

Gender Assessment

E-Mobility Program for Sustainable Cities in Latin America and the Caribbean

1. INTRODUCTION

Transportation is not gender neutral. Men and women have different socio-economic roles and responsibilities, which are associated with different patterns of use, access and transport needs. Inadequate transport systems can restrict women's access to education, economic opportunities and healthcare.

The nine countries included in the Program *E-Mobility Program for Sustainable Cities in Latin America and the Caribbean* - Barbados, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Jamaica, Panama, Paraguay and Uruguay- present similar development indicators in education, employment, entrepreneurship and political representation. However, significant gender gaps continue to exist for women due to cultural and structural barriers in these countries that limit their participation in the electromobility sector.

2. GENDER CONTEXT

Legal, regulatory and institutional framework. The nine countries have ratified or acceded the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)¹ and its optional protocol. They also have ratified the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women (Convention of Belem Do Para)². Their constitutions address equality before the law and states no one can be discriminated against on the basis of sex. Most countries have performed a normative reform effort to establish an adequate framework for development and have some specific public institution for promoting gender equity. However, normative advances still face a deeply patriarchal and androcentric culture that is reflected in many social and institutional practices.

3. SOCIOECONOMIC INDICATORS

Education. The literacy rate average 95.5% in the countries of the program and is similar between men and women in all the countries except in Jamaica where the gender gap reaches 9 points of difference (M: 92.7% H: 83.4%). (See Table 1 for detailed information on the indicators described in this section).

¹ CEDAW is an international treaty adopted in 1979 by the United Nations General Assembly. Described as an international bill of rights for women, it was instituted on 3 September 1981 and has been ratified by 189 states.

² The Convention of Belem do Pará is an international human rights instrument adopted by the Inter-American Commission of Women (CIM) of the Organization of American States at a conference held in Belém do Pará, Brazil on 9 June 1994. It is the first legally binding international treaty that criminalizes all forms of violence against women, especially sexual violence

Regarding educational attainment, most of the countries present educational gender gaps for men. In primary education, most countries have similar enrolment for women and men, with the highest percentage in Barbados, Costa Rica and Uruguay with more than 95% and the lowest in Jamaica with 81%. In secondary education. The number of women enrolled is higher in all the countries with gender gaps between 8 and 1 points. Paraguay has the lowest enrolment (M:66% M: 65.8%) and the smallest gender gap. Barbados has the higher enrolment and one of the biggest gender gaps (M: 96.8% M: 90.6%). In tertiary education, all the countries present a higher number of enrollments among women with large differences in the number of people enrolled between them, for example, Barbados has 90.6% of women enrolled in tertiary education and 40.3% of men, while in Jamaica 43.7% of women access this type of education compared to 19.9% of men.

Though the percentage of women enrolled in tertiary education is superior to the number of men, the type of education elected is very different, with a low representation of women in STEM programs or engineering careers. Women represent between 6.75% and 12.19% of attainment in STEM and between 4% and 10% in engineering.

Employment. Although women have a higher rate of education than men, they face major inequalities to access employment. All countries present gaps in the participation of women in the labor force. These gaps are wider in some countries such as Costa Rica where only 58.3% of women participate in the labor force compared to 83.9% of men, and smaller in others such as Barbados, where women represent 75.2% compared to 80.4% of men.

The percentage of unemployment among women is higher in all countries. The largest gender gap in unemployment occurs in Costa Rica where 15.30% of women are unemployed compared to 9.29% of men. In Barbados, unemployed women double unemployed men.

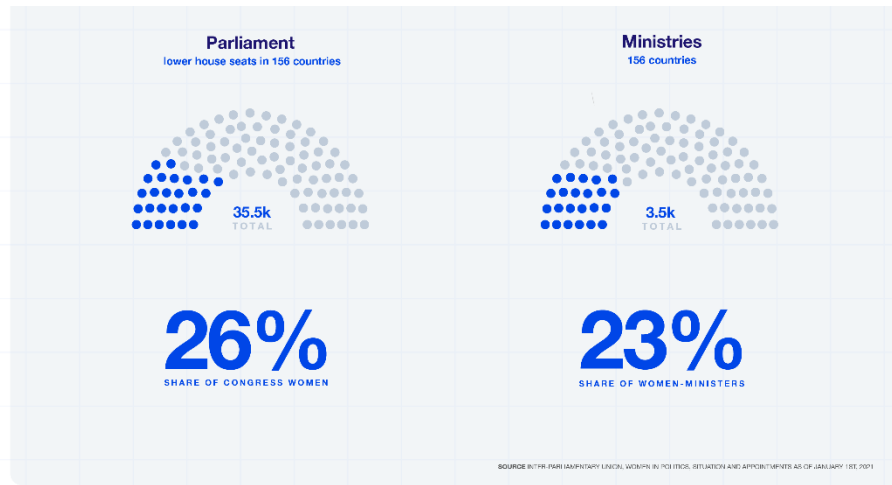
Part-time employment has one of the widest gender gaps. All the countries present large gaps that show women occupying these jobs. For example, in Costa Rica 40.1% of females work part-time compared to 20.05% of men. Similar figures can be observed in Colombia (M: 38.72 H: 18.75%) and Dominican Republic (M: 35.62%, H: 22.69). The share of workers in the informal sector varies among countries with higher number of women in Chile and Costa Rica and higher number of men in the rest of the countries. There are still gaps in the time women and men dedicate to unpaid work. Women keep dedicating more time than men which limit their access to paid jobs or increase their working hours.

Political representation. Women are poorly represented in the parliaments of their countries. They represent between 15% in Paraguay and 45% of parliamentarians in Costa Rica, following the trend in the rest of the world. (Fig 1)

Violence against women. The percentage of ever-partnered women who ever suffered intimate partner physical and/or sexual violence is high in Latin America and the Caribbean. In Colombia and Costa Rica more that 36% of women have suffered that type of violence. Chile is


























the country with the lower number of women who had reported violence with a 6.7% of prevalence.

Figure 1: Women's Political Empowerment around the world³



³ World Economic Forum. 20121. Global Gender Gap Report.

Table 1. Main gender indicators in the countries of the program

Gender Indicator		Barbados	Chile	Colombia	Costa Rica	Dominic Republic	Jamaica	Panama	Paraguay	Uruguay
Population sex ratio (female/male)		51.57	50.71	50.91	50.02	50.03	50.37	49.93	49.17	51.70
		48.43	49.29	49.09	49.98	49.97	49.63	50.07	50.83	48.30
Labour force participation rate, %		75.2	59.1	61.6	58.3	58.5	65.8	60.0	63.8	68.1
		80.4	78.7	84.6	83.9	83.7	77.1	84.2	88.1	82.6
Wage equality for similar work, 1-7 (best)		4.78	3.82	3.92	4.25	3.85	4.27	4.18	4.05	4.30
Unemployed adults, % of labour force (15-64)		7.48	8.36	13.17	15.30	9.99	10.23	6.03	8.61	11.57
		9.93	7.19	8.04	9.29	4.35	6.08	4.21	5.53	7.87
Workers employed part-time, % of employed people		n/a	39.88	38.72	40.01	35.62	12.98	33.74	35.71	n/a
		n/a	26.12	18.75	20.05	22.69	9.53	25.19	16.81	n/a
Proportion of unpaid work per day, female/male ratio		n/a	2.24	3.43	2.53	n/a	n/a	2.46	2.23	2.32
Gender parity in tech roles, 1-7 (best)		4.36	-	4.43	4.58	4.34	4.64	4.55	4.25	4.67
Literacy rate, %		99.6	96.3	95.3	97.9	93.8	92.7	94.9	93.5	99.0
		99.6	96.5	94.9	97.8	93.8	83.4	96.0	94.5	98.4
Enrolment in primary education, %		95.7	94.8	93.2	96.3	92.7	81.3	85.9	87.3	96.6
		97.6	94.7	92.7	96.4	92.7	80.8	86.6	87.1	96.7
Enrolment in secondary education, %		96.8	89.9	80.2	84.3	74.6	76.3	65.9	66.0	91.1
		90.6	87.5	74.9	80.7	66.8	71.7	61.7	65.8	85.4
Enrolment in tertiary education, %		90.6	94.7	59.7	60.7	77.0	34.7	58.6	40.9	58.0
		40.3	82.5	51.1	50.0	43.0	19.9	37.3	28.6	34.5
Women in parliament, %		20.0	22.6	36.8	45.6	17.4	28.6	22.5	15.0	24.2
		80.0	77.4	63.2	54.4	82.6	71.4	77.5	85.0	75.8
Firms with female majority ownership, % firms		43.50	29.60	66.90	43.50	32.20	38.20	24.70	66.20	37.00
		56.50	70.40	33.10	56.50	67.80	61.80	75.30	33.80	63.00
Firms with female top managers, % firms		25.40	4.50	18.90	15.40	21.20	24.10	23.50	19.60	10.60
		74.60	95.50	81.10	84.60	78.80	75.90	76.50	80.40	89.40
Share of workers in informal sector, % workers		69.70	30.40	61.60	43.20	50.20	n/a	50.90	n/a	23.40
		71.10	28.40	62.40	36.00	57.10	n/a	54.20	n/a	24.60
STEMS, attainment %		n/a	6.76	13.76	8.08	7.02	n/a	10.25	n/a	12.19
		n/a	38.61	35.12	27.28	20.27	n/a	25.06	n/a	26.40
Engineering, Manuf. & Construction, attainment %		n/a	5.07	10.43	4.40	4.03	n/a	5.52	n/a	8.17
		n/a	31.10	25.24	12.90	12.43	n/a	15.41	n/a	16.35
Prevalence of gender violence in lifetime, % women		n/a	6.7	37.4	36.0	20.4	19.7	n/a	17.9	14.8

Source: Prepared by authors based on the data available on the Global Gender Gap Report 2021 of the World Economic Forum

4. WOMEN-LED BUSINESSES

There is mounting global evidence of a correlation between gender diversity and superior business results and then investor returns. McKinsey forecasts a GDP annual growth opportunity of US \$2.6 trillion for Latin America in 2025 in a world in which women participate in the market economy to an identical extent as men. However, gender diversity in companies in LAC is currently low, particularly at leadership levels. The same study concluded that publicly listed companies with higher female representation yielded 44% higher returns on investment and 47% higher profit margins. Despite this evidence, 63% of LAC companies declared that gender diversity is not a strategic priority⁴.

In the countries of the programs, the presence of female top managers in firms is low, with a participation between 4.5% in Chile and 25.4% in Barbados. The figures are, however, very different among the companies where women are majority owners. In Colombia and Paraguay women own more than 60% of the firms while in the rest of the countries the percentage varies between 24.7 in Panama and 43.4 in Barbados and Costa Rica.⁵

Women represent more than 40% of the economically active population in LAC. Only 17% of them are entrepreneurs in the formal economy. The main barriers they encounter to forming formal companies are (i) difficulties in leaving the informal sector (more than 60% of LAC women work in this sector⁶) or going beyond microenterprises, reducing their earning potential, (ii) gender barriers that prevent them from working longer hours outside the home, (iii) ignorance of the financial market and existing opportunities, (iv) reduced levels of financial education, (v) lack of female roles to follow in business, (vi) lack of support networks and (vii) difficulties in accessing financing without legal ownership or guarantee⁷.

According to a study of 35 entrepreneurs in 15 countries in LAC, a high number of women entrepreneurs in the region feel that they have been discriminated against because of their gender (27% versus 4% for men). 50.6% of the women surveyed affirm that there is a general inequality in entrepreneurial opportunities, including access to resources, adequate training and business advice⁸.

The main reason women-led businesses fail is lack of access to capital. LAC is the region with the second highest rate of bankruptcies of companies run by women worldwide. While most male entrepreneurs indicate that they have closed their companies due to low profitability. Women entrepreneurs point to the difficulty of obtaining financing as the main impediment to

⁴ McKinsey, Women matter: A Latin American perspective: unlocking women's potential to negate corporate performance, 2015

⁵ World Economic Forum. Global Gender Gap Report 2020.

⁶ <http://www.unwomen.org/es/news/in-focus/csw61/women-in-informal-economy>

⁷ Buckland, Leonora et al. Gender Lens Investing: How Finance Can Accelerate Gender Equality in Latin America and the Caribbean. IDB Invest. 2019

⁸ G. Cardoz, A. Fernandez, C. Ilie, H. Tejada, Entrepreneurship and Gender in Latin America, INCAE Business School, February 2018

continue with their businesses. The credit gap in LAC is \$5bn for women-led micro businesses and \$93bn for women-led SMEs⁹.

The Global Banking Alliance ensures that women clients show a stronger saving behavior (16% more likely than men to save for futures), with lower risk (on average, they are more likely to repay loans), with higher growth and lower attrition. Evidence shows that financial intermediaries that implement programs that effectively meet the needs of women see excellent financial returns.

5. ACCESS TO FINANCIAL RESOURCES

Women tend to face more barriers to access financial services, including accounts in financial institutions, obtain debit or credit cards, and loans from formal banking institutions for education and enrollment, limiting their financing options. These barriers are due to women's lack to provide collateral for the loans, lack of financial literacy and higher risk aversion in comparison to men; furthermore, these issues deepen when the legal framework to protect creditors and borrowers are weak.^{6 7 8 9}

Currently, the supply of gender-lens financial products in LAC is limited since, on the one hand, only a few fund managers consider gender in their investment analysis and, on the other hand, no efforts are made to search for the growing portfolio of women-led businesses. Furthermore, financial intermediaries are dominated by men, especially at decision-making levels.

Despite this, a gender-lens investing for women-led business is emerging in various types of assets in LAC. In public markets, bonds are being created for socially responsible investors interested in promoting gender equality. In private markets, the microfinance sector has a long tradition, particularly in countries such as Bolivia, Peru, and Colombia. Commercial banks have worked with institutional investors, including multilateral development banks (MDBs), to address the small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) credit gap faced by women-led businesses. These banks offer specific lines of credit and technical assistance to SMEs run by women. In addition, other investments in private markets such as venture capital (VC) and private equity (PE) funds are growing very fast in the region, especially in Brazil, Mexico and Colombia¹⁰.

