

Annex 8. Gender Assessment

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Improving Climate Resilience by Increasing Water Security
in the Amazon Basin

Countries:

Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Suriname



Contents

1. INTRODUCTION.....	3
2. THE IDB APPROACH TO GENDER EQUALITY AND DIVERSITY	3
3. AMAZON POPULATION AND GENDER AND DIVERSITY ASPECTS	4
4. LEGAL, REGULATORY, AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK	5
5. GENERAL AND SPECIFIC SECTOR GAPS.....	16

1. INTRODUCTION

More than 34 million people, including 420 indigenous peoples, live in the Amazon Region and depend on nature for food security, livelihoods, and shelter. The average percentage of Amazonian women varies between 48.3% and 49.7% of the population and differs according to different ethnic groups that are identified in each country. Two-thirds of the Amazonian population are Brazilian, and more than half live in urban centers.

In the Amazon region, women play an essential role in territorial management and local forms of environmental conservation practices within indigenous, peasant, and Afro-descendant people. This is mainly because women oversee the care of the home and family, which often also includes care of the environment. Moreover, women in the Amazon region often actively participate in different environmental care practices and sustainable use of natural resources like productive activities in agriculture, livestock, forestry, and fishing.

Amid the diversity of the Amazon region, women and men participate in different ways in decision-making regarding the management of natural resources and have different levels of access and control over natural resources and derivative benefits. These differences also generate inequalities in the vulnerability and resilience that women and men have in the face of environmental risks.

This Gender Assessment aims to provide an overview of the gender situation in the countries that are included in the program “Improving Climate Resilience by Increasing Water Security in the Amazon Basin”- identify gender issues that are relevant to the project context, and develop recommendations for advancing gender equality, women’s empowerment and the development with identity of indigenous peoples, the inclusion of people with disabilities, Afro-descendants, and the LGBTQ + population through the financed activities, to inform the development of the project’s gender action plan.

2. THE IDB APPROACH TO GENDER EQUALITY AND DIVERSITY

The IDBG is committed to promoting gender equality and empowerment, which, in addition to their intrinsic value, have been shown to contribute to economic growth, development effectiveness, and breaking the cycle of intergenerational transmission of poverty. According to the IDB Gender Policy, gender equality means that women/girls and men/boys enjoy the same conditions and opportunities to exercise their rights and reach their social, economic, and political potential. The Gender Policy recognizes that pursuing equality requires actions aimed at equity, which implies providing and distributing benefits and/or resources in a way that narrows existing gaps. The understanding of gender equality is evolving in LAC societies, to ensure that rights and opportunities are not affected by diverse gender identities and gender expression.

Also, the IDBG is committed to equal access to opportunities for Diverse Peoples and Population Groups across Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC). The Bank focuses on four diverse groups that face discrimination based on their collective identity: (i) indigenous peoples; (ii) Afro-descendants; (iii) persons with disabilities; and (iv) people who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender/transsexual + other diverse gender identities and sexual orientations (LGBTQ+).

The IDBG supports Gender & Diversity policies in the region through its operations, technical assistance and through the generation of data and evidence.

To operationalize gender and diversity initiatives, the IDBG has created the [Gender and Diversity Action Plan \(GDAP\)](#). This plan serves as the key instrument for translating the IDB Group's commitments to gender equality and diversity into concrete actions.

As detailed in the GDAP 2022-2025, the strong commitment from the IDBG's management has been an overarching factor in advancing the mainstreaming of Gender & Diversity across sectors and operations. This commitment has been reinforced by management through (i) more systematic requests for quality mainstreaming of operations at all levels; (ii) continued inclusion of Gender & Diversity-related goals in the annual employee performance system; and (iii) human and financial resources.

3. AMAZON POPULATION AND GENDER AND DIVERSITY ASPECTS

The Amazon Region has a population of about 34 million people, of which approximately 2,2 million people are indigenous (approximately 4.6% of the Amazonian population) (IACHR, 2019¹; RAISG, 2020²). There is no clarity on how many “*pueblos indígenas*” live in this region: some sources, such as the OTCA (2018³:12), estimate that there are around 420, while the Amazonian Georeferenced Socio-Environmental Information Network (RAISG, 2020) registers a total of 410. Similarly, it is not known exactly how many indigenous peoples in voluntary isolation and initial contact (PIACI) there are in the region: RAISG (2020) documents the existence of 82 PIACI but the OTCA (2018) estimates about 200. In addition, indigenous territories cover approximately 28% of the area of the Amazon.

The other communities that live in the region are distributed as follows: 82% peasants, 14% Afro-descendants, 2% colonos, 1% riverbanks, and 1% fishermen (Panamanian Ecclesial Network - REPAM, 2019⁴). These proportions vary from country to country. For example, in the Ecuadorian Amazon 33.12% of the population is recognized as indigenous, 59.33% as mestizo, 3.48% as white, 1.38% as Afro-Ecuadorian, and the rest in other categories such as black, mulate, and montubio (INEC, 2010⁵). For its part, in the Colombian Amazon, more than 70% of the population is not identified with any ethnic group and belongs to peasant communities; meanwhile, the indigenous population slightly exceeds 23% and people who identify as black or mulatto are over 2% (DANE, 2018⁶).

The division of the Amazonian population by sex has not been accurately identified. However, based on the information recorded by the latest national censuses, it can be estimated that for five countries in the Amazon region - Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru - the average percentage of Amazonian women is between 48.3% and 49.7% of the population. This population varies according to the different ethnic groups that are identified in each country. In Colombia, 307,280 Amazonian women do not self-identify with an ethnic group, 82,900 self-identify as indigenous and 9,427 as Black, Mulato, Afro-descendant or Afro-Colombian (DANE, 2018). Most women in the Ecuadorian Amazon identify as mestizas (210,462) and indigenous (121,463) (INEC, 2010). Finally, in Peru 735,597 Amazonian women identify as mestizas, 66,095 as native or indigenous to the Amazon and 38,109 as Quechuas (INEI, 2017⁷).

¹ IACHR Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (2019). Annual Report. [Link](#)

² RAISG (2020). *Amazonía bajo presión 2020*. RAISG: Sao Paulo, Belém, Lima, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Bogotá, Quito y Caracas. Red Eclesial Panamazónica -Repam. 2019. Atlas Panamazónico: aproximación a la realidad eclesial y socioambiental. [Link](#)

³ OTCA (2018). *Informe regional sobre la situación de los bosques en la región amazónica*. Brasília, Brasil: OTCA. [Link](#)

⁴ [Link](#) to Website REPAM

⁵ INEC 2010. [Link](#) to Database

⁶ DANE (2018). Censo Nacional de Población y Vivienda, Colombia 2018. Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística. [Link](#)

⁷ INEI Censos Nacionales 2017. [Link](#)

Most of the population is Brazilian, accounting for more than 70% of the total population. Such population is followed by that of Peru and Colombia with an estimated 13% and 4% of the total Amazonian population, respectively (UCLG, 2018⁸). However, the most populous cities are Manaus and Belém in Brazil, with about 2 million inhabitants each. In addition, there are other intermediate cities, such as Iquitos in Peru, with a population of more than 400,000 inhabitants (INEI, 2017). Among the small municipalities of the region are other important cities such as Leticia (Colombia), Tabatinga (Brazil) and Puerto Maldonado (Peru), where the population ranges from 50,000 to 80,000 people (INEI, 2017; National University of Colombia, s.f).

In general, there are several characteristics of gender relations in the Amazon, however, each of these varies greatly depending on the social and environmental context from specific Amazonian social groups: (i) there is a strong community identity and political commitment among ethnic, occupational and other social groups, (ii) patriarchal cultural values among some indigenous groups assume that men represent the family and the community in public arenas, leaving women without independent autonomous property rights and representation in decision making related to forest management, (iii) the division of labor by gender is often linked to different physical spaces and areas of activity, for example, women may engage in reproductive and productive activities in the homestead/community gardens, swidden gardens, including livestock, agroforestry and non-timber forest products while men dominate in hunting, agricultural clearing and logging activities for the commercial market. In non-indigenous communities, women's arenas are often more limited, and men typically dominate agriculture, (iv) women's productive work is often invisible to markets and outsiders due to its association with the home, family, and subsistence and because of limited market access, (v) physical isolation of many forest communities makes women's collective action more difficult, and limits access to social services and other benefits of citizenship rights, (vi) programs to support community forest management have influenced community and family gender dynamics, often creating or exacerbating gender inequalities by focusing resources on a small group of male timber managers and neglecting non-timber forest products and broader forest management tasks, (vii) over the past three decades, Amazonian women have found diverse ways to organize in support of their community struggles for land and other resources, to demand services from government and non-governments' organizations projects, and to gradually build their skills and leadership within broader community and public arenas. Inequalities increase according to area of urban/rural residence and ethnic condition, with indigenous peoples being the ones furthest behind.

Across the Amazon, indigenous women are leading solutions to protect biodiversity and global climate amidst ongoing and increasing threats to their rights and territories. They are leading communities and movements to resist land grabs, fossil fuel and mineral extraction, agribusiness expansion, and gender-based violence. Women's leadership is on the rise in the Amazon as indigenous women are speaking up, transforming their communities, and sharing their experience to build a healthier territory. During the COVID-19 crisis for example, the leadership of Amazon indigenous women became more evident as they took on crucial role in care-giving tasks using their traditional medicine. Women in the Amazon region also promote the conservation of local species, preserve the culture built around these species, and the tourism it attracts and on which their community often depends for their livelihood.

4. LEGAL, REGULATORY, AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK

The seven countries considered under this study have ratified or acceded to the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)⁹ and its optional protocol. They also have ratified the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment, and Eradication of

⁸ UCLG (2018). Ciudades Amazónicas: aprendizaje entre pares sobre el uso sostenible de los ecosistemas terrestres. Riberalta, Bolivia: Learning UCLG. [Link](#)

⁹ CEDAW is an international treaty adopted in 1979 by the United Nations General Assembly. Described as an international bill of rights for women, it was instituted on 3 September 1981 and has been ratified by 189 states.

Violence against Women (Convention of Belem Do Para)¹⁰. Their constitutions address equality before the law and no one can be discriminated against based on sex. Most countries have performed a normative reform effort to establish an adequate framework for development. However, normative advances still face a deeply patriarchal and androcentric culture that is reflected in many social and institutional practices.

A. BOLIVIA

The constitution of Bolivia regulates gender equality and non-discrimination in its articles 8, 11, 14, 15, and 402, as well as in Supreme Decree No. 4,401 (Art.1). However, there are still discriminatory norms in the General Labor Law regarding the percentage of women that companies can employ (not exceeding 45%) (Art. 3), and the working hours for women (maximum of 40 hours per week, compared to 48 hours for men) (Art. 46).

The Constitution establishes shared responsibility in household tasks for both spouses or partners (Art. 64), specifies that all its members have equal rights, obligations, and opportunities (Art. 62), and recognizes the economic value of household work as a source of wealth, which must be quantified in public accounts (Art. 338). Remunerated domestic work is regulated by Law No. 2,450, Supreme Decree No. 224, and Supreme Decree No. 4,589.

In Bolivia, the Plurinational Service for Women and Depatriarchalization (SEPMUD) is a decentralized institution under the guardianship of the Ministry of Justice and Institutional Transparency, created in January 2019. Its purpose is to monitor, follow up, and evaluate the implementation of public policies towards depatriarchalizing, in favor of the effective exercise of women's rights; and promote the eradication of all forms of violence and discrimination against women. **Table 4.1.** shows the Laws with an impact on the rights of women in Bolivia.

