
Gender Assessment

FP047: GCF - EBRD Kazakhstan Renewables Framework

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GCF-EBRD KAZAKHSTAN RENEWABLES FRAMEWORK: GENDER ANNEX**A. Kazakhstan Country Gender Profile**

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

Key points	<p>The population of the Republic of Kazakhstan is highly diverse, comprised of over 100 ethnic groups.</p> <p>There is a supportive legal framework for gender equality, although in practice women's access to finance, employment and services remains influenced by traditional norms and stereotypes regarding gender roles, according to which women are expected to retain primary responsibility for family care and unpaid domestic work.</p> <p>Women in southern Kazakhstan and rural areas tend to face greater obstacles in acquiring land and property or in accessing public services compared to their urban counterparts.</p>
Access to services	<p>Rural/urban divide</p> <p>Kazakhstan's economic growth has not translated into a better socio-economic situation for women and men outside Almaty and Astana. As such, the rural/urban divide is a major determinant of living standards and access to services. Women in rural areas contend with fewer opportunities for paid employment, a greater burden of domestic work and a lack of infrastructure and access to services. Poverty incidence is twice as high in rural areas, although it is also particularly high in households with large numbers of children, and increasing in female-headed households.</p> <p>Transport</p> <p>Women tend to use public transport more than men in Kazakhstan, and they travel more often with children (ADB, 2012). Access to transport is more difficult in rural areas compared to urban areas, where some municipal governments – including Almaty – have started investing in more robust systems of public transport. Nevertheless, urban infrastructure still suffers from the after-effects of underinvestment for more than 20 years. Field research for one of the EBRD-supported projects revealed no issues regarding sexual harassment on public transport amongst passengers or drivers; however, sexual harassment is a difficult issue to broach in Kazakhstan or elsewhere and requires further research.</p> <p>Water and sanitation</p> <p>According to ADB (2012) study, access to water is a particularly acute problem in rural areas, where households have far less access to piped water and collecting water for household use is predominantly a female responsibility. Same study found that women in rural areas spend a significant amount of time transporting and treating water (i.e. for cleaning, bathing, cooking, drinking and livestock). This was particularly the case in remote areas, where access to water is most limited.</p> <p>Energy</p> <p>Women tend to be the 'frontline users' of electricity (given that they are more bear primary responsibility for household chores and child care and therefore spend more time in the home), but men are most often responsible for paying the bills (ADB, 2012). In rural areas, women tend to be responsible for – and spend a significant amount of time on – fuel collection (i.e. wood or dried animal dung).</p> <p>Kazakhstan's district heating systems are considered inefficient and outdated, resulting in up to 30% heat loss annually (UNDP, 2012). In urban areas, experts estimate that 65% of the total municipal heating system is in need of replacement or repair, and those residential buildings, in particular, experience considerable heat loss (ADB, 2012). This is true of old</p>

	<p>and new buildings: women have raised concerns that new housing is built quickly and cheaply, resulting in heating deficiencies.</p> <p>A gender assessment of three district heating projects in Kazakhstan (Grontmij 2014) found that there are important differences between men and women in terms of their heating priorities and choices. For example, women tend to place a higher priority on safety issues (and therefore tend to prefer district heating rather than gas) and are also more likely to submit complaints regarding heating issues (as a consequence of the fact that women tend to be more affected by heating issues).</p> <p>Waste management</p> <p>Kazakhstan is in the process of implementing a number of projects for processing solid waste in Almaty, Aktau, Astana, Zhambyl, Karaganda, Shymkent, Petropavlovsk and Ust-Kamenogorsk (Babkina, 2012). There was no information available about gendered patterns of household waste management in Kazakhstan.</p> <p>Education</p> <p>Primary and secondary enrolment rates are the same for boys and girls. Strong gender patterns persist in tertiary education that contribute to labour market segregation: women remain concentrated in traditionally “female” fields of study (humanities, education, health) and are less likely than men to study in technical fields that would lead to higher wages (energy, transport, construction).</p> <p>Health</p> <p>Women generally make their own decisions about health care, but some women, especially adolescent girls, face obstacles in access to sexual and reproductive health services. Older women, women with disabilities and rural women have more limited access to health care. Men’s health is significantly poorer than women’s.</p> <p>Childcare</p> <p>During the Soviet period, childcare services were widely available in the form of public kindergartens, crèches and nurseries. Today, there are fewer childcare services in operation and they have become more expensive, making it increasingly difficult for working women to combine their paid work and domestic responsibilities. This ‘double burden’ is considered a barrier to advancement at work. According to ILO (2013), most women prefer to return to work after their children reach 1 to 3 years of age.</p>
<p>Access to employment</p>	<p>Labour force participation</p> <p>Women’s labour force participation reaches 68%, compared to 78% for men, which is higher compared to the regional average for Europe and Central Asia (World Bank Gender Indicators). The gap between women and men’s labour force participation narrowed slightly over the 2000s. Until now, lower levels of participation for women have been partly accounted for by a lower retirement age for women. As such, recent reforms to introduce equalised retirement ages for women and men could result in slightly higher rates of labour force participation for women (ADB, 2013).</p> <p>Horizontal segregation</p> <p>Women remain concentrated in lower-paid sectors and occupations. To some extent, women are excluded from working in a number of occupations in traditionally male-dominated sectors (e.g. extractives, construction, and transport) as a result of the long list of jobs that are prohibited for women by legislation (women are prohibited from working in 299 occupations, including in mining, construction, metalworking and the booming oil and gas sector). Most working women are concentrated in services, such as, education and health care, many of which are public sector jobs and typically offer lower salaries than male-dominated occupations in extractives, construction and industry.</p> <p>Vertical segregation</p>

