



LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

SIGI REGIONAL REPORT



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Acronyms and abbreviations

CCTs	Conditional cash transfers
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CSO	Civil society organisation
DHS	Demographic and Health Surveys
ECA	Europe and Central Asia
FAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization
FGM	Female genital mutilation
FLFP	Female labour force participation
GDP	Gross domestic product
GGG	Global Gender Gap Index
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
IPV	Intimate partner violence
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
LFP	Labour force participation
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SA	South Asia
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
SMEs	Small and medium-sized enterprises
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNSCR	United Nations Security Resolution
VAW	Violence against women
WEF	World Economic Forum
WHO	World Health Organization



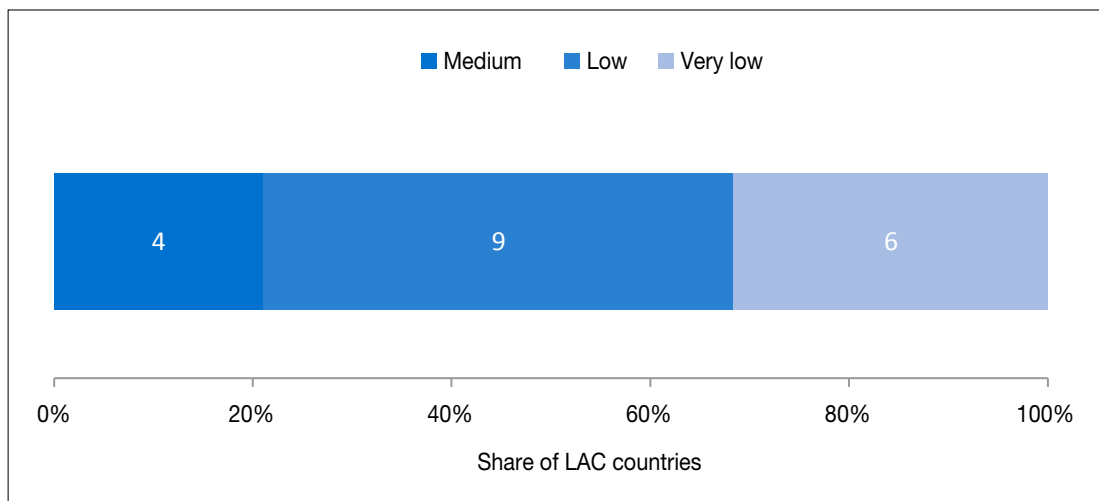
**The SIGI in Latin America
and the Caribbean**



Regional overview

The Latin America and the Caribbean region boasts an impressive track record for advancing gender equality, with women and girls today enjoying regionally unprecedented access to empowerment opportunities and greater protection of their human rights. The region is one of the strongest performers in the 2014 edition of the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI). This is largely due to the region's long-term efforts to remove the legal barriers confronting women and girls from enjoying equal rights and opportunities. It reflects policy solutions aimed at boosting their voice and agency within the family as well as in economic, political and public life. All Latin American and Caribbean countries demonstrate very low to medium levels of discrimination across the five sub-indices of the SIGI (Figure 1.1). This SIGI Regional Report on Latin America and the Caribbean highlights the positive strides, commitments and momentum to challenge gender-based discrimination in social institutions, notably in land, property and financial rights, and in legal reforms to eliminate gender-based violence. It also pinpoints weak implementation of laws and persistent discriminatory social norms as important stumbling blocks to further progress.

Figure 1.1. **Share of Latin American and Caribbean countries by level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions**



Note: This figure presents the share and the number of Latin American and Caribbean countries in the SIGI classification. 19 of the 22 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean are ranked in the SIGI (See Annex on page XX). No countries in the region have been classified as having high or very high levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions.

Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

Discrimination against women is defined as follows in Article 1 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women:

(it) shall mean any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

The socio-economic transformations of the region have benefited from improvements in women's growing voice and agency. Over the past two decades, gender-responsive policies and legislative reforms enacted at the national level, strong political commitments (cf. Belém do Pará Convention, 1994) at the regional level, and increased investments in key social programmes have led to impressive reductions in gender gaps in education and employment, and greater efforts to protect women's health and well-being. The region has successfully reduced gender gaps in education; in certain countries, reverse gender gaps have emerged (e.g. Argentina, Honduras and Panama). One of the region's most notable success stories is the unprecedented number of women entering the labour market: female labour force participation rates are among the highest globally (50%). This has helped to reduce the large gender gap of 25 percentage points (OECD, 2016a) with men by approximately 13 percentage points compared to 2000; this is over double the rate for OECD countries, where the gender gap between male and female labour force participation rates has decreased by only 5 percentage points in the same time (OECD, 2016b). The region has made impressive strides in promoting women's political representation through the introduction of quotas, inter alia: women now hold 23% of parliamentary seats in the region, above the global average of 21% (OECD, 2014a).

Capitalising on past advances on gender equality could help sustain the region's inclusive growth. The spectre of economic slowdown since 2010 has raised government awareness of the need to push for gender-responsive economic policies to ensure that gains in gender equality are sustainable and not contingent upon changing GDP growth (ECLAC, 2015a). Indeed, evidence indicates a “win-win situation” for gender equality from the past two decades of growth: women have benefited from expanded empowerment opportunities, particularly in the services sector (Gasparini and Marchionni, 2011). In turn, economic growth and poverty reduction have been further spurred by their expanded economic involvement (World Bank, 2012). For example, women's higher labour force participation rates have been credited as one of the factors helping the region achieve “historically low” levels of poverty in the early 2000s: it is estimated that extreme and moderate poverty were reduced by up to 30% courtesy of increases in female income (World Bank, 2012). Social policy innovations, notably conditional cash transfers (CCTs), which have specifically targeted women, have also been associated with reducing their vulnerability to poverty.

Emerging economic challenges put the spotlight on the unfinished gender agenda in Latin America and the Caribbean. Important gaps in women's economic empowerment remain, with past gains at risk of reversal in a context of changing economic prospects and cuts in existing social policy investments. Following steady growth in female labour force participation throughout the 1990s, the 2000s saw a decline in the number of women entering the labour force (OECD/ECLAC/CAF, 2016). Women remain concentrated in informal employment, with an estimated 50% of women working in the informal economy (UN Women, forthcoming; ECLAC, 2015a); an estimated 47.7% of women are in precarious employment (ECLAC, 2015a). Moreover, they are strongly concentrated in less well-remunerated positions and in less productive sectors: close to 70% of women work in only two sectors, either public or social services such as education and health (41%), or in commerce (27.5%) (ECLAC, 2015a). It is also estimated that a large share of female agricultural labourers are unpaid family workers (ECLAC, 2015a). In addition, although the share of women without personal income has decreased from 47% in 1997 to 32% in 2015, this still signifies that one in three women lack financial autonomy (UN Women, 2017).

Discriminatory social norms perpetuate existing gender inequalities in the workforce and beyond, representing a loss of potential for the region's economies. Social norms, attitudes and expectations on appropriate roles for women and men shape their opportunities and choices. The unequal distribution of care work within the household is one manifestation of gendered norms, with women disproportionately performing a larger share: across the region, women spend between two to five times more time on unpaid care activities than men, pointing to the persistent perception of women as primary caregivers. Overall, when combined, women spend more time working on both unpaid and paid work than men; in Uruguay, for example, women's combined work amounts to 72.9 hours per week compared to 59.4 hours for men (ECLAC, 2015a). The unequal share of unpaid care work affects women's ability to pursue vocational training and professional opportunities, and is an influential factor explaining their concentration in part-time or vulnerable types of employment. Other discriminatory social norms include educational preferences, whereby certain subjects, such as humanities and arts subjects, are seen as more appropriate for women than for men, with long-term consequences for women's skills and occupational segregation (OECD, 2012; OECD/ECLAC/CAF, 2016).

Women's health and well-being remain at the crossroads of policy agendas. While improvements in certain areas of women's health can be noted, notably maternal mortality, limited access to comprehensive sexual and reproductive health services represents an important challenge for women's rights and well-being. Fertility rates have decreased by 28% from 2.9 children in 1994 to 2.1 children per mother in 2014 (World Bank, n.d.), which is one underlying factor for women's increased labour force participation rates (OECD 2016e; Gasparini and Marchionni, 2011). Maternal mortality rates have decreased by 43% from 117 deaths per 100 000 live births in 1995 to 67 in 2015 (World Bank, 2015a), although with significant diversity across and within countries (ECLAC, 2015a). Other areas of women's health and well-being have seen less progress: as this Report outlines, violence against women and girls continues in pandemic proportions despite legal reforms, concerted public efforts and increased awareness. Domestic violence from a current or former intimate partner affects close to one in three women aged 15-49 across the region, higher in selected countries (e.g. 53% in Bolivia, 40% in Colombia and Peru); the region also has the highest rates of femicide in the world (UNETE, 2013). Women's sexual and reproductive health and rights continue to attract policy attention and polemic: advocacy from women's civil society organisations has put the spotlight on the serious risks for women's health of highly restrictive abortion laws and poor access to contraception and reproductive health services and information. It has recently been estimated that 10% of maternal mortality incidents every year are due to unsafe abortions (Guttmacher Institute, 2014). Adolescent pregnancy and early marriage prevalence rates show little, if any, sign of decline, with certain countries (e.g. Argentina, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico) showing increases in adolescent maternity over the past 15 years (ECLAC, 2015a).

Pursuing an ambitious and transformative gender agenda can revitalise regional efforts to achieve gender equality and other development goals. The advent of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) has already mobilised national gender ministries and women's rights organisations in the region around SDG 5 on Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment and has sparked renewed commitments by regional actors (cf. Resolution of the XIII Conference on Women). Importantly, Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development opens new doors for a wider range of actors beyond the gender community to work together to enshrine gender equality across all national policies. Indeed, the Montevideo Strategy (2016) and its ten pillars encourages a whole-of-government approach to tackle structural barriers to gender equality by 2030, with a strategic roadmap for aligning development priorities and policies to achieve gender equality in all spheres of public and private life. Such a holistic approach would ensure that gender equality is pursued as a lever and accelerator of sustainable development in its own right, as well as a means to protecting and promoting women's rights.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were adopted at the 70th session of the United Nations General Assembly on 25 September 2015. Among the 17 goals focusing on the three pillars of sustainable development (economic, social and environmental) is one stand-alone goal on gender equality and women's empowerment (SDG 5). Gender equality is mainstreamed in other goals (cf. SDG 1, 6, and 8) (UN, 2015c).

The SIGI Regional Report for Latin America and the Caribbean provides new analysis and evidence on how gender-responsive policies can build more inclusive economies and societies. The SIGI measures and assesses how discrimination in laws, attitudes and practices curtails women's access to empowerment opportunities, justice and rights, and the ways in which this affects development outcomes. The SIGI results highlight the positive returns for women and girls in the Latin American and Caribbean region from gender-responsive legislative frameworks in areas such as land and property rights and civil liberties, with these areas showing low to very low levels of discrimination. While legislation on violence against women remains among the most progressive globally, strong gaps persist between ambitious laws and poor implementation, pointing to the need to combat the underlying discriminatory social norms that perpetuate this violation of women's basic right to a life free of violence. Within the area of the family, the region is characterised by poor legislative protection against early marriage, which contributes to the very high prevalence rates; this is the weakest SIGI dimension for the region. Furthermore, the SIGI country profiles also highlight the multiple and intersectional discriminations faced by indigenous and minority women, who struggle more to claim their rights, perpetuating a cycle of marginalisation and inequality.

Key messages

1. Gender equality should remain at the forefront of the region's development priorities, and a cornerstone for a forward-looking agenda for inclusive social transformation. Advances in gender equality have been credited with supporting poverty reduction and economic growth over the past two decades. As the region looks towards 2030, building on past gains and positioning gender equality as a powerful lever of national development would offer more sustainable pathways for inclusive growth where “no one is left behind.” This means going beyond commitments and investing in implementation. The SIGI results for this region suggest three strategic entry points for action: eliminating remaining discriminatory laws and practices (e.g. access to land and property; head of household); ensuring that laws and policies (particularly related to gender-based violence) are accompanied by strong monitoring and enforcement mechanisms and adequate budgets; and building coalitions around the gender agenda that go beyond traditional actors and include other government ministries, civil society, media and the private sector (e.g. the UNiTE campaign).

2. The business case for policy action is becoming clearer: tackling discriminatory social institutions can significantly boost the region's economic development. Promoting gender equality in legislative frameworks, practices and attitudes fosters inclusive economies, which are more resilient and dynamic, particularly important in the current economic environment. New evidence based on the SIGI points to the adverse impacts of discriminatory social institutions on long-term growth (Ferrant and Kolev, 2016). Overall, gender-based discrimination in social institutions is estimated to represent income losses of USD 658 billion across the region.

3. Social norm approaches to empowering women and tackling gender gaps are effective means to breaking cycles of discrimination and inequality. Integrating a social norms approach to both gender equality and economic policies could counter the slackening pace of progress in women's economic empowerment and other empowerment indicators. For example, addressing norms around women's caregiving responsibilities within labour force policies would remove an important barrier to female labour force participation. Understanding how social norms exacerbate gender inequalities across a lifetime is equally important: discriminatory practices or norms that occur during adolescence, such as early marriage or adolescent pregnancy, perpetuate a vicious cycle wherein women will face reduced education, employment and financial security opportunities, which cumulate at every stage of their life. Policy interventions that address only one aspect of gender inequality without the underlying norms thus have a “palliative” rather than a “curative” and sustainable impact.

4. Shifting social norms around gender-based violence is critical to combat the pandemic. The region-wide campaign and call to action, “ni una mas” (not one more), has put Latin America and the Caribbean's high levels of gender-based violence on the media and political radars. In particular, the role of social norms in driving this pandemic is in the spotlight. The SIGI results for the region indicate that despite efforts by most countries to strengthen legislative frameworks, implementation and attitudes towards violence continue to lag behind. Putting social norm transformation at the core of the policy response can help to operationalise commitments and laws by tackling the root causes and promoting more holistic and long-term solutions. This Report highlights good practices from across the region that have shown promising results, such as awareness-raising and capacity building training for service providers and the judicial system, promotion of more positive masculinity models, or community programmes working with teenagers to challenge norms around gender-based violence.

5. The Sustainable Development Goals offer new opportunities for the region to respect its commitments to gender equality and catalyse and track socially transformative change. The new global framework sets ambitious targets on many of the principal challenges confronting the region, such as unpaid care work, women's low political participation, early marriage, and violence against women and girls. SDG 5 should be leveraged to optimise existing efforts at the national and regional levels, simultaneously reinvigorating and benchmarking existing laws, policies and commitments. Current scorecards for the region suggest that some key targets will be missed if urgent action is not taken now on early marriage prevalence rates, or violence against women (Nicolai, et al., 2016).

Key results

Discriminatory family code

Women and men enjoy equal legal rights in the family, including exercising parental authority and inheriting from a spouse or parent, in almost all countries in the region (21 out of 22). In practice, however, women's decision-making power is curtailed by negative stereotypes and discriminatory social norms dictating appropriate gender roles in the home. An important gap in legalisation concerns early marriage, which is still legal in all but five countries (Argentina, Chile, Ecuador, El Salvador and Jamaica). The practice remains a significant concern for the region, but rates vary: in Nicaragua 47% of women aged 20-49 were married before the age of 18, whereas in Haiti, this affects 20% of women (DHS, 2001-2012).

Restricted physical integrity

Governments have significantly strengthened legal frameworks addressing violence against women over the past two decades: all countries in the region now cover domestic violence and rape in their legislation, while 11 countries have enacted comprehensive legislation to tackle sexual harassment in public areas. Discriminatory attitudes complicate the implementation of these laws: in Peru, 34% of women agree that domestic violence is justified under certain conditions. Indeed, women in the region face alarming rates of domestic violence. Close to one in three women has experienced physical or sexual violence from a current or former partner during their lifetime (ranging from 17% in the Dominican Republic to 64% in Bolivia).

Son bias

The region shows no evidence of missing women or fertility preferences for sons. Sex ratios at birth between girls and boys follow what would normally occur, suggesting that, unlike other developing regions, discrimination against the girl child in the form of sex-selective abortion or female infanticide is not a concern.

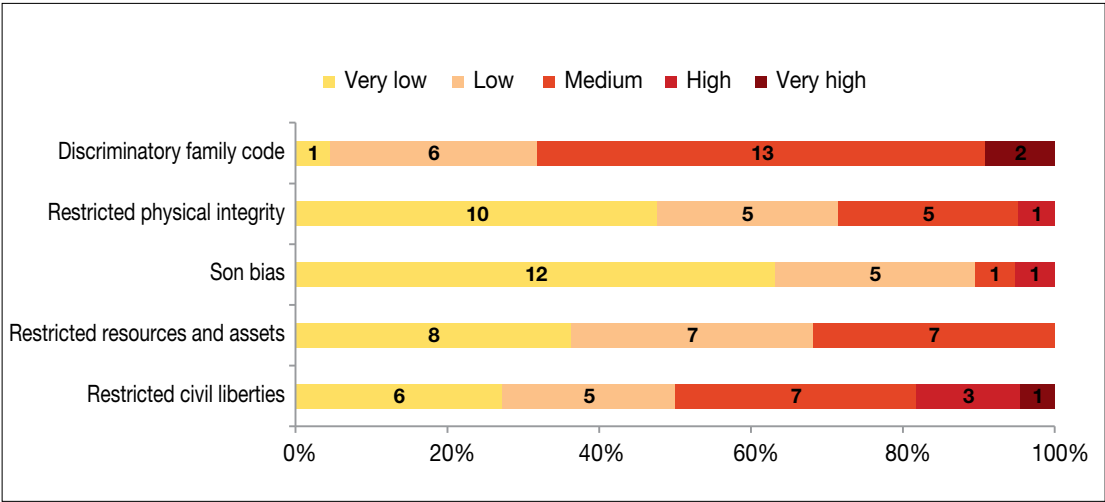
Restricted resources and assets

Countries have taken the necessary steps to remove legal restrictions against women's rights to land and non-land assets and financial services by enshrining gender equality in legal frameworks. Five countries explicitly recognise women's right to land in their constitutions (Argentina, Colombia, Cuba, Paraguay and Peru), while others have introduced policies and programmes to promote women's property ownership and access to financial services such as credit. Nevertheless, women's exercise of these rights is constrained by legal loop holes and discriminatory customs that may be especially pertinent for indigenous women. These are reflected in lower rates of land ownership for women, who account for less than a third of agricultural holders in the region, ranging from 8% in Guatemala to 30% in Chile and Panama.

Restricted civil liberties

Women's political voice in the region has expanded over the past three decades, and they now hold 23% of parliamentary seats, surpassing the global average of 21%. Over half of the countries (15 out of 22) have introduced quotas at the national and/or sub-national levels to promote women's political representation, which helps to explain the regional diversity of women in parliaments. Quotas in Argentina, Costa Rica and Mexico have led to impressive results with women's share of legislative seats exceeding the established quota. In contrast, women hold only 4% of parliamentary seats in Haiti without the support of legislative quotas.

Figure 1.2. Regional overview of SIGI performance by sub-index



Note: This figure presents the share and number of countries by level of discrimination in the SIGI sub-indices. 21 out of the 22 countries in the Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) region are classified in the restricted physical integrity sub-index and 19 out of the 22 countries in the LAC region are classified in the son bias sub-index (see Annex on page XX).
 Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

Tackling gender discrimination in social institutions: Learning from Argentina

Courtesy of a strong legislative framework and vibrant women’s rights movement, Argentina has performed very strongly in the 2014 edition of the SIGI. It has very low levels of discrimination in the SIGI sub-indices of restricted physical integrity, civil liberties and son bias and low levels of discrimination in the restricted access to resources and assets and discriminatory family code sub-indices (Figure 1.3).

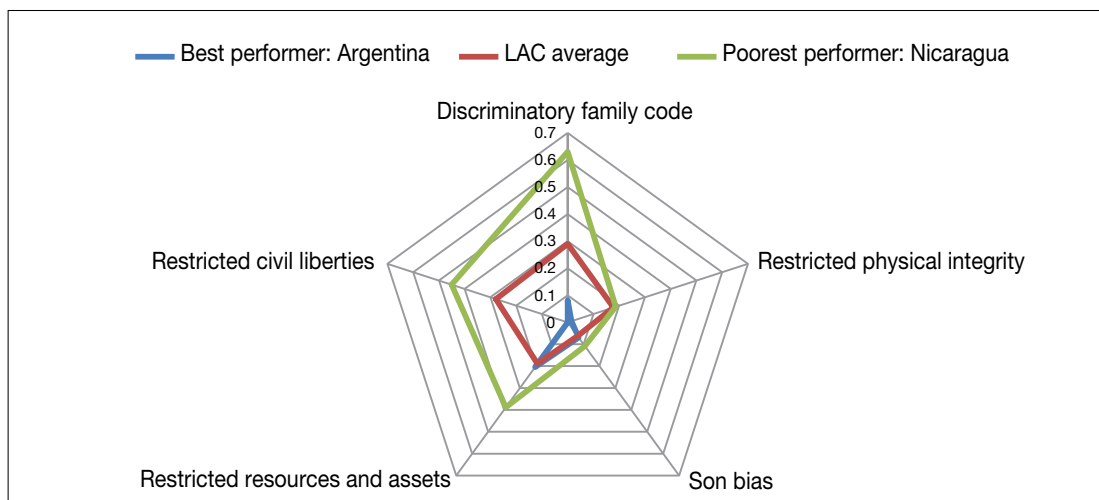
The principle of equality between all citizens is enshrined in the national constitution (Section 16). However, women in Argentina continue to face the threats of violence and early marriage, and there remain gender gaps in access to land and financial services.

According to the Argentinian Civil Code, women and men are entitled to the same rights in matters of family, labour, property and inheritance. Parental rights and duties are shared by both parents (Law 23264/85). Women and men can equally initiate divorce, and have equal authority over children after the separation. The legal age of marriage for women and men is 18 although there are exceptions: both sexes can marry at the age of 16 with parental consent, and this can be lowered with judicial consent (Art 403 and 404). This legal loophole explains the prevalence of early marriage: 13% of girls are married or in union before the age of 18. In addition, time-surveys show that women spend two to three times more time on unpaid care work than men (INDEC, 2013).

Since ratifying the Belém do Pará Convention (1994), Argentina has made significant progress regarding domestic violence legislation. Since 2009, Law 26/485 recognises the necessity to take action to end partner violence against women. The law contains provisions encouraging changes in the education system, as well as gender-responsive training for armed and security forces. The law also requires that violence survivors be provided with psychological, economic and physical support, and expressly excludes mediation and reconciliation in court for these matters (art. 28). However domestic violence is still treated as a misdemeanour offense, prosecuted in the civil rather than criminal court. The National Council of Women (CNM), which oversees the implementation of this legislation, also seems to lack adequate resources (CEDAW shadow report, ELA et al., 2010). Rape is criminalised under Law 25/087 (1999), which includes marital rape, but the need to provide proof of sexual injury to obtain a conviction has been criticised by women’s rights groups as an important obstacle for

implementation. The Argentinian Criminal Code also prohibits sexual harassment (Law 25/087) with penalties varying from five days to four years in prison, depending on the city and province. As in other countries of the region, femicide is a major concern and in 2012, an amendment to Article 80 of the Criminal Code increased the penalty for feminicidios to life in prison. Finally, it is worth noting that Argentinian indigenous women are still particularly vulnerable to gender based violence (IACHR, 2013).

Figure 1.3. **Regional average, best and poorest performers by SIGI sub-index**



Note: This figure presents SIGI sub-index scores of the regional average and the best (Argentina) and poorest (Nicaragua) performers in the SIGI. Higher SIGI values indicate higher inequality: the SIGI ranges from 0 for low discrimination to 1 for very high discrimination.

Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

There is no evidence to suggest that missing women is an issue in Argentina. In regard to education, the gender gap is virtually non-existent, when not in favour of girls: In tertiary education, women account for 58% of bachelor's students, 57% of doctoral students and 53% of researchers (UIS, 2014). Although gender gaps in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) fields persist, women make up for one in three graduates in engineering, manufacturing, construction and computing, which is above the OECD countries' average (OECD, 2015).

Under the Constitution, Argentinian women and men have equal rights to land ownership, as well as to access credit and loan services from a formal financial institution. However, in practice women head only 18% of all agricultural holdings (FAO, n.d.). They also remain over-represented in the informal sector and in low-wage employment, thus they may encounter difficulties in accessing loans (ELA et al., 2010). In 2014, 8% of women had borrowed from a financial institution in the past year, against 9% of men (World Bank, 2014a). The gender gap in entrepreneurship is similar to most countries in the region: 18% of adult men are involved in entrepreneurial activities, for 11% of women (GEM, 2014; OECD/ECLAC/CAF, 2016).

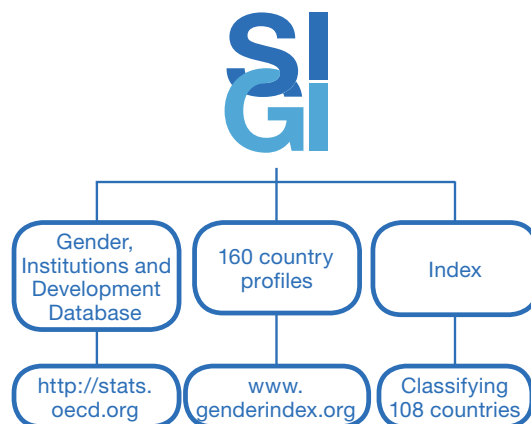
Argentina has a long-standing tradition of female political leadership. Argentina became the first country in Latin America to establish political quotas: the law imposes a minimum of 30% female candidates in the lists for legislative elections (Electoral Code, Article 60, 3-4). In recent years, an increasing number of women have been elected as heads of municipalities: for instance, Buenos Aires and Santa Fe both had women mayors. In 2016, 36% of parliamentarians and 42% of senators were women (IPU, 2016).

