

# Annex 8a: Gender Assessment

## E-Mobility Program



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## Abbreviations

ADB	Asian Development Bank
BEEPS	Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey
BMA	Bangkok Metropolitan Administration
BPFA	Beijing Platform for Action
BRT	Bus Rapid Transit
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
DFWCI	Department of Family, Women and Children's Issues
EUS	Employment and Unemployment Survey
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FIT	Fiji Institute of Technology
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	gross domestic product
GEC	Gender Equality Council
GGGI	Global Gender Gap Index
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GNI	gross national income
CPGE	Committee to Promote Gender Equality
HDI	Human Development Index
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ILO	International Labour Organization
MoWECP	Ministry of Women Empowerment and Child Protection
MSMEs	micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises
NAP	national action plan
NGOs	nongovernment organizations
NGS	National Gender Strategy
NSSS	National Statistical Service
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OTP	Office of Transport and Traffic Policy and Planning
PPA	Pacific Platform for Action for the Advancement of Women and Gender Equality
LGBT	lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender
LGBTI	lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender & intersex
SMEs	small and medium-sized enterprises
STEM	science, technology, engineering, and mathematics
SCFWCA	State Committee for Family, Women and Children Affairs
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WEF	World Economic Forum

## Summary

The last two decades brought significant advances for women in Asian Countries. All countries have joined the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and have nation specific laws to eliminate gender discrimination. While formalizing equality in legislation does not instantly make a society equitable, it is a necessary first step forward. Parity in education is reached almost in every country, there are better health systems which result in significantly lower maternal mortality.

However, despite progress in key areas in some countries, deep-rooted structural inequalities and discriminatory gender stereotypes continue to limit women's full and equal participation in the social, economic, and political sphere. Women keep being underrepresented in political sphere even though some countries have introduced quotas. The access to workforce remains highly unequal in every country. Further Gender Based Violence is high. One particularity of the region is the high number of forced child marriages. According to the Asian Pacific Institute on Gender-Based Violence, 2 persons per 1000 were victims of forced marriage in Asia.<sup>1</sup>

There is little information about sexual harassment and insecurity women face in public transportation in Asia. It is clear, that many women feel unsafe when using public transportation. There is still plenty of room for improvement in this area through awareness campaigns, data collection and capacity building. Women are also widely underrepresented in jobs related to transportation.

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<sup>1</sup> <https://www.api-gbv.org/about-gbv/types-of-gbv/forced-marriage/>

# 1 Introduction

The Green Climate Fund acknowledges in its gender policy that its initiatives to combat climate change are more sustainable, equitable and have more probabilities of reaching their objectives when gender equality and women empowerment questions are included in designing and implementing its programs and projects.

The role of this program to support innovation and implement measures to combat climate change from a gender perspective, to contribute to the reduction of the gender gap, and to prevent and minimize harm is three-folded: First, the program is a catalyst to change social norms in these countries because it can promote activities such as campaigns to raise awareness about harassment and violence against women and girls, or provide visibility to women working in non-traditional roles in the e-bus units and stations, and the e-taxis and e-vans markets. Second, the new e-transport paradigm can lever women's access to jobs in traditionally sex-segregated occupations and improve access to loans for female entrepreneurs. Third, the capacity building, training, and sharing of know-how to women and men adopters in the program can systematize gender mainstreaming in the transport sector, which in the end, improves women's mobility.

This gender assessment provides information about gender equality in the following countries: Armenia, Georgia, Indonesia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Nepal, and Uzbekistan.

For each country, a detailed assessment has been developed. Each section is sub-divided as follows:

- **National policies and programs:** This section outlines the laws, strategies and programs for each country, that targets gender inequality
- **Economic Opportunities:** This section describes the participation of women in the labor force (compared to men). Occupational patterns refer to the fields where women are employed and or the task they undertake in form of unpaid work. The percentage of women in management positions is also given.
- **Human Development:** This section refers to education, demography and health.
- **Leadership and Decision-Making:** shows the status of women's political participation
- **Gender-specification in transport sector:** This section seeks to give a picture of the challenges women face whenever they need to use any kind of transportation. The availability of this data varies vastly between each country. It depicts the participation of women working in the transport sector, safety issues, travel patterns, among others.

Data is presented on relevant indicators to offer a snapshot of women's unique situation in each of the selected countries. The large amount of available data related to gender equality and women's empowerment prompted a selection of those indicators with available and updated data that were reliable across different sources and could be found for each country. This section gathers the most recent quantitative data found by recognized entities in the region and ad hoc country studies on gender by reliable international sources. These indicators reveal gender gaps in education, labor force, and political participation and furnish data on maternal mortality, adolescent pregnancy, and gender-based violence. Specific qualitative information has been included when relevant for the country and if reliable by the source. For this assessment, most data are the national average or referred to urban women. The assessment has included pertinent and reliable data on multidimensional and overlapping inequalities, whenever it has been found relevant (indigenous-people women, rural and poor

women). Finally, the assessment concludes with the recommendations drawn to guide the Gender Action Plan.

## 2 Armenia

### 2.1 Introduction

Armenia is a land-locked country in southwestern Asia, located between Turkey and Azerbaijan. Armenia's population is 2,957,731 in 2019, where 52.9% is female and 47.1% is male (World Bank, 2020). Armenia became an upper middle-income country in 2018 with its gross national income (GNI) per capita of USD12,540 in 2017 (World Bank, 2020). The GNI per capita for women was at USD6,358, which was about half of men at USD12,281 (Human Development Report, 2020). From 2017 to 2019, the country's gross domestic product (GDP) grew an average of 6% annually (World Bank, 2020), which is higher than that of most other members of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS).

The 2020 Human Development Report of the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) ranked Armenia at 81 out of 189 countries. Armenia's female Human Development Index (HDI) in 2020 was 0.76 compared to 0.78 for men. While the gender inequality index improved to 0.245 in 2019 from 0.342 in 2010. (UNDP, 2020) Another global gender gap index, reported by the World Economic Forum rated Armenia at 98 out of 153 countries (WEF, 2020), which is relatively lower than the majority of countries in Eastern Europe and Central Asia.

### 2.2 Gender Analysis

#### 2.2.1 National policies and programs

The country's constitution guarantees equal rights to women and men which laid the foundations for gender policies and new legislations to promote gender equality in the spheres of economic, social, and political life. The 2005 constitutional amendment states all human beings are equal before the law in the Republic of Armenia. Armenia United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in 1993 and signed the Optional Protocol recognizing the complaint and inquiry role of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 2006 to exhibit its commitment to elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (USAID, 2019).

Armenia's Gender Equality Strategy 2011–2015 helped promote the integration of gender into the country's strategic programs, such as improving regulations and services to address violence against women, developing programs for women's economic empowerment, and addressing gender biases that constrain women's education and career choices. The Armenia's 2013 National Assembly, serving as a basis for a strategy to address gender-based violence and to assure equal rights and opportunities for men and women. The law supports equality of opportunity and equal treatment, with an emphasis on the public sector, labor, employment, health, education, and voting rights (Articles 1 and 2). Additionally, the Article 6 specifically prohibits unequal pay or working conditions as a form of direct discrimination. The Labor Code also guarantees women's rights such as equal pay for work of equal value (Article 178) and prohibits discrimination in the job application processes (ADB, 2019).

The 2013-2018 National Employment Strategy highlights the importance of tackling employment problems among youth and women in Armenia. The Law on Public Service, adopted in March 2018, enforces equal pay for all in the public sector. Recently, Armenia adopted the Republic of Armenia (RA) 2019-2023 National Program and Action Plan to assure

equal rights and equal opportunities for men and women, as well as the 2019-2021 National Action Plan for the Implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 (USAID, 2019). The RA launches a new law on anti-discrimination, which prohibit discrimination based on ethnicity, gender, social background, and disability.

The government also introduced institutional changes in 2012 to create gender councils in all municipal and regional administrations (ADB, 2019). The Ministry of Labor and Social Issues has developed criteria and guidelines for introducing gender-disaggregated monitoring system in the public sector (World Bank, 2016). The Department of Family, Women and Children's Issues (DFWCI) within the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs is responsible for assessing gender issues, preparing state programs, and coordinating and monitoring policy's implementation.

## 2.2.2 Economic Opportunities

Female's labor force participation is lower than that of male in Armenia. Women are also more likely to work in part-time positions than men. Women's limited presence in entrepreneurship in Armenia. Armenian women earn an average income of USD6,100 which is nearly half of men at USD11,700 annually (WEF, 2020).

### Labor Force Participation

Armenia's women's labor force participation is lower than that of men. In 2017, just over half (51.4%) of women in working-aged groups participated in the labor force, compared with 70.6% of men (ADB, 2019). The gap between male and female labor force participation has changed very little since 2000, but the figure is less than the average of developing countries in Europe and Central Asia.

Women are more likely to work in part-time positions than men. Data for 2017 show 34% of employed women working part-time, compared with 18% of men. The gender difference in participation is greatest among the 25–34 age-group. Evidence suggests that women's greater responsibility in household and family care such as childcare responsibilities eldercare responsibilities that additional demands on women's time explain this age-specific gender gap in participation: women spend about 5 times more time than men on childcare activities (World Bank, 2016) (World Bank, 2016).

Unemployment is high among young women who are more likely than young men to give childcare and family responsibilities as their reason for not being active in the labor force. The unemployment rate of women and men is similar, with 17.5% of women in the labor force being unemployed compared to 18% of men. However, unemployment is higher among young women aged 15–24 at 45%, compared with 33.3% of men in the same age group (USAID, 2019).

### Occupational Patterns

Labor market statistics on the employment in Armenia shows that agriculture, hunting, and forestry; education, healthcare, and social work are female-dominated employment sectors, while construction, transport, storage, and communications and financial intermediation are male-dominated. In 2017, the agriculture, forestry, and fishery sector employed one-third of the active labor force, with a higher concentration of female workers at 35% compared with 28% of male workers. Women are mostly engaged in education (17.1% female versus 4.7% male), human resources and social work activities (8% women versus 1.6% men) (USAID, 2019).



Apart from the fact that women in Armenia are less likely than men to work in highly paid sectors such as financial, manufacturing and communication. Women are much less likely to be employed; however, they are more likely to engage in own-account farm activities and unpaid work. Among women in the labor force, 22.3 percent are own-account farmworkers (compared with 16.8 percent of men). Especially in rural areas, women participate much more than men as unpaid family workers (15.4% versus 4.4%) (World Bank, 2016). Some of the existing gender gap can be attributed to gender discrimination by employers. Women typically work in jobs with shorter hours and, therefore, lower pay.

### Women in Management and Entrepreneurship

The share of women employers is low. In 2015, 0.6 percent of women were entrepreneurs, compared with 2.2 percent of men within labor force age group (World Bank, 2016). Women are also underrepresented in management positions. Only an estimated one in five small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) have a woman owner. As a result, women earn about two-thirds of what men earn.

Men share the majority (70.5 percent) of senior roles such as legislators, senior officials and managers in the public and private sector as compared to women (29.5 percent) (USAID, 2019). The Global Gender Gap Report 2020 reports that 14.5% of all firms in Armenia have female co-owners and 19.1% of firms have female top managers (WEF, 2020). A study from USAID in 2019 mentions the limited access to finance of women in Armenia, though women are granted the same rights as men to open bank accounts, however; women face discrimination in accessing credit, especially in rural areas. This is due the lack of specific laws to prohibit discrimination by creditors on the basis of gender or marital status (USAID, 2019).

In 2015, 0.6 percent of women were entrepreneurs, compared with 2.2 percent of men within labor force age group. Among firms with at least five employees, ownership among women is below ownership among men. The 2013 Business Environment and Enterprise Performance Survey (BEEPS) shows that less than a third of firms in Armenia have some female participation in ownership, well below the Europe and Central Asia regional average and the world average.<sup>2</sup> Lower ownership levels among women and restrictive gender norms also translate into a significantly lower presence of women in top management: 19.1 percent of firms with at least five employees are managed by women. As with paid employment, female participation in ownership and top management is concentrated in particular sectors; among all woman-managed or woman-owned businesses, the share in retail and in hotels and restaurants is especially high.

## 2.2.3 Human Development

### Education

Women in Armenia achieved literacy rate at 91.2 percent while the percentage was higher for males at 94.7 percent in 2020 (WEF, 2020). Armenia has achieved gender parity enrolment at the primary level. Increasing primary education access for both boys and girls is a priority to ensure that the country reaches the goal of education for all. As shown in Table 1, the net enrolment rate is 98.3% for males and 97.9% for females. Some concerns exist over school dropout rates exhibiting in the lower percentage of secondary education of 77.5% females versus 77.0% males. While the school enrolment rate drops significantly in tertiary level (57.8% females versus 41.1% males) (WEF, 2020). The 2019 ADB's Armenia gender report explains that young boys, especially from lower-income families have pressure to leave school to find work and support their families may be a contributing factor.

