable of building, operating and maintaining sophisticated technologies, but their role in technology has been overlooked. More professional women entering the energy sector act as role models in efforts to increase the role of women in renewable energy. Due increasing access by women to science and technology education, more women are adopting non-traditional work role in the energy sector. As consumers, women have a role to play in product development and a number of projects where women were involved in design of energy efficient products have proved to be successful. As entrepreneurs, women can be successful renewable energy entrepreneurs.

In Namibia, most energy sources consumed at household level includes either electricity or traditional fuels such as wood, charcoal and animal waste. Inter-censal Demographic Survey, 2016 indicated that 50% of Namibians use traditional fuel sources such as firewood as the main source of energy for cooking. The use of traditional sources for fuel is mostly in rural than urban areas. The rural areas accounted for 85% of fuelwood (NSA, 2016) compared to 89.1% in 2001 (NSA, 2001) while 55.5% households in urban areas used electricity as their main source of energy for cooking. Also, 21.5% of households in urban areas use fuelwood for cooking in 2016. Kuvango West region has the highest percentage of household using fuelwood for cooking (91%).

In Namibia it is the women's responsibility to fetch fuel wood for cooking and heating. In rural areas, fuel wood is collected from communally owned land which involves travelling time. For example, 90% of the Ovamboland use firewood for cooking while urban areas like katutura the use of electricity for cooking is common. The substitution for fuelwood includes cow dung and crop residue. Scarcity of fuelwood due to deforestation contributes to households reduce their energy consumption while households with higher income may switch to modern forms of energy such as coal or kerosene. Charcoal, apart from providing the much needed source of energy for cooking, it is also a source of income for households involved in charcoal business.

Different role players exist within energy supply value chain, however, they pay little attention to differential access by men and women suggesting lack of gender sensitivity data and programmes aimed at increasing access. The lack of gender segregated data add to the challenges of gender mainstreaming in energy.

1.7. Proposed Programme Gender Action Plan

The following is the proposed Gender Action Plan for Climate Finance Facility, and the proposed plan should set the tone for how gender matters can be addressed when implementing projects that will be funded through this finance facility. The proposed Gender Action Plan should be for the projects that will be financed under this facility.

Each of the projects to be financed shall apply a gender mainstreaming approach in line with the DBSA gender requirements described in the Environmental and Social Safeguard Standards. In addition the programme shall apply a gender mainstreaming approach in line with the GCF requirements for gender mainstreaming. Internally within the DBSA the organization has three staff members dedicated to Gender Mainstreaming at a project and corporate level. The DBSA Gender Specialist assigned to projects will oversee the work done by the Gender Specialists appointed for the specific projects in this programme.

For each project, project sponsors will be obligated to prepare a project-specific Gender Action Plan, and for each project a project-specific Gender Specialist will be assigned by the project sponsor at their own cost to oversee the facilitation and implementation of the project-specific Gender Action Plan.

The table below provides a high level Gender Action Plan for the facility.

Table 1: Gender Action Plan for Climate Finance Facility

Activities	Indicators and Targets	Timelines	Responsibilities
Output 1: Understanding of existing gender frameworks and existing genders practices and structures			
Review country-specific (South African, Lesotho, Namibia, Swaziland) gender policies, legislation and frameworks	Portfolio of research undertaken and presentation of results	Prior to project implementation	Project Sponsor
Review of the regional (SADC) gender policy for alignment with country-specific gender policies and frameworks			
Alignment of regional and country-specific gender policies with GCF and DBSA Safeguard Standards			
Output 2: Project Sponsors have an appreciation of country-specific (South African, Namibia, Lesotho, Swaziland) gender policies and framework			
Familiarize with best practise gender policies and practices	Number of workshops and information sessions held	Prior to project implementation and during the course of project implementation	Project Sponsor/Gender Specialist
Mainstream gender considerations during project implementation and operations	Portfolio of initiatives/process and tasks undertaken to mainstream gender in projects		
Development of indicators for the measurement of outputs	Portfolio of project-specific indicators to be used to gauge implementation results	Prior to project implementation	Project Sponsor/Gender Specialist
Output 3: Enhanced institutional capacity for the creation, formalization and promotion of women-led businesses			
Undertake market research to determine and identify women led contractors/SMMEs to be included in geothermal projects. Collaborations with already existing NGOs and women-led organizations can be made.	Number of contractors/SMMEs identified and contacted	Prior to project implementation	Project Sponsor
Seek to develop partnerships with vocational/technical training schools,	Number of partnerships formed with training centres/schools		