Equal pay for equal work is guaranteed by the Argentinian legislation (Law 20/392). However, the gender pay gap remains significant: in 2011, men earned an average of 27% more than women (ILO, 2015a). Besides, labour force participation rates in Argentina are still very unequal: in 2013, women represented 40% of the total labour force (World Bank, n.d.). Argentina's maternity leave policy is close to but does not comply with the International Labour Organization's recommendations of 14 weeks of paid leave: women are granted 90 days paid for by the government, while men are granted two days of leave funded by their own company (World Bank, 2015b). Since 2009, the Universal Child Allowance also helps parents who are unemployed or work in the informal sector.

Description of the SIGI and its sub-indices

The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) measures gender-based discrimination in social norms, practices and laws across 160 countries. The SIGI comprises country profiles, a classification of countries and a database; it serves as a research, policy and advocacy tool for the development community and policy makers (Figure 1.4). The SIGI covers five dimensions, spanning major socio-economic areas that affect the life course of a girl and woman: discriminatory family code, restricted physical integrity, son bias, restricted resources and assets, and restricted civil liberties (Figure 1.5). These dimensions look at the gaps that legislation, prevalence and attitudes create between women and men in terms of rights and opportunities.

Figure 1.4. **The SIGI tools**



As a composite index, the SIGI scores countries on 14 indicators. As shown by Figure 1.5, the indicators are grouped into five sub-indices that measure one dimension of social institutions related to gender inequality.

Discriminatory social institutions are formal and informal laws, social norms and practices that restrict or exclude women and consequently curtail their access to rights, justice, resources and empowerment opportunities.

The SIGI is an unweighted average of a non-linear function of the following five sub-indices: discriminatory family code, restricted physical integrity, son bias, restricted resources and assets, and restricted civil liberties. The SIGI and its sub-indices values are between 0 and 1, with 0 indicating no inequality and 1 indicating complete inequality (cf. Methodology in the Annex or the full methodological background paper available at www.genderindex.org).

Discriminatory family code

This sub-index captures social institutions that limit women's decision-making power and undervalue their status in the household and the family. These formal and informal laws, social norms and practices co-exist in different types of legal systems including civil or common law, customary law, and religious laws and cover areas such as marriage, parental authority and inheritance. Women's decision-making power and status determine both their ability to choose their own development pathways and the well-being of their families.

Restricted physical integrity

This sub-index captures social institutions that limit women's and girls' control over their bodies, that increase women's vulnerability, and that normalise attitudes toward gender-based violence. This includes formal and informal laws, norms and practices that fail to protect women's physical integrity and reproductive autonomy and that allow violence and female genital mutilation. Restricted physical integrity due to gender-based violence and to a lack of reproductive autonomy has serious impacts on health outcomes for women and their children and on economic and social development indicators by increasing women's vulnerability to poverty.

Son bias

This sub-index captures unequal intra-household investments in caring for, nurturing and allocating resources to sons and daughters reflecting the lower value given to girls. A family preference for sons over daughters can manifest itself in different ways, including higher mortality, worse health status or lower educational attainment among girls. Consequences of social norms and practices that devalue daughters are various: missing women, under-investment in the health and nutrition of girls leading to infant mortality, under-investment in girls' education, etc.

Restricted resources and assets

This sub-index captures discrimination in women's rights to access and make decisions over natural and economic resources. This includes discriminatory practices which undermine women's rights to own, control or use land and non-land assets; discriminatory practices that restrict women's access to financial services; and social norms imposing that women's assets be mediated only by men. Insecure or weak rights to land, non-land assets and financial services reduce income-generating opportunities for women, lower decision-making power for women within the household, increase food insecurity for women and their families, and make women and families more vulnerable to poverty.

Restricted civil liberties

This sub-index captures discriminatory laws and practices that restrict women's access to public space, their political voice and their participation in all aspects of public life. This includes a lack of freedom of movement, the inability to vote or run for election, and negative attitudes toward women as public figures or as leaders. This sub-index highlights the importance of women's participation in community actions and public decision making for a range of development outcomes such as governance, health and education.

Figure 1.5. **The composition of the SIGI**

Social Institutions and Gender Index				
Discriminatory family code	Restricted physical integrity	Son bias	Restricted resources and assets	Restricted civil liberties
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legal age of marriage • Early marriage • Parental authority • Inheritance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Violence against women • Female genital mutilation • Reproductive autonomy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Missing women • Fertility preferences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secure access to land • Secure access to non-land assets • Access to financial services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to public space • Political voice

Note: For more information, please refer to the methodology in Annex (see page XX) or the full methodological background paper available at www.genderindex.org.

SIGI classification

The 2014 edition of the SIGI scores 108 countries according to their level of discrimination in social institutions. It classifies them into five groups, from very low levels of discrimination in social institutions (15% of the countries, with a SIGI average of 0.02) to very high levels (16% of the countries). This classification groups countries having a similar level of discrimination in the SIGI by minimising differences between countries' SIGI scores in the same class and maximising the differences between classes.

The scores for the LAC region from the 2014 edition of the SIGI and its five sub-indices are presented in the Annex (see page XX).

Classifications for all 108 countries according to the sub-indices are as follows:

- The discriminatory family code sub-index classifies 159 countries. Top performers are Australia, Korea and South Africa, among others, while the poorest performers include Afghanistan, India and Mali.
- The restricted physical integrity sub-index classifies 120 countries. Top performers are France, the United States and Uruguay, among others, while the poorest performers include Mauritania, Somalia and Sudan.
- The son bias sub-index classifies 129 countries. Top performers are Costa Rica, Haiti and Swaziland, among others, while the poorest performers include Azerbaijan, Nepal and Pakistan.

- The restricted resources and assets sub-index classifies 160 countries. Top performers are Mauritius, Sweden and Ukraine, among others, while the poorest performers include Cameroon, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Papua New Guinea.
- The restricted civil liberties sub-index classifies 160 countries. Top performers are Bolivia, Lesotho and Zimbabwe, among others, while the poorest performers include Iran, Malaysia and Saudi Arabia.

Countries with very low levels of gender discrimination in social institutions (SIGI < 0.04)

These countries are characterised by robust legal frameworks and measures that provide equal rights in the family code and in access to resources and assets and that promote women's civil liberties. In most of these countries, women and men have equal parental and inheritance rights, and early marriage is not a common practice. Women do not face restrictions on their access to public space or their participation in politics. Neither missing women nor female genital mutilation is a concern. However, the countries lack laws to protect women from violence and measures to implement them, and women need better access to justice. On average 20% of women in these countries have been victims of domestic violence in their lifetime.

Countries with low levels of gender discrimination in social institutions (0.04 < SIGI < 0.12)

These countries are characterised by strong laws providing equal rights for women and men in the family code, in access to resources and assets, and in civil liberties. Both sexes enjoy equal opportunities to own and make decisions over land and other resources. Female genital mutilation is not practiced, and most women have reproductive autonomy. These countries have inadequate legal frameworks regarding violence against women. On average 31% of women have been victims of domestic violence in their lifetime, and more than 29% of women agree that domestic violence is justified under certain circumstances.

Countries with medium levels of gender discrimination in social institutions (0.12 < SIGI < 0.22)

These countries are characterised by inconsistent or conflicting legal frameworks covering the family code, women's access to resources and assets, and civil liberties. The strong influence of customary practices perpetuates discrimination in these areas. Specifically, women face discrimination in terms of the legal age of marriage, parental authority, inheritance, and rights to land and financial services. Women are restricted in their access to public space, as well as in their participation in political life due to the absence of quotas at the national and/or sub-national levels. Legal frameworks addressing violence against women are inadequate (e.g. certain types of violence are not included). On average, 39% of women agree that domestic violence is justified under certain circumstances.

Countries with high levels of gender discrimination in social institutions (0.22 < SIGI < 0.35)

These countries are characterised by discrimination embedded in customary laws, social norms and practices and by inappropriate legal protection against gender discrimination in all dimensions of social institutions. The legal frameworks and/or the customary laws discriminate against women in respect to the legal age of marriage, parental authority and inheritance. Women's physical integrity is restricted due to inadequate legal frameworks to address violence against women and high levels of acceptance of domestic violence. Moreover, female genital mutilation is a common practice. Most of these countries have medium to very high levels of devaluation of daughters and preference for sons, as shown by the numbers of missing women or the unbalanced sex ratios at last birth. Finally, women's access to public space and resources is limited. On average 32% of women have been victims of domestic violence in their lifetime, and more than 49% of women agree that domestic violence is justified under certain circumstances.

Countries with very high levels of gender discrimination in social institutions (SIGI > 0.35)

These countries are characterised by very high levels of discrimination in legal frameworks and customary practices across most sub-indices and by very poor implementation measures. The family code greatly discriminates against women: almost one third of girls younger than 19 are married, and women face severe discrimination in their parental authority and inheritance rights. Women's rights to own and control land and other resources and to access public space are extremely limited. There are serious infringements on their physical integrity matched by high levels of acceptance and prevalence of domestic violence: 44% of women have been victims of domestic violence, and 59% accept that it is justified under certain circumstances.

Latin America and the Caribbean countries

Argentina
Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela
Brazil
Chile
Colombia
Costa Rica
Cuba
Dominican Republic
Ecuador
El Salvador
Guatemala
Haiti
Honduras
Jamaica
Mexico
Nicaragua
Panama
Paraguay
Peru
Plurinational State of Bolivia
Trinidad and Tobago
Uruguay



SIGI 2014 results for Latin America and the Caribbean



Levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions

- Very low
- Low
- Medium
- High
- Very high
- Not ranked



SGI sub-index analysis





The discriminatory family code sub-index captures the restrictions on women’s decision-making power and their status in the household and the family. This sub-index measures the prevalence of early marriage, gender discrimination in the legal age of marriage, parental authority and inheritance rights.

Legal equality in the family between women and men has not been enough to ensure equal decision-making power or combat negative gender roles in the household. Women face medium levels of discrimination on average in the region (13 out of 22 countries), the highest levels of discrimination compared to the other four SIGI sub-indices. High rates of early marriage also contribute to the region’s relatively poor performance in this sub-index.



Discriminatory family code

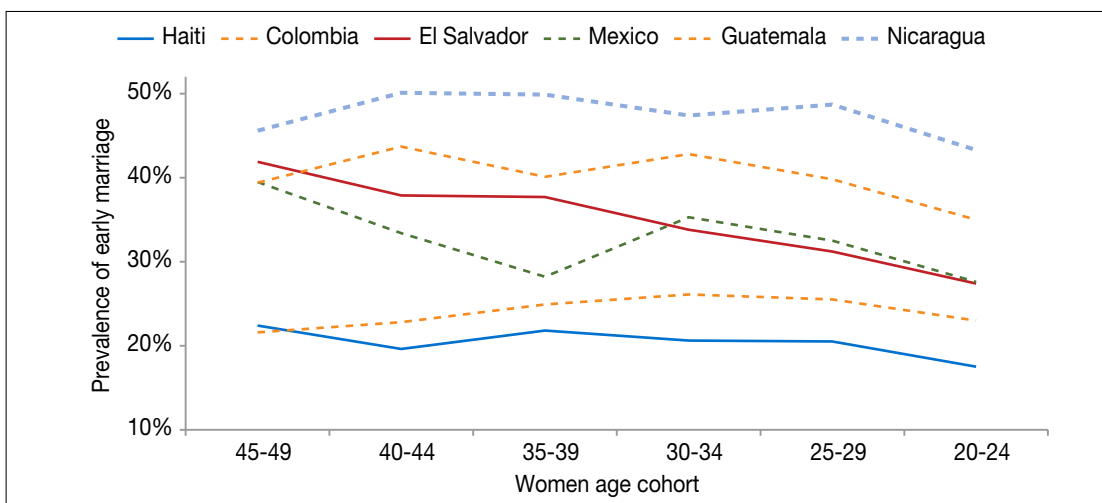
While family codes in Latin America and the Caribbean grant women and men equal legal rights, these are undermined by discriminatory social norms thereby curtailing women’s and girls’ real decision-making power in the family. These persistent gender inequalities in the family are reflected in the SIGI 2014 results for the region. The majority of countries are classified as having medium levels of discrimination against women in the family due in large part to high rates of early marriage and the persistence of negative gender stereotypes in the household. Country profiles for LAC point to restrictive gender roles in the family that undermine legal equality and result in power imbalances between women and men. Regional variation in SIGI classifications suggest a mixed picture: ranging from very low levels of discrimination in Jamaica to very high levels in Haiti and Nicaragua.

Early marriage remains an important barrier to girls’ empowerment in the region where progress to end the practice has been slow. Overall, 23% of women in LAC aged 20 to 24 were married or in a union before the age of 18, and 5% before the age of 15 (UNICEF, 2016). Trends in early marriage differ throughout the region: the practice is less common in the Caribbean (1% in Jamaica and 3% in Trinidad and Tobago) whereas in Nicaragua 30% of girls aged 15-19 are married, divorced or widowed. There are also differences in the mean age of first marriage with women marrying later than 30 in some Caribbean countries but around 21 in Honduras and Nicaragua (UN, 2015b). Compared to other geographical regions, LAC is the only region with no significant reduction in early marriages over the last three decades (UNICEF, 2016).

Early marriage is defined as a formal marriage or informal union before the recommended minimum age as established by a number of international declarations and conventions. It is measured as the percentage of girls aged 15-19 who are married, divorced, widowed or in informal unions.

A combination of factors contributes to the region’s high prevalence of early marriage and stalled progress to end the practice including national laws which permit girls to marry before 18 (Figure 2.1.1). Only Argentina, Chile, Ecuador, El Salvador and Jamaica have passed legislation setting the **minimum legal age of marriage** at 18 for both boys and girls. In the remaining 17 countries, girls can marry legally before the age of 18, with girls as young as 14 allowed to marry in Bolivia. In some instances, conflicting laws specify different ages creating confusion and weakening legal protection from early marriage (e.g. Dominican Republic, Honduras and Mexico). In Honduras, for example, the minimum legal age of marriage for girls is 12 with parental consent under the Civil Code but 21 under the Family Code. In Mexico, the minimum legal age of marriage is set at the state level, and ranges from 18 in certain states to 14 in others. Even where laws exist, unregistered unions may be seen as a solution to get around the legal age of marriage (e.g. Bolivia). Unregistered unions are very common in the region and there is some evidence that the practice is increasing in some countries. In Uruguay, for example, 42% of women aged 25-29 were in an unregistered union in 2011 compared to only 16% in 1996 (UN, 2015b).

Figure 2.1.1. **Early marriage prevalence remains high across age cohorts in LAC**



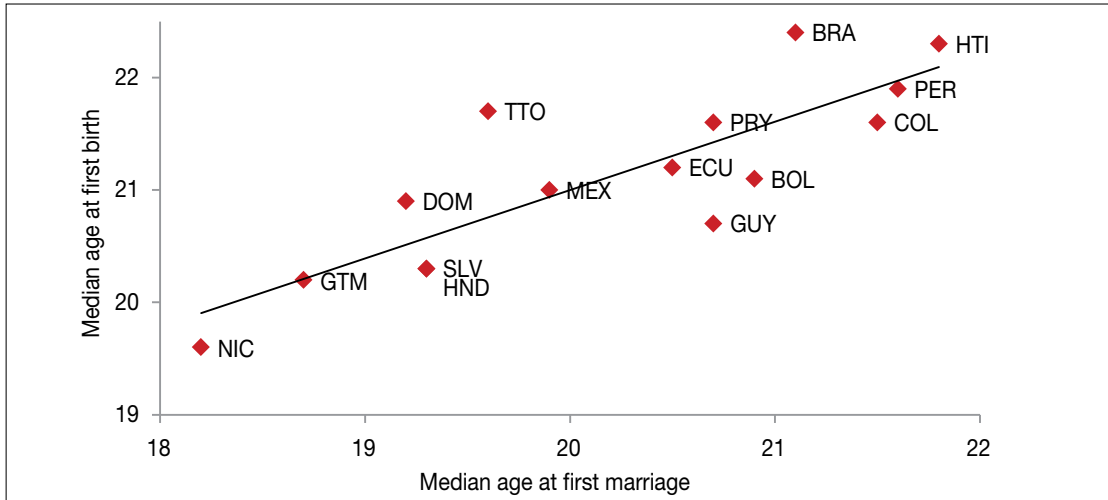
Note: This figure presents the prevalence rate of early marriage among women, measured as the percentage of women who married before the age of 18, by age cohort.

Source: Demographic and Health Surveys (1987-2013), *Demographic and Health Surveys*, www.statcompiler.com.

The practice of early marriage is connected to the priority given to marriage and motherhood for women and girls in society. A qualitative survey undertaken by Promundo in Brazil found that marriage is often seen as a rite of passage into adulthood for girls and is associated with independence from her childhood home. This is also closely intertwined with the high incidence of adolescent pregnancy found in the region (Figure 2.1.2). The two discriminatory practices stem from similar causes such as poverty and lack of educational opportunities but are also risk factors: girls who marry early are more likely to become pregnant as an adolescent whereas adolescent pregnancy and the fear of becoming pregnant may drive young girls into early marriages (UNFPA, 2012; Taylor et al., 2015). As with early marriage, rates of adolescent pregnancy have been slow to decline, from 107 births per 1 000 women aged 15 to 19 in 1960 to 65 births in 2014, and are above the global average of 45. Only certain Caribbean countries have seen an increase in the median age of first birth (Chioda, 2016). However, in all countries in the region, the decline in adolescent fertility has been slower than the decline in total fertility (Binstock and Naslund-Hadley, 2010).

Early marriage patterns are influenced by girls' access to education and economic resources. Research conducted in Honduras points to the lack of quality education and work opportunities as push-factors for girls to marry early (Leal and Murphy-Graham, 2014). The practice of early marriage also shows distinct differences among income groups: in the Dominican Republic, the poorest girls marry at 17 on average, four years earlier than the wealthiest girls (UNICEF, 2014). There are also stark urban/rural differences with rates of early marriage almost twice as high in rural areas, where employment and education opportunities are often further limited (UNICEF, 2014). In Promundo's Brazil survey, both girls and parents perceived marriage even at a young age as a security measure to protect a girl's reputation and ensure her financial security (Taylor et al., 2015).

Figure 2.1.2. **The younger women marry, the younger they become mothers**



Note: This figure presents the correlation between median age at first marriage and median age at first birth among women aged 25-49 years.

Source: Demographic and Health Surveys (1987-2013), *Demographic and Health Surveys*, www.statcompiler.com.

Despite legal equality, women's and men's **parental authority** is still greatly influenced by social norms that shape intra-household relations. The majority of countries in the region accord women and men equal parental authority during marriage. One exception is Chile where the Constitution (art. 19.2) states that the father is "head of the conjugal partnership" and is in charge of the administration of family assets. In other countries, laws granting women and men equal parental authority are weakened by discriminatory clauses or articles found in the larger legal framework. For example in Costa Rica, the Family Code (2007) grants equal parental authority between parents, but men are required to provide for the family financially. In Guatemala, equal parental authority as afforded by the Civil Code is contradicted by Article 225 which states that "the husband must represent the minor and administer his or her property". Discriminatory clauses such as these perpetuate the traditional male-breadwinner model and curtail women's decision-making power in the family. Country profiles provide further evidence that fathers are seen as the de-facto head of household in the home in spite of legal equality (e.g. Costa Rica, Honduras and Jamaica).

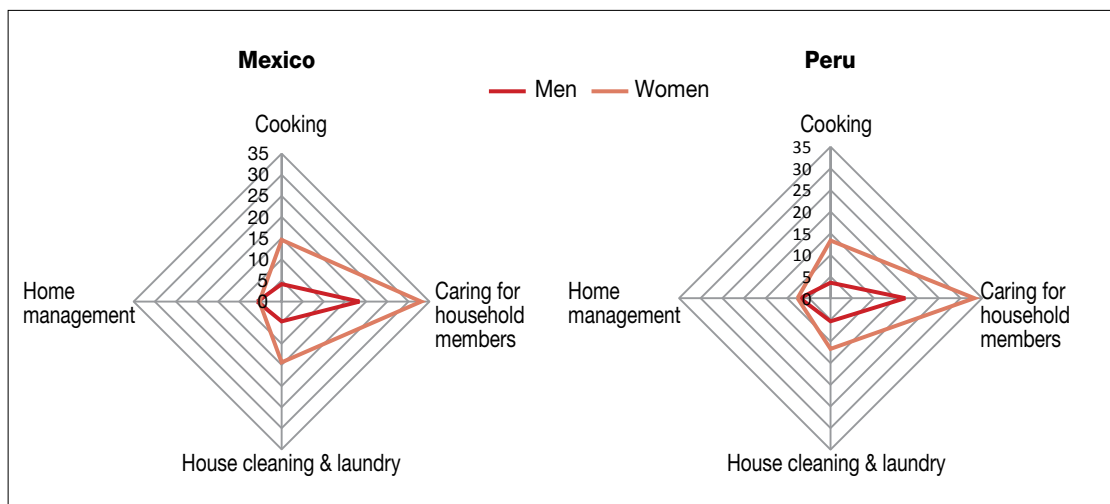
After divorce, women and men continue to share legal parental authority in all 22 countries. Parental roles after divorce are often determined by child custody practices which tend to mirror and reinforce stereotypical gender roles, with fathers being confined to less parenthood responsibilities other than as financial provider, and mothers confirmed in the primary caregiving role. For example, in Venezuela, custody for children under seven years of age is automatically granted to the mother (Civil Code, Article 192), while in Uruguay the same is true for children under five (Civil Code, Articles 171-176).

Country profiles for Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica and Peru, among others, note that after divorce, child custody is most often awarded to the mother. This may be to the detriment of the mother and child if the mother has difficulty securing child maintenance payments. In 2005, Costa Rica passed the Responsible Parenting Act and developed the Protocol for Police Action regarding Alimony and Child Support Payments to address this issue and ensure that single parents receive child maintenance payments.

Women’s and girls’ legal **inheritance** rights in the region are hurt by gaps in laws and high rates of unregistered unions. SIGI country profiles highlight the vulnerable position of widows in unregistered unions when these are not recognised by the state, thus blocking them from inheriting (e.g. Chile, Haiti and Peru). This impacts an important share of widows as unregistered unions are common throughout the region (UN, 2015b). Ecuador has addressed this issue by recognising unregistered domestic partnerships as equal to marriage in the Civil Code to ensure partners’ rights to inheritance. Country profiles for the region also highlight the vulnerable position of rural and indigenous women who may be discriminated against under customary and local laws especially if their marriages are not registered with the state (e.g. Brazil, Bolivia and Paraguay). Daughters as well as sons are also affected by discriminatory legislation that does not recognise children born out of wedlock.

The unequal distribution of **unpaid care work** between women and men is further evidence of the persistence of traditional gender roles in the household. Women in LAC undertake between twice as much unpaid care work as men in Chile to four times as much in Ecuador and Nicaragua (OECD, 2014a). Moreover, even when both are participating in housework, women’s and men’s responsibilities differ: in Mexico and Peru for example, women spend twice as much time as men in unpaid care work (Figure 2.1.3). Women’s larger share of unpaid care work has a negative impact on their labour force outcomes (Ferrant, Pesando and Nowacka, 2014). Research has shown that women’s time poverty contributes to lower female labour force participation, gender wage gaps and sector segregation with women opting for more secure or flexible jobs often at a lower pay to balance their work and family responsibilities (see Section 3). The negative impacts are exacerbated for women in low-income households due to lack of affordable childcare and poor social benefits (UN Women, 2015a).

Figure 2.1.3. **Time spent on unpaid care activities by women and men in Mexico and Peru**

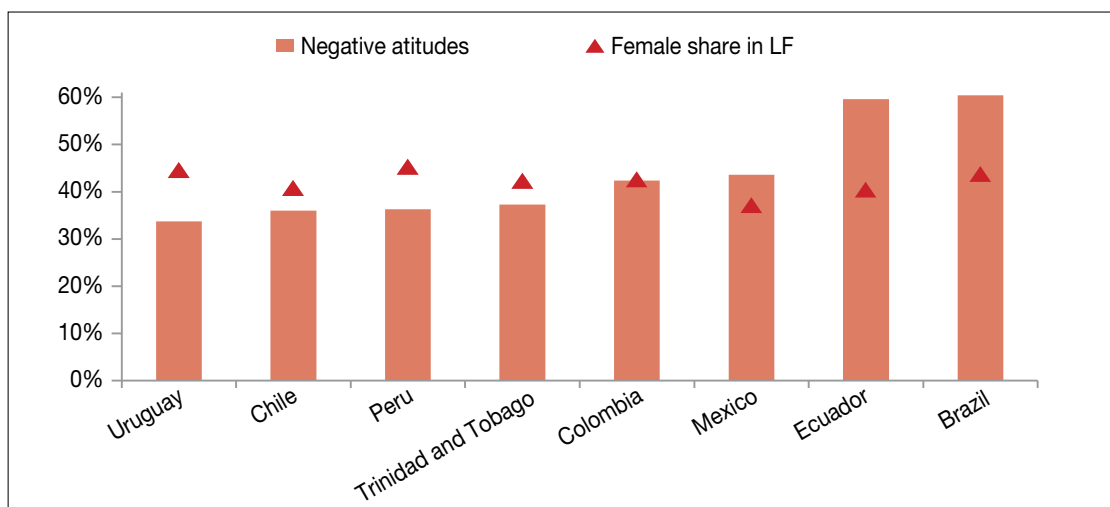


Note: This figure presents the time spent on housework by women and men in selected countries, expressed in hours per week. Home management refers to repairs, managing and shopping.

Source: Pedrero Nieto (2013), "Time use and gender inequalities. Some evidence from three Latin American countries".

Discriminatory social norms which regulate intra-household relations are reflected in attitudes towards the division of tasks within the family showing a strong preference for stereotypical gender roles following the male-breadwinner model (Chioda, 2016). Results from the World Values Survey reveal that women and men share similar attitudes towards traditional gender roles in the family. While attitudes differ slightly depending on age, with older women and men more likely to support traditional gender roles, both women and men agree that husbands should provide for their families and earn more than their wife and that a woman's role does not extend beyond her duty as a mother and caregiver (Chioda, 2016). For example, 43% of respondents in Uruguay declare that children will suffer when a mother is in paid employment, with this figure increasing to 60% in Brazil (Figure 2.1.4). There are promising signs that these rigid traditional gender roles are changing, providing more opportunity for men and women to enter non-traditional spaces: egalitarian attitudes towards working mothers is on the increase, in particular among younger age groups (Chioda, 2016).