*Table 1: Educational Attainment by gender in Armenia, 2020*

Parameter	Female	Male
Literacy rate	91.2%	94.7%
Enrolment in primary education	97.9%	98.3%
Enrolment in secondary education	77.5%	77.0%
Enrolment in tertiary education	57.8%	41.1%

Source: World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report 2020

Despite higher education, female students are much less likely to enter vocational training than male students. However, female students are more likely than males to enroll in university education. Topics in arts, history, and social fields such as philology, social work, education, and journalism accounted for a large majority of female students. In STEM fields such as mathematics and statistics, biological science, and chemistry, the patterns are mixed. Women are only 10% of engineering students and only about one-third of students in physical sciences (ADB, 2019).

### Demography and Health

The sex ratio at birth in Armenia is 113 boys born for every 100 girl births. Research has shown that economic uncertainty and low fertility heighten the son preference in Armenia. Rural areas generally show higher sex ratios than urban towns (ADB, 2019). Women in Armenia have a longer life expectancy than men (71.2 year of men versus 78.3 year of women) (World Bank, 2020), and the higher risk of mortality among men results in a situation where more than 60 percent of the population ages 65+ years are females.

The maternal mortality ratio has declined from 40 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2000 to 26 in 2017 (World Bank, 2020). Armenia's maternal mortality rate is the same level as the Russian Federation's and lower than that of some nearby countries such as Georgia, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan. The percentage of teenage mothers improved from 4.9 percent in 2010 to 3.6 percent in 2016 among girls aged 15-19 years (National Statistical Service (NSSS), 2019).

At least 8% of women in Armenia experiencing physical or sexual violence from an intimate partner. The figure of psychological and economic violence is higher, with more than 50% of women experiencing controlling behavior from a partner (UN Women, 2019). The incidence is likely to be higher since many women are reluctant to report domestic violence.

### 2.2.4 Leadership and Decision-Making

Women are significantly underrepresented in leadership positions in the public sector in Armenia. The participation of women at the highest levels of decision-making, at the regional and the local level, and in the diplomatic service remains low. Since its independence in 1991, Armenia has hardly had females in executive positions and no female president or prime minister (ADB, 2019). Women have minimal representation at the most senior policy-making levels, with only 1 out of 14 ministerial positions filled by a female. A total of 32 women were elected out of 132 seats, a representation of 24.2% in the 2018 national elections (UN Women, 2019). A study identified main factors for women's low participation expectation are an expectation that women must put family obligations ahead of other considerations, and public perceptions that men are more suited to assuming political leadership (Kovkas Social Studies Center, 2011).

Most civil service positions contain 55% of females. (ADB, 2019). Women also represent in management positions, with 59% of senior civil service positions and 48% of chiefs of units (Government of Armenia, 2018). In local government, women accounted for 45% of all provincial administrative positions and 52% of all Yerevan municipal staff positions (ADB, 2019). However, women are underrepresented in judicial system. There are only 44 females out of 177 judges in first instance courts, and 9 of 28 in the court of appeals, also 5 of 12 of supreme court judges are women.

## 2.3 Gender-specification in transport sector

### Overview of Transportation

Being a landlocked country, Armenia has an economy that depends on transport and cross-border access. Armenia has a few railway lines and an extensive road network. The car ownership rate was 92.3 vehicles per 1,000 people in 2010 (ADB, 2011). Public transport plays a critical role, especially in cities. Bus and minibus accounted for 84 percent out of the total 247 million passengers in Armenia. Metro and taxi accounted for 7 and 6 percent respectively (ADB, 2011). The lack of integration among modes of public transport makes car the primary mode of transport within the country.

*Table 2: Public Transport Users—Urban and Interurban in Armenia (million passengers) in 2008*

Transport Mode	2008	%share
Bus and minibus	207.7	84
Taxi	14.9	6
Rail	0.7	0.5
Air	1.5	0.5
Metro	18.9	7
Trolleybus, tram, cable car	3.4	1.5
Total	247.1	100

Source: ADB's Armenia's transport outlook 2011

### Gender-Segregation in the Transport Sector

The concentration of public transport network within urban areas in Armenia makes car takes the highest share of mode of transport in rural areas. Female car owners and female drivers are becoming increasingly present in urban areas, especially in Yerevan, but are rarely found in rural areas. Cars are rarely owned by women. In rural areas, there are more than 95 percent of male car owners. (FAO, 2017). Although Armenian law grants equal property rights to females and males, women are not able to exercise these rights due to several factors including: discriminatory property registration practices; limited access to resources (due to limited access to and control over financial resources either through credit or income); and limited knowledge regarding their ownership rights over land, housing and other assets (i.e., cars) (USAID, 2019).

According to the Republic of Armenia Police Spokesman, there are 41,233 female drivers in Armenia or 10 percent of the total drivers in Armenia (Papayan, 2016). Another interesting fact is that female drivers are rarely involved in traffic accidents, 10 (0.35%) out of 2,824 traffic accidents in 2014 involved female drivers (Papayan, 2016). However, only 17 % of Armenian labor in transport, storage and communications are women (ILO, 2013)

A field research conducted by the Asian Development Bank reported bad intercommunity roads and insufficient public transportation create difficulties for business activities and communication between people, especially for women in Armenia (ADB, 2011). Limitation in mobility constrains women's opportunities for income generation. Women's constraints in mobility is directly related to their limited access to markets, training, information, business networks, providers and administrative paperwork. Moreover, the transportation policies and programs are generally mandate by the state policy-making level which is male-dominated due to low participation of females in the country decision-making levels.

## 2.4 Conclusion

Despite efforts to reduce gender inequalities by the government in the last two decades, a gender gap still exists in Armenia. Armenian women's labor force participation is lower than that of men as well as in decision-making levels. Additionally, women tend to represent in part-time jobs due to their responsibilities for family cares. Lower income of women comparing to men in Armenia restricts their opportunities in terms of mobility, especially in rural areas with limited public transport and the fact that the majority of car owners are men.

Women achieve fair levels of education; however, they are underrepresented in STEM careers. To ensure that the proposed number of women trained to become part of the transportation workforce is reached, early awareness of women's interest in technical careers must also be considered.

No information was found regarding safety for women when using public transport. A comprehensive assessment on this matter must be held for each project in Armenia in order to identify the main challenges women face in their day-to-day travel.

## 3 Georgia

### 3.1 Introduction

Georgia is located in the Caucasus region and borders Armenia, Azerbaijan, the Russian Federation and Turkey. The population in Georgia was 10.62 in 2019, where 52.32 percent were females (World Bank, 2020). The gross national income (GNI) per capita was from USD3,000 in 2010 to USD4,697 in 2019 (World Bank, 2020). Where GNI per capita for females was half of men (USD6,177 of female versus USD12,481 of male) (Human Development Report, 2020)

While in the average GDP growth of Georgia was approximately 5% from 2011-2019, however; economic growth has been spread unevenly, mainly occurring in urban areas—particularly the capital city, Tbilisi.

The global gender gap index, reported by the World Economic Forum rated Georgia at 74 out of 153 countries (WEF, 2020), which is relatively higher than the majority of countries in Eastern Europe and Central Asia.

### 3.2 Gender Analysis

#### 3.2.1 National Policies and Programs

The Georgia State Concept on gender equality was introduced by the government in 2006 stating an aim to “encourage the equal and effective implementation of the rights and

opportunities for women and men.” The law came about through a joint process with international organizations, states, and nongovernmental organizations. It forbids discrimination relating to gender and implements provisions to guarantee gender equality (USAID, 2010).

The adoption of the Law on Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination took place in 2014. This law specifically states that “discrimination is not acceptable” on the basis of one’s gender identity or sexual orientation, along with race, color, language, racial, ethnic or social affiliation, sex, pregnancy or maternity, marital or health status, disability, age, nationality, origin, place of birth, place of residence, internal displacement, material or social status, faith or belief, political status (UNDP, 2018).

The Gender Equality Council (GEC) of Georgia was formed within the Parliament of Georgia in 2004. The key objective of the GEC is to ensure structured and organized governance mechanisms on issues related to gender equality, including oversight of the enforcement and monitoring of the gender equality law. A very positive development for Georgia is the presence of the National GEC, but its control is seriously curtailed. Impartiality is mandated by the GEC in order to initiate major substantive changes to the GE Law. In order to finance its operations, the GEC still has very few human or financial capital (ADB, 2018).

One of the highlighted efforts is the local-level gender equality council. The local GECs are responsible for reacting to and developing local anti-discrimination policies (National Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, 2014). Translating these requirements into success at the local levels will require adequate distribution of resources. Hence, some international donors are currently supporting capacity-building activities to ensure the appropriate level of consistency and program accountability.

### 3.2.2 Economic Opportunities

#### Labor Force Participation

The official statistics from Georgia’s National Statistical Office show that participation in the formal labor market is lower for women aged 15 and over. Compared with men, roughly 46% of women were working in 2012–2015 compared to 53% of men (ADB, 2018). The gap among younger women is considerably higher: only 19% of women between 15 and 34 years of age were working in 2014, compared to 30% for men.

As in many other countries, conventional gender expectations suggest that women are mainly responsible for housework and childcare, while men are breadwinners; these social roles contribute to a lower participation of women in the workforce. Of all women who took part in the Caucasus Barometer survey in 2010, 23% described themselves as housewives not otherwise employed (USAID, 2010).

The research on the Georgia Poverty Assessment demonstrated that household duties have a significant impact on reducing female labor force participation, but not on reducing male labor force participation (World Bank, 2020). Children living in the household are correlated with a significant reduction in female labor force participation but are also correlated with a rise in male labor force participation.

The shortage of subsidized childcare services, such as kindergarten schools, can be primarily due to the burden of unpaid care jobs, including caring for small children below school age, and the disparity among younger people. The recent implementation of measures aimed at raising the number of women working in the formal labor market, such as paid maternity leave,

could assist in doing so. A rise in the household share of under-14-year-olds decreases the likelihood of female participation in the labor force by 30% and increases male participation by 13% (ADB, 2018). The proportion of household members aged 65+ (all of whom earn the old-age pension) is related to a rise in the participation of both women and men in the labor force, indicating that the inclusion of the elderly frees women and men from taking part in the labor market.

### Occupational Patterns

Gender disparity in the work market is also visible among those who are working. Jobs in the field, as well as the basic nature of the employment (full-time or part-time), is closely related to gender, resulting in gender inequity in access to economic opportunities, wages, and healthcare. In general, women have a slightly lower employment rate than men; however, they are overrepresented in both self-account farm activities and unpaid jobs.

Women's greater presence in areas such as education, health care, and social work can be attributed to gender disparities in higher education specialization. In the minds of the people, occupations such as teaching and other public sector positions, which provide greater protection and shorter, more stable working hours, are usually considered best fit for women, who need to reconcile family responsibilities with a career (ADB, 2018).

### Women in Management and Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship participation is underrepresented by both men and women in Georgia (1.5% of men in the labor force and 0.4% of women in the labor force) (ADB, 2018). Both men and women are engaged in entrepreneurship in Georgia, but women are more likely to own micro-businesses and are less likely to own large companies. Due to the high share of agriculture in employment, almost two-thirds of working women are self-employed. Approximately two-thirds of employed women are self-employed because of the high percentage of agriculture in the overall labor market. As compared to the regional average of 16%, 56.5% of working women work in agriculture. Women represent a third of agricultural landholding in developing countries, most of whom participate primarily in subsistence or small-scale activities. Women are more involved and working in rural areas than in urban areas, regardless of the type of work (National Statistics Office of Georgia, 2017).

Business-oriented education and vocational training can help more women become entrepreneurs, but as entrepreneurs, women face many obstacles to starting and succeeding. Targeted training opportunities can lead to improving women's participation in business, but they should not ignore the fact that social expectations on women's and men's agreed roles and restrictions on access to finance and assets are barriers to women's entry.

## 3.2.3 Human Development

### Education

Primary and secondary education in Georgia is free of charge. Primary education is compulsory for all children, but secondary school attendance is optional. For both boys and girls, at both primary and secondary levels, there is parity in school enrolment rates in Georgia (ADB, 2018). Enrolment in tertiary education in Georgia is well below the average for the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region. Only 27% of boys and 33% of girls in 2012 attended higher education (World Bank, 2020). One factor contributing to these low figures could be high tuition charges.