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to enhance women's access to developing technical skills			
Provide relevant training to women appointed as local labour	Number of women trained and accreditation level of the training offered.		
Review the needs of women led cooperatives to identify areas where capacity building is required to allow for success	Number of Issues/Areas of needs as indicated by women-led cooperatives	In the project cycle	Project Sponsor
Output 4: Women-led contractors and SMMEs appointed for programme work			
Require that at least 40% of women led contractors and SMMEs be appointed as part of service providers. Collaborations with already existing NGOs and women-led organizations can be made to help identify women-owned vendors.	Number of women-owned SMMEs appointed Proof of ownership to be shown by shareholding. SMMEs are to be 100% women owned, or >70% female shareholding	Prior to project implementation and during the course of project implementation	Project Sponsor
Emphasize on the employment of women at project level, for the implementation of project objectives	Number of women and men employed through jobs created from the project: at least 40% women hired Proof of review of employment criteria to allow for gender sensitivity and inclusion of women	Prior to project implementation and during M&E phase of project	
Emphasize the need for women at senior levels/management levels of companies at construction and operational phases	Portfolio indicating company structure, indicating positions held and persons holding such positions	Prior to project implementation and during M&E phase of project	
Output 5: Inclusion of women at community level structures			
Require that Community Trusts have female representation	Portfolio of evidence indicating structure of community trusts, including structure of shareholding	During implementation phase and Monitoring and Evaluation phase	Project sponsor
Require that stakeholder engagement sessions include	Proof of stakeholder engagement meetings,	Prior to project implementation	



women. This is to include discussions on electricity pricing.	indicating signed list of participants		
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CIO Gender Analysis and Integration Action Plan

1.0 Introduction

This Gender Analysis and Gender Integration Action Plan (“GIAP”) has been prepared in order to present an overview of relevant gender and (renewable) energy issues in the thirteen programming countries included in the Fund Proposal being submitted to the Green Climate Fund by the Accredited Entity (“AE”) FMO on behalf of Climate Fund Managers (“CFM”) and Climate Investor One (“CIO”). It goes on to describe in the form of an action plan the activities that will be undertaken by CFM to integrate gender in CIO investment activities.

The Action Plan is intended to support the Fund Manager in fulfilling its commitments to responsible investment in accordance with the Responsible Investment Framework and CIO’s Responsible Investment Policy¹. In particular, the GIAP is based on the Framework’s commitment to “Do No Harm” and “Do Good” and the policy’s commitments. These include “avoiding and otherwise minimizing and mitigating the impacts of its investments on local communities” (Do No Harm) and “*maximizing opportunities for positive...social benefits to be realized*” (Do Good). In this sense the GIAP provides a gender lens to the arrangements that already exist for addressing the social dimensions of CIO financing.

2.0 Overview of Gender and Energy in Programming Countries²

2.1 Introduction: Gender and Energy³

Sustainable development has become a central part of national policies, strategies and development plans for many countries. With the launch of the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) came a renewed focus on addressing energy poverty of billions of people as universal access to energy was included as a separate SDG (SDG 7: *Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all*).

However, while both poor women and men suffer from energy poverty, women are disproportionately affected as their access to energy services is further curtailed by unequal power relations: “*Access to energy is gendered: it is determined by intra-household decision-making, women’s social position and the value attached to women’s labour*” (Danielsen, 2012: iv). Thus, women’s capacity to participate in the energy sector and ability to voice their needs within the energy system are limited. So long as global energy related issues are not addressed through a gender lens, and the inclusion of women not prioritized within efforts to achieve universal access to sustainable energy services, energy poverty will continue to undermine the realization of the SDGs, as those most deprived of energy services will be left behind.

The purpose of this summary document is to briefly capture existing knowledge regarding gender and renewable energy as well as offer key insights from the gender assessments carried out for thirteen countries (Uganda, Nigeria, Morocco, Kenya, Malawi, Madagascar, Djibouti, Mauritius, Cameroon, Burundi, Mongolia, Vietnam, and the Philippines). The objective of these assessments is to present key gender and energy dimensions, based on available data from a scan. Before presenting key insights from the country gender assessments, we include a brief overview of the

¹ These have been developed in accordance of the international standards, particularly IFC Performance Standards, where the GIAP outlines how these standards will be operationalized and extended to ensure women intentionally benefit from increased access to energy.

² This section is based on detailed gender and energy profiles for each programming country. Key insights as they relate to the renewable energy sector are included in Annex A.

³ See Annex B for glossary of terms.



gender dimensions within the renewable energy sector, specifically in low-to-middle income countries.