Figure 2.1.4. **Attitudes towards working mothers and female labour force participation**



Note: This figure presents the percentage of respondents having negative attitudes towards working mothers, measured as the percentage of respondents agreeing that children will suffer when mothers are working outside home for a pay (2010-14), and the 2014 female share in Labour Force (LF) as the share of total labour force.

Sources: World Values Survey (2010-14), World Value Survey Wave 6 (database), www.worldvaluessurvey.org; World Bank (2015a), World Development Indicators, <http://data.worldbank.org>.

Good practices

- **Training and mentoring young girls to prevent early marriage:** Since 2004, the Population Council co-ordinates the Abriendo Oportunidades programme in Guatemala, which targets Mayan girls aged 8–19 with the goal of preventing early marriage and promoting their education. The programme seeks to improve girls' leadership skills and to provide them with professional training and experience within a social support network made of peers, mentors and role models. Girls are trained to run community clubs that become safe spaces where they can learn, work on their leadership abilities and develop a sense of community. The programme was first implemented in several rural communities in Guatemala before expanding nationally and in the region: it is now active in Belize and Mexico under the name Abriendo Futuros. Since its beginning, Abriendo Oportunidades has reached 8 000 girls in 100 communities, relying on a network of 100 young indigenous mentors. A 2007 evaluation conducted in Guatemala showed that all of the programme's girl leaders had completed the sixth grade, while the national average is 82%. In addition, 97% remained childless during the programme, while the national average for girls is 78%. Another evaluation conducted in 2011 showed that 97% of the programme's girl leaders remained unmarried during its duration. 94% also wished to delay childbearing until after age 20 (Population Council, 2016).
- **Providing free childcare to support mothers' employment and education:** In 2006, the Chilean government launched the social protection programme, Chile Crece Contigo (Chile Grows with You), with the objective of protecting early childhood while supporting mothers' education and participation in the labour market. The central pillar of the project is the creation of free public nurseries: the system provides mothers who are working or seeking employment with free childcare for all of their children under two. Crece Contigo also targets mothers who are studying, in particular teenage mothers, and aims to prevent them from dropping out of school. Since the launch of the programme, more than 3 000 nurseries have been opened, accommodating up to 70 000 infants. For the most vulnerable 40% of the Chilean population who is eligible for Crece Contigo, other benefits include the distribution of a prenatal family subsidy and preferential access to childhood development services. The general aim is to shift the burden of daily caregiving from mothers to the State, allowing women to be more fairly represented in the labour market and shifting the balance towards a more equal distribution of parental duties. The impact on women's employment is significant: there is evidence that access to childcare centres accounts for an increase in mothers' probability of employment by approximately 17 percentage points (Bentancor, 2012).
- **Improving the gender responsiveness of a family-oriented cash-transfer programme:** The Brazilian cash-transfer programme Bolsa Familia was launched in 2003 to fight extreme poverty by helping the country's most vulnerable households, on the conditions that their children have up-to-date vaccinations, attend school regularly, and get annual medical check-ups. Research has found the programme to have a positive impact on children's educational attainment rates, especially for young and adolescent girls (IFRI, 2014). However, evaluations suggested that one negative side effect of the programme was that it reinforced the image of the mother as the primary caregiver. In this context, the Brazilian NGO, Promundo, is currently working on recommendations to improve the gender-responsiveness of Bolsa Familia and amplify its impact on women's and girls' empowerment. Promundo aims to present its results to the Brazilian government and international community in order to raise awareness on the benefits of gender-transformative conditional cash transfers, with the hope of scaling up the project to other states with similar systems in the future.

Box 2.1. MenCare: Engaging men as positive, non-violent fathers and caregivers

MenCare: A Global Fatherhood Campaign works to promote men's involvement as equitable, non-violent fathers and caregivers as a means to achieve family well-being, gender equality, and better health for both parents and children. Co-coordinated globally by Promundo and Sonke Gender Justice, the campaign has expanded to over 40 countries since its founding in 2011, including nine countries in Latin America.



MenCare's evidence-based programming in Latin America engages men and women to become equally active parents, more equitable partners, and agents of positive change in their communities. One of MenCare's flagship programmes is Program P, named after padre and pai, the words for father in Spanish and Portuguese. Developed by Puntos de Encuentro in Nicaragua, CulturaSalud in Chile, and the Brazilian Ministry of Health, Program P provides concrete strategies to engage men in active fatherhood, from prenatal care and birth through their children's infancy and early years.

The Program P manual contains background research on the importance of engaging men in caregiving, a toolkit for health professionals, interactive modules for gender-transformative workshops, and a practical guide to launching a community campaign.

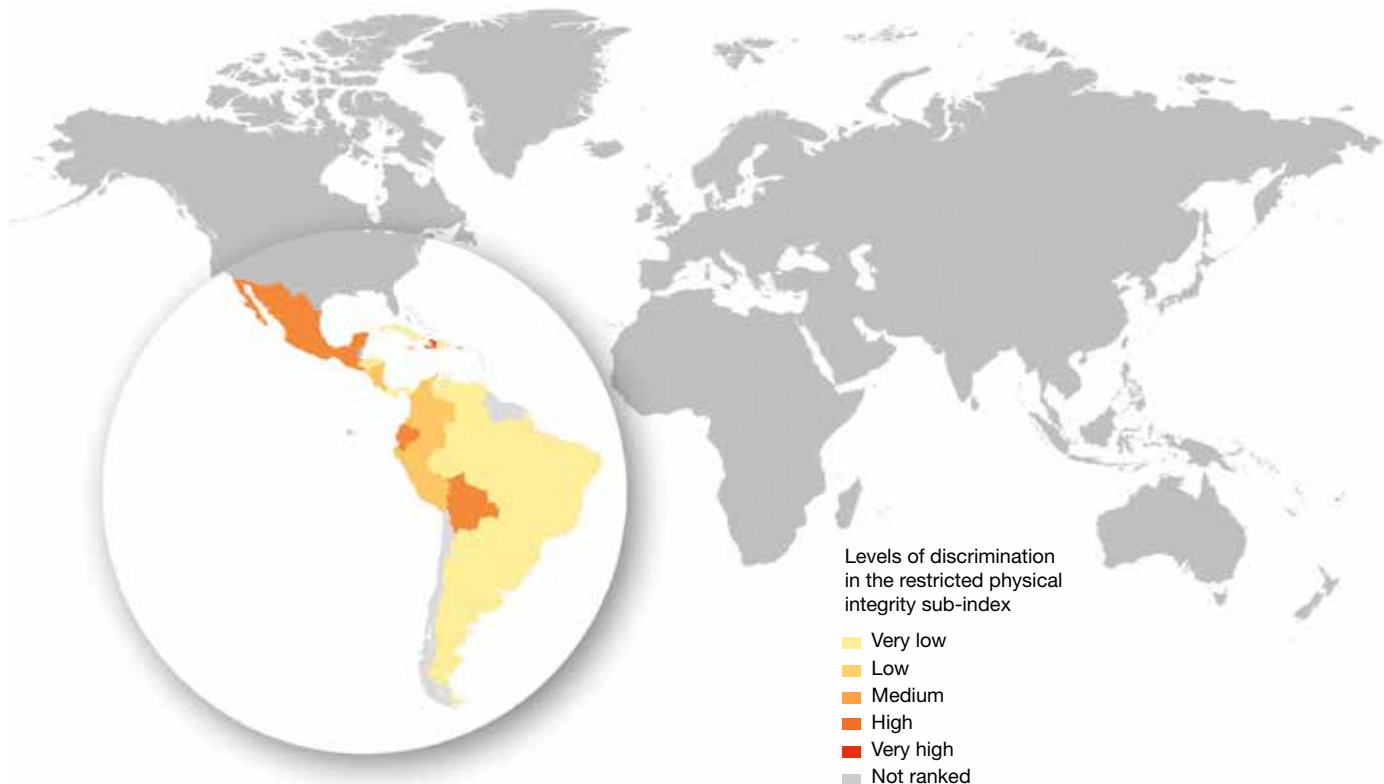
By targeting men through the health sector and beyond, Program P reaches new and expectant fathers and their partners at a critical moment for promoting new attitudes and behaviours related to care.

MenCare's partner organisations in Latin American countries are guided by the campaign's global work, but have adapted Program P to fit their local contexts. In Mexico, for example, MenCare partner *Cómplices por la Equidad* works directly with education, health and development professionals in five cities. The NGO also holds community workshops and is responsible for organising a fatherhood festival, which tours across the country.

Many MenCare partners in Latin America – including those in Brazil, Chile, Guatemala and Nicaragua – focus on the health sector as an entry point to engaging fathers. They train health professionals in strategies for engaging men in parenting and care, and they partner with ministries of health, government agencies, and other institutions to ensure the programme's reach and sustainability.

MenCare partners also use media campaigns and targeted advocacy to enhance the impact of their programming. In Nicaragua, the campaign "Vos sos mi papa" ("You are my father") shares inspiring, real-life stories about fatherhood through television, radio and videos. In Brazil, partners advocate for an expansion of paid paternity leave at the national level, as a means of changing the gendered dynamics of caregiving at home.

MenCare's impact has been recognised in evaluation studies in several Latin American countries. In Guatemala, for example, volunteer community and health educators trained in Program P conducted participatory sessions with 630 fathers. Fathers who completed the programme showed dramatic changes in their attitudes about the roles of men and women in caregiving, household duties and parenting responsibilities. By the end of the programme, nearly 30% more participants believed that changing a baby's diaper is not just a woman's responsibility, while approximately 25% more participants stated that an unemployed father could also be a responsible father (EMERGE, 2015).



The restricted physical integrity sub-index measures the following: prevalence of violence against women; attitudes towards violence against women; laws addressing domestic violence, rape (including spousal rape) and sexual harassment; and the prevalence of female genital mutilation (FGM). It also measures women’s reproductive autonomy.

Latin America and the Caribbean is one of the strongest performing regions in the SIGI 2014 for the restricted physical integrity sub-index courtesy of long-term investments in the legislative frameworks addressing gender-based violence. Ongoing efforts to strengthen the implementation of laws and promote comprehensive safeguards and services for survivors hold promise in tackling these important violations of women’s human rights.

Restricted physical integrity

Protecting women’s rights to freedom from violence and their sexual and reproductive health and rights have emerged as important priorities for the region over the past two decades, with important improvements in laws and other actions enacted to tackle these pernicious violations and restrictions of women’s rights. Since the landmark Belém do Para Convention (1995), the region’s governments have reinforced their legislative frameworks covering domestic violence, rape (including marital rape), sexual harassment as well as other forms of violence, such as femicide. This has been accompanied by ongoing efforts to tighten legal loopholes and provide more comprehensive and gender-responsive legal and welfare services to survivors of violence. Yet, the SIGI country profiles also highlight persistent weaknesses in enforcement and protection measures, and the ongoing struggle to reduce very high prevalence rates of gender-based violence.

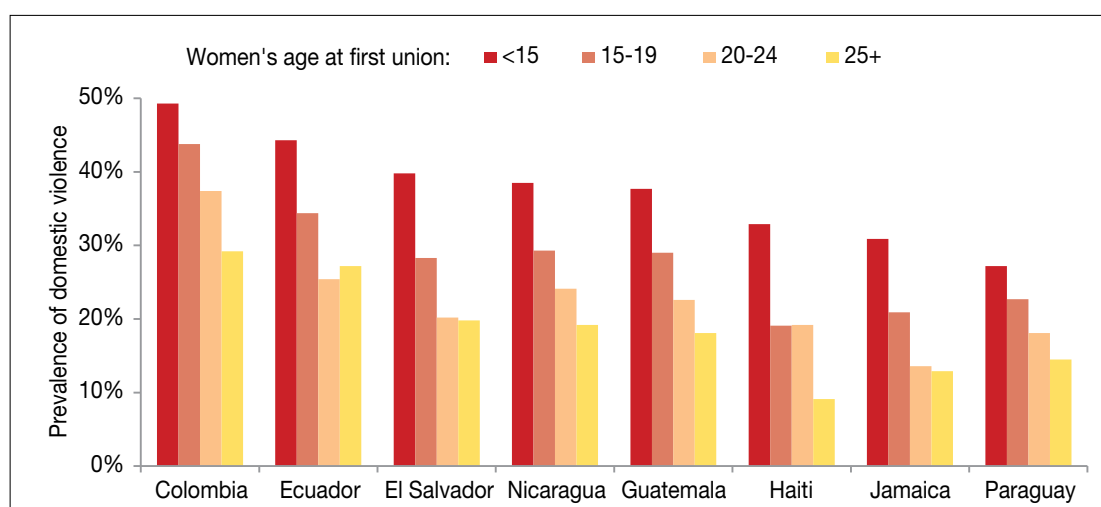
The Belém do Pará convention catalysed significant changes in the region’s legal and policy approaches to gender-based violence, setting a high international normative standard in respect to comprehensive legal responses to addressing this global pandemic. It has been ratified by 32 member states of the Organisation of American States (OAS) and has prompted reforms of national legislative frameworks in accordance with the Convention’s articles, with countries either introducing new laws or strengthening existing definitions and penalties (ECLAC, 2015a). All countries in the region now have some form of legislation addressing gender-based violence. In many countries, such as Colombia and Paraguay, the Convention takes precedence over domestic legislation (OAS, 2012). The Convention has continued to inspire further improvements in national frameworks, with countries reinforcing national legislation in the mid-2000s, following recommendations by the Convention’s reporting mechanism on implementation (MESECVI) (OAS, 2012).



The Convention provides a broad framework for countries to tackle gender-based violence. Except for economic violence, its definition recognises different forms of violence: “any act or conduct, based on gender, which causes death or physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, whether in the public or the private sphere” (Art. 1). In addition, it recognises the duty of governments and public authorities to protect women from all forms of violence and to address discriminatory attitudes and norms that underpin its persistence: “to modify legal or customary practices which sustain the persistence and tolerance of violence against women” (Art. 7).

Domestic violence remains pervasive throughout the region, with high prevalence rates in certain countries, but the introduction of new laws and awareness-raising campaigns appears to be making important inroads into shifting attitudes and practices. Across the region, on average close to one in three women have experienced physical or sexual violence from a current or former intimate partner during their lifetime: ranging from 17% (Dominican Republic) to 64% (Bolivia). Domestic violence incidence rates are associated with the lower status attributed to women within the family. Research points to early marriage as one critical factor: the prevalence of domestic violence for women who marry or enter into a union before the age of 15 is 14 times higher than those who marry or enter a union after the age of 25 (PAHO, 2013) (Figure 2.2.1).

Figure 2.2.1. **Domestic violence against women and early marriage**



Note: This figure presents the prevalence of domestic violence against women, measured as the percentage of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence from an intimate partner at some time in their lives, by age at first marriage or union, among women ever married or in union aged 15-49.

Source: Demographic and Health Surveys (2003-2009), www.statcompiler.com.

All countries in the region have a law covering domestic violence, with 13 offering comprehensive legal protection and services to survivors. In Colombia, for example, the Violence against Women Law (2008) offers a comprehensive definition of violence, which covers economic as well as psychological, physical and sexual violence, and includes the right to free health care, legal services and other forms of psychosocial support for survivors as well as their children (Art. 8). Chile’s Intra-family violence law (2005), recognised “habitual mistreatment” as a crime, and provides a range of victim protection services including protective orders (UN, 2009). Uruguay passed a law in 2002 to create specialised police units for domestic violence cases, reinforcing the Domestic Violence law (1995); a new bill proposed in 2015 promises to further strengthen existing penalties and measures. Responsibility for domestic violence legislation has also been prioritised at the highest levels in the Dominican Republic and Mexico, with dedicated units established within the Office of the Attorney General.

Other good practices aiming to support the implementation of laws range from institutional capacity building, welfare centres to local awareness-raising. In Costa Rica, the National Institute for Women has a specific budget line dedicated to service provision for domestic violence survivors. Helplines and welfare centres have been established across most countries, providing legal, health and other support services for domestic violence victims. For example, Domestic Violence Desks were established in

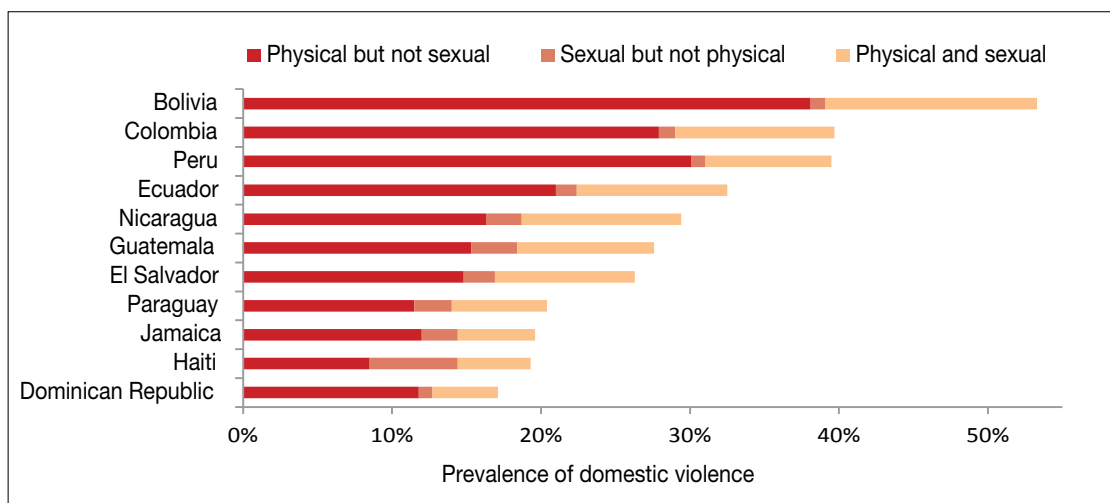
Jamaica which provide education awareness programmes, victim support services, counselling and support. In order to improve women’s access to justice, countries have also established specialised police units, and offer training to justice and legal officials to provide more gender-responsive services. For example, in Trinidad and Tobago, a procedural manual was prepared to help the local police better respond to domestic violence cases. Specialised gender-based violence tribunals have been set up in Venezuela. Awareness-raising campaigns aiming to challenge social norms around violence include public radio programmes (Chile and Colombia), television programmes, including soap operas (Brazil), and other activities organised under the UN’s UNiTE to End Violence against Women campaign (ECLAC, 2014a).

However, legal loopholes and underfunding weaken the efficacy and impact of these legislative efforts and good practices to address domestic violence. Domestic violence is often treated as a misdemeanour, falling under civil law rather than with criminal penalties (e.g. Argentina). Reconciliation or alternative measures, which allow perpetrators to escape criminal prosecution, are still permitted under Bolivia’s Law on the Protection of Victims of Sexual Violence. Female adultery remains a legal justification for more lenient sentences for spousal violence (e.g. Haiti). Service provision, such as welfare centres for survivors, tends to be concentrated in urban centres or is too scarce to meet demand (e.g. Argentina, Honduras and Panama). Low budget allocation underpins weak implementation, with local NGOs claiming insufficient resources provided for welfare and legal services: ECLAC recently noted that currently less than half of countries (40%) have dedicated budgets addressing gender-based violence (ECLAC, 2015b).

Nonetheless, legal and policy actions to curb or end domestic violence do seem to have made inroads in changing perceptions and attitudes. Across the region, the percentage of individuals, including women, who agree that domestic violence is justified under certain conditions remains ranges from 3% in Jamaica to 34% in Peru. This offers promise that past and current investments are beginning to change norms around domestic violence, “catching up” with the legislative and policy initiatives.

Rape remains a pervasive problem in the region: 460 reports of sexual violence are recorded every day with the majority of victims being women (UNDP, 2013). The percentage of women who report having experienced sexual violence in their life ranges from 10.3% in Paraguay (2008) to 27.2% in Haiti (2005/6) (PAHO, 2013). Various forms of violence against women overlap and exacerbate each other, increasing the survivors’ deprivation. Most victims of sexual violence also reported physical injuries: from 4% of women living in Dominican Republic to 14% in Bolivia have experienced both physical and sexual violence (Figure 2.2.2).

Figure 2.2.2. **Domestic violence: Overlap between physical and sexual violence**



Note: This figure presents the percentage of women ever married or in union aged 15-49 by their experience of different types and combinations of domestic violence, at some time in their lives.

Source: Demographic and Health Surveys (2003-2009), www.statcompiler.com

In the last decade efforts have been made by countries to curb and eradicate rape and other forms of sexual violence, through legislative reforms. However, implementation remains weak and has not kept up with advances made in legal reforms or responded fully to calls by women's rights groups.

Rape laws were strengthened throughout the region during the wave of "second generation" laws on gender-based violence introduced in the 2000s, which followed the dispositions of the Belém do Pará convention by taking a more comprehensive approach to defining sexual assault (e.g. Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Honduras, Mexico, Paraguay, and Trinidad and Tobago). As a result, spousal rape has been increasingly included in national legislations (e.g. Costa Rica, Guatemala, Jamaica, Mexico, Venezuela). New laws also forbid perpetrators from escaping prosecution by marrying their victim (e.g. Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Uruguay). Moreover, several countries oblige public prosecution of rape cases whether or not the victim presses or retracts charges (e.g. El Salvador, Honduras).

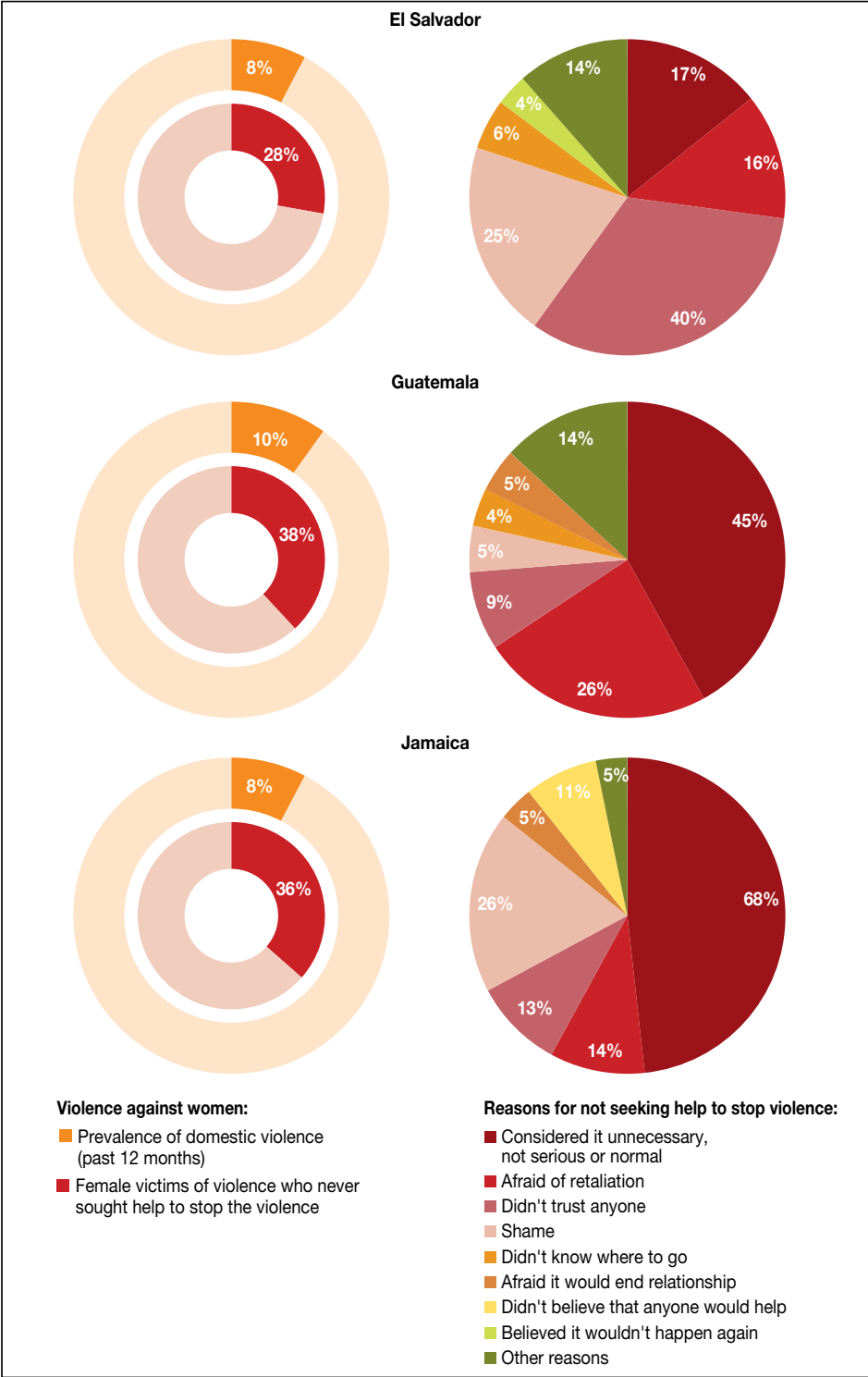
Stronger penalties for aggravated rape cases have been introduced since 2000. Common aggravating factors include rape of minors, incest or disability (e.g. Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Nicaragua). Under the new Bolivian law (Law 348, 2013), for example, the typical prison sentence for aggravated rape increased from 4-10 years to 20-30 years.

National strategies aim to respond to survivors' needs through the provision of support and welfare services. Several countries enacted protocols for the care of victims of sexual violence (e.g. Argentina, Belize, Costa Rica, Paraguay), targeting police, justice and health professionals. Efforts have been made to make assistance to victims more gender-sensitive and to provide them with adequate forensic services: in Paraguay, the Secretariat for Women partners with the Public Prosecutor's Office to conduct workshops on sexual assault aimed at personnel that have to intervene in sexual violence cases, and to train forensic experts in the collection of samples through "rape kits" (CEDAW, 2010). In Venezuela, the Supreme Court has organised training sessions for public officials, including judges, working in the area of violence against women. The Venezuelan Public Prosecution Service has also provided its own staff and some police forces with specific training on sexual violence. Between 2008 and 2011, 556 officials benefited from this type of workshop (CEDAW, 2012).