The findings show that if parents are unable to educate all their children, they often opt to have their sons pursue higher education at university or technical college. When unemployment is higher for those with higher qualifications, there is little motivation to seek tertiary education. For instance, for young people with only elementary education, the unemployment rate is 8% higher (ADB, 2018).

The school dropout rate is poor, but regional variation exists. Some remote and poor rural areas mandate that girls must drop out of school early to take on unpaid care work at home while boys may leave to work in the agricultural or other non-professional economy. While nearly universal literacy and gender differences in primary and secondary enrolment are small, gender disparities in postsecondary education are prominent in both enrolments and research fields. The above findings refer to women and men who have job-marketable skills not getting fair access to higher education. This lays the basis for gender-based work segregation (Kavelashvili, 2017).

In Georgia, more women than men are teachers. Because there is a proven correlation between university specializations, this is predictable. About 80% of primary and secondary school teachers are women, but in university teaching, men comprise around two-thirds of permanent contract faculty, and women outnumber men in the lower levels of the hierarchy, from assistant professor to teacher (World Bank, 2020).

### Demography and Health

A key difference between the health and longevity of Georgian men and women exists. In general, people of both sexes have equal life expectancies. Female life expectancy is 78 years, while male life expectancy is 71 years. In the 2000s, both genders have seen a combined rise in life expectancy of approximately three years, while for the Europe and Central Asia region men saw an increase in life expectancy of approximately four and a half years (WEF, 2017).

Modern methods of family planning, together with parenting classes, have helped the health and life expectancy of mothers and children to both increase over the past two decades. Important strides were made in reducing the maternal mortality ratio in Georgia. In 2010, an antenatal examination was given to 98.2% of pregnant women in Georgia (USAID, 2010). However, it should be taken into account to ensure fair access for all women to these services, as the statistics indicate that there was a difference between urban (93%) and rural women when using such services (86%). The maternity mortality was 25 per 100,000 live births in 2020 (WEF, 2020). Georgia's birth rate for teenage was 23.6 births for every 1,000 adolescent females in 2016, dropped by five percent from 2014 (Community Foundation for Greater Atlanta, 2019). A nationwide survey on violence against women conducted in 2009 by UNFPA found that 34.7% of women experiencing intimate partner violence and had been injured multiple times (M. Chitashvili et al, 2010).

### 3.2.4 Leadership and Decision-Making

There is public support for growing the role of women in decision-making, but their political participation in Georgia remains poor. Women have increased their share of parliamentary seats from six-tenths of a quarter in 2008 to 23 percent in 2017. Georgia ranked 114th out of 144 countries for women's political empowerment in the 2017 World Economic Forum (WEF, 2018).

The main factor impeding women's political empowerment is the composition of political parties. Few women are included in the top 10% of most party lists or leadership campaigns,

which limits their chances of being elected (ADB, 2018). Female representation at the level of local government is much smaller in rural communities. To keep pace with female political participation, parties must ensure that the overall number of men and women on their electoral lists reflects the percentage of female party members in parliament (Election Administration of Georgia, 2017). The culture of political parties and other institutions needs to shift if more women are to succeed in running for office. There is a continuing lack of openness in most recruiting activities, which leads most parties to prefer men over women (ADB, 2018).

### 3.3 Gender-Specification in the Transport Sector

Georgia's transport system consists of five modes—road, rail, sea, air, and pipelines. All provinces, cities, towns, and neighboring countries are connected by at least one of these modes either directly or indirectly. Transport system use has risen, mainly due to the increased supply as a result from the reforms. Total freight was growing at about 3.5% in 2011, while rail and bus passenger traffic was increasing at about 1.5%, and traffic at the airports has grown by 15% (ADB, 2014). The railway system covers 1,683 km and the highway accounted for 1,603km, while the motorways are being developed among urban regions (ADB, 2014).

Car is the dominant choices of transport for people in Georgia. In 2017, there were 3.5 million private and commercial automobiles, or 116 motor vehicles per 1,000 people in Georgia (World Bank, 2020). 3.7 million out of 7.0 million licensed drivers are females (Statista, 2019). Women accounted for 23.9 percent of employees in the transport, storage and communications sector (ILO, 2013).

While public transport system, such as metro and buses are limited only in urban areas, especially in Tbilisi, the capital city. The metro in Tbilisi carries about 850,000 commuters per day, of which around 50 percent are females. The majority of trips by made by females (70%) is for work or study (ADB, 2015). However, a survey on safety of public transport by ADB in 2014 found that 45 percent of women respondent reported experiencing some forms of inappropriate behavior during commuting on a metro in Tbilisi (ADB, 2015). The survey reported 3,800 sexual harassment incidents per day, or between three- and four-women sexual harassment targets every minute on the metro, as an incidence rate of approximately once a week per female commuter.

### 3.4 Conclusions

Equal rights for men and women are set out in the Georgia Constitution, as well as other laws. However, women's representation in the government remains low in Georgia. Georgia's National Statistics Office estimates that the representation of women in the organized labor market is smaller than that of men. Many men work in stereotypically male professions such as engineering, construction, energy, transportation, and communications.

In the case of Georgia, a Rapid Assessment of Sexual Harassment in Public Transport was conducted by the ADB in 2014. Women do experience different kinds of assaults, including being rubbed against male bodies against their will in the metro. The assessment also shows, that many of the women do not ask for help because they feel ashamed and others did not offer help because they were frightened. This highlights the need for public campaigns to demystify sexual harassment on public transport. These campaigns should explain how to behave when being harassed or seeing another person being harassed. Panic buttons can help in different cases (e.g. when the bus or subway car is relatively empty).



## 4 Indonesia

### 4.1 Introduction

The Republic of Indonesia is a country in Southeast Asia and Oceania, situated between the Indian and Pacific oceans. Indonesia's population were 270 million people in 2019, of whom 49.7% are women (World Bank, 2020). The gross national income (GNI) per capita of Indonesian is USD11,970. Where average annual income of females was at USD7,800 compared with USD15,400 of males (WEF, 2020). Indonesia ranked at the 108th on the Human Development Index (HDI) and the 94th on the Gender Development Index (GDI) (WEF, 2020).

### 4.2 Gender Analysis

#### 4.2.1 National Policies and Programs

Presidential Instruction No. 9/2000 of the Indonesian government, which was released in 2000, outlines gender mainstreaming and gender equality for the purpose of facilitating better participation of women and realizing gender equality in all of the country's four arenas: family, society, nation, and state (JICA, 2011). Guidelines for applying gender mainstreaming are attached to this instruction, and it is advised that each ministry and organization consult these guidelines in order to apply gender mainstreaming. Government institutions at national and regional levels should participate in gender research and capacity building in order to introduce gender mainstreaming. The State Ministry for Women's Empowerment and Child Security is obligated to provide technical assistance to government departments and must periodically report to the President.

Indonesian laws (Undang-Undang Dasar 1945, Paragraphs 1 and 2 of Article 27) note that all people are equal under the law of the law and the government and that no one can be exempted. In addition, the Constitution amendment, issued in 2000, guarantees the freedom to be free from discrimination. This means that the Constitution promises equality for men and women (UNDP, 2010). According to the marriage law of 1974, males must be at least 19 years of age and females must be at least 16 years of age to get married. Additionally, it stipulates that all partners have an equal responsibility to take care of the home and care for children. However, there are certain clauses in the marriage law that do not adhere to gender equality, such as the disparity in the legal age of marriage (UNDP, 2010).

The “State Ministry for Women's Empowerment” was established in 1978 as the country's mechanism for implementing gender equality and women's empowerment. At the moment, the main commitment of the Ministry is in formulating policies and organizing and integrating strategies, supervision, and assessment for women's empowerment projects, as well as initiating and coordinating programs and events related to the elevation of the status and role of women (Hermawati & Saari, 2011).

In addition, the Ministry of Women Empowerment and Child Protection (MoWECP) launched a program called 3Ends in 2016. The program focuses on eliminating violence against women and children; human trafficking; barriers to economic justice for women. Also, a strategy to end violence against women and children by ensuring the accessibility of information on the rights of women and children (UNDP, 2020).

## 4.2.2 Economic Opportunities

The labor force participation rate was 67 percent in 2009 (64.5 percent for urban areas and 69.3 percent for rural areas) (JICA, 2011). Unemployment rate for females is 8.47%, higher than that for males (7.5%). Labor force participation of Indonesian women was at 49.2 percent compared to 75.7 of men (WEF, 2020). 18 percent of working women are workers who are unpaid is another important trend in workforce participation. In the time between 2000 and 2003, the number of unpaid employees rose from 16 million to 18 million. There were 28 million self-employed males in 1998, and the figure had risen to 36 million by 2003 (ILO, 2004).

Over the past decade, the number of women who join the formal labor force has declined, and this has been followed by decreased job growth for women living in rural areas with primary education. While women have increased in wage jobs and the wage level of female workers has increased, there is still a difference between men and women, with an average annual income of females at USD7,800 compared with USD15,400 of males in 2020 (WEF, 2020).

### Occupational Patterns

The majority of women in the formal sector are in low-paying, low-skilled jobs. A small number of individuals occupy influential positions in the private or public sector. Women are over-represented in the low-paying textile, garment, and footwear industries. On the other hand, women are significantly underrepresented in the civil service (JICA, 2011). 38% of the 3.9 million civil servants are women as opposed to 62% of the men. The overall number of women in higher or managerial roles at all levels was just 14 percent, compared to 86 percent for men (JICA, 2011).

The informal sector is a significant economic safety net for lower-income households because it is easy to begin and does not require much money or technological know-how, requires little risk, and permits great versatility in starting and stopping a job. It is noted that men mostly turn to self-employment in the informal sector, while a large number of women are forced out to become unpaid employees (UNDP, 2010).

### Women in Management and Entrepreneurship

Unprecedented numbers of women are entering the field of business and entrepreneurship due to the development of economic opportunities. In Indonesia, about 23% of small and medium-sized businesses are owned by women, and the proportion of enterprises owned by women is rising considerably faster than those owned by men (World Bank, 2016).

Unprecedented numbers of women are entering the field of business and entrepreneurship due to the development of economic opportunities. Women own approximately 23% of small and medium-sized companies in Indonesia, and the number of women's owned businesses is increasing considerably faster than men's (Melissa, Hamidati, Saraswati, & Flor, 2015). The entrepreneurial prevalence of women entrepreneurs is high and the gender disparity in the overall number of men and women entrepreneurs in Indonesia is low compared to other countries (World Bank, 2016). For leadership and managerial aspects, there were 17% more women in managerial positions than men. Positions filled by women in the public sector display their prominence as teachers and health workers to be common for women to be stereotyped as caregivers or caregivers.

### 4.2.3 Human Development

#### Education

Indonesian primary education begins at age seven and continues for six years. The primary education enrollment rate was 91.0% for girls and 95.9% for boys. However, there is a significant drop in the rate of secondary and higher educations. 79.9% of female and 77.6 of male students enrolled in secondary schools in 2020, while the tertiary education has only 39.0 percent female and 33.8 percent male students' enrolment (WEF, 2020). Some of the factor contributing to students required to drop out of school are being forced to do farm work or pregnant (UNDP, 2010). Often students adopt gender norms, for example, girls choose social sciences and boys choose technological sciences.

While girls outperform boys in Indonesia on international tests and in the classroom. Following Indonesia's participation in the 2018 PISA, it was found that girls outscored boys in all subjects, with the highest difference resulting in literacy. In math, science and reading, respectively, the average scores for Indonesian boys were 373, 392 and 358, while the respective scores for girls were 383, 399 and 383 (PISA, 2018).

#### Demography and Health

The birth ration of newborns in Indonesia is 1 male per 0.95 female. While Indonesian women live longer than men (63.0 versus 60.4 year-old respectively) (WEF, 2020). Maternal mortality was reported to have decreased from 390 deaths per 100,000 live births in 1991 to 117 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2020 (WEF, 2020). Obstetric risks, hemorrhage, eclampsia, and illegal abortion are all blamed for the high maternal mortality rate. The number of deliveries made at health facilities suggests geographic disparities, for example, a 28.9% disparity between rural areas and urban areas with respect to distances (JICA, 2011).

According to a survey by Central Statistics Agency and UNFPA in 2017 found that two-fifths of Indonesian women – or just over 41 percent of 9,000 respondents – have experienced at least one out of four types of violence; physical, sexual, emotional and economic (UNFPA, 2017). According to the Indonesian National Commission on Violence against Women, there were 259,150 cases of violence against women in 2016; 3,495 cases were domestic sexual harassment and 2,290 were sexual abuse in the community or at the workplace (The ASEAN Post Team, 2019).