Table 4.1. Laws with an impact on the rights of women in Bolivia

Law (year)	Description
Law 1674 against family or domestic violence (1995)	Defines and sanctions domestic violence as a crime of public order. Mainly oriented towards prevention.
Law 1678, which modifies the Penal Code to include sexual violence as a crime (1997)	Removes the term "honest woman" from the definition of crimes against sexual freedom, which subjected the judges' assessment of the victim's honesty and thus conditioned the classification and sanctioning of crimes of rape and statutory rape. It substitutes the statement of title xi of book ii of the penal code, crimes against good customs, rape, statutory rape, and indecent assault, for crimes against sexual freedom.
Supreme Decree 25087. Regulatory of the Law against family or domestic violence (1998)	Modifies the Law against family or domestic violence of 1995 and complements the actions of the State based on the definition and creation of institutions responsible for preventing and monitoring family and domestic violence and protecting victims.
Law 2033 for the protection of victims of crimes against sexual freedom (1999)	Defines and extends the penalty for crimes of rape, statutory rape, corruption of minors, and procuring. In addition to vaginal access, it

¹⁰ The Convention of Belém do Pará defines violence against women, establishes that women have the right to live a life free of violence and that violence against women constitutes a violation of human rights and fundamental freedoms. It calls for the first time for the establishment of mechanisms for protecting and defending women's rights as essential to combating the phenomenon of violence against women's physical, sexual, and psychological integrity, whether in the public or the private sphere and for asserting those rights within society.

	considers anal and oral access as rape and provides multidisciplinary care for the victim.
Law No. 3325. Trafficking in persons and related crimes (2006)	Modifies the Penal Code of 1997, adding Chapter V on "Trafficking in Persons."
Article 15 of the Political Constitution of the State (2008)	Enshrines the rights of all persons to life and to physical, psychological, and sexual integrity.
Law 18 of the Plurinational Electoral Body (2010)	Principle of Equivalence. The Plurinational Electoral Body assumes and promotes gender equity and equality of opportunities between women and men for the exercise of their individual and collective rights (Art.4).
Law 26, Electoral Regime Law (2010)	Principle of Equivalence: "Bolivian democracy is based on gender equity and equality of opportunities between women and men for the exercise of their individual and collective rights, applying parity and alternation in the lists of candidates for all government and representation positions, in the internal election of leadership and candidacies of political organizations, and in the norms and procedures specific to indigenous origin peasant nations and peoples" (Art. 2, h). Article 11, referring to intercultural democracy, considers the principle of equivalence and alternation and states in its subsection c) "The lists of candidates from indigenous origin peasant nations and peoples, drawn up in accordance with their own norms and procedures, will respect the principles mentioned in the preceding paragraph."
Law No. 243 Law against harassment and political violence against women (2012)	Eliminates acts, behaviors, and individual or collective manifestations of harassment and violence that directly or indirectly affect women in the exercise of their political and public functions.
Law No. 263, Comprehensive Law against Trafficking in Persons (2012)	Guarantees the fundamental rights of victims through the consolidation of measures and mechanisms for prevention, protection, care, prosecution, and criminal punishment of these crimes.
Supreme Decree No. 1486. (2013)	Regulates the mechanisms and procedures for the implementation of Law No. 263 for the fight against Trafficking in Persons and related crimes.
Law 348 Comprehensive to ensure women a life free of violence (2013)	Aims to establish comprehensive mechanisms, measures, and policies for prevention, care, protection, and reparation for women in situations of violence, as well as the prosecution and punishment of aggressors, to guarantee women a dignified life and the full exercise of their rights for Living Well. It incorporates, among others, femicide in the Penal Code, Art. 7 paragraph No. 2.
Supreme Decree No. 2145, Regulation of Law No. 348 (2014)	Aims to regulate Comprehensive Law No. 348 to Ensure Women a Life Free of Violence, establishing mechanisms for prevention, care, protection, reparation, and resources for its implementation.
Supreme Decree No. 2610, which modifies and complements Supreme Decree No. 2145 (2015)	Aims to modify and complement Supreme Decree No. 2145 to Ensure Women a Life Free of Violence, regarding the report that must be made to SIPPASE and the homologation of the medical certificate.
Supreme Decree No. 2935, Regulation to Law No. 243,	Aims to regulate Law No. 243, of May 28, 2012, Against Harassment and Political Violence against Women, establishing strategies, mechanisms, and procedures for its implementation.

against Harassment and Political Violence against Women (2016)	
Law No. 807. Gender Identity Law (2016)	Establishes the procedure for changing the given name, sex data, and image of transgender and gender non-conforming individuals in all public and private documentation linked to their identity, to fully exercise the right to gender identity.
Law No. 1153 Modifies the Comprehensive Law to Ensure Women a Life Free of Violence (2019)	For access to a public position in any State Body or level of administration, whether by election, appointment, designation, or hiring, in addition to those provided by law, it will be considered an inexcusable requirement not to have a history of violence against a woman or any member of her family.
Law No. 1173, on procedural streamlining and strengthening of the comprehensive fight against violence against girls, boys, adolescents, and women (2019)	Aims to ensure the prompt and timely resolution of criminal conflicts, adopting indispensable measures to deepen oral proceedings, strengthen the fight against violence against girls, boys, adolescents, and women, avoid procedural delays and abuse of pretrial detention, and enable effective judicial protection of victims, by amending Law No. 1970 of March 25, 1999, "Criminal Procedure Code", and related provisions.
Law No. 1226 Modifies Law 1173 on Procedural Streamlining and Strengthening of the Comprehensive Fight Against Violence Against Girls, Boys, Adolescents, and Women (2019)	Establishes that in cases of domestic or family violence, pretrial detention may be considered (Art. 11, which amends Art. 232 of Law 1173).
Supreme Decree 3834 Creates the "Adela Zamudio" Immediate Registration and Alert System of the Special Force for the Fight Against Violence - FELCV (2019)	In addition to creating FELCV, it promotes its specialization. It must contain information on reports of crimes of violence against women and the family, as provided for in Law No. 348, of March 9, 2013, Comprehensive to Ensure Women a Life Free of Violence.
Decree 4012. Modifies Article 13 of Supreme Decree 2145, Regulation of the Comprehensive Law to Ensure Women a Life Free of Violence (2019)	Modification regarding the use of resources for the maintenance of services for women in situations of violence and their dependents.

B. BRAZIL

The **1988 Constitution** symbolizes the legal framework for the re-democratization of Brazil. For the formulation of the 1988 Constitution, popular participation was ensured. Regarding women's participation, the Charter of Brazilian Women to the Constituents stands out, which compiled the main demands of women's movements.

The 1988 Constitution stands out, also innovating by inaugurating its Text bringing fundamental rights, and already in its Article 5, expressly establishes equality between men and women in general. Another point of significant change is the family. The old Civil Code of 1916 contained several provisions that placed women in an inferior role within the family entity. Thus, the following constitutional provisions stand out that the rights and duties relating to the conjugal society are exercised equally by men and women and that the State will ensure assistance to the family in the person of each of its members, creating mechanisms to curb violence in the context of their relationships. The 1998 text expressly introduced the prohibition of discrimination in the labor market on the grounds of gender or marital status.

The Ministry of **Women, Family and Human Rights**, former Ministry of Human Rights(2016–2018), and Secretariat for Human Rights of the Presidency of the Republic (1997–2015) is an office attached to the Presidency of Brazil. Its purpose is to implement, promote, and protect human rights, civic rights, and the rights of children, adolescents, women, families, the elderly, and the disabled.

National Secretariat of Policies for Women (SNPM) is linked to the Ministry of Women, Family and Human Rights and its main objective is to promote equality between men and women and combat all forms of prejudice and discrimination inherited from a patriarchal and exclusionary society. Since its creation in 2003, SNPM has been fighting for the construction of a more just and democratic Brazil, through the valorization of women and their inclusion in the country's social, economic, political, and cultural development process. The Decree No.9.417, of June 20, 2018, transferred the National Secretariat of Policies for Women to the organizational structure of the Ministry of Women, Family, and Human Rights.

In 2004, the **National Plan of Policies for Women** was created to combat gender discrimination and to consolidate educational policies for an equal gender perspective. Those plans are renewed periodically. Contributes to the strengthening and institutionalization of the Policy National Convention for Women approved from 2004, and endorsed in 2007 and 2011, respective conferences. As a national plan, it reaffirms the guiding principles of the National Policy for Women: (i) women's autonomy in all dimensionsof life; (ii) search for effective equality between women and men, in all spheres; (iii) respect for diversity and combating all forms of discrimination; (iv) secular character of the State; and universality of services and benefits offered by the State; (v) active participation of women in all the public policy phases; and (vi) transversality as a guiding principle of all public policies.

Programs such as “*Minha casa, minha vida*” (My house, my life), created in 2009 to help people with low-income to buy their own house, almost 80% of the beneficiaries are women;and the “*Bolsa Familia*” (Family Packet), created in 2003, through which payments are transferred by the government to poor families, in the name of the woman of the family, are consolidating the role of women in social life. **Table 4.2** shows the Laws with an impact on the right of women in Brazil.

Table 4.2. Laws with an impact on the rights of women in Brazil

Law (year)	Description
Law No. 9.029 Abortion and reproductivehealth rights, employmentdiscrimination, gender discrimination (1995)	Article 1 prohibits any discriminatory and limiting practice for the effect of access to employment, ortheir maintenance, because of sex, origin, race, color, marital status, family situation or age.
Federal Law No. 11.340 The Maria da Penha Law (2006).	The law regulates violence against women in every aspect of domestic life and is regarded as a milestone in terms of national legislation on gender. The law criminalized different forms of domestic violence against women, established stricter punishment for offenders, facilitated preventive arrests, and created other special protective and relief mechanisms for women, including special courts, designated police stations, and shelters for women.
Law No. 11.441. Divorce and dissolution ofmarriage (2007)	Allowed both consensual divorce and consensual separation to be dealt with in the civil registry so that divorce, separation, and inventory and division of assets would become extra-judicial affairs when the parties agreed on its terms

Law No. 12.705 Employment discrimination, gender discrimination (2012)	This law allowed women to serve in the Brazilian army.
Law No. 13.104 Lei do Feminicídio Female infanticide and feticide, femicide (2015)	On March 9, 2015, Brazil's existing criminal code was amended to criminalize femicide, with sentencing ranging from twelve to thirty years of imprisonment.
Domestic Case Law. Law No.13.811 (2019) Forced and early marriage, gender discrimination	This law amends Article 1,520 of the Civil Code in order to establish that only persons who have reached the age of marriage determined in Article 1,517 of the Civil Code may marry. This is no longer permitted as a reason to marry younger than the age of 16.

C. COLOMBIA

The **1991 Constitution** establishes (i) the principle of non-discrimination for reasons of sex, race, national or family origin, religion, language, political or religious option (article 13), (ii) equal rights and duties of the couple in family relationships, (iii) the sanction of any form of violence in the family that is considered destructive of their harmony and their (article 42); (iv) the adequate and effective participation of women in the decision-making levels of the Public Administration (article 40) and (v) equal rights and opportunities for men and women and establishes that women may not be subjected to no kind of discrimination and that she will receive special assistance during pregnancy and after childbirth and will receive food allowance (art. 43).

The **Presidential Council for the Equity of Women**, dependent on the Vice Presidency of the Republic, has assigned the following functions among others: (i) designing policies, plans, programs, projects, and necessary provisions designed to promote equality gender and empowerment for women, (ii) design and implement follow-up mechanisms for complying with internal legislation and treaties, international agreements and accords that relate to gender equality for women and (iii) establishing strategic alliances with other sectors of government, as well as with the private sector, women's organizations, international organizations, organizations from civil society (ONG, universities and research centers), for the implementation of a public gender policy.

In the last three decades, national governments have developed different policies for women: in 1992, the **Comprehensive Policy for Women** was formulated; later, in 1994, the **Participation and Equity and Women's Policy**; in 1999, the **Plan for Equal Opportunities for Women**; in 2003, the **Women Peace Builders Policy** and in 2013 the **Gender Equality Policy for Women**. The formulation of these policies, since then, has been led by the entities responsible for the issue of gender equity. **Table 4.3** shows the laws with impact on the rights of women in Colombia.

Table 4.3 Laws with an impact on the rights of women in Colombia

Laws (year)	Description
Law 25 of 1992	Which regulates the cessation of civil effects of religious marriages by divorce
Law 48 of 1993	Determines the voluntary military service of women and is exceptionally compulsory when the circumstances determine it.

Law 100 of 1993	By means of which the general social security system is created, which regulates the principle of universality of health and social security without any discrimination. It draws attention to the pregnant woman, prenatal control, delivery care, postpartum control, and breastfeeding.
Law 43 of 1993	Which regulates the acquisition, resignation, loss, and recovery of Colombian nationality without distinction of gender
Law 82 of 1993	Where the female head of the family is supported to provide better conditions of access to credit, education, employment, housing, and microenterprise, among others.
Law 115 of 1994	Through which the general education law is issued
Law 119 of 1994	Where the restructuring of SENA is carried out; non-formal education for work has a social impact on women
Law 181 of 1995	Through which the principle of democratization without discrimination of sports, recreation, and use of free time is established.
Law 182 of 1995	Which talks about television, and establishes the protection of gender equality
Law 201 of 1995	By means of which the delegated attorney's office for the minor and the family is created
Law 248 of 1995	By means of which the Inter-American Convention to prevent, punish and eradicate violence against women is ratified.
Law 258 of 1996	By means of which the affectation to family housing is established and other provisions are issued
Law 294 of 1996	Through which domestic violence is sanctioned
Law 360 of 1997	Through which the crimes against sexual freedom and human dignity are stipulated
Law 387 of 1997	Through which prevention and comprehensive care for the displaced population is established.
Law 581 of 2000	Which regulates the adequate and effective participation of women in the decision-making levels of the branches of public power.
Law 731 of 2002	By which regulations are issued to favor rural women.
Law 823 of 2003	By which rules on equal opportunities for women are issued"
Law 1009 of 2006	By which the observatory with gender issues is created on a permanent basis
Law 1257 of 2008	Guarantee the Right of women to live a free life without Violence.
Law 1413 of 2010	For the Inclusion of the Care Economy in the System of National Accounts.
Law 1761 of 2015	By which the criminal offense of femicide is created as an autonomous crime and other provisions are dictated (Rosa Elvira Cely Law)

Law 1719 of 2014	By which some articles of Laws 599 of 2000 and 906 of 2004 are modified and measures are adopted to guarantee access to justice for victims of sexual violence, especially sexual violence. On the occasion of the armed conflict, and other provisions are issued
Law 2137 of 2021	It aims to create the National Early Warning System for the Prevention of Sexual Violence against Children and Adolescents, modify Law 1146 of 2007, and establish measures that articulate the identification, attention, prevention, and reduction of the main risk factors of sexual violence against minors in Colombia.