Nevertheless, these legal measures still suffer from weaknesses in implementation reflected in low reporting rates. In the region, 45% of victims of domestic sexual and/or physical abuse never told anyone nor sought institutional help; in Guatemala 40% of violence survivors hide the injuries due to lack of trust in institutions (Figure 2.2.3). Support services and mechanisms often lack specific budgets and face co-ordination problems or overlap (UN Women, 2014a). Low conviction rates are reported to fuel women's lack of trust in justice systems, lessening their likeliness to report a rape (IAHCR 2011). Revictimisation of sexual violence survivors is still a matter of concern: reports suggest that victims seeking legal help face discrimination from the police, for instance when filing a complaint (ECLAC, 2015a). Low legal literacy amongst women and linguistic barriers also create important obstacles to access justice for violence: reports suggest that indigenous women face particular barriers to learning and claiming their rights when legal information and justice services are only or primarily available in Spanish (e.g. Guatemala, Honduras, Peru).

Evidence has shown that laws are only one part of the solution to building comprehensive legislative frameworks on rape (ECLAC, 2015). While "second-generation" laws often focus on punishment of perpetrators, attitudinal surveys point to the need for greater sensitisation efforts amongst public officials and with communities, including women: for 13% of Peruvian and 15% of Bolivian women, a wife is not justified in refusing to have sex with her husband if she is tired or not in the mood (DHS 2007-08).

Figure 2.2.3. Prevalence of domestic violence, the share of victims who never sought help and the reasons for not seeking help



Note: The left-hand figures present the percentage of women who reported physical or sexual violence by a partner in the past 12 months, among women ever married or in union aged 15-49, and the extent to which such violence goes unreported, as measured by the percentage of victims who neither told someone nor sought institutional help to stop the violence. The right-hand figures present the reasons for not seeking help to stop the violence, as expressed by the percentage of women who cited specific reasons for not seeking help for partner violence among women ever married or in union aged 15-49 who reported physical or sexual violence from an intimate partner in the past 12 months but did not seek help to stop the violence. Women could select more than one reason therefore the results do not sum up to 100%.

Source: Demographic and Health Surveys (2008-2009), www.statcompiler.com.

Sexual harassment is addressed in most of the region's legislative frameworks, with a growing trend to further tighten laws and penalties, and provide more comprehensive protection. While no legislation exists in three countries of the region (Haiti, Jamaica, and Trinidad and Tobago), 11 countries have enacted comprehensive legislation to tackle sexual harassment in all public areas (e.g. employment, schools and other public institutions). Typically, sexual harassment is covered under labour as well as criminal codes, and increasingly in broader gender-based violence legislation, ensuring a fuller protection of women's rights and recognising the multiple settings where harassment can occur. For example, new legal reforms were introduced in many countries in the early 2000s to strengthen existing provisions with specific anti-sexual harassment legislation that includes criminal penalties (e.g. Brazil, Colombia, Uruguay). Penalties include fines for employers who do not act to prevent or stop harassment (e.g. Colombia), grounds for dismissal (e.g. Chile) or fines for the perpetrator (e.g. Dominican Republic) and imprisonment for a period of time (e.g. three to six years in Honduras).

Legislative reforms have been bolstered by ongoing awareness-raising campaigns to change prevailing norms on this discriminatory practice. In several countries, up to one in three women report having an experience of sexual harassment in the work place (e.g. Dominican Republic and Mexico) (Comité de América Latina y el Caribe para la Defensa de los Derechos de las Mujeres et al., 2013; INEGI, 2011); in a Colombian survey, 85% of women considered sexual harassment to be present in their workplace (Sisma Mujer, 2013). Underreporting of sexual harassment also limits understanding the full extent of prevalence rates (e.g. CEDAW Committee Report on Costa Rica). In recognition of this, education campaigns have been incorporated in legislation in Bolivia and Nicaragua, and further research has been promoted under Colombia's Programa de Equidad Laboral con enfoque diferencial y de género para las mujeres.

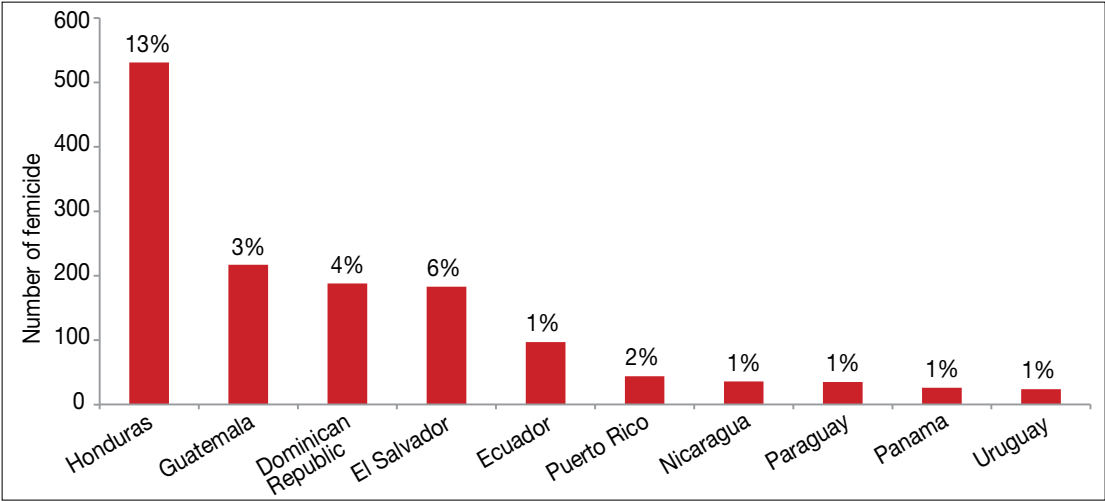
Women's **reproductive autonomy** and rights are limited, and remain a politically charged subject across the region. Only two countries have legalised abortion with no restrictions (Cuba and Uruguay), while all other countries impose a range of strict restrictions (e.g. justified if pregnancy is the result of rape or incest, or poses a risk to mother's life), compel medical practitioners to report suspected abortion, and criminalise its practice with punishments including imprisonment. Despite these restrictions, the incidence rates of abortion have increased in the region in the period 2010-14 compared to 1990-94 (Guttmacher Institute, 2016), with unsafe abortions linked to 10% of maternal mortality and an estimated 760 000 complications (Guttmacher Institute, 2016). Women's rights groups across the region have campaigned strongly on this issue (cf. Centre for Reproductive Rights, 2015): in 2016, the Zika virus also put the spotlight on abortion rights due to the epidemic's possible links with foetal impairments. In its second hemispheric Report, the Belém do Para monitoring body recommended the legalisation of abortion on therapeutic grounds (MESECVI, OAS, 2012). The percentage of married women reporting an unmet need for family planning varies significantly across the region: from 5% in Paraguay to 35% in Haiti. UNFPA estimates that 23 million women across the region had an unmet need for contraception, with women from poor households particularly affected (UNFPA and Guttmacher Institute 2014).

Reproductive autonomy is measured as the percentage of married women aged 15-49 with an unmet need for family planning.

Femicide is a particular issue for concern in the region. The rate of femicide per 100 000 women ranges from 6 in Costa Rica to 13.3 in Honduras, where 531 women were killed in 2014 (ECLAC, 2014b) (Figure 2.2.4). In Central America, gangs have been identified as an important factor behind the number of gender-based homicides (e.g. El Salvador, Dominican Republic, Honduras).

Following the recommendations of the Belém do Para convention, in the last ten years several countries passed new laws or amended existing ones to include the definition of femicide in their legislation (e.g. Argentina 2012, Chile 2011, Colombia 2008, Costa Rica 2007, Guatemala 2008, Honduras 2011, Mexico 2007, Nicaragua 2012, Peru 2011). In total, between 2008 and 2015, 16 Latin American countries enacted laws to address gender-based homicide (ECLAC, 2014a). Some of these laws include increased penalties (e.g. Argentina, Guatemala) or strengthened protection measures of victims, such as restraining orders (e.g. Guatemala). In 2012, El Salvador adopted a national protocol to improve the conduct of investigations for cases of femicides, while the same year in Guatemala, 550 prosecutors were trained on taking gender-based homicide cases to trial (UN Women and OHCHR, 2014).

Figure 2.2.4. **Prevalence of femicide in 2014**



Note: This figure presents the prevalence of femicide in 2014 in selected countries, as measured by the absolute number of femicides and the rate of femicide per 100 000 women.

Source: ECLAC (n.d), www.cepal.org/en/files/femicide-0.

Although countries have invested in implementation, reports suggest that poor enforcement is fostering a culture of impunity. In some countries of the region, up to 98% of reported femicide cases end without a conviction (Musalo and Bookey, 2013). In order to address this problem, in 2014, the UN Human Rights Office and UN Women published a Model Protocol to guide judicial actions related to gender-based murders of women in the region (UN Women and OHCHR, 2014).

In countries in the region which do not have specific legislation addressing femicide (e.g. Cuba, Haiti, Paraguay, Trinidad and Tobago, Uruguay), women’s rights movements continue to push to close these legal loopholes. Civil societies also advocate for the enforcement of existing legislation: in 2015 in Argentina, 200 000 people demonstrated to denounce the recent wave of femicides, rallying around the hashtag #NiUnaMenos (Not One Less).

Good practices

- Preventing gender-based violence in both public and private spheres:** Since 2005, Oxfam has been leading the Programme to Prevent Gender Violence in El Salvador, which aims to combat violence against women in both public and private spheres. Adopting a social norms approach, the programme engages with women, men and youth through training sessions, media campaigns and network creation, building capacity among public authorities at the national and municipal levels on how to better integrate the prevention of gender-based violence in policies and practices. In 2008, the programme was influential in the drafting of a gender-based violence prevention law and encouraged the Supreme Court to approve a protocol for the enforcement of existing laws on domestic violence. In addition, it provided 165 public officials, police and justice personnel with gender-sensitive training. The programme trained several women parliamentarians, who then drafted and passed the Comprehensive Law for a Life Free of Violence against Women in 2010. Oxfam also partnered with the Ministry of Education to incorporate modules on gender-based violence prevention in curriculums, that have so far been tested in 54 schools. Finally, the programme developed the Ventanas Ciudadanas (Citizens’ Windows) initiative, a nation-wide network of 360 female community leaders, trained and habilitated to help victims of violence obtain assistance from the health and justice systems. An impact evaluation showed that the legal literacy of women increased (Oxfam, 2011). Out of the four participant groups studied, three were able to quote about a dozen government organisations related to gender-based violence as well as their specific responsibilities. Women involved in the programme gained knowledge about their rights and they described new ways in which they were engaging with municipal and other local authorities (Oxfam, 2011).

Good practices (cont.)

- **Empowering indigenous women through legal literacy training:** In Guatemala, the NGO Women's Justice Initiative (WJI) has been working since 2011 with 15 different Mayan communities to raise awareness on gender-based violence among indigenous populations. The organisation provides indigenous women with legal literacy training to encourage them to vindicate their rights and facilitate their access to legal services. The six-month WJI education programme teaches Mayan women about issues like domestic violence and sexual and reproductive rights. During classes, which are taught in Kaqchikel (their indigenous language), women improve their knowledge of the legislation and learn ways in which they can stand up for themselves. Several graduates of the programme are then selected by the community to engage in a one year in-depth course at the end of which they are fully armed to be community leaders and advocates for the prevention of gender-based violence. In addition to these training modules, WJI brings bilingual Mayan/Spanish lawyers into the communities where they provide free legal services to women. WJI's different programmes currently benefit 800 women, and are estimated to have an indirect impact on 3 000 people that are affected by women's actions in their communities. In 2015, WJI was selected from over 1 700 applicants from around the world to receive a grant from the UN Trust Fund to End Violence against Women (Women's Justice Initiative website 2016).
- **Raising awareness on gender-based violence through a region-wide campaign:** In 2013, the UN Secretary-General's UNiTE to End Violence against Women Campaign launched the "Brave is Not Violent" (El Valiente no es Violento) initiative in nine Latin American and Caribbean countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Cuba, Ecuador, Honduras, Mexico, Peru and Venezuela). Co-ordinated by UN Women, the joint communication campaign partners with local media such as MTV Latin America to involve men and boys in combating gender-based violence. The initiative encourages men and boys to think critically about gender stereotypes and the social conception of masculinity. The main target of the initiative is youth, more specifically young men: El Valiente no es Violento seeks to promote healthy behaviour from a young age. Now present in 13 countries, the campaign produces TV and radio ads and relies on several public personalities who act as spokespersons, using their platform to carry a positive message. Awareness slogans cover several topics, from abuse and violence ("The Brave do not hurt, not even with words") to care work ("The Brave shares home responsibilities") and women's decision making ("The Brave respects the opinion of women"). These have been featured in various settings, from customer waiting rooms in Bolivian banks to banners carried by Brazilian football players during games. During the FIFA World Cup, 1 million stickers were distributed in host cities, sharing slogans to end violence against women and girls (UN Women, 2014a).
- **Providing gender-based violence victims with immediate assistance through a hotline:** In 2013, the Brazilian government launched the Women: Living Without Violence programme. The initiative integrates several tools and strategies, such as the improvement of services related to the collection of evidence in cases of sexual assault, the creation of mobile units for women living in at-risk situations in rural or remote areas or the opening of the Brazilian Women's House which regroups several public services for women. The programme also umbrellas the nationwide, toll-free hotline Call 180, co-ordinated by the Women's Policy Office. It provides women victims of violence with immediate assistance and psychological support, helping them recognise signs of abuse when needed. On average, Call 180 receives 2 000 calls a day (UN Women, 2014a). Since its creation in 2005, Call 180 received more than 3 million calls. Between 2012 and 2013, 20% more women chose to report a first incident of violence (which is more likely to be the result of an increase in reporting rather than an increase in violence). In 2014, Call 180 was improved so that complaints received are now directly forwarded to public authorities, including to the state and federal public prosecutors, thus accelerating the resolution process of cases.

Box 2.2. Mexico: Changing adolescent girls' and boys' attitudes towards gender-based violence

In 2014, the Inter-American Development Bank sponsored Amor... pero del bueno (Love ... but the good one), a programme which targets adolescent girls and boys, recognising this as a critical age to challenge norms on gender-based violence. The programme aimed to empower both adolescents and their teachers with training, information and dialogue about how to tackle discriminatory norms around violence and to prevent violence at school as well as within the dating culture.

The programme was first pilot-tested in a Mexican high school, reaching close to 800 students and 100 teachers. It had a twofold approach: training teachers as well as students. All the high school personnel (including management staff and guidance counsellors) took part in a training module focusing on helping them to better support students affected by gender-based violence and the role that they can play in prevention and supporting survivors. Students attended weekly sessions co-ordinated by a team of psychologists and educators specialised in gender, youth and risk prevention. Through interactive games, music and other multi-media, role playing and sharing of hypothetical as well as real situations, students learnt about the impact of gender-based violence and how to prevent it. In order to promote a shift in community attitudes, students were also responsible for creating an awareness campaign and publicising it within the school with the help of the educational personnel and the programme's organisers.

An impact evaluation showed the results of the pilot to be largely positive on transforming social norms around gender-based violence. Following the programme, 48% less people agreed with the statement "If a woman is attacked by her husband she must have done something". In general, acceptance of violence as justified on certain conditions decreased by 5%: for instance, 67% less adolescent boys agreed with the idea that "Domestic violence is due to husbands not being able to refrain their instincts". The programme also influenced attitudes related to gender stereotypes: after the training, 33% less participants agreed with the idea that men should not cry. Finally, general acceptance of sexist attitudes between partners decreased by 8%: for instance, 80% less adolescents agreed with the statement "Women must put up with their partner, out of love and devotion". Participants were also 67% less to agree with the statement "when someone experiences jealousy while they are dating it means they really love their partner" (IADB, 2015).



The son bias sub-index captures the unequal value given to daughters and sons in the household. Variables measure the phenomenon of missing women and fertility preferences.

Latin America and the Caribbean was the best performing region in the son bias sub-index for the SIGI 2014. There is little evidence of son preference at birth and 17 countries are classified as having low to very low levels of discrimination.

Son bias

The region showed the lowest levels of gender-based discrimination in the son bias sub-index. Of the 19 countries classified, 17 have very low or low levels of discrimination against girls with little evidence of family preferences for having sons. Governments have lived up to their Millennium Development Goal (MDG) commitments to close gender gaps in education, and now girls in the region outpace boys in terms of years of schooling. Despite the impressive progress, discriminatory gender roles with society and the family continue to impinge on girls' ability to enjoy equal social, economic and education rights. Harmful social norms and restrictive attitudes in the household and school limit the opportunities and choices available to girls and contribute to gender gaps which carry over into the labour force.

Throughout Latin America and the Caribbean, birth patterns for daughters and sons show no signs of bias for sons. There is no evidence that **missing women** is a concern. Unlike other developing regions (i.e. East Asia and the Pacific and South Asia), sex ratios in the region follow what would be naturally expected. This also suggests that **fertility preference** for sons is not an issue for countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. One exception is Guatemala, where, the sex ratio at last birth is slightly biased (54% being boys), suggesting a slight fertility preference for boys.

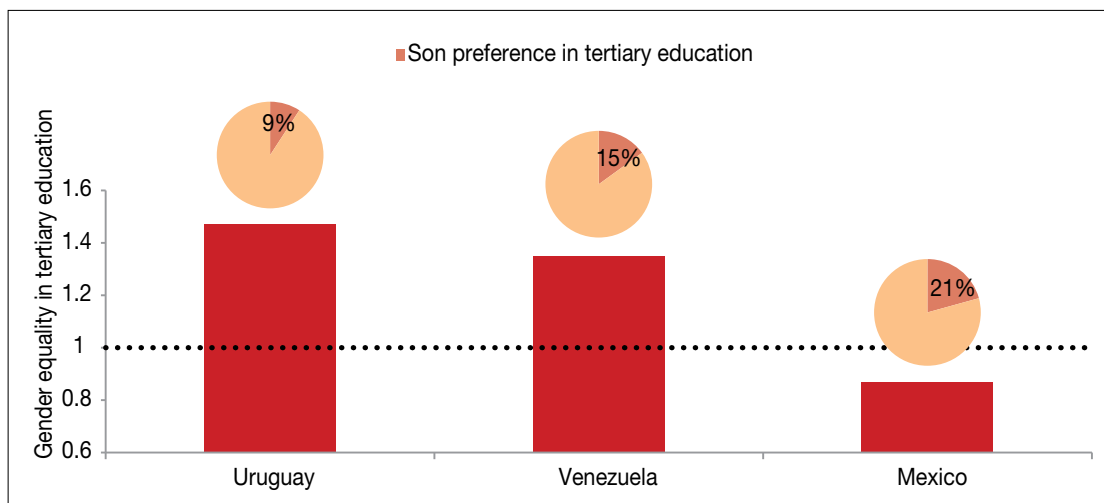


The concept of “missing women” was first introduced by Amartya Sen in 1990. He hypothesised that over 100 million women were missing due to excess mortality of women from inequality and neglect (Sen, 1990). Missing women is calculated by the shortfall in the number of women in sex ratios for ages 0-4, 5-9, 10-14, 15-64 and 64+ relative to the expected number if there were no sex-selective abortions, no female infanticide or similar levels of health and nutrition, correcting for natural biological and physiological differences. Computed by Professor Stephan Klasen using the method discussed in Klasen and Wink (2002).

Across the region, countries have made impressive gains in supporting girls’ education and closing gender gaps at all levels of education. Courtesy of strong commitment by governments and the development community to achieving MDG 3, gender disparities in primary, secondary and tertiary levels have been removed across the region (ECLAC, 2015c). To achieve this, governments implemented a variety of programmes and policies to boost girls’ school enrolment and facilitate their access to education. These include stipend and cash transfer programmes such as Mexico’s Progresa (now known as Prospera) and Brazil’s Bolsa Escola. In Peru, free textbooks were introduced for primary school girls making them 30% more likely to enrol. The Escuela Nueva programme in Colombia established schools in poor rural communities offering more flexible schedules and course work adapted to a diverse age range of students. The programme is credited with increasing rural enrolment from 50% to 80% with a particularly positive impact on girls (Herz and Sperling, 2004).

Government initiatives have proven successful and girls in the region have not only caught up with boys in school, but have actually surpassed them. Gender gaps in enrolment at the secondary and tertiary levels have reversed in most countries, to the detriment of boys. At the regional level, 78% of girls are enrolled in secondary school versus 74% of boys. The gap widens at the tertiary level with 49% of girls enrolled compared to 39% of boys (World Bank, n.d.).

Figure 2.3.1. **Son preference in education in selected countries and the ratio of female-to-male tertiary education completion rate**



Note: This figure presents son preference in tertiary education as measured by the percentage of the population declaring that tertiary education is more important for boys than for girls, and the gender gap in tertiary education, defined as the female-to-male ratio of tertiary education completion rate for the population aged 15 and above in 2010.

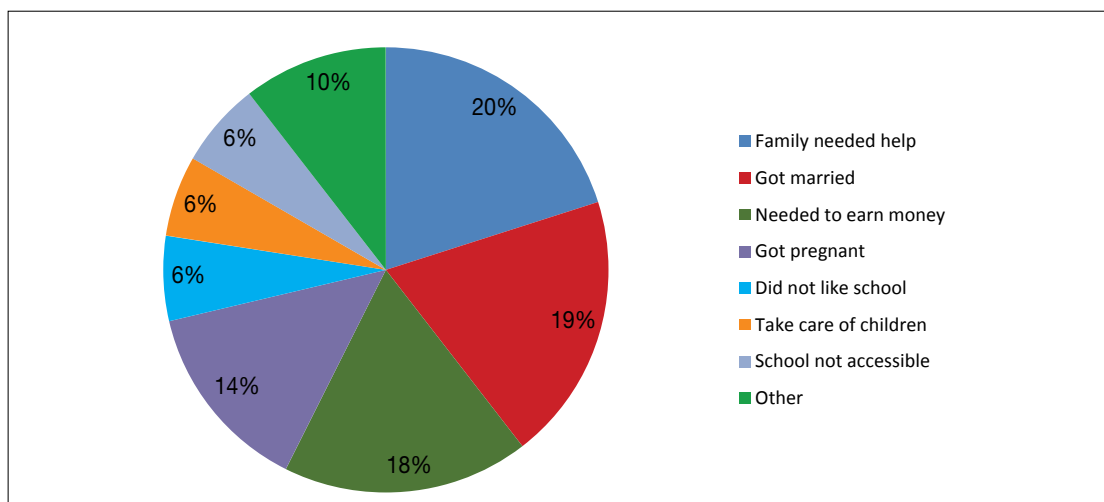
Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>; Barro and Lee (2010).

Despite these impressive gains, challenges remain to achieving universal education and tackling the gendered barriers that block girls’ and boys’ access to educational opportunities. Across Latin America and the Caribbean, net secondary school enrolment for girls and boys remains at 71%, despite compulsory secondary education for almost 90% of countries in the region (e.g. Bolivia,

Colombia and Guatemala, but not Nicaragua) (Chioda, 2016). For lower income countries, school enrolment rates decrease for girls and boys, for example in Guatemala and Honduras where only 48% and 46% of children, respectively, are enrolled in secondary school. Across the region this equates to almost 2 million out-of-school girls (World Bank, n.d.). Issues around access to education may be more pronounced for girls in rural or indigenous communities; in Bolivia, Guatemala and Peru, indigenous girls are more likely than boys to fail or repeat a grade (Chioda, 2016).

The lower perceived value of girls' education and persistent gender stereotypes are important factors also influencing their educational outcomes (Figure 2.3.1). Research has shown that the decision for a girl to drop out of school is often preceded or closely followed by early marriage or adolescent pregnancy, two major concerns for the region (Figure 2.3.2) (see page 20) (UNFPA, 2012). Research in Mexico found that adolescent pregnancy results in a 1 to 1.2 year loss in education, negatively affecting future household income (Arceo-Gomez and Campos-Vasquez, 2014). Parents may also contribute to the lower value given to educating girls with SIGI 2014 results showing a slight preference among parents to educating their sons versus their daughters. These views are stronger in some countries than others: 6% of parents in Trinidad and Tobago agree with the statement that university education is more important for boys than girls compared to 23% in Ecuador. The perceived quality of education also influences decisions around education: in surveys in Brazil, Mexico, Peru and Paraguay, girls justified leaving school due to the poor quality of education that provides few opportunities for their future (Binstock and Naslund-Hadley, 2010; Arceo-Gomez and Campos-Vasquez, 2014; Taylor et al., 2015).

Figure 2.3.2. **Reasons for leaving school in Bolivia**

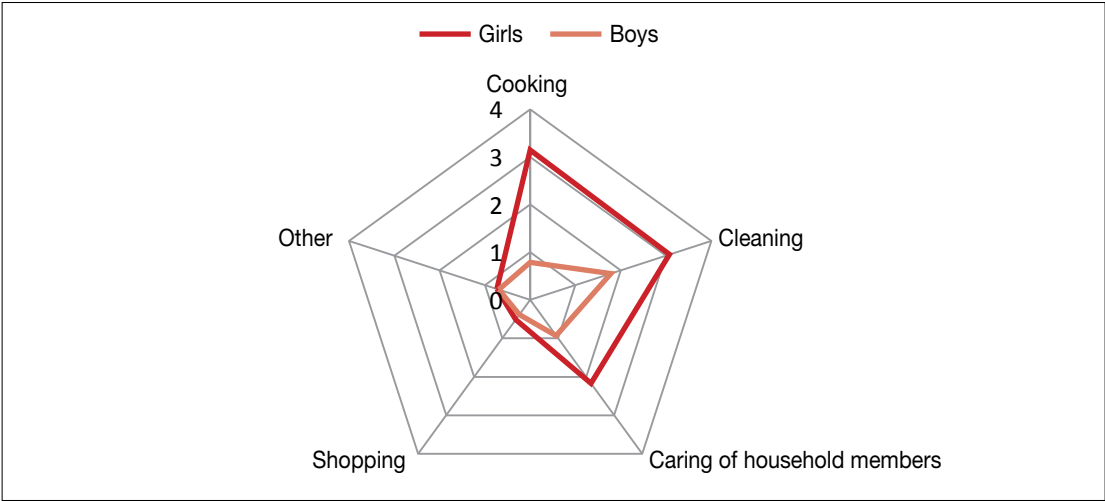


Note: This figure presents the percentage distribution of Bolivian women aged 15-24 with incomplete secondary education who stopped attending school by reason for leaving school.