With non-communicable disease cases growing due to lifestyle changes, breast cancer has become a recent concern. Breast cancer accounts for 21%, rather than uterine cancer, in all female cancer patients (17%). The State Minister for Women's Empowerment and Child Protection said that women are at risk of breast cancer, and the Ministry plans to implement mammography tests in rural areas for women (Wira, 2016). Of all children under the age of five, 18.4% were malnourished in 2007. In 2018, the adolescent fertility rate (number of births per thousand women between 15 and 19 years) in Indonesia was at approximately 46.9 births per 1,000 women while the number was 50.8 in 2010 (Hirschmann, 2020).

### 4.2.4 Leadership and Decision-Making

The proportion of women parliamentarians in Indonesia is 18%, which marks an increase on the previous term (2004-2009) and is the largest amount in the political history of Indonesia. Yet, there are gaps between the political groups, for example, the party with the lowest

proportion of women has 5.3% and the party with the highest percentage has 24.3% (UNDP, 2010).

In the same study, the participation of women in the House of Representatives also differs, only 7 out of 33 provinces have 30 percent or more woman representatives. There are no woman representatives in 3 provinces, and 1 province has only woman representatives. By 2009, only one woman had been elected governor and another woman from 33 provinces was elected deputy governor. Out of 402 posts, 12 Vice Regents or Mayors were also women (2.2%) (UNDP, 2010).

### 4.3 Gender-Specification in the Transport Sector

#### Transportation Overview

There are various mode choices for Indonesian to travel. Road transport accounted for the highest share of trips made by passengers; 84.1 percent of trips (2,021 million passengers) were made by road transport in 2002, while rail accounted for 7.32% of the total passenger trips (S. LUBIS et al. , 2005). There were 100 motor vehicles per 1,000 per people in Indonesia in 2018 (World Bank, 2020). Private cars and motorcycle ownership grows inevitably as a natural effort by each individual to fulfill their mobility needs due to the limited public transport service provision. The six agglomeration cities are occupied by private vehicles, environmental degradation, and lost productivity in traffic jams and gridlock, which negatively impacts the country's investment climate and GDP. A study in 2012 reveals that 53% of daily trips made in Jakarta was by motorcycle, where the figure of public transport and cars are 27% and 20% respectively (Prayudyanto & Thohir, 2017).

Transport infrastructure developments for public transport modes (such as MRT, BRT, transit systems, feeder buses,); transport-demand management measures (parking management, traffic calming, road pricing, and higher taxation for private vehicles) as well as non-motorized transport (walking and biking) have not yet put in place the high urbanization rate in Indonesia. In Jakarta, the capital city, traffic congestion is characterized by insufficient public transport with very low modal shares; no urban rail systems (excepting some commuter train services); one sub-optimal BRT (bus rapid transit) system in. Other big urban cities having an immature semi-BRT; and the remaining major cities left to rely on paratransit for public transport (Leung, 2016).

#### Gender-Specification in Transport

Indonesian women represented only 9 percent of employment in the transport, storage and communications sector (ILO, 2013). A study on Indonesian drivers' characteristics reported that that most of public transportation driver are male because women are hardly being employed as a chauffeur or public transport driver (R. Zuraida et al., 2017).

A study on gender in relation with transportation in Indonesia found that Indonesian men and women have different preference when it comes to transportation. Most women rely on public transport. Women use public transportation regularly for daily activities, i.e., working, studying or shopping. A survey by the Coalition for Safe Public Space interview 62,000 Indonesian nationwide, reported that women are 13 times more vulnerable to sexual harassment on public transportation than men (The ASEAN Post Team, 2019). Most sexual harassment incidents took place in buses (35.45%), public minivans (30%) and train service (17.7%) (The ASEAN Post Team, 2019).

Indonesian men hardly use public transport. They use public transport only at certain circumstance, such as long distance or where motorbikes are not allowed (Ratna Budiarti, 2017). A survey in Semarang City found that most men prefer to use motorcycles for short and long distances, while women prefer to walk for a short distance trip and rely on public transport or private vehicles for longer distance (Ratna Budiarti, 2017). Another factor that contributes this finding is that the cars or motorcycles are normally owned by the head of family who is male. Women are often sexually harassed in public transportation. Data is scarce and there is no culture of reporting these cases. However, there is a Coalition for Safe Public Spaces that openly pledge for safe spaces for women and other marginal groups. According to this group, around 47% of surveyed women said they had experienced harassment on public transport.<sup>2</sup>

## 4.4 Conclusions

The gap between men and women in Indonesia is great in various aspects; labor force participation of females is lower than males; men earn nearly twice as much as women; rate of women's participation in key decision-making position at national level and local level is still low. The disparity also occurs in terms of how people travel, most men use private vehicles while women rely more on public transport system, which has limited capacity.

The transport sector in Indonesia, especially in Jakarta, has seen some major investments in the last few years. Motorcycles are still the preferred vehicle in Indonesia; however, women are more likely to use public transportation. According to the Thomson Reuters Foundation's 2017 poll, Jakarta makes the top 10 of this list, coming in at seventh most dangerous city in terms of the risk of sexual violence against women. Its public transport system was also ranked the fifth most dangerous, where women face the risk of being verbally or physically harassed.<sup>3</sup> There is by now a certain level of awareness in Indonesian population regarding this issue. Efforts should go further, like pushing the bill that eliminates sexual violence. This would then lead to public transport being safer.

## 5 Kazakhstan

### 5.1 Introduction

Kazakhstan is the ninth largest land area in the world and the biggest in Central Asia, covering 2,724.9 thousand square km (UNECE, 2019). It is bounded on north by Russia and on the east by China. Kazakhstan's population was 18,513,930 in 2019, where the percentage of female and male are 51.4% and 48.5%, respectively (World Bank, 2020). Kazakhstan's gross national income (GNI) per capita was USD 8,820 in 2019 (World Bank, 2020), while the male to female income ratio is 1.714 (UNDP, 2020).

The 2020 Human Development Report of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) ranked Kazakhstan at 53 out of 189 countries. Kazakhstan's female Human Development Index (HDI) in 2020 was 0.807 compared to 0.823 for men (UNDP, 2020). Kazakhstan ranked high with regards to gender and development, its Gender Inequality Index (GII) value steadily decreased from 0.405 in 2000 to 0.202 in 2015, which is lower than the average for Eastern Europe and Central Asian countries at 0.279 (ADB, 2018). Another global

<sup>2</sup> <https://www.ucanews.com/news/no-safe-space-for-women-even-on-public-transport/89415#>

<sup>3</sup> <https://www.channelnewsasia.com/commentary/jakarta-indonesia-sexual-harassment-women-safe-public-transport-782951>

gender gap index, reported by the World Economic Forum rated Kazakhstan at 72 out of 153 countries (WEF, 2020), which is higher than other countries in its region.

## 5.2 Gender Analysis

### 5.2.1 National Policies and Programs

Kazakhstan has committed to advancing gender equality as well as engaged with the international community, demonstrating its progress through the development of policy and legal framework, national strategies, action plans, and programs. Kazakhstan endorsed the Beijing Platform of Action in 1995, ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) in 1998, and ratified the CEDAW Optional Protocol in 2001 (ADB, 2018).

The country's Constitution recognizes gender equality through the prohibition of discrimination based on sex, specific that "no one shall be subjected to discrimination on grounds of origin, social and property status, sex, race and nationality, language, religion." (Government of Kazakhstan, 1995). Kazakhstan's National Human Rights Action Plan in 2009-2012 and 2017-2020 stating the need for addressing gender equality in the labor market and pension security reform for elderly women, as well as addressing domestic violence, preventing human trafficking, and in increasing women's participation in decision-making levels (International Commission of Jurists, 2013).

Furthermore, the government of the Republic of Kazakhstan implemented a Strategy on Gender Equality from 2006 to 2016, which has laid the foundations for the improvements of women's participation in public life nationwide (OECD, 2017). The government recently developed the Concept on Family and Gender Policy 2030. This policy framework reaffirms the state's focus on key gender gaps in women's political representation, employment, and work-family balance, as well as combating violence against women (ADB, 2018).

The National Commission on Women's Affairs, Family and Demographic Policy was established in 1998 as an advisory body to the President (ISDB, 2019). Its mandate is to implement and monitor the gender strategy to be in line with the national action plan as well as international commitment recommending priorities for state programs to promote gender equality and works with all nationwide stakeholders to mainstream gender equality (ADB, 2018).

### 5.2.2 Economic Opportunities

The gender gap persists in Kazakhstan with regards to employment and career opportunities. Kazakh women, although economically active, spend more time on domestic tasks than men as well as more likely than men to take time off for children, which limiting their career advancement.

#### Labor Force Participation

Kazakhstan's women's labor force participation is lower than that of men. In 2020, 73.7 percent of women in working-aged groups participated in the labor force, compared with the percentage of men at 82.9 (WEF, 2020). However, Kazakhstan has made a slow progress in closing the labor force participation gap. In 2010, the GGGI ranked Kazakhstan at 17 out of 131 countries for this indicator, however; the ranking fell to 23 out 145 countries in 2015 (ADB, 2018). The unemployment rate for female workers was 5.7% in 2015 compared to 4.3% for men (ADB, 2018).



The wage gap between women and men is one sign that gender inequalities persist. In 2020, Kazakh women earn USD 18,200 annually, compared to USD 30,300 of men (WEF, 2020). In 2015, female paid workers gained only 65.9% of what men earned (Sarsembayeva, 2017). The wage gap varies by sector of employment. Women earn more than men at 111% in the administrative and support services, while in education and health, women earn 90% of what men earn. Women's average income reaches only 67.2% of men's in information and communications; 65.2% in finance and insurance; 59% in professional and technical fields (Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016).

### Occupational Patterns

Women in Kazakhstan are concentrated in areas of lower salaries, such as administrative and support services as well as education and health sectors. The services sphere contained 71.4% of female employees compared to 52% of the men (Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016).

For agriculture, forestry, and fishery sectors, women and men are evenly represented at 17.1% and 18.9%, respectively. However, female workers are prohibited from certain trades or construction-related professions that are higher-paid (ADB, 2018). Only 3.3% of all females are employed in construction compared to 12.4% of all men (ADB, 2018). Just under one-fifth of employees in mining and quarrying, and in transportation and storage are female (ADB, 2018).

Women are underrepresented in executive positions in various sectors. Education is the only field that has more female chief executive officers than men where women lead 63.8% of companies. For health and social services, 46.3% are headed by females; 41.7% for finance and insurance; 40.5% in real estate. Following low participation of female top executives in agriculture (12.9%), energy (12.6%), and mining and quarrying (11.6%) (ADB, 2018).

Although women in Kazakhstan are economically active, but they have to spend more time on domestic tasks than men. A survey by the Committee on Statistics revealed that Kazakh women spent 17.1% of their time running the household compared to 7.1% by men (Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016). Women reported to do most of the domestic tasks such as childcare and household tasks.

Women in Kazakhstan run more than 50% of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), and it is estimated that women contribute to 40% of Kazakhstan's GDP and the number is expected to increase (Abugaliyeva, 2019).

## 5.2.3 Human Development

### Education

Kazakhstan is close to gender parity in access to primary and secondary education and ranked among top countries in the world for primary and secondary education's enrolment. The literacy rate for both sexes stood at 99.74% for women and 98.83% for men (ISDB, 2019). The enrolment in primary education of girls is 89% which is nearly the same as boy of 90%. There are 93.3% of female students enroll in secondary school compared to 92.6% of males (WEF, 2020).

Tertiary education enrolment for females and males was 60.0% and 48.2%, respectively (WEF, 2020). The same trend was observed in postgraduate with women's dominance in both master's (64%) and doctoral studies (58%) (ADB, 2018).

However, women in Kazakhstan are concentrated in traditional areas of study i.e. education; arts and humanities; service and management; health and welfare. Whereas men are present more in science and technology related studies such as engineering; communications; information technology; construction. The sectors that are fairly gender-balanced are business and management and agriculture, fishery, and forestry (ADB, 2018).

### Demography and Health

The sex ratio at birth in Kazakhstan is 100 boys born for every 94 girl births (WEF, 2020). Kazakh men represent one of the lowest life expectancies globally, despite recent improvements from 60.6 years in 2006 to 68.1 years in 2016, while women's life expectancy increased from 72.3 to 76.6 years in the same period (ISDB, 2019).