2.2 Literature Overview

2.2.1 Access to Energy

The focus of most energy studies addressing gender-related issues has been on household level access to electricity and cooking energy (Orlando, Janik, Vaidya, Angelou, Zumbyte, & Adams, 2018; Köhlin, Sills, Pattanayak, & Wilfong, 2011). It is well recorded that electricity access has a positive effect on poverty reduction, household income and access to and advances in education (Orlando *et al*, 2018; Köhlin *et al*, 2011). For example, improved lighting can benefit women at a household level (reducing the difficulty of women's unpaid labour) and at a community level (improving women's safety and mobility in public spaces). However, due to a combination of factors including women's under-representation in consultations about energy services, including the design and delivery of such services, women continue to face challenges in benefitting from energy services (Danielsen, 2012).

Gender issues are not only related to access to energy or simply the numerical representation of women in the sector. Women's access and participation in energy-related decision making need to be addressed as well. Understanding gender-related challenges throughout the energy system could provide the foundation for various actors (e.g. civil society, public and private sector, policymakers) to develop inclusive and equitable solutions through programmes, regulations and legislation (Orlando *et al*, 2018; Danielsen, 2012). This is especially a key step in the ongoing clean energy transition, as the energy sector is moving towards renewable resources. According to The International Renewable Energy Agency the increase in funding for renewable energy will potentially increase job opportunities throughout the value chain for both women and men (IREA, 2013). Therefore, it is the opportune moment to be conscious of women as the minority in the energy sector and not to perpetuate gender disparities, in order for the energy sector to truly become renewable and sustainable.

2.2.2 Challenges for Women in the Renewable Energy Sector

Limited gender disaggregated data and studies pose a challenge to accurately assess trends with regards to gender and renewable energy (Resurrección and Boyland, 2017; Köhlin *et al*, 2011). A key future step lies in reducing this knowledge gap by collecting and sharing data on gender and the renewable energy sector, with the aim of raising awareness on gender equity and increasing employment and participation opportunities for women at all levels (Orlando *et al*, 2018).

Unequal power relations embedded in intra-household decision-making affect women's ability to benefit from renewable energy technologies. For example, due to women's limited tenure and property rights, solar systems, wind turbines, bio-fuel plantations etc. that require land are inherently controlled by men. It is also important to note that not all renewable energy sources are sufficiently catering to women's needs, e.g. the output of solar home systems is too low for cooking (Danielsen, 2012).

Generally, women are not well represented in the renewable energy sector (as well as other sectors that are key for establishing a green economy, such as construction, manufacturing and public transportation). They are often not included or thought of as key stakeholders (Resurrección and Boyland, 2017). Cultural, traditional and context-specific norms continue to contribute to limitations that women face with regards to their participation in the renewable energy sector, especially in technical and management positions (Orlando *et al*, 2018).

According to IRENA (2013) women specifically encounter three major limitations to their involvement in renewable energy: skills, mobility and self-perception. Lack of or limited education for women and girls negatively affects their opportunities to continue into higher education and their ability to acquire relevant skills (e.g. related to science, technology or engineering) to participate in the energy sector (Resurrección and Boyland, 2017; Danielsen, 2012; Orlando *et al*, 2018).

2.2.3 Making the case: Gender Diversity in the Renewable Energy Sector

Existing data gives some indication of new opportunities in renewable energy for women to access energy services. Renewable energy options such as wind, solar and hydropower can provide alternatives to diesel engines and generators as low-emission sources of electricity and motorized power. As women are often involved in activities that use motorized power, such as pumping water and milling grain, their knowledge and experience can contribute to the refinement of renewable energy technologies (Clancy, 2009; Dutta *et al.*, 2017; UNIDO, 2015. When women are involved in such innovation processes, evidence shows that they also can develop new skills and livelihoods as energy entrepreneurs (Danielsen, 2012).

The challenges in increasing women's participation mostly lie in predominant gender biases that translate into various forms of discrimination in the energy sector, and in society at large (Resurrección and Boyland, 2017). In a growing renewable energy sector, aiming for equal opportunities and integration expands the number and capacity of the labour force to meet the demand for different skills at various levels of the value chain (Orlando *et al*, 2018). This is an opportunity for the sector to foster a more gender inclusive environment. Furthermore, including women in the process of planning, implementing and managing energy services (through a gender mainstreaming lens to be applied in the activities listed under Component 2 of the action plan included in this document) may lead to more empowering opportunities than the use of renewable energy technology in itself (Resurrección and Boyland, 2017).

Women are the ones mostly affected by energy poverty in low to middle income countries, where access to energy is limited (Resurrección and Boyland, 2017). It is women who often carry the burden, for example, of collecting fuelwood, which hinders women's and girls' ability to access and advance in education or vocational training that increase their employment opportunities. Creating opportunities for women's participation in using and developing renewable energy technologies is imperative in confronting energy access and poverty (Resurrección and Boyland, 2017). Women stand to benefit from increased access to energy in the home and as stakeholders and workers.