Source: Demographic and Health Surveys (1998), www.statcompiler.com.

In the household, traditional gender roles are appropriated at a young age, with an adverse impact on girls' education outcomes. Time-use surveys for children in select LAC countries reveal that the stereotypical gendered division of household chores within the family are present from childhood. Girls are more likely to be tasked with domestic chores and caring for siblings, while boys are more likely to work for pay. In Ecuador, girls spend five hours more per week on household chores (Figure 2.3.3). Research in Mexico found the gender gap to increase with age, with 14-year-old girls spending 12 hours on household chores compared to 8 hours for boys (INEGI, 2011). This unequal burden cuts into the time girls could be spending on their education. In Guatemala and Mexico, girls' school attendance drops as the time spent on household chores increases (Lyon, Ranzani and Rosati, 2013). Survey results from Nicaragua reveal the long-term effects of time spent on household chores on secondary school enrolment: children who worked longer hours at home, mainly girls, have lower school attendance rates four years later (Rosati and Rossi, 2001).

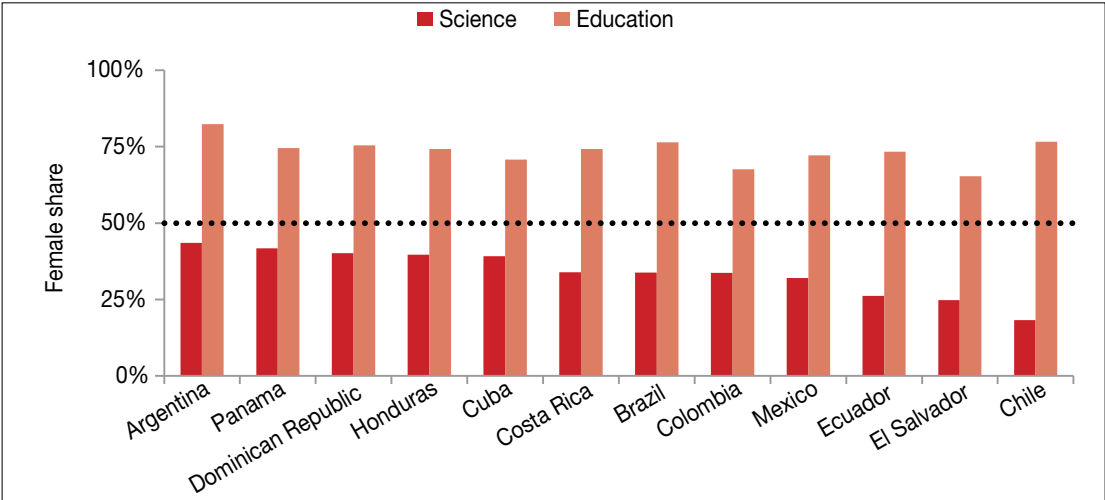
Figure 2.3.3. Time Ecuadorian children devote to unpaid care work



Note: This figure presents average hours spent per week on housekeeping activities by children aged 12-18, by gender.
 Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos (2012b), Encuesta Específica de Uso del Tiempo, www.ecuadorencifras.gob.ec/uso-del-tiempo-2.

Finally, girls’ and boys’ subject choice tends to follow stereotypical patterns with few girls pursuing science, technology, engineering or mathematics disciplines (STEM). At the tertiary level, women in the region represent only 11% of graduates from STEM programmes, a gender bias also seen in the labour force (Figure 2.3.4) (UIS, 2014). Parents also show a gender bias when it comes to their children’s subject choices: in Mexico, parents are more likely to expect their son to pursue a career in STEM than their daughter, even when they have similar results in mathematics, reading and science (OECD, 2015). In the classroom, teachers’ interactions with students can perpetuate typical gender stereotypes. Research conducted in Chile by the Inter-American Development Bank found teachers give more attention to male students, resulting in less time afforded to female students and poorer performance overall (Bassi et al, 2016).

Figure 2.3.4. Gender imbalance in graduate studies



Note: This figure presents the female share of graduates in education programmes and in science and technology programmes.
 Source: UIS (2014), Education: Participation, UIS Database, <http://data.uis.unesco.org>.

Good practices

- **Supporting adolescent mothers and encouraging their return to school:** Since 1978, the Women's Centre of Jamaica Foundation has been running the Programme for Adolescent Mothers, which helps teen mothers to remain in school. The programme gives mothers under the age of 17 the opportunity to pursue their education, and provides them with counselling and practical skills-training in order to improve their employability. Young mothers get the opportunity to study in a Women's Centre for at least a semester, while their babies are cared for in a nursery. They are also supported to return to the formal school system. Across Jamaica, the programme is run in seven main centres and in nine outreach stations. During the 2011/12 school year, it allowed 1 402 adolescent mothers to continue their education. Following their stay at one of the centres, over half of them then reintegrated the formal school system. In addition to day care facilities, centres offer counselling for women and men, including for young fathers and families of teen parents (UNFPA, 2013).
- **Combating discriminatory social norms to empower young women:** In 2006, the Brazilian NGO Promundo launched Program M, as a companion to Program H (see Box 2.1). Program M is named after *mujeres* and *mulheres*, the words for women in Spanish and Portuguese: following the Program H model, it seeks to empower young women aged 15 to 24 by encouraging them to think critically about gender and health issues. The programme was first field-tested in Brazil, Jamaica, Mexico and Nicaragua before being developed in several other countries: its methodology associates educational workshops with youth-led media campaigns and community outreach strategies, with the objective of encouraging gender-equitable attitudes and promoting young women's agency. To better adapt the programme to their communities, facilitators can choose from 33 activities listed in the Program M manual, touching upon a large range of topics from gender identity to sexual and reproductive health and rights, motherhood and caregiving. Evaluations found that participants in the programme tend to improve communication with their partners about sexual health (their partners are also more likely to use condoms) while their self-efficacy in interpersonal relationships increases. Participants also are more likely to realise that gender roles are social and not biological constructions (Promundo, 2016).
- **Mapping data gaps to deliver targeted policies addressing adolescent girls' needs:** In 2011, the Population Council partnered with UNICEF to launch the Joint Programme on Adolescent Girls in Belize. The goal of the project was to assess young girls' vulnerabilities and needs in order to get an overview of their access to health, education and resources. The Population Council first conducted an extensive research study to collect data on beneficiaries of youth services and programmes. 3 550 young men and women were interviewed to measure access to and use of services and educational opportunities. The study also focused on the assessment of adolescent vulnerabilities such as school dropout, early marriage and pregnancy. The results showed that rural girls were more likely to drop out of school early, that indigenous girls had the fewest educational opportunities and were the most likely to face early marriage or pregnancy. The Population Council then conducted training workshops all across the country, engaging with 400 adolescents, programme managers, educators, policy makers and civil society members in order to educate them on adolescent girls' needs. The results of the national study helped to increase awareness of the status of adolescent girls amongst policy makers. The Population Council also expanded its girl-centered programming, particularly targeting girls in the Toledo region who were identified by the study as severely marginalised (Population Council, 2012).



The restricted resources and assets sub-index captures discrimination in women’s rights to and control over land and non-land assets. It measures whether women and men have equal and secure access to use, control and own land and non-land assets, and equal access to financial services from formal institutions.

Restricted resources and assets

Women’s access to land and other productive resources are well protected in the legal frameworks of Latin America and the Caribbean, with SIGI results showing that most countries have low levels of discrimination. However, women’s full enjoyment of their rights is compromised by discriminatory practices and attitudes that limit their ability to enjoy economic autonomy and make economic decisions independently. Across the region, indigenous and other marginalised groups of women face intersectoral discrimination which compounds inequalities and perpetuates a cycle of economic vulnerability.

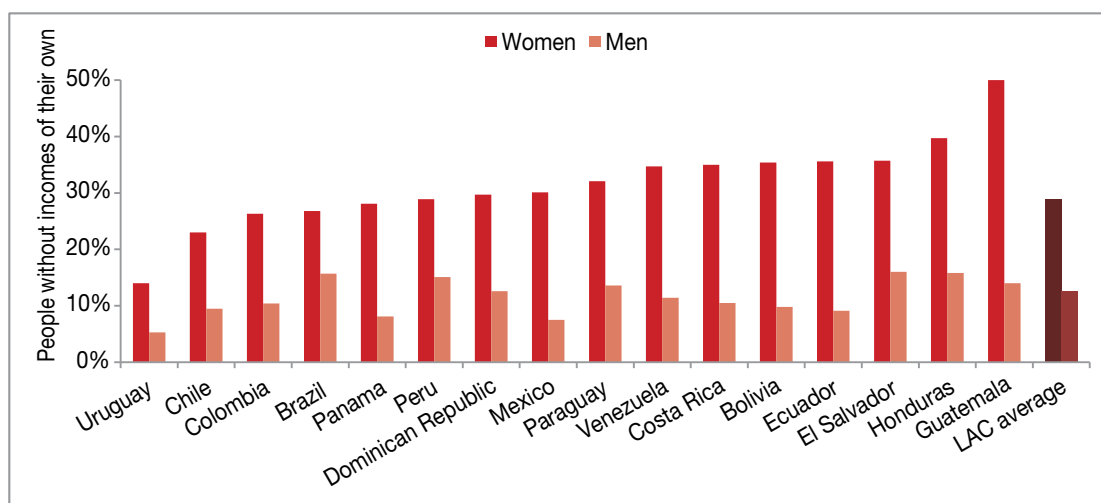
The LAC region’s positive performance in this sub-index is courtesy of strong legal frameworks guaranteeing women’s access to land and other productive resources.

Overall, 8 of the 22 countries are classified as having very low levels of discrimination with no country showing high or very high discrimination. Women’s full realisation of these rights is blocked, however, by discriminatory practices, in particular against indigenous women.



The implementation of the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) framework is timely given the important challenges women in the region continue to face in fully enjoying their land, property and economic rights, and the impacts that these challenges have on their greater vulnerability to poverty. The SDG framework recognises women’s secure access to land, assets and financial resources as a key pillar of women’s economic empowerment on account of its transformative impact on increasing their decision-making power and status within the household and broader community, as well as opening more opportunities for economic autonomy. Despite the introduction of gender-responsive policies aiming to reduce income and gender inequalities, notably through the introduction of social protection measures (e.g. conditional cash transfers), female vulnerability to poverty remains higher than for men. Regionally one in three women do not have an income of their own, compared to one in ten men; this gap widens in rural areas (Figure 2.4.1) (ECLAC, 2014c). Households where women are the only breadwinners are particularly vulnerable: urban households with children and a female head are a third more likely to be in situations of extreme poverty, than those headed by a male (World Bank, 2012).

Figure 2.4.1. People without incomes of their own, by sex



Note: This figure presents the share of population aged 15 and above who do not have incomes of their own and who are not studying as percentage of the total population aged 15 and above who does not study, by sex.

Source: ECLAC (2014c), CEPALSTAT Database, <http://estadisticas.cepal.org/cepalstat>.

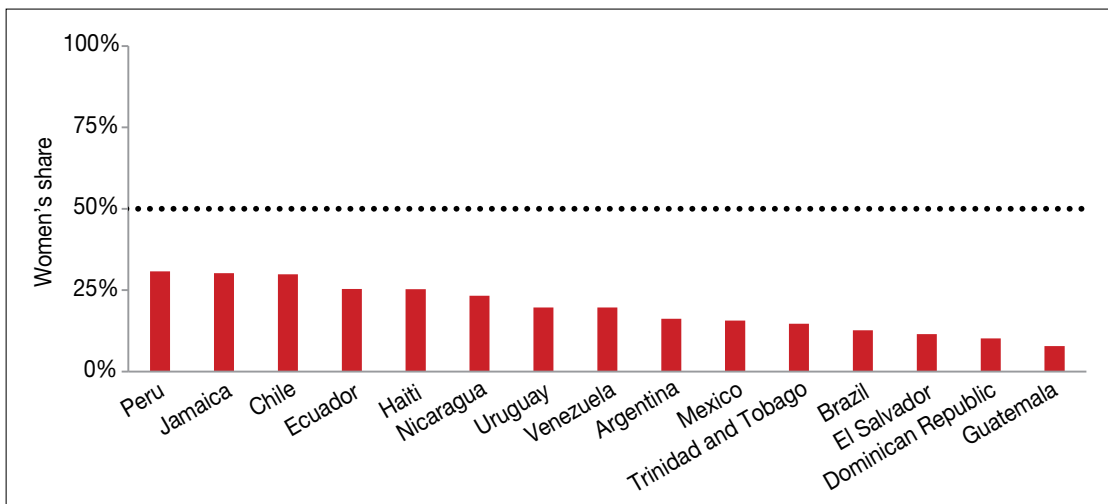
Across the region, most legal frameworks have enshrined equal **rights to access land** for women and men. References to women’s land rights ranges from gender-neutral provisions (cf. agrarian laws of Ecuador and Venezuela) to gender-responsive laws and policies that aim to reduce gender inequalities. Constitutional provisions on land in Argentina, Colombia, Cuba, Paraguay and Peru, explicitly recognise women’s right to land. In Paraguay, the principles of “participation of the peasant woman, in equality with the man, in the plans of agrarian reform” and “support to the peasant woman, especially to who is head of [the] family” are enshrined in the Constitution (art.115, 1992). The 2009 Bolivian Constitution recognised the need for gender-responsive policies that take into account structural barriers: article 402 states that public authorities have the obligation to “promote policies aimed at eliminating all forms of discrimination against women in the access to, ownership and inheritance of land”.

Improvements in women’s land rights have benefited from strengthened equality provisions in laws addressing women’s status within the family and, in particular, within marriage. First, laws recognising men as the sole head of household have been repealed, removing an important barrier to women’s land rights. In 2003, Brazil became one of the latest countries to have amended its Civil Code to grant women the right to be the head of household. However, restrictions remain in Chile, Ecuador and Haiti, where married women cannot be recognised as head of household under the law, and as a consequence do not enjoy equal rights to joint administration of property, which falls under the sole responsibility of the husband (World Bank, 2015b). Second, women’s rights have been supported by gender-equal provisions within the marital regime. The partial community marital regime ensures that in cases of divorce or widowhood, women are entitled to half of the joint assets accumulated during the marriage (Deere et al., 2014). In Chile, the Dominican Republic and Panama, for example, women are entitled to joint land administration. Finally, equality provisions formerly available only to married couples have been extended to informal unions: for example, in Panama, de facto couples are legally allowed to jointly purchase land (Law No. 68, 2001). Several states have made joint titling compulsory for land that is granted by the state to both married and de facto couples (e.g. Colombia, Costa Rica, Nicaragua). Joint titling is optional in Brazil, Ecuador, Peru and Honduras. However, to benefit from joint titling, informal couples need to formally register their union, which has proven more challenging in rural areas (Deere and Leon, 2001); other countries do not recognise informal unions (e.g. Chile, Dominican Republic, Haiti, Peru), weakening women’s land, inheritance and property rights (ICRW, 2007).

Laws, programmes and other measures have complemented these legislative reforms to protect women’s land rights. In Brazil, a government-run Documentation Programme for Rural Women Workers helped increased the number of women who owned a land title from 13% in 2003 to 56% in 2007 (ECLAC 2009). In Guatemala, the Land Trust Fund Act established a ten-year period during which public land was allocated in priority to single women heads of household and widows who had been affected by the armed conflict (CEDAW, 2008). In Cuba and Nicaragua, gender-responsive land reforms directly targeted women as beneficiaries, and promoting rural women’s access to land was enshrined as an explicit policy goal (Deere, 1985). In Nicaragua, a study conducted in 1997 showed that 10% of women land owners had acquired their land thanks to the agrarian reform (Renzi and Agurto, 1997).

Despite the strengthening of the legislative framework and gender-responsive measures, discriminatory social norms and practices continue to perpetuate gender inequalities in land ownership. Women account for less than a third of agricultural holders in the Latin America and Caribbean region, ranging from 8% in Guatemala (2003) and Belize (2003) to 30% in Jamaica (2007) and 31% in Peru (2012) (FAO, n.d.) (Figure 2.4.2). In Honduras in 2012, 8% of women between 15 and 49 years old owned land, compared to 25% of men from all ages (World Bank, 2016). Furthermore, there is evidence that women land owners tend to own smaller plots, with a soil of lesser quality, while being less likely to benefit from technical assistance or training (FAO, 2011).

Figure 2.4.2. **Women’s share of agricultural landholders**



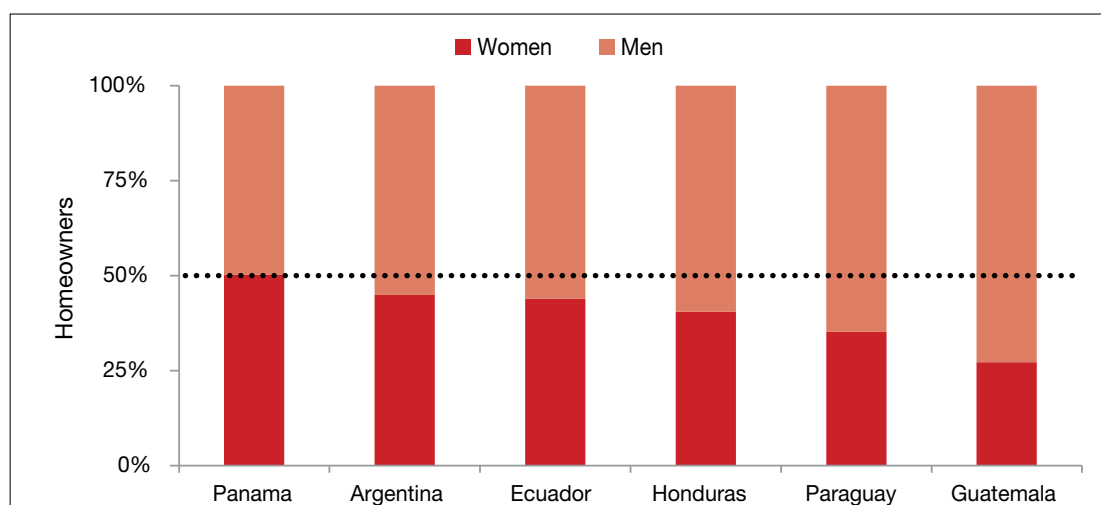
Note: This figure presents women’s share of agricultural landholders as the percentage of total agricultural landholders.

Source: FAO (n.d), *Gender and Land Rights Database*, www.fao.org/gender-landrights-database/data-map/statistics/en/?sta_id=982.

Latin American and Caribbean countries have strong legislative frameworks protecting women’s **rights to access non-land assets**, which is recognised in all Constitutions. A number of countries have made notable advances in legally recognising the concept of “patrimonial violence”, i.e. the violation of women’s property rights. In Costa Rica for instance, the law provides sanctions in the case where a husband or partner steals or damages his wife or partner’s property, prevents her from using or controlling her own property, commits fraud regarding joint property, or unfairly appropriates the profits from a family business. In Venezuela, a 2006 law sanctions all acts or omissions depriving a woman of the property or income necessary to sustain herself, in the private or the public sphere (Ley orgánica sobre el derecho de las mujeres a una vida libre de violencia Art 12, 2006). In addition to these innovative laws, joint ownership of non-land assets is common in most countries of the region, especially in countries such as Argentina and Ecuador. In Ecuador, ownership of the principal residence by the principal couple is the most common form of ownership: 41% of principal residences are jointly owned (Deere Alvarado and Twyman, 2010).

However, in spite of strengthened legislative frameworks, there remain several barriers to women's access to non-land assets in practice. Results of the SIGI 2014 show that customary, traditional or religious practices in at least four countries restrict these rights in practice (Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru). As with land rights, women's ownership, control and use of non-land assets are constrained by factors such as women not being recognised as head of household, less rights for women in informal unions and inheritance practices favouring sons. For instance, across the region women are still significantly less likely to own a home in their own name: in Guatemala (2000), only 27% of documented homeowners are women, while in Mexico (2004), women account for 36% of all homeowners (Deere, Alvarado and Twyman, 2010) (Figure 2.4.3). In Honduras (2011/12), 13% of women own a house alone, in comparison with 30% of men (DHS, 2012). In addition, women are significantly more likely to own small stock and poultry, while men are more likely to own large live stock (Deere, 2011).

Figure 2.4.3. **The distribution of documented homeowners by sex**



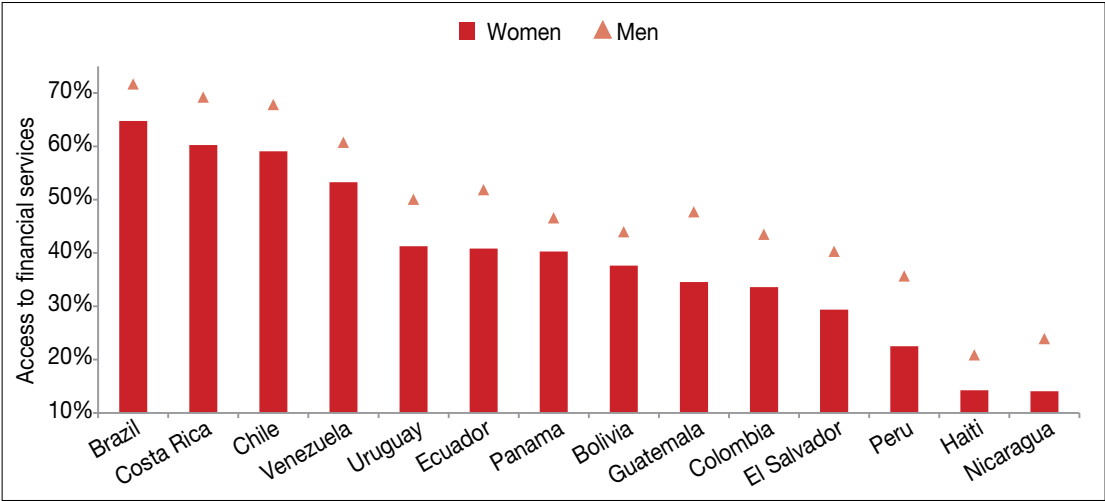
Note: This figure presents the percentage of homeowners by sex in selected countries, among households for which someone owns an ownership document for the home.

Source: Deere, Alvarado and Twyman (2010), "Poverty, headship, and gender inequality in asset ownership in Latin America", Gender, Development and Globalization Program, *Working Paper* No. 296, Michigan State University.

Indigenous and rural women face particular constraints in securing land and property rights. They are more likely to lack legal documentation, such as identification cards and birth certificates required to access both land and non-land assets (Deere and Leon 2003). Rural and indigenous women are also disadvantaged by low legal literacy. In countries with indigenous communities where communal ownership systems tend to prevail (e.g. Bolivia, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay), women also seem to be under-represented in decision-making authorities overseeing land use: in Nicaragua for example, there are few occurrences of women as *wihta* or *síndico* – the key positions holding power over communal land (CIFOR, 2012).

All countries of the region provide men and women with equal **rights to access financial services**. In practice however, there remain significant gender gaps: women are less likely to own an account at a financial institution in all countries of the region, with the exception of Argentina, Belize, the Dominican Republic and Mexico (Figure 2.4.4). For instance, in Colombia, only 34% of women over 15 owned an account at a financial institution, compared to 43% of men (World Bank, 2014a). Women are also less likely to borrow money from a financial institution in all countries of the region (with the exception of Belize, Ecuador, Jamaica and Nicaragua): in Costa Rica, 11% of women reported having borrowed from a financial institution in the last year, in comparison with 15% of men (World Bank, 2014a).

Figure 2.4.4. The gender gap in accessing financial services



Note: This figure presents the gender gap in access to financial services, as measured by the percentage of individuals aged 15 and above reporting having an account by themselves or together with someone else at a bank or another type of financial institution by sex.

Source: World Bank (2014a), Global Financial Inclusion Database, <http://datatopics.worldbank.org/financialinclusion> (accessed August 2016).

Discriminatory attitudes and perceptions of women continue to restrict these rights in practice and explain the gender gaps in access to financial services. For example, reports suggest that in Mexico, financial institutions continue to ask a woman for her husband’s signature before opening a bank account (GEM, 2012). In countries with large indigenous communities (e.g. Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Peru), rural and indigenous women find themselves at the intersection of several discriminations, such as having no identification cards, which restricts their access to financial services (ECLAC, 2014a). Female business owners report that their needs in terms of financial products are often not met (IADB et al. 2013). In 2011, a study conducted by the International Finance Corporation showed that up to 70% of women-owned small and medium enterprises in the region were underserved or unserved financially (IFC, 2011).

Countries in the region have been taking action to reduce gender gaps in access to financial services. For instance in the Dominican Republic, the National Council for the Promotion and Support of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises, together with the Ministry of Women, signed an agreement to support women’s initiatives and reduce poverty by ensuring that women have an equal access to credit programmes (CEDAW, 2011). In Venezuela, the Women’s Development Bank was created in 2001 as a public micro-credit institution, with the objective of improving women’s access to financial services to give them means to lift themselves out of poverty. As of 2014, it had provided more than 158 000 micro-credit loans (Banmujer, 2016). In Colombia, the programme “Mujeres Ahorradoras en Accion” provided women with financial literacy training and as a result, the use of informal credit providers decreased, from 19.3% in 2007 to 5.3% in 2011 (Zilveti and Fuentes, 2010). In Mexico, the National Savings and Financial Services Bank conducted financial literacy training sessions: the evaluation shows that participants in the programme (the vast majority being women) increased the number of transactions and the balance of their savings account (BANSEFI, 2010). Non-governmental initiatives are also multiplying: in Argentina, Bolivia, Mexico, Nicaragua and Peru, the microfinance institute Pro-Mujer aims to facilitate women’s access to credit and operates on a large scale, serving over a quarter of a million women in the region. In Peru, in 2009 the Multilateral Investment Fund co-ordinated two training programmes for women entrepreneurs, with the objective of helping them access financial services and develop their businesses. The programme benefited 100 000 micro-entrepreneurs and more than 700 small business owners.

