

Gender Assessment E-Mobility Program



Client	AFD
Version	03
Date	17/08/2022
Authors	Luz Caballero
Revision	Verena Arauz and Jürg Grütter
Contact	Rte. des Esserts 92, 1854 Leysin, Switzerland jgruetter@transport-ghg.com , www.transport-ghg.com

Index of Contents

ACRONYMS.....	3
INTRODUCTION.....	4
SECTION 1: GENDER ASSESSMENT BY COUNTRY.....	6
<i>Summary</i>	6
<i>Argentina</i>	8
<i>Brazil</i>	9
<i>Colombia</i>	10
<i>Costa Rica</i>	11
<i>The Dominican Republic</i>	12
<i>Mexico</i>	13
<i>Peru</i>	15
<i>Laws and Regulations on Economic Opportunities for women</i>	16
SECTION 2: OVERVIEW OF GENDER EQUALITY AND URBAN TRANSPORT LINKS IN THESE COUNTRIES	17
<i>Mobility in Urban Transport</i>	18
<i>Safety in Urban Transport</i>	22
<i>Jobs and Urban Transport</i>	25
<i>Women, Jobs and COVID-19</i>	27
GENDER CAPACITY IN AFD, PROPARCO AND GIZ.....	32
RECOMMENDATIONS	33
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	35

Acronyms

AFD French Development Agency

CAF Latin American Development Bank (former Corporación Andina de Fomento)

CEPAL Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe

EV Electric Vehicles

GBV Gender-Based Violence

GHG Green House Emissions

GIZ German Corporation for International Cooperation GmbH

IADB Inter-American Development Bank

ICRW International Center for Research on Women

IFC International Finance Corporation

ILO International Labor Organization

PISA Program for International Student Assessment

PMU Project Management Unit

TUMI Transformative Urban Mobility Initiative

UN United Nations

WB World Bank

WHO World Health Organization

Introduction

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

The role of the E-mobility and low carbon transportation multi-country facility to support innovation and implement measures to combat climate change from a gender perspective, to contribute to reducing the gender gap, and to prevent and minimize harm is three-folded: First, the transport sector is a catalyst to change social norms and this facility will do it in many ways, like by raising awareness on sexual harassment and violence against women and girls, by providing visibility to women working in non-traditional roles in the EV (electric vehicle) markets, and by considering the mobility of care when designing transport operations. Second, this new e-transport paradigm will lever women's access to jobs in traditionally sex-segregated occupations or improve access to investment loans for female entrepreneurs. Third, the capacity building, training, and sharing of know-how to women and men designing the investment plans in the program will systematize gender mainstreaming in the transport sector.

The E-mobility and low carbon transportation multi-country facility seeks to both directly and indirectly reduce Green House Gas (GHG) emissions from the transport sector in Latin America through electrifying intensively used vehicle fleets and generating structural changes in the sector that will lead to further EV adoption (and therefore higher GHG reductions and social co-benefits). The program is split in three components:

- Component 1: Establishment of a sustainable mobility ecosystem encouraging electrification and shift to public transport (TA)
- Component 2: Investive measures for PT mode shift (FA)
- Component 3: Deployment of EV fleets (FA)

This gender assessment provides information about gender equality and the empowerment of women as well as its links with the transport sector in the following countries: Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Mexico, and Peru. The assessment is organized into two sections that feed the recommendations that will design the proposed Gender Action Plan.

The first part covers data on relevant indicators to offer a snapshot of women's unique situation in each of the seven countries. The large amount of available data related to gender equality and women's empowerment prompted a selection of those indicators with available and updated data that were reliable across different sources. This section summarizes the most recent data and analyses found in ad hoc country studies on gender or data sources from reliable international entities. The indicators selected reveal gender gaps in education, labor force, and political participation and furnish data on maternal mortality, adolescent pregnancy, and gender-based violence. For this assessment, most data are the national average or referred to urban women. The unique multidimensional and overlapping inequalities of each country has been included slightly because of the complexity of an assessment for seven countries, and only when a particular report provided strong data. This section finishes with a sub-section that describe laws and regulation in each country that can foster or limit economic opportunities for women analyzing seven indicators: mobility, workplace, pay, marriage, parenthood, entrepreneurship, assets and pension.

The emphasis on displaying the most recent country data available derives from the current COVID-19 pandemic situation. The numbers are changing and proposing the most recent data will allow us to better know these countries' situation in terms of gender equality before the health crisis. Nevertheless, the first section begins with a small summary that offers available information about the pandemic's impact on the situation of women in the Latin American and the Caribbean region.

The second section presents initiatives and best practices carried out on these countries and the region on gender equality and urban transportation. Given the large huge number of initiatives on gender and urban transportation going on in these countries and in the region, this report is presenting best practices grouped by topic and activities to facilitate the reading. This second section is structured in three interrelated topics: mobility, safety, and jobs. After the sub-section about jobs, there is a specific subsection on the impact of the pandemic on women's employment, which has used the available data at the time of drafting the assessment.

Following, a third section describes the capacity of the AFD, PROPARCO and GIZ to implement, monitor and evaluate the gender actions proposed in the GAP

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

Section 1: Gender assessment by country

Summary

The last two decades brought significant advances for women in Latin American Countries. All of the countries in this program ratified the Convention Belem do Pará, whose main achievement was to incorporate specific legislation to include “femicide” as a specific aggravated crime. Since its ratification in 1994, countries have been advancing to prevent, sanction, and eradicate violence against women. In general, for the Latin American and the Caribbean region, Gender Based Violence (GBV) is endemic and underreported, and before 2006 no country in LAC established femicide as a crime, while by 2015 16 countries already did. Likewise, in many parts of the World, civil society has raised strongly against GBV and Argentina, Chile, México, Perú, and Uruguay have marched under the motto “Ni una menos” (Not one woman less).

The seven countries have included quotas of around 30 percent for political representation, and many countries have reached it at the national level yet at the local level, most lag behind. These countries have advanced enormously in maternal health, but inside every country, disparity persists geographically and by ethnic group or race. Parity in education is mostly reached in all countries at the primary and secondary levels, and in many cases, girls are outperforming boys; whereas in tertiary education attainment varies by country, and careers in STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Maths) remain predominantly masculine. Occupational segregation persists across countries and women’s careers concentrates in low paid jobs and informality, which moreover, have little and low benefits, resulting in lower earnings and well-being. Despite many laws, gender wage gaps persist across sectors and gender roles impede women’s access to better economic opportunities since domestic responsibilities are mostly in their hands.

Education in girls is affected by adolescent pregnancy, which is still high and despite the downward regional tendency in fertility rates, it is only exceeded by Sub-Saharan Africa. Marriage and sex are illegal for minors in all these countries, yet teenage pregnancies and minors living in union occur. Plans, strategies, and entities (Ministries or agencies) have been given more power or have been recently created. These entities are not funded enough to carry on, enforce, and follow up with all the gender equality agenda.

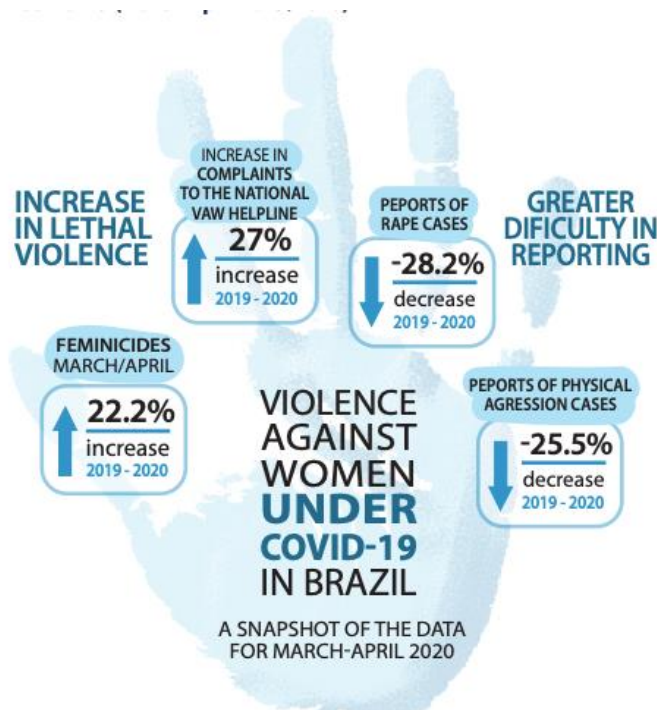
The outlook to both keeping the progress and continue reducing the gaps in gender equality is challenging after the COVID-19 pandemic. UN Women and other international organizations fear that recent gains in gender equality might be lost. The COVID-19 pandemic has worsened women’s situation and has aggravated differences amongst groups. In Brazil, the maternal death rate due to COVID-19 is twice as higher for black women than for white ones¹. Gender based violence has increased and women in lockdowns are living with their aggressor under the same roof and can’t access support networks. The figure 1 below shows how only in Brazil, from March to April 2020 compared to the same period in 2019, there has been an increase of 22 percent in femicides and a decrease of 28.2 percent in reporting cases of rape. Complaints increased 27 percent and reports for physical aggression cases decreased by 25.5 percent². In Colombia the calls to the domestic violence helpline increased by 91 percent, in Mexico by 36 percent, in Argentina by 25 percent (7 out of 10 murders happen at home). It is estimated that less than 40 percent of domestic violence survivors report it; adding to that, figures of actual gender-based violence

¹ UN Women 2020. From insight to action: Gender equality in the wake of Covid-19

² WB Ag 2020 Addressing Violence against women under COVID-19 in Brazil

are worse during COVID-19 because the fear of getting infected prevents women from seeking help in health services. Lack of critical resources and access to key reproductive and health services due to stay-at-home orders might have increased teenage pregnancies and maternal mortality. There is evidence that other forms of violence, such as sexual exploitation and abuse have increased in others health crises³. Many women have abandoned the labor market to lead their household's dynamics during the pandemic, with severe lockdowns in most countries in the region and schools and workplaces closed, while access to decent work has deteriorated for all. More information about the impact on women's jobs is included latter at the end of section two.

Figure 1. Snapshot of violence against women in Brazil during Covid-19 (March-April 2019/2020)⁴



Following, the report presents women's unique situation by country to allow the reader to understand the realities of women in each of the seven countries. As mentioned before, analyses from country gender profiles and ad hoc reports have been put together with the most up-to-date indicators found from reliable statistical data sources. It is not intended to be exhaustive, but given the number of countries and difficulties to compare them, this part of the report seeks to provide the panorama of each country presenting the same indicators to facilitate the organization of the information. To finish this section, there is analysis on the laws and regulations that limit or foster economic opportunities for women in these countries.

³ WB April 2020 Gender dimensions of the COVID-19 Pandemic

⁴ WB Ag 2020 Addressing Violence against women under COVID-19 in Brazil

Argentina⁵

Maternal mortality rate is low: 39 per 100.000 births in 2017 (CEPAL), and all Argentinian pregnancies received professional care.

13 percent was the adolescent pregnancy ratio⁶ in 2010. In 2015, adolescent pregnancy was 63 per 1,000 women. This rate can be related to the rate of young adults (1 of 5) who are not in employment, education and training, which almost 25 percent of them are women. (IADB 2015)

252 women died for gender reasons, 179 women of them died by their intimate partner in 2019 (0.8 per 100.000 women) (CEPAL). In 2016, 100.000 cases of gender-based violence were registered, where the perpetrator was mostly an intimate partner. Data is scarce, often underestimated and data collection presents challenges. Despite having various institutions collecting data, the protocols differ, variables are not harmonized, victims lack confidence and economic autonomy, mistrust the authorities or are unfamiliar with the processes. In its first two years of operation, the free phone line for women victims of gender-based violence received 60.000 calls (2013-2014) (WB 2018).

Parity is reached in elementary education enrollment and completion and girls slightly surpass boys in secondary enrollment (92 and 87 percent respectively in 2017), but non-indigenous women are four times more likely to finish secondary school than rural indigenous women. Argentinian girls drop out of secondary school rate is 30 percent, and their reasons are pregnancy, motherhood, or an intimate relationship, whereas only 15 percent left school to work (data from PISA 2012). In contrast, 42 percent of boys left school to work, and 24 percent reported they did not like school.

49 percent of women participate in the labor force, compared to 73 percent of men, and for younger adults (15-24), the rate drops to 30 and 45 percent, respectively. Women's domestic responsibilities and high teenage pregnancies contribute to the low integration of women into the Argentinian job market in terms of quantity and quality. Informality represents 30 percent of wages employees, and more than half of women (except in Patagonia) who have not completed secondary education are informal, a proportion that reaches 70 percent in the northern regions of the country (WB 2018). This undermines the acquisition of skills for the less educated people while women's high domestic responsibilities prevent their integration into labor force (IADB 2016).

39 seats are held by women in the national parliament in 2018 and the female rate for ministries is 17 percent. The previous 30 percent quota for women in candidate lists was increased to 50 percent in 2017.

⁵ Data come from "Argentina Group Country Strategy IADB 2016–2019", "Argentina: Escaping Crises, Sustaining Growth, Sharing Prosperity, Systematic Country Diagnostic", 2018 WB, and unless otherwise specified, from CEPAL and The Little Data Book on Gender 2019

⁶ Adolescent pregnancy rate: Total of young women, 15-19 years old, who declare to have had a living baby divided by the total number of women in the same age group, multiplied by 100 (CEPAL)

Brazil⁷

Likewise, in other countries in LAC the Brazilian poorest live in rural areas, but 60 percent of Brazilians poor are urban people. The larger group affected by poverty are Afro-descendants, and extreme poverty hits indigenous people most. Moreover, the multidimensional face of inequality in Brazil is female as well, since women female-headed households are overrepresented below the poverty line. Black women, feminists, lesbians, domestic workers, indigenous women and more women's groups have shaped the women's rights agenda from its many faces and priorities. This gender overview for Brazil comes almost entirely from the WB Snapshot of Brazil in 2016, which was marked by race and geography.