The country also succeeded in reducing its maternal mortality from 65 deaths per 100,000 live births in 200 to 12 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2015 (UNDP, 2016). According to the Multi-Indicator Cluster Survey by UNICEF in 2016, among Kazakh women aged 20–49 years, 7.8% of them were married before the age of 18 (UNICEF, 2016). Adolescent pregnancy is low but the rates are higher among women with lower levels of education and in rural areas. The same survey by UNICEF exhibited women aged 15–19 in urban areas (3.2%) and in rural areas (4.8%) have had a live birth (UNICEF, 2016). There were 33,051 pregnancies out of 2 million adolescent girls (under age 18) in rural areas, registered between 2010-2015, with one-third of these ending in abortion (UNICEF, 2016). Women aged 15–19 with less than secondary education (15.7%) are more likely to have had a live birth compared to those with higher education (0.5%) (UNICEF, 2016).

The gender-based violence remains an important issue for women in Kazakhstan, with every one out of five women suffering from a form of physical, sexual or other form of violence (ADB, 2018). In 2015, more than 40,000 cases were reported to the specialized divisions for the protection of women within the Ministry of Internal Affairs. Every year, about 35,000 individuals are reported for committing offenses in families (OECD, 2017). According to a survey regarding violence against women in 2017, 16.2% of women reported experiencing physical violence during their lifetime, and 3.6% reported an incident of sexual violence during their lifetime (Dossanova, 2017).

### 5.2.4 Leadership and Decision-Making

While Kazakhstan has made progress overall on gender equality over the last decade, the gender gaps still exist at the participation in leadership at all levels of and decision-making in political body. In 2016, the share of female representatives in national parliament was at 22% and accounted for 13% of positions in the ministerial level (Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016).

In the civil service office, women represent 55% of all state employees (ISDB, 2019). However, the majority of female civil servants are in the mid-range category of professional staff (97%), while most senior positions are held by men (Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016). Only 10.7% of executive political positions at the central level were women and no women were appointed as an ambassador in 2015 (Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016). At local level, the share of women delegates in regional parliaments is 18.8% (ISDB, 2019).

In the judiciary, 55% of all judges are women, while there are 36.4% of female judges in the Supreme Court (ISDB, 2019). 70% of employees in the Judicial Department are held by women but only 8.5% of the top court positions of president and chair of the judicial board are women (Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016).



## 5.3 Gender-Specification in the Transport Sector

### Overview of Transportation

Transportation of Kazakhstan includes rail, road, inland water, aviation and pipeline (oil and gas pipelines). Considering land transport in 2015, there were 26.7 million passengers using railway transport and 21.2 billion passengers using motor vehicles and urban electric transport; 17.9 billion trips by bus and 3.8 billion trips by taxis, and 39 million trips by tram (National Statistics, 2021). However, metro services is provided only in Almaty, the capital city, with the length of 11.3 km (M. Bazarbekova et al., 2018).

Road transport plays an important for the mobility of people in Kazakhstan, in 2015, there were 4 million passenger cars and 99,000 buses all over the country (Republic of Kazakhstan, 2016). The number of buses increased by 1.5 times (from 61 to 94 thousand units) between 2003 - 2010 compared to the growth of the passenger cars by 2.5 times within the same period (M. Bazarbekova et al., 2018).

### Gender-Specification in Transport

Transport plays effects in terms of improving the lives of women by providing access to employment, health services, educational facilities, and markets, as well as the easier movement of goods. Kazakh women tend to use public transport more than men in Kazakhstan, and they travel more often with children. According to municipal government estimates, 60% of Almaty electrotrans buses in Almaty are driven by women (EBRD, 2015). From fact that fewer women can afford to have cars, it is estimated that a quarter of drivers are female, mostly in large cities (ADB, 2018).

Women in Kazakhstan tend to travel shorter distances, usually by public transport or on foot, often with children or other people. One journey combines several activities (e.g., taking children to and from school, going to the market, and attending a workplace or other livelihood-related destination) (ADB, 2018). The affordability of public transport is an important issue for gender dimensions, because of women's lower income and the number of trips they need to make which is more than men.

The gender gap is higher in rural areas. A report based on differences between the lives of women in rural and urban areas found that only 69.3% of rural towns and villages have regular transport connections (ADB, 2018). Rural women are dependent on public transport for travel to regional centers, whereas rural men are likely to drive privately-owned vehicles. However, the quality of public transport service is poor; bad condition of bus shelters (often without lights or benches) and infrequency of bus service, resulting in overcrowded buses and long journey times placed on rural women (ADB, 2018).

Also, women are underrepresented in the transport sector in terms of decision-making body and employment overall. According to ILO, women represented for 32 percent of employees in transport, storage and communications (ILO, 2013). In Almaty, women accounted for 32% of trolleybus drivers, 66% of tram drivers, and less than 1% of bus drivers (EBRD, 2015).

## 5.4 Conclusions

Kazakhstan has shown a continued commitment to advancing gender equality, and cultural norms are generally positive toward gender equality. However, gender gaps still persist

evidenced in the restrictions of women in economic opportunity, transportation, and representation in the decision-making levels.

Some initial hurdles regarding women working in the transport sector (particularly as drivers) have already been tackled. They even represent a majority for tram drivers and a fair share of trolleybus drivers in the city of Almaty. A project financed by the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) has allowed women to enter the workforce of bus drivers as well, through their gender program.<sup>4</sup> The aim is to follow up on this work when electrifying public transport in other cities in a way that here too, women can get equal chances in the transport sector.

## 6 Kyrgyzstan

### 6.1 Introduction

The Kyrgyz Republic is a landlocked country that shares borders with Kazakhstan to the north, Uzbekistan to the west, Tajikistan to the southwest, and the People's Republic of China to the southeast. Kyrgyz Republic's population was 6.5 million in 2019 (World Bank, 2020), with 50.5 percent of female population, and about two-thirds of the whole population live in rural areas.

The Gross National Income (GNI) per capita of people in Kyrgyz Republic was at USD1,240 in 2019, where female's GNI per capita is USD2,159 and USD4,369 for men (World Bank, 2020). Around a quarter of the country's total population lives below the poverty line of USD446 per capita annually (ADB, 2019). Women in the Kyrgyz Republic are disproportionately affected by poverty and are worst hit by a reduction in employment opportunities, also a widening gender wage gap.

In 2018, the Kyrgyz Republic was ranked 122nd out of 189 countries in the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) Human Development Index (HDI). Another global gender gap index, reported by the World Economic Forum rated Kyrgyz Republic at 93 out of 153 countries (WEF, 2020).

### 6.2 Gender Analysis

#### 6.2.1 National Policies and Programs

The Kyrgyz Republic has ratified several international human rights conventions on gender equality. In 1997, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was adopted, following by Optional Protocol of CEDAW (OP-CEDAW) in 2002. The country specified obligations under Article 3 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and Article 3 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights to assure the enjoyment of equal rights by men and women (UN Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2017).

In 2008, the government adopted the law on "State Guarantees of Equal Rights and Equal Opportunities for Men and Women" was passed. This law is the most significant and comprehensive legislation to guarantee equality between women and men. The law provides a definition of discrimination in the public and private spheres; sets out provisions to ensure the equality of rights, opportunities, obligations and responsibilities in governance, social

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<sup>4</sup> <https://www.ebrd.com/news/2015/ebd-client-aet-hires-first-woman-bus-driver.html>

relations, employment, service provision—including health and education and other areas (ADB, 2019).

The Kyrgyz Republic's first long-term National Gender Strategy (NGS) on achieving gender equality was adopted in 2012 in association with the CEDAW. It highlighted the importance of the family unit as the “foundation of the society” and national development. The NGS outlines five pivotal areas for achieving gender equality: (i) strong, effective institutional mechanisms; (ii) economic empowerment; (iii) an education system that promotes gender equality; (iv) access to justice for women; and (v) gender-equitable political participation. The NGS is further extended through national action plans on gender equality. The Gender Policy Department of the Ministry of Labor and Social Development oversees the implementation of the NGS. The National Council for Gender Development was established in 2012, consisted of ministers, deputy ministers, and heads of oblasts (provincial governments), as an advisory body chaired by the Deputy Prime Minister (ADB, 2019).

## 6.2.2 Economic Opportunities

The economic transition in the Kyrgyz Republic resulted in a huge loss of jobs in formal sector, affecting both men and women. Only 25% of the total people employed in the country are in the formal sector, while 76% of the economically active population are self-employed (ADB, 2019).

### Labor Force Participation

Women in Kyrgyz were hit hard from the country's economic transition. The labor participation rate of female dropped from 44.1 percent in 2000 to 39.2 percent in 2018 (World Bank, 2020). In 1991, 81.6% of female employees were in the formal labor force, many were working in public sector institutions, and supported by public state-funded services as well as provisions including day care centers, kindergartens, extended maternity leave, also access to basic health care. By 2007, the employment rate for women was almost halved at 42.3% (World Bank, 2020). The cause of this reduction was partly due to the loss of jobs in Soviet Union-era jobs which previously occupied by women, and the reduction of females' capacity because they have to conduct full-time work in the absence of subsidized childcare (ADB, 2019). In 2018, just over 40% of the workforce is female, compared to 59% male (World Bank, 2020). The employment gap is significant for women aged 20–34, who are most likely to leave formal employment for young children and infants cares.

### Occupational Patterns

Women predominate in three main sectors: 83.6% of labor force in health and social services are; education (80.6%); and hotels and restaurants (58.4%) (Kyrgyz Republic, National Statistical Committee, 2017). While the highly paid technical sectors are dominated by men. Men accounted for 84.4% of employees in the mining industry; 90.5% in the production of gas, electricity, and water; 89.3% in the transport and communication sector; and 96.5 in the building industry (Kyrgyz Republic, National Statistical Committee, 2017). A study on time consuming in 2015 found that, on average, women spend 4 hours and 30 minutes per day on household chores, which accounts for 18.8% of their time every day, whereas men spend only around 1 hour and 20 minutes or 6.5% of their time on these activities (ADB, 2019).

The majority of women represented in lower-paid sectors reflected to considerable gender wage difference between male and female, with women receiving on average USD2,200 annually in 2020 compared to USD4,700 of men (WEF, 2020). In 2016, unemployment rate of women was at 8.7% where the figure was 6.2% for men (ADB, 2019). In the Kyrgyz Republic,

there are 400 occupations that are legally forbidden for women to undertake, due to the reasons of health and safety, but in reality, many people perceived constraints no longer exist because of advances in technology and working practices (ADB, 2019).

### Management and Entrepreneurship

There are on 37.8% of female in the active labor force represented in senior officials and managers level, while the figure 62.2 percent for male labor force in the Kyrgyz Republic (WEF, 2020). The evidence indicates very little representation of women in micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises. In 2013, 28% of women represented as managers in small firms, 31% as managers of medium-sized firms, while 16.5% of agricultural enterprises were led by women (ADB, 2014). The lack of start-up capital and technological knowledge are barriers to do business of both men and women, but women also face gender-specific barriers.

A key challenge is the male dominance of the finance sector: women attempting to negotiate with male loan officers reported experiencing gender biases, including being told to bring their husbands if they wish to apply for a loan (ADB, 2019). In addition, women are often restricted to micro and small businesses, and taking up smaller loans than men. A study on micro-finance found that 86% of female clients borrow less than USD1,100 and only 2% of women borrow over USD2,000 (FAO, 2016).

## 6.2.3 Human Development

### Education

The literacy rate of female population in the Kyrgyz Republic was nearly the same as males at 99.5% and 99.7% respectively (WEF, 2020). The country has a high level of enrollment in education and gender parity at the primary and secondary levels. 88.8% of girls and 90.4% of boys enrolled in primary education, while there are 84.1% of female students and 84.6 of male enrolled in the secondary schools. However, the figure of enrolment rate dropped significantly in tertiary level of education, 46.7% of women pursuit higher education compared with 36.05 of men (WEF, 2020). The cost of education is likely to be a contributing factor to this gender imbalance, especially in rural areas where families are most likely to withdraw their male (and sometimes female) children to assist in the household income.

The choice of subjects is affected by gender perceptions. A total of 83.1% were male and only 16.9% of female students were in industry courses. Male students accounted for 100% of enrolment in metrology, standardization, and quality control; 99.5% of mechanical engineering and material processing students; 98.3% of electrical engineering students; and 94.8% (Kyrgyz Republic, National Statistical Committee, 2017). Women generally choose traditionally female-dominated fields as education, garment making, or food processing. Only 21.1% of students enrolled in architecture were women.

### Demography and Health

The sex ratio at birth was 1 male per 0.95 female in 2020 in the Kyrgyz Republic. While women have higher life expectancy than men (66.4 versus 60.7 year respectively) (WEF, 2020). There has been a steep increase in incidences of bride kidnapping in the past two decades, despite this practice being officially made illegal in 1994. There trend of early marriage has increased, which is partly linked to the practice of bride kidnapping. The national statistical survey in 2014 revealed that 12.7% of female respondents aged 20–49 said they married or entered an unregistered marriage, when they were below the age of 18 (Kyrgyz Republic, National Statistical Committee, 2017).