Good practices

- **Increasing women's employability through training:** Since 2007, Chile's National Women's Service co-ordinates the Mujeres Jefas de Hogar (Women heads of households) programme, whose objective is to economically empower female heads of household by increasing their employability through capacity-building workshops and legal literacy training. Participants can define a professional project, receive vocational training, complete their primary or secondary education, and participate in digital literacy, child care or dental care workshops. As of 2016, the "Women heads of households" programme has worked with 250 municipalities in the country, reaching up to 30 000 women each year (SERNAM, 2016). An impact evaluation conducted in 2013 showed that 93% of surveyed participants found that their professional situation had improved thanks to the training they received, and 92% anticipated further improvement in the next five years. Finally, 97% of participants agreed that the training made them feel useful and had a positive effect on their self-esteem (SENCE, 2013).
- **Promoting indigenous women's economic empowerment and traditional craftsmanship:** Since 2011, the Argentina Norte Grande Road Infrastructure, a joint programme between the Argentinian authorities and the World Bank, has sought to improve the quality of roads in the region. In the Chaco province, the pavement of a road was identified as an opportunity to empower indigenous Qom women and legitimise their roles as economic actors, by easing their access to markets while providing them with skills training. Building on the budding tourism industry, the programme thus created the Qom Culture Route, a corridor linking seven cultural centres led by 320 artisan indigenous Qom women. The centres provide a space for Qom women to engage in co-operative activities, welcome tourists and showcase and sell their art. Members of the women's associations received training in digital literacy, management of rotating funds, as well as in marketing and entrepreneurship. In addition, the centres hosted family planning workshops organised in Qom women's native tongue. The project had a positive impact on Qom women's agency and self-esteem, while it increased their visibility within the community. Following the training, participation of women in the public sphere rose, and women declared that their spouses were participating more in household duties in order to facilitate their work (World Bank, 2014b).
- **Empowering rural women through business capacity-building:** In 2009, the World Bank launched the pilot programme Innovations for Women's Economic Empowerment, in partnership with the Foundation for Women and Community Economic Development (FUMDEC), a Nicaraguan NGO. The project aimed to empower rural Nicaraguan women through cash transfers, training and technical assistance in order to encourage them to develop their leadership abilities and start their own businesses. In the 24 rural communities where the programme was implemented, beneficiaries of the transfers also received training on various topics, such as social capital formation and leadership, intra-household decision making and bargaining, use and control of resources, conflict resolution and domestic violence. In total, this pilot project allowed 400 women to develop small scale enterprises, and had a positive impact on their attitudes regarding female leadership: 42% of beneficiaries reported valuing female leadership roles in their communities and being more likely to express their opinion than before, while 75% declared that their self-esteem and self-care had improved. Beneficiaries also strengthened their decision-making and negotiation abilities within the household (World Bank, 2014c).



The restricted civil liberties sub-index captures discriminatory laws and practices that limit women’s access to public space, their political voice and participation in public life. It measures access to public space and political voice, which includes quotas to promote women’s political representation at the national and sub-national levels and the percentage of women in national parliaments.

Latin America and the Caribbean is one of the top regional performers in this sub-index. Women in the region have high rates of participation in public life, courtesy of government commitments to equal representation of women and men, and strong civil society movements.

Six countries have very low levels of discrimination compared to only one with very high levels.



Restricted civil liberties

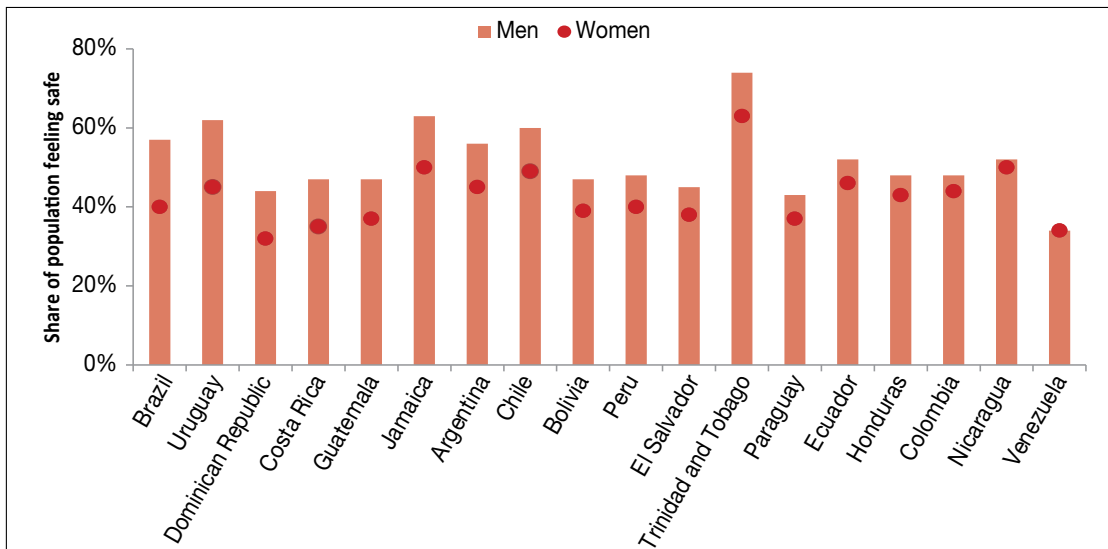
Countries in Latin America and the Caribbean have made strong commitments to securing women’s civil liberties and achieving gender equality in political life. SIGI results demonstrate the region’s progress: 11 countries have very low or low levels of discrimination against women in this sub-index, with only Jamaica being classified as having very high discrimination. Legal barriers to women’s access to public space and political life have been almost entirely removed. Political will combined with effective policies, such as legislated quotas, have catalysed women’s political representation for many countries in the region. Nevertheless, women still face obstacles to fully realising their civil and political rights such as negative gender stereotypes and the threat of violence.

Legal frameworks in the LAC region have eliminated discriminatory clauses which prevented women from enjoying equal **rights to access public space**. Indeed, women and men in the region are accorded equal rights to freedom of movement, to apply for a passport and choose their place of residence. Recent positive changes include Nicaragua’s new Family Code (2014), which voids previous discrimination found in the Civil Code (1904) that required a wife to live where her husband chooses.

Countries in the region have taken further steps to address barriers that might block women and girls from realising these rights, such as the threat of violence beyond the household. Peru was the first country in the region to pass a law specifically concerning sexual harassment in public spaces which aims to guarantee women’s and girls’ freedom of movement (Law to Prevent and Sanction Sexual Harassment in Public Spaces [2015]). Eleven countries have since enacted legislation to tackle sexual harassment in public spaces (e.g. employment, schools, and other public institutions) with the explicit goal of ensuring equal and secure access to public spaces for women and men. In addition, Argentina, Chile and Paraguay are currently reviewing laws on street harassment (ECLAC, 2015d).

Despite these efforts, gender-based violence in public spaces remains a major obstacle to women’s equal access to public space and freedom of movement. Survey data for Bogota and Mexico City show that 60% of women have experienced harassment on public transportation. In Lima, 90% of women between 19 and 29 years old have experienced street harassment (ECLAC, 2015d). Women are also less likely to feel safe when travelling by themselves: survey data from the Gallup World Poll reveals that only 32% of women in the Dominican Republic feel safe walking alone at night compared to 44% of men (Figure 2.5.1). Women’s and girls’ perceptions of security in public spaces have been found to directly impact their travel patterns: in interviews conducted by ActionAid (2015) in Brazil, 97% of women reported that they always or sometimes changed their route when travelling to avoid violence and harassment. Country profiles note that lesbian, bi-sexual, and transgender and intersex (LBTI) women may face high levels of insecurity, citing reports of public violence and murders specifically targeting LBTI women (e.g. Brazil, Chile, Dominican Republic and Jamaica).

Figure 2.5.1. The gender safety gap



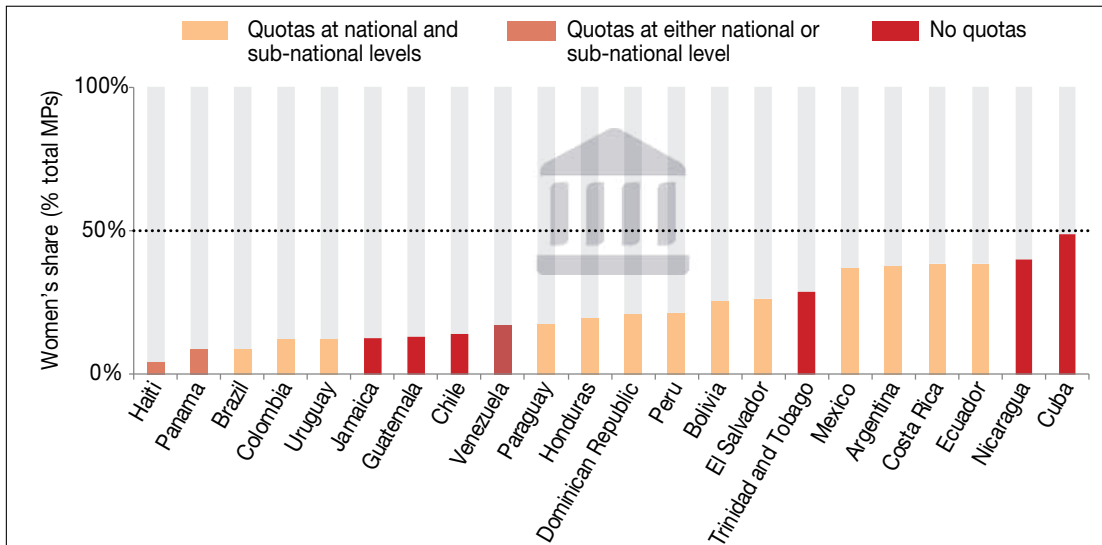
Note: This figure presents the percentage of women and men declaring they feel safe walking alone at night in the city or area where they live.

Source: Crabtree and Nsubuga (2012), “Women feel less safe than men in many developed countries”, Gallup.

Over the past two decades, women in Latin America and the Caribbean have been able to increasingly exercise their **political voice** at all stages of government. Women’s share of parliamentary seats has risen from 9% on average in 1990 to 23% in 2014, surpassing the global average of 21% (World Bank, n.d.). Impressive progress at the regional level hides the significant diversity among countries: women in Cuba hold 49% of parliamentary seats compared to only 4% in Haiti. Women have also made inroads into the executive branch: since 1995, six women have been democratically elected to serve as president. Additionally, women held 22% of ministerial positions in 2016, slightly higher than the 18% global average (World Bank, n.d.).

These strong results reflect countries' policy investments aimed at supporting women's political participation, such as legislative **quotas**. In 1991, Argentina became the first country in the world to introduce a 30% gender quota in both legislative chambers (ECLAC, 2015a). This created a domino effect throughout the region: today 15 of the 22 countries in the region have mandated legislative quotas at either the national and/or sub-national level (Figure 2.5.2). Certain countries have also introduced quotas in the judicial branch (Argentina) or the executive (e.g. Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Honduras and Nicaragua). Bolivia and Ecuador have taken their commitment to gender equality a step further with legislation for gender parity (50%) at all levels and across all sectors of government.

Figure 2.5.2. **Women's political representation and quotas**



Note: This figure presents the share of women in national parliaments, distinguishing countries with no quotas, countries with legal quotas to promote women's political participation either at the national or at the sub-national level and countries with legal quotas to promote women's political participation at both the national and sub-national levels.

Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

Research has found strong quota laws to fast-track women's political representation in the region, more important than a country's level of economic development, female education or labour force participation (Htun and Piscopo, 2014). However, a quota's impact is dependent on how it is designed and whether or not it is accompanied by measures to ensure its implementation. In Argentina, Costa Rica and Mexico, legislative quotas include sanctions for non-compliance as well as rules for rank order on candidate lists. These three countries have all experienced a positive effect following the introduction of the quota: women's political representation now exceeds the mandated quota in all three countries.

In contrast, poorly designed quotas that lack enforcement mechanisms have proven less effective in increasing women's political representation. For example, Panama's legislative quota law (2012) does not include an enforcement mechanism and parties are not sanctioned if they fail to meet the 50% quota on party lists; consequently, women hold only 9% of parliamentary seats. Parties may also take advantage of legal loopholes that do not stipulate where female candidates should be placed on party lists, leaving them at the bottom or as alternative candidates. In Brazil, before the electoral law was amended in 2009, political parties submitted candidate lists that were longer than necessary allowing them to choose only male candidates and avoid giving parliamentary seats to women (Htun and Piscopo, 2014).

Voluntary gender quotas are also found in some countries with varying degrees of success, for example in Chile, Guatemala and Nicaragua: women's political representation remains relatively low in Chile (14%) and Guatemala (13%) whereas 40% of MPs in Nicaragua are women, well-above the regional and global averages.

In an effort to further promote women's political representation, countries have integrated additional gender responsive measures into their electoral laws. Political parties in Brazil, Costa Rica and Mexico are required to spend a certain percentage of their public funding on activities that promote women's political participation. In Brazil, the Electoral Law (2009) also requires political parties to dedicate 10% of party airtime to promoting the political participation of women. In Panama, at least 10% of public funding that goes to civic and political training activities is earmarked for training for women (Electoral Law, 2006). The Electoral law (2009) in Honduras requires parties to submit a gender equality policy prior to an election and risk losing up to 5% of public funds if they fail to do so (International IDEA, n.a.). While these measures hope to address structural barriers to women's political representation, their impact is not always clear: women hold 9% of parliamentary seats in Brazil and Panama compared to 20% in Honduras.

Women's caucuses have emerged in the region as a way to formalise collective action among female politicians across party lines and pass legislation to secure equal rights for women and men. Women's caucuses in Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay have been instrumental in passing laws protecting women from violence and promoting women's human rights (Dersnah, 2013). In Brazil, the women's caucus votes as a block to ensure funding is approved for social programmes (Htun and Piscopo, 2014). In Mexico, the Commission on Gender and Equity was integral in securing reforms of the domestic violence legislation, social welfare laws and quota mechanisms (Zetterberg, 2009).

Women have made impressive advances in the public sphere despite the threat of violence and harassment facing some female politicians (Krook and Sanín, 2016). Political violence against women refers to acts that specifically target women because they are women. It can take various forms such as harassment, sexual, physical and psychological violence, or slander campaigns using media with the goal of discrediting them or causing them to resign (UN Women, 2014b). More extreme cases have resulted in female politicians being murdered, as was the case in Bolivia and Mexico (Krook and Sanín, 2016). In Bolivia, the assassination of a local councilwoman following mounting threats and psychological and economic violence, prompted the government to pass the Law on Harassment and Political Violence against Women (Law No. 243). However, even before this event, Bolivian police had received over 4 000 complaints of harassment from women participating in politics between 2004 and 2012 (ECLAC, 2015e). Other governments in the region are beginning to recognise the need for state action on this issue: currently, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Mexico and Peru are debating legislation on gender-based political violence (ECLAC, 2015a)

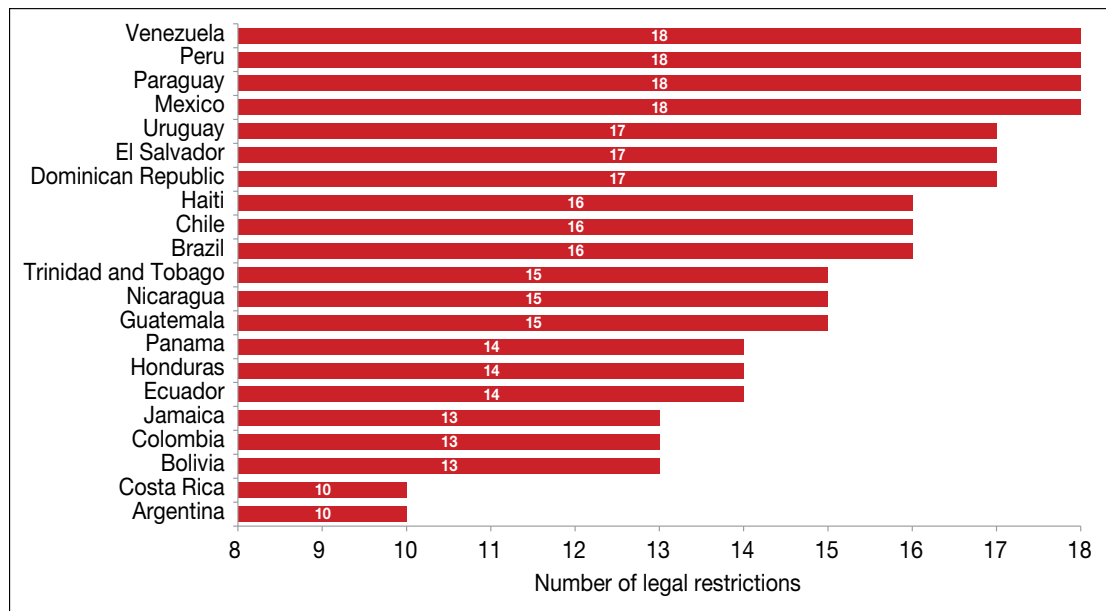
While political violence against women is an extreme manifestation of discrimination, stereotypical beliefs around who is best fit to lead also pose a major challenge for women's equal political representation. In 2014, one in four (24%) surveyed respondents of the World Value Survey (WVS) in the region agreed that "men make better political leaders than women". Importantly, there are gender differences in the views of female political participation, with men more likely than women to hold political gender biases and also less likely to recognise gender-based discrimination as a barrier to women's political participation (Htun and Piscopo, 2014). However, there are signs that attitudes have shifted over the past decade, with one in three (33%) respondents agreeing with that statement in 2004; when disaggregated by age, younger age groups indicate an even greater support for female political participation, indicating a move towards shifting norms amongst future generations.

Women's civil society organisations (CSOs) have been instrumental in promoting women's rights in the region and advocating for legislative change in regard to gender equality (ECLAC, 2015a). They have been central in the fight to pass laws against domestic violence (e.g. the Marie de Penha Law in Brazil [2006]). Women's CSOs in Argentina were critical for the passage of the gender quota law (1991). As the 15-year Regional Review of the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action highlights, CSOs have taken up new issues such as cyber harassment and have played a vital role in bringing the voices of indigenous women to the policy-making table (ECLAC, 2015a). Recognising the influential role they play in promoting women's rights, governments have instituted formal channels to interact with women's CSOs. These include official consultations (Brazil and Cuba) or consultative or advisory councils (Brazil, Argentina, Mexico and Uruguay) (ECLAC, 2015a).

An important dimension of women's participation in public life is through employment. Although women's labour force participation has steadily increased from 40% in 1990 to 54% in 2014, they continue to see poorer employment outcomes than men (World Bank, n.d.). Governments in the region have taken

steps to combat **workplace discrimination** in an effort to close gender gaps in outcomes. One significant area of progress has been around equal pay for women and men: all countries in the region except Peru have introduced legislation for equal pay. In addition, the Dominican Republic, Mexico and Peru have removed all legal restrictions on women’s work. In the remaining 19 countries, discriminatory laws continue to obstruct women’s equal employment opportunities (Figure 2.5.3). Legal restrictions range from laws prohibiting women from working at night (e.g. Jamaica) to barring them from jobs that are deemed hazardous, unhealthy, require heavy lifting or that impair their morals (Bolivia) (World Bank, 2015b).

Figure 2.5.3. **Number of legal restrictions on women in “getting a job”**



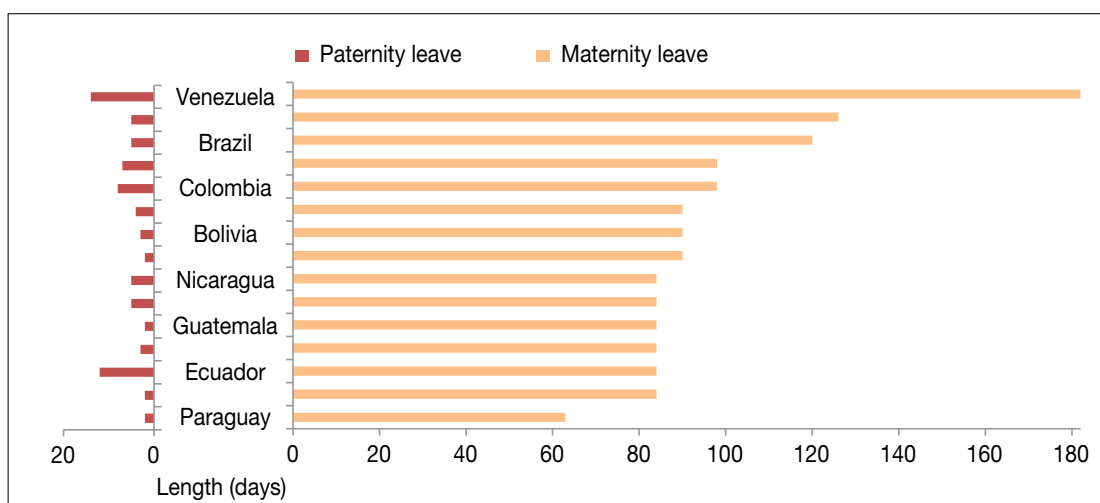
Note: This figure presents the number of legal restrictions on women in “getting a job” by country.

Source: World Bank (2015b), *Women, Business and the Law* (database), <http://wbl.worldbank.org/data/exploretopics/getting-a-job>.

Maternity and paternity leave are important policies that enable women and men to balance their work commitments with their family responsibilities. Women in Latin America and the Caribbean have an average of 89 days of paid maternity leave, from 56 days in Jamaica to 182 days in Venezuela (Figure 2.5.4). Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Panama and Venezuela meet the International Labour Organization (ILO) requirements for maternity offering 14 weeks paid leave at 100% of a woman’s salary paid for by the state. Paternity leave as a way to promote shared parenting between mothers and fathers has been introduced in 15 countries in the region (ILO, 2014). The length varies from 2 days in the Dominican Republic to 14 days in Venezuela. Eligibility requirements may make it difficult for fathers to take advantage of their rights to paternity leave: for example, Colombia requires 23 months previous employment for fathers to benefit from the 8 days of paid paternity leave (ILO, 2014).

Domestic workers, the vast majority of whom are women, are an especially vulnerable group given their lack of secure labour rights and access to state benefits. In many instances, domestic workers operate outside of the formal workforce and are thus not covered by labour and employment laws (UN Women, 2015b). Governments have begun to recognise the precarious position of these women and take measures to ensure they are protected. For example, Argentina, Brazil, El Salvador, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay have extended maternity leave benefits to domestic workers (UN Women 2015b). Argentina’s domestic workers law (2013) provides for maternity leave as well as other measures to improve the working conditions of domestic workers. Brazil passed similar legal protections in 2013 for domestic workers granting them overtime pay, an eight-hour working day and some unemployment benefits. Migrant and indigenous women are particularly likely to stay clustered in poorly-paid domestic work. Paradoxically, the availability of inexpensive domestic labour has allowed wealthier women to improve their employment prospects (UN Women, 2015a).

Figure 2.5.4. Duration of maternity and paternity leave by country



Note: This figure presents the legislated duration of paid maternity and paternity leaves by country in days.

Source: World Bank (2015b), *Women, Business and the Law* (database), <http://wbl.worldbank.org/data/exploretopics/getting-a-job>.

Good practices

- Encouraging women’s full exercise of their citizenship rights:** From 2008 to 2012, the Bolivian Government, in partnership with UNDP, UN Women, UNIDO and FAO, led the “Joint Programme on Productive Patrimonial Assets Building and Citizenship for Women in Extreme Poverty”. The programme sought to economically and politically empower poor women, targeting in particular indigenous women living in extreme poverty. The promotion of women’s full exercise of their citizenship rights was a central objective of the programme. Thanks to this initiative, 12 817 women were able to obtain birth certificates and/or identification cards for the first time. With their newly acquired legal documents, women participants were able to access bank loans and strengthen their political voice by exercising their right to vote, and engaging in recognised organisations. The programme also provided them with leadership training sessions, to encourage their participation in public life. An impact evaluation showed that before the implementation of the programme only 22% of these women voted, while in 2012 it was the case for 97% of them. In addition, 30% of women entrepreneurs who had participated in training sessions during the programme were nominated in voting lists, for the election of community and productive organisations leaders. In the end, 60% of these candidates were elected (MDGF, 2012a).
- Promoting gender-responsive budgeting and planning:** From 2008 to 2012, the Nicaraguan government, in association with several UN agencies, led the UN Joint Programme “From Rhetoric to Reality”, whose objective was to promote gender-responsive budgeting and planning as well as to encourage women’s participation in public life. The programme was meant to integrate a gender perspective in the national general budget as well as in municipal budgets. The 15 municipalities that took part in the programme were encouraged to mainstream gender in their development plans, while supporting more projects directly related to women’s empowerment. In addition, local gender advocates benefited from training sessions on gender-sensitive municipal planning, which led to a better inclusion of women in local consultation processes: in the 15 municipalities, a total of 113 814 women participated through community assemblies and meetings with technical teams or lobby groups (MDGF, 2012b). Overall, the project had several positive impacts: the Law of Municipalities was reformed to include a principle of parity in local authorities and require local budgets to be gender-responsive (Law 786); nine gender units were created in national institutions (including within the Ministries of Finance and Labor) and seven within local governments. Finally, in all 15 municipalities, an investment fund for gender equality was established. Gender issues thus became more clearly prioritised in both national and municipal budgets (UN Women, 2013).

Box 2.3. Advancing ‘Parity Democracy’ in the LAC region through a regional Framework Law

In November 2015, the General Assembly of the Latin American and Caribbean Parliament (Parlatino) approved a Framework Law on Parity Democracy. Supported by UN Women, the Framework Law is a guide and reference for Member States to move towards “Parity Democracy”, where substantive equality between the sexes is at the core of national policy making. The Law was approved by the parliamentary delegations of the 23 States represented in the Parlatino, with only six abstentions from the Delegation of Uruguay.