44 women die for 100,000 births in Brazil in 2017. In 2014, 65 percent of maternal deaths were Afro-Brazilian women and 30 percent were white. Almost all Brazilian women receive prenatal care, but access for afro-descendants and indigenous peoples is different than for white women. 75 percent of white women get seven or more prenatal visits compared to roughly 50 percent of afro-descendant women and 25 percent of indigenous peoples' women.

Adolescent pregnancy rate remains high despite the downward trend since the year 2000. In 2017, the rate was 62 births per 1000 women aged 15-19.

Femicide reached 1.941 women in 2019. Rate of violence against women by intimate partner in Brazil is 16.7, and 40 percent of Brazilian women report to have suffered physical, sexual or psychological gender-based violence. Indigenous women almost double non-indigenous gender-based violence average. Domestic and Family Violence's Law in Brazil, known as Maria da Penha's Law, is worldwide known for its comprehensiveness but lacks funding for both implementation mechanisms and enforcement at the sub-national level. Men suffer heavily gang violence and homicide in Brazil.

Parity is achieved in elementary and secondary education while women exceed men in tertiary education enrollment rates in 2017, with 59 percent and 43 percent respectively. Women expected years of schooling in Brazil for 2018 is 15.8, almost 10 years more than in the year 2000 (14.5) compared to 15.1 years for men. In contrast, when analyzing racial and geographic inequalities, 13-16 years old girls in the Southeast and South are more likely to attend school than girls in other regions (poorer), and white men are more likely to attend school than Afro-descendants. At tertiary level less than 50 percent of Afro-descendants attend school compared to whites. Same for women studying Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics in tertiary education who represent 36.6 percent graduates compared to 62.4 percent men.

Female labor participation hasn't changed much over the last decade and remains low (59 percent in 2014). Gender wage gaps are exacerbated by race and persist in most educated women. Afro-descendant women wages are less than half than white men's wages.

Female candidates increased 47 percent on the 2014 general election thanks to the 30 percent quota imposed. However, it didn't reflect in the Chamber of Deputies with 9.9 percent of women seats (compared to 8.8 seats secured in the previous 2010 election) and 13.6 percent female senators, which is below the average of 26 percent politicians in LAC parliaments. At the state level only 1 female governor

⁷ WB (2016) A Snapshot of Gender in Brazil Today Institutions, Outcomes, and a Closer Look at Racial and Geographic Differences. The most recent data come from the Little Data Book on Gender 2019

of a total of 27 was elected in 2014. The numbers drop from the previous election in regional parliaments and only 11.8 percent mayors are women.

Colombia⁸

Women's access to health services has brought numerous positive results in maternal health, but adolescent pregnancy rates' improvements are slow. Mothers' mortality at birth or during pregnancy have dropped from 118 per 100,000 births in 1990 to 94 in 2015. In 2015, 90 percent women had access to natal check-ups, and 96 percent of women had access to a skilled professional at delivery.

Teenage pregnancy ratio in 2018 was 11.8 percent. Increase in the use of contraceptives has caused adolescent pregnancy rates (15-19 years old) to fall from 80 birth per 1,000 women in 1990 to 50 in 2016. From 2000 to 2015 the percentage of women who reported having the final decision on their health to fell to their partner or someone else halved (from 12 to 6 percent). This last trend is more obvious among urban and educated women. However, limited women's agency⁹ causes that 20 percent of women refuse to use contraceptive methods. 18 percent of urban female teenagers and 29 percent of rural female teenagers, allege opposition of their partners or someone else. Despite sexual relations with minors is forbidden by law, between 2016 and 2017, the number of children born to girls aged between 10 and 14 years old increased 4 percentage points.

Gender based violence is endemic in Colombia. Data from 2015 shows that almost 48 percent of married women and 27 of women in union have reported physical and emotional violence by their partners. 27 percent reported having suffered physical violence while 18 percent reported being threatened with violence. 128 femicides were registered in 2016, a 12.3 percent more than in 2015. The economic cost of violence in general represents 11 percent of the economy (Londoño and Guerrero 1999)¹⁰ while the economic cost of domestic violence alone amounts to 4 percent of GDP (Rivero and Sánchez 2004)¹¹.

Girls' education enrollment and achievement have reached equality, and Colombian girls are doing better, but when it comes to secondary and tertiary girls' attendance features an adverse pattern. Both boys' and girls' education rates have improved over time; in secondary education 82 percent of girls compared to 76 percent of boys are enrolled. Whereas in tertiary education 63 percent of women are enrolled compared to 54 percent of men. However, patriarchal family dynamics, involvement in household responsibilities and social norms endanger Colombian girls' education as absenteeism and dropout out rates start appearing in secondary and tertiary education. Compared to boys, twice of girls aged 16-24 were not in education, training or employment in 2017.

Economic opportunities have grown for women but the economy of care falls disproportionally in their hands since 37 percent of urban women report to be engaged only in domestic tasks. In 2017, 57.7 percent of Colombian women participated in labor force (more than 18 years old) compared to 80.8 percent Colombian men. Moreover, when Colombian women find jobs, these are usually poorly paid and of low quality. Only one third of women contribute to a pension fund compared to more than fifty percent of men.

⁸ Data from WB June 2019, Colombia Gender Assessment

⁹ Agency is the capacity to make decisions about one's own life and act on them to achieve the desired outcome, free of violence, retribution, or fear.

¹⁰ Rivero, R., y Sánchez, F., (2005) Determinants, effects and costs of domestic violence. Documento CEDE Edición electrónica.

¹¹ Londoño, Juan Luis and Rodrigo Guerrero (1999). "Violencia en América Latina – Epidemiología y Costos." Inter-American Development Bank, Documento de Trabajo R-375

Colombian women's voices are heard in public spheres. The civil conflict affected women's rights and gender inequalities for decades. Colombian women have been actively involved in 2018's peace process highlighting and incorporating gender related issues in the discussions. The peace agreements have declined the likelihood of men suffering from violence, but the risk for women and girls remains high.

Legislation has advanced women's rights but enforcement is lagging behind in many. In politics, despite the 30 per cent quota in the candidate' list only 18 percent members of the parliament were women in 2018. Sex with minors is illegal, but in 2015, 5 percent of women were married before they turned 15 and 23 percent get married before turning 18.

Costa Rica¹²

27 mothers per 100.000 births died in 2019, since the year 2000 (74 deaths per 100.000) the rate is dropping but regional differences persist.

Adolescent pregnancy has been dropping in the last years, from 18.7 percent in 2010 to 12.5 percent births born from women below 19 years old of in 2019. Adolescent pregnancy is associated with the beginning of sexual relationships and despite being illegal, adolescent-adult sexual relationships occur. 56.9 percent of girls whose first sexual relationship happened when they were between 10 and 14 years old, report that their partners were 5 years older. Whereas 8.5 percent of men older than twenty years old report that their partners had between 5 and 10 years old less than them, which means that when sexual intercourses have occurred, they have incurred in a crime¹³. 74.5 percent of girls and teens who report living or having lived under some kind of conjugal bond do not attend school, compared to those who are not (17 percent)¹⁴. Moreover, 88.3 percent of the girls reporting living or have lived under conjugal link declares not to work and 57.3 percent reports working in not paid domestic work (UN Population Fund).

14 women died for gender reasons (femicides) in 2019 (0.6 percent per 100.000 women), 9 of which (0.4 percent per 100.000) were killed by their intimate partner or ex (CEPAL 2020). 57.7 per cent of women surveyed in 2004 were victims of at least one incident of gender-based violence sometime after they turned 16, whereas 24.2 percent reported more than 4 incidents. Older women, between 25 and 49 years old, reported higher rates (62 percent) and 48 percent reported being victims before turning 15 years old (ENVCM, Household Survey Costa Rica 2004).

Only around 50 percent of working age women are included in the Costa Rican labor force, which in 2019 was 54.1 percent. 76 percent of them work in low productivity sectors. The Latinobarómetro 2015 found that 43 percent of Costa Rica's citizens think that women should only work outside the household if their partner is not earning enough (Only 20 percent in Chile's citizens think the same). 32.7 percent of women in Costa Rica (29 percent is the average in LAC countries) don't have their own income compared to 10.5 percent of men. Besides, women spend more than double of their time in unpaid domestic work (33:38h per week vs 13:26h per week)¹⁵

¹² Unless otherwise specified, data come from Instituto Nacional de Estadística de Costa Rica (National Institute of Statistics), INEC 2020

¹³ The Penal Code in Costa Rica under its articles 156, 157, and 158, forbids expressly sexual intercourse with minors of 15 years old, despite victim's consent, and considers sexual relationships with girls under 13 years old a rape.

¹⁴ X Censo de Población y VI de Vivienda del año 2011-INEC (Population and Household Survey 2011, Costa Rica National Statistics Institute)

¹⁵ INEC 2017, Encuesta nacional del uso del tiempo (National survey on time use)

The education gender gap is closed and near all the population is literate. Girls school attendance is similar to boys in elementary and secondary school. While in tertiary education women's attendance rate is superior than men (60.7 percent vs 50 percent), this does not result in more women participating in productive careers or jobs¹⁶.

55.17 percent of ministries are held by women since 2018, and 45.6 percent of the seats in the congress are occupied by women. At the local level, 14.8 percent of majors and were women and 45.6 of city councilwomen in 2018. Costa Rica is one of the best performing countries in gender equality politics not only in the region but in the World.

The Dominican Republic

The poverty gender gap in the Dominican Republic is the largest in the region¹⁷. At the end of 2015, the poverty gap was 4.6 percentage points. In the case of women head of household, the poverty gap raises to 9.1 percentage points, and the highest gaps are for non-educated women (45.6%). People with Haitian origins have worse poverty indicators than the 20 percent poorest of the population; 4.8 percent of the country's population are Haitian women.

95 Dominican mothers died per 100.000 births in 2018 (92 in 2015), while the regional average is 74. Around 100 percent of Dominican women have access to prenatal care and skilled professionals at delivery. Still, the quality of pregnancy and delivery supervision seems to be the leading cause of the high mortality rate. The mortality rate for sexual and reproductive diseases (other than maternal deaths) was 50.25 per 100.000 in 2015.

Dominican Republic ranks first in adolescent pregnancy in the region: 93 birth per 1.000 women, while LAC average is 62, and the average fertility rate for the country is 2.3 children per woman (World Bank 2018). Low educated and poor teens are more affected (50.4 percent women with 1-4 years of education, and 35.1 percent of the lower quintile). Teen pregnancy is related to rape in childhood and teen ages: The probability of getting pregnant before 18 years old for women who have experienced intimate partner violence is 1.86 times higher than women who haven't had this experience. Early pregnancy's probability is 3.26 times higher for women whose abuse happened before or at 18 years old. Dominican women start sexual life early and often with older men, and for women who had two or more intimate partners only 37.8% used condoms in their last intercourse (2013). Around 67 percent of women use a modern contraception method (similar to the regional average in 2016).

148 Dominican Republic women died in 2019 victims of gender-based homicides (CEPAL) and the country ranks first in intimate femicides in the LAC region with 1.5 cases for 100.000 women (CEPAL). Intimate partner violence is related to controlling behaviors and drinking alcohol. 51.3 percent of women who suffered intimate partner violence reported that their partner got drunk regularly compared to 12.5 percent of women whose partner consumes moderately or never. Controlling behaviors produce similar data: 64 percent use 5 or 6 types of control, while only 8 percent don't use controlling behaviors. HIV and GBV are tightly related since prevalence is 2.6 times higher among women who have experienced violence compared to women who haven't (CONAVIHISIDA, 2014). Every day four women died due to HIV/AIDS,

¹⁶ World Economic Forum 2020 Global Gender Gap Report 2020

¹⁷ Unless, otherwise specified, data comes from IADB 2018 Desigualdades de Género en República Dominicana, 2018-2020

six times the regional average, while mobility situates the Dominican Republic the second in the Caribbean. In 2015 there was no gender gap in HIV/AIDS data.

Girls' enrollment rate equals boys for primary education at 93 percent in 2017 (85 and 84 percent respectively in the year 2000), and exceeds boy's (74 percent compared to 66 percent). The elementary completion rate is similar for both sexes, 94 percent of girls and 96 percent for boys. It exceeds slightly for girls in secondary education at 88 percent compared to 82 percent of boys completing secondary school. Women's graduation ratio almost doubled men's with 42 percent and 21 percent, respectively. (WB 2017)

Labor force participation hasn't grown much for women or men in the last two decades. In 2018, the female labor force participation rate was 57 percent women and 82 for men. Vulnerable employment continues being in the hands of women, who holds 57 percent of all vulnerable employment (39 percent is for men's)

Women have doubled their presence in the public sphere in the last years: 27 percent of women occupy the parliament in 2017 (16 in the year 2000). A similar figure, 28 percent of women, have been elected in local government bodies. The female share of women's employment in senior and middle management is 50 percent of the total, compares to 37 percent in 2000. Twenty-three firms have a top female manager and 70 firms have female participation in ownership.

Mexico¹⁸

Poverty in Mexico is feminine, indigenous and rural. Mexico ranks 1st in indigenous people population. 17 percent of population lives in four states with the higher level of indigenous peoples (Chiapas, Oaxaca, Guerrero, and Veracruz) and accounts for 37.5 percent of the population living in poverty (IADB, 2019). For the purpose of this assessment, differences within Regions won't be included and data will include the country's average.