Financing that is not gender sensitive has the potential to worsen gender disparities and the position of women. Such potential adverse effects include, but are not limited to:

- Further excluding women from the formal economy and further entrenching them in non-productive sectors of the informal economy by limiting their access to productive resources such as energy.
- Increasing women's workload with lack of access to labour saving/efficiency technologies.
- Further marginalising women from decisions that affect their lives by continuing their absence from decision making spheres at all levels of society

2.3 Gender Country Assessment Findings

Presented below are highlights from the thirteen country gender assessments.

2.3.1 Renewable Energy sector: key challenges and opportunities

There is renewable energy potential in the countries assessed with all having hydropower, solar, and wind power potential. In some cases, such as in Djibouti, the electricity sector is underexplored and there has been little progress for several decades. In the case of Kenya, on the other hand, the country's electricity supply is among the most sustainable in the world (80% of electricity comes from renewable sources). At the same time, however, a substantial proportion of Kenya's renewable energy resources is still unexploited, such as hydropower and geothermal resources.

Despite this renewable energy potential, coupled with the growth in demand for energy in all thirteen countries, the renewable sector continues to be underdeveloped. For the most part, the primary energy challenge is limited access to electricity (e.g. lack of affordable electricity connections, an under-developed grid). In some countries, such as in Nigeria⁴ and Burundi⁵, this is caused by insufficient in-country financial resources, capacity and trained personnel. The consequences include negative impacts on consumer health, education and quality of life (ADB, 2012; Dutta 2016; Dutta *et al*, 2017). People living in rural areas are particularly negatively affected as rural populations generally continue to rely on biomass; people living in urban areas often (but not always) have better access to electricity.

Overall, the renewable energy sector faces a number of challenges primarily related to the availability of financing, the regulatory framework for renewable energy, the high cost of renewable energy technologies and public awareness. For some countries, such as Mongolia, Morocco, and Mauritius, energy dependence can be source of economic vulnerability, as they mostly rely on imported petrol and fossil fuels.

Most countries are keen to start a transition towards renewable energy, but face different challenges in access to finances, infrastructure or capacity to implement large scale renewable energy plans. As a response, some countries provide an enabling environment for private sector and foreign investments. The objective is to boost the energy sector to improve inadequate infrastructures, create jobs, and advance their economic footprint. For example, the Philippines is participating in the Global Energy Efficiency Accelerator Platform (an initiative of the UN launched Sustainable Energy for All (SEforALL) campaign) that promotes public-private partnerships in energy efficiency. On a national scale, most of the countries have developed energy plans, policies and/or targets, with some planning to change electrical energy sources and expand generating capacity in line with energy security goals.

2.3.2 Women as stakeholders in the renewable energy sector

When it comes to governance and accessibility to energy, most gender assessments highlight existing gender disparities between women and men. Often men are considered heads of households which make them decision-makers with regards to the use and management of energy resources. Therefore, women tend to remain marginalized from decision-making processes in relation to energy. Additionally, women in low-to-middle income countries frequently are at a disadvantage when it comes to accessing education and/or technical skills, which in turn limits their career development opportunities. On a positive note, some country assessments show that initial steps are on the way, not only to increase women's representation and participation in government positions in the sector, but also the incorporation of gender into energy policies.

⁴ https://www.se4all-africa.org/fileadmin/uploads/se4all/Documents/Country_RAGAs/Nigeria_RAGA_EN_Released.pdf (Retrieved 14 August 2018)

⁵ <https://www.se4all-africa.org/seforall-in-africa/country-data/burundi/> [Retrieved 14 August 2018]

Seven of the countries assessed, to some extent, include gender within their national policies related to renewable energy indicating some awareness of gender specific. Certain countries, such as Uganda, are taking steps to mainstream gender in their climate change policy whereas others have made more effort to include and make gender concerns visible in policy documents. For example, Burundi's National Energy Policy provides an elaborate section on gender equality, highlighting the importance of meeting women's needs and supporting solutions inclusive of women's point of view (especially in household energy usage and development of alternative energy, among other topics. These policies, in other words, tend to focus on women in their domestic roles as end-users of energy (e.g. cooking or heating), with the aim of reducing women's workload and improving their health and quality of life. However, they fail to recognize, support and empower women as workers or entrepreneurs within the energy sector.

The country assessments shed light on women as end-users as well as women as workers and energy entrepreneurs. Highlights of findings include the following:

- *Women as end-users in the renewable energy sector*
Electric light is the first energy service provided after homes are connected to the grid, which permits women to distribute chores such as cleaning and cooking throughout the day from early morning to evening. Access to reliable and stable electricity can translate into time-saving, thus allowing for increased time spent on personal care, parenting, learning and work diversification. For example, in Morocco, evidence shows that rural electrification has had important impacts on the living conditions of rural people, especially on girls' education. In fact, girls coming from 'connected families' were attending school for a longer period than they used to do and longer than girls from non-connected families.
- *Women as entrepreneurs and workers in the renewable energy sector*
According to the assessments, women mostly engage in informal employment (e.g. textile, crafts, food processing, small-scale farming and retail trading) which contributes to the household income. Frequently, such enterprises are home run. Energy costs represent a significant input for such enterprises. Therefore, there is opportunity for benefits to be realized from access to affordable energy in the form of time and cost savings which in turn may increase their profitability.