	<p>Women remain disadvantaged when it comes to seeking promotion in the workplace. In 2013, only 18.8% of Kazakh firms had a woman as a top manager (WB World Development Indicators). Traditional beliefs and stereotypes about men and women's abilities often hamper women's access to higher hierarchical positions in the workplace. Men are generally perceived as being more 'natural' leaders than women (ADB, 2012).</p> <p>Informal employment</p> <p>Informal employment is heavily concentrated in agriculture. In non-agricultural sectors, men and women are equally likely to be informally employed (Rutkowski, 2011), but women are more likely to be informally employed in agriculture. In 2009, the proportion of women among rural informal workers reached 59% (ADB, 2012).</p> <p>Wages</p> <p>Women earn on average 69.5% of men's wages (KAS, 2013). This gap can partly be explained by the horizontal segregation of the labour force (women are more prominently represented in the fields of education, health care, social services, hotels and restaurants), as well as forms of direct and indirect discrimination against women.</p>
<p>Access to finance/property</p>	<p>Access to credit</p> <p>Women enjoy equal access to finance in terms of legal rights and loan procedures; however, in practice, women's access to credit is more limited than men's. One of the main issues is the fact that most banks require collateral as a condition for loans, which is more likely to present difficulties for women, who are less likely to own property or assets than men (ADB, 2012).</p> <p>Ownership of land and other assets</p> <p>Women have equal rights under law to own, use and administer property. In practice, however, women are less likely than men to own land and other assets. Property acquired during marriage is often registered in the name of the husband or male head of household, especially in rural areas. This can act as a barrier to finance. As a result, only 9% of the total number of farms is registered in women's names (ADB, 2013).</p> <p>A lack of business literacy, skills and experience can also present a barrier. Reasons cited by women for not seeking bank loans include the difficulty, time, and cost involved in drawing up and notarising documents necessary for loan applications. Also, women generally have limited experience in developing the business plans required for business loan applications (ADB, 2012).</p>
<p>Decision-making</p>	<p>Representation in national parliaments</p> <p>There are no voluntary or obligatory quotas for women's representation in Parliament. Share of women in national parliament is currently 23.8% (KAS 2012).</p> <p>Patriarchal norms and values related to the sexual division of labour</p> <p>A 2012 survey indicated that 53.6% of Kazakhs believe that the husband / father should be the family's primary income-earner, and 36.3% believe that the husband / father should be the "leader, defender and protector" of the family. Respondents from the city of Almaty tended to give more gender-equal responses than respondents from other areas (Tengrinews, 2012).</p> <p>Nevertheless, as noted by ILO (2013), these ideas are out of step with the reality in many homes in Kazakhstan, where women and men often share income-earning responsibilities, as reflected by high levels of women's labour market participation.</p>

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Key indicators: Women and men in the economy

		Female	Male	Female & Male
Labour force	Labour force participation (% of women, men and total population aged 15-64 who are economically active) <i>World Bank 2014</i>	68	78	73
	Self-employment (% of female, male and combined employed population who are self-employed) <i>WB World Development Indicators, 2012</i>	31.6	31.8	31.7
	Unpaid family workers amongst the self-employed (% of self-employed workers who are unpaid family workers) <i>Estimates by UN Women based on 2011 data from KAS</i>	2.5	2.4	2.5
	Informal employment (% of workers who do not contribute to a pension scheme and do not have an employment contract) <i>Rutkowski 2011, using 2009 figures</i>	N/A	N/A	33.2 ¹
	Unemployment rate (15+ years) (% of female, male and combined population aged 15+ years who are unemployed) <i>KAS, 2013</i>	6.5	4.1	5.3
	Public sector employment (% of workforce that is employed by government) <i>LFS (2010 data) via ILOSTAT</i>	13.8	9.5	23.3
	Child labour (% of girls & boys that are child labourers – i.e. those aged 5-17 working in contravention of ILO C138 or 182) <i>UNICEF database, 2012</i>	2.1	2.4	2.2
	Gender pay gap (Women's average monthly earnings as a % of men's) <i>KAS, 2013</i>	69.5		
	Firms with female participation in ownership (% of all firms) <i>WB World Development Indicators, 2013</i>	28.3		
Business	Bank account at formal financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) <i>WB Gender Statistics, 2011</i>	43.7	40.2	N/A
	Loans in the past year from a financial institution (% female and male population aged 15+) <i>WB Gender Statistics, 2011</i>	14.4	11.5	N/A
	Representation in national parliaments (% of seats in a lower chamber held by women/men) <i>KAS, 2012</i>	23.8	76.2	[100]
Government				

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