Women access to maternal health has improved in the last decade. Maternal deaths have decreased from 86 deaths per 100,000 live births in 1995 to 38 in 2015. Mexico's social inequalities produces different levels of access to maternal care, being the rural, poor and indigenous women those with lower access. Maternal mortality rates for indigenous women doubles those of non-indigenous women.

Adolescent pregnancy rate remains high. Fertility rate has been decreasing from 157 births per 100,000 adolescents in 1957 to 74 births per 100,000 adolescents in 2015. Knowledge of contraceptive methods is high in teenage girls, compared to adult women. 18 percent of teenage girls who did not used contraceptive methods reported they wanted to get pregnant. Contraceptive use is low on average, but there are differences by regions and by level of education. 14.6 percent of women without education did not know any method compared 0.6 percent with completed secondary. Studies show that teenage pregnancy's impact on girls reduces in 0.8 years school attainment in the short run and they have one year less of education in the long run.

¹⁸ Unless otherwise specified the analysis comes from WB (April 2019) Mexico Gender Assessment and IADB (Nov 2019) Mexico Group Country Strategy 2019-2024

Urgent action needs to be taken to prevent gender-based violence: seven Mexican women per day were killed in 2016¹⁹. In absolute numbers 983 died in 2019 (1.5 per 100.000 women) (CEPAL 2019). Likewise, in other countries in the region advances in legislation haven't been translated into enforcement to protect women. In the case of Mexico, men and women's homicides have followed the same pattern since they started to rise after 2007 war on drug cartels. Since homicides on men are higher Mexico's gender-based violence is overlooked and women don't seek for help probably because of the social acceptability of gender-based violence. Mexican women older than 15 have experienced at least one violent incident (66 percent), intimate partner violence (44 percent), and sexual violence in public spaces (34 percent). Despite intimate partner violence is the most common in Mexico, violence from aggressors' others than intimate partners is increasing.

Prevalence in diabetes in women is related to the rates in female obesity, especially in urban areas. 7 out of 10 Mexican women above 18 years old are considered overweight, and 33 percent of them are obese compared to 24 percent of men. There is evidence of gender discrimination against obese women and a study highlighted that the probability of being called back after an interview is low for obese women compared to men. The low call back rate affects dark-skinned and married woman as well.

Education gender gaps are closed, less girls than boys are out of school but the gap is reversing for boys. On average, Mexican women have 9 years of education compared to 9.3 for men. In 2016, 92 percent of girls graduated from secondary education compared to 86 percent of boys, whereas 28 percent of female students completed tertiary compared to 23 percent of men. Women's enrollment in college for 2017/18 represented 50.3 percent, 55.2 percent of graduates, and 48.8 percent of graduates' in PhD. However, data differs across regions with high risks of girls drops out in some regions such as in Chiapas where girls have almost one year less of education than men. Primary and secondary attainment gap is closed, but at the tertiary level women's attainment is lower than men.

Female and youth labor force participation is low and the care economy is in women's hands. Women's labor force participation in Mexico, 45.5 percent, and there is a gender gap in income of 16.5 percent. In terms of per capita GDP, Mexico is the 5th wealthiest country but according to IDB's Better Jobs Index Mexico ranks 13 out of 17 countries in the region. The gender gaps in labor participation are due to: (i) a greater likelihood of career interruptions, (ii) occupational and sector-based segregation, gender preferences (and/or limitations) in the case of longer or shorter remunerated working hours, (iii) employer discrimination, and (iv) women's responsibilities in the household, which limit the time dedicated to remunerated work. Mexican women do 77 percent of housework and spend six hours daily compared to two of men in unpaid housework. 30 percent of employees in Mexico work 40 hours per week, which constitutes a barrier for women seeking a paid job. Lack of reliable childcare is another barrier for women seeking a job.

Women's public representation almost reach parity at federal level and ranks the 4th country on the world with most women in parliament, but numbers remain low at local levels. A quota requires 50 percent of women on candidate list in elections for national and state congress as well as municipal councils. In 2018²⁰, 48.2 percent of deputies of the federal parliament and 49.2 percent of senators are women.

¹⁹ ONU Mujeres/ SEGOB/ INMUJERES (2017). The long road to justice, prosecuting femicide in Mexico

²⁰ Observatorio de la participación política de las mujeres en Mexico
<https://observatorio.inmujeres.gob.mx/mvc/view/public/index.html?ms=MzE=>

Peru²¹

69 women die during pregnancy or 42 days after delivery in Peru (PAHO, 2017). Maternal mortality is now similar to the regional average (74). All pregnancies receive follow up care in Peru and almost all deliveries (94 percent) are attended by professional staff. Data for rural, mostly indigenous people women, are worse. However, the Government have many policies including and respecting indigenous people's preferences in order to increase maternal care access among this group.

48.5 births occurred over 1000 women age 15-19 in Peru (WB 2018). That represents around 10 percent of adolescent girls in Peru (Cepal 2017). Even though is lower than the regional average, it differs among groups; the poorest quintile had 24.5 percent of teen pregnancies while rural women reached 22.5 (compared to 10.8 percent in urban areas) in 2015.

128 women died in femicides in 2019 which represents a 0.8 per 100,000 women, 98 are perpetrated by intimate partners or ex-partners (0.6 per 100,000 women) (CEPAL 2019). It shows a decreasing tendency over the last ten years, together with a decreasing tendency in intimate partner violence. In 2016 a 64 percent of victims were between 18-34 years and half of the cases occurred inside the house (between 2009-2016) (Instituto Nacional de Estadística del Perú). In 2014, 70.8 percent of women reported having suffered violence from their husband or partner, mostly being psychological (67.4 percent), 32 percent physical and 7.9 percent sexual violence. Even though reporting has increased, most victims don't search assistance because they don't trust the institutions and social barriers impede them to leave abusive relationships. (WB 2018)

Parity is reached in primary and secondary education enrollment, although women in the poorest quintile are less likely to enroll in secondary education. Completion is higher for girls who outperform boys in Peru. The gross tertiary graduation ratio is 61 for women and 43 for men, this gap has been increasing since 2017 at the advantage of women (WB 2018)

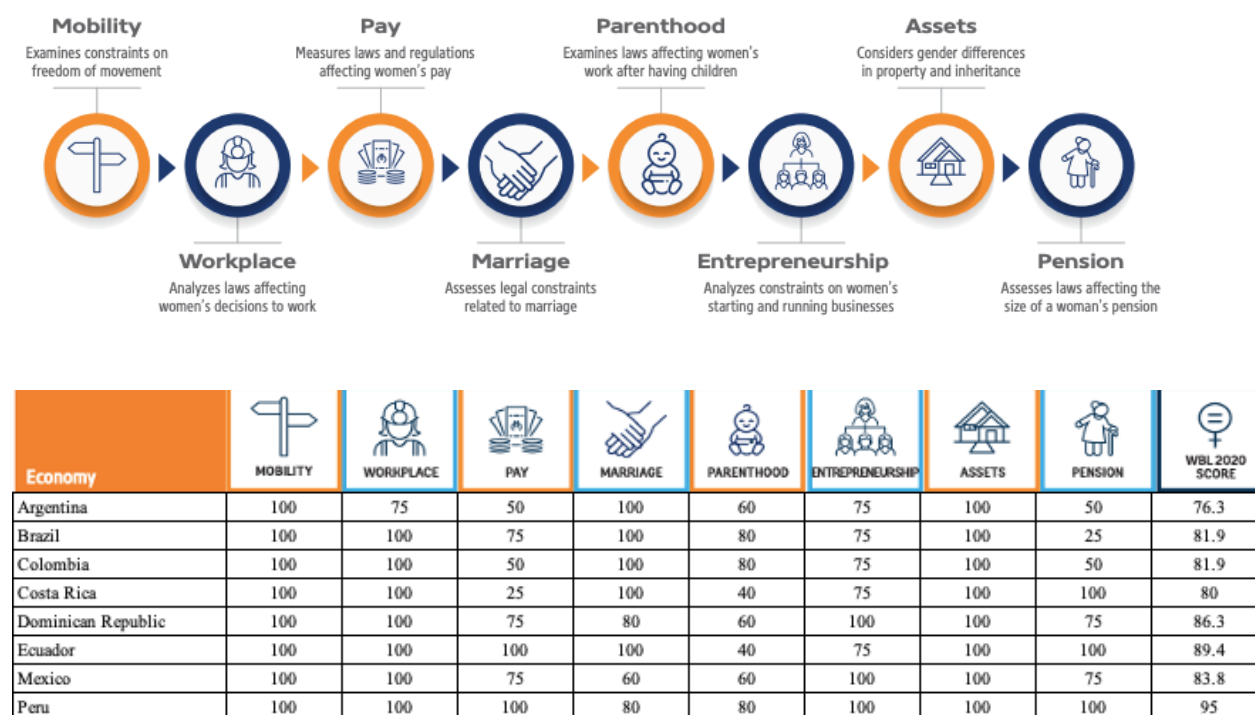
Female labor force participation rate was 70 percent for women and 85 percent for men in 2018 (Little data book on gender 2019). Larger gaps in labor force participation are found in married women, or women with kids, afro-Peruvian women and indigenous people women. Peru's ranks among high in female labor force participation in the region. Between 1993 and 2007 out of the total increase in the women's employment rate, 27 percent can be attributed to the drop in Peruvian's women fertility rates, which went from 3 births per woman in 1996 to less than 2.5 in 2015. However, over twice as many women (23.6 percent) in the group 15-29 years old are neither working or studying (ni-nis) compared to men, but the share is lower than the regional average. This share seems related to gender roles and the use of the time.

26.2 percent of women are represented in the Low Chamber (Cepal 2019). The 30 percent gender quota was established in 1997 and in 2017 women occupied 31.6 percent of ministries and 37 in 2019, although most occupy ministries in social areas. Only 2.9 % of mayors are women, this percentage has not changed in Peru since 1998 and is low compared to the regional average. The national political fragmentation impacts the local government which many don't have representation from the larger political parties, and is likely responsible of the lack of trust by the population in institutions.

²¹ Data come from "Gender Gaps in Peru" WB 2018, CEPAL and the Little Data Book on Gender 2019

Laws and Regulations on Economic Opportunities for women

Countries have laws and regulations that foster or impede women's access to economic opportunities. The report "Women, Business and the Law 2020" illustrates with seven indicators the legal differences between men and women as they transition through different stages of working life²². The table below collects the scores of our seven countries in LAC. A score of 100 means that there are no legal constraints on women's freedom in a particular indicator, whereas a score less than 100 indicates at least one legal constraint. Norms and practices are not captured by the indicators; only laws and regulations are considered.



The table reveals that in the 7 Program countries, women do not have legal constraints for movement. The mobility indicator is based on four questions: Can a woman choose where to live in the same way as a man? Can a woman travel outside her home in the same way as a man? Can a woman apply for a passport in the same way as a man? Can a woman travel outside the country in the same way as a man? Laws and regulations in property and inheritance are not discriminative for women in any of these countries either.

The best score as a country is for Peru, with the only restrictive laws are in marriage and parenthood, while the worse score is for Argentina. In Argentina, a law states that women are not allowed to work at night (not applicable to nurses, domestic workers and public shows) neither are allowed to work in cleaning of moving machinery, nor can they be an engine driver stoker. The former is in line with the differential in the pay indicator: women in Argentina cannot work in specific tasks (deemed dangerous) thus, they can be excluded from some higher paid jobs. Similarly, in Costa Rica, laws do not mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value and women are not allowed to work in jobs deemed hazardous,

²² Women, Business and the Law 2020, WB. All the data elaborated in this section comes from each country's analysis for 2020.

arduous or morally inappropriate, which affect its score in “pay”, which is the lowest of the seven countries.

Equal wages and equal rights to a pension (such as retirement or childcare that accounts for pension benefits) are only protected in Costa Rica, and Peru. Whereas, in Brazil, the country with the lowest score, women are not legally allowed to retire with full or partial pension benefits as men, and the mandatory retirement age is different (65 for women and 70 for men). Parenthood laws in Costa Rica are worse than in the other countries. In Costa Rica, parental leave is not paid, there is no paid leave to fathers and the government doesn’t administer 100% of maternity leave benefits.

Analyzing entrepreneurship, Argentina, Brazil, and Colombia do not have laws that expressly prohibit discrimination in access to credit based on gender. Whereas in the other countries discrimination against women is prohibited explicitly in the credit or financial institutions’ laws or general laws like those on Equality of men and women (ex: Mexico).

Most gaps in education (enrolment and attainment) in the seven countries have been closed, but it has not translated into more and better economic opportunities for women. In Colombia, estimates on the potential economic losses over the long term due to gender gaps in the labor market amount to 17.6 percent in gross income per capita. In education, not only women outnumber men, but their skills and preparation are now as high as those of men, if not higher²³. Colombia’s population is aging, as in many countries in LAC region, and to keep with the economic growth, the untapped potential of unemployed and inactive women should be considered. Adequate investing in women’s human capital can increase women’s productivity as well. The former will be particularly important after the COVID-19 pandemic, as we will see later, because women have stepped back and have taken over the care economy, leaving behind the pursue of a career.