Marriages among adolescent girls 15-19 years had increased from 7.7% to 13.9% between 2006 and 2014. Adolescent fertility rates in the Kyrgyz Republic was at 42.1 per 1,000 live births per 1,000 women under 20 years in 2013. The rates have increased by one quarter between 2000 and 2012 (Lehtimäki, 2016).

The maternal mortality rate was at 60 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2020 (WEF, 2020). Domestic violence is widespread and prevalent in the Kyrgyz Republic. An estimated 23% of women aged 15–49 have experienced physical violence at least once. The figure decreased to 28% for married or formerly married women, with 4% reported exposure to sexual violence and 14% being emotional abuse by partners (ADB, 2019).

### 6.3 Gender-Specification in the Transport Sector

#### Transportation Overall

The number of motor vehicle registered in the Kyrgyz Republic was reported at 1,330,000 units in 2015, the figure doubled from 733,00 units in 2009 (International Organization of motor vehicle manufacturers, 2015). Considering public transport, the national statistics in 2019 reveals that the majority of passengers (36.4 million passenger trips) were made by taxis, where the figure was 24.1 passengers in 2015 (Kyrgyz Republic, National Statistical Committee, 2019). There were 682 million trips made by bus in 2019, and 360 million passenger trips were made by rail system in 2019 (Kyrgyz Republic, National Statistical Committee, 2019). With limited public transport system has been provided, road transport takes the highest share of trips by passengers.

#### Gender-Specification in Transport

According to ILO, there are 37 percent of female employees represented in transport, storage and communications employment (ILO, 2013). A study by ADB in 2019 found that women are most likely to use public transport than men. Evidence indicates that women's mobility in the Kyrgyz Republic is more limited compared to that of men because women hardly drive private vehicles or can afford the cost of private transport (ADB, 2019). The European Bank in Osh city conducted an analysis on gender inclusion in public transport to identified differences in transport use and access between men and women. A key finding was that women were more likely than men to choose private minibus services over public transport because they are faster, more reliable, and cover a wider area (Bankwork Network, 2018). Although the survey was conducted in one city, but this finding can suggest that Kyrgyz women heavily rely on transport services for daily journeys to work and other activities such as taking children to school.

According to the rural access Index, 76% of residents in remote areas in the Kyrgyz Republic live within 2 km of the nearest all-season road, while the remaining 0.8 million people have no access to transport routes (FAO, 2016). In the meanwhile, less than half of rural households' own cars, resulting women's mobility in particular area is limited, due to the fact that women rarely drive private vehicles or cannot afford to have private vehicles. The difficulties of transportation prevent rural populations from; accessing to healthcare facilities, including maternity hospitals; and lack of mobility to reach markets in larger towns and cities means, such as bringing their crops to sell in the central areas (FAO, 2016).

## 6.4 Conclusions

The Kyrgyz Republic has achieved gender parity in education enrollment and literacy rates. However, it performs poorly on key global indicators; women's labor force participation, women's leadership, and maternal mortality ratio. The fact that women hardly own private vehicles and the lack of transport infrastructure, especially in rural areas, limit females' access to economic opportunities as well as public services.

There is no data on women's safety issues in the public transport, the work environment for the few women working in the transport sector etc. This data needs to be retrieved for each of the projects financed in the country. An electric bus project in Kirgizstan's capital city Bishkek will be financed by the ADB and has a project -specific GAP. The purchased buses will be equipped with safety cameras and panic buttons. Many of the measures can be replicated for other projects in order to make public transport safe and convenient for women.

## 7 Nepal

### 7.1 Introduction

Nepal is a landlocked country in South Asia and is bordered by China and India. It is located in the Himalayas and contains eight of the world's ten highest peaks. Nepal's population was 29.7 million, 54.4 percent are female and 45.6 percent male. The country stands out with a young population, with more than half of its inhabitants under 25 years old.

The UNDP gave Nepal a medium human development index of 0.602. With this index, Nepal ranks 142rd out of 189 countries (Human Development Report, 2020, p. 243).

Nepal is still an underdeveloped Country, with about 15% of its population (4.5 million people) living below the poverty line earning less than USD 1.90 a day. The country's GDP per capita in 2019 was of \$ 1,034. Nepal has seen an increase in economic activity and an estimated GDP growth of 7,0% in 2019 (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, pp. 86, 104, 110). Nepal has a traditional economic system in which two thirds of the population engages in subsistence agriculture. Income from remittances contributes a significant part to Nepal's economy, amounting as much as 30% of GDP (Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Diagnostic of Selected Sectors in Nepal, 2020, pp. 5, 16).

In the World Bank's Doing Business report, Nepal has risen from 105 in 2018 to 94 in 2020 out of 190 countries. Thanks to improving accessibility, government services, credit lines and cross-border trade (Doing Business, 2020) (Doing Business, 2018).

### 7.2 Gender Analysis

According to the World Economic Forum, Nepal achieved a gender index of 0.68<sup>5</sup>, which ranks Nepal at 101st out of 153 countries on gender parity (Global Gender Gap Report, 2020, p. 9).

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<sup>5</sup> 0 = gender imparity, 1 = gender parity



### 7.2.1 National Policies and Programs

Nepal has made commitments to end gender discrimination through various national policies and international conventions.

In the Constitution the 14th Three-Year Plan, and the 15th Five-Year Plan have strong commitments for gender equality and social inclusion. Eight sectoral ministries have their own gender equality and social inclusion guidelines. The Civil Service Amendment Act 2014 embraces inclusivity and provides that 45% of the employees must comprise 33% women. With the Local Government Operation Act of 2017: incorporated provisions to promote gender equality and social inclusion and recognize it as a function of the local government. It stipulates that planning processes should be participatory, and projects directly benefiting women and excluded groups. The Ministry of Women, Children and Senior Citizens: prioritizes the economic empowerment of women by ensuring their meaningful participation in project processes, and the elimination of gender-based violence and harmful practices. The Ministry of Federal Affairs and General Administration has issued various model Acts for local governments integrating gender equality. These model acts have been used by the local governments to develop their own policies, regulations, and guidelines (Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Diagnostic of Selected Sectors in Nepal, 2020, p. 11).

An example of an improvements to women's rights are the following. A 1975 amendment to the civil code introduced the first clear provision on property rights for women with the ruling that a woman who remained unmarried up to 35 years of age had a right to inherit property. A bill was passed in 2002 that granted women the right to inherit property from birth, specifying, however, that at the time of marriage any property must be returned to the parent's family, with the wife obtaining equal rights to her husband's property instead. The 2002 bill also included other provisions on women's rights, in particular granting woman the right to divorce under certain conditions, legalization of abortion and increased punishments for rapists. Currently, the bill has been amended so that women do not need to return the inherited property after marriage. While the country's civil code has provisions that women have control over their *pewa* (gifted property) and dowry, in effect social customs limit this control.

Through ratification of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in 1991. Nepal pledged to work towards gender equality and the empowerment of women at the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing and committed to the Beijing Platform for Action during 1995.

Nepal has ratified several international human rights instruments that include international conventions, covenants, and declarations on women, such as Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, Beijing Platform for Action, UN Security Council Resolutions (UNSCR 1325 and 1820) (Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Diagnostic of Selected Sectors in Nepal, 2020, p. 12).

These international treaties and commitments require Nepal to promote legal, economic, social, political, civic, and constitutional equality. UNSCR 1325 calls for women's equal participation in the peace process and in all decision-making positions in a post-conflict situation. Similarly, any other international agreements, such as International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) on reproductive health, and Education for All, have called for Nepal's commitment toward achieving targets regarding gender equality and women's empowerment and reducing inequalities (Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Diagnostic of Selected Sectors in Nepal, 2020, p. 12).

## 7.2.2 Economic Opportunities

### Labor Force Participation

Among the employed labor force, there is a gender gap in the distribution of economic and noneconomic work. At the national level, women spend 21.3 hours per week doing non-economic work, whereas males only 5 hours. Non-economic work includes household and self-agriculture activities. In economic activities, women spend on average 37.5 and males 44.9 hours per week. The disparity is evident, women still have a predominantly domestic workload, and males engage almost exclusively in economic activities. The Unemployment in Nepal per gender is of 3.4% for the male and 2.9% for the female population (Annual Household Survey 2014/15, 2016, p. 27).

The Annual Household Survey shows that about 20.1% female are outside the labour force compared to only 13.7% male. The survey also revealed that males are outside mostly for going to school (53.6%) compared to females (24.3%). Also, among such outside labour force population, 38.7% female are found engaged in household chores compared to only 4.6% male (Annual Household Survey 2014/15, 2016, p. 27).

### Occupational Patterns

Agriculture in Nepal is mainly dependent on the contribution of women. 67.6 percent of women are engaged in agriculture-related work (paid and unpaid), 13.5 percent more than the 54.1 percent of men. Non-agricultural work (paid and unpaid) is made up by 14.7 percent of women as compared to 38.3 percent for men (Annual Household Survey 2014/15, 2016, p. 74).

Almost two thirds (63.9%) of the active labor force engages in “skilled agriculture and forestry”. The gender disparity is also obvious, with 74.5% of all women and a reduced 51.8% of all male population active in this occupation (Annual Household Survey 2014/15, 2016, p. 27).

## 7.2.3 Human Development

The Nepalese population has a slightly lower than average life expectancy within ADB’s “Developing Economies”, with 71.9 years for females and 69 years for males (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 88).

### Education

Indicative of education quality: From all countries in ADBs key findings, and whose data exists for two years, Nepal has shown by far the biggest leap in the proportion of teachers in primary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training. Between 2000 and 2019, this value has jumped from 15,4% to 97,3% (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 43).

Indicative of education quantity / outreach: The number in Nepal of new entrants in the last year of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the theoretical age to enter the last grade of primary education, is second best in Asia. The values, at 123,3% for females and 117,7% for males, show, that more than the theoretically eligible population by age are engaging in primary education. Females being more active in this regard than males (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 90).

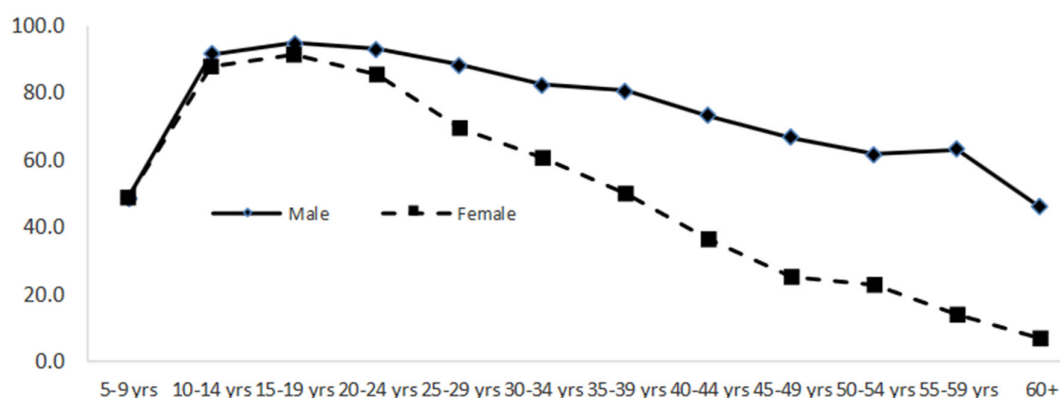
The share of total enrolment for girls is 50.4 percent at primary level, 50.5 percent at lower secondary, and 50.4 percent at basic levels. This clearly demonstrates that gender parity has



been achieved in basic education, including primary and lower secondary education (1.02 at primary level, 1.02 at lower secondary level and 1.02 at basic level). There is a huge disparity among boys and girls in terms of dropout rates from secondary school education. Early marriage is a main cause of girls dropping out of school, and economic conditions and poverty is the main reason boys drop out. Both boys and girls from well-off families get chance to go to school but in very few cases of school enrolment are found among the poor families.

Nepalese literacy rate for the female population older than 15 years is the third lowest in Asia with 59,7% while males is the sixth lowest as 78,6% (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 91). Significant progress has been achieved in the last decades, as exemplified by the following figure. It depicts the development of the literacy gender gap over time (generational development), and it is clear to see that the gap widens as the generations get older. This is indicative of positive progress and puts into reminder that the mentioned literacy rates include older generations and does not reflect the most recent developments. The literacy gender gap for the young population (10 to 24 years old) is significantly reduced.