As previously mentioned, women's direct employment opportunities in energy infrastructures is often limited. Findings from the countries assessed show a lower number of women workers than men in the energy sector, both in the public and private sectors. Men dominate the energy sector, and they also tend to hold higher management and technical positions. The energy sector can create employment opportunities however, energy infrastructure projects have mainly attracted men. Even when women are involved in the energy sector, they may still face legal restrictions concerning their employment in the electricity and gas sector, as is the case for Nigeria and Mongolia.

2.4 Concluding remark

The CIO Funds are focused solely on investments in renewable energy projects in emerging markets, with a primary focus on clean energy in the form of wind, solar and run-of-river hydropower projects. At its current target level of funding, CIO endeavours to develop, construct and operate up to twenty projects located in Africa, Asia and Latin America. These projects will constitute an expected additional capacity of 1,133 MW and generate an additional 3,200 GWh of

additional electricity. They will reach the equivalent of 7 million people whilst avoiding greenhouse gas emissions by 1.8 million tCO₂ annually.

Given that one of the primary energy challenges is limited access to electricity, as well as the availability of financing, CIO is well-placed to support countries in responding to this challenge. Furthermore, in recognizing the gender-related challenges in the renewable energy sector, CIO is positioned, through the interventions undertaken at project level, to support these countries in their efforts to respond to UN SDG 5 (Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls). This will be achieved through a combination of Do Good and Do No Harm activities, as described in the GIAP presented in the following pages.

3.0 Gender Integration Action Plan (GIAP)

The GIAP details activities to integrate gender concerns in CIO financing of renewable energy projects. It provides actions to be taken at the wider program level of CIO, providing a framework for securing Do No Harm and Do Good principles across all funded projects, while also laying the basis for integrating gender concerns at project-level ensuring the Responsible Investment Framework's principles are embedded at the project and community level. It is CIO's intention that the GIAP will be applied to all projects in the listed countries. All projects will be required to focus on the activities included in the GIAP (in particular under component 2). The action plan may be modified where considered necessary (e.g. on the basis of local stakeholder engagement and the environmental and social impact assessment) to reflect the local context.

The GIAP broadly recognizes, as revealed in the gender and energy country profiles, that women more generally, have as much to gain from increased access to energy as men but given their relative social position, will likely not profit as men from the access to energy resources. Accordingly, the emphasis of the GIAP is on women, and ensuring harm mitigation as well as equitably benefitting from CIO projects.

Broader social inclusion issues are incorporated in this approach through the operational definition of gender being used. CFM understands gender to refer to the social relations between women and men; thereby the need to work with women and men to ensure both equitably benefit. The operational definition also recognizes that women and men are not homogeneous categories and that their social relations of gender are mediated by other intersecting social markers such as ethnicity, class, ability, and religion.

With this focus on women, the GIAP employs an analytical and programming framework of women as stakeholders, workers, and end-users (or 'beneficiaries'). This framework is structured around three key time-based components: (1) Program inception, (2) Project development and construction, and (3) Monitoring and Reporting. These are aligned with the funding phases of CIO financing within its Development Fund and Construction Equity Fund (see Table 1).

At the project level, the timeframes in which the different actions will be undertaken will be determined on a case-by-case basis, and will be aligned with the project phases and the overall project schedule. Likewise, specific targets will also be established for the different actions on a case-by-case basis, once projects are under development. The localized action plan will be updated to reflect these targets and the timelines.

Component 1 Program Policy and Arrangements

1.1. Capacity strengthening of CFM staff

CFM staff involved in project development and construction will participate in a training workshop. This workshop has two principle objectives: (1) to strengthen participants' knowledge and awareness regarding gender and gender integration in renewable energy; and (2) provide the opportunity to discuss and agree on CFM's corporate commitments relating to gender and social inclusion (refer to Section 1.2 below). In relation to the first objective, the workshop will provide participants with sufficient capacity and understanding around gender and gender integration in RE to be able to articulate how and why gender-related considerations need to be incorporated into all stages of the project in which CIO Funds are invested. This activity will provide coherence and consistency in the language, approach and implementation that CFM will adopt in its projects.