Section 2: Overview of Gender Equality and Urban Transport links in these countries

According to UN Habitat, two-thirds of the population will be living in cities by 2050 (UN Habitat, 2018). Together with pollution, overcrowding, lack of modal integration, are some of the problems that the increase of urban population is exacerbating. 46.2% of surveyed people in Peru responded that Transportation is the second most important problem affecting their quality of life (first is insecurity) (IADB, 2019). As this report revealed at the end of section one, women from these countries do not have limitations of mobility in the legal structures, but when we look at their agency freedom of movements differ. Agency in mobility is the ability to make and act upon decisions related to one’s mobility and make full use of public transport systems (WB, 2020). Lack of access to transportation and safety issues limits women’s participation in the labor market and reduces their participation in the economy by 16.5 percent²⁴. Women turn away working opportunities depending on the traveling conditions to the work station (time spent, return timing, expenses). Besides providing access to education, health and jobs, the sector generates jobs itself but traditionally most opportunities are likely to remain in men’s hands. Hence, when we use gender lens to analyze urban transportation, we discover that the conditions, priorities, roles and beliefs about urban transport infrastructure and services vary between women and men and, consequently, decisions about mobility are constrains. The lack of certain safety features in the design of the transport system can constrain a woman’s decision to choose a certain mode of

²³ WB 2018 Colombia Gender Assessment

²⁴ ILO 2017 World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends for women 2017.

transportation, sometimes in ways that are inoculate to men, such as dark bus stops or overcrowded buses. When it comes to the design of the transport infrastructures, the realities of women, minorities, the elderly and people with disabilities are many times alike and need be taken into account when designing a transport operation. When they serve women, they are adequate for the overall population and enhances quality of the system.

As we see, there is a myriad of links between gender and urban transportation, and these links have been intensely studied in the last years. There are gender differences in the purpose, time, mode of transportation, or perceptions on safety, that affect women's mobility agency and access to economic opportunities, and the characteristics comprised in this section are common to the countries in the region. For the purpose of organizing the information the initiatives are grouped in three dimensions that are interrelated: (i) mobility, (ii) safety, and (iii) jobs. Each dimension reveals the unique situation for these countries and groups activities and best practices; initiatives for other countries in the Latin America and the Caribbean region are included occasionally. The first sub-section about mobility patterns includes an analysis of gender-segregated ride-hailing. Whereas, the third sub-section on jobs, covers the impact of the pandemic on women's and men's jobs.

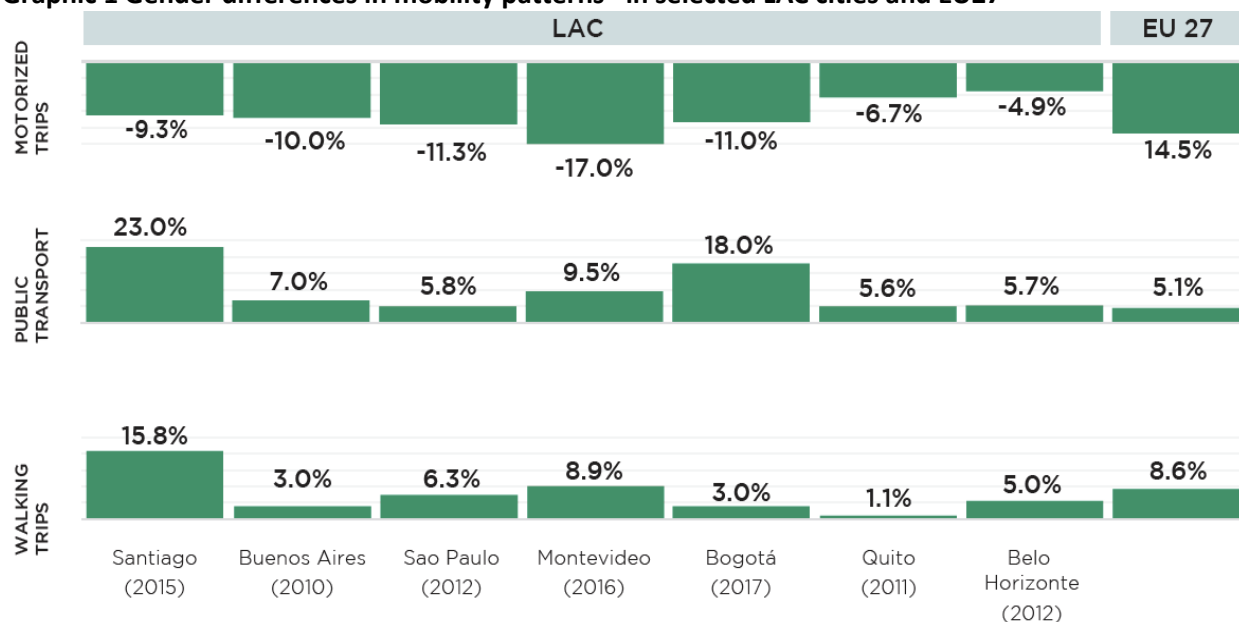
Mobility in Urban Transport

Female urban transport ridership characteristics differ from that of men. Most women are captives of public transportation because either they don't own a private vehicle or they don't have the means to use one (gas, insurance). For long distances, they become dependents on public transportation (AFD 2015). Women rely more on public transportation than men, especially buses; women chain different destinations in a single trip (Ex: drop kids at school, buy food, visit relatives in need, or get to work), and many times they travel off-peak hours. They are often accompanied by others (Ex: children, elderly) and carry bags. Their commuter times are often longer and more expensive. This is because women combine multiple wage jobs and care responsibilities (family errands, care for the elderly, the ill, the kids, and their community) in one trip. Sometimes, the nature of the wage work (Ex. As part-time nannies, providers of cleaning services) requires getting on and off in multiple destinations, and when multimodal fare is not in place, they have to buy a new ticket every time, or just walk more. If there is not public transportation available, they just walk or decide not to travel. Women in these countries, use occasionally official taxis when traveling with heavy bags or children, but most times they use informal taxis or taxi-buses ("colectivos" in Buenos Aires and Lima) which have a number of benefits for women: they fill route gaps, their price is shared by passengers, they provide comfort and, reduce stress from the trip. Some taxi drivers discriminate against women with bags, and some cities have subsidies to reduce taxis' fare for certain passengers (women, students, or elderly). In Lima, women who live in the high hills feel discriminated by moto-taxi drivers when asked to pay higher fares. Ride hailing is being frequently used by women and sometimes it brings cheaper fares to women (WB 2020)

The graph 1 below shows the differences in percentage female-male of their mobility patterns (motorized trips, public transportation, and walking trips) in seven LAC countries compared to the EU27. Common mobility patterns are found in the region and they are similar to developed countries in the EU for women: Women do more trips by foot than men, they use more public transportation and they do less motorized trips compare to men. However, when women are in higher income groups, they show similar mobility patterns than men, especially when they can buy a private car. Women are more susceptible of a modal change to individual modes of transportation if perceived safer, or they can choose not to travel if

perceived unsafe. Additionally, women can transfer their fears and perceptions of public transportation to other generations (CAF 2018)

Graphic 1 Gender differences in mobility patterns* in selected LAC cities and EU27²⁵



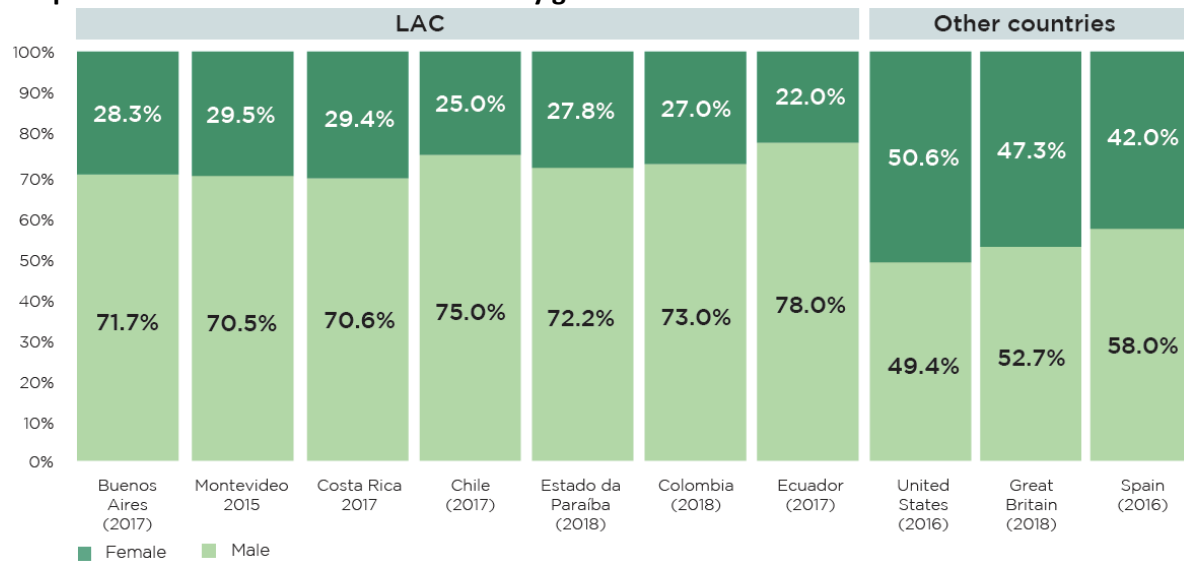
Note: *Differences in percentages (female - male)

The growth of motorization rates in the LAC region and its negative consequences on public transportation have a direct impact on women's mobility. Women use significantly more public transportation and walk more, whereas men drive more cars. This is observed in the distribution of drivers' licenses by gender, where female drivers' licenses represent merely 30 percent of the total licenses in the region. In contrast, some developed countries are in the process of closing or have closed the gender gap among drivers²⁶. In Costa Rica, driving licenses for men double those of women, but when we analyze the type of license the gender gap is even bigger for productive activities. Only 10 percent are authorized bus drivers, and between 7 and 12 percent of taxi concessions of airports and regular taxis are owned by women (it might not reflect women taxi drivers, only ownership)²⁷.

²⁵ Stylized Urban Transportation Facts in Latin America and the Caribbean, Technical Note N ° IDB-TN-1640, IADB 2019

²⁶ Stylized Urban Transportation Facts in Latin America and the Caribbean, Technical Note N ° IDB-TN-1640, IADB 2019

²⁷ COSEVI 2020, (Consejo de Seguridad Vial de Costa Rica)

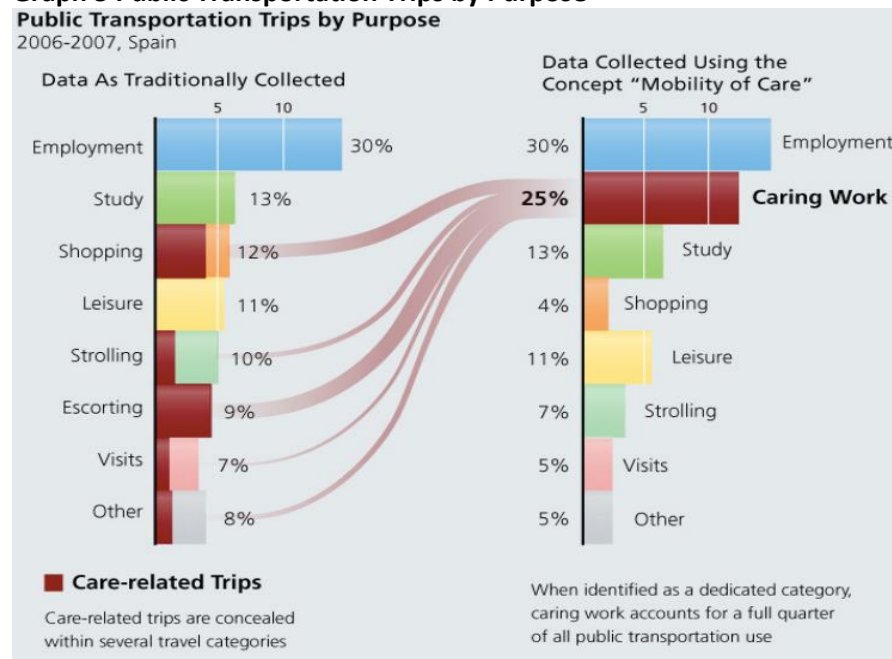
Graphic 2 Distribution of driver's licenses by gender in LAC and selected countries²⁸

The mobility of care²⁹ is unnoticed by data collection methods. For the purpose of designing and calculating ridership, data collection methods focus traditionally in one trip pattern (Ex: travel to and from work or to and from study) while the mobility related to care responsibilities is overlooked because it is fractured in multitude purposes and fall in different categories (Ex: shopping, or escorting). The graph 1 below, visualize the traditional way on the left and the new concept which groups trips for activities related to care on the right (maintenance of the household and care for others). The number of trips for care work and those for paid work are similar for this example's data. Traditionally, surveys have undervalued the "reproductive" trips, considering only the "productive" trips for the design of transport systems. This gender bias underestimates others ridership than commuting, and a poor urban transport design has negative consequences for the agency of women.

²⁸ Stylized Urban Transportation Facts in Latin America and the Caribbean, Technical Note N ° IDB-TN-1640, IADB 2019

²⁹ Inés Sánchez de Madariaga <https://unhabitat.org/mobility-of-care-ines-sanchez-de-madariaga>

Graph 3 Public Transportation Trips by Purpose³⁰



To give visibility to mobility patterns, the IADB has a Client Map Methodology³¹ which breaks into 12 segments a trip's experience in Bogotá, Santiago and Medellín. Then different profiles of riders (women, elderly, people with disabilities) are assessed and the results help to design better urban transport.

Fare schemes can foster women's use of public transportation. Women have more price sensitivity than men because of their unique mobility pattern (chain trips, with family members, off-peak hours) and the poor suffer the most with unregulated tariffs (CAF 2020). Urban transportation must promote a fare structure that subsidize short trips or propose an integrated fare system. Women's value of time differs from men's as they plan their trips to accommodate a busy agenda of care activities and are very concerned about the time of their return home, so besides safety, waiting time and fare are key to their decisions. Further, because most women's trips are not related to income generating activities, women might give up convenient modes of transportation and walk to save money³². Buenos Aires decided to increase transport tariff in 2016 and la Defensoría del Pueblo³³ (Office of the Ombudsman) received considerable claims from vulnerable riders, which 90 percent are women with small kids, and specifically domestic workers.