D. ECUADOR

The **2008 Constitution** acquires a series of commitments to achieve gender equality, including: promotion of parity in the appointment of public positions, elimination of violence in the private and public sphere against women, formulation and execution of policies to achieve equality of men and women, guarantee of women's access to property and in decision-making in the administration of a conjugal society, guarantee of equality in access to employment, recognition as productive work of labor unpaid self- support and human care that takes place in homes, assurance of actions and services of sexual and reproductive health and protection under the law of pregnant women.

As of the approval of the 2008 Constitution, the different public policies generated by the State are oriented towards the effective enjoyment of rights to achieve equality between women and men; the gender approach is incorporated in plans and programs; and technical assistance is provided for its mandatory application in the public sector.

The **National Council for Gender Equality** was created in 1970 as the Department of Women. Later, in 1984, it became the National Office for Women. In 1986, it took the category of National Directorate for Women, of a technical operational nature, to promote full equality of women in political, legal, psychological, economic, educational, ethical, cultural life and to improve their living conditions and participation within the Ministry of Social Welfare.

It becomes the National Council of Women CONAMU, with administrative, financial, and technical autonomy, attached to the Presidency of the Republic, whose objective was to ensure the incorporation of the gender approach in plans, programs, and projects, and provide advice and assistance technique for its mandatory application in all public sector organizations, through the formulation and implementation of Equal Opportunity Plans. Its objective is to ensure the full validity and exercise of the rights and rights of women and the LGBTI population.

The **National Agenda for Women and LGBTI people 2018-2021** is a mandatory instrument of national planning and is aligned with the National Development Plan 2017-2021, it becomes the macro strategy to mainstream the principle of equality and non-discrimination due to Gender, both for public management and for the empowerment of rights holders, a fundamental element of the entire legal system and the democratic political system. **Table 4.4** shows the legal instruments with impact on the rights of women in Ecuador.

Table 4.4. Legal or normative instruments with an impact on the rights of women in Ecuador

Laws	Description
Organic Code of the Judicial Function	Determines the competence and jurisdiction of judges of violence against women and the family

Code of Democracy or Organic Law on Elections and Political Organizations	Regulates the application of parity between men and women in the lists for multi-person elections; It establishes as impediments to being candidates the having exercised gender violence and not complying with the child support payments.
Organic Law of the Legislative Function	It transversally incorporates the focus on women's rights and gender equality, through the creation of the Legislative Technical Unit, whose objective is to accompany the process of creating the norm and provide the Specialized Commissions and the Plenary with, of a non-binding report on topics such as the use of non-discriminatory language in the standard and the gender impact of the suggested standards
Organic Law of the Council of Citizen Participation and Social Control	Guarantees citizens, individually or collectively, equal rights, conditions and opportunities to participate, influence and decide in the public life of the State and society
Organic Code of Territorial Organization, Autonomy and Decentralization	The Cantonal Councils for the Protection of Rights will have as attributions the formulation, mainstreaming, observance, monitoring and evaluation of municipal public policies for the protection of rights, articulated with the public policies of the National Councils for the Equality.
Organic Code of Planning and Public Finance	It establishes that coordination spaces will be established in the exercise of planning and public policy, in order to incorporate gender, ethnic-cultural, generational, disability and mobility approaches.
The Comprehensive Organic Criminal Code	Typifies three types of crimes of violence against women or members of the family nucleus: physical violence, psychological violence and sexual violence
Children and Adolescents Code	Establishes protection mechanisms against mistreatment, abuse, sexual exploitation, trafficking and loss of children and adolescents. It stipulates visitation rights, parental authority and food.
Work Code	It specifies the rights of working women and men, maternity and paternity leave, the prohibition of untimely dismissal for maternity, the obligation to enroll in insurance for medical and social benefits.
Law on Violence against Women and the Family (Law 103)	It makes an explicit approach to violence against women and the family. It includes protection measures for victims and the prosecution of the perpetrators of this type of violence. Article 1 protects the physical and mental integrity and sexual freedom of the woman and the members of her family.
Free Maternity and Child Care Law	Guarantees the right of women to free quality and warm health care, during pregnancy, childbirth and postpartum, access to sexual and reproductive health programs.
Organic Law of Public Service of 2010	Guarantees the equal presence of men and women in the nomination and appointment positions, in the selection processes and incorporation into the public service.

Organic Law of Bilingual Intercultural Education	Establishes equality between men and women, includes people with diverse sexual orientation and gender identity, in order to achieve a change in discriminatory cultural conceptions of any kind, in the educational system.
Organic Law of Higher Education	Establishes the principle of co-government that is understood as the shared management of universities and polytechnic schools in accordance with the principles of quality, equal opportunities, alternation, equity and gender equality.
Organic Law of Communication	Prohibits discriminatory content for reasons of ethnicity, place of birth, gender identity, cultural identity, health status, sexual orientation, judicial past and immigration status.
Organic Law of Popular and Solidarity Economy	It establishes as popular economic units those that are dedicated to the care economy, among other activities. It defines the people responsible for the care economy, such as those who exclusively carry out activities for the reproduction and sustainability of people's lives, in relation to the preparation of food, human care and others.

E. PERU

The **1993 Political Constitution** of Peru establishes that no one should be discriminated based on origin, race, sex, language, religion, opinion, economic condition, or any other nature.

The mission of the **Ministry of Women and Vulnerable Populations** is to become an integrated, modern, and articulating body, contributing to overcoming poverty, inequality and exclusion, with a focus on comprehensive human development and equity and generating equal opportunities for men and women.

The **General Directorate for Gender Equality and Non-Discrimination** oversees compliance with national and sectoral policies for Gender Equality and Non-Discrimination at the national level within the scope of its competence (Supreme Decree No. 003 - 2012-MIMP).

The **Gender and Climate Change Action Plan** is a management instrument that seeks to guide the action of different entities of the Peruvian State within the framework of their competencies related to mitigation and adaptation to climate change. The instrument aims to contribute to equality between men and women in the following prioritized areas: Forests, Water Resources, Energy, Food Security, Solid Waste, Health, Education and Disaster Risk Management.

Table 4.6 National regulatory framework that impacts on women in Peru

Laws (year)	Description
Law No. 28983 (2007)	Law of Equal Opportunities between Women and Men. This norm establishes that the State has the duty to adopt all the necessary measures to promote and guarantee equality between women and men to eradicate all forms of discrimination (art. 4).
Supreme Decree No. 027-2007-PCM (2007)	Defines and establishes mandatory national policies. (Equality of men and women). Annually approves indicators for each National Policy.

Supreme Decree No. 004-2012-MIMP (2012)	Constitutes the Permanent Multisectoral Commission, an instance that must monitor and contribute to the effective fulfillment of its strategic objectives and expected results, as well as its sustainability over time.
Supreme Decree No. 005-2015-MIMP (2015)	Formalizes the use of the National System of Gender Indicators. It considers this system as an instrument for the follow-up monitoring and evaluation of policies on gender equality.
Supreme Decree No. 008-2019-MIMP (2019)	Approves the National Gender Equality Policy. Six priority objectives are established in it: (i) reduce violence against women; (ii) guarantee the exercise of their rights to sexual and reproductive health; (iii) guarantee the access and participation of women in decision-making spaces; (iv) guarantee the exercise of the economic and social rights of women; (v) reduce institutional barriers that hinderequality in the public and private spheres between men and women; and (vi) reduce the incidence of discriminatory socio-cultural patterns in the population.

F. SURINAME

Suriname's Constitution of 1987 with Amendments through 1992 states that (i) no one shall be discriminated against on the grounds of birth, sex, race, language, religion, origin, education, political beliefs, economic position or any other status, (ii) supplying special protection on the job for women before and after pregnancy, for minors, disabled persons and for those who are engaged in work which demands special efforts or who work in unhealthy or dangerous conditions, (iii) working women shall be entitled to paid maternity leave, and (iv) all employees have, independently of age, sex, race, nationality, religion or political opinions, the right to a remuneration for their work corresponding to quantity, type, quality and experience on the basis of equal pay for equal work.

The **Bureau for Gender Policy** was established in 1997 and became officially operational in 1998. In 2015 the name of the bureau was changed to the Bureau of Gender Affairs (BGA). The goal of the BGA is to be the central part of the national machinery for gender policy, with the objective to develop, coordinate, monitor, evaluate and disseminate a national gender policy that will create a balanced development with equal opportunities for men and women.

Since it was set up, the Bureau has developed two **Integrated Gender Plans of Action** (IGAP 2000-2005 and IGAP 2006-2010) and installed Gender Focal Points in various ministries as part of the government's Gender Management System.

Suriname's Multi-Annual Development Plan 2001-2005 was led by a rights-based approach to development and identified gender as a cross-cutting issue across all programs, projects, and activities¹¹ The development of gender policies for rural areas was emphasized in that plan In the Suriname's **Development Plans** 2012-2016 and 2017-2021 Gender is addressed in a separate chapter and is also being considered across cutting issue.

The Ministry of Home Affairs, and particularly the BGA, is responsible for the implementation and monitoring of CEDAW. Suriname has worked or **adjusted the following national legislation** since the ratification of the CEDAW¹²:

- Revision of the Criminal Code regarding the trade in women and minors in 2006.

¹¹ Ministry of Home Affairs. 2018. National Report Situation Analysis of Women and Men in Suriname

¹² Idem

- Revision of the Criminal Code regarding sexual crimes in 2009.
- Bill against Stalking in 2012: according to this law preventive measures can be taken by the public prosecutor to protect a possible victim.
- Adoption of the law on National Basic Health Insurance (2014).c
- Adoption of the law on Minimum Hourly Wage (2014).
- Adoption of the law on General Pension (2014).
- ILO Convention concerning Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers of Equal Value (Equal Remuneration Convention), 1951 no. 100, Geneva, 01 June 1951 (2016): equal pay for men and women.
- Law approving the accession of the Republic of Suriname to the ILO Convention concerning Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers of Equal Value (Equal Remuneration Convention), 1951 no. 100, Geneva, 01 June 1951 (2016): equal wages for men and women.
- Law approving accession of the Republic of Suriname to the Convention concerning Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation, (Discrimination Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 no. 111, Geneva, 25 June 1958 (2016): policy for equal opportunities to prevent discrimination concerning labor.
- Law on Labor Mediation (2016).
- At present, a Law on Sexual Harassment and a bill on paid maternity leave are on draft.

5. GENERAL AND SPECIFIC SECTOR GAPS

To establish comparable indicators among the countries under scrutiny in this report, an analysis of the gender situation in the study area is presented below. This analysis is based on data extracted from the Global Gender Gap Report (2023)¹³, which focuses on four dimensions: economic participation, educational achievements, political empowerment, and health (**Table 5.1**).

Table 5.1 shows that none of the countries has reached parity (Index = 1), largely attributable to indicators related to economic participation and political empowerment. However, indicators related to educational achievements indicate that parity has been achieved in this area, as well as in participation in technical and professional areas. Likewise, parity is observed in indicators related to health and survival.

Education and Employment

Based on data extracted from the Global Gender Gap Report (2023), the detailed study of the **education attainment** data (**Fig. 5.1**) highlights that in all the countries under study female and male participation at the primary and secondary levels are mostly the same. At the tertiary level, women's participation is higher than men's.

¹³ WEF (2023). *Global Gender Gap Report 2023*. Ginebra, Suiza: Autor. The Global Gender Gap Index has been introduced by the World Economic Forum, since 2006, to define a framework to capture the magnitude of gender disparities and track their evolution over time. It is based on the measurement of four dimensions: (i) Opportunity and Economic Participation; (ii) Educational Achievement; (iii) Health and Survival; and (iv) Political Empowerment, providing indices for countries that allow effective comparisons between regions and income groups and where 1 means parity and 0 represents 100% inequality.