1.2. Gender and social inclusion policy and arrangements

Following the workshop conducted with CFM staff, a Gender and Social Inclusion Policy will be developed. This will include a statement of commitments as well as the arrangements required for fulfilling these commitments. This policy will be implemented through CFM's existing Environmental and Social Management System ("ESMS"). The ESMS will be revised as needed to incorporate any additional arrangements that are considered necessary. The policy will be developed in accordance with CFM's existing commitments included in its Responsible Investment Policy and with international principles of responsible business e.g. OECD, UN Voluntary principles of business and human rights, among others.

1.3. Establish program gender integration infrastructure (GII)

Gender integration infrastructure will be established in the form of external gender and social inclusion specialists who will provide advice and project-specific support as needed, including undertaking due diligence of planned investments. This will support the implementation of the Gender and Social Inclusion Policy and GIAP. Gender specialists will work with the Head of ESG to provide specialist support at the project level.

Component 2 Project-Level Gender Integration

2.1 Recruitment of women in CIO-funded projects

Recognising the role that CIO projects can play in the employment of women in its projects, targeted employment opportunities will be advertised through channels accessible to women (as well as other vulnerable groups) for individual projects.

2.2 Stakeholder engagement and consultation at project level (gender component of ESIA)

Responding to global principles of dialogue for responsible business and finance, community dialogue strives for at least a "consultation" level of participation⁶ and includes government and private sector. Community dialogue follows special international provisions (e.g. Free, Prior and Informed Consent of Indigenous Peoples, OECD principles, etc.) as well as national regulations protecting regions where vulnerable populations live e.g. ethnic minorities. These

⁶ There are different types of participation: cooptation, cooperation consultation, collaboration co-learning and collective action. These vary according to the type of outsiders' control. Cooptation, cooperation and even consultation have a high level of outsider's control. They imply tokenism, assignation of tasks without listening to others and even manipulation. Ideally the social inclusive community engagement policy/strategy will use a collaboration type of participation, where opinions are heard and priorities are set together but responsibility remains on the outsiders for directing the process (adapted from Biggs, 1985, Pretty, 1995, Cornwall 1998 and 2008).

will be taken into consideration according to the context of each country where the project will be implemented.

Multi-stakeholder and community dialogue act as a building block for all gender and social inclusion activities and will be incorporated into the Environmental and Social Impact Assessment (“ESIA”) as a distinct activity. Community dialogue is key in addressing and mitigating potential negative project’s impact from a gender perspective. It also contributes to the development of the Do Good Programme for each Project as it builds on stakeholder interest in gender mainstreaming and future gender specific activities in the project.

2.3 Engendering stakeholder engagement plan (SEP)

In accordance with the IFC Performance Standards, a Stakeholder Engagement Plan (“SEP”) will be developed for each project to guide engagement during project construction, operation and decommissioning. During the development of the SEP, gender concerns (as well as opportunities) will be identified (e.g. through stakeholder mapping and consultation) and these will be incorporated into the SEP.

The development of the SEP will take account of international and national frameworks, regulations and best practices governing stakeholder engagement. Key barriers to, and opportunities for, gender aware stakeholder engagement will be identified. Equitable representation of women and their concerns is also ensured in the SEP. The development of the SEP (as well as broader stakeholder engagement conducted as part of the ESIA) will support the promotion of women’s participation in project activities.

The grievance mechanism, developed as part of the SEP, is designed to be gender responsive and ensure confidentiality and safety. The grievance mechanism will take into consideration specific gender concerns related to the Project’s impacts.

2.4 Design social inclusive management and monitoring actions (ESMP)

As part of the ESIA, potential gender impacts of the project are identified (Activity 2.2) and will serve as inputs in the development of the management and monitoring activities that will be included in the Project’s Environmental and Social Management Plan (“ESMP”).

Where appropriate, the identification of management and monitoring measurements will be undertaken as participatory community dialogue using a gender and socially inclusive approach. This approach will identify how the community participates and benefits (mitigation strategy); ensuring that it is an inclusive, representative, transparent and an open (genuine) process⁷.

2.5 Community-based women’s empowerment initiatives

As a key gender-specific Do Good activity of the project women stand-alone initiatives targeting women in governance, as workers and entrepreneurs will be implemented. These initiatives include (to be confirmed based on the needs assessment conducted as part of the development of the Do Good programme): women’s enterprise development, women’s professional and skills development in vocational activities relevant to the sector (e.g.,

⁷ Ibid.

engineers, maintenance and services), and community dialogue in support of women's empowerment initiatives.