IDB's program Women Entrepreneurship Banking (weB) facilitates access to financial and non-financial services (training, mentoring, networking) for women-led businesses in LAC through advisory services and investments into financial intermediaries. It has supported 19 banks in 12 countries, approving nearly \$800 million in investments and \$5 million in technical assistance, to develop and market products and services for women-led MSMEs. The banks which are participating in the program are making impressive advancements serving their female customers.

⁹ IFC. MSME Finance Gap, 2017.

¹⁰ Buckland, Leonora et al. Gender Lens Investing: How Finance Can Accelerate Gender Equality in Latin America and the Caribbean. IDB Invest. 2019

Pro Mujer is a leading microfinance organization in Latin America dedicated to improving the livelihoods of women in Latin America through a combination of financial, health, and educational services. Their integrated approach includes financial services (loans, savings, insurance), training in basic business skills and entrepreneurship, health education (e.g., on gender-based violence, disease prevention, wellness, and personal development, etc.) and health screenings (cancer screening, diabetes testing, blood pressure checks). In 2017, Pro Mujer disbursed more than USD 393 million in loans and served 276,000 women. Pro Mujer's services are offered primarily through a communal bank and its clients have an average repayment rate of 97%.

*In 20120, IDB Invest structured and subscribed a **Gender-focused Social Bond issue by Banco Davivienda SA (Davivienda)**. The deal, worth \$100 million has a 7-year maturity. This is the world's first issue of a gender-linked bond based on achieving outcomes. The bond will be exclusively used by the issuer to finance the growth of its women-led SMEs portfolio (WSMEs), as well as the purchase of social interest houses by women in Colombia.*

6. MOBILITY CONTEXT FOR WOMEN

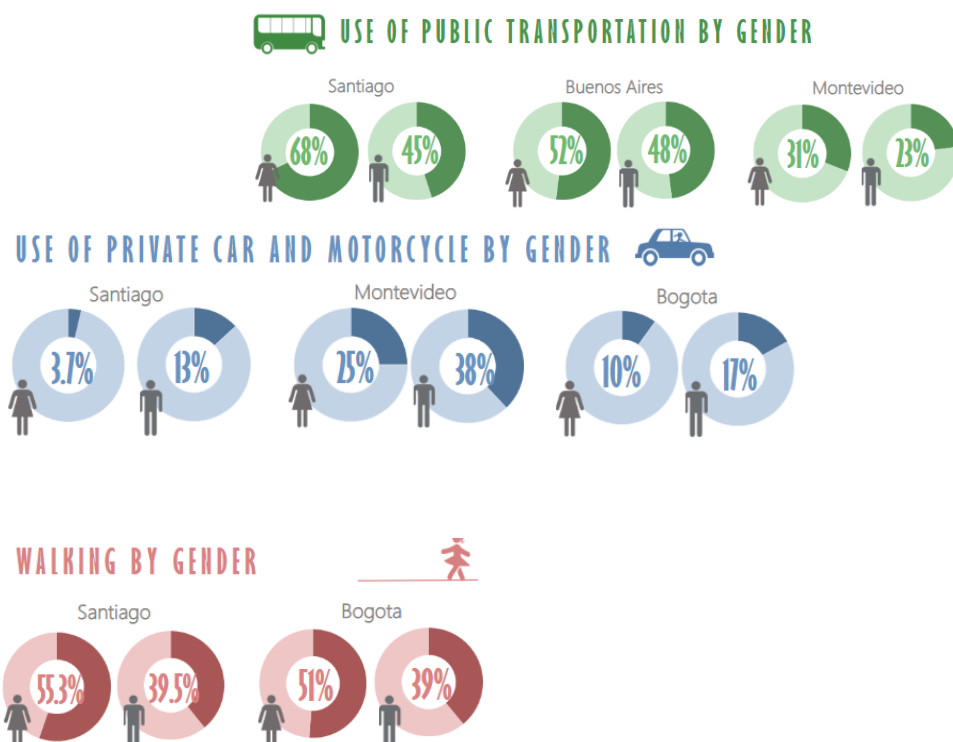
1.1 Women and men patterns

Transportation is not gender neutral. Men and women have different socio-economic roles and responsibilities, which are associated with different patterns of use, access and transport needs. Studies comparing gender differences in travel behavior have found patterns that are consistent across developed and developing countries¹¹:

- Women travel shorter distances and are limited to a more restricted geographical area.
- Women spend less time traveling and cover shorter distances to go to work. They tend to locate their businesses closer to home than men and are more likely than men to work at home and less likely to engage in “extreme commuting”
- Women engage in more non-work travel while men’s mobility evolves around paid work activities.
- Women make more multi-stop trips, while men mainly follow more direct, linear patterns from home to workplace.
- Women are more likely to travel during off peak hours.
- Women use cars less and drive fewer miles than men.
- Women use public transport more.
- Women walk more than men.
- Women cycle less than men.
- Women use cheaper and less efficient modes of transport.

¹¹ World Bank. 2020. Why does she move? A study of women’s mobility in Latin American cities.

Figure 2: What about the trends in Latin America?¹²



Drivers of gender differences in mobility

The main factors driving these gender differences in transportation include¹³ (i) women's lower financial capacity that makes them more dependent on public transport due to a greater participation in part-time roles and lesser paid careers that weaken women's financial capacity, and ultimately impacts their ability to pay for public transport; (ii) the unfavorable fare structure for multi-stops journeys due to women's mobility of care (family errands, care for the elderly, the ill, the kids, and their community) makes transport more expensive for women that pay a higher percentage of their income on public transport than men in their same social groups, even if their trips are shorter on average; (iii) the greater disadvantages in access to transportation faced by women, since they walk more and depend more on public transport, poor pedestrian pathways, and inconvenient access to transport facilities impact more their daily journeys, which are already time-constrained given their multiple responsibilities at home and outside, besides women also find it more difficult to access appropriate transport to informal job locations; (iv) the fewer transport options for women that rely more on circumferential public transport routes, to which transport operators give lower priority in comparison to the radial commuter routes that connect

¹² Granada, Isabel et al. 2015. The relationship between gender and transport. IDB

¹³ World Bank. 2020. Why does she move? A study of women's mobility in Latin American cities.

directly to downtown areas and that often fail to provide adequate coverage of first and last-mile connectivity; and (iv) the lack of personal safety on public transport impacts women that tend to adjust their travel patterns and behavior according to security considerations, including the fear of sexual harassment.

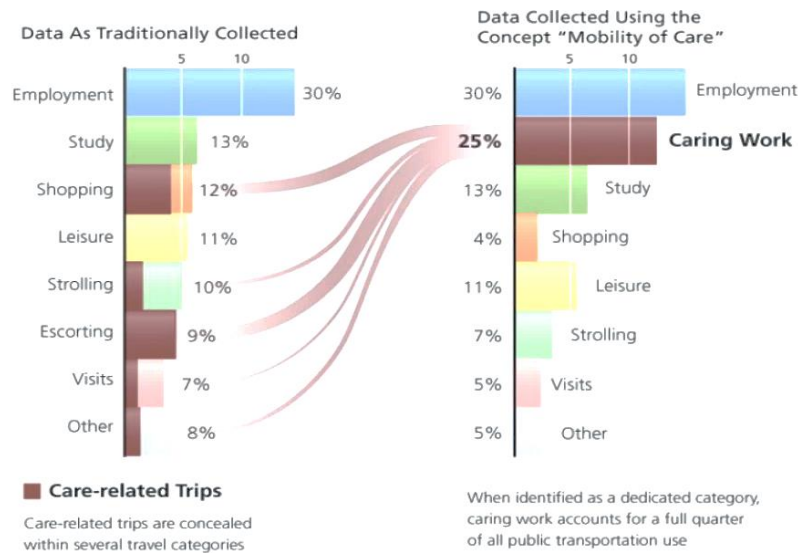
The mobility of care

The mobility of care ¹⁴ is not sufficiently accounted for in transportation datasets. The "mobility of care" includes all travel resulting from home and caring responsibilities: escorting others; shopping for daily living (excluding leisure shopping); household maintenance, organization, and administrative errands; visits to take care of sick or older relatives, etc. Many of these care trips can be hidden under other headings when considering the purpose of trips, such as leisure, strolling, visits, or other trips. Additionally, for the purpose of designing and calculating ridership, data collection methods focus traditionally in one trip pattern (travel to and from work or to and from school) while the mobility related to care responsibilities is overlooked because it is fractured in multitude purposes and fall in different categories (shopping, escorting, etc.).

The Figure 3 visualizes the traditionally collected data on trips purpose on the left and the data collected using the concept "mobility of care" on the right. The number of trips for care work and those for paid work are similar for this example's data.

¹⁴ De Madariaga, Inés Sánchez <https://unhabitat.org/mobility-of-care-ines-sanchez-de-madariaga>

Figure 3: Public Transportation trips by purpose¹⁵



Traditionally, surveys have undervalued the “reproductive” trips, considering only the “productive” trips for the design of transport systems. The chart on the right reconceptualizes public transportation trips by collecting care trips into one category. Visualizing care trips in one dedicated category recognizes the importance of caring work and allows transportation engineers to design systems that work well for all segments of the population, improve urban efficiency, and guard against global warming¹⁶.

2.1 Gender and safety in urban transport

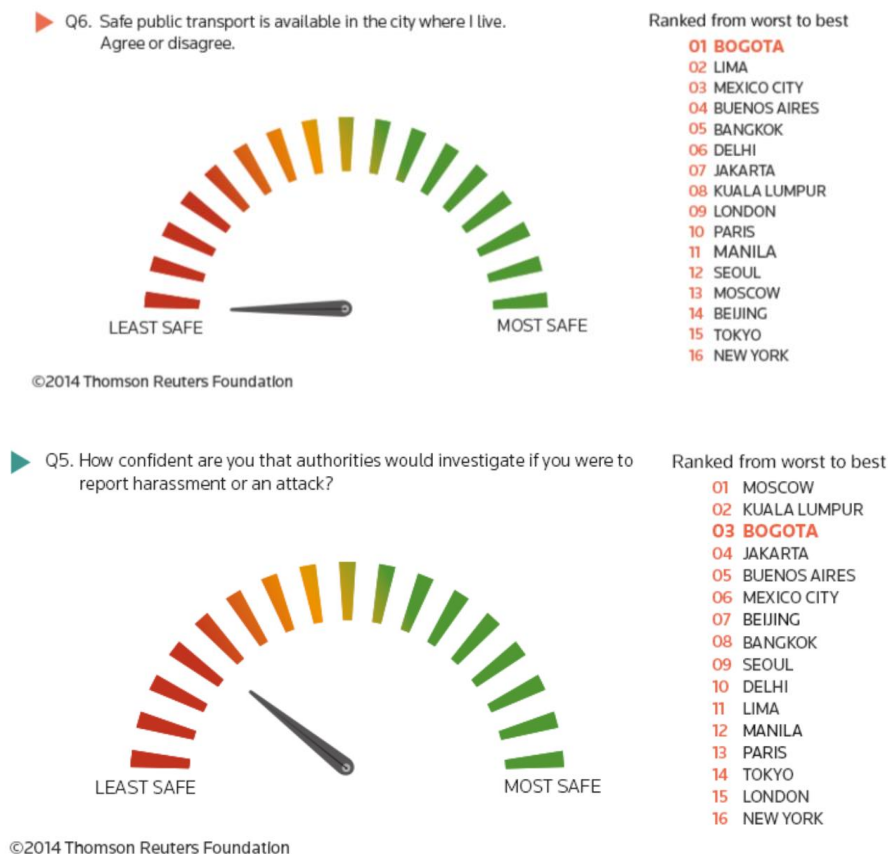
Bogotá, México City and Lima have been classified as the 3 cities in the world with most dangerous transport system for women according to a survey¹⁷ of 6,550 women in 15 of the 20 biggest capitals in the world, as well as New York. The survey questions related to safety at night, verbal and physical harassment, public response to abuse and confidence in authorities.

¹⁵ De Madariaga, Inés Sánchez. Research 2009, 2010, 2013a, 2013b, Image by Eric Steiner
<https://genderedinnovations.stanford.edu/case-studies/transportation.html#tabs-2>

¹⁶ De Madariaga, Inés Sánchez (2013). From women in transport to gender in transport: challenging conceptual frameworks for improved policymaking

¹⁷ Thomson Reuters Foundation. 2014. Survey “Most dangerous cities for women”

Figure 4: Answers provided by women transport users in Bogota.



The violence in public places, particularly on public transport systems, reduces the freedom of movement of women and girls. It reduces their ability to attend school or work and to participate fully in public life; limits their access to essential services and to enjoy cultural and leisure opportunities, and has a negative impact on their health and well-being by limiting the area of travel, increasing their travel costs, constraining social interaction and work choices, and increasing the time they allocate to look after their children.

Six out of 10 women reported to have been harassed in public transportation in Latin American countries. Harassment and assault are issues for women of all ages, including young girls. On the street, the riskiest areas apart from the waiting stops were those near bars, often full of men, and pedestrian tunnels, according to several studies in Latin American countries. Women's fears are worsened by poor public lighting and having to use informal transport, especially at night. Bus stops, often located in unprotected and poorly lit areas in the communities, are especially unsafe for women. For example, in Buenos Aires, women experience 5 times more harassment in buses than in the subway, situation similar, although on a smaller scale, in Santiago de Chile¹⁸.

¹⁸ Allen, H. et al. 2018. Ella se mueve segura. Un estudio sobre la seguridad personal de las mujeres y el transporte público en tres ciudades de América Latina. CAF y FIA Foundation.

Safety and security are major considerations women make when deciding which mode of transport to use, when alternatives are available¹⁹. In Buenos Aires, 7% of women would avoid using public transport if there was a high presence of men (in the vehicle or wagon or loitering in the streets, stops or stations) and 55% if there were crowds or too few people using the system²⁰.