Figure 1: Literacy rate of male and female by age groups



Source: (Annual Household Survey 2014/15, 2016, p. 45)

### Demography and Health

In Nepal the maternal mortality ratio has drastically decreased from 553 deaths per 100,000 live births from 2000, to 186 deaths in 2017. Even with this significant betterment, the value is the third highest within ADBs “Developing Member Economies”, behind Myanmar (250) and Afghanistan (638). Nepal’s improvement can be attributed to an advance in the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel, from 11.9% in 2000 to 58% in 2016, which is still the fourth lowest value in Asia (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 38). These improvements come from the government’s “*Second Long-Term Health Plan (1997– 2017)*”. It gives high priority to improving neonatal and maternal health outcomes and includes many initiatives to improve access for the poorest and socially excluded, including a safer motherhood program, and a female community health volunteer program, which evidently has been quite successful (Second Long Term Health Plan 1997-2017, 1997).

Women in Nepal have the second highest rate of early-age marriage. From all women aged between 20 and 24 years how are married or in union, 7% got married before the age of 15, and 39,5% before the age of 18. This can limit the education and employment prospects of a girl or young woman, compromising her overall well-being and the health of her offspring (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 10).

### 7.2.4 Leadership and Decision-Making

According to ADB key findings, the proportion of seats in the Nepalese parliament held by women grew from only 5,9% in 2000 to 32,7% in 2019. This being the third highest proportion in Asia, behind Timor-Leste and New Zealand both with 40%. In managerial positions, women represent in 2017 only 13,2% (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 44)

Nepal is in the new journey of federal state and successfully completed the local, provincial, and federal elections in the year 2017. Which is a historic milestone for the country as it was held after almost two decades and also has provision of gender and social inclusion in the political leadership. But still representation of women in political parties is low, especially at the higher levels of power. During the 2017 elections a total of 35,041 local representatives were elected across 753 local units, 6 metropolises, 11 sub-metropolises, 276 municipalities, and 460 rural municipalities. Out of 35,041 elected representatives' 41% (14,352) were women, a direct result of the mandatory rule of the election commission (EC), mandating that at least 40.4 percent of the total political nominees should be female, and a mandatory rule that chief and deputy chief nominations of each political party in each local unit should be gender equal (if the political party nominated a man for chief positions then the deputy chief should be women or vice versa). From this rule 91 percent of the deputy positions (deputy mayors in municipalities and vice chairpersons in rural municipalities) were won by women, but men won 98 percent of chief positions (mayors and chairpersons) which means women were nominated for chief post in only 25 percent of the total positions. Furthermore, there were no quota for women for local level positions i.e., ward members. As a result, out of 13,484 ward members positions only 2 percent were won by women (Sijapati, 2020).

## 7.3 Gender-Specification in the Transport Sector

### Overview of Transportation

The most popular modes of transport in Nepal are road transport and aviation. The nation's often difficult terrain has made a large section of the population dependent on walking. Nepal has a road network which serves as a basic road connector (Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Diagnostic of Selected Sectors in Nepal, 2020, p. 68).

82% of Nepalese road infrastructure is classified by the ADB as "minimum desirable standard", as two-lane (narrow) roads. In 2015 there were 2.3 million vehicles registered in Nepal, that amounts to 83.7 vehicles per 1.000 people. 8% (187 thousand) are cars and 66% (1.5 million) are motorcycles (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, pp. 170, 171). In remote hilly and mountainous regions, one-third of residents have to walk more than four hours to reach an all-season road (Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Diagnostic of Selected Sectors in Nepal, 2020, p. 70).

### Gender-Specification in Transport

Despite increased representation among women and excluded groups, their voice is still limited, and they are unable to influence decisions in transport planning (Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Diagnostic of Selected Sectors in Nepal, 2020, p. 68). A review of the Public Works Directives comes to a similar conclusion. It indicates that gender equality issues have not been specifically addressed. There is so limited recognition in the description of roles and responsibilities—in planning, implementation, and postimplementation stages, or of project staff and committees—that a more specific mandate of provision for effective inclusion is necessary (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 71).

The issue of equal transport opportunities is not only of accessibility to transportation, but cultural. For example, rural Muslim and Madhesi women do not generally travel out of the village, while they do so within their communities, especially for household related tasks, and thus do not equally use improved road access (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 75).

In Kathmandu, one third of bus passengers on peak time were women. In a survey, young women expressed that they saw no hindrances to their mobility except their self-imposed or parental concerns about travelling after dark, although such concerns were echoed by men too (Gender and Public Transport Kathmandu, Nepal, 2013).

In the same survey, 16% of men and 26% of women said they have no choice but to take the particular public transport they were using because it was the only form of transport in the particular route. Qualitative discussions suggest the gender difference may relate to men's higher access to bicycles and motorbikes as well as willingness to walk part of the journey (Gender and Public Transport Kathmandu, Nepal, 2013).

Overall, the problems encountered by women travelers were similar to men. Two key exceptions are (i) increased sense of personal insecurity (33% of women surveyed compared to 16% men (discussed further below)) and (ii) physical difficulties related to getting on/off and travelling because of their often-smaller stature. Since overcrowding is the main problem facing everyone, the smaller sized and physically weaker suffer more from being pushed, crushed and not having handles/bars at the right height to hang on to. Travelling with young children was noted as a major problem by women, although this too is experienced by men in the same position (Gender and Public Transport Kathmandu, Nepal, 2013).

There is one female taxi driver operating in Kathmandu. She has a known client base with known routes. Male taxi drivers suggested it might be unsafe for women to drive taxis especially at night where they might be expected to take passengers to remote places (Gender and Public Transport Kathmandu, Nepal, 2013).

## 7.4 Conclusions

Nepal has shown significant progress in primary education and healthcare for its female population, though comparing it to other South Asian countries it is still lacking behind. These factors serve as a baseline for what should be expected for higher education and leadership positions in years to come.

In regard of the transport sector, given the countries geographical characteristics, the infrastructure still is vastly underdeveloped. And within the capital city, public transportation is very overcrowded which tends to generate feelings of insecurity, and female population avoids, if possible, trips at night.

Nepal has established an enabling policy environment for women equality, but the challenge remains in terms of effective implementation and bringing about gender equality and inclusive transformations.

## 8 Uzbekistan

### 8.1 Introduction

Uzbekistan is located in Central Asia and shares a border with five states, including Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Kazakhstan, and Afghanistan. In 2019, Uzbekistan's HDI was 0.720

which put the country at 106 out of 189 countries and territories. In 2019, the Gender Inequality Index was rated 62<sup>nd</sup> out of 188 countries (Human Development Report, 2020).

Uzbekistan's population reached 33.6 million people in 2019 and a per capital income of USD 1,724. According to the International Monetary Fund, thanks to growth in investment and consumption fostered GDP growth from 4.5 percent in 2017 to 5.4% in 2018 and continued to grow at 5.6% in 2019. In 2020, however, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, it is forecasted that the it will be 1.8 percent. Though, GDP growth is expected to reach 7.0% in 2021 (The Regional Economic Outlook: Middle East and Central Asia Update, 2020). This forecast can vary, because the World Bank expects the GDP growth in 2021 to be lower, at 4.3% (World Bank: Uzbekistan, 2021). The government aims at transforming Uzbekistan into an industrialized, upper-middle-income country by 2030 and has recently announced plans to modernize the agriculture sector, and address constraints in the financial markets.

The country has a workforce of 14.5 million, that is 43.1% of its population<sup>6</sup>. Levels of unemployment are at 9.3% (Key Indicators for Asia and the Pacific, 2020, p. 50). The economy is strongly reliant on agriculture, industry, and services. Agriculture alone accounts for 28.7% of GDP and employs 25.7% of the total workforce. The country also produces silk and wool and is attempting to diversify its agriculture towards fruits and vegetables.

The industry accounts for 28.4% of GDP and employs 23.1% of the total workforce.<sup>7</sup> Manufactured products included textiles, food processing, machine building, metallurgy, mining, hydrocarbon extraction, and chemicals. The country is also rich in coal, zinc, copper, tungsten, uranium, and silver.

The services sector accounted for 31.6% of GDP and employs 51.2% of the total workforce.<sup>8</sup> Key services include transportation and tourism. Uzbekistan was the seventh fastest growing country for tourism in 2019 (+26.2%), receiving 6.7 million tourists (Highlights International Tourism, 2020).

Thanks to the exploitation of agriculture and natural resources, primarily exporting cotton, wheat, gas, and oil has made this country more self-sufficient than many of its neighbors, who depend on foreign aid for energy and food.

## 8.2 Gender Analysis

### 8.2.1 National Policies and Programs

Uzbekistan has joined more than 60 international human rights treaties, as well as a number of international organizations and conventions committed to promoting gender equality and protecting women's rights. Uzbekistan has developed several national policy documents relevant to women's rights. The government has enacted two national action plans to implement the United Nations CEDAW, the first in 2006 (in response to a review of Uzbekistan's second and third periodic reports) and the second in 2010 (to implement the CEDAW Committee recommendations in its fourth periodic review).

In 2014, the Fifth National Report was submitted to the CEDAW Committee, and the Concluding Observations of the Committee were released in 2015. In 2017, the Cabinet of Ministers endorsed the most recent NAP addressing the CEDAW recommendations (Gender, agriculture and rural development in Uzbekistan, 2019). Key areas of concern include (i) the

<sup>6</sup> <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.TOTL.IN?locations=UZ>

<sup>7</sup> <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.IND.EMPL.ZS?locations=UZ>

<sup>8</sup> <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.SRV.EMPL.ZS?locations=UZ>

lack of an adequate mechanism for monitor and ensuring accountability for gender equality; (ii) the still-pending status of a draft law on equal rights and opportunities, and a draft Law on Measures of domestic violence, which have received sporadic consideration by Parliament since 2000; (iii) persistent stereotypes regarding traditional roles in the family and society; (iv) weak implementation and limited understanding of temporary special measures; (v) women's low participation rate in political and public life and decision making; (vi) the lack of sex-disaggregated data collection and monitoring mechanisms; and (vi) the situation of women in rural areas.

The Women's Committee of Uzbekistan is the largest and most influential women's organization in Uzbekistan with offices in all regions of the country. It initiates, coordinates and implements government policies, programs and projects aimed at improving the status of women. The key regulatory documents in the country include the following: Decree No. 5325 of the President of the Republic of Uzbekistan dated 2 February 2018 "On measures for comprehensive improvement of efforts to support women and to strengthen the institution of family" and Decree No. UE 5430 dated 4 May 2018 "On measures for comprehensive improvement of the role of civil society in the democratic revival of the country", aimed at improving the legal basis for protecting the interests of women and families, while taking into account the best international experience in facilitating conducive environment and ethical norms in relation to them.

## 8.2.2 Economic Opportunities

### Labor Force Participation

The government recognized the need to promote women's economic performance and has implemented a number of programs to increase overall employment and promote job creation for women, such as the Regional Program for Increasing Women's Employment for 2005–2007, which was reapproved in 2010. However, although women make up 49.6% of the population, their share in formal employment (45.7%) is lower than that of men (54.3%) (Women and Men 2016-2019, 2020).

Protective legislation<sup>9</sup> limits women's employment in several sectors, including transport and construction. Some of these limitations have recently been addressed by the Presidential Decree No. 4235, adopted on 7 March 2019, on guaranteeing labor rights and supporting the entrepreneurial activities of women of Uzbekistan. The list of un-banned jobs for women includes 44 items in the oil and gas, ferrous metallurgy, construction, installation, and mining sectors. The list also includes such jobs as diver, driller, loader, pipe crimper, steelmaker, stonemason, and others (Power Sector Reform Program, 2020).

### Occupational Patterns

Women are highly represented in the social sectors (education, health care and social services, accommodation, and catering services), which typically offer lower salaries, while men predominate in technical fields (construction, industry, transport, finance and insurance, information and communication technology), which usually offer higher salaries.

Despite an increasing share of women since 2014, men dominate employment in both the transport and roads subsectors. The percentage of female technical staff in the Uzbek Agency

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<sup>9</sup> SanPIN (sanitary norms and regulations) #0141-03 (24 October 2003). Hygiene Classification of Working Conditions in Terms of Age, Hazards and Risks in the Industrial Environment, the Severity and Intensity of the Work Process.

for Automobile and River Transport has decreased continuously, from 53.3% in 2014 to 25% in 2016, mostly because of structural reforms, the methodology for calculating technical staff numbers pre- and post-reform.

### 8.2.3 Human Development

#### Education

Few young women pursue engineering in higher education institutions, but in humanities and arts, and sciences, women outnumber their male counterparts (Progress of the World's Women Report 2015-2016, p. 259).

These educational disparities translate to an actual workforce of more than 90% of male workers in construction, transport and communications. Women account for 76.5% of all employees in health care, welfare, and sports, as well as 76% of workers in education, culture, the arts, and sciences (Women and Men 2016-2019, 2020).