Component 3 Monitoring and Evaluation

3.1 Develop M&E plan at program and project level

A monitoring and evaluation plan will be developed that includes baseline and end-line gender disaggregated data and analysis. It will be aligned with CIO's ESMS and project-level ESMP. The plan will consist of the following activities to ensure gender integration and implementation of the GIAP:

3.1.1 Reviews of performance against GIAP and gender responsive indicators

A mid-term audit will be conducted by a gender expert to assess the performance of the project in relation to implementation of the GIAP and performance against the gender-responsive indicators. In addition, all project companies in construction and operation will be required to report to CFM on performance against such indicators on a routine basis.

3.1.2 Monitoring implementation of Stakeholder Engagement Plan and ESMP

Implementation of the SEP and the ESMP will be monitored on a periodic basis as part of the routine performance monitoring of Project Companies. Monitoring responds to activities 2.4 and 2.5.

3.1.3 Grievance mechanism monitoring

Appropriate and prompt responses to complaints and grievances will be reported and monitored in accordance with the grievance mechanism that forms part of the SEP. Gender-related complaints will be monitored as a separate category within the follow up activity.

3.2 Conduct final evaluation with base line and end line data

A final evaluation will be conducted of implementation of the Gender and Social Inclusion Policy, the GIAP and the implementing arrangements (included in the ESMS) for each project prior to CIO's exit. This will be based on relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact and sustainability with a particular focus on the gender-related aspects of Do No Harm and Do Good activities.

Table 1 CIO Gender Integration Action Plan

Phase ¹	Components and Main activities	Description	Output Indicators
Fund Manager	1. Program Policy and Arrangements		
	1.1. Capacity strengthening (CS) of key CFM staff.	Key staff training workshop in The Hague.	Number of workshop participants (disaggregated by gender).
	1.2. Gender and social inclusion policy and arrangements.	Develop CFM gender policy and amend existing CIO ESMS to incorporate gender requirements and implementation arrangements.	Endorsement by CFM CEO of Gender and Social Inclusion Policy. and Strategy.
	1.3. Establish programme gender integration infrastructure.	Establish network of gender experts to support in implementation of GIAP.	Established network.
Project Development and Construction	2. Project-Level Gender Integration		
	2.1 Recruitment of women in CIO-funded projects.	Targeted employment opportunities will be advertised through channels accessible to women (as well as other vulnerable groups) for individual projects.	- Number of full-time equivalent female employees. - Estimated number of indirect jobs for women.
	2.2 Engagement and consultation with relevant stakeholders at project level (gender component of ESIA).	Community and multi-stakeholder dialogue to inform gender and social inclusion activities as part of the ESIA.	Number and diversity of stakeholders consulted.
	2.3 Engendering Stakeholder Engagement Plan (SEP).	Incorporation of women and their concerns in ongoing engagement activities.	Number and diversity of stakeholders agreeing to the SEP.
	2.4 Design social inclusive management and monitoring actions (gender component of ESMP).	Identification of management and monitoring measures to be included in the ESMP through participatory community dialogue.	Number of gender responsive provisions in the plan
	2.5 Community-based women's empowerment initiatives.	Support for stand-alone initiatives targeting women.	Changes in number of: - Women-led entrepreneurs supported by CIO projects

Phase ¹	Components and Main activities	Description	Output Indicators
			- Women attending skills-based training courses supported by CIO projects.
Investment Lifetime	3 Monitoring and Evaluation		
	3.1 Development of M&E plan at program and project level.	A monitoring and evaluation plan will be developed that includes baseline and end-line gender disaggregated data and analysis.	Documented monitoring and evaluation plan.
	3.1.1 Reviews of performance against GIAP and gender responsive indicators.	A mid-term audit will be conducted by a gender expert to assess the performance of the project in relation to implementation of the GIAP and performance against the gender-responsive indicators. In addition, all project companies in construction and operation will be required to report to CFM on performance against such indicators on a routine basis.	- Completion of one audit per project and follow up on corrective actions. - Routine reports submitted by Project Company to CFM.
	3.1.2 Monitoring implementation of gender-related actions included in the SEP and ESMP.	Implementation of the SEP and the ESMP will be monitored on a periodic basis as part of the routine performance monitoring of Project Companies. Monitoring corresponds to activities 2.3 and 2.4.	Monitoring reports.
	3.1.3 Grievance mechanism monitoring.	Appropriate and prompt responses to complaints and grievances will be reported and monitored in accordance with the grievance mechanism that forms part of the SEP. Gender-related complaints will be monitored as a separate category within the follow up activity.	Number of complaints (disaggregated by gender) raised through the grievance mechanism and evidence of satisfactory close-out.

Phase ¹	Components and Main activities	Description	Output Indicators
	3.2 Conduct final evaluation with base-line and end-line data.	Final (pre-exit) evaluation conducted of implementation of ESMS and program Gender and Social Inclusion Policy and Strategy based on relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, impact and sustainability.	Evaluation report and CFM board response to findings.