Although women recognized unwelcome sexual advances as an issue during their trips, a frequent tendency is to regard men's behavior as normal or to blame the victims. In many cases, women expresses that it was their responsibility to avoid triggering sexual harassment by wearing certain clothes²¹.

On the other hand, evidence shows that air pollution impacts women and girls differently and, in some cases, more severely than men and boys. Factors involved may include biological differences, socioeconomic disparities, and unequal gender norms that affect both exposure and solutions²². Differences in mobility patterns among women and men make women more vulnerable to exposure to vehicle emissions due to women rely more on public transport and walk more than men.

3.1 Labor market

The future of mobility offers the opportunity for faster, cleaner, cheaper and safer transportation. Accompanying those potential changes could be dramatic shifts in the workforce not only in the assembly lines and network of supply companies, but new opportunities will arise with the creation of new jobs in the manufacture of batteries and electric motors; the infrastructure development needed for the installation of millions of charging points that require changes in the existing infrastructure and the planification of cities; the energy production, transmission and distribution of electricity that is consumed by EVs; as well as all the digital innovation necessary for the development of the new mobility. Occupations in the transport sector are changing, they are being digitized and women must be trained for this change. The fourth industrial revolution is transforming the world of work, rapidly shifting the boundary between activities performed by humans and those performed by machines. A study carried out by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 30 countries (OECD, Singapore and Cyprus) concludes that 11 percent (26 million women) of the female workforce and 9 percent of the male workforce have high automation risk in the next two decades²³.

¹⁹ Idem

²⁰ World Bank. 2020. Why does she move? A study of women's mobility in Latin American cities.

²¹ Idem

²² Mehra, Rekha, et al. 2021 Clean Air Catalyst: Gender Analysis of Air Pollution and Vehicle Transport, India. USAID
²³ (Brussevich, M. et al., 2018).

According to a Boston Consulting Group study in 2021²⁴, governments should create the framework conditions that enable the automotive industry to master the enormous shift in qualifications. Companies should conduct Strategic Workforce Planning to identify requirements for up- and reskilling as well as goals for recruitment and retention. Individuals should focus on lifelong learning to constantly acquire new skills, and take a more flexible approach to their career paths.

In general, women are under-represented in the transport sector's workforce and their participation is often concentrated in low-paid and vulnerable jobs. Data for Latin America and the Caribbean show that women represent between 1% and 6% of employees in the construction sector, depending on the country. In the transport sector this varies between 8% and

Figure 5: Transport and labor market. An analysis with a gender perspective.

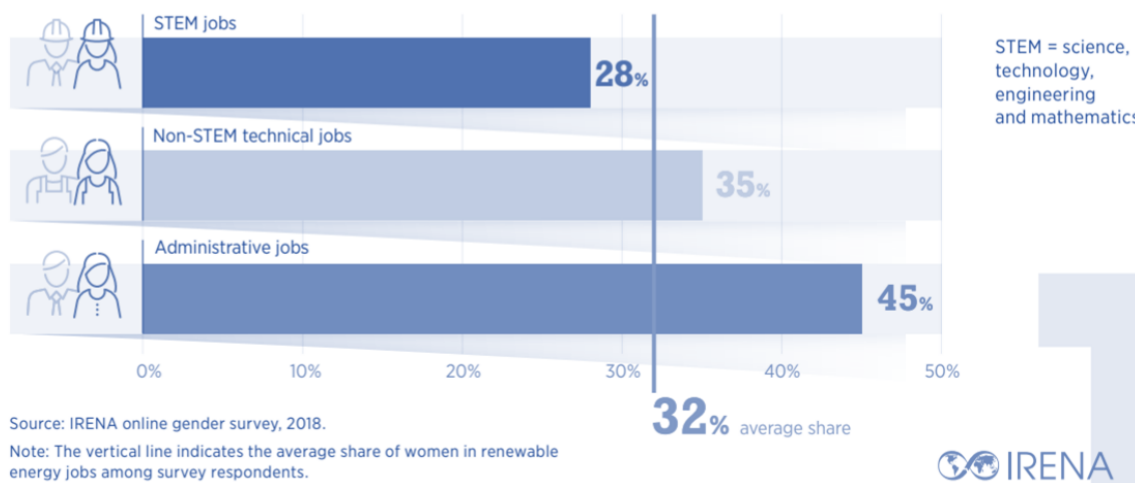


²⁴ Kuhlmann, Kristian. 2021. Is E-mobility a Green Boost for European Automotive Jobs? Boston Consulting Group.

21%. Typically, women work in feminized and low-paid tasks such as cleaning or administration, while men work as drivers, mechanics, or supervisors. Thus, both the number of women hired or trained, and the quality of their contracts are low.

The trends are similar in other sectors affected by the electromobility transition such as the renewable energy sector where women represent 32% of the fulltime employees (or the global oil and gas industry where they represent 22%). In the same way, in renewables, women's participation is much lower in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) jobs than in administrative jobs²⁵.

Figure 6: Shares of women in STEM, non-STEM and administrative jobs in renewable energy.



The employment barriers to entry in those sectors remain the same²⁶:

1. Perception of gender roles, about what women can or should be expected to do, and about what they can accomplish, are deeply ingrained in society, with restrictive views of gender roles prevailing across generations.

²⁵ IRENE. 2019. Renewable energy: A gender perspective.

²⁶ Idem

2. Women's participation in STEM fields and misperceptions of career pathways, driven by perceptions and misperceptions, only a low percentage of female students choose the STEM fields.
3. Lack of career information. An enduring disadvantage that women and girls face in comparison to their male counterparts is the lack of readily accessible information about employment in non-traditional occupations.
4. Prevailing hiring practices and unequal access to career entry points.

As well as the challenges for retention and career advancement:

1. Glass ceiling blocking ascent to leadership positions. There are persistent barriers to improving women's representation in senior executive positions and on boards of directors.
2. Work schedules and mobility requirements. Rigid work schedules are one of the key barriers women face, given that, in many societies, they are expected not only to excel at work but also to reliably perform many tasks outside of work, including child rearing, other care-giving responsibilities and various household chores.
3. Wage inequities.

4.1 Transport Gender Lab from the IDB

The IDB created the Transport Gender Lab (TGL) to achieve the incorporation and strengthening of the gender perspective in transport that seek collective solutions and respond to measures and challenges through cooperation among member countries, with the goal of obtaining greater development benefits and at a lower cost.

- The TGL focuses on generating and disseminating knowledge about the design and implementation of initiatives, activities and/or studies in favor of gender equality in the transport sector. It is the first and broader knowledge repository of gender initiatives on transportation in the region. It includes a website that gathers all the information available for cities to have direct access to this information. As a lab, it promotes collaborative work among cities through cross-fertilization on good practices and challenges that cities have experienced when implementing a gender perspective in transport. The transport Gender lab classifies these initiatives on seven main areas: Access to justice, prevention, new technological tools, education, knowledge, infrastructure with a gender perspective, and employment opportunities. The IADB provides technical support and financial resources to cities so that they can develop context-oriented projects and data gathering to promote a gender perspective in transport. The TGL focuses on two main areas: Women as users and women as part of transportation's labor market. At this moment, 12 cities are members of this network: Bogota, Buenos Aires, Cali, Guatemala City, Lima, México City, State of Hidalgo, State of Jalisco, Quito, San Salvador, Santiago de Chile and Santo Domingo. Thanks to the joint effort of the member cities and entities of the network, more cities and systems in Latin

America are today aware of the importance of planning and operating the systems taking into account the specific characteristics of the trips of their different types of users. The TGL has funded studies to understand women's travel patterns and experiences in transportation systems and make policy recommendations related to infrastructure adjustments, and service operation scheme: - In the State of Jalisco in México promoted a study based on qualitative and quantitative data to understand the travel patterns of women and girls in a highly traveled corridor in the Metropolitan Area of Guadalajara. Based on the results, the study recommended improving the infrastructure and urban equipment in areas close to stations. Also improving women's access to justice whenever they suffer sexual harassment. Finally, better inter-institutional coordination to implement these initiatives.

- In Bogotá TGL financed a study to understand the mobility patterns of caregivers who take their kids to school using bicycles. Part of the proposals that came from the study include:
 - (I) courses on road safety for men and women and bicycle mechanics for women, visible protection elements for bike riders, better route infrastructure including better lighting;
 - (II) better connection; (III) better signaling, promote the family cycling index in Bogotá's maps; (IV) promote financial accessibility measures to incentivize men and women to use bicycle to take their kids to school; (V) ensure institutional measures so that different government entities promote cycling, among others.
- In association with the behavioural insights team, TGL supported an innovative study where behavioral science methodologies are used to identify and implement nudges for the prevention of sexual harassment in urban transport in Lima and Callao as a supporting tool for the prevention and attention protocol.

7. WOMEN AND ELECTROMOBILITY

There are few data about women and electromobility, especially in Latin America. Most of the information is related to the US and the European EV car markets. Although the electromobility program does not include private vehicles, the information below is related to women's perception on EV that offers a glimpse of how women relate to electromobility. During the implementation of the project, specific gender information in Latin America will be collected from the aspects covered by the program.

In the US, only 30% of EV purchases today are made by women, even though they purchase more than 50% of new cars and influence 80% of the car buying decisions in a household. In Britain, analysts at BuyaCar found that despite women forming a much higher proportion of customers on the site than in traditional dealerships, they are four times less likely to buy an electric vehicle or a hybrid car online than men – and the gap is widening. The top demographic of 2019 EV

owners are middle-aged white men earning more than \$100,000 annually with a college degree or higher and at least one other vehicle in their household²⁷.

The reasons for understanding the low attraction of women to EV cars are now well researched. But according to different articles, analyzes and interviews to women, the main reason is that EV cars are marketed for men. When women buy a car are not shopping for themselves alone. Women drive more trips with passengers than men do and make more multi-stop trips as well. They are more concerned that men with safety, price, and cargo space to fit the kids. None of the EV cars in the market meet all the requirements. That explains why they are mainly purchasing SUVs that are more practical for their needs.

One 2018 study by AAA showed women are more likely to cite environmental concerns as a reason for buying an EV than men, 90 percent to 68 percent. But it did not address how many women intended to buy an EV compared with men.

7.1 New electromobility initiatives to follow up

There are emergent initiatives in electromobility in Latin America and around the world that can offer some good practices to apply in this program during the next months.

Unconventional jobs on electric mobility for women

In 2021, supported by the IADB the District Mayor's Office of Bogotá launched the Project for qualification of women in unconventional jobs for urban transport in Bogotá, a strategy that takes advantage of the energy transition of the transport sector to generate green jobs with Gender approach. The program will make it possible to educate, train and recategorize the driver's license of 450 selected women, so that they can work with the new District Transport Operator or private operators in Bogotá. With the linking of these women to the system, the city hopes to reach a goal of 5% of female drivers in the SITP, when today only 1% of the SITP drivers are women. The Inter-American Development Bank, in collaboration with the Center for Economic Development Studies – CEDE – of the Universidad de los Andes, supports this program, financing and managing the subsidies to the women beneficiaries and carrying out an impact evaluation of the program, on the quality of women's lives and their performance as SITP electric bus drivers.

EV taxis in Habana

²⁷ Fuels Institute. 2021. EV Consumer Behavior.



In La Habana, Cuba, there is a new fleet of electric taxis driven exclusively by women (2021). The fleet consists of 23 electric tricycles assembled in the country. The vehicles are rented to the women who provide the service. To obtain the driving certificate, the women were trained at the National Driving School of the Ministry of Transport.

The vehicles were designed to travel 100 km and reach a speed of 45 km/h. They have the capacity to transport up to six passengers.

Zacua



Zacua is the first Mexican electric car. It wants to ensure Mexico's transition towards the use of environmentally friendly energies, designing and producing zero-emission, small, functional and aesthetic urban vehicles.

Founded in 2017, the brand opened its assembly plant in Puebla in mid-2018. The assembly line is artisanal since each car is assembled by hand. The Mexican firm has 25 women in its engineering center where they work both in the design of prototypes, development of new projects to the placement of different parts that give life to the cars. The artisan assembly is carried out by a 100 percent female team.

Ola Electric Mobility

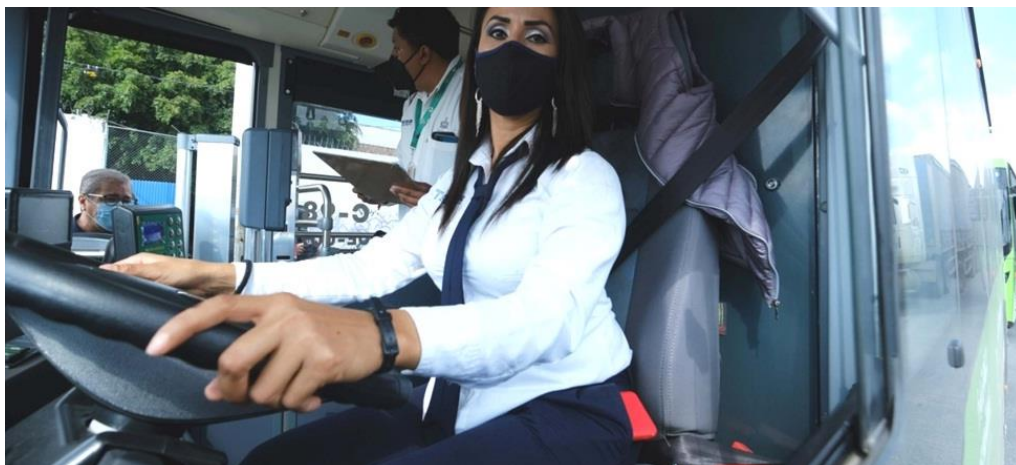
It is a new electric-scooter factory that aims to build 10 million two-wheelers annually, or 15% of the world's e-scooters by 2022, in an operation run, managed and staffed entirely by women.