Table 5.1. Global Gender Gap Index for the countries under study

	Bolivia	Brazil	Colombia	Ecuador	Guyana	Perú	Suriname
Global Gender Gap Index	0.730	0.726	0.751	0.737	0.752	0.764	0.736
Rank (out of 146 countries)	56th	57th	42th	50th	35th	34th	52th
Indicators	Score*	Score*	Score*	Score*	Score*	Score*	Score*
Economic Participation and Opportunity	0.658	0.670	0.657	0.705	0.722	0.683	0.740
Labour -fource participation rate (%)	0.840	0.719	0.667	0.688	0.629	0.819	0.673
Estimated earned income (\$ 1,000)	0.628	0.628	0.683	0.767	0.549	0.741	0.642
Legislators, senior officials and managers	0.542	0.634	0.546	0.607	0.879	0.547	0.762
Professional and technical workers (%)	0.853	1.000	0.896	1.000	1.000	0.763	1.000
Education Attainment	0.984	0.992	1.000	0.998	0.995	0.960	0.993
Literacy rate (%)	0.929	1.000	1.000	0.991	0.985	0.949	0.968
Enrolment in primary education (%)	1.000	0.983	1.000	1.000	-	-	1.000
Enrolment in secondary education (%)	0.996	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.949	1.000
Enrolment in tertiary education (%)	-	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	-
Political Empowerment	0.317	0.263	0.373	0.278	0.310	0.450	0.232
Women in parliament (%)	0.859	0.215	0.406	0.631	0.555	0.634	0.416
Women in ministerial positions (%)	0.143	0.579	1.000	0.333	0.467	0.900	0.417
Years with female/male head of state (last 50)	0.034	0.120	0.000	0.000	0.051	0.071	0.000
Health and Suvival	0.962	0.980	0.975	0.968	0.980	0.964	0.979
Sex ratio at birth (%) **	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944	0.944
Healthy life expectancy (years)***	1.002	1.060	1.045	1.023	1.060	1.008	1.057

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Healthy life expectancy (years)***	1.002	1.060	1.045	1.023	1.008	1.057

Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023

* Imparity = 0; Parity = 1

** The gender parity benchmark is set at 0.944 (see Klasen and Wink, 2003¹⁴)

*** The gender parity benchmark is set at 1.06, given women's longer life expectancy

¹⁴ Klasen, Stephan & Wink, Claudia (2003). "Missing Women": revisiting the debate. *Feminist Economics*, 9(2–3), 263–299. doi.org/10.1080/1354570022000077999

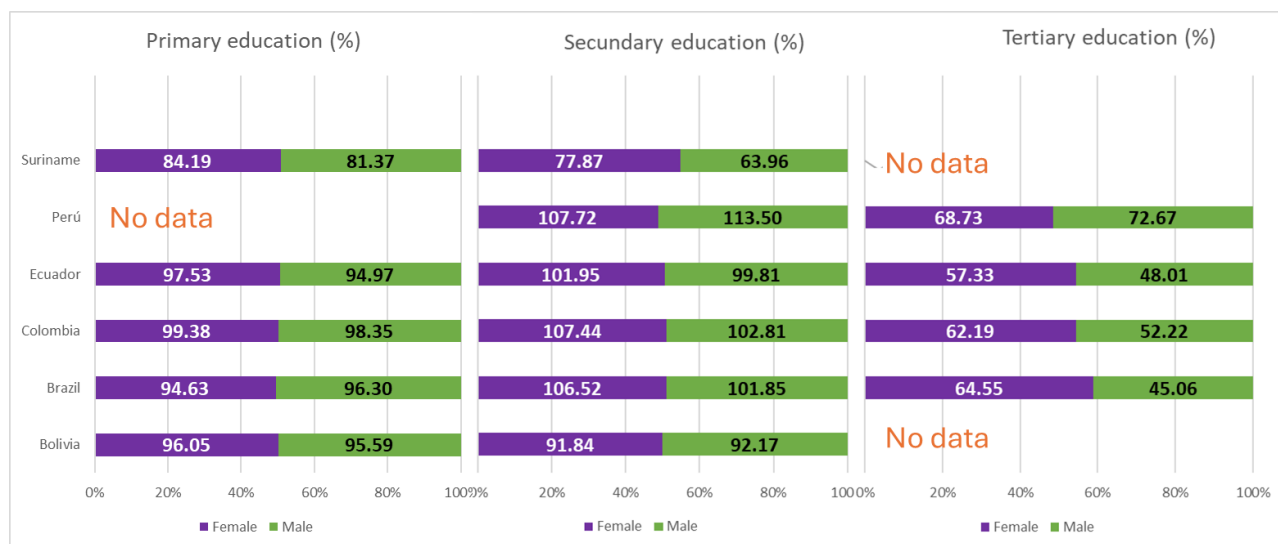


Fig. 5.1. Education Attainment. Enrolment in primary, secondary, and tertiary education (%)
Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023

This result correlates with **Fig. 5.2**, which shows the proportion of women and men who work as *professionals and technicians* in each country. On average, the participation of women in these areas is 51% which follows the educational achievements shown in the previous figure.

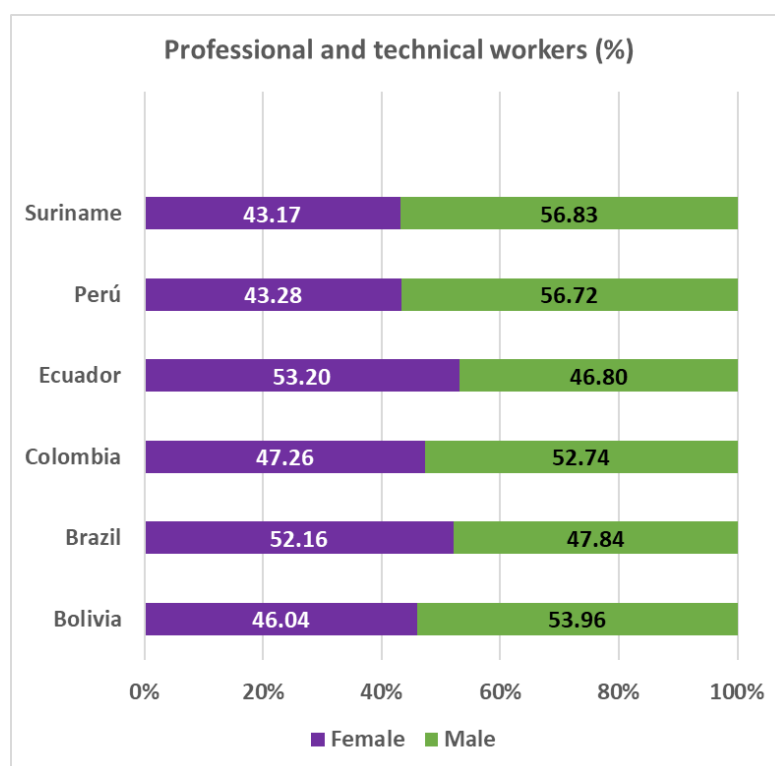
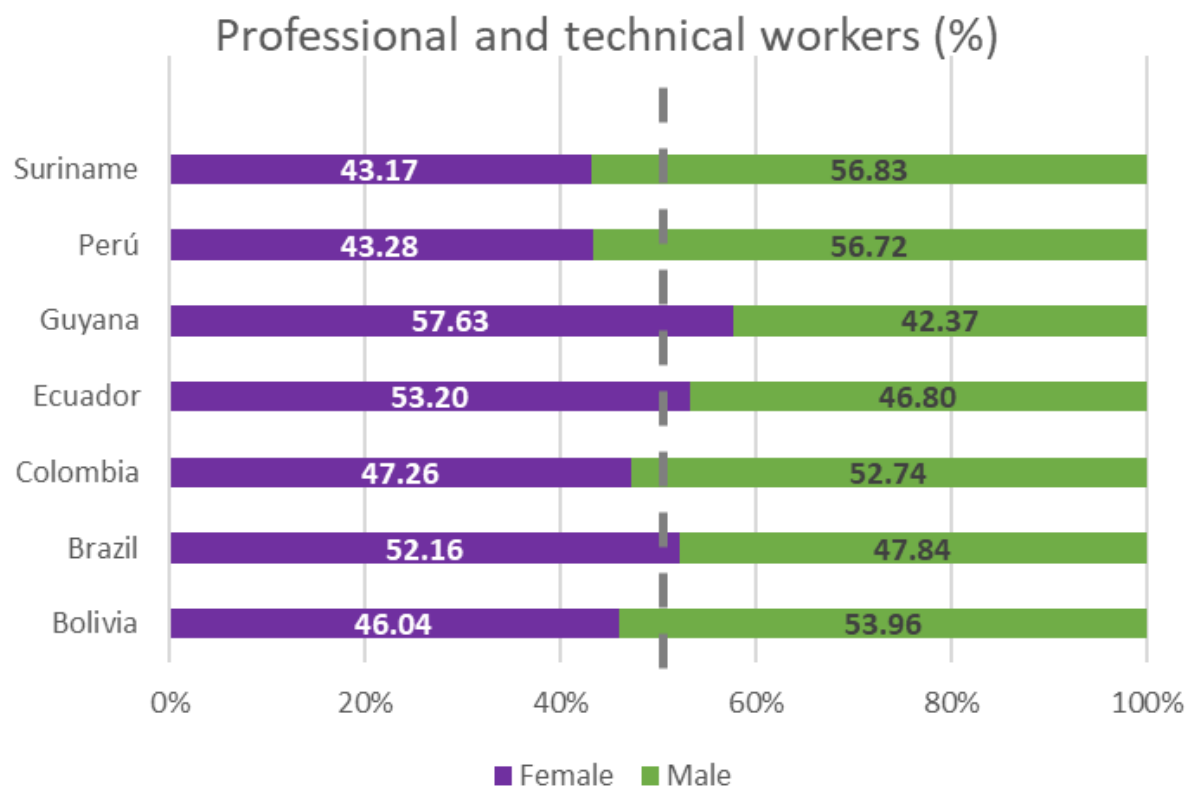


Fig. 5.2. Professional and technical workers (%)

Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023

Although women have a higher rate of education than men, the latter face major inequalities in accessing employment. Regarding **economic participation** (WEF, 2023), the *Labor force participation rate (%)* indicator shows that parity has not been achieved in any of the studied countries. All countries present gaps in the participation of women in the labor force. The gaps present

differences that range between 13 and 26 percentage points in favor of men (**Fig. 5.3**). These gaps are wider in some countries, such as Colombia (25.90), Ecuador (24.41), and Guyana (23.80).

Results on Fig. 5.3 do not correspond to those of Fig. 5.1 and 5.2, since at the academic level, women are prepared equally or even better than men and represent more than half of the technical and professional workers in the region. When reviewing data on the participation of women in electricity, gas, and water service companies in countries under study (**Fig. 5.4**), it is observed that women's labor participation is even lower, varying from 7.69% in Suriname to 19.43% in Colombia, with an average for the 8 countries of 13.24%, below the world average, which is 18%¹⁵ for water and sanitation sector.

¹⁵ World Bank (2020). *Las mujeres en las empresas públicas de agua derriban barreras*. Washington DC: Author.