The Framework Law is a call to action in a region where, in spite of major advances, persisting challenges continue to restrain women’s political voice. The Law recognises that women’s underrepresentation and lack of agency in the political sphere is a product of discriminatory social institutions. Therefore the Framework Law goes beyond mere politics by supporting the idea that States must aim to transform these discriminatory social institutions in order to fully assume their responsibility towards gender equality.

To support countries’ progress, the Law sets ambitious legislative and policy standards to push for transformative change. First, under the Law, States have the obligation to remove all legal provisions that translate into direct or indirect discrimination, and contradict their formal recognition of the principle of equality. Second, the Framework Law requires all State powers (executive, judicial and legislative) to work towards the goal of parity and ensure the equal representation of women and men within structures of governance, with the ultimate objective of exemplifying best practices and inspiring change throughout society as a whole. Third, the Framework Law advocates for a transformative change within political parties and organisations, to ensure that they also take responsibility and guarantee parity and substantive equality within their structures.

To achieve these goals, the Framework Law proposes a number of concrete measures that States and political parties should take. These draw on proven best practices in the region such as supporting women caucuses or temporary quotas accompanied by sanctions for non-compliance. They also include targeted policy measures in emerging issue areas. For instance, State parties have the duty to adopt measures for the prevention and sanction of acts of political harassment and violence towards women, both during campaigns and during their political mandates. The role of the media to disseminate the principles of Parity Democracy and help evolve discriminatory gender stereotypes is also stressed.

The Framework Law includes detailed provisions regarding its implementation. It stipulates that the Parlatino and parliaments of Member States are responsible for working towards the progressive implementation of the Law, while UN Women is mandated by the Parlatino to support national efforts and monitor and evaluate progress. The Law further specifies that a process of legislative debate should be started in each Member State within the ten years following its adoption. Under the Law, national authorities thus commit to take the necessary measures to change their legislations and implement a gender equality policy through specific mechanisms, which must be provided with “a budget, functional autonomy and a binding mandate” (Chapt. II Art.10). Furthermore, public authorities are expected to conduct gender analysis and measure change, using several analytical tools including sex-disaggregated statistics (Chapt. II Art.11).



**The development cost
of discriminatory
social institutions**

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The cost of gender-based discrimination in LAC

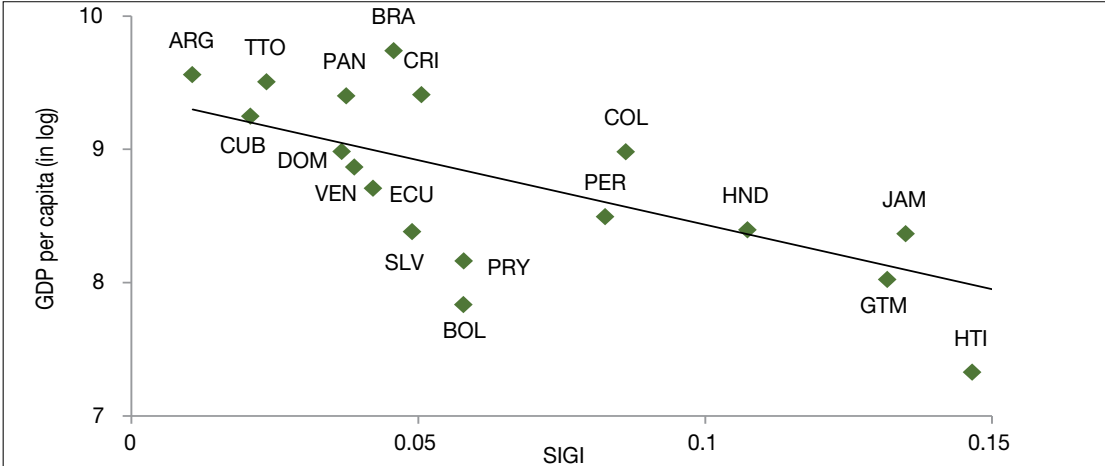
Restricting women’s empowerment opportunities and outcomes holds economies back from growing and prospering. The economy cannot operate at its full potential with constraints on half of the population. Gender parity is not only a fundamental human right but also a critical economic opportunity, leading to positive economic and human development outcomes including improvements in health and education, more efficient labour markets, and economic growth (Ferrant, 2015; Branisa, Klasen and Ziegler, 2013).

Eliminating all forms of discrimination against women and closing gender gaps are powerful and effective means to boost Latin American countries’ living standards and support growth strategies. This section will demonstrate that countries where women participate less in the workforce and where there are higher levels of discriminatory social norms suffer costs: higher levels of discrimination in both workplace and social institutions are associated with lower levels of income per capita. In contrast, increasing women’s opportunities and rights represent a macroeconomic opportunity for inclusive growth and would benefit all: closing gender gaps would improve women’s well-being as well as increase countries’ monetary living standards, as measured by their income per capita. Gains from parity emerge from equal outcomes in education and work (OECD, 2012; Woetzel et al., 2015) and are also linked to socially transformative change aiming at eradicating discriminatory social institutions (Ferrant and Kolev, 2016). Such findings make the case for integrating gender-sensitive policies and programmes in national growth strategies.

The cost of gender-based discrimination in social institutions

Gender discrimination in social institutions matters for economic development. Previous empirical studies demonstrate that gender inequality in outcomes is bad for growth; this is especially the case for gender disparities in education and labour. Many policies and regulations drive these results. Underlying all of them are discriminatory laws, social norms and practices that perpetuate gender stereotypes and mind-sets that go against women’s empowerment (Ferrant and Nowacka, 2015). For example, promoting girls’ access to secondary education requires first to delay the age of marriage and support married girls through the combination of a legal framework promoting girls’ rights to education, community awareness-raising and financial support for girls to remain in school (OECD Development Centre, 2014). For instance, in the Dominican Republic, among girls with incomplete secondary education, 24% and 26% respectively give marriage or pregnancy as a reason to leave school.

Figure 3.1.1. Higher gender-based discrimination in social institutions in LAC, lower income per capita



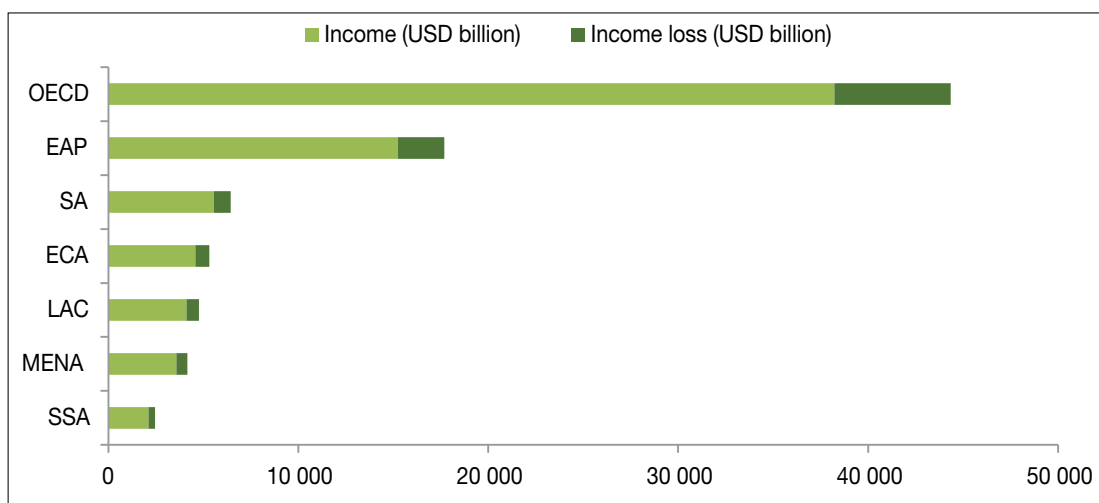
Note: This figure presents the relationship between income per capita, as measured by the GDP per capita in log, and levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions, as measured by the SIGI; controlling for the main determinants of long-term growth (including income groups in 2000 as convergence terms, latitude, landlocked, rule of law, civil liberties, population size, trade openness, inflation, oil, natural resources, urbanisation rates, life expectancy, fertility rates, ethnic fractionalisation, religion, unemployment rates, gender gaps in outcomes and regional dummies).

Source: Ferrant and Kolev (2016), “Does gender discrimination in social institutions matter for long-term growth?: Cross-country evidence”.

Discriminatory social institutions are associated with lower economic growth: higher levels of discrimination in social institutions, as measured by the SIGI, are associated with lower levels of income per capita (Figure 3.1.1). This negative correlation is explained by the negative influence of discriminatory social institutions on the way in which human assets are generated, as well as technological progress and the efficiency with which these assets are used in production. More precisely, discriminatory social institutions hinder national income growth by restricting technological progress, as well as through lowering both the level of female education and labour force participation, without affecting male outcomes. In turn, restricted women’s access to education and labour has substantial negative consequences on GDP, by reducing factor accumulation and their productivity (Ferrant and Kolev, 2016).

The economic cost associated with discriminatory social institutions is affecting society’s well-being as a whole through a reduction in potential income. The current level of discrimination is estimated to induce a loss of up to USD 12 trillion or 16% of global income. The regional income loss associated with current levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions is estimated to be up to USD 658 billion. Global regions’ income losses are similarly significant (Figure 3.1.2): approximately USD 6 116 billion in OECD countries, USD 2 440 billion in East Asia and the Pacific, USD 888 billion in South Asia, USD 733 billion in Eastern Europe and Central Asia, USD 575 billion in the Middle East and North Africa, and USD 340 billion in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Figure 3.1.2. **Income losses associated with discriminatory social institutions by region**



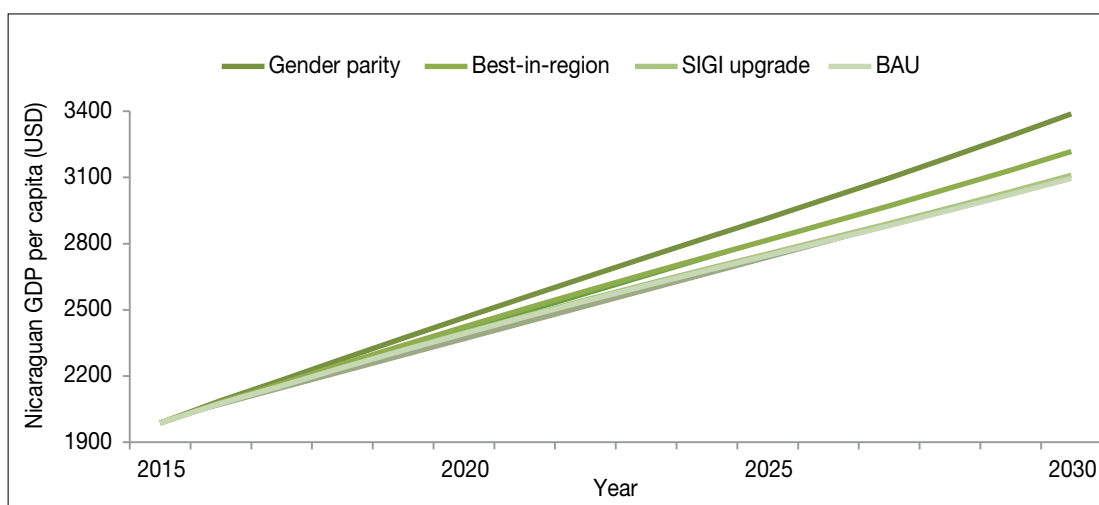
Note: This figure presents the regional income and income loss associated with current levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions. Income losses are measured in terms of 2011 real income at current PPP. The regions are: East Asia and the Pacific (EAP), South Asia (SA), Eastern Europe and Central Asia (ECA), Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), Middle East and North Africa (MENA) and Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). This regional classification excludes Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) member countries, which are represented as a stand-alone group (OECD).

Source: Ferrant and Kolev (2016), “Does gender discrimination in social institutions matter for long-term growth?: Cross-country evidence”.

Macroeconomic gains from gender parity in social institutions are substantial: reaching the ambitious targets of gender equality under the SDGs would translate to gains in terms of income per capita in the next 15 years. Gender parity in social institutions could yield substantial economic benefits, leading to an annual increase in the world GDP growth rate of up to 0.6 percentage points by 2030. If the level of discrimination were to remain the same, the world GDP per capita in 2030 would be USD 8 378. However, if discriminatory social institutions were to be entirely eliminated, the 2030 GDP per capita would jump to USD 9 142: an impressive gain of USD 764 per capita. From a regional perspective, Nicaragua for example would see an increase in GDP of USD 292 per capita.

Each action to reduce and eliminate discrimination can contribute to long-term positive results for Latin American and Caribbean countries. Eliminating all forms of gender-based discrimination in social institutions requires long-term commitments. However, by introducing gender-responsive policies and programmes and removing discrimination in legal frameworks, countries could gradually reduce their level of discrimination. At the global level, a gradual reduction of gender-based discriminatory social institutions by 2030 could increase the annual GDP growth rate by 0.03 to 0.6 percentage points over the next 15 years (Ferrant and Kolev, 2016), depending on the scenario. From a regional perspective, compared to the business-as-usual scenario, Nicaragua, for example, would see its annual GDP per capita growth rate increased by 0.03 percentage points by reducing its level of discrimination in social institutions from very high to high (as measured in the SIGI 2014). This effect rises up to 0.3 percentage points by reaching the Argentinian level of discrimination, and 0.6 percentage points by completely eliminating discriminatory social institutions over the next 15 years (Figure 3.1.3).

Figure 3.1.3. Income gains in Nicaragua associated with reduced discrimination in social institutions



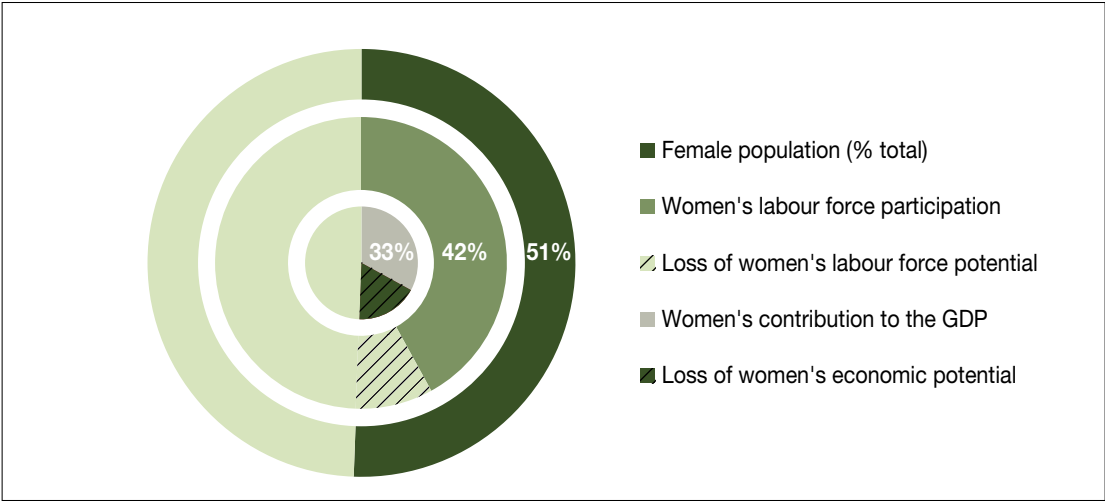
Note: This figure presents GDP forecasts for 2030 in four scenarios: (i) business-as-usual (BAU), using available growth forecast, and assuming no change in level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions between 2015 and 2030; (ii) upgrade in the SIGI classification, considering that Nicaragua would decrease its level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions in order to attain a lower group along the SIGI classification in 2030; (iii) best-in-region, Nicaragua would decrease its level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions in order to catch up the best performer of the region (Argentina); (iv) gender parity, assuming that Nicaragua would have eradicated gender-based discrimination in social institutions by 2030. GDP forecasts are measured in terms of 2011 real GDP per capita at current PPP.

Source: Ferrant and Kolev (2016), "Does gender discrimination in social institutions matter for long-term growth?: Cross-country evidence".

The cost of gender gaps in labour force participation

While women make up half of the world's population, their economic contribution is highly restricted. Through their participation in the market economy, women generate 37% of the global GDP, which is considerably lower than their 50% share of the global working-age population suggests could be possible (Woetzel et al., 2015). Even if women already participate in large numbers in LAC, they have yet to achieve parity in labour markets: female workers currently generate about 33% of the region's GDP, despite accounting for 42% of the workforce and 51% of the working-age population (Figure 3.1.4). This lower contribution of women compared to their potential is mainly explained by the underuse of the female workforce in Latin America and the Caribbean: women have a lower labour force participation rate (58% compared to 84% for men in 2012) and are overrepresented in part-time employment (62% of the total part-time employment) and concentrated in low-productivity jobs (9% of female workers are contributing to family workers and 7.5% are working in health and social sector compared to 4% and 2% of male workers respectively) compared to their male counterparts (ILO, 2012a). Therefore, the female workforce represents a huge potential for economic growth for the region (Aguirre and Rupp, 2012).

Figure 3.1.4. **Women’s economic contribution: An unmet potential for LAC economies**



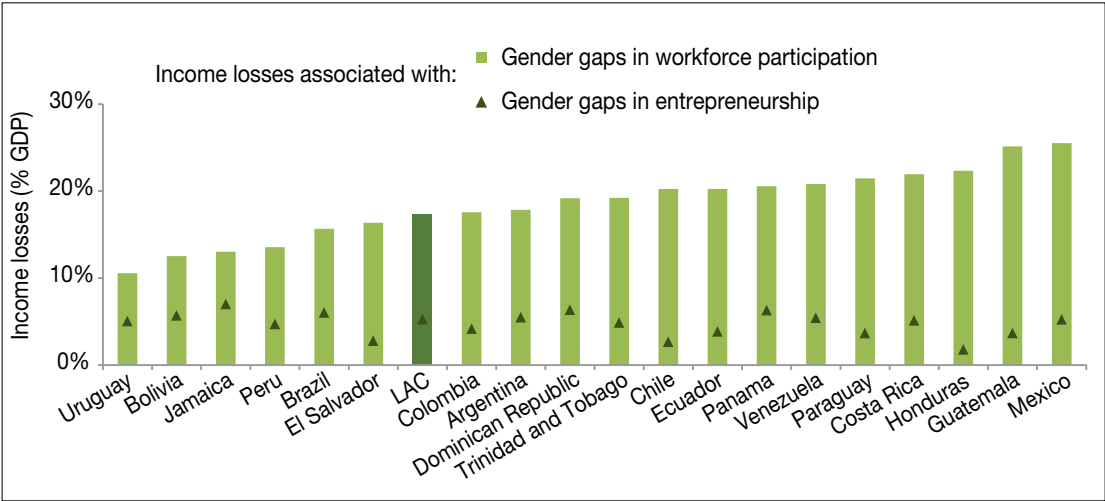
Note: These figures present the imbalance between the share of women in the total population, their share in the total labour force and their contribution to the GDP. The loss of women’s economic potential is computed as the difference between the female share in the population and women’s contribution to the GDP. The loss of women’s labour force potential is computed as the difference between the female share in the population and women’s labour force participation rate.

Source: Woetzel et al. (2015), “The power of parity: How advancing women’s equality can add \$12 trillion to global growth”; World Bank (2015a), *World Development Indicators* (database), <http://data.worldbank.org>.

These restrictions on women’s economic role have serious macroeconomic consequences.

The income losses attributable to gender gaps in the labour market are substantial: 38% in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), 25% in South Asia (SA), 16% in East Asia and the Pacific (EAP) and 12% in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). In Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) the total income loss is 17%, with regional disparities (Figure 3.1.5): all gender gaps in the labour market participation represent a loss of almost 11% of the GDP per capita in Uruguay, up to 30% in Suriname. Similarly, income losses due to occupational gender gaps are also substantial: from 2% in Honduras to 14% in Dominica (Cuberes and Teigner, 2013).

Figure 3.1.5. **Income losses associated with gender gaps in the labour market**

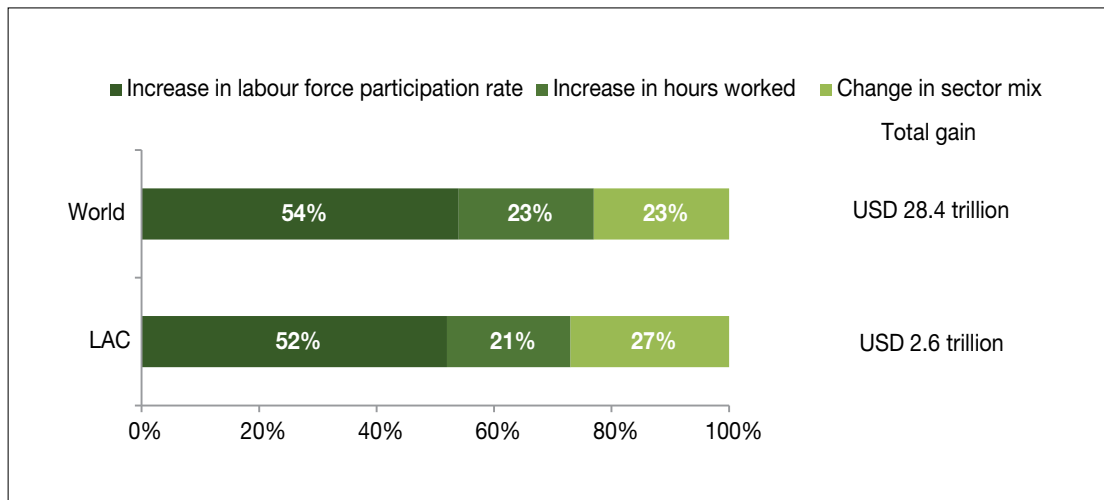


Note: This figure presents the income losses (as % of GDP) attributable to gender gaps in workforce participation and entrepreneurship.

Source: Cuberes and Teigner (2013), “Aggregate Costs of Gender Gaps in the Labor Market: A Quantitative Estimate”, *Journal of Human Capital*.

The Latin American and Caribbean economy would benefit from greater parity at work between women and men. Huge macroeconomic gains would be made if women were able to fully develop their labour market potential. For example, closing the gender gap, in order to allow women to play the same role in labour markets as men, would add as much as USD 28 trillion (26%) to annual global GDP in 2025 and USD 2.6 trillion in LAC, representing 34% of the region's GDP. About 52% of this potential increase in LAC income could come from raising participation rates to match those of men (Figure 3.1.6), 27% from shifting women into higher-productivity sectors and 21% from closing the gap between men and women in part-time work (Woetzel et al., 2015).

Figure 3.1.6. **Income gains from gender parity in labour force and their drivers**

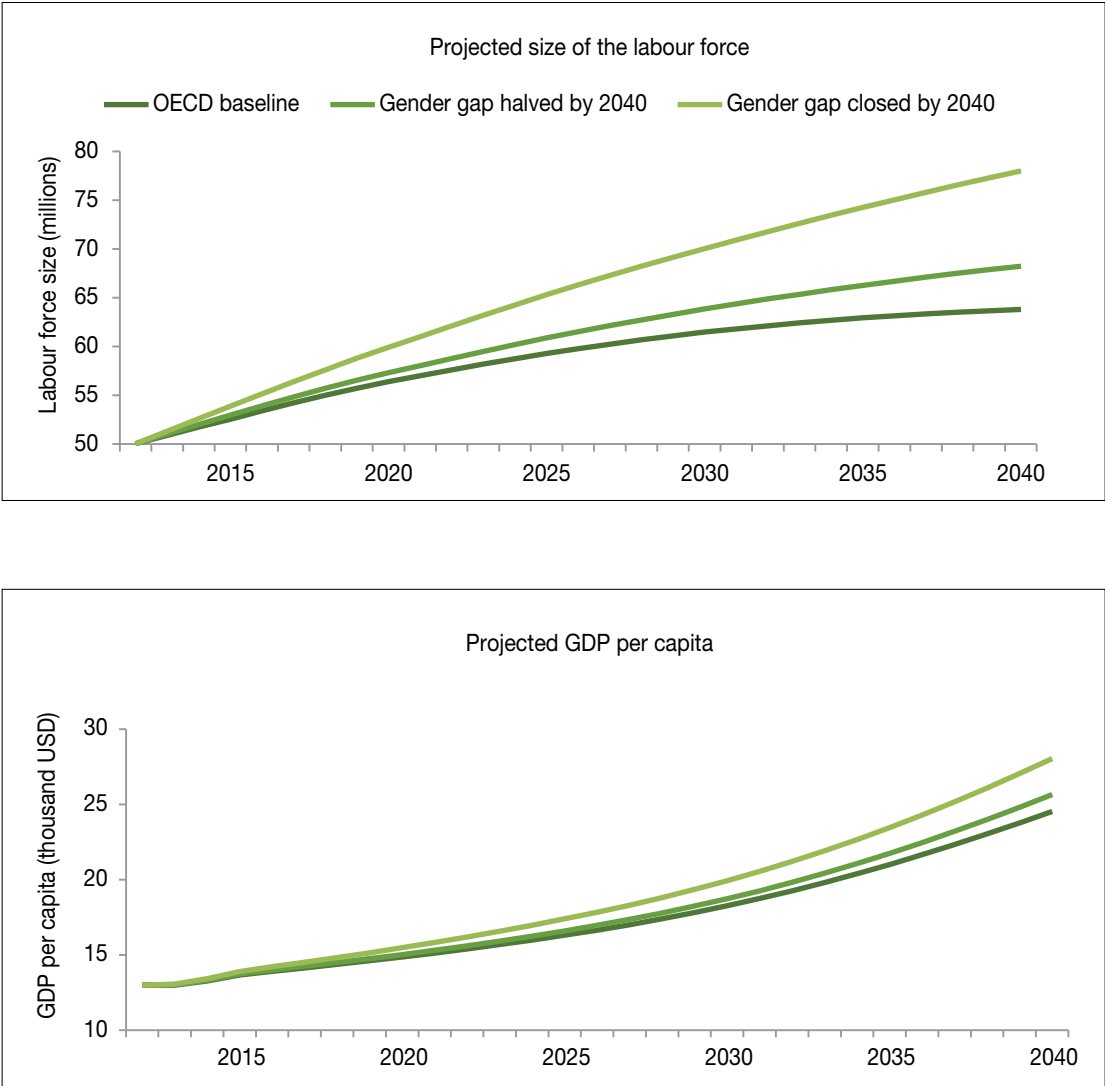


Note: This figure presents the total gain associated with closing gender gaps in labour force participation, as well as the contribution of three types of improvements to the total gain.