Led by Bhavish Aggarwal, its vision is to provide the world "clean mobility, a carbon-negative footprint, and an inclusive workforce," the founder said. The first group of workers started in September at the factory in Krishnagiri, India, which will cost \$330 million to complete. "At full capacity, Futurefactory will employ over 10,000 women, making it the world's largest women-only factory and the only all-women automotive manufacturing facility globally," he says.

Mi Transporte Eléctrico

In Jalisco, Mexico, the first public transportation route in the country made up of electric buses called Mi Transporte Eléctrico (My Electric Transport), with a capacity to transport up to 20,000 people a day, started up.

The units, driven by 43 women and 36 men, have universal accessibility and a battery-powered electric motor. For three weeks, drivers, with experience in Sitren (public transportation system in Jalisco), received training to become part of the personnel that will serve in these units.



Women of EVs

An electric vehicle industry that supports diverse people and practices, while creating a welcoming and fair workplace environment with a large proportion of women leading in every part of the value chain. WEVs “elEVates” women who are working in the EV industry by establishing a community built for “her” from the ground up. A space to coalesce women globally towards the urgent need to rapidly shift to electric transportation. They have chapters in United States, Australia, New Zealand and Canada.



Women in Green Hydrogen

Founded in 2020, Women in Green Hydrogen (WiGH) is a network of women with the goal of connecting, empowering, and boosting the visibility of women in the sector. Women in Green Hydrogen currently counts 1,644 members and 453 experts in its database. They offer a hydrogen-sector specific, global mentoring program for women in junior/middle management positions. More than 300 women from over 40 countries joined the last networking event on “Wind of Change” in April 2021.

Gender Assessment by Country

Data availability is a challenge shared by the nine countries. The Gender Assessments by country were built with available data. Some of the data currently missing include employment data, by position levels in the transport sector per country; mobility data; violence against women in the public transportation; sex-disaggregated data in electromobility. The opportunity identified is to fill the data gaps and produce new and gender-aware data as a new resource for policy and decision-makers.

All projects (concessional loans and grants for pilot projects) financed by the Program will conduct a detailed and context specific gender gap analysis. This gender analysis will be more detailed than the country assessment as it will include qualitative (interviews, focus groups) and quantitative elements (census data, demographics, income, etc.). Additionally, these analyses will be conducted in the project interest areas. The gender gaps might vary depending on the type of project and will expand on the preliminary information from the country assessments. Based on that analysis each project will define actions to close the gender gaps identified and project indicators to measure the progress.

BARBADOS

Legal, regulatory, and institutional framework

Barbados Constitution (1966) and its reforms states every person in Barbados has individual rights and freedoms without discrimination as to race, origin, political opinion, color, creed, or sex. The country has a Bureau of Gender Affair to promote the integration of the gender perspective in national development policies and plans. Barbados has also ratified in 1993 the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995). The government has also implemented Shelter for Abused Women, counselling spaces and research²⁸.

Law/Document	Content
Domestic violence (1993)	Provides provisions for the protection of victims in the case of intimate partner violence.
Constitution of Barbados (1966) and reforms	Every person in Barbados has individual rights and freedoms without discrimination as to race, origin, political opinion, colour, creed or sex.
Domestic Violence (Protection Orders) (Amendment) Act, 2016	Extend the classes of persons who are victims of domestic violence; ensure victims receive counselling or therapy; facilitate the enrolment of perpetrators in the appropriate rehabilitative programs; establish the duties and powers of members of the Police Force, among others.
The Employment Sexual Harassment (Prevention) Act, 2017	Protection of employees in both the public sector and private sector from sexual harassment at their workplace, framework for reporting sexual harassment and method of resolving such cases; among others.
The Trafficking in Persons Prevention Act, 2016	Updating of legislation to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially Women and Children.
Sexual Offences Act Cap 154, 2016	Amended law for intimate partner violence/domestic violence, to provide for the circumstances under which a man can be prosecuted for raping his wife
The Barbados National Strategic Plan 2005 – 2025 (2005)	Among its objectives, it proposes incorporating the gender perspective in all sectors of national development, plans and policies so that women and men can benefit equally from existing opportunities.

²⁸ Barbados Beijing +25 report: progress made on the implementation of the Beijing declaration and platform for action 2014 – 2019.

BID, <https://generoeninfraestructura.iadb.org/pais/barbados>, (Accessed 04-08-2022).

Law relating to the employment of women, Chapter 345A.	Paid maternity leave of not less than 12 weeks in total with at least 6 weeks postpartum is anticipated. Parental leave is not provided.
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Educational gaps

The completion rate for primary female education in 2012 was 99.5%, higher than men with 97.5%. However, but in lower secondary education men reported a higher completion rate with 98.5% compared to 97.9% women²⁹. There are no significant differences in the rate of out of school children for primary and lower secondary education, since the value is 2.3% for men and 2.5% for women³⁰. The gross attendance ratio for tertiary education for women in Barbados for 2012 was 65.8%, higher than ratio for men with 40.2%³¹. Younger cohorts (below 40) are more educated, but males mostly stable³².

Economic Opportunities

In 2017 the labor force participation of women aged 15+ was 62%, meaning a lower participation compared to men with 70%. For the same year, there were no significant differences between men and women regarding the unemployment rate of people aged 15+, with 10% for women and 9% for men³³. There are even employment levels in 15-25 age range³³. By 2017 employment in service-related activities had a higher women participation with 89% of the female working force, and 67% for men. On the other hand, industry had 29% of male working force and only 9% of women. And agriculture have 2% of women working force and 4% of male³⁴. On average, women's income is about 60% of men's in Latin America and the Caribbean, but in Barbados women's income is about 86.8%³⁵. According to the Barbados Survey of Living Conditions 2016, 4.15% of the female population is in extreme poverty compared to the 2.74% of men. This trend repeats for poor women, which represents 21.02% while for men the value is 13.96%³⁶.

Gender Based Violence

29 The little data book on gender, (World Bank, 2019).

30 UN Women data, <https://data.unwomen.org/country/barbados>, (accessed 08-04-2022).

31 World Bank, <https://databank.worldbank.org/reports.aspx?source=Education%20Statistics>, (2019).

32 Barbados Survey of Living Conditions 2016, (IDB, 2016).

33 Barbados Survey of Living Conditions 2016, (IDB, 2016).

34 Idem.

35 Global Gender Gap Report 2021 (World Bank, 2021).

36 Barbados Survey of Living Conditions 2016, (IDB, 2016).

The proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 18 is high. The 29.2% of women of the age mentioned married before 18 years, and the 7.7% before age 15³⁷. The rate of women killed by their partners or ex-partners in Barbados is 0.7 for every 100.000 women for 2019³⁸. This value is significantly lower than the data of 2018 when the rate was 3.4, and 2017 when was 1.3. The percentage of women aged 20 to 24 years who were first married or in union before age 18 was 11% for 2018³⁹. Domestic violence is one of the concerns in the country. Reports show more than one incident per day, and have remained consistent, with 515 cases in 2016, 539 cases for 2017 and 518 for 2018. Changes in the law and training in the Police Force might have increased the numbers of reports, due to a higher trust and expectancy of the response⁴⁰.

37 UN Women data, <https://data.unwomen.org/country/barbados>, (accessed 08-04-2022).

38 CEPLASTAT, 2019. <https://statistics.cepal.org/portal/cepalstat/dashboard.html?lang=es>. (Accessed 08-04-2022).

39 UN Women, Global Database on Violence against Women, (2018).

40 Barbados Beijing +25 report: progress made on the implementation of the Beijing declaration and platform for action 2014 – 2019.

Chile

Legal, regulatory, and institutional framework

Law/Document	Objective
Political Constitution of Chile (1980) and reforms	Equality before the law. In Chile there are no privileged persons or groups. In Chile there are no slaves and whoever steps on its territory is free. Men and women are equal before the law.
National Service for Women and Gender Equity (1991)	It is the body in charge of executing the policies, plans and programs entrusted to it by the Ministry of Women and Gender Equity. It has various programs in the areas of Women and Work, Violence against Women, Good Living of Sexuality and Reproduction, and Women, Citizenship and Participation.
Ministry of Women and Gender Equity (2016)	It ensures coordination, consistency, and coherence of policies, plans and programs on gender equity, which must be incorporated transversally in the State's actions.
Law No. 20,482 (2010)	Men have paid parental leave for 5 days. Co-responsibility in care.
Law No. 20,545 (2011)	Maternity leave is extended from 12 weeks to 24 or even 30, in the event that the woman chooses a partial or "part-time" postnatal parental leave, receiving a subsidy during that time. This law establishes an inalienable right for working women that allows them to combine work with motherhood. Also, based on the principle of co-responsibility, it establishes the power to transfer part of the parental postnatal to the father. This benefit is extended to women with seasonal or temporary jobs.
Law No. 20,764 (2014)	It guarantees the equal rights of both parents and enables an adequate distribution of family responsibilities. Parents will be able to leave their workplace for one hour a day to feed their children up to two years of age.
Law No. 21,212 or Gabriela Law, which expands the legal framework of femicide	Amends the Criminal Code, the Criminal Procedure Code and Law No. 18,216 on the classification of femicide Punish gender-based violence against women by expanding femicide to cases of intimate femicide (incorporating couples without cohabitation and with whom they have or have had a child in common) and femicide based on gender.
Law No. 21,153, which modifies the Penal Code to classify the	Amends the Penal Code, expanding the crime of sexual abuse against people over 14 years of age. It creates the crime of sexual harassment in public places or with public

crime of sexual harassment in public spaces	<p>access as a misdemeanor, the capture and dissemination of audiovisual records with sexual significance, obtained without the consent of the victim in a public place or with free access to the public.</p> <p>It creates the crime of sexual harassment in public places or places of public access as a misdemeanor, and as a simple crime the capture and dissemination of audiovisual records with sexual significance, obtained without the consent of the victim in a public place or with free access to the public.</p>
Law No. 20,066 (2010)	It establishes femicide by increasing the penalties applicable to this crime and reforms the norms on parricide.
Law 20,607 (2012)	Sanctions workplace harassment practices.
Law No. 21,155, establishes protection measures for breastfeeding and its exercises	<p>It enshrines the fundamental value of motherhood for society, recognizing it as a right of children and mothers.</p> <p>It promotes, protects, and supports breastfeeding in all areas of society and safeguards the free exercise of this right, sanctioning whoever limits or restricts this right.</p> <p>Modifies various legal bodies, including the Health Code, establishing a regulation for the incorporation of breast milk banks.</p>
Law No. 21,129, modifies various legal bodies, in order to establish Maternal Jurisdiction to the officials of the Armed Forces, Order and Public Security, in the conditions indicated	It reinforces the rights of the civil servants of the Armed Forces and of Order and Security, so that the maternity jurisdiction is applicable to them, despite having incurred for health reasons in a legal reason for retirement.
Law No. 21,356 on directories of public companies SEP	It is established that both in the Public Companies created by law and in the State Companies that are part of the System of Public Companies, people of the same gender may not exceed sixty percent of the total number of board members, except in the case of of directories composed of 3 members, in which case people of the same gender may not exceed 2.
Plan for Equal Opportunities between men and women 2011-2020	It defines 4 principles and 6 strategic axes for its implementation and guides state policies and all its actions to ensure equal opportunities between men and women.

Educational gaps

Chile has made important advances regarding education indicators for both, women and men. In the education category there is a slight gap in favor of women. However, female labor force participation rate is significantly lower than male. Net primary school enrollment rate for men and women in 2017 was high with 95% for both genders and the completion rate were slightly higher for women with 92% compared to men with 90%.⁴¹ In 2017, net secondary school enrollment rate was 88% for women and 85% for men, and gross tertiary school enrollment ratio (% of relevant age group) was 98% for women and 85% for men.⁴² Gross tertiary graduation ratio was 13% for women and 12% for men in 2000.⁴³

According to the Gender equality education plan 2015-2018, the differences in the dropout rates are more significant when comparing the level of basic and secondary education, which, when comparing by sex, the reasons that explain the dropout are quite different. In addition to the economic factor, in the case of women pregnancy or maternity is added, while men do it to work. Additionally, in Professional Technical Education, women make up more than 80% of the specializations in secretarial, early childhood education, nursing, and social service areas. Men, on the other hand, are concentrated in the areas of construction and works, topography, systems analysis, electronics and automotive. The university courses with the highest selection by women in 2016 were linked to health, design, and social sciences, while the most masculinized correspond to the area of science and mathematics

Access to Financial Resources

In 2017, 77% of men in the country had accounts in financial institutions, in comparison to 71% of women (% of population over 15 years old); for the same year, more men than women obtained loans from financial institutions (17% and 10% respectively).⁴⁴ Chile's gender gap regarding access to loans from the formal financial sector is higher than Latin America and upper-middle income countries (9% of women vs. 11% of men, for both).⁴⁵

41 [World Bank, 2019](#).

42 Idem.

43 Idem.

44 [World Bank, Global FINDEX database](#).

45 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

Loan collaterals and guarantees tend to be stricter for women and regulatory requirements limit their access to financing.⁴⁶ In Chile, these barriers impact the percentage of people who have access to emergency funds and women are disproportionately affected (only 32% of women vs. 55% of men have access to emergency funds.)⁴⁷ Additionally, only 13% of Chilean women have savings to start, operate or expand a farm or business, significantly lower to the percentage of men (21%).⁴⁸

Economic Opportunities

The labor force participation rate gender gaps have had modest improvements between 2000 and 2017. Female labor force participation rate (of women over 15 years old) in Chile had a considerable increase, while the rate for women ages 15-24 stayed the same for women. In 2017, labor force participation rate (% of population over 15 years old) was 74% for men and 51% for women, in comparison to 76% and 38%, respectively, in 2000.⁴⁹ For young population, ages 15-24, female and male labor force participation rate has decreased (2000: M: 67%; F: 47%. 2017: M: 61%; F: 45%).⁵⁰

Furthermore, working conditions are similar between men and women: a slightly higher percentage of women are salaried workers (M: 71%; W: 72%), the percentage of women and men in vulnerable employment⁵¹ is slightly higher for women (M: 23%; W:25%) as well as unemployment rate (M: 7%; W:8%).⁵²

The ILO estimates that female labor force participation is significantly lower than male in the transport, storage, and communication sectors (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 80% are men and only 20% are women), and in the mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 88% are men and only 12% are women).³¹

⁴⁶ Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

⁴⁷ Idem.