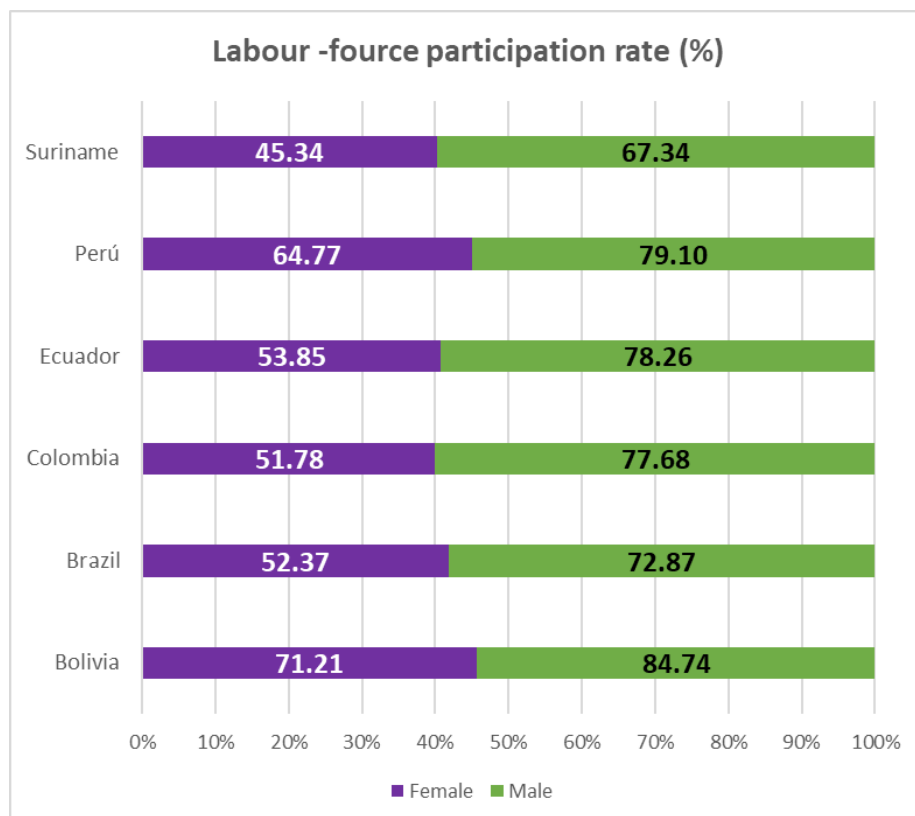
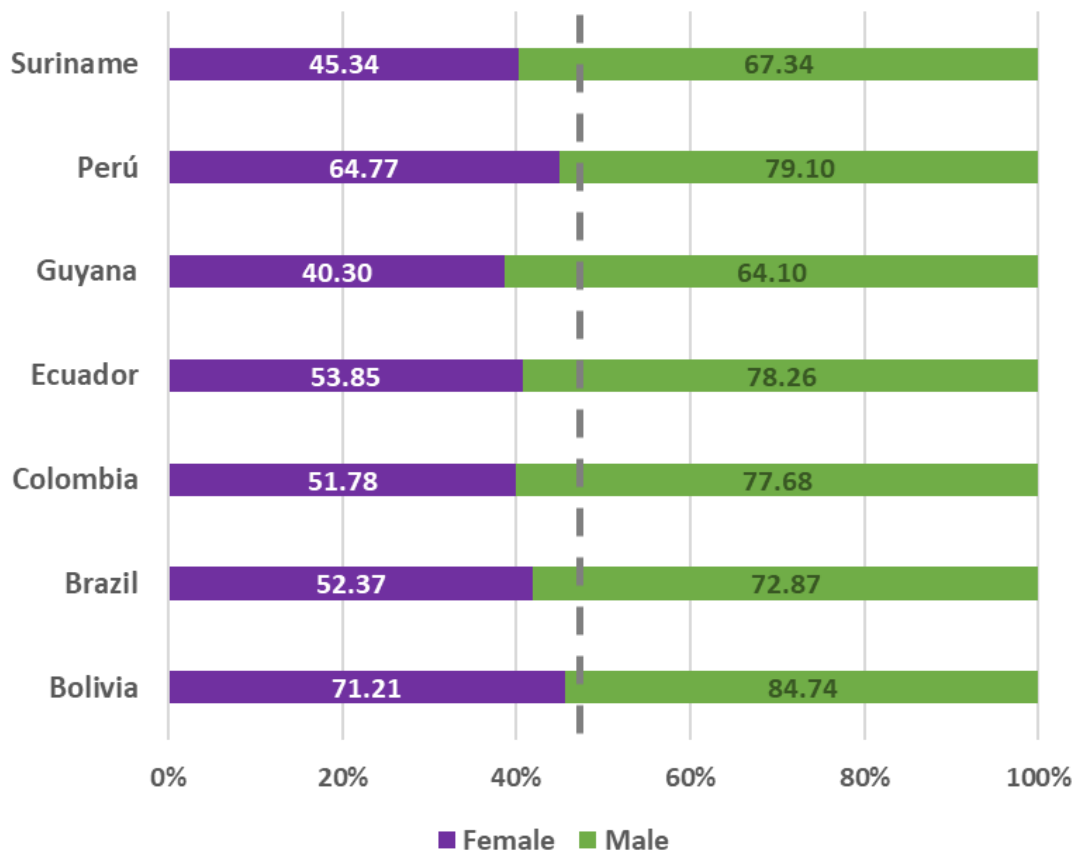


Fig. 5.3. Labor-force participation rate (%)
Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023,

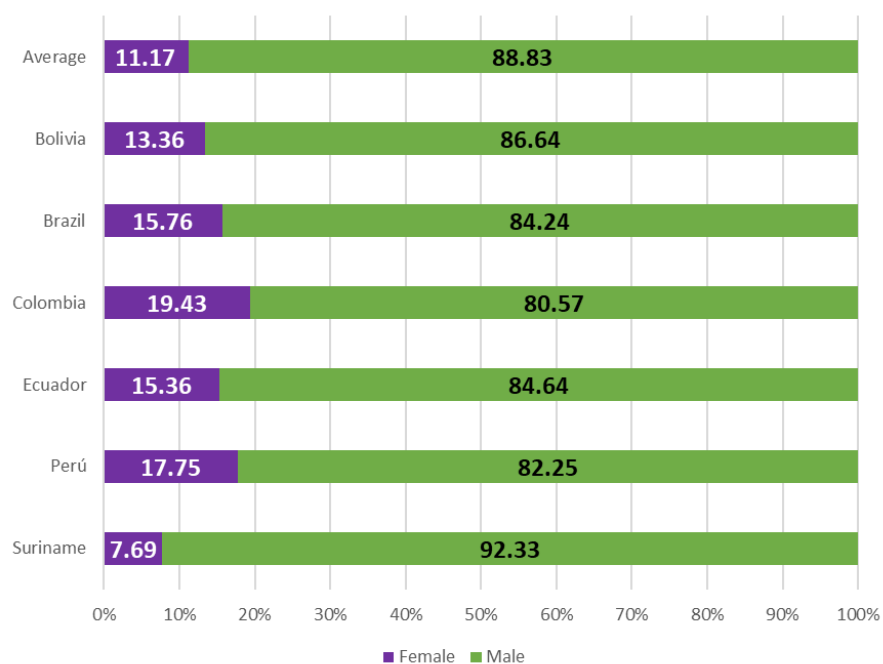


Fig. 5.4. Percentage of women employed in electricity, gas, and water service companies in studied countries - Source: OIT – Nov, 2022¹⁶

The data in **Fig. 5.5** represent paid productive work. When correlated with the Total Work Time reported by the Gender Equality Observatory for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), shown in **Fig. 5.6**, it is observed that in the region (and particularly in the countries of the study area), women work the same or more amount of time than men. Still, they dedicate at least twice as much time to unpaid work, which could explain the data in Fig. 3.5 and the parity not achieved with the Estimated earned income indicator shown in Table 3.1.

¹⁶ Based on data and modeled estimates from the ILO. [Link](#)

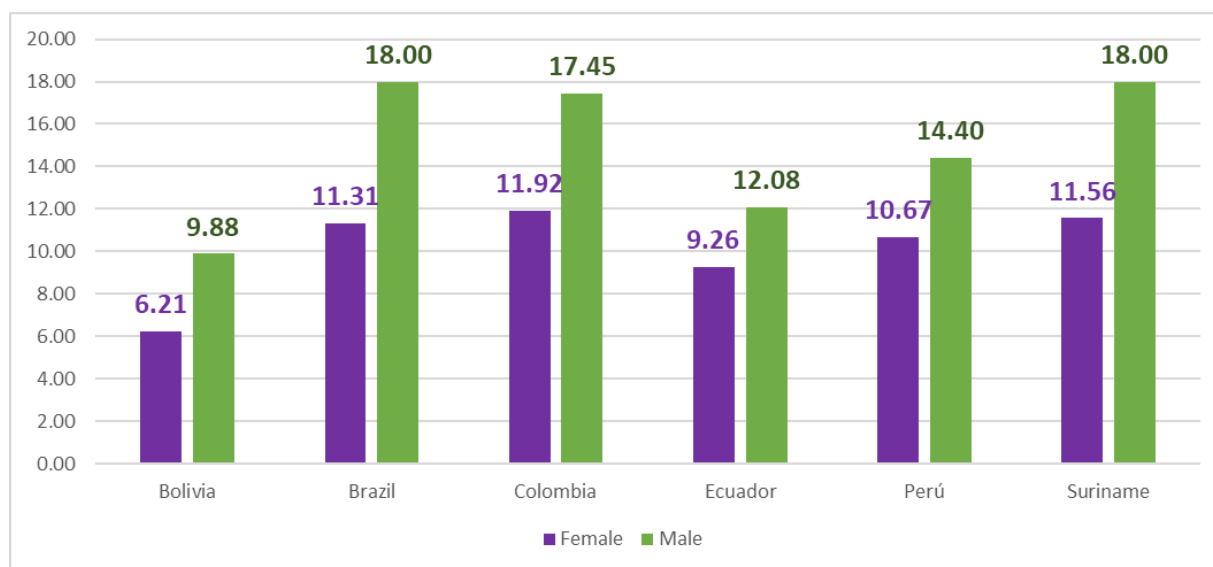
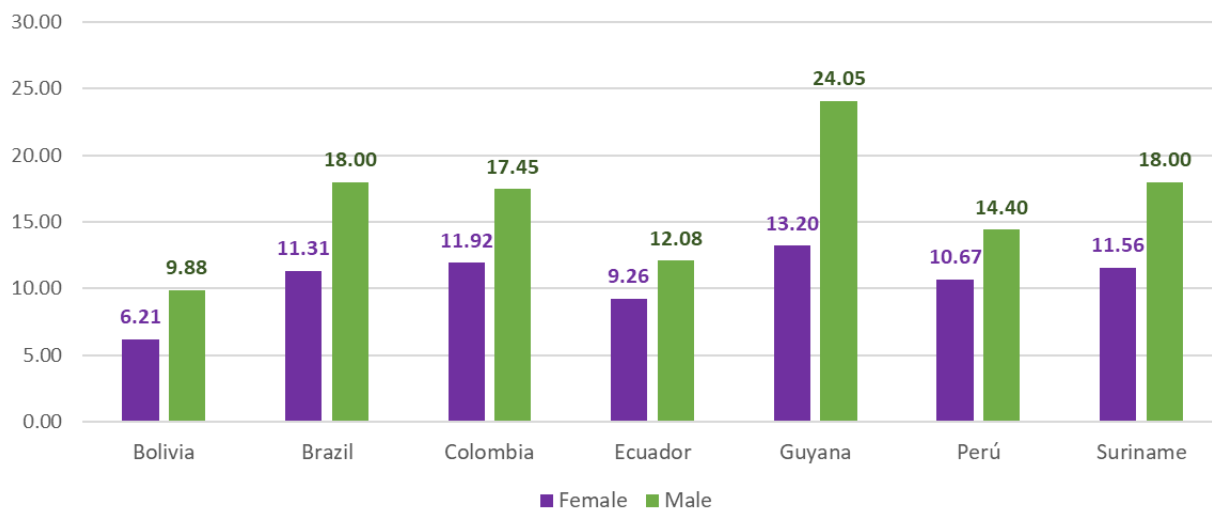


Fig. 5.5. Estimated earned income (int'l \$1,000)
Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023

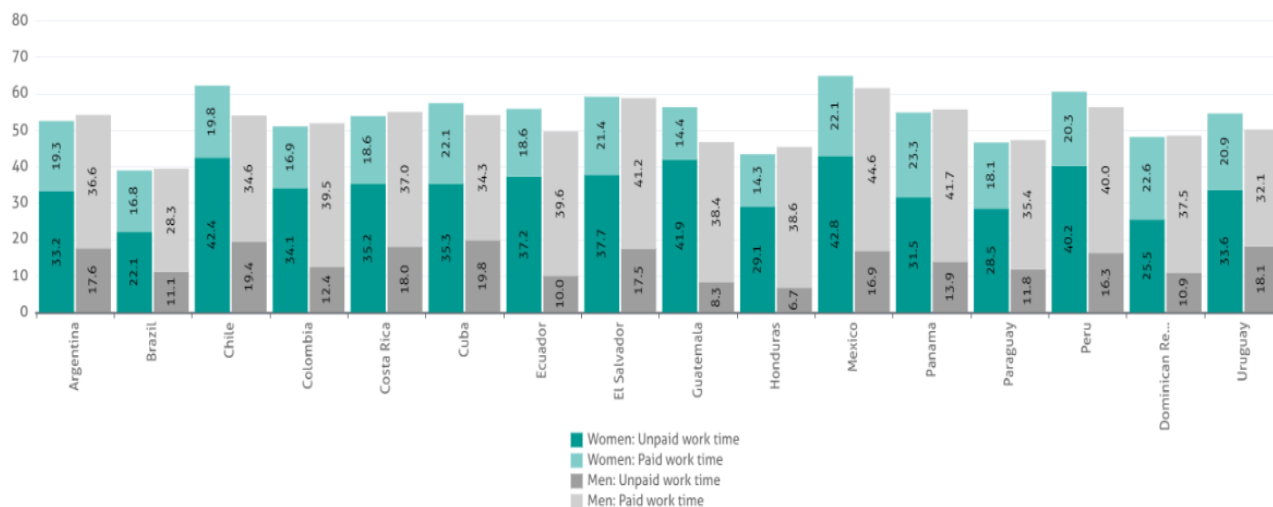


Fig. 5.6. Total Work Time. Latin America (16 countries): Average time spent on paid and unpaid work of the population aged 15 and over, by sex, by country, for the latest available data

(Average hours per week).
Source: [Gender Equality Observatory, ECLAC](#) (04/16/2024)

Child labor rates are high in the Amazon region. The main causes are found in family poverty and their need to contribute to the family economy. A greater proportion of married and maternity of women at an early age is greater than in the non-Amazonian population. Girls and adolescents are the most affected as most of their fundamental rights are violated, their optimal personal development during their childhood is hindered and usually has consequences in future stages of their lives associated with the perpetuation of situations of poverty and inequality for these women and their families (UN Women, UNFPA & UNICEF, 2018). In Bolivia, 16% of children between 10 and 14 years old and more than 40% between 15 and 17 years old are already working (2010). Brazil present similar levels: around 1 in 10 children aged 10 to 14 work and 3 in 10 between the age of 15- and 17-years old work (2010). The incidence of child labor is higher among indigenous and Afro-descendant children; this difference presents its widest gaps in Bolivia, Brazil, and Peru (CEPAL, 2022)¹⁷.