Notes:

- 1 In the context of this document, 'Phase' refers to the stage in the investment lifetime, including Fund Manager-level activities.
- 2 Budget estimates are based on the assumption of one project per country for each of the thirteen countries.
- 3 Budget estimates may increase or decrease depending on the specific project context and are for guidance only.

Annex B Glossary of Selected Gender Terms

Empowerment	The process through which people take control and action in order to overcome obstacles of structural inequality which have previously put them in a disadvantaged position.
Gender	Sex refers to the biological differences between male and female bodies. Gender, on the other hand, refers to the socially-constructed attitudes, values, roles and responsibilities of women and men, in a given culture and location. These attitudes, values and roles are influenced by perceptions and expectations arising from cultural, political, economic, social and religious factors, as well as from custom, law, class, ethnicity and individual or institutional bias. Gender attitudes and behaviors are learnt and change over time
Gender analysis	The close examination of a problem or situation in order to identify to differences in the gender roles, activities, needs, and available opportunities of men and women. Gender analysis of a development program involves identifying the gender issues within the problem which is being addressed and in the obstacles to progress, so that these issues can be addressed in all aspects of the program - in project objectives, in the choice of intervention strategy and in the methods of program implementation.
Gender-aware policy	A policy which takes into account the social relationships of women and men as well as the differences in their needs, as opposed to a policy that is gender neutral and implicitly assumes that women and men have the same needs.
Gender blindness	The failure to recognize that the needs of men and women are different. A gender-blind approach assumes that gender is not an influencing factor in projects, programs or policies.
Gender division of labour	Is an overall societal pattern where women are allotted one set of gender roles and men another. An unequal gender division of labor refers to a division of labor in which there is an unequal gender division of reward. Discrimination against women in this sense occurs when women get most of the burden of labor, and most of the unpaid labor, but men collect most of the income and rewards resulting from labor. In many countries, the most obvious pattern in the gender division of labor is that women are mostly confined to unpaid domestic work and unpaid food production, whereas men dominate in cash crop production and waged employment.
Gender equality	Means that there is no discrimination on grounds of a person's sex in the allocation of resources or benefits, or in the access to services. Equality exists when both men and women are attributed equal social value, equal rights and equal responsibilities, and have equal access to the means (resources, opportunities) to exercise them. Gender equality may be measured in terms of whether there is equality of opportunity, or equality of results.
Gender equity	Means fairness and justice in the distribution of benefits and responsibilities. Gender equity is the process of being fair to women and men. To ensure fairness, measures must often be available to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent men and women from otherwise operating on a level playing field. Equity leads to equality.
Gender gap	A gender gap is an observable and sometimes measurable gap between men and women in terms of socioeconomic indicators, such as ownership of land, attendance at school or participation in the labor force, which is understood to be unjust and provides evidence of a gender issue to be addressed.
Gender mainstreaming	Is the systematic process of ensuring that women and men have equal access and control over resources, development benefits and decision-making at all stages of the development process through ensuring that the respective needs, interests and priorities of women and men are integrated into in all policies, programs and projects. It requires: (a) continuous assessment of the implications and effects of energy-related projects and policies on women and men; (b) designing and

	implementing strategies and actions that aim to better address the needs of women and men, improve their well-being, and facilitate their participation in the development process; and (c) a mechanism for ensuring this is done and for reporting to managers.
Gender neutral and gender blind	Gender-neutral policies are not specifically aimed at either men or women and are assumed to affect both sexes equally. However, they may actually be gender-blind. Gender-blindness means ignoring the different roles, responsibilities, capabilities, needs and priorities of women and men. Gender-blind policies are based on information derived from men’s activities and/or assume those affected by the policy have the same (male) needs and interests.
Gender relations	The social relationships and power distribution between men and women in both the private (personal) and public spheres.
Gender roles	Gender roles are sets of behaviour assigned to men and women respectively, according to their cultural norms and traditions that determine which activities, tasks and responsibilities are perceived as male and which female. Gender roles are affected by age, class, race, ethnicity and religion, and by the geographical, economic and political environment. These roles shape identity, determining how we are perceived by others, how we are expected to think and act as women and men. Changes in gender roles often occur in response to changing economic, natural or political circumstances, including development efforts.
Gender-disaggregated data	For a gender analysis, all data should be separated by sex in order to allow differences between women and men in needs, priorities, action and results to be identified ⁸ .

⁸ Source: Mainstreaming Gender in the Energy Sector Training Manual Developed by: Ministry of Energy Mozambique, Embassy of Norway in Mozambique, Norad and ENERGIA International Network on Gender and Sustainable Energy. 2012 <https://www.energia.org/cm2/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/Mozambique-Manual-Mainstreaming-Gender-in-the-Energy-Sector-Training-Manual-final.pdf>

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