Ride-hailing has become an alternative for women to increase their urban mobility in safer conditions than other modes. The main characteristics of ride-hailing, many times match women's unique needs. Its on-demand services are convenient for women's off-peak mobility, the service can cover gaps in public transportation given that public transportation mostly covers masculine trips (from home to work/study centers), and women's perception of security augments when ride-hailing at night, especially when the

³⁰ Sanchez de Madariaga research 2009, 2010, 2013a, 2013b, Image by Eric Steiner
<https://genderedinnovations.stanford.edu/case-studies/transportation.html#tabs-2>

³¹ Mapas de Experiencia de Viaje para medir la accesibilidad del transporte público, IADB 2011

³² Approaches for gender responsive urban Transport Mobility, 2018 GIZ, TUMI, SUTP

³³ The Defensoría del Pueblo was created in the city of Buenos Aires to protect human rights from administration or public services actions or omissions. Its work on gender and its Observatorio de Género were promoted by the movement "Ni una menos".

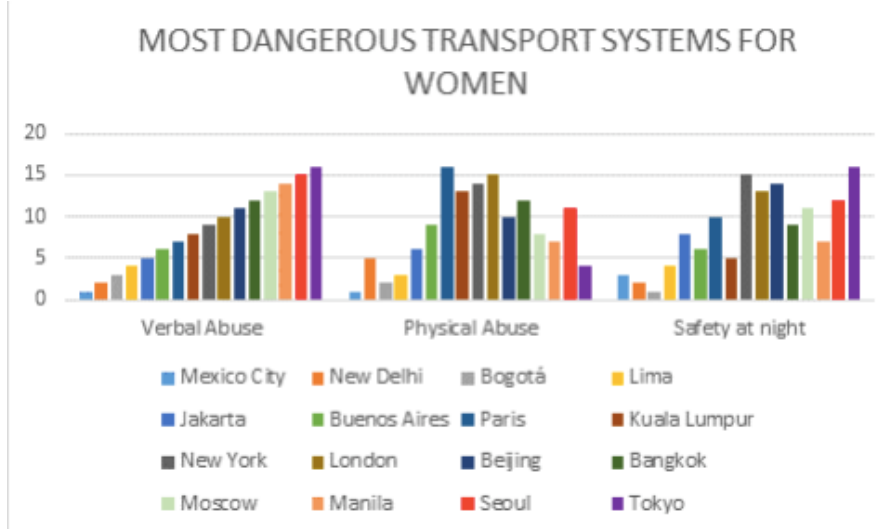
supplier of the services has an app with safety features to monitor and share the ride and to know about the driver's reputation.

Gender-segregated ride-hailing benefits female passengers and drivers. Safety and security are the most limiting, or facilitating, factor for female's agency in mobility and access to jobs. In 2018, a survey carried out in 6 countries (Mexico being one of them) for the IFC³⁴ found that 20 percent of women riders reported that the lack of women drivers reduces the trip they would make, whereas 44 percent said that they would be more likely to use a ride-hailing service if they could select a woman as driver. Ride-hailing is an alternative for women when there are gaps in the public transport system since women's trips are chained, because it has become a safer mode of transportation thanks to technology. At Uber Brazil, more than half of women started driving more when gender segregated transport was offered, which manifests how women can get jobs as drivers in taxis when they perceive a safe environment at work.

Safety in Urban Transport

Six out of 10 women reported to have been harassed in public transportation in Latin American countries. In 2014, a survey³⁵ in 15 out of the 20 largest cities in the World, asked 6550 women and experts in urban planning, about their perceptions when traveling in public transportation. Women's perceptions were collected around the following concepts: How safe women felt travelling alone at night, the risk of being verbally or physically harassed, the likelihood that other passengers would come to their assistance, the trust that authorities would investigate reports of harassment or violence, and the availability of safe public transport. The graph 4 below reveals the ranking of the most dangerous transport systems for women found by this study:

Graph 4 The Most Dangerous Transport Systems for Women³⁶



³⁴ Driving Toward Equality: Women, Ride-Hailing, and the Sharing Economy, IFC 2018

³⁵ The survey was carried out by YouGov and The Thomson Reuters Foundation. Not all the cities in the world were surveyed, so the results ranked the cities surveyed. <https://news.trust.org/spotlight/most-dangerous-transport-systems-for-women/>

³⁶ Observatorio de la participación política de las mujeres en México [https://observatorio.inmujeres.gob.mx/mvc/view/public/index.html?ms=MzE=Violence against women&girls resource guide](https://observatorio.inmujeres.gob.mx/mvc/view/public/index.html?ms=MzE=Violence%20against%20women&girls%20resource%20guide). Transport Brief, WB et al.(Oct 2015)

Bogota, the world's 16th largest capital, was ranked as the most unsafe city for women to travel alone at night. More than six out of 10 women in Mexico City, 64 percent, polled online by YouGov said they had been groped or experienced physical harassment on public transport. Lima ranked 3rd capital perceived as dangerous by women riders, and Buenos Aires came as 6th. The 2018 study "Ella se mueve segura" ("she's moving safely") from CAF presented results of a survey carried out to women in different transport systems of Latin América. In Guadalajara 62 percent of women reported being afraid of suffering a sexual attack, and 60 percent and 64 percent of women reported being victims of sexual harassment in Lima and Bogota, respectively. Most of these events are not reported to authorities nor shared with relatives or friends, and many times happens traveling from and to the transport systems³⁷. In Costa Rica, 80 percent of women report being victims of violent situation in public spaces³⁸.

Perception of transport systems safety shapes women's agency in mobility in such a way that they rather pay higher fares and spend longer journeys than face exposure to risks. In Rio de Janeiro, minivans are more expensive, their trips are more delayed and queues are longer than trains for long distance commutes. Nonetheless, young women choose to travel in minivans because they feel protected from harassment thanks to the seats for passengers that minivans have installed³⁹.

Adequate urban transport infrastructure can boost women's participation in the sector, both as passengers and providers. Good lighting and vigilance cameras can transform women's perception of safety and discourage perpetrators from committing crimes. Both simple solutions prevent crimes, not only crimes against women. Cameras are common in subways and intermodal and main stations, and recently they are installed in buses to protect both passengers and drivers. Installation, operation, and maintenance are costly and can't detect harassments, only aggressions. Combining safety agents and cameras is the most effective solution⁴⁰. Since 2014, Buenos Aires installed cameras and GPS in public transportation units to monitor traffic registered inside and outside the bus. These kinds of tools can potentially be used for safety as well⁴¹. Particularly at dawn and dusk, isolated bus stops, empty or too crowded buses, poorly lighted park-and-ride lots represent stressful settings for women that limit their mobility agency. The surroundings of the transport infrastructure play a role in creating traveling stress for women (IFC, 2020). Further, measures easy to implement, such as allowing women to get off the bus between bus stops at night. These random bus stop locations might be better lit or be closer to women's destinations, which can radically change their perception of safety at night. In Montreal and Toronto (Canada) these stops are permitted (CAF 2020).

Women adopt specific strategies, which can work or not, but make women feel safer in the public transport system. Sexual harassment in public transport includes leering, winking, offensive gestures, unwanted touching, groping, pressing against the body, indecent exposure, and sexual assault (WBG, IADB, ICRW, 2015). Women change clothing, take long detours to avoid unsafe places, avoid boarding crowded buses or stay near the walls, and even carry non-lethal weapons. They feel safer when traveling in a group, during off-peak hours, in well-known and familiar environments and when they develop friendly relationships with drivers. In Manizales (Colombia), a medium-sized city where trips usually need only one mode of transportation, 73 percent of women have suffered at least one incident of harassment, sexual violence, or street abuse, and 47 percent changed their routines because of them. These women

³⁷ Ella se mueve segura. Un estudio sobre la seguridad personal en las mujeres, CAF & Fia Foundation. (2018)

³⁸ Sexual and Reproductive Health Survey 2016 Costa Rica (2016).

³⁹ WB 2020, Why does she move?

⁴⁰ CAF 2020, Ella se mueve segura.

⁴¹ IADB May 2020, Género y Transporte, Buenos Aires. Transport Gender Lab

chose longer and safer routes changed transport modes (to taxi or motorcycle) and changed the way they dress, travel with others, or select a determined seat in the bus⁴².

Campaigns to raise awareness about harassment together with safety protocols to report abuses can protect women and reduce incidents. Sex-segregation in massive urban transport is a temporary measure that increases mobility and protects women from harassment. Women-only buses or carriages on trains have been operating for decades in many cities worldwide (Brazil, Mexico, Japan, India, Indonesia, Nepal, United Arab Emirates, Nepal, Thailand) and have received praises and critics. Women feel safer when using exclusive spaces, but segregating women does not solve the problem. Moreover, women passengers on non-segregated modes are perceived as open to sexual advances, despite the fact that the initiative reduces incidences (WB, 2019). In 2008, Mexico DF launched Viajemos Seguras (“Let’s we women travel safe”) sex-segregating units in its transport system and was implemented in other estates later. But the program did more than that, it located booths in transport stations to file complaints, transportation staff received training on violence against women and girls, vehicles and stations displayed prevention campaigns, and bus systems and trains had women only cars. In 2015, Mexico DF responded to women’s groups claims and implemented a more ambitious program, which installed emergency buttons in 90 percent of the Atenea buses (drivers can make a silence alarm call to an operative) and 271 buses had cameras installed.

Mobile applications facilitate women protection and contribute to gathering data, which supply information to design safer transport infrastructure and raise awareness on harassment. Digital technology helps women track and share their location with family and friends. Ride hailing companies have developed applications for passengers to share additional information on their trip and identify both the driver and the car’s plates. Passengers can leave comments after their journey and quantify a driver’s professionalism, cleanliness of the vehicle, and quality of their trip. In Brazil, “Chega de FiuFiu” (Enough whistling) is an initiative created by an NGO to geo-localize and foster reporting of harassment. The video documented the women’s regular interaction when walking and using public transportation to raise awareness of the harassment that women suffer routinely. In 2018, Bogota under the “Me nuevo Segura” study, adapted the Indian application Safetipin to measure the index of safety perception at night of different routes and places by women. Safetipin is based on nine variables to obtain a safety score: Level of lighting, Openness (sightlines), Visibility (overhanging trees, high walls etc), Level of crowding or emptiness, Security (agents), Walk/ footpath, Availability of public transport, Usage of the public space (for instance is it male-dominated or mixed) and, Feeling/ emotional response to the space (sometimes also called “eyes on the street”). While analyzing personal data of respondents, sixty-five percent of the study participants were below 35 years old and 78 percent work or study, and 50 percent finished tertiary education⁴³. Age, sex, education, and poverty are variables to consider when implementing technology to protect women in public transport since affordability (costs of telephones or internet) and user knowledge can be barriers for many women⁴⁴, especially the poorest.

The transport sector can serve as a catalyst to teach women their rights. The Via Lilas⁴⁵ program was launched in 2015 in Rio de Janeiro as part of the implementation of the Maria da Penha’s law on gender-based violence. Electronic kiosks, “totens” were installed in the Supervia Rio’s suburban rail lines, which

⁴² IADB mobiliblog (Ag 2020): Violencia de género: enemiga de la movilidad sostenible

⁴³ CAF, TUMI, Bogota, 2019 “Me Nuevo Segura” Mediciones nocturnas en materia de seguridad para las mujeres

⁴⁴ IADB 2020, ¿Desigualdades en el mundo digital?: Brechas de género en el uso de las TIC. Washington, D.C

⁴⁵ WB 2015. Vías Lilas <https://blogs.worldbank.org/transport/rio-lilas-initiative-using-transport-infrastructure-help-reduce-gender-based-violence>

serve around 700,000 daily users. Anonymously, women seek data on the health network, women's rights laws, and gender-based violence protocols.

Sensibilization and prevention campaigns on Gender-Based Violence can equip public transport workers with tools to understand it. In the Dominican Republic, a gender-based violence campaign delivered workshops to drivers' trade unions working in buses and "motoconchistas" (drivers of private cars that operate as public transport). The workshops included topics such as new masculinities and gender-based violence in the domestic spaces and with passengers in the transport environment. (IADB Gender Lab, 2019)

Feedback and grievance mechanisms located in the transport systems help women and girls to inform authorities when they are victims of violence. Capacity building and coordination among different bodies (police, judiciary system, staff) is essential to provide useful and appropriate assistance to victims. Often, survivors of abuse perceive authorities in charge of taking care of them as lacking credibility (WB 2020).

Lack of trust in authorities is common prevent women from reporting abuses. In a survey in 2016 in Lima, 35 percent of public transport users don't trust in police arriving at the scene when reporting the rape of a woman in the public transport system. For 41.5 percent their trust is low, 18.9 percent reported some trust, and 3.9 percent trust a lot that police will arrive⁴⁶.

Jobs and Urban Transport

The transport sector provides men and women access to education, health and economic opportunities. In this section, we are focusing only on the jobs that the sector generates by itself. Jobs can be generated during the design and at the construction of the transport infrastructure, and during its operations and maintenance. In this program, most jobs will be generated during the operation and maintenance of the e-buses, e-taxis and e-vans and at the charging station's maintenance. Investments in infrastructure are common to boost the economy and it will be the case after this health crisis; thus, this is a unique opportunity to lever jobs for women.