Political representation.

With respect to **political empowerment** (which measures the possibilities that women have to participate in decision-making spaces and, therefore, to influence macro and micro-politics), Table 3.1 shows that political empowerment is the indicator with the lowest parity values (between 0.23 for Suriname to 0.45 for Peru). The indicators related to this index are women's participation in parliament (**Fig. 5.7**), women's participation in ministerial positions (**Fig. 5.8**), and years with a female/male as head of state (**Fig. 5.9**).

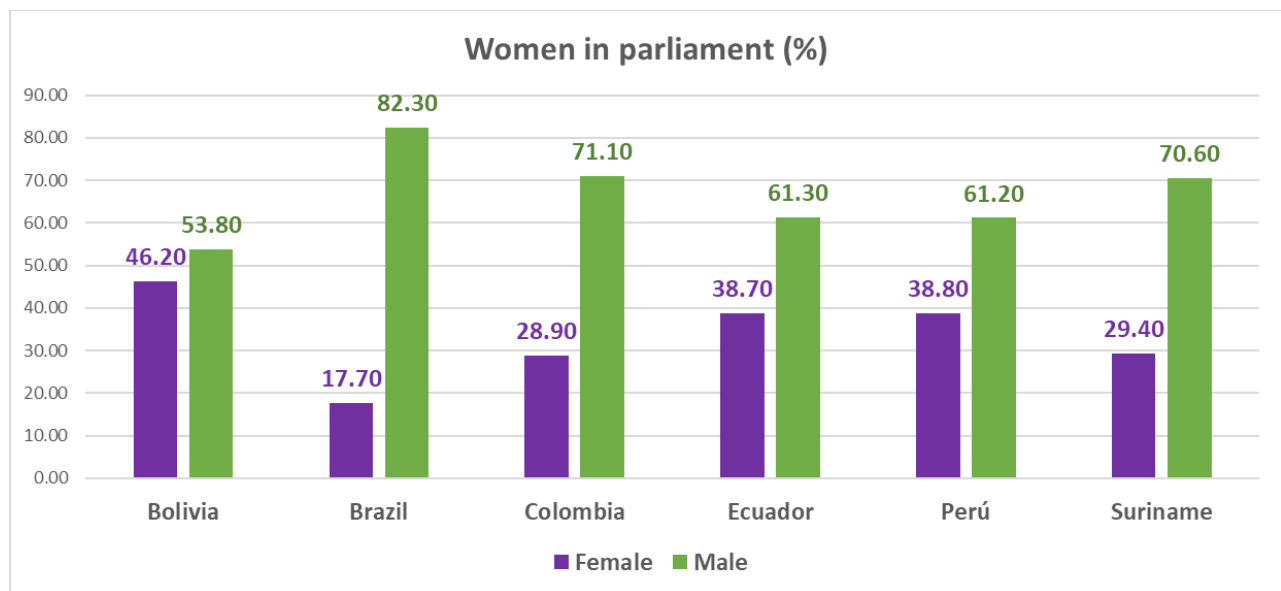


Fig. 5.7. Women in parliament
Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023

Regarding women's participation in parliament, the country showing the highest parity for the year 2023 is Bolivia, followed by Ecuador and Peru. Brazil, on the other hand, exhibits the widest gap (64.60). Ironically, upon reviewing the percentage of women in ministerial positions, Bolivia presents the widest gap, with a difference of 75 percentage points in favor of men, followed by Ecuador (50) and Suriname (41.18), while Colombia has achieved parity (0 point difference),

¹⁷ Maria Marta Santillan (2022) The matrix of social inequalities of the Amazonian population in the OCTA countries members.

followed by Peru (5.26).

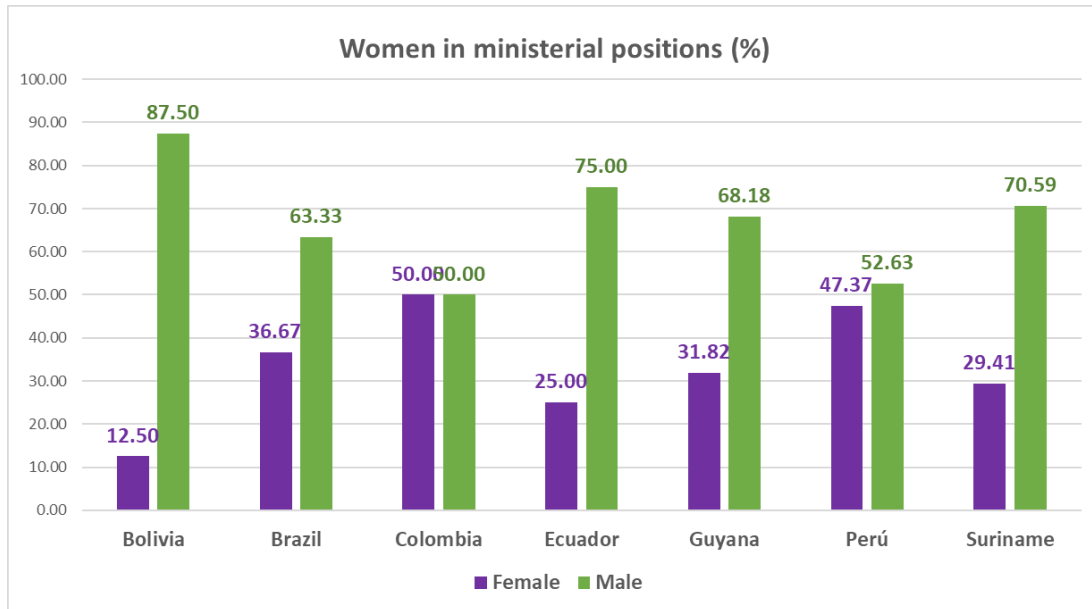


Fig. 5.8. Women in ministerial positions
Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023,

The greatest inequality is observed in Fig. 5.9, which records the number of years the country has had a male/female head of state in recent years. As can be seen, Colombia and Suriname have never had a woman as head of state, while Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia have only had one for very short periods (less than four years) which is less than a full presidential term. Only Brazil has had a female head of state for more than 5 years.

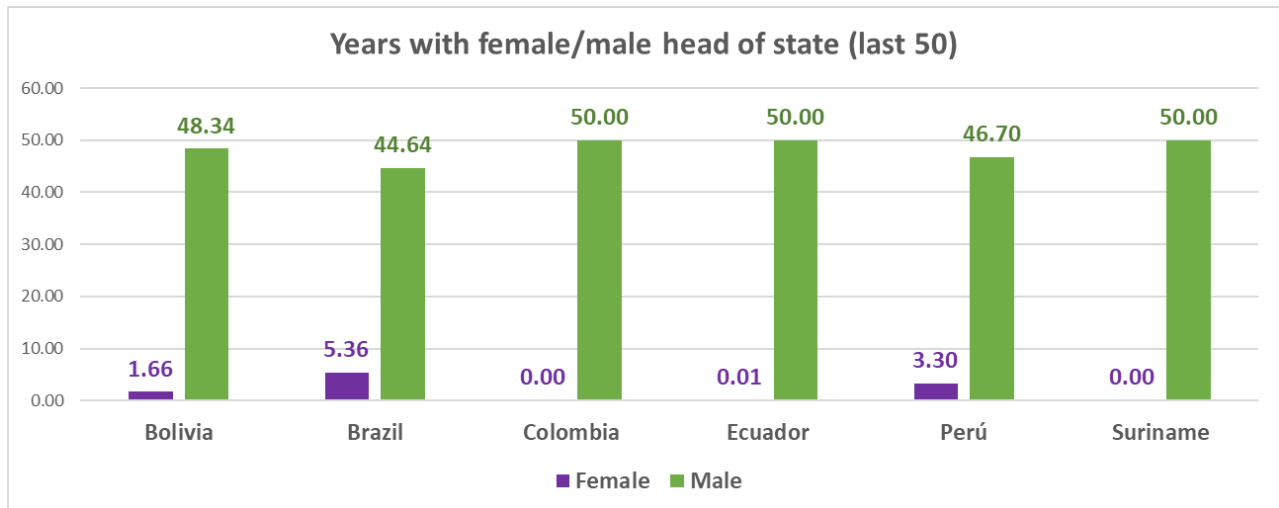


Fig. 5.9. Years with female/male head of state
Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023

A similar trend is observed in the participation of women in the communal water boards of the countries under study. An exhaustive analysis was carried out Matos et al (2021)¹⁸ on the profile of the members of interstate river basin committees in Brazil that found that the participation of women in decision-making positions is very low while in administrative and support positions (assistant) they reach values above 50% (Fig. 5.10).

¹⁸ Matos, Fernanda; Camargo, Eldis y de Pádua, Alexandre (2021). *Gobernanza de las aguas y Género: Un estudio sobre el perfil de los miembros de comités interestatales de cuencas hidrográficas en Brasil*. Belo Horizonte, Brasil: FACE - UFMG.

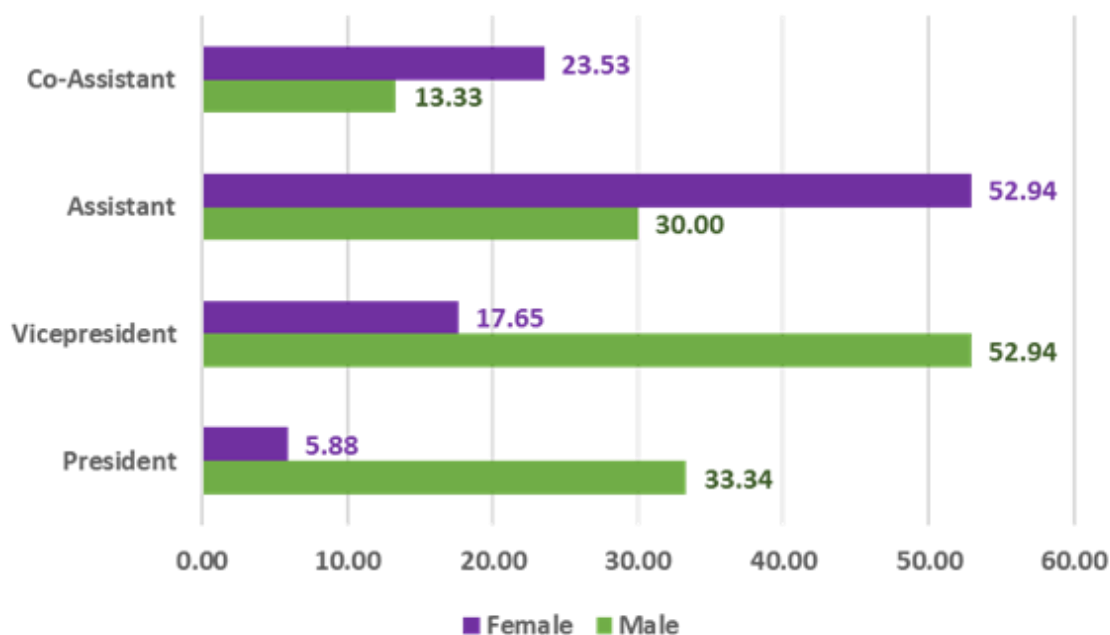


Fig. 5.10. Positions on boards of directors of interstate river basin committees in Brazil, disaggregated by gender.

Source: Marcos et al (2021)

In Peru¹⁹, women hold 28.6% of positions on water boards, yet their representation in decision-making roles stands at a mere 7%. A 2020 study conducted by the Ministry of Housing, Construction, and Sanitation of Peru²⁰ revealed compelling evidence indicating that increased female participation in water committees enhanced the overall management effectiveness. Specifically, when women occupy key positions, such as administrative roles, there is a heightened likelihood of improving various operational aspects, including streamlined administrative processes, enhanced monthly fee collection, better monitoring of financial sustainability, and improved cleaning and disinfection protocols utilizing chlorine.