⁴⁸ Idem.

⁴⁹ [World Bank, 2019](#).

⁵⁰ Idem.

⁵¹ The ILO defines vulnerable employment as people who work independently and do not have employees, and family members who contribute to the business of a household member. ([ILO, 2018](#)).

⁵² [World Bank, 2019](#).

Gender Based Violence

The results of 2015 survey from the Observatory against harassment in Chile showed that 3 of every 4 people in Chile suffered in the last 12 months some kind of sexual harassment on public spaces. When it is analyzed by gender 85% of women experienced it and 55% of men. 23% of the respondents suffered severe harassment such as persecution, exhibitionism, masturbation.

Young women are the most vulnerable group. 97% of them have suffered harassment in the last year, half at least once a week and two out of 10 daily. In 93% of cases, the harassment is perpetrated by a man. Of the total number of victims, 99% of the women and 50% of the men have been harassed by a man or a group of men.

In Chile, 18.5% of LGBTIQ+ people aged 15 or older have been sexually assaulted at some time in their life for being perceived as an LGBTIQ+ person (MISP, 2021). The personal experiences of victimization of LGBTIQ+ people in Chile occur in public spaces such as streets, parks, or transportation (20.6%).

COLOMBIA

Legal, regulatory, and institutional framework.

The Political Constitution of Colombia on the Article 43 establishes that "women and men have equal rights and opportunities, women may not be subjected to any kind of discrimination", and in its article 13 that "the State will promote the conditions for that equality is real and effective and will adopt measures in favor of discriminated or marginalized groups".

The National Development Plan 2018-2022 'Pacto por Colombia' has for the first time a specific chapter under the 'pact of equity for women' which through eight (8) lines of policy addresses aspects to advance in the guarantee of the rights and interests of various sectors of women; (I) Strengthening gender institutions in Colombia (ii) Education and economic empowerment to eliminate gender gaps in the world of work (iii) Care, a commitment to articulation and co-responsibility; (iv) Participation of women in power scenarios and decision making; (v) Promotion of sexual health and reproductive rights for children and adolescents; (vi) Right of women to a life free from violence; (vii) Rural women as agents of transformation in the countryside; (viii) Equality of women for the construction of peace.

Law/Document ⁵³	Content
Document <u>Conpes 161 de 2013</u>	National Public Policy on Gender Equality for women and the Comprehensive Plan to guarantee women a Life Free of Violence.
Document <u>Conpes 147 de 2012</u>	Guidelines for the development of the Strategy for the Prevention of Pregnancy in Adolescence.
Document <u>Conpes 3784 de 2013</u>	Policy for the Prevention, Protection and Guarantee of the Rights of Women Victims of the Armed Conflict.
<u>Decree 1930 of 2013</u>	National Public Policy on Gender Equity and creates an Intersectoral Commission for its implementation.
<u>Law 1496 of 2011</u>	Guarantees equal pay and remuneration between men and women.
<u>Law 1413 of 2010</u>	Through which the inclusion of the care economy in the system of national accounts is regulated in order to measure the contribution of women to the economic and social development of the country and as a fundamental tool for the definition and implementation of public policies.
<u>Law 1257 of 2008</u>	Mandates norms of awareness, prevention and punishment of forms of violence and discrimination against women

53 Source: t.ly/fhzzP

<u>Law 823 of 2003</u>	Mandate regulations on equal opportunities for women, guarantee of their rights and incorporation of gender equity actions at the national and territorial levels.
<u>Law 731 of 2002</u>	Mandates norms to favor rural women.
<u>Law 581 of 2000</u>	Regulates the adequate and effective participation of women in the decision-making levels of the different branches and bodies of public power.
<u>Decree 2737 of 1989</u>	Regulates the adequate and effective participation of women in the decision-making levels of the different branches and bodies of public power. It creates the Family Commissioners and Law 1098 of 2006 obliges all mayors to organize them.

Educational gaps

Colombia has made important advances regarding education indicators for both, women and men. In the education category there is a slight gap in favor of women. Net primary school enrollment rate declined slightly between 2000 and 2017 (2000: Women 94%, Men 95%; 2017: Women 91%, Men 91%), but the completion rate increased for women and men.⁵⁴ In 2017, net secondary school enrollment rate was 82% for women and 76% for men, and gross tertiary school enrollment ratio (% of relevant age group) was 65% for women and 56% for men.⁵⁵ Gross tertiary graduation ratio was 30% for women and 21% for men in 2017, in comparison to 5% and 4%, respectively, in 2000.⁵⁶ Gross enrollment in tertiary education has been increasing, especially female gross enrollment, but the female shares of graduates from STEM decreased from 37% to 34% between 2000 and 2017.⁵⁷

Access to Financial Resources

In 2017, 49% of men in the country had accounts in financial institutions, in comparison to 41% of women (% of population over 15 years old); for the same year, more men than women obtained loans from financial institutions (16% and 13% respectively).⁵⁸ Colombia's gender gap

54 [World Bank, 2019](#).

55 Idem.

56 Idem.

57 Idem.

58 [World Bank, Global FINDEX database](#).

regarding access to loans from the formal financial sector is similar to Latin America and upper-middle income countries (9% of women vs. 11% of men, for both).⁵⁹

Loan collaterals and guarantees tend to be stricter for women and regulatory requirements limit their access to financing.⁶⁰ In Colombia, these barriers impact the percentage of people who have access to emergency funds and women are disproportionately affected (only 27% of women vs. 47% of men have access to emergency funds).⁶¹ Furthermore, the access to emergency funds gender gap in Colombia is higher than the gap in the region, and significantly higher than in upper-middle income countries, 35% of women vs. 52% of men, and 53% of women and 61% of men have access to emergency funds, respectively.⁶² Additionally, only 12% of Colombian women have savings to start, operate or expand a farm or business, significantly lower to the percentage of men (19%).⁶³

Economic Opportunities

The labor force participation rate gender gaps have had modest improvements between 2000 and 2017. Female labor force participation rate (of women over 15 years old) in Colombia had a slight increase, while the rate for women ages 15-24 had a slight decrease. In 2017, labor force participation rate (% of population over 15 years old) was 82% for men and 59% for women, in comparison to 84% and 54%, respectively, in 2000.⁶⁴ For young population, ages 15-24, female and male labor force participation rate has decreased (2000: M: 67%; F: 47%. 2017: M: 61%; F: 45%).⁶⁵

Furthermore, working conditions are similar between men and women: a slightly higher percentage of women are salaried workers (M: 48%; W: 51%), the percentage of women and

59 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

60 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

61 Idem.

62 Idem.

63 Idem.

64 [World Bank, 2019](#).

65 Idem.

men in vulnerable employment⁶⁶ is similar (M: 47%; W:46%). However, unemployment rate is higher for women than for men (M: 7%; W:12%).⁶⁷

The ILO (International Labor Organization) estimates that female labor force participation is significantly lower than male in the transport, storage, and communication sectors (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 86% are men and only 14% are women), and in the mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 83% are men and only 17% are women).⁶⁸

Gender Based Violence

According to the SIEDCO (*Sistema de Información Estadístico, Delincuencial, Contravencional y Operativo de la Policía Nacional*) between January 2019 and January 2022, 97,237 cases of sexual violence were reported. Of that total, 85% (82,873) were committed against women, while 15% (14,364) against men.

The Transmilenio sexual harassment against women survey, conducted in 2017, found that women's security perception when using the system was low: 30% of female users feels very insecure and 54% feels insecure.⁶⁹ Additionally, 65% of surveyed women said they had suffered sexual leering in the last week and 64% said they were touched in their body without consent.⁷⁰ To address the gender gaps in the sector, the Transportation Ministry created the Sectorial Committee for the implementation of the Gender Equality Public Policy. This Committee is responsible of incorporating women's needs in the sector's plans, projects, and strategies.⁷¹

66 The ILO defines vulnerable employment as people who work independently and do not have employees, and family members who contribute to the business of a household member. ([ILO, 2018](#)).

67 [World Bank, 2019](#).

68 Own calculations using ILO data. ILO (2019). [Employment distribution by economic activity \(by sex\) – ILO modelled estimates \(thousands\), Nov. 2019 \(%\) – Annual](#).

69 [Acoso sexual contra mujeres en el transporte público: Caso TransMilenio, Bogotá D.C.](#)

70 Idem.

71 Mintransporte. (2020). [Sector transporte contra la violencia hacia las mujeres](#).

COSTA RICA

Legal, regulatory and institutional framework

Costa Rica is one of the countries in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) that has historically demonstrated an important commitment to gender equality and the empowerment of women. In 1986, the country ratified the “Convention for the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women” (CEDAW) of 1979 and its optional protocol in 2001. Subsequently, it approved a series of laws, policies and regulations that aim to close gender gaps, among these we can highlight: the Reform of Articles 58 and 60 of the Electoral Law in 1996 that obliges political parties to contemplate a minimum quota of 40% of women in different political positions ; the establishment of the National Institute for Women (INAMU) in 1998, an entity in charge of supervising all policies related to gender issues; the implementation of the National Policy for Gender Equality and Equity (PIEG) 2007-2017 and respective action plans; and the creation, to date, of 67 Municipal Women's Offices and 26 gender units in Ministries, in the Legislative Assembly, the Judiciary, the Costa Rican Institute of Electricity (ICE) and the Supreme Electoral Tribunal⁷².

Law/Document	Content
Labor Code (1944)	It establishes that the amount of the salary in each class of work is set based on its quantity and quality and no differences can be established based on sex.
Law for the Promotion of Social Equality for Women (1990)	It establishes that the State must promote and guarantee equal rights between men and women in the political, economic, social, and cultural fields. It establishes that working parents will have the right to support services from children's centers. Those with limited economic resources will also have the right to receive a subsidy from the State. In art.94 the employer is prohibited from firing pregnant and lactating women.
Law 7,621 reforms the Labor Code (1996)	Compulsory paid maternity leave during the month prior to delivery and the three months after. The worker who adopts a minor will enjoy the same rights and a three-month license. Parental license.
Creation of the National Institute for Women (1998)	Promotes and protects the human rights of women. It also coordinates and supervises the national policy for gender equality and equity.
Law of Care for women in conditions of poverty (1998)	It establishes special attention for women in conditions of poverty, through training in human development, technical-labor training, labor and

72 UNPFA (2014). Advances towards gender equity: Costa Rica 2014.

	productive insertion, and an economic incentive linked to training processes.
Political Constitution (Reform of 1999)	It establishes that every person is equal before the law and no discrimination contrary to human dignity may be practiced.
Municipal Code (Reforms of 2008)	It establishes that municipalities must promote local public policies for the promotion of women's rights and citizenship, in favor of gender equality and equity.
Gender Based Violence	Law 8,805 (2010). Amendment to the Law Against Sexual Harassment in Employment and Teaching. Law 8,925 (2011). Amendment to the Law against Domestic Violence. Law 8,929 (2011). Reform of the Law on Penalization of Violence Against Women.
Creation of the Gender Equality and Equity Management System (SIGIEG), national technical standard (2013)	It is a tool for organizations that decide on a voluntary basis, to get involved in the process of recognizing the gender gaps that exist within them and, subsequently, apply corrective measures to eliminate them.
National Employment and Production Strategy (2014)	It aims to expand opportunities for women and men to find decent and productive work.
National Development Plan (2014)	Defines as one of the pillars to achieve gender equality and equal citizenship: the ability of women to generate their own income and control assets and resources (economic autonomy).
National Policy for Gender Equality and Equity 2007-2017	Promotes affirmative actions for vertical and horizontal occupational de-segregation, such as: definition of minimum percentages for hiring women in managerial positions, training of women in highly segregated academic areas (scientific and technological careers).

Educational gaps

Specifically, regarding advances in educational participation, the gender gap in the enrollment of girls and boys in primary school is almost non-existent (96.2% and 96.1% in 2014, respectively). However, in secondary and tertiary education, the gaps begin to increase, with women having a higher percentage of enrollment in both levels (80.1% vs. 76.2% and 58.8% vs. 47.5% in 2014, respectively).⁷³

Economic Opportunities

⁷³ Banco mundial (2014). Gender Data Portal: Costa Rica.

Although Costa Rica has witnessed advances in terms of gender, one of the most important challenges for the country is, as the WEF report highlights, to close these gaps in the economic participation of women. Data from the International Labor Organization (ILO) from 2012 reveal that female labor participation (43.5%) is well below male participation (75.9%), being one of the countries in the region with the lowest female participation in the labor market.⁷⁴ Additionally, when this analysis is done by areas, it can be seen that the gaps between men and women in rural areas (34.9% and 77.2% respectively)⁷⁵ are more pronounced and the gaps between rural and urban women are also important (8.6 percentage points). This is since formal or quality job options in rural areas are extremely limited due to limited access, among other things, and to this are added the gender stereotypes that still attribute to women the responsibilities of housework, home care and reproduction. In fact, 30.5% of women work in lower quality jobs, compared to 15.1% of men.

To this it can be added that the country presents an important occupational segregation of gender. In fact, women are overrepresented in sectors such as housework, education and social professions, sectors that tend to be less paid; but they are underrepresented in sectors such as transport and construction, sectors that tend to have higher wages, with more stable jobs and better social benefits. For example, women represent almost 70% of all employees in the education sector but represent less than 15% and 5% of employees in the transport and construction sectors, respectively.⁷⁶ When the structure of occupation by area is analyzed for the year 2014, the percentage of participation of women in the construction and transportation sectors is even lower: 0.3% and 1.5%, respectively.⁷⁷

It can be concluded, then, that rural women have less access to jobs and their own income, which results in a greater situation of vulnerability and poverty. In 2014, 22.7% of rural women are in a situation of poverty compared to 21.4% of men and 46.4% of rural women do not have their own income, compared to 31.2% of urban women and 12.4% of rural men.⁷⁸

Access to Financial Resources

In 2017, 75% of men in Costa Rica had accounts in financial institutions, in comparison to 61% of women (% of the population 15 years old); for the same year, more men than women obtained loans (15% and 13% respectively).⁷⁹

74 ECLAC data indicate a slight increase for both sexes in 2015: female labor participation reached 47% and male 78%. See: CepalStat. "Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean: Costa Rica 2015".