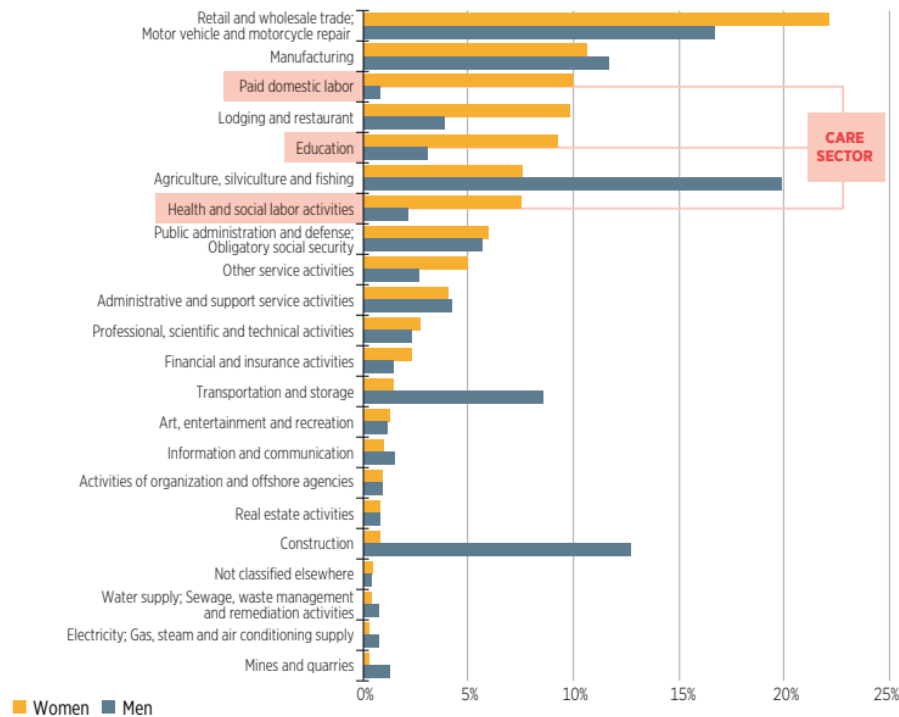
The gender gap in jobs in the transport sector is enormous. Typically, women work in feminized and low-paid tasks such as cleaning or administration, while men work as drivers, mechanics, or supervisors. Thus, both the number of women hired or trained and the quality of their contracts are low. Specific efforts need to be made to reach greater diversity in the sector. To bridge the job's gap, it is crucial to attract, secure and maintain jobs with more vacancies (ex: commercial drivers), with a higher paycheck (ex: mechanics), or that are involved in decision making (investors).

The graph 5 below, describes that around 30 percent of women work in the care sector (traditionally dominated by women), compared to 6 percent of men. This reflects the regional wage gap in which women earn between 5 and 30 percent less than men with similar educational level and demographic characteristics⁴⁷.

⁴⁶ IADB 2016, Transporte Público desde una perspectiva de género: percepción de inseguridad y victimización en Asunción y Lima.

⁴⁷ The Future of Work in LAC (2019), IADB. Graph designed by IADB with ILO data 2017

Graph 5 Occupational Segregation: women care, men build⁴⁸



Barriers to entry in the transport sector remain the same, despite women's employment benefits the sector. Stereotypes, lack of family support, low rates of girls studying STEM, are some of the traditional barriers for women to work in sex-segregated jobs, sometimes perceived as unsafe. Reshaping women's tasks when pregnant for their protection, expensive professional driving licenses, and stigma hinder more equality workforce in the sector. The power of labor unions can both ease or impede women's access to jobs in the sector. Advertise that all the vacancies are open for women, adapt working schedules to women's care needs at home, building dressing rooms and provide childcare, offer scholarships to train women are incentives for the sector to attract them. Working with trade unions is vital in masculinized occupations to allow women to enter. Still in 2017, in Argentina, the train labor unions do not allow women to be drivers (CAF 2020).

In Cali, 25 women out of 2000 workers are drivers in the integrated urban transport system, MIO. 13 percent of women are urban traffic police, 9 percent are supervisors and 14 work in operations. In private companies working for the massive transport system (GIT) there are 33 women working in administration, seven are bus operators and two are assistants of private operators' general services (IADB 2020).

In Transantiago (Chile), women drivers said that the visibility of other women carrying a diversity of tasks and positions incentive other women to work as drivers. From 2012 on, in Santiago, new regulation prompted the private companies to collaborate with municipalities to help B1 drivers to obtain professional driving licenses. Most women got to take these driving courses thanks to scholarships (72 percent of women surveyed, 161 women), and then, they got the jobs. The price of professional licenses is a barrier as well for women willing to work as drivers. It is difficult for women head of households to attend these courses since they don't have the time to leave their jobs or can't leave their family responsibilities. Women drivers in Santiago were perceived as more compromised with the job, more responsible, have less sinistrality than men, or the accidents are less severe. Most women drivers were

⁴⁸ Ibid

perceived as more kind, empathic, calm, they treat the passengers better and resolved conflict situations without escalating problems. After women started working in Transantiago men colleagues changed their behaviors, become more respectful and watched their languages. (IADB, Transport GenderLab 2019). A growing body of evidence shows how companies can benefit from investing in women as employees, entrepreneurs, customers, and community partners. Such investments benefit companies in several ways, from broadening the talent pool to increasing productivity, providing an opportunity to transform local and global markets⁴⁹. Even though the data is scarce⁵⁰, women drivers tend to have fewer traffic accidents than men. The savings derived from the reduction in traffic accidents can benefit transport operators when hiring women drivers.

Following recent legislation to grant and enforce equal opportunities, most countries in the region have carried out initiatives to extend women's employment opportunities in the transport sector.

The IADB Transport Gender Lab has published several recent transport initiatives that create jobs for women. In Mexico DF, in 2008, the program Atenea was created to reduce traffic to and from schools by hiring women bus drivers, who would offer more confidence to parents in the school routes. The program got extended to women, the elderly and kids only buses and school routes. In 2017 there were 136 buses for the program, and 75 drivers were women.

In the state of Jalisco where the police were linked to corruption and high rates of alcoholism were considered the leading cause of traffic deaths, the government renovated the traffic police with a call for women named "Buscamos a las mejores" (We are seeking the best women) to attract women to work as traffic officers. Moreover, another call searched for women for the "Salvando Vidas" (Saving lives) program whose focus was on improving people's perception of the police as a transparent department that applies law to everyone.

In 2018, the city of Guadalajara hired 64 women as urban drivers and the objective is to train, certify and hire 600.

In Buenos Aires, 54 percent of 2.750 traffic agents were women. Moreover, 43 percent of other positions in the urban transportation system were occupied by women such as supervisors, shift coordinators, and chiefs of operative buses. Additionally, as of today, 641 women are working in the control and supervision of traffic in Bogota.

In the Dominican Republic, the metropolitan agency for bus services, selected women from its staff who worked as cashiers and were familiar with the system were trained to drive buses. Sixteen women are currently in charge of driving in the "Corredor de la Mujer" (Lady's Corridor) and a new corridor is expected to have 100 percent women drivers. These drivers recorded videos and shared them in media on Women's Day. Four women workers of the subway (50 percent of drivers in the subway are women) shared their career experience in the media on Women's Day as well, from their start as drivers until they got to positions with more responsibility.

⁴⁹ IFC, March 2017. Investing in Women, new evidence from the business case

⁵⁰ World Health Organization Factsheet, 2002. Gender and Road Traffic Injuries

Women, Jobs and COVID-19

Women's labor force participation⁵¹ has been steadily rising in the last decade for each of the seven countries until the pandemic. The devastating impact of COVID-19 has affected disproportionately women's labor force participation. The large gender gaps in employment favor men, but these gaps were gradually narrowing in the last years for all countries. The COVID-19 pandemic has left women in a worse situation than before.

The sex-desegregated table 1 below provides a glimpse of the labor supply for the last years, which in the second quarter of 2020 has dropped around 10 points in Argentina, Colombia, Dominica Republic, and Mexico, 7 in Brazil, and 27 points in Peru. For Argentina, Brazil, and Colombia, the difference between men and women's labor force participation was narrowing from around 20-25 difference points to 20 in the first quarter of 2019, but in Dominican Republic the women-men gap narrowed from around 30 to 20 points. In Costa Rica women's rate in the 2nd quarter of 2020 is almost the same that that of 2011. In contrast with these dropping numbers globally, 70⁵² percent of nurses, front-line care workers, midwives, and community health workers are women, whose jobs have been vital for controlling the health crisis. Women working in the health sector are more affected by COVID-19, and studies from the USA and European countries have revealed that positive COVID-19 cases are two to three times higher for women than for their male colleagues.

⁵¹ The labour force participation rate is a measure of the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work; it provides an indication of the size of the supply of labour available to engage in the production of goods and services, relative to the population at working age. In contrast, employment comprise all persons above a specified age who during a specified brief period, either one week or one day, were in the following categories: paid employment or self-employment.

⁵² Solidarity Center 2020. "Domestic workers left out in the cold". Accessed 10 August 2020.

Table 1 Annual average national labour force participation⁵³ rates by sex, 2011–2020

Annual average national labour force participation rates by sex, 2011–2020 (M: Men, W: Women)										1st quarte r	1st quarte r	2nd quarte r	2nd quarte r
Country	201 1	201 2	201 3	201 4	201 5	201 6	201 7	201 8	2019 a	2019a	2020a	2019a	2020a
Argentina	59.5	59.3	58.9	58.3	57.7	57.5	57.8	58.5	59.1	58.9	58.6	59.5	49.2
M	72.9	72.2	72.0	70.9	70.1	69.4	69.7	69.6	69.9	69.8	68.7	70.2	58.0
W	47.4	47.6	47.1	46.9	46.4	46.9	47.6	48.7	49.4	49.0	49.5	49.9	41.2
Brazil	60.0	61.4	61.3	61.0	61.3	61.4	61.7	61.6	62.0	61.7	61.0	62.1	55.3
M	70.8	73.1	72.9	72.5	72.4	72.3	72.0	71.7	71.7	71.6	70.8	71.7	65.5
W	50.1	50.8	50.7	50.6	51.2	51.4	52.3	52.5	53.2	52.8	52.1	53.4	46.3
Colombia	63.7	64.5	64.2	64.2	64.7	64.5	64.4	64.0	63.3	63.5	61.6	62.9	54.8
M	75.1	75.4	74.9	74.9	75.2	74.9	74.8	74.6	73.9	74.2	72.7	73.4	66.2
W	52.8	54.1	53.9	54.0	54.8	54.5	54.5	53.8	53.1	53.3	50.9	52.9	43.9
Costa Rica	58.4	62.5	62.2	62.6	61.2	58.4	58.8	60.7	62.5	62.4	63.4	63	57.6
M	73.6	76.2	75.5	75.9	74.3	72.4	73	74.3	74.4	74.4	74.7	75.1	70.5
W	44.2	48.4	48.6	49.2	48.1	44.3	44.5	46.9	50.6	50.3	52.1	50.8	44.6
Dominican Republic	57.8	59.0	58.7	59.1	61.8	62.3	62.2	63.6	65.1	64.9	63.4	65.2	56.7
M	73.1	74.4	74.1	74.6	76.3	76.6	76.1	77.8	78.4	78.8	76.3	78.5	70.6
W	43.7	44.0	43.7	44.0	48.1	48.9	49.0	50.4	52.7	52.0	51.5	52.7	43.9
Mexico	59.8	60.4	60.3	59.8	59.8	59.7	59.3	59.6	60.1	59.5	59.9	60.2	49.4
M	78.5	78.8	78.5	78.3	78.0	77.7	77.6	77.4	77.2	76.9	76.4	77.1	63.5
W	42.8	43.9	43.9	43.1	43.4	43.4	43.0	43.5	44.7	43.7	44.9	44.9	36.7
Peru	73.9	73.6	73.2	72.3	71.6	72.2	72.4	72.3	72.7	72.9	70.2	72.0	45.3
M	82.7	82.4	82.0	81.4	81.0	81.2	81.0	80.7	81.1	81.5	78.3	79.6	54.7
W	65.2	64.8	64.5	63.3	62.3	63.3	64.0	64.0	64.5	64.4	62.2	64.5	36.1

In the second quarter of 2020, there have been significant drops in employment rates that have affected both women and men, and the progress of the pandemic's devastation will worsen the figures. ILO says that women's employment dropped by 18.1% compared to men's, which dropped by 15.1%. Women's workforce is more extensive in the third sector, which is most affected by the pandemic (domestic services, restaurants and hotels, commercial activities). Forty percent of all employed women in the world (estimated at 510 million women) work in hard-hit sectors, compared to 36.6 percent of employed men. Women's paid labor and women-run businesses are being hit hardest. One of the occupational categories more affected is that of wage earners employed by households, most of them are women of relatively low-income households, who lack essential work benefits (health leave, notice period, severance pay). In Latin America, 93 percent of the 11 to 18 million domestic workers are women (UN WOMEN 2020). This pandemic affects women, young people, and immigrants the most for a variety of reasons (For instance: they mostly work in the informal market, no new positions being created for young people, or

⁵³ Own elaboration from data from: ILO & ECLAC (Nov 10, 2020). "Employment Situation in LAC (Number 23): Employment trends in an unprecedented crisis: Policy challenges". Data comes from household surveys. Some data are preliminary figures or new series, please visit the document to know more about these figures.

lack of legal papers to work). The global pandemic impacted employment rates in many ways; many companies have ceased operations or remain on stand-by due to country restrictions. Absenteeism has been a consequence of the pandemic since workers have not been able to attend their jobs' locations. Companies and countries have been designing ways to adapt to the temporary situation without firing workers (Ex: income support mechanisms or early leave) (ILO, Nov 2020).