Despite these advancements, there were no observable enhancements in the maintenance and operation of water systems, which could potentially impact service continuity. These findings underscore an opportunity to provide women with training in technical, operational, and maintenance domains, thereby empowering them to contribute more effectively to the management of water resources.

Violence against women.

Regarding intimate partner violence, violence against women is the one with the most comparable statistics between countries. **Fig. 5.11** shows the Prevalence of gender violence in lifetime (% women) indicator, from the Global Gender Gap Report (2023), for five of the seven countries studied. This indicator measures the percentage of women who have ever had a partner and who have ever suffered physical and/or sexual violence by their partner.

Bolivia has the highest percentage (64.10%), followed by Ecuador and Colombia (around 37%), and

¹⁹ CEPAL (2022). *Brechas, desafíos y oportunidades en materia de agua y género en América Latina y el Caribe. Recursos naturales y desarrollo*. Serie No. 211. [Link](#).

²⁰ MVCS (2020). *Participación de la mujer rural en la gestión de las Juntas de Administradores de Servicios de Saneamiento (JASS)*. Lima: MVCS - Oficina de Evaluación de Impacto. [Link](#)

Brazil and Peru (around 33%). Guyana and Suriname did not have data available in the reviewed reports.

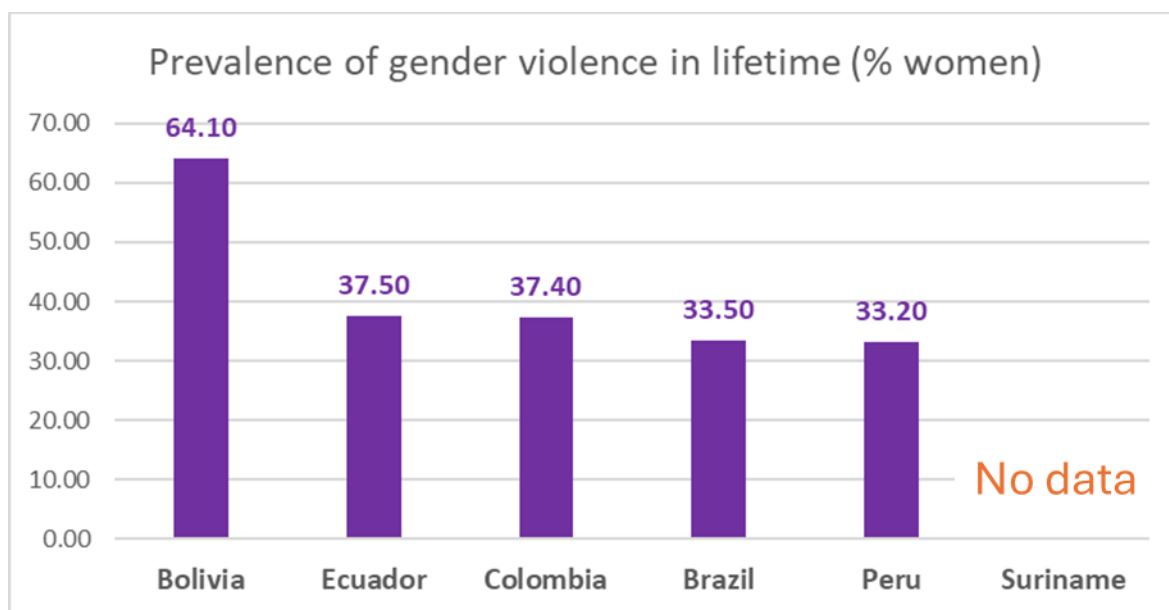


Fig. 5.11. Prevalence of gender violence in lifetime
Source: Global Gender Gap Report 2023

When correlating this figure with **Fig. 5.12**, which shows the annual absolute values of femicides, as well as the rate per 100,000 women, it is observed that among the studied countries, **Bolivia** presents the highest femicide rate, and according to data from ECLAC (2012) cited by UNDP-Bolivia, at least 100 women's deaths have been recorded per year. The report also indicates that according to the Survey on the Prevalence and Characteristics of Violence against Women (EPCVcM, 2016), 74.7% of married or cohabiting women, aged 15 or older, suffer or have suffered situations of violence in their intimate partner relationship, 88% reported suffering or having suffered psychological violence, 46.6% physical violence, 34.6% sexual violence, and 33.9% economic violence.

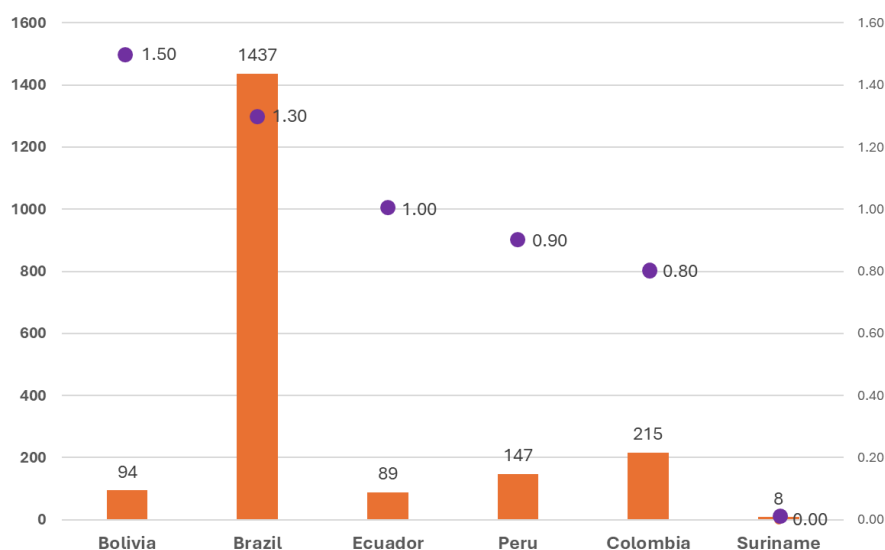


Fig. 5.12. Femicide or feminicide, most recent data available
(In absolute numbers and rates per 100.000 women)
Source: [Gender Equality Observatory, ECLAC](#) (04/16/2024)

In **Brazil**, between 2016 and 2021, there was an increase in the femicide rate of over 44%. In the state of Amazonas, out of all the women intentionally murdered by another person, more than one in five were cases of femicide²¹.

In **Ecuador**, 1 in 4 women has experienced sexual violence, yet psychological violence is the most recurrent form of gender violence, occurring in 53.9% of cases. Of all women who have experienced physical violence, 87.3% have experienced it within their intimate partner relationships. Additionally, 6 out of 10 women, regardless of their ethnic self-identification, have experienced some form of gender-based violence; with a higher percentage among indigenous women (67.8%) and Afro-Ecuadorian women (66.7%)²².

In **Peru**, official reports indicate that 7 out of 10 adult women have been victims of psychological, physical, and/or sexual violence at some point in their lives. In the year 2020, due to the isolation caused by the pandemic, gender-based violence increased from 14,049 cases in March to 24,990 cases in August²³.

In **Colombia**, the National Institute of Legal Medicine and Forensic Sciences reported 27,594 cases of violence against girls and adolescent women between 2015 and 2019. In 2021, 78 women were murdered. Four out of ten murders of women are committed by partners, ex-partners, family members, or acquaintances. It is estimated that more than 2 million women and girls are at risk of experiencing gender-based violence in 2022 (PIN); 330,000 of them, predominantly indigenous and Afro-descendant, living in the Pacific region of the country²⁴.

Access to Finance.

Women represent more than 40% of the economically active population in LAC. Only 17% of them are entrepreneurs in the formal economy. The main barriers they encounter to forming formal companies are (i) difficulties in leaving the informal sector (more than 60% of LAC women work in this sector²⁵) or going beyond microenterprises, reducing their earning potential, (ii) gender barriers that prevent them from working longer hours outside the home, (iii) ignorance of the financial market and existing opportunities, (iv) reduced levels of financial education, (v) lack of female roles to follow in business, (vi) lack of support networks and (vii) difficulties in accessing financing without legal ownership or guarantee²⁶.

According to a study of 35 entrepreneurs in 15 countries in LAC, a high number of women entrepreneurs in the region feel that they have been discriminated against because of their gender (27% versus 4% for men). The main reason women-led businesses fail is lack of access to capital. LAC is the region with the second highest rate of bankruptcies of companies run by women worldwide. While most male entrepreneurs indicate that they have closed their companies due to low profitability. Women entrepreneurs point to the difficulty of obtaining financing as the main impediment to continuing with their businesses. The credit gap in LAC is \$5bn for women-led micro businesses and \$93bn for women-led

²¹ UNFPA (2023). "Men will no longer do what they want with them": Indigenous women in Brazil say enough to gender-based violence. Web site United Nations Population Fund. [Link](#)

²² INEC (2011). *Encuesta Nacional de Relaciones Familiares y Violencia de Género contra las Mujeres*. Web Site del Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas y Censos. [Link](#)

²³ Contreras, Manuel; Granados, Greta y Levano, Lorena (2021). Retos y alternativas para enfrentar la violencia de género en Perú. Web site del World Bank. [Link](#)

²⁴ ONU Mujeres – Colombia. La situación de las mujeres en Colombia. [Link](#)

²⁵ <http://www.unwomen.org/es/news/in-focus/csw61/women-in-informal-economy>

²⁶ Buckland, Leonora et al. Gender Lens Investing: How Finance Can Accelerate Gender Equality in Latin America and the Caribbean. IDB Invest. 2019.

SMEs²⁷.

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

Access to land and women's territorial care.

Although in the region there are some large and medium urban centers such as Manaus, Belém or Iquitos, the territory is eminently rural. In rural areas, the predominant forms of land management are protected natural areas, indigenous and community territories, and private properties including different productive activities. However, the land tenure of these different figures is distributed unequally among men and women, as it is usually Amazonian men who have ownership and administration over the land. For example, in the Ecuadorian Amazon only 11.85% of women have their own land, while 88.2% of male producers own it (PROAmazonía, 2019²⁸). Likewise, in Colombia, women's access to land tenure is precarious and their ownership, or even inheritance rights and shared tenure with partners or spouses, is rarely recognized (PNUD, 2011²⁹; Zorio, 2015³⁰).

Different social, economic, legal, and cultural factors can explain this inequality in land tenure. For instance, Amazonian women have less access to state identification or visibility processes that allow them to participate in formalization processes. In the Peruvian Amazon about 19% of women who speak a native language and 7.2% of those who speak Spanish do not even have a National Identification Document (Villar, 2013³¹). In addition, although there is a shared tenure within collective or community properties it is Amazonian men who assume mostly the custody and administration of the lands (PROAmazonía, 2019).

However, although Amazonian women do not exercise ownership over land widely, they do play an essential role in territorial management and local forms of environmental practices of conservation within Indigenous, Peasant, and Afro-descendant peoples. This is mainly because women oversee home and family care, which also often encompasses the care of the natural environment. In fact, the PROAmazonía study (op.cit.) shows that in the Ecuadorian Amazon women usually devote, on average 23 hours a week to reproductive work, almost 17 hours longer than men. Although this gap has variations according to different local communities, it has been found that usually all Amazonian women spend much more time on this type of work than men.

In addition, women are also active in the productive activities of agriculture, livestock, forestry, and fisheries in which different forms of environmental care and sustainable use of natural resources are exercised. In the Ecuadorian Amazon, 30.6% of women engage in these activities, just seven percentage points less than men, approximately (PROAmazonía, op.cit.). In the case of the indigenous population, it has been identified that indigenous women mainly assume the care of the chacras as scenarios of family agricultural production that allow subsistence, the conservation of diversity and, in many cases, the generation of economic surpluses for the home (PROAmazonía, op.cit.). In the case of productive units of peasant or mestizo families, women have a high participation in productive

²⁷ IFC. MSME Finance Gap, 2017.

²⁸ Programa Integral Amazónico de Conservación de Bosques y Producción Sostenible PROAmazonía. (2019). Diagnóstico de las mujeres amazónicas. Ministerio de Ambiente y Agua del Ecuador, Ministerio de Agricultura y Ganadería, Programa de Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo, Green Climate Fund, Global Environmental Facility, UN Women. [Link](#)

²⁹ PNUD. (2011). Colombia rural: Razones para la esperanza. Informe Nacional de Desarrollo Humano. Bogotá, Colombia: INDH PNUD. [Link](#)

³⁰ Zorio, Sandra. (2015). Tierras, mujeres y niñez. Familia y conflicto armado. Derecho del Estado (35): 295 – 315. [Link](#)

³¹ Villar, Eliana. (2013). Diagnóstico de Género en la Amazonía: Amazonas, Loreto, Madre de Dios, San Martín y Ucayali. Lima: USAID. [Link](#).

activities but also in decision-making and resource management.