75 ILO (2013). Decent work and gender equality. Geneva: World Labor Organization; and ILO (2012). Labor panorama 2012: Latin America and the Caribbean. Geneva: World Labor Organization.

76 IDB (2015). Infographic: Women's employment by sectors in LAC.

77 CepalStat. "Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean: Costa Rica 2014".

78 Idem.

79 [World Bank, Global FINDEX database](#).

Loan collaterals and guarantees tend to be stricter for women and regulatory requirements limit their access to financing.⁸⁰ In Costa Rica, these barriers impact the percentage of people who have access to emergency funds and women are disproportionately affected (only 37% of women vs. 54% of men have access to emergency funds).⁸¹ Additionally, only 14% of Costa Rican women have savings to start, operate or expand a farm or business, slightly lower to the percentage of men (19%).⁸²

Gender Based Violence

In Costa Rica, the number of victims under the Law Against the Domestic Violence increased in 2020, 2,549 more victims than 2019, reaching a total of 10,779 individuals, of which 78% were women.⁸³ In 2020, 19 femicides were recorded, representing 31% of females being victims of violent deaths.⁸⁴

Dominican Republic

⁸⁰ Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

⁸¹ Idem.

⁸² Idem.

⁸³ <https://infosegura.org/en/2021/06/18/violence-against-women-costa-rica-2020/>

⁸⁴ Idem.

Legal, regulatory, and institutional framework

The 2010 Dominican Republic Constitution establishes equal rights for men and women (art. 39, 42, 62), including the right to work and to personal integrity. The country has the National Plan for Equality and Gender Equity 2020-2030 (PLANEG III) lead by the Ministry of Woman (created by Law 86-99) and aligned with the National Development Strategy and the Sustainable Development Goals. The Plan promotes economic, decision making and physical autonomy of women⁸⁵. Regarding domestic violence and gender-based violence, Law 24-97 (art. 309, 330-333) recognizes it is a crime and defined the punishment in these cases⁸⁶. To promote women participation on politics, electoral laws have been modified by defining a percentage of women that have to be part of the candidates and for occupy deputy or municipal positions⁸⁷.

Law/Document	Content
Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)	Ratified in 1987. Optional Protocol ratified in 2001. Mandatory reference on equality between men and women. With their ratification or accession, States are legally obliged to adopt all necessary measures, including laws and temporary extraordinary measures, so that women have the full enjoyment of all their human rights and fundamental freedoms.
Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995)	The signatory countries assume the responsibility of implementing the Platform for Action in which 12 critical areas of intervention for the advancement of women are defined.
Labor Code and reforms (1992)	Parental leave 2 paid days.
Ministry of Women (1999)	Defines and leads the execution of public policies, plans and programs that contribute to gender equality and equity and to the full exercise of women's citizenship.
Offices of Gender Equity and Development (OEGD, 2001)	Focal points in the different ministries in order to mainstream the gender perspective in sectoral policies and facilitate the guiding and articulating role of the Ministry of Women with the sectors.

85 National Plan for Equality and Gender Equity 2020-2030, Ministry of Women, (2019). https://oig.cepal.org/sites/default/files/2019_planeg_iii_dom.pdf

Law 86-99 creation of the Secretary of State for Women, 1999.

86 Law No. 24-97 that introduces modifications to the Penal Code, the Code of Criminal Procedure and the Code for the Protection of Children and Adolescents, 1997.

87 Electoral Law 275, <https://oig.cepal.org/es/laws/3/country/republica-dominicana-21>.

Law 87 (2001)	It establishes that the Dominican Social Security System (SDSS) will develop childcare services to care for the children of workers, from 45 days old until they are five years old.
National Plan for Gender Equality and Equity 2007-2017 (PLANEG II)	The plan defines 7 priority national issues through which the main problems faced by women in Dominican society should be addressed. For each of these national issues, the current context is analyzed in relation to the problems it poses for the construction of equality and equity between genders, and from this a set of objectives is derived that seeks to address and solve these problems. Likewise, areas of intervention and priority lines of action are identified that should guide the concrete actions to be developed by the public and private co-executing institutions of PLANEG II.
Political Constitution (2010)	Women and men are equal before the law. Any act that has the objective or result of undermining or annulling the recognition, enjoyment, or exercise under equal conditions of the fundamental rights of women and men is prohibited. The necessary measures will be promoted to guarantee the eradication of inequalities and gender discrimination. The State guarantees the equality and equity of women and men in the enjoyment of their rights to work.
Promulgation of resolution No. 211-14 of the ILO No.183 (2014)	Extension of maternity leave to 14 weeks.
Criminal Code (Law 550/2014)	It typifies Femicide.

Educational gaps

Although gender gaps in the access and level of education of women have reduced in the past year (for example literacy rate for people aged 15+ is the same for both genders⁸⁸), there are still some differences. World Bank data from 2018 show women (96.9%) have higher primary education completion than men (91.2%). Similar situation happens regarding the completion rate for lower secondary education which for women is 91.5% and for men 81.4%⁸⁹. This trend is

88 UN Women data, <https://data.unwomen.org/country/dominican-republic>

89 World Bank data sets, (2019).

consistent with the increment on the average schooling years, which changed from 8.4 years in 2008 to 9.1 years in 2015⁹⁰.

Although the rate of out of school for primary and lower secondary education for women is 7.3% and for male 7.4 %⁹¹, according to UNICEF data (2016), the reasons for early school drop have differences according to gender. The main reasons for quit school for men are preferences to work instead of study (45.7%), no liking school (17%) and lack of financial resources (16.5%). Meanwhile, for women the main reason is house chores (21.3%), lack of money (16.5%), work (15.7%), and marriage, pregnancy and taking care of own children (9.7%). This causes reflect persistency of gender roles⁹².

The gross attendance ratio for tertiary education is higher for women than men. The attendance of female population is 122%⁹³ and for male 71,5%. Students' distribution by gender reveals there are more women in careers like art and humanities (81% are women), health (80% are women), and education (75% are women). While from the total number of students in engineer, 29% are women⁹⁴. Yet, the female share of graduates from STEM in this country is 40%⁹⁵.

Economic Opportunities

According to the Ministry of Economy, Planning and Development, women poverty is higher than for men. The general poverty rate for women in 2020 was 24.61% which increased up to 25.78% in 2021. While for men it was 22.04% in 2020 and reduced to 21.80% in 2021. On the other hand, the poverty femininity index (age 25-59). In 2020, there were 138 women in poverty for every 100 men in the same situation. But for 2021, it increased to 150 poor women per every 100 men. The higher value since 2016⁹⁶. On the other hand, the labor force participation rate of women (over 15 years of age) in 2020 was 47.69%, while for men was 74.12%. This value has decreased if it is compared with 2019, when 52.52% of women and 78.21% of men participated in the labor force. This date evidence economic dependency of women and reduce household incomes, that

90 (INTERED, 2018).

91 UN Women data, <https://data.unwomen.org/country/dominican-republic>.

92 (UNICEF in INTERED, 2018).

93 Includes over-age and under-age students from early or late entry and grade repetition. 4 The little data book on gender, (World Bank, 2019).

94 Gender inequalities in the Dominican Republic 2018 – 2020, (BID, 2019).

95 The little data book on gender, (World Bank, 2019).

96 Official statistics bulletin of monetary poverty in the Dominican Republic 2021. Ministry of Economy, Planning and Development.

might be related to gender assigned roles (domestic chores, caregiving, education level, marital status, mother with young age children, and other factors⁹⁷. Unemployment rate for women in 2020 was 8.94%, which means more than the double of men with 4.21%. If data is compared to 2019, women rate was even higher with 9.27% and men rate remained similar with 4.1%⁹⁸.

Gender differences are also evident in the way people distribute their time for paid and unpaid activities. While women dedicate 31.2 hours per week to unpaid work (meaning 16.2% of their time dedicated to domestic chores and care work), men expend 9.6 weekly hours (equivalent to the 9.6% of their time⁹⁹), which mean one third of the time a women used for unpaid work. Situation is inverse regarding paid work, since women use 19.8 hours of their time and men 37.2 hours¹⁰⁰.

Regarding women participation in the different economic sectors for 2018, there is a higher employment of this gender in services with 89% for women and 59% for men. While in the industry the trend is inverse, with 26% of men working in this area and 10% of women. For agriculture situation is similar, since 15% of the men work in this sector, compared to only 1% of women, showing a masculinized activity¹⁰¹.

The ILO estimates that female labor force participation is significantly lower than male in the transport, storage and communication sectors (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 93% are men and only 7% are women), and in the mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 67% are men and only 33% are women)¹⁰².

Access to Financial Resources

Although there are differences in the access to bank account per gender, these are not significant since the 53% of women in Dominican Republic report have an account, compared to the 56% of men. A similar situation happened with people who borrow from a financial institution, since the percentage is the same for men and women (18%). On the other hand, the

97 <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.UEM.TOTL.FE.NE.ZS?locations=DO>, (World Bank, 2019).

98 Idem.

99 UN Women data, <https://data.unwomen.org/country/dominican-republic>.

100 Latin America and the Caribbean Gender Equality Observatory, (2017).

101 The little data book on gender, (World Bank, 201).

102 Own calculations using ILO information. ILO (2019). Employment distribution by economic activity (by sex) – ILO modelled estimates (thousands), Nov. 2019 (%) – Annual.

percentage of people able to raise funds for an emergency from a bank, employer or private lender was higher for women in 2017, with the 18% compared to the 14% of men¹⁰³.

Gender Based Violence

According to the Experimental survey about women from 2018, 68.8% of women (aged +15) have experienced violence along their live. Values are higher for rural areas with 71.9% while in cities it is 61%. Violence in the past 12 months remains high with 55.9% in general, but 68.1% in rurality and 54.8% in urban zones. More than half of women (51.7%) have experience violence along their live in the public sphere (labor, education and communitarian or social spaces), and 52.7% in the private dimension. Regarding violence in the public sphere, 84.3% of declared it happened in public spaces like streets, parks or the beach. And 2.5% experience it at public transport. About violence in the private sphere, the 41.8% of women experienced it from their current or last partner¹⁰⁴. Regarding early marriage, the proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 18 is 35.9% and for women before age 15 is 12.3%.¹⁰⁵

103 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

104 (Women Ministry, National Statistics Office, BID, 2018).

105 UN Women data, <https://data.unwomen.org/country/dominican-republic>.

Jamaica

Legal, regulatory, and institutional framework

Law/Document	Content
Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)	Ratified in 1987. Optional Protocol ratified in 2001. Mandatory reference on equality between men and women. With their ratification or accession, States are legally obliged to adopt all necessary measures, including laws and temporary extraordinary measures, so that women have the full enjoyment of all their human rights and fundamental freedoms.
Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995)	The signatory countries assume the responsibility of implementing the Platform for Action in which 12 critical areas of intervention for the advancement of women are defined.
Constitution of Jamaica and amendments (1962)	Acknowledges rights and freedoms of the individual, such as the right to equality before the law no matter sex, race, and place of origin, social class, color, or political opinions.
Employment Law (1995)	It defines the labor rights of women and men with special attention to equal pay.
Maternity Law (1999)	The maternity leave period should not exceed 12 weeks per pregnancy or childbirth. The weekly maternity benefit corresponds to the remuneration recognized for work done in the last week (100%). Parental leave is not provided.
Law on Domestic Violence (2004 revision)	Provides greater protection for victims of domestic violence and abuse and applies to both spouses and common-law partners.
Jamaica National Development Plan Vision 2030 (2009)	It includes a Sector Plan on Gender that recognizes gender equality as a cross-cutting theme for all national development initiatives.
Law on sexual crimes (2009)	Provides new provisions in case of rape and other sexual crimes. It also provides for the creation of a Registry of Sexual Offenders.
National Policy for Gender Equality (2011)	Its objective is to influence the development and implementation of policies to move from a gender-neutral approach that assumes gender equality and equity to a gender-aware position that recognizes that there are barriers that prevent equal access to opportunities and therefore they create inequality.

Bureau of Gender Affairs (2016)	It is the state agency and national machinery for women's empowerment and an advocate for gender issues.
Gender Advisory Council (2005)	It is a multi-sectoral body charged with guiding the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of the National Policy for Gender Equality in conjunction with the Bureau of Gender Affairs.

Educational gaps

In the education category Jamaica's net secondary school enrollment rate for men and women in 2017 was lower with 71% and 77% respectively compared to 75% and 78% in 2000. Similar trends were found on lower secondary completion rate with 97% for men and 98 for women in 2000 and 84% and 87% respectively in 2017.

Economic Opportunities

The labor force participation rate gender gaps have had modest improvements between 2000 and 2017. Female labor force participation rate (of women over 15 years old) in Jamaica had a slight increase, while the rate for women ages 15-24 had a slight decrease. In 2017, labor force participation rate (% of population over 15 years old) was 74% for men and 60% for women, in comparison to 77% and 57%, respectively, in 2000.¹⁰⁶ For young population, ages 15-24, female and male labor force participation rate has decreased (2000: M: 52%; F: 34%. 2017: M: 45%; F: 36%).¹⁰⁷

Furthermore, working conditions are similar between men and women: a slightly higher percentage of women are salaried workers (M: 56%; W: 67%), the percentage of women and men in vulnerable employment¹⁰⁸ is similar (M: 40%; W:31%). However, unemployment rate is higher for women than for men (M: 7%; W:12%).¹⁰⁹

According to the Statistical Institute of Jamaica (SIOJ), estimated for October 2019, female participation in the transport, storage and communication sector was 21.16% of the total people employed in the sector, 21% for the mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply

106 [World Bank, 2019](#).