The open unemployment rate⁵⁴ is larger in women because the household care responsibilities have increased with the pandemic. The table 2 below clearly shows tendencies. According to ILO, Dominican Republic's open unemployment rate drastically decreased to 3.2 in the second quarter of 2020 from 6.4 in the same period of 2019. Both people who were unemployed before the pandemic and those who lost their jobs because of COVID-19 are not looking for jobs. Figures are similar for both sexes in the Dominican Republic. The number of people in open unemployment⁵⁵ in this health crisis increased less among women (by 7.7%) than among men (29.4%); the contrary is expected in an economic crisis. Female open employment has increased less than expected, probably due not only to the loss of jobs but also for the increase in care work, resulting in women not looking for paid work. While for men, who are still considered the breadwinners of the family, looking for jobs is easier after they lost them during the pandemic (ILO 2020). Women hold their selves responsible for the family care burden, while men are still seen as "help" in the region (WB, 2020). The fact that open unemployment has rose more for men (in all the seven countries) does not mean that the crisis has more hit men compared to women; it means that further research on open employment is required.

⁵⁴ Open unemployment refers to those looking for a job that cannot find one because of the economic conditions.

Table 2 Average annual national open unemployment rate by sex, 2011–2020⁵⁶

Average annual national open unemployment rate by sex, 2011–2020 (M: Men, W: Women)										1st quart er	1st quart er	2nd quart er	2nd quart er
Country	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2019	2020	2019	2020
Argentina	7.2	7.2	7.1	7.3	6.5	8.5	8.4	9.2	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.6	13.1
M	6.3	6.1	6.1	6.5	5.7	7.8	7.5	8.2	9.2	9.2	9.7	10.2	12.8
W	8.5	8.8	8.5	8.4	7.6	9.4	9.5	10.5	10.7	11.2	11.2	11.2	13.5
Brazil	6.7	7.3	7.1	6.8	8.5	11.5	12.7	12.3	11.9	12.7	12.2	12.0	13.3
M	4.9	6.0	5.8	5.7	7.3	10.1	11.3	10.8	10.1	10.9	10.4	10.3	12.0
W	9.1	9.2	8.9	8.2	10.1	13.3	14.6	14.1	14.0	14.9	14.5	14.1	14.9
Colombia	10.0	9.7	9.0	8.5	8.3	8.6	8.8	9.0	9.9	11.2	11.8	9.5	18.3
M	7.8	7.5	7.0	6.7	6.4	6.7	6.8	7.1	7.8	8.8	9.4	7.7	16.0
W	12.9	12.5	11.6	10.9	10.7	11.0	11.3	11.6	12.6	14.4	15.1	11.8	21.6
Costa Rica	7.7	10.2	9.4	9.6	9.6	9.5	9.1	10.3	11.8	11.3	12.5	11.9	24
M	6	8.9	8.3	8.1	8	8	7.5	8.4	9.3	9.3	8.6	9.9	20
W	10.3	12.2	11.1	11.9	12.2	12.1	11.6	13.2	15.3	14.2	18	15	30.4
Dominican Rep	6.1	6.7	7.4	6.7	7.3	7.1	5.5	5.7	6.2	5.8	5.7	6.4	3.2
M	4.7	5.1	5.3	4.8	5.2	4.8	4.0	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.6	4.2	2.4
W	8.3	9.2	10.5	9.7	10.5	10.5	7.8	8.8	9.3	8.9	8.6	9.5	4.3
Mexico	5.2	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.3	3.9	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.5	4.8
M	5.2	4.9	4.9	4.8	4.3	3.9	3.3	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.5	3.5	5.3
W	5.2	4.9	5.0	4.9	4.5	3.9	3.6	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.6	3.9
Peru	4.0	3.7	4.0	3.7	3.5	4.2	4.1	3.9	3.9	5.2	5.1	3.6	8.8
M	3.7	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.9	3.8	3.5	3.5	4.4	4.5	3.3	9.7
W	4.4	4.4	4.7	4.0	3.6	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	6.2	5.8	4.0	7.5

This situation negatively influences younger women, particularly younger mothers who, when facing long periods of inactivity, experience shows that their career paths are drastically altered. The more time absent from school or work, the greater the risks of exclusion from the labor market, the precariousness of jobs, or the informality. This latter happens to young men as well.

Cleaning, cooking, and serving meals, teaching children and shopping for the family are the major workloads that have been intensified recently. The pandemic has made a point in the care work, which traditionally governments have ignored and the economic markets have devaluated. In all of Latin American and the Caribbean region's countries, and globally, the burden of the economy of care falls entirely into women's responsibility. Despite the well-timed and record measures taken by governments to tackle COVID-19's economic outcomes, the little social protection measures were lacking gender lens. Reconciliation of paid and un-paid work and family's care must be addressed to allow women to go back to paid work (UN Women 2020).

⁵⁶Own elaboration from data from: Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean (Number 23): Employment trends in an unprecedented crisis: ECLAC&ILO, Nov 2020. Data comes from household surveys. Some data are preliminary figures or new series, please visit the document to know more about these figures.

Gender Capacity in AFD, PROPARCO and GIZ

The following paragraph explain with detail the capacity of AFD to manage and monitor the gender-related activities at project level and the particular tools and experiences of PROPARCO and GIZ that will generate important synergies to succeed during implementation.

AFD has vast experience with large portfolios of projects with the mandate to include gender equality and women's empowerment. Since 2013, AFD defined its strategy on Gender and the Reduction of Gender Inequalities based on three priorities: prevent gender inequality in its operations, promote gender and women's empowerment and support in societies on these issues. Today, its objectives are more ambitious and since 2018 it has set up a rating system to mainstream gender in all its activities, based on the classification of OCDE (DAC markers: DAC 0: the project does not target gender equality, DAC 1: gender equality is an important and deliberate objective of the project, DAC 2: gender equality is the main objective of the project). In 2020, 67.1% of projects financed by AFD integrate gender; thus, it has largely achieved the objective of 50 percent of the volume of commitments to be gender-responsive and rated 1 or 2 and 749MM of Euros will fund projects whose main objective is to reduce gender equality (DAC 2). Moreover, AFD manages a Support Fund for Feminist Civil Organizations aiming at building the organizational, financial and technical capacities of feminist organizations in partner countries and promote exchanges and networking between them to give them the means to take action at the local, regional and international levels. Together with 26 banks, AFD, signed a Paris development bank Statement on gender equality and women's empowerment which defines four areas of action: (i) Strengthen the commitment of Public Development Banks to gender equality through a dedicated institutional strategy; (ii) Increase the share of financial flows for gender-responsive operations; (iii) Contribute to gender-responsive climate policies; and (iv) Improve dialogue and collaboration with all stakeholders on gender issues, including feminist civil society organizations. AFD experience in the region and long term collaboration with regional and local agencies will facilitate the dialogue with public transportations during the implementation of gender activities at project level.

PROPARCO belongs to the 2X Challenge and brings gender-lens investing experience to support the project's opportunities to increase women's economic agency. PROPARCO (société de Promotion et Participation à la Coopération économique) is a subsidiary of AFD and as part of AFD Group follows its gender strategy. Its work focuses on private sector development, provides funding (loans, guarantees, equity and quasi-equity) and support (technical assistance and expertise) to both businesses and financial intermediaries across Africa, Asia, Latin America and the Middle-East. The financing of infrastructure projects represents more than 30% of PROPARCO's activities in these countries. PROPARCO mobilizes its funds to increase women's participation in development countries through promoting women's financial inclusion, empowerment and access to essential goods and services following the 2X Challenge initiative, which is widely adopted by other development institutions. PROPARCO's criteria to achieve gender equality are four: 1) Entrepreneurship, access to financing for women-owned and operated business; 2) Leadership, access to management positions; 3) Employment, access to quality jobs; 4) Essential good and services, access to goods and services benefiting women in particular. PROPARCO will implement the financing activities and TA of the Program where Project Owners (PO) belong to private sector and its mandate and know-how to mainstream gender in its activities will facilitate women's inclusion.

GIZ is a pioneer organization working on gender and transportation. In 2007 GIZ published the toolkit "Gender and Urban Transport", which has been a must have tool for development practitioners for more

than a decade and has been updated in 2018. TUMI (Transformative Urban Mobility Initiative, implemented by GIZ) launched the international conference “Women Mobilize Women” which since 2018 shaped a new narrative around gender and transportation and triggered follow up initiatives and networks of female change makers from all over the world. One of the regional networks on gender and mobility generated in the conference is located in Latin America and encourages the inclusion of women in decision making, planning and operation of transport. GIZ experience in transport will accelerate the current tendency to include gender and vulnerable groups and its work in this facility will multiply the synergies among local and regional actors.

Recommendations

In these seven countries, gender equality has been improving in recent years, but the COVID-19 pandemic has worsened it. The country snapshots on gender and the review of the numerous initiatives are enough to recommend that all the investment plans in this facility include gender strategies and gender action plans to prevent violence against women and girls and guarantee women access to direct jobs and economic opportunities by the projects receiving loans.

The second section of the assessment reveals that these countries are already implementing programs and actions in their urban transport sector seeking more gender equality. The E-mobility and low carbon Transportation facility is a timely opportunity to build from the many initiatives already in place. The TA will house all the activities related to gender equality and women’s empowerment. The efforts to establish a sustainable mobility ecosystem at regional, national and local levels plan to embed gender inclusion which will multiply the effects of the gender-related activities in the new paradigm. The outcomes and activities of the Gender Action Plan are shaped in line with the facility’s.

The technical assistance will support the adopters implement a people centered design. Adding to the differentiated risks and vulnerabilities of men and women detailed in the gender assessment, the adopters will be guided on how to apply intersectionality enablers. Adding to the afro descendants and indigenous peoples present in many of these countries, intersecting identities of age, social economic status, social cultural context, education, disability among others⁵⁷ need to be considered. Together with universal design approach, accessibility and reasonable accommodations⁵⁸ will be factored in when electrifying transport systems. The technical assistance will guide the adopters to use tools that guarantee that women and vulnerable groups are represented during multi-stakeholders consultations so that their perspectives can be factored into policies, road maps, trainings and campaigns. The adopters should use tools such as accessibility and reasonable accommodations in a way that maintain confidentiality and privacy to allow women and vulnerable groups to share their perspectives. An environment where women and vulnerable groups feel safe will allow the adopters to include perspectives during design and implementation that might not be considered otherwise. Consultations in a safe environment will be

⁵⁷ UN Women, UNRPD, and more (2021). Intersectionality resource guide and toolkit, An Intersectional approach to leave no one behind

⁵⁸ Universal design means the design of products, environments, programmes and services to be usable by all people, to the greatest extent possible, without the need for adaptation or specialised design. Universal design shall not exclude assistive devices for particular groups of persons with disabilities where this is needed. Reasonable accommodation means necessary and appropriate modification and adjustments not imposing a disproportionate or undue burden, where needed in a particular case, to ensure to persons with disabilities the enjoyment or exercise on an equal basis with others of all human rights and fundamental freedoms.

particularly emphasized when designing and implementing sexual harassment programs and prevention campaigns.

The review of public policies at country level will integrate gender lens, this means that the technical assistance will help find obstacles and risks in the policies being reviewed that may impede women from benefiting from the EV mass adoption. The themes covered by the topics in section two of this assessment (mobility, safety, and jobs) constitute a guide that the technical assistance will use when providing support to the investment plans. The public and private sector investment plans will receive technical assistance to systematically include a gender assessment and gender action plan with concrete measures, activities and products that will ensure that women benefit equally from the massive adoption of EV through direct jobs. The technical assistance will help identify the potential sexual harassment risks to consider when designing and implementing e-mobility transport systems. The adopters will receive guidance to develop mechanisms that respond, address and monitor sexual harassment in the new e-mobility systems. The objective of these technical assistance is that the adopters include Sexual Harassment Programs that contain safe, confidential and ethical grievance mechanisms for survivors of sexual harassment and GBV. These programs are to be context-specific, build from and improve existing mechanisms or design. Moreover, these programs must prevent further risks such as victim blaming and discrimination and mitigate potential impacts on indigenous people and afro descendants and other intersecting identities.

Specific actions to guarantee women feel safe when using the EV, as workers and as users, are imperative in the region. Gender-based violence is endemic in these countries and underreported. Women in the region are victims in the transport sector, and the COVID-19 pandemic is exacerbating the numbers. The urban transport system represents an environment where harassment and sexual abuses occur quotidianly in the regular trips women do every day. Incidents will happen in the e-buses, in the e-taxis, while waiting, walking to and from the stops or using charging stations. Incidents increase at night, in isolated vehicles and unattended places, but in crowded units as well. Safety measures not only benefit women but all the users. The recent study “Ella se mueve segura” (She’s moving safely) represents a timely and adequate guide from the region that will be used by the program to build capacity and learn at project level, thanks to an online training. The program will include communication campaigns to raise awareness and prevent sexual harassment in the public transport sector. The purpose of the South-to-South learning visit is to have adopters visualize a sexual harassment response program that includes grievance mechanisms. The technical assistance will bring adopters together to discuss and acquire the know-how to carry out these programs in their transport systems.

Women are not discriminated in access to credit in any of the seven countries. The program promotes women entrepreneurs to prepare investments loans to entry in the e-transport market in order to prevent leaving them behind. Women will benefit from the capacity building and trainings on EV and financing that will be delivered by the facility.