Women are more vulnerable to the impacts of climate change. Some research argued that this is the case because they have fewer economic resources to mitigate impacts, for example on productive systems of agriculture, livestock, and tourism (Montalvo, 2019³²). Women's family and environmental care activities create a strong dependence on natural resources so any change in such resources has tremendous effects on their livelihoods as well as on their personal and social wellbeing. More importantly, "in rural areas women depend directly on the resources of their environment, on greater soil wealth, on greater clean water, for greater and better forest management, for greater and better seed management, greater chances of subsistence of families in decent conditions" (PROAmazonía, 2019 & ONUMujeres, 2019³³). In addition, women face increased risks of contagion of tropical diseases, such as malaria, ZIKA, and dengue (Montalvo, 2019). Some studies in the Peruvian Amazon find that women are differentially affected by deforestation. This is because, while men own land and can take advantage of tree felling for timber sales or the expansion of productive activities, deforestation degrades the fundamental natural resources most women use to ensure the livelihoods of their families (Villar, 2013).

That is why, different organizations stress the importance of including a gender perspective in forest management, biodiversity conservation, climate change mitigation, and sustainable development (OTCA, 2019³⁴ PROAmazonía, 2019 & ONUMujeres, 2019, Our Future Forests-AmaZonia Verde, 2021³⁵). There is a growing call to foster greater participation of women in the management of protected natural areas and indigenous and community territories. Together, these forms of ordering occupy more than 47% of the Amazonian territory. In fact, in the Amazon, there are about 500 protected areas, and they are estimated to cover a territorial extension of approximately 2,123,000 km² (RAISG, 2018³⁶ RAISG, 2020³⁷). The country with the highest coverage of protected areas is Brazil with more than 50% and is followed by Peru with approximately 10%, respectively (RAISG, 2017³⁸). According to the Amazon Network of Georeferenced Socio-Environmental Information, there are two areas (of direct and indirect use) that could benefit from a more substantial inclusion of women within governance schemes:

- Areas of direct use in which natural resources are conserved within the framework of management plans that regulate and control the different uses. These areas can occupy just under 12.4% of the Amazon territorial extension and more than 50% of the Protected Natural Areas of the Amazon (RAISG, 2020).
- Areas of indirect use where biodiversity protection is promoted in parallel with research, education, and tourism, although human settlements are generally not allowed. It is estimated that these areas can occupy about 12% of the Land coverage of the Amazon and make up just over 48% of the Protected Natural Areas of the region.

This is particularly relevant because there are 2,275 indigenous territories covering more than

³² Montalvo, Natalia. (2019). Introducción. En PROAmazonía, Diagnóstico de las mujeres amazónicas (6-19). Ministerio de Ambiente y Agua del Ecuador, Ministerio de Agricultura y Ganadería, Programa de Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo, Green Climate Fund, Global Environmental Facility, UN Women. [Link](#)

³³ UN Women (2019). *In the Bolivian Amazon, women are protecting the forest and empowering themselves*. Web site UNWomen. [Link](#)

³⁴ OTCA (2018). *Informe regional sobre la situación de los bosques en la región amazónica*. Brasilia, Brasil: OTCA. [Link](#)

³⁵ [Link](#) to factsheet

³⁶ RAISG (2018). *Amazonía en números*. Red Amazónica de Información Socioambiental Georreferenciada. Mapa online. [Link](#)

³⁷ RAISG (2020). *Amazonía bajo presión 2020*. RAISG: Sao Paulo, Belém, Lima, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Bogotá, Quito y Caracas. Red Eclesial Panamazónica -Repam. 2019. Atlas Panamazónico: aproximación a la realidad eclesial y socioambiental. [Link](#)

³⁸ RAISG (2017). *Amazonía 2017. Áreas protegidas. Territorios indígenas*. Red Amazónica de Información Socioambiental Georreferenciada. Mapa online. [Link](#)

2,300,000 km² of the Amazon (RAISG, 2020). The land tenure categories of these territories may vary between: Officially recognized traditional occupation and used territories; Territories of traditional use and occupation without official recognition; Indigenous Reserve or Intangible Zone (for PIACI); Indigenous Reserve Proposal (RAISG, 2020). The countries with the largest number of indigenous territories are: Brazil with an area of 1,156,000 km², Peru with an area of 308,341 km² and Colombia with an area of 262,912 km². Most of these indigenous territories are officially recognized and occupy 21.9% of the coverage of the general Amazon (RAISG, 2017). Different studies have highlighted that the power of women in decision-making is low or medium compared to that of men who are mainly responsible for the administration of resources (PROAmazonía, 2019).

However, there are already multiple organizations that have strong representation and visibility of women. In Brazil, the Coordinator of Indigenous Organizations of the Brazilian Amazon (COIAB) and the Articulation of Indigenous Peoples of Brazil (APIB) have a high representation of women promoting indigenous rights and environmental sustainability (Lima and Vieira, 2019³⁹). Amazonian women (both indigenous, peasant, and Afro-descendant) have played a central role in the management of different protected areas and indigenous or community territories because they have led many of the care activities and, in recent years, have been actively involved in sustainable production processes (Lima and Vieira, 2019). Many of these processes respond to the emergence of bioeconomy strategies to use natural resources from local knowledge and conserve the tropical forest in parallel (Lima and Vieira, 2019; RAISG, 2020). Thus, these areas have great potential to mitigate the negative consequences of contemporary environmental degradation and ensure the conservation of the biological resources that underpin the various emerging bioeconomy initiatives. In fact, 72% of Protected Natural Areas and Indigenous Territories are free from environmental degradation related to threats of deforestation, fire, illegal mining, and pollution, among other factors (RAISG, 2020). There are even multiple studies that point to the relationship between the delimitation of these territories and the positive impact on deforestation, which favors the maintenance of ecosystem services crucial for bioeconomy such as carbon capture, biodiversity protection, and conservation of hydrological systems (RAISG, 2020).

Gender and diverse populations' challenges related to water and sanitation.

Globally, 1.8 billion people live in households without water supply. Women and girls aged 15 and older are primarily responsible for water collection in 7 out of 10 such households, compared with 3 in 10 households for their male peers. Girls under 15 are usually more likely than boys under 15 to fetch water. In most cases, women and girls make longer journeys to collect it, losing time in education, work, and leisure, and putting themselves at risk of physical injury and dangers on the way. Moreover, women and girls are disproportionately affected by the lack of access to basic water, sanitation, and hygiene facilities, due to their needs during periods of increased vulnerability to infection around menstruation and reproduction.

Without gender equality and shifts in patriarchal culture, sustainable water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) outcomes are challenging to secure, women's voices are likely to remain unheard, and initiatives may inadvertently entrench unequal power relations. With women and girls responsible for most household WASH activities, strategic improvements in WASH can also be a pathway towards broader gender equality (Willetts et al., 2010). Multiple established connections link access to safely managed water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) and gender equality⁴⁰.

In terms of accessing to drinking water less than 40% of the population in the Amazon region have access to drinking water: (i) the Amazon region of Ecuador present the greatest gaps compared to the

³⁹ Lima, Luciana & Vieira, Eduardo (2019). *Indigenous Women: Keepers of the Amazon Rainforest*. The Nature Conservancy. Web site The Nature Conservancy. [Link](#)

⁴⁰ Women's studies international forum (2022). The water, sanitation, and hygiene gender equality measure (WASH-GEM): Conceptual foundations and domains of change.

rest of the country (72.8% and 49.2% respectively, 2010); (ii) all countries have important cultural gaps, especially in the case of indigenous population except for Peru. In Ecuador for instance, less than 30% of the indigenous population have access to drinking water; (iii) the gaps between urban and rural areas are also important, being more relevant in the case of Ecuador (78.2% and 30.8% respectively, 2010), (iv) the greatest access occurs in municipalities of Peru, as well as the east and south of Brazil⁴¹.

Regarding sanitation (i) the largest gaps between the Amazon and non-Amazon regions are observed in Brazil (64.7% and 30.8% respectively, 2010) and Ecuador (76.7% and 54.0% respectively, 2010) ; (ii) the indigenous population of the Amazon Region has the lowest levels of access as well as the largest gaps with the rest of the population, especially in Brazil (36.7% and 6.9%, 2010), Bolivia (34.4% and 14.7%, 2012), and Ecuador (69.5% and 22.8%, 2010); (iii) access in rural areas is worrying, especially in Bolivia and Brazil; (iv) only Peru, Colombia and Suriname have municipalities with more than 60% of the population with access to sanitation. In the rest of the countries, access is insufficient⁴².

The effects of climate change on women and diverse populations.

The impacts of climate change reverberate deeply, affecting both women and diverse populations in unique and profound ways, with indigenous communities often bearing disproportionate burdens. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the Amazon basin faces escalating risks of extreme weather events, including floods and droughts, as global temperatures continue to rise (IPCC, 2014⁴³). These environmental disturbances disrupt the delicate balance of ecosystems and livelihoods, posing significant challenges for women in indigenous and rural communities who often bear the primary responsibility for securing food, water, and fuel for their families (FAO, 2017⁴⁴).

Indigenous peoples face distinct challenges stemming from their close relationship with the land and their traditional lifestyles. Climate change compounds existing vulnerabilities, threatening cultural heritage, traditional knowledge systems, and self-sufficiency. For example, shifts in precipitation patterns and the frequency of wildfires can disrupt indigenous agricultural practices and force communities to relocate from ancestral territories (U.S. Climate Resilience Toolkit).

According to the Living Amazon Report 2022⁴⁵, The Amazon rainforest, often referred to as the "lungs of the planet," is home to approximately 2 million indigenous people belonging to over 500 different groups. These communities rely on the forest for food, medicine, shelter, and cultural practices. However, deforestation, exacerbated by climate change, threatens their way of life and exacerbates their vulnerability to environmental changes.

Moreover, indigenous communities in the Amazon are often marginalized and lack access to essential services such as healthcare, education, and clean water. As climate change intensifies, these disparities are magnified, further exacerbating health risks and socioeconomic challenges.

According to Talbot-Wright's research (2023⁴⁶), it is crucial to consider the varied impacts of climate change based on gender when identifying necessary adaptations for the health sector. Gender-defined occupations and social attitudes often shape how climate change affects health (WHO, 2018).

⁴¹ Maria Marta Santillan (2022) The matrix of social inequalities of the Amazonian population in the OCTA countries members.

⁴² Maria Marta Santillan (2022) The matrix of social inequalities of the Amazonian population in the OCTA countries members.

⁴³ IPCC. (2014). Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

⁴⁴ FAO. (2017). The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2017. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.

⁴⁵ Living Amazon Report, 2022, WWF Amazon Coordination Unit

⁴⁶ Talbot-Wright, Hipólito & Vogt-Schilb, Adrien (2023). Heat and High Water: Nine Pathways to Climate Resilient Development. Washinton, DC: IDB. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.18235/0005214>

For example, heatwaves and rising temperatures disproportionately affect the health of male-dominated construction workers. Conversely, in rural regions, women experience heightened food insecurity due to traditional gender roles that disadvantage them in terms of education, income, and social status compared to men (Romanello et al., 2021). Governments can address inequalities in climate change adaptations by integrating gender considerations into sectoral policy and planning (WHO, 2018). An initial step involves identifying gender disparities by enhancing the availability of health data disaggregated by gender (Romanello et al., 2021).

Moreover, climate change exacerbates health risks for women and diverse populations in the Amazon, including indigenous communities. Reduced access to healthcare services during extreme weather events increases the incidence of injuries, diseases, and maternal deaths (UNFPA, 2019⁴⁷). Displacement caused by climate-induced disasters exposes indigenous women and diverse populations to heightened risks of exploitation, human trafficking, and gender-based violence as they struggle to rebuild their lives in unfamiliar and often precarious environments (UNHCR, 2020⁴⁸).

Climate change also worsens mental health among indigenous peoples, as noted in Talbot-Wright's book (op.cit.). Extreme weather events, displacement, food insecurity, water scarcity, loss of livelihoods, biodiversity loss, and social unrest can cause a range of mental issues, including anxiety, depression, grief, post-traumatic stress disorder, suicidal tendencies, aggression, and intimate partner violence, often against women (IPCC, 2022).

In the face of these multifaceted challenges, it is imperative to recognize the invaluable knowledge and resilience of indigenous women and diverse populations in the Amazon. Empowering these communities through inclusive decision-making processes, access to resources, and support for sustainable adaptation strategies is crucial for building resilience and fostering equitable outcomes in the face of climate change. By centering on the voices and experiences of those most affected, we can work towards a more just and sustainable future for all inhabitants of the Amazon basin.

⁴⁷ UNFPA. (2019). State of World Population 2019. United Nations Population Fund.

⁴⁸ UNHCR. (2020). Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2020. United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.