107 Idem.

108 The ILO defines vulnerable employment as people who work independently and do not have employees, and family members who contribute to the business of a household member. ([ILO, 2018](#)).

109 [World Bank, 2019](#).

sector, and 3.4% for construction.¹¹⁰ Occupational segregation is significant in Jamaica, of the total of women employed, the majority is in the services sector (wholesale and retail, hotels and restaurant services, education, health and social work), while women in the transport, storage and communication, and construction sectors, of the total of women employed, were estimated to represent 2.66% and 0.66%, respectively.¹¹¹

Access to Financial Resources

In 2014, 79% of men in the country had accounts in financial institutions, in comparison to 78% of women (% of population over 15 years old); for the same year, men than women obtained loans from financial institutions with the same rate (11% for both).¹¹² Jamaica's gender gap regarding access to loans from the formal financial sector is similar to Latin America and upper-middle income countries (9% of women vs. 11% of men, for both).¹¹³

Loan collaterals and guarantees tend to be stricter for women and regulatory requirements limit their access to financing.¹¹⁴ In Jamaica, these barriers impact the percentage of people who have access to emergency funds and women are disproportionately affected (only 54% of women vs. 64% of men have access to emergency funds).¹¹⁵ Additionally, only 12% of Jamaica women have savings to start, operate or expand a farm or business, significantly lower to the percentage of men (19%).¹¹⁶

Gender Based Violence

Jamaica's women's health survey in 2016 found that 23% of women had been sexually abused by men other than their partners and, for 3%, this happened within the 12 months prior to the

110 Own calculations using data from the Statistical Institute of Jamaica. 2019. Labor force by industry group.

111 Idem.

112 [World Bank, Global FINDEX database.](#)

113 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

114 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

115 Idem.

116 Idem.

interview. One in four women (24%) reported being sexually harassed during their lifetime; 13% per cent reported this happening within the 12 months prior to the interview¹¹⁷.

117 <https://evaw-global-database.unwomen.org/-/media/files/un%20women/vaw/vaw%20survey/jamaica%20womens%20health%20survey%20report%202016.pdf?vs=5406>

PANAMA

Legal, regulatory, and institutional framework

The Political Constitution of Panama (1972) establishes that "women and men have equal rights and opportunities, women may not be subjected to any kind of discrimination", and in its article 13 that "the State will promote the conditions for that equality is real and effective and will adopt measures in favor of discriminated or marginalized groups".

Law/Document ¹¹⁸	Content
Political Constitution (1972) of the Republic of Panama	It establishes the principle of non-discrimination, equal pay under equal conditions without distinction and the protection of maternity.
Labor Code (1971)	It establishes the principle of equal pay (Art. 10), maternity protection and the right to breastfeed (Art. 105, 106, 107, 114, 116).
Law No. 3 of May 17, 1994 ¹¹⁹	Approves the family code that protects the rights of married women or women in common law, in case of divorce in relation to property, that as a partner of marital property, that is, acquired during the marriage.
Law No. 12 of April 20, 1995	Approves the Inter-American Convention to prevent, punish, and eradicate violence against women. Convention Belem Do Pará.
Law No. 50 of November 23, 1995	Protects and encourages breastfeeding.
Law No. 4 of January 29, 1999	Institutes Equal Opportunities for Women.
Law No. 17 of March 26, 2001	Approves the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).
Law No. 38 of July 10, 2001	Reforms and adds articles to the Criminal and Judicial Code, on Domestic Violence and abuse of children and adolescents, repeals articles of Law 27 of 1995 and dictates other provisions.
Law No. 16 of March 31, 2004	Establishes provisions for the prevention of crimes against integrity and sexual freedom, modifies and adds articles to the Penal and Judicial Code.
Law No. 11 of April 22, 2005	Prohibits employment discrimination and adopts other measures.

118 Source: Enred Panamá 2018.

119 Se consigo la información de la aplicación del Código de Familia a través de consultas con el INSAMU noviembre 2018.

Law No. 71 of December 23, 2008	Creates the National Institute for Women (INAMU) for the protection of women against violence and the protection of their rights.
Law No. 82 of October 24, 2013	This Law criminalizes femicide and aims to guarantee the right of women to a life free of violence, protect the rights of women victims of violence, as well as prevent and punish all forms of violence against women.
Law No. 29 of May 5, 2015	Approves Convention 189 on Decent Work for Domestic Workers.
Law No. 30 of May 5, 2015	Amends and repeals provisions of the Family Code.
Law No. 73 of December 18, 2015	Amends articles of Law 38 of 2001, on the domestic violence procedure.
Law No. 60 of November 30, 2016	Reforms Law 29 of 2002, on pregnant minors and dictates other provisions.
Law No. 27 of May 23, 2017	Creates parental leave for workers of private companies and public servants.
Law No. 56 of July 11, 2017	It establishes the participation of women in state boards of directors.
Executive Decree No. 53 of June 25, 2001	Law No. 4 of January 29, 1999, is regulated with the creation of Government Mechanisms for the Promotion of Equal Opportunities.
Executive Decree No. 443 of November 5, 2001	It guarantees the continuity and completion of studies for pregnant minors.
Executive Decree No. 464 of July 2, 2012	Approves the National Plan against Human Trafficking.
Executive Decree No. 244 of December 18, 2012	Adopts the Public Policy for Equal Opportunities for Women that was optimized through the Action Plan for Equal Opportunities for Women 2016-2019.
Executive Decree No. 100 of April 20, 2017	It regulates the Law 82 of October 24, 2013.

Educational gaps

Panama has made considerable progress in terms of education indices for both men and women. In the education category there is a slight gap in favor of women. Net primary school enrollment rate declined between 2000 and 2017 (2000: Women 95%, Men 95%; 2017: Women 87%, Men 87%), but the completion rate increased for women and men. In 2017, net secondary school enrollment rate was 72% for women and 67% for men, and gross tertiary school enrollment ratio (% of relevant age group) was 58% for women and 37% for men. Gross tertiary graduation ratio was 33% for women and 16% for men in 2017, in comparison to 30% and 13%, respectively, in

2000.¹²⁰ Gross enrollment in tertiary education has been increasing, especially female gross enrollment, including the female shares of graduates from STEM increasing from 41% to 49% between 2000 and 2017.¹²¹

Access to Financial Resources

In 2017, 51% of men in Panama had accounts in financial institutions, in comparison to 42% of women (% of the population 15 years old); for the same year, more men than women obtained loans (9% and 7% respectively).¹²² Panama's gender gap regarding access to loans from the formal financial sector is similar than Latin America and upper-middle income countries (9% of women vs. 11% of men, for both).¹²³

Loan collaterals and guarantees tend to be stricter for women and regulatory requirements limit their access to financing.¹²⁴ In Panama, these barriers impact the percentage of people who have access to emergency funds and women are disproportionately affected (only 36% of women vs. 51% of men have access to emergency funds).¹²⁵ Additionally, only 13% of Panamanian women have savings to start, operate or expand a farm or business, significantly lower to the percentage of men (20%).¹²⁶

Economic Opportunities

The labor force participation rate gender gaps have had modest improvements between 2000 and 2017. Female labor force participation rate (of women over 15 years old) in Panama had a slight increase, while the rate for women ages 15-24 had a slight decrease. In 2017, labor force participation rate (% of population over 15 years old) was 80% for men and 53% for women, in comparison to 81% and 45%, respectively, in 2000.¹²⁷ For young population, ages 15-24, female

120 Idem.

121 Idem.

122 [World Bank, Global FINDEX database.](#)

123 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

124 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

125 Idem.

126 Idem.

127 [World Bank, 2019.](#)

and male labor force participation rate has decreased (2000: M: 64%; F: 36%. 2017: M: 58%; F: 34%).¹²⁸

Furthermore, working conditions are similar between men and women: a slightly higher percentage of women are salaried workers (M: 68%; F: 63%), the percentage of women and men in vulnerable employment¹²⁹ is similar (M: 33%; F: 30%). However, unemployment rate is higher for women than for men (M: 3%; F: 5%).¹³⁰

The ILO estimates that female labor force participation is significantly lower than male in the transport, storage and communication sectors (of the total of people employed in these sectors 85% are men and only 15% are women), and in the mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 81% are men and only 19% are women).⁴⁰ IDB estimations in 2015 for Panama, showed that only 13% of transport workers were women and 6% in construction this added to the fact that most of these women work on lower-paid and prospective jobs such as cleaning or on administrative jobs.

Gender Based Violence

Panama is one of the countries with lower rates of GBV (Gender Based Violence) in the region with 16% compared to the regional average with 25%¹³¹. On the National Survey of sexual and reproductive health in 2014-2015, 34% of the female respondents experienced physical, emotional, or sexual violence at least once in their lifetime. Between January and November of the year 2018, 18 femicides and 14 attempted femicides were registered throughout the country, a majority were registered in the city of Panama¹³². Likewise, 14,265 cases of family violence and 2,348 cases of rape were reported during the same period¹³³.

128 Idem.

129 The ILO defines vulnerable employment as people who work independently and do not have employees, and family members who contribute to the business of a household member. ([ILO, 2018](#)).

130 [World Bank, 2019](#).

131 <https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/Violencia-sexual-y-basada-en-genero-mapa-de-ruta-para-su-prevencion-y-atencion-en-America-Latina-y-el-Caribe.pdf>

132 Public Ministry, 2018.

133 Idem.

PARAGUAY

Legal, regulatory, and institutional framework

Paraguay has taken various measures to ensure gender equality with the adoption of the new Constitution of 1992 and has developed an institutional structure in women's rights, such as the constitution of the Ministry of Women and the execution of the III National Plan of Equal Opportunities between Women and Men 2008-2017.

Law/Document	Content
Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)	Ratified in 1987. Optional Protocol ratified in 2001. Mandatory reference on equality between men and women. With their ratification or accession, States are legally obliged to adopt all necessary measures, including laws and temporary extraordinary measures, so that women have the full enjoyment of all their human rights and fundamental freedoms.
Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995)	The signatory countries assume the responsibility of implementing the Platform for Action in which 12 critical areas of intervention for the advancement of women are defined.
Political Constitution (1992)	Art. 48: Of the equal rights of men and women. Men and women have equal civil, political, social, economic, and cultural rights. It establishes that the State will promote the conditions and create the appropriate mechanisms for equality to be real and effective, smoothing out the obstacles that prevent or hinder its exercise and facilitating the participation of women in all areas of national life. Reform to the Political Constitution to explain legal equality between women and men, Law 19,611 (1999).
Labor Code (1993)	It ensures that women enjoy the same labor rights and have the same obligations as men.
Criminal Code (1997)	The concept of punishable acts against sexual autonomy has been introduced in the current Penal Code.
Law 1,600 against domestic violence (2000)	It is a provisional measure to protect the life of the victim of violence, regardless of whether they live with the aggressor. It stipulates protection measures, dictated by the Justice of the Peace of the area, anticipating police protection.

Ministry of Women (2012)	Promotes and implements public policies with a gender perspective, for the full enjoyment of women's human rights.
Plan for Equality between Women and Men 2008-2017	Promotes the incorporation of the gender perspective in the preparation, coordination, execution, monitoring, and evaluation of public policies through efficient regulatory instruments and actions aimed at eliminating all forms of gender discrimination, as well as equal opportunities and results, favoring the democratization of society.
National Development Plan 2014-2030	It includes gender equality policies to achieve equal opportunities and treatment between women and men.
Law 5,508 on the promotion, protection of maternity and support for breastfeeding (2015)	The law is intended to promote, protect, and support breastfeeding for female workers. In its article 11, the law establishes that every worker shall have the right to fully access the Maternity Leave for a period of 18 (eighteen) uninterrupted weeks; in addition to granting, "in an inalienable way", in its article 13, to every worker father of a newborn, 2 (two) weeks after childbirth, with pay, at the employer's expense.

Educational gaps

In Paraguay, net primary school enrollment rate was 98% for women and 97% for men in 2000.¹³⁴ However, the rate for secondary and tertiary enrollment is lower than the region's average. In the country, net secondary school enrollment rate was 54% for women and 51% for men, and gross tertiary school enrollment ratio (% of relevant age group) was 18% for women and 14% for men.¹³⁵

Access to Financial Resources

In 2017, 33% of men in Paraguay had accounts in financial institutions, in comparison to 29% of women (% of the population 15 years old); for the same year, more men than women obtained loans (16% and 11% respectively).¹³⁶

134 [World Bank, 2019.](#)

135 Idem.

136 [World Bank, Global FINDEX database.](#)

Loan collaterals and guarantees tend to be stricter for women and regulatory requirements limit their access to financing.¹³⁷ In Paraguay, these barriers impact the percentage of people who have access to emergency funds and women are disproportionately affected (only 46% of women vs. 61% of men have access to emergency funds).¹³⁸ Additionally, only 9% of Paraguayan women have savings to start, operate or expand a farm or business, slightly lower to the percentage of men (12%).¹³⁹

Economic Opportunities

In Paraguay, the participation of women in the labor force remains significantly lower than that of men. In 2017, the participation of women in the labor force was 57% while that of men was 84%.¹⁴⁰ The participation rate of women in the labor force (of the total of women over 15 years of age) increased 4 percentage points in the period 2000-2017, while that of men (of the total of men over 15 years of age) decreased 2 percentage points.¹⁴¹ Additionally, the participation of young people (between 15-24 years old) has decreased, for women it decreased from 48% in 2000 to 43% in 2017, and for men from 78% in 2000 to 69 % in 2017.¹⁴² Working conditions for women and men have improved: the percentage of salaried people increased¹⁴³ and the percentages of people in vulnerable employment¹⁴⁴ and unemployment decreased.¹⁴⁵ However, the percentage of women in vulnerable employment and unemployed conditions continues to be higher than that of men and the gaps in these indicators have increased between 2000 and 2017, except in unemployment.¹⁴⁶ Regarding labor segregation, according to ILO estimates, the majority of women work in the service sector (78% compared to 51% of men).¹⁴⁷ In 2019, the ILO estimated that female labor force participation was significantly lower than male in the transport, storage and communication sectors (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 87% are men and only 13% are women), and in the mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and

¹³⁷ Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

¹³⁸ Idem.