Women are not represented in the jobs generated by the transport sector in the region. The pandemic complicates the return to work for those women who lost their jobs and those whose care responsibilities have increased. This facility is an opportunity for women in these seven countries to access the jobs generated by the projects to be designed with the investment loans. For instance, the public sector projects will help women obtain professional driving licenses to be able to opt for the direct jobs that the e-buses, e-taxis and e-vans will create. This can be done via scholarships for women to receive trainings on professional driving. The technical assistance will also support investment projects for e-taxis adoption on how to include segregated ride-hailing from the market that is already present and growing in the

region. The technical assistance will help the adopters to consider vulnerable groups who do not have access to technology.

To prevent female turnover and retain women workers in the projects, an activity is focused on the promotion of work-life balance for the projects. The activity will include workshops that cover practical examples to learn how GBV, Sexual harassment and other barriers affect women's participation in the work place, with concrete examples on the case of intersectionalities. The aim is for the adopters to understand gender inequalities, at a family and work level, and to appoint a person in charge in the organization to monitor and report advances in gender equality and inclusive environments in the organization. Paternity and maternity leaves, availability of day care, lactation rooms, wage gaps, recruitment and promotion criteria hindering women's advancement in the sector and benefits of diversity working environments will be covered within these workshops. A gender focal point will be appointed to advance the work-live balance agenda of the adopters, to monitor and report gender equality in the human resources policies and to act as a sexual harassment ombudsperson.

Data collection is crucial to learn, share and improve transport systems, an activity will help transport systems to sex-disaggregate data systematically in order to inform public transport agencies on how to improve gender equality. Baselines will be determined before specific projects are financed in order to monitor and measure the indicators.

The number of expected households (male and female in each country) with improved access to low emission energy sources depends on each country's energy policy, and the number of people with access to e-mobile systems will depend on each bus line. Likewise, the estimated additional male and female passengers who will use low-carbon transport as a result of funding support in the different countries will depend on both the lines to be electrified and the personal choice that determine a modal change.

The Gender Action Plan guarantees that these general recommendations are transformed into specific activities by the facility, and that they have a budget and are measured and monitored, and adjusted when needed.

Bibliography

AFD (2015). Boîte à outils Genre Transport et Mobilité <https://www.afd.fr/fr/ressources/boite-outils-genre-transport-et-mobilite>

CAF & Fia Foundation (2018). Ella se mueve segura. Un estudio sobre la seguridad personal en las mujeres: <https://scioteca.caf.com/handle/123456789/1405>

CAF & TUMI (2019). Mediciones nocturnas en materia de seguridad para las mujeres, Bogotá "Me Nuevo Segura"
<http://omeg.sdmujer.gov.co/phocadownload/2019/boletines/Mujeres%20en%20Cifras%202019.pdf>

CEPAL Comisión Económica para América Latina y el Caribe. Observatorio de Género
<https://oig.cepal.org/es/indicadores>

COSEVI (2020), Consejo de Seguridad Vial de Costa Rica COSEVI. (2020). Consejo de Seguridad Vial. Retrieved from Observatorio Costarricense de Seguridad Vial:
<https://datosabiertos.csv.go.cr/dashboards/19737/informacion-general-de-costa-rica/>

Dayton, B. et al. (Published online 20 Aug 2019). Assessing an inclusive model to comprehensive GBV response services and improve HIV outcomes in Puerto Plata, Dominican Rep. (Accessed at Sexual Violence Research initiative webpage.www.svri.org)
<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/13691058.2019.1647556>

Despacio (2018). Lo que aprendimos sobre las mujeres trabajadoras de Bogotá:
<https://www.despacio.org/2018/10/01/lo-que-aprendimos-sobre-las-mujeres-trabajadoras-del-transporte-publico-en-bogota/>

GIZ (2007). Gender and Urban Transport: Smart and Affordable, former GTZ
<https://itdpdotorg.wpengine.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/7aGenderUTSept300.pdf>

GIZ (2018). Gender and Urban Transport: Smart and Affordable, former GTZ Revised and updated version <https://www.sutp.org/publications/approaches-for-gender-responsive-urban-mobility-gender-and-urban-transport-smart-and-affordable>

IADB (2020). ¿Desigualdades en el mundo digital?: Brechas de género en el uso de las TIC. Washington, D.C <https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/Medicion-de-la-dimension-de-genero-en-el-acceso-y-uso-de-las-tecnologias-digitales-Una-guia-para-los-hacedores-de-politicas-publicas.pdf>

IADB (Oct 2020). Género y Transporte: Cali. IADB Transport Gender Lab
<https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/Genero-y-transporte-Cali.pdf>

IADB mobiliblog (Oct 2020). Dando voz a una causa: campañas contra el acoso en el transporte público:
https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/Participaci%C3%B3n_femenina_en_el_mercado_laboral_de_transporte_es_es.pdf/

IADB mobiliblog (Aug 2020). Violencia de género: enemiga de la movilidad sostenible:
<https://blogs.iadb.org/transporte/es/violencia-de-genero-enemiga-de-la-movilidad-sostenible/>

IADB (Nov 2019). Mexico Group Country Strategy 2019-2024
<https://idbdocs.iadb.org/wsdocs/getdocument.aspx?docnum=EZSHARE-26730841-18>

IADB (2019). Inclusión laboral femenina en las labores de construcción del Sistema de transporte público de Santiago.
https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/Inclusi%C3%B3n_laboral_femenina_en_las_labores_de_conducci%C3%B3n_del_sistema_de_transporte_publico_de_Santiago_es.pdf

IADB (2019). Participación Laboral femenina en el sector Transporte. IADB Gender Lab
https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/Participaci%C3%B3n_femenina_en_el_mercado_laboral_de_transporte_es_es.pdf

IADB (2019). The Future of Work in LAC (2019)

<https://publications.iadb.org/publications/english/document/The-Future-of-Work-in-Latin-America-and-the-Caribbean-What-will-The-Labor-Market-Be-Like-for-Women-Print-version.pdf>

IADB (2019). Reconversión de cajeras a conductoras de autobuses y contratación de mecánicas
https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/G%C3%A9nero_y_Transporte_Santo_Domingo_es.pdf

IADB (2018). Desigualdades de género en República Dominicana 2018 – 2020
https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/Desigualdades_de_g%C3%A9nero_en_Republica_Dominicana_2018_-_2020_es_es.pdf

IADB (2018). The Dominican Republic. Estrategia Grupo BID 2018-2021
<https://idbdocs.iadb.org/wsdocs/getdocument.aspx?docnum=EZSHARE-226044693-3>

IADB (2016). Argentina Group Country Strategy 2016–2019
<https://idbdocs.iadb.org/wsdocs/getdocument.aspx?docnum=40724288>

IADB (2016). El Transporte Público desde una perspectiva de género: percepción de inseguridad y victimización en Asunción y Lima. <https://publications.iadb.org/publications/spanish/document/El-transporte-publico-desde-una-perspectiva-de-g%C3%A9nero-Percepci%C3%B3n-de-inseguridad-y-victimizaci%C3%B3n-en-Asunci%C3%B3n-y-Lima.pdf>

IADB (June 2011). Mapas de experiencia de viaje para medir la Accesibilidad del Transporte Público
<https://blogs.iadb.org/transporte/es/mapas-de-experiencia-de-viaje-para-medir-la-accesibilidad-del-transporte-publico/>

IADB (2000). Violencia en América Latina – Epidemiología y Costos Documento de Trabajo R-375:
<https://publications.iadb.org/es/publicacion/14227/asalto-al-desarrollo-violencia-en-america-latina>

IFC (2020). Gender Segregated Transportation in Ride Hailing
https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/topics_ext_content/ifc_external_corporate_site/gender+at+ifc/resources/gender-segregated+transportation+in+ride-hailing

IFC (2020). Addressing Gender-Based Violence and Harassment (GBVH) in the Public Transport Sector
https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/f1645167-7eff-439b-922b-7656c75320ab/GPN_AddressingGBVH_July2020.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CVID=nddokiS

IFC (2018). Driving Toward Equality: Women, Ride-Hailing, and the Sharing Economy
https://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/topics_ext_content/ifc_external_corporate_site/gender+at+ifc/drivingtowardequality

IFC (March 2017). Investing in Women, new evidence from the business case
<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/28973?locale-attribute=fr>

ILO & ECLAC (Nov 10, 2020). Employment Situation in Latin America and the Caribbean (Number 23): Employment trends in an unprecedented crisis: Policy challenges.

https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---americas/---ro-lima/---sro-santiago/documents/publication/wcms_760452.pdf

Observatorio de la participación política de las mujeres en Mexico

<https://observatorio.inmujeres.gob.mx/mvc/view/public/index.html?ms=MzE=>

Rivero, R., y Sánchez, F. (2005). Determinants, effects and costs of domestic violence. Documento CEDE
Edición electrónica: <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/6325265.pdf>

Sanchez de Madariaga, I. (2008). UN Habitat: <https://unhabitat.org/mobility-of-care-ines-sanchez-de-madariaga>

Solidarity Center (2020). “Domestic workers left out in the cold”. Accessed 10 August 2020:
<https://www.solidaritycenter.org/domestic-workers-left-out-in-the-cold/>

Stanford, Accessed Feb 2021, Gender Innovations:

<https://genderedinnovations.stanford.edu/case-studies/transportation.html#tabs-2>

Think Olga (2013). Chega de Fiu Fiu, Brazil: <https://thinkolga.com/projetos/chega-de-fiu-fiu/>

UN Women, UNPRPD, and more (2021). Intersectionality resource guide and toolkit, An Intersectional approach to leave no one behind:

<https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/2022-01/Intersectionality-resource-guide-and-toolkit-en.pdf>

UN Women (Accessed June 10, 2015). Safe Public Spaces for Women and Girls. Virtual Knowledge Center to End Violence against Women and Girls.

<http://www.endvawnow.org/en/articles/251-safe-public-spaces-for-women-and-girls.html>

UN Women (2020). From Insight to Action. Gender Equality in the Wake of COVID-19

<https://www.unwomen.org/-/media/headquarters/attachments/sections/library/publications/2020/gender-equality-in-the-wake-of-covid-19-en.pdf?la=en&vs=5142>

UN Women Data Portal <https://data.unwomen.org/country/dominican-republic>

UN Women, (2020) COVID-19 and its economic tool on women: The story behind the numbers.

<https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2020/9/feature-covid-19-economic-impacts-on-women>

UN Women (Sept 2020). Value the work that sustain families, demand domestic workers in Latin

America: <https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2020/9/feature-value-domestic-workers-across-latin-america>

UN Women (2017) SEGOB/ INMUJERES The long road to justice, prosecuting femicide in Mexico

<https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2017/11/feature-prosecuting-femicide-in-mexico#notes>

WB (2020). Why does she move:

<http://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/276931583534671806/pdf/Why-Does-She-Move-A-Study-of->

WB (April 2020). Gender dimensions of the COVID-19 Pandemic:

<http://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/618731587147227244/pdf/Gender-Dimensions-of-the-COVID-19-Pandemic.pdf>

WB (Aug 2020). Addressing Violence against women under COVID-19 in Brazil

<https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/brazil/publication/brazil-addressing-violence-against-women-under-covid-19>

WB Gender Data portal: <https://datatopics.worldbank.org/gender/usefullinks>

WB (June 2020). Demands for safe spaces, Avoiding harassment and Stigma:

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/33853>

WB (May 2020). Blogs COVID-19 Could Worsen Gender Inequality in Latin America and the Caribbean.

<https://www.worldbank.org/en/news/feature/2020/05/15/covid-19-could-worsen-gender-inequality-in-latin-america-and-the-caribbean>

WB (2019). Little Data Book on Gender: <https://data.worldbank.org/products/data-books/little-data-book-on-gender>

WB (April 2019). Mexico Gender Assessment

Assessment. <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/31619>

WB (June 2019). Colombia Gender Assessment

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/32006/Colombia-GA.pdf?sequence=5&isAllowed=y>

WB (Nov 2018). Mexico, Systematic Gender Diagnostic

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/31130/mx-scd-dec-2018-12112018-636803352734035614.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

WB (2018). Argentina: Escaping Crises, Sustaining Growth, Sharing Prosperity, Systematic Country Diagnostic <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/30461>

WB (2018). Dominican Republic Systematic Country Diagnostic

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/30055>

WB (2018). Gender Gaps in Peru, Overview

<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/31820/Gender-Gaps-in-Peru-An-Overview.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

WB (2016). When good transport alone doesn't bring jobs closer to women: insights from Mexico City

<https://blogs.worldbank.org/transport/when-good-transport-alone-doesn-t-bring-jobs-closer-women-insights-mexico-city>

WB (2016). A Snapshot of Gender in Brazil Today Institutions, Outcomes, and a Closer Look at Racial and Geographic Differences <https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/25976>

WB Blog (2015). The Vias Lilas Initiative: Using public transport infrastructure to help reduce gender-based violence: <https://blogs.worldbank.org/transport/rio-lilas-initiative-using-transport-infrastructure-help-reduce-gender-based-violence>

WB, et al. (Oct 2015). Violence against women and girls resource guide, Transport Brief. https://www.vawgresourceguide.org/sites/vawg/files/briefs/vawg_resource_guide_transport_brief_for_mattedv3.pdf

World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report 2020:
http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2020.pdf

WHO (2002). Gender and Road Traffic Injuries, World Health Organization Factsheet:
<https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/68887/a85576.pdf;jsessionid=C3B8AD35A1D6B16692791AD23CC54606?sequence=1>
Womens-Mobility-in-Latin-American-Cities.pdf

World Resources Institute (March 2020). Las mujeres y el transporte en Bogotá, Las Cuentas:
<https://wrirosscities.org/sites/default/files/Las%20mujeres%20en%20el%20transporte%20en%20Bogota%20ecuator%C3%A1%2020200303.pdf>