#### Demography and Health

The average life expectancy at birth in Uzbekistan varies depending on the source. WHO data estimates the life expectancy for women at birth at 75.2 and men at 70.7 years (WHO: Life expectancy at birth - UZB, 2021).

Since 2000 the maternal mortality ration (MMR) for Uzbekistan has fallen from 41 to 29 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2017 (UNICEF: Maternal mortality ratio - Uzb, 2021). This was a result of many state programs on the protection of motherhood and children's health. However, there are regional differences in maternal outcomes. Most obstetric complications and maternal deaths occur among rural women who are less likely to have delivered with a skilled birth attendant.

Gender stereotypes remain relatively severe in Uzbekistan. As a consequence, women get married at the very young age. In 2019, the percentage of first-time marriages for women aged 20-24 was 54.1% (Gender Statistics of Uzbekistan, 2021). Women in traditional families are expected to give birth within the first year of marriage. This is dangerous for girls in their teenage years. Clearly, as a result of gender stereotypes being so widely promoted, women have less educational and economic opportunities.

### 8.2.4 Leadership and Decision-Making

The proportion of women as a share of all employees in the small and medium enterprises sector, including farming, was growing slowly between 2014 and 2016 (21.7% and 22.5% respectively). However, as of 2017, the share of women in employment and entrepreneurship in this sector started growing more rapidly: as of beginning of 2018, there are over 182,000 women entrepreneurs, representing 29% of all registered business entities in the country. (Report of the Implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action - Uzbekistan, 2019)

In an effort to promote wage parity between men and women, the government ratified International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 100 (Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value). Recent legislation regarding job creation and employment indirectly relates to women, particularly young people, and includes female graduates of professional colleges. The Strategy of Actions on Further Development of Uzbekistan in 2017–2021 directly addresses employment for women and female graduates of



vocational colleges. In an effort to attract female graduates to business and entrepreneurship and in cooperation with the Central Bank, the Chamber of Commerce and Industry, the Business Women's Association (BWA), and the Center for Secondary Specialized Vocational Education, the Women's Committee of Uzbekistan (WCU) conducts annual competitions for the best business project of a female entrepreneur.

Within this competition, in 2016–2017, various educational training programs were organized to help college graduates acquire entrepreneurial skills and support in obtaining concessional loans. Students from 800 colleges participated in the competition and 182,235 girls attended 2,457 training courses; of these, 177 have expressed a desire to start a business.

### 8.3 Gender-Specification in the Transport Sector

#### Overview of Transportation

Public transport is seriously limited in the rural areas. The often-used modes of transport to the district center are private minibuses and taxis, which are costly and not very safe. A survey by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations noted that goods in rural areas are sold mainly at local and district markets, largely because of the cost and time required to transport them. Therefore, home workers and craftsmen often prefer to sell goods from home or to take them to the nearest local market.

Poor road conditions are especially challenging in cold weather, as they increase the vulnerability of the rural population in meeting their social needs (e.g., accompanying younger children when traveling to and from school, accompanying children and elders to health facilities, shopping at markets, visiting relatives in neighboring areas). These chores depend largely on safe transport and roads. Unreliable public transport therefore presents a serious barrier to job access for the population; to access jobs; affects attendance at education and training facilities; and limits access to good-quality health services and information hubs.

#### Gender-Specification in Transport

Women and men have different travel patterns and needs. In group discussions and interviews, female respondents stated that they mainly use private transport to purchase raw materials at the wholesale market, to transport products for sale, to visit administrative institutions, to care for in-laws, to take children to and from school, or to shop for daily needs. Some women entrepreneurs obtained car loans to cope with these multiple tasks. The rules for operating a business and the necessity of combining business and reproductive functions challenge traditional gender relations. Many women from traditional families have taken to driving their cars despite the initial reluctance of their spouses to allow this (Uzbekistan Country Gender Assessment Update, 2018, p. 59).

### 8.4 Conclusions

Uzbek women face a series of challenges when it comes to the transport sector. Up until 2019, they were not even allowed to get a job in transportation. This ban was addressed through a bill. However, it is to be expected that heavy stereotypes concerning women's driving persist. These gender stereotypes also affect women's education and career choices. Awareness raising, and education of women in these sectors needs to be addressed from the very base. There is no data regarding sexual harassment in public transportation.

## 9 Conclusions

According to UN Habitat, two-thirds of the population will be living in cities by 2050 (UN Habitat, 2018). Together with pollution, overcrowding, lack of modal integration, are some of the problems that the increase of urban population is exacerbating. Lack of access to transportation and safety issues limits women's participation in the labor market and reduces their participation in the economy by 16.5 percent<sup>10</sup>. Women turn away working opportunities depending on the traveling conditions to the work station (time spent, return timing, expenses). Besides providing access to education, health and jobs, the sector generates jobs itself but traditionally most opportunities are likely to remain in men's hands. Hence, when one uses the gender lens to analyze urban transportation, one discovers that the conditions, priorities, and beliefs about urban transport infrastructure and services vary between women and men and, consequently, the decisions that they make about mobility are shaped by these conditions, priorities and beliefs. The lack of certain safety features in the design of the transport system can constrain a woman's decision to choose a certain mode of transportation, sometimes in ways that are inoculate to men, such as dark bus stops or overcrowded buses. When it comes to the design of the transport infrastructures, the realities of women, the elderly and people with disabilities are many times alike and need be taken into account when designing a transport operation.

There is myriad of links between gender and urban transportation, and these links have been deeply studied in the last years. There are gender differences in the purpose, time, mode of transportation, or perceptions on safety, that affect women's mobility agency and access to economic opportunities, and the differences comprised in this section are shared among the countries in the region. For the purpose of organizing the information for this gender assessment, these many links are presented grouped in three dimensions that are interrelated: (i) mobility, (ii) safety, and (iii) jobs. Each dimension reveals the unique situation for these countries.

Female urban transport ridership characteristics differ from that of men. Women rely more on public transportation than men; women chain different destinations in a single trip (Ex: drop kids at school, buy food, visit relatives in need, or get to work), and many times they travel off-peak hours. They are often accompanied by others (Ex: children, elderly) and carry bags. Their commuter times are often longer and more expensive. This is because women combine multiple wage jobs and care responsibilities (family errands, care for the elderly, the ill, the kids, and their community) in one trip. Sometimes, the nature of the wage work (Ex. As part-time nannies, providers of cleaning services) requires getting on and off in multiple destinations, and when multimodal fare is not in place, they have to buy a new ticket every time, or just walk more. If there is not public transportation available, they just walk or decide not to travel. Women in these countries, use occasionally official taxis when traveling with heavy bags or children, but most times they use informal taxis or taxi-buses ("tuk tuks") which have a number of benefits for women: they fill route gaps, their price is shared by passengers, they provide comfort and, reduce stress from the trip. Some taxi drivers discriminate against women with bags, and some cities have subsidies to reduce taxis' fare for certain passengers (women, students, or elderly).

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<sup>10</sup> World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends for women 2017. International Labour Office – Geneva: ILO, 2017



## 10 Recommendations

The investments projects need to include a gender strategy with actions to increase women's mobility, promote safety and access to jobs. This program can improve women's agency in mobility if mainstreaming gender equality in its projects becomes systematic. In all the countries, the program benefits from a favorable environment with female quotas, laws and regulations that don't limit women's access to loans, jobs or mobility. Moreover, women are not discriminated in access to credit in any of the countries. The program needs to facilitate women entrepreneurs to get loans to entry in the e-transport market to avoid leaving them behind. These women should benefit from the capacity building and trainings that will be delivered. All members, women and men, of the platform of exchange need a space to share knowledge and learn best practices and know-how on gender mainstreaming in the sector.

Gender-based violence is endemic in these countries and underreported; the COVID-19 pandemic is exacerbating the numbers. The urban transport system represents an environment where harassment and sexual abuses occur quotidianly in the regular trips women do every day. Incidents will happen in the e-buses, in the e-taxis, while waiting, walking to and from the stops or using charging stations; incidents will increase at night, in isolated vehicles and unattended places, but in crowded units as well.

Women are not represented in the jobs generated by the construction and transport sector in the region. The pandemic complicates the return to work for those women who lost their jobs and those whose care responsibilities have increased; the program is an opportunity for women in these eight countries to access the new jobs that will be generated. The investment projects for e-taxis adoption must learn from the segregated ride-hailing market which is growing in the region, and adapt to vulnerable groups without access to technology.

The Gender Action Plan (GAP) guarantees that these general recommendations are transformed into specific activities at the program and project levels, and that they are measured and adequately monitored, and adjusted when needed.

## 11 ADB's Policy Framework on Gender Equality

As an ADB-managed program, the GAP for this E-Mobility Program builds on existing ADB gender mainstreaming systems. Accelerating progress in gender equality in Asia and the Pacific is one of seven operational priorities for ADB under its Strategy 2030. ADB recognizes that gender equality is critical in its own right, and to help realize socioeconomic development. Strategy 2030 holds that, to achieve a prosperous, inclusive, resilient, and sustainable region, it is imperative that ADB contributes to the efforts of accelerating gender equality outcomes in the region in five areas: economic empowerment, human development, decision making and leadership, time poverty reduction, and resilience to external shocks. ADB is committed to support gender equality through gender-inclusive project designs in at least 75% of its sovereign and non-sovereign operations by 2030.

A Gender and Development Framework Policy<sup>11</sup>, is supported by a four-tier gender mainstreaming categorization framework with associated targets applying to both sovereign and non-sovereign operations. It is supported by a formal monitoring and evaluation

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<sup>11</sup> <https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/institutional-document/32035/gender-policy.pdf>

framework.<sup>12</sup> Under the ADB gender categorization framework, a project is classified as one of the following (ADB, 2013):

- **Gender Equity Theme ('GEN')** where the project explicitly includes gender equality outcomes or empowerment outcomes. A project is assigned GEN if (i) the project outcome directly addresses gender equality and/or women's empowerment by narrowing gender disparities through access to social services (e.g. education, health, and water supply/sanitation); and/or economic and financial resources and opportunities (e.g. employment opportunities, financial services, land, and markets), and/or basic rural and urban infrastructure (e.g. rural electrification, rural roads, pro-poor energy distribution, and urban services for the poor); and/or enhancing voices and rights (e.g. decision making processes and structures, political empowerment, and grievance mechanisms);
- **Effective Gender Mainstreaming (EGM):** A project is assigned EGM if the project outcome is not gender equality or women's empowerment, but project outputs are designed to directly improve women's access to social services, and/or economic and financial resources and opportunities, and/or basic rural and urban infrastructure, and/or enhancing voices and rights, which contribute to gender equality and women's empowerment.
- **Some Gender Elements (SGE):** A project is assigned SGE if by its nature it is likely to directly improve women's access to social services; and/or economic and financial resources and opportunities, and/or basic rural and urban infrastructure, and/or enhance their voices and rights, but that included little, if any gender analysis and few or no specific design features; or is unlikely to directly improve women's access to social, economic or financial resources or opportunities, but significant efforts were made during project preparation to identify potential positive and negative impacts on women.
- **No Gender Elements (NGE):** the project is assigned NGE if it is not expected to provide direct/tangible benefits to women, although there may be indirect benefits for women.

Targets for ADB operations require that at least 75% of projects must have gender elements in the project concept/design (classified as SGE/GEN or EGM by ADB "at entry") by 2024 and at least 50% are categorised under ADB's gender mainstreaming categories directly addressing gender equality (GEN or EGM).

Projects that are categorized are supported by gender assessments, and where the potential for positive impacts for women are identified, are monitored through the project design and monitoring framework. Projects that are categorized as EGM and GEN require a gender action plan at approval. Project quarterly and annual review reports incorporate progress and achievements under the gender action plan. Monitoring and tracking of progress and support is conducted by resident missions and ADB headquarters, together with the project administration unit. An overall assessment of the design, implementation and performance of individual projects is completed at project end.

ADB due diligence processes prior to project approval require poverty and social analysis identifying gender and inclusion issues. The poverty and social analysis must identify the gender and inclusion issues to be addressed by the project (with indicators and targets included in the project design and monitoring framework and in the gender action plan) and those issues to be addressed by other actors. International and national gender advisors

<sup>12</sup> <https://www.adb.org/documents/guidelines-at-exit-assessment-gender-equality-results>

support projects classified as GEN and EGM and as necessary may also be engaged to support SGE projects.

A project performance management system supports implementation, with annual implementation monitoring reports assessing progress against indicators and targets. Annual monitoring reports during implementation provide opportunities to identify mitigation activities and remedial action where required. Regular ADB review missions support the monitoring process and assist in mitigating risks. Gender advisors participate in these missions.

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