¹³⁹ Idem.

¹⁴⁰ World Bank. (2019). [Little Data Book on Gender 2019](#) - Paraguay.

¹⁴¹ Idem.

¹⁴² Idem.

¹⁴³ Empleados asalariados: (2000: M-44%, H-42%, Brecha: -2 puntos porcentuales); (2017: M-54%, H-57%, Brecha 3 puntos porcentuales). Fuente: World Bank. (2019). [Little Data Book on Gender 2019](#) - Paraguay.

¹⁴⁴ Empleo vulnerable: (2000: M-55%, H-53%, Brecha: 2 puntos porcentuales); (2017: M-43%, H-36%, Brecha: 7 puntos porcentuales). Fuente: World Bank. (2019). [Little Data Book on Gender 2019](#) - Paraguay.

¹⁴⁵ Desempleo: (2000: M-12%, H-8%, Bracha: 4 puntos porcentuales); (2017: M-6%, H-4%, Brachas: 2 puntos porcentuales). Fuente: World Bank. (2019). [Little Data Book on Gender 2019](#) - Paraguay.

¹⁴⁶ Fuente: World Bank. (2019). [Little Data Book on Gender 2019](#) - Paraguay.

¹⁴⁷ ILO. (2019). [Employment distribution by economic activity \(by sex\) – ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2019 \(%\) – Annual](#).

water supply (of the total of people employed in these sectors, 73% are men and only 27% are women).¹⁴⁸

The Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) carried out a gender study and analysis of the value chain of the transport sector in Paraguay. The study found that in rural areas, 42% of women lack their own income and in cases where they are part of the labor force, their income represents 62.1% of the income of their male peers. The study also noted the low participation of women in non-traditional sectors such as road construction and maintenance, even when there is a labor shortage. The low participation of women in these sectors is because job offers are not directed at women and to stereotypes and cultural and social norms.¹⁴⁹ As a result of the diagnosis, a gender action plan was designed, and the pilot was implemented. of gender within the Neighborhood Roads Improvement Program. The pilot focused on: i) promoting a training, awareness and dissemination plan on gender aspects related to the participation of women in non-traditional trades of civil works and maintenance, with a view to their labor insertion; and ii) promote the participation of women in technical training activities for local labor and their hiring in works to improve and maintain the program. Specifically, the training activities and internships showed positive findings regarding the self-worth of women in non-traditional jobs, and an improvement in the work environment of the work camps, through coexistence manuals and awareness talks.

Gender Based Violence

In Paraguay, between 60-80% of violence against women is perpetrated by the survivor's current or former partner (husband, concubine, ex-husband and ex-concubine, boyfriend)¹⁵⁰. Additionally, of the total number of femicides in the country, around 90% are perpetrated by the victim's current or former partner.¹⁵¹ Most of the GBV reports are made by women between 18-40 years old, and psychological violence is the type of violence with higher incidence (55%) followed by physical (40%).¹⁵² Regarding safety in public transportation, a survey in Asuncion found that 69% of female public transportation users felt unsafe at least once using the transportation system in Asuncion.¹⁵³

¹⁴⁸ Hub de energía. 2020. [¿Qué porcentaje de mujeres trabajan en las empresas de servicios de electricidad, gas y agua?](#). Elaboración del Hub de Energía utilizando la base de datos y estimaciones modeladas de la OIT

¹⁴⁹ [Programa de Habilitación y Conservación de Corredores Agroindustriales \(PR-L1164\): Anexo de Género y Diversidad](#). (2019).

¹⁵⁰ <https://www.cde.org.py/wp-content/uploads/2017/08/2016-ONU-Mujeres-Estudio-violencia-Paraguay.pdf>

¹⁵¹ <https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/Violencia-sexual-y-basada-en-genero-mapa-de-ruta-para-su-prevencion-y-atencion-en-America-Latina-y-el-Caribe.pdf>

¹⁵² <https://www.cde.org.py/wp-content/uploads/2017/08/2016-ONU-Mujeres-Estudio-violencia-Paraguay.pdf>

¹⁵³ <https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/El-transporte-p%C3%BAblico-desde-una-perspectiva-de-g%C3%A9nero-Percepci%C3%B3n-de-inseguridad-y-victimizaci%C3%B3n-en-Asunci%C3%B3n-y-Lima.pdf>

URUGUAY

Legal, regulatory, and institutional framework

Uruguay's Political Constitution (1967) states all persons are equal before the law. The country is a signatory of several international women protection agreements like the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1981), and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995). In 2005 The National Women's Institute (INMUJERES) was created to promote policies of gender equality and promotion of rights. The country also has the National Coordinating Council for Public Policies on Gender Equality (2007) and a National Plan for Equal Opportunities and Rights (2007-2011) to mainstream the gender approach in the State¹⁵⁴.

Law/Document	Content
Labor Activity (law 16,045, 1989)	Prohibits all discrimination in the areas of calls for provision of charges; Selection criteria; recruitment and hiring; performance evaluation criteria; right to promotion and advancement; employment stability; social benefits; suspension and dismissal; possibilities for professional and technical training or reconversion; training and updating; and remuneration criteria.
Domestic work (Law 18065, 2006)	Regulate domestic workers rights and the labor relationship.
Law on Equal Rights and Opportunities between Men and Women (2007).	The State must adopt measures to guarantee the design, follow-up and evaluation of public policies to integrate the gender perspective.
Concubinage union (Law 18246, 2008)	Stablishes rights and obligations for concubinage union.
Sexual and reproductive health (Law 18426, 2008)	To promote responsible sexual and reproductive health, as well as responsible motherhood and fatherhood.
Quota law (Law 18476, 2009)	To integrate Uruguayan women in political life at the legislative chambers.
Sexual harassment (Law 18561, 2009)	To prevent and punish sexual harassment in the workplace and in teacher-student relationships.
Gender identity (Law 18620, 2009)	Recognizes the right to gender identity and allows to modify name, image and sex registered in the documents.
Voluntary interruption of pregnancy (Law 18987, 2012)	Decriminalization of abortion
Parental leave (Law 19161, 2013)	Maternity and paternity right and subsidy, and subsidy for the newborn care.

154 BID, (2019). <https://generoeninfraestructura.iadb.org/publicaciones> (Acceded 08-04-2022)

UN Women. <https://lac.unwomen.org/es/donde-estamos/uruguay> (Accessed 08-04-2022).

Educational gaps

Uruguay has made considerable progress in closing gender gaps in education. According to Batthyany et al., (2016), Uruguayan women record higher educational achievements at all educational levels (primary, secondary and higher education), measured by the completion of educational cycles and attendance at establishments. Primary completion rate in 2018 was 98.4% for female population and 96.9% for male. While the completion rate for lower secondary education was 78.8% for women and for men 68.4%. The net primary enrollment rate for 2017 was 98% for both genders, but in secondary enrollment, there were differences, since it is higher for woman (86%) than for men (80%)¹⁵⁵.

Women represent over 60% of the total number of students who complete the secondary cycle and enter the tertiary cycle. By 2018 the gross attendance ratio for tertiary education is higher for women (103.5%)¹⁵⁶ than men (79.4%) attend. And the female share of graduates from STEM is 45%¹⁵⁷. Yet, there are less women than man in basic and technological careers at the tertiary level.

Economic Opportunities

Labor force participation rate in 2018 for persons over 15+ are, 56% for women 56% and 74% for men 74%. This difference persists for youth people aged 15-24, with 42% for female population and 56% for male. The difference remains for unemployment rate since it is higher for women aged 15+ with 10% and 6% for men. Employment distribution according to economic sector has also some gender differences. 87% of women participate mostly in service-related activities, while the 59% of men work in this area. Employment in industry have a higher participation of men. The 28% of them work in this sector, compared to the 9% of women. While agriculture concentrates 13% of the male work force and 9% of female. This sector has the lower employment occupation¹⁵⁸. The proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic chores and care work is unevenly distributed. Women dedicate 19.9% of their time for these activities, and men 8.5%¹⁵⁹.

155 The little data book on gender, (World Bank, 2019).

156 Includes over-age and under-age students from early or late entry and grade repetition. 4 The little data book on gender, (World Bank, 2019).

157 The little data book on gender, (World Bank, 2019).

158 The little data book on gender, (World Bank, 2019).

159 UN Women data, <https://data.unwomen.org/country/dominican-republic> (accessed 08-04-2022).

Although women participation in the labor force participation grew 39% between 2009 and 2019¹⁶⁰, important salary gaps persist. Women earn 25% less than men¹⁶¹. One of the factors that explains these gaps being the high levels of occupational segregation. Indeed, women are underrepresented in sectors such as construction, where they account for only 5% of employed persons¹⁶², while they are overrepresented in lower productivity jobs¹⁶³. Likewise, analyzes carried out by the UNDP (2014) show that the levels of occupational segregation are lower among the most qualified people.

Regarding women participation in road infrastructure construction, only 6% of the positions are held by them. Usually, the kind of positions occupied by women are in administration, technical and cleaning areas. Few of them work in operational activities. In this country, the transport sector is perceived as masculine, causing women entrance to the sector limited by stereotypes and cultural barriers. Plus, the lack of infrastructure for women, like differentiated bathrooms, and the lack of flexibility of the sector with long working hours and locations away from home, discourage women participation.

Access to Financial Resources

More men (68%) than women (61%) have a financial institutional account, which constitute an important asset for being part of the formal financing system and accessing to loans, having savings, credit card, virtual banking, and others. The relation is inverse if refereeing to borrowing to a financial institution, since more women (19%) than men (17%) accessed to it in the last 12 months of 2017. The panorama is similar regarding the ability to raise funds from a bank, employer, or a lender. The 18% of women aged 15+ might access to these funds, compared to the 14% of men¹⁶⁴.

Gender Based Violence

In Uruguay, 76.7% of 15-year-old women and more, report have experienced gender-based violence throughout life. The 54.4% of these women have face violence in public spaces along their life. This kind of experiences limit the free of movement of women in places like streets,

160 ILO (2019). Labor Indicators Database (accessed November 2020).

161 Colacce, M. et al. (2020). Gender gaps in labor income in Uruguay. UN Women.

162 Capurro et al., 2019.

163 Granada et al., 2019.

164 Demirgüç-Kunt, Ashly, Leora Klapper, Dorothe Singer, Saniya Ansar, and Jake Hess. 2018. *The Global Findex Database 2017: Measuring Financial Inclusion and the Fintech Revolution*. World Bank: Washington, DC.

transport, bars, parks, sport clubs, dancing clubs, church, health services and virtual spaces. It has impact on women and girls' possibilities to be part of public life, work, study, leisure activities and access to services¹⁶⁵.

Uruguay is one of the countries in Ibero-America with the highest incidence of women killed by their partners or ex-partners (1.22 / 100 thousand in 2019, 22 women). The number of femicides has increased from 18 to 30 murders between 2014 and 2018, followed by a slight decrease in 2019¹⁶⁶.

Regarding the proportion of ever-partnered women and girls subjected to physical and/or sexual violence by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, aged 15-49, the 4.3% of women have faced this situation. On the other hand, the proportion of women aged 20-24 years who were married or in a union before age 18, is 24.6%¹⁶⁷.

Programmatic Approach of the GAP

Taking into consideration the main gender gaps identified at the sector level and each country assessment, a Gender Action Plan (GAP) was developed to address these gaps. The GAP's objective is to promote gender equality in the electromobility sector and support countries in closing gender gaps.

To address the main gender gaps identified, the GAP has sectoral level activities that focus on capacity building, knowledge development and dissemination and network building. Moreover, the GAP also has country level activities that focus on context specific actions developed during the design phase of each project.

Level	Activity
Sectoral	Develop a training program for women that allow them to acquire the necessary technical skills to work in the electromobility sector
	Include gender specific procurement requirements in the project eligibility criteria
	Develop and implement a gender module to include in any capacity building activity in the Regional Sectorial Council of Skills for Electromobility or any activity training in the program

165 Second National Survey about Prevalence of violence based on gender and generations, (Observatory on Gender-Based Violence against Women, 2019).

166 CEPLASTAT, 2019. <https://statistics.cepal.org/portal/cepalstat/dashboard.html?lang=es>. (Accessed 08-04-2022).

167 UN Women data, <https://data.unwomen.org/country/dominican-republic> (accessed 08-04-2022).

	<p>Develop a electromobility chapter within the Transport Gender Lab (TGL) that serves as a network of women in electromobility in LAC to educate, connect, empower and inspire women</p> <p>Organize a regional EV Online Summit for women in LAC</p> <p>Carry out a survey among the sector companies to identify women in the e-mobility and hydrogen sectors, gender gaps, skills required for women, female role models, etc. in the 9 program countries</p> <p>Develop a toolkit to mainstream gender in electromobility projects that can be used by entities applying to the program</p>
Country	<p>Include a gender perspective during the design of sectoral roadmaps and the support of national enabling policies</p> <p>Support countries or cities to join the TGL</p> <p>Design and implement behavioral approaches to address violence against women in public transportation and develop gender case studies</p> <p>Promote gender equality through gender assessment and gender-specific activities in the projects financed by the program</p>

The GAP will be implemented by the IDB gender experts in the transportation, energy, and climate change divisions (one expert per division, in total 3 experts). The consultants will: (i) support the implementation of the Sectoral Actions by identifying firms or consultants to conduct them and supervising their work; and (ii) support the EE during the project design and implementation phases. Depending on the EE competency the IDB gender experts will have different roles during project design. Their role could be more supervisory (review documents and TORs) or it could be more hands on. However, no matter the EA competency, the IDB gender experts will be involved in the project to make sure that the project complies with the Bank's requirements for gender alignment.