Source: Woetzel et al. (2015), "The power of parity: How advancing women's equality can add \$12 trillion to global growth".

LAC countries with stagnating workforces have a particular interest in narrowing the gap in labour force participation: higher female labour force participation can directly yield growth and stability gains by mitigating the impact of a slow increase in the labour force on the growth potential (OECD, 2012). Some LAC countries face economic challenges regarding their pool of labour and their GDP growth (Figure 3.1.7): in Mexico, for example, the 47 million workers in 2011 is estimated to increase by 12% in 2030 in the scenario where gender gaps are persistent, compared to 43% if female participation rates catch up to male levels, and 60% in case of perfect convergence in labour intensity of labour force participation. Similarly, in Chile the 8 million workforce in 2011 would increase by 7% in case of no change, 28% if gender gaps in labour force participation are closed and 37% if female and male work at the same intensity (OECD, 2012). In turn, a greater female labour supply will also add impetus to economic growth, contributing to the average annual GDP growth rate of up to 0.6 percentage points in LAC countries (ILO, 2012b).

Figure 3.1.7. The impact of gender equality on the workforce size and economic growth in Mexico



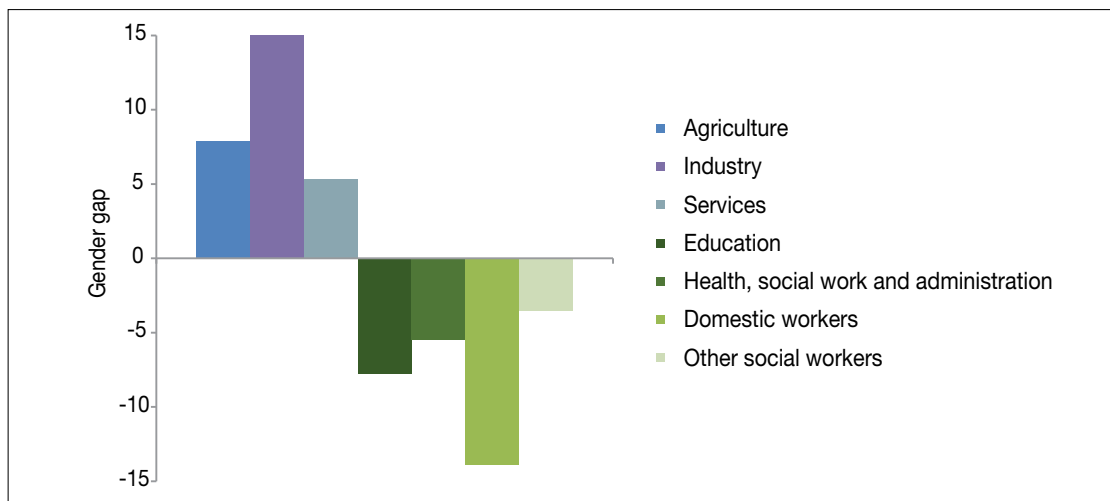
Note: The top figure presents the projected size of the total labour force (15-74 year olds) under different gender gap scenarios in Mexico for the years 2012-40. The bottom figure presents the projected GDP per capita for Mexico (USD 2005 PPP) under the same gender gap scenarios, for the same period of time. Estimates of GDP per capita under each of the scenarios are achieved by adjusting projections from the OECD's long-term growth models (as published in OECD Economic Outlook, No. 95) according to changes in the size of the 15-74 year old labour force that follow the assumed changes in labour participation. The OECD baseline scenario: the projected size of the total labour force aged 15-64 years if the labour force participation rates for men and women remain constant from 2011 to 2030 at the rates observed in 2010. The "gender gap halved by 2040" scenario: the projected size of the total labour force aged 15-64 years if the labour force participation rate for men remains constant from 2011 to 2030 at the rates observed in 2010, and the rate for women shows a gradual increase from 2011 to 2030, reaching the 2010 rate for men by 2030. The "gender gap closed by 2040" scenario: the projected size of the total labour force aged 15-64 years if the full-time equivalent rate for men remains constant from 2011 to 2030 at the rate observed in 2010, and the full-time equivalent rate for women shows a gradual increase from 2011 to 2030 reaching the 2010 full-time equivalent rate for men by 2030. The full-time equivalent rate is calculated as the labour force participation rate, multiplied by the average usual hours worked per week by all employed men and women respectively, and divided by 40.

Source: OECD (2016c), *Gender Equality in the Pacific Alliance: Promoting Women's Economic Empowerment*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264262959-en>.

The overlap between gender-based discrimination in opportunities and outcomes

The various forms of gender discrimination – in both opportunities (social institutions) and outcomes (labour force participation) – exacerbate each other. Social norms overlap with labour outcomes throughout women’s life cycle, as persistent inegalitarian attitudes and stereotypes on women’s role in the labour market hinder women’s economic empowerment. For example, 17% of the Mexican population believes that men should have more right to a job than women when jobs are scarce. This may at least partially explain why Mexican women have a lower probability (60%) than men (80%) to be employed, especially after becoming parents (50% for mothers compared to more than 90% for fathers) (OECD, 2017). Social norms also influence both the type and quality of employment that women undertake: occupations deemed “appropriate” for women are often the most vulnerable and undervalued within the informal economy. Therefore, women are more limited in their choices for employment across sectors: in Brazil for example, men are more concentrated in agriculture and manufacturing, and women in education, health and social work (Figure 3.1.8). Policies which directly aim to address and eliminate discriminatory social institutions would therefore play an important role in catalysing inclusive growth.

Figure 3.1.8. **Sectorial gender segregation in Brazil**

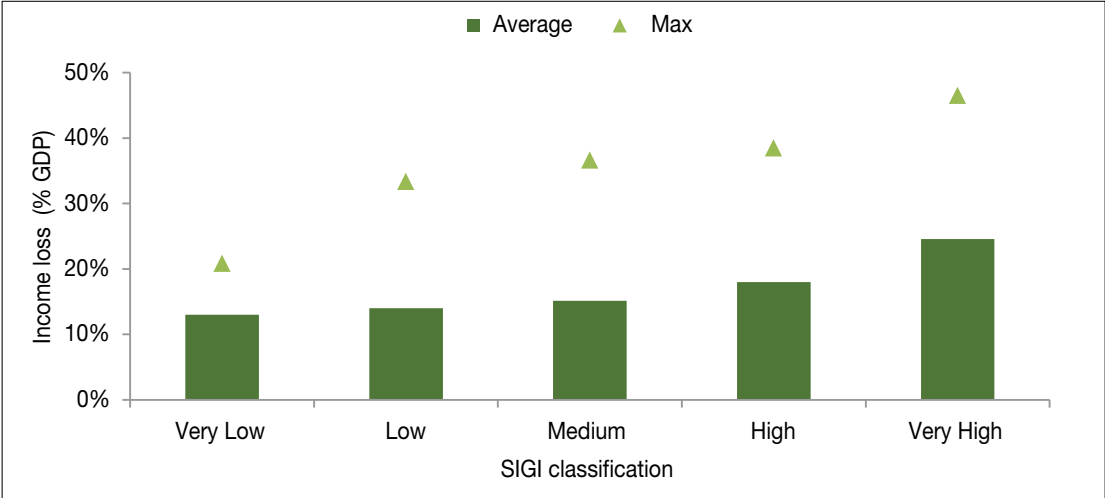


Note: This figure presents sectorial gender segregation in Brazil, measured as the male-female differentials. The calculation of male–female differentials by sector is as follows, using, for example, sector “Agriculture”: share of persons employed in sector “Agriculture” in total employment, males minus share of persons employed in sector “Agriculture” in total employment, females. Hence, a positive differential implies that men tend to be concentrated more in the specific sector in comparison to women.

Source: ILO (2015b), *Key Indicators of the Labour Market Ninth Edition*.

The costs of gender-based discriminatory institutions make a strong case for including gender equality targets in national development strategies. Indeed, the cost attributable to gender gaps in the labour market is higher in countries with high levels of discrimination in social institutions (Figure 3.1.9). This provides ample evidence that when women are able to develop their full potential in the labour market, thanks to equal treatment in social institutions, there can be significant macroeconomic gains. Tackling discriminatory social institutions underlying gender gaps in outcomes should be integrated into national growth and development strategies and mainstreamed in global development approaches. Non-discriminatory and gender-sensitive laws are the first step but laws are not enough to challenge entrenched acceptance of discriminatory social norms by communities, including women. Fostering inclusive economies and societies notably requires a mix of policy responses that can address these deep-rooted biases.

Figure 3.1.9. Income losses associated with gender gaps in labour force participation by SIGI classification



Note: This figure presents the average and maximum income losses attributable to gender gaps in the labour market by levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions, as measured by the SIGI.

Source: Cuberes and Teigner (2013), "Aggregate Costs of Gender Gaps in the Labor Market: A Quantitative Estimate", *Journal of Human Capital*; OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

Boosting women’s economic contribution in LAC by recognising, redistributing and reducing the unpaid care burden

Unpaid care work is both an important aspect of economic activity and an indispensable factor contributing to the well-being of individuals, their families and societies (Stiglitz et al., 2007). Every day individuals spend time cooking, cleaning, and caring for children, the ill and the elderly. All these domestic and care activities are central to our day-to-day well-being and essential to maintaining our societies as a constituent part of social development (Daly, 2001). Unpaid care work (see definition in Box 3.1) is producing economic value and can be considered as substitute to domestic workers (Burda et al, 2013): according to the “third person rule” any activity that one can theoretically pay someone else (i.e. a third person) to do is work and is therefore production (Budlender, 2004).

Box 3.1 Unpaid care work

Unpaid care work refers to all the unpaid services provided within a household for its members, including care of persons, housework and voluntary community work (Elson, 2000). These activities are considered as work since theoretically one could pay a third person to perform them.

- *Unpaid = the individual performing this activity is not remunerated*
- *Care = the activity provides what is necessary for the health, well-being, maintenance and protection of someone or something*
- *Work = this activity involves mental or physical effort and is costly in terms of time resources*

Despite this, unpaid care work is commonly left out of Latin American policy-making agendas due to a common misperception that measuring it is more difficult and less relevant than standard market work measures. Even if care and domestic work performed by household members is not remunerated, this includes productive activities generating wealth: unpaid care work increases overall consumption of goods and services and represents implicit income that could be included in the computation of national income (Becker, 1965). Given its importance for daily well-being and

the extent of gender inequality, neglecting unpaid care work can lead to misleading policies. First, focusing solely on market work measures, rather than also considering unpaid work, may lead to incorrect inferences about levels and changes in individuals' well-being and value of time (Stiglitz et al., 2007). Second, since women typically do much of the unpaid work, neglecting this also reduces the importance of a major female economic contribution to societal well-being and national income (as measured by country GDP), as well as its impact on women's market labour supply.

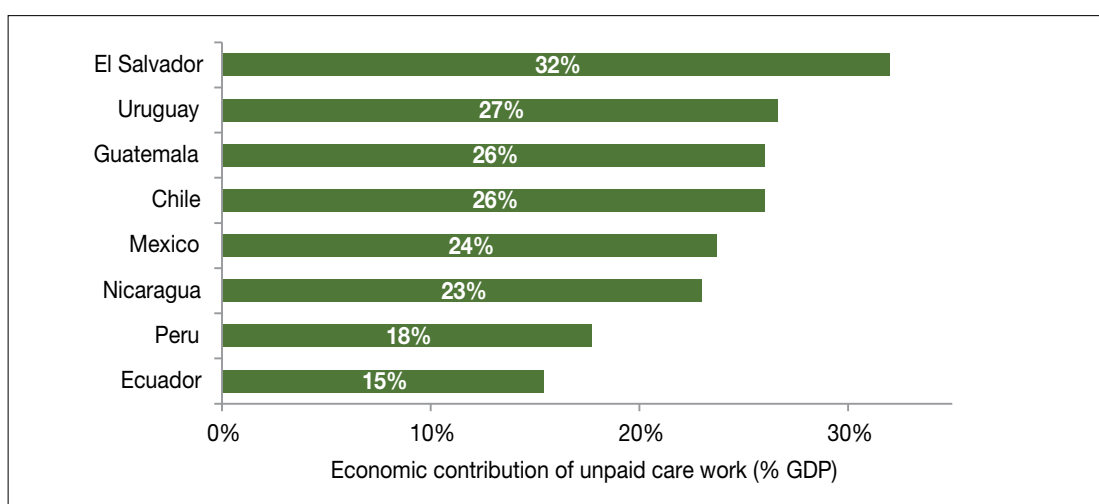
The 3 Rs strategy (Recognising, Redistributing and Reducing caring responsibilities) could be effective levers of support for Latin American regional and national policies promoting women's economic empowerment. This strategy also helps integrate unpaid care into country monitoring programmes related to Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 5.4.¹ Recognition of unpaid care work is critical for the valuation of women's economic contribution; redistribution and reduction is key to narrow persistent gender gaps in the workplace. How problems of care are addressed by society and policy makers have important implications for gender equality and female labour force participation: they can either expand the capabilities and choices of women and men, or confine women to traditional roles associated with femininity and motherhood (Razavi, 2007).

Making unpaid care work visible and a priority in LAC policies promoting women's economic contribution begins by first valuing women's unpaid care work contribution to national economy; second, by understanding its relationship with gender gaps in labour outcomes; and finally, by acknowledging the key role of discriminatory social institutions in persistent traditional gender roles

Recognising women's unpaid care work as an economic input in LAC wealth estimation

The invisibility of unpaid care activities in the SNA leads to underestimates of countries' production of wealth (Figure 3.2.1): between one-third and half of all valuable economic activity in OECD and BRICs countries² are not accounted for in the traditional measures of well-being, such as GDP per capita (OECD, 2011). This leads to misestimating households' material well-being and countries' wealth. For example, unpaid care work would amount to nearly one-third of goods and services produced in LAC countries and would constitute 27% of the GDP in Uruguay and 32% in El Salvador (Duran and Milosavljevic, 2012). Colombia became the first country in Latin America to formally acknowledge the key economic contribution of unpaid care work. It passed a law (La ley 1413 de 2010) mandating the collection of time-use surveys to account for the care economy in national accounts.

Figure 3.2.1. **The contribution of unpaid care work to national economies**

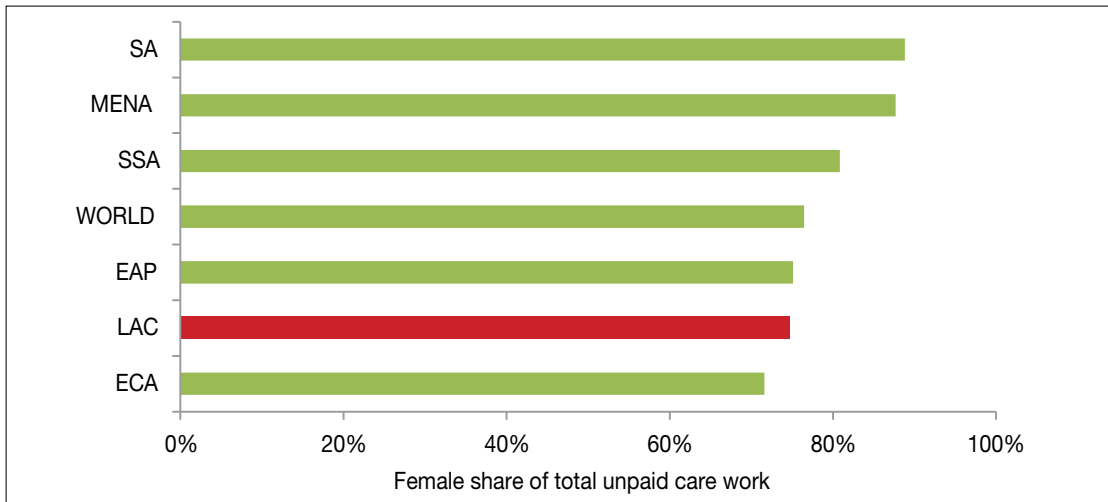


Note: This figure presents the value of unpaid care work as expressed in percentage of GDP.

Sources: Durán and Milosavljevic (2012), "Unpaid work, time use surveys, and care demand forecasting in Latin America"; Velazco and Velazco (2013), "Estimación del valor económico del trabajo no remunerado: una aplicación para Perú"; Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos (2012a), "Cuentas satélite del trabajo no remunerado de los hogares del Ecuador".

The invisibility of unpaid care work in national statistics also leads to misleading perceptions of women’s economic role. At the global level, women’s paid work contributes to 37% of the global GDP; however, this result only accounts for their participation in the market economy: unpaid work undertaken by women amounts to as much as USD 10 trillion of output per year, equivalent to 13% of global GDP (Woetzel et al., 2015). Such figures have strong resonance in LAC, where women perform 75% of the total unpaid care work (Figure 3.2.2). In Ecuador for example, unpaid care production is estimated to be equivalent to 15% of the GDP, with 12% performed by women compared to 3% by men (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos del Ecuador, 2012a).

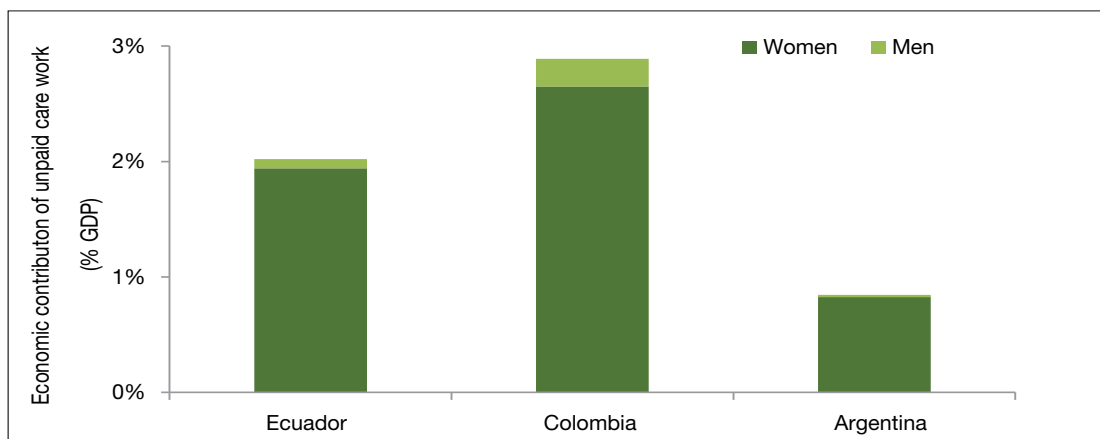
Figure 3.2.2. **Gender inequalities in unpaid care work by region**



Note: This figure presents the gender inequalities in performing unpaid care work by region, as expressed by the female share in time devoted to total unpaid care work. The regions are: South Asia (SA), Middle East and North Africa (MENA), Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), East Asia and the Pacific (EAP), Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) and Eastern Europe and Central Asia (ECA).
 Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

The high prevalence of young women who are NEETs – not in employment, education, or training – in LAC exacerbates the underestimation of women’s productive role. High dropout rates, labour market barriers and low job quality have hindered youth’s transition from school to work, particularly for young women. This has translated into a large proportion of youth aged 15-29 either unemployed or inactive: in 2014, over one in five youths in the region, almost 30 million individuals were classified as a NEET (OECD/ECLAC/CAF, 2016). NEETs are primarily a female phenomenon in Latin America and the Caribbean and there is a gender gap in NEET rates: 76% of NEETs are women, among young women 30% are NEETs compared to 11% of young men. Though not counted in national accounts and considered as inactive, these women are in fact contributing to the economy through their unpaid care work, with 70% of them active in unpaid care work, compared to 10% of male NEETs (OECD/ECLAC/CAF, 2016). Their unpaid care and domestic activities produce goods and services for household consumption equivalent to 1.3% of the Argentinian GDP, 2% of the Ecuadorian GDP and 3% of the Colombian GDP; and between 90% and 98% of this NEETs’ unpaid contribution to GDP is performed by women (Figure 3.2.3).

Figure 3.2.3. Contributions of NEET youth to selected economies



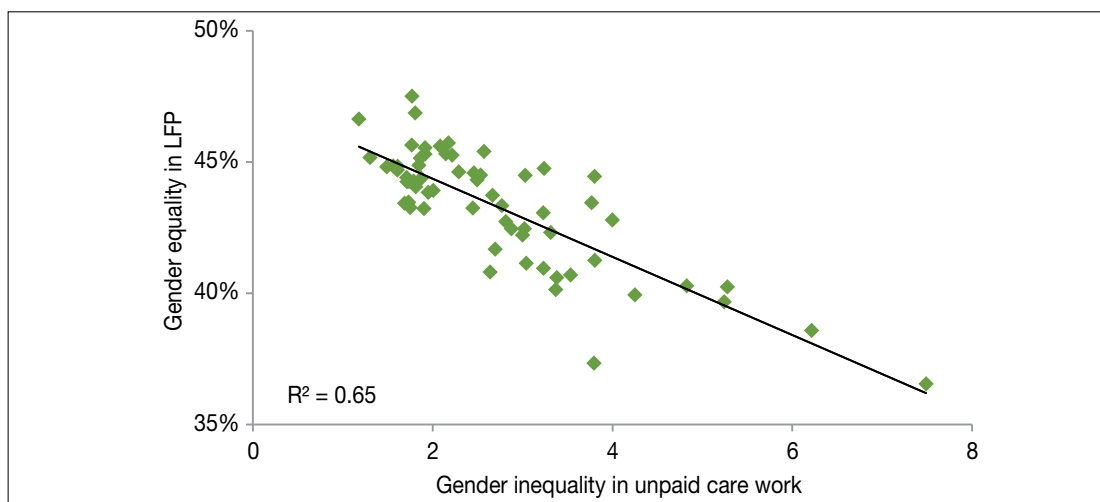
Note: This figure presents the additional contribution of youth aged 15-29 not in education, employment or training to the economy through unpaid care work (as % of GDP).

Source: (OECD/ECLAC/CAF, 2016).

Redistributing and reducing women's unpaid care work burden can promote gender equality in labour outcomes

Women's unpaid care work burden poses a brake on women's economic empowerment potential. By reducing the time potentially available for market activities, female caring responsibilities affect their economic empowerment opportunities. A standard assumption is that increases in levels of female education and employability and decreasing fertility rates would automatically lead to increased levels of female labour force participation. However, it neglects unpaid care work that is also part of the labour supply equation. Since women typically bear the bulk of caring responsibilities, unpaid care work significantly reduces their labour participation and the unequal sharing of household responsibilities is a significant barrier to enhancing the role of women in the world economy (Ferrant, Pesando and Nowacka, 2014). In countries where women spend an average of four hours per day on unpaid care activities, such as in Nicaragua, women are less active and gender gaps are higher than in countries where they devote less than three hours per day to such activities, like in Chile (Figure 3.2.4), controlling for a given level of GDP per capita, fertility rate, urbanisation rate, maternity leave, and gender inequality in unemployment and education.

Figure 3.2.4. Higher inequalities in unpaid care work, higher inequalities in labour force participation

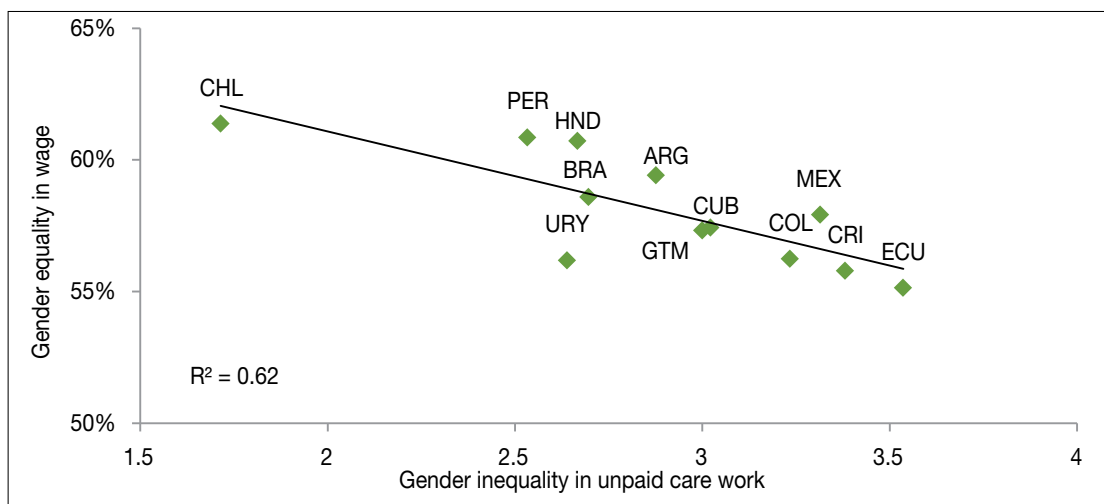


Note: This figure presents the negative correlation between gender gaps in unpaid care work (as measured by the female-to-male ratio of time devoted to unpaid care work) and labour force participation (as measured by the female share in the labour force participation), controlling for the country's GDP per capita, fertility rate, urbanisation rate, maternity leave policies, and gender inequality in unemployment and education. LFP stands for labour force participation.

Sources: World Bank (2015a), *World Development Indicators* (database), <http://data.worldbank.org>; OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

When women spend more time than men on unpaid care work, their employment situation worsens compared to that of men leading to higher gender wage gaps. More unequal distribution of caring responsibilities between women and men is associated with lower equality in wages (Figure 3.2.5): in Ecuador for example where women spend more than three times as much time as men on caring activities, they would earn only 55% of what their male counterparts earn for the same jobs, compared to 62% in Chile (for full-time employees, controlling for GDP per capita, fertility rate, urbanisation rate, maternity leave and gender inequality in labour force participation, unemployment and education). This may be partially explained by the fact that women’s struggle to reconcile care responsibilities with paid employment can lead to “occupational downgrading”. Unpaid care activities constitute a time and energy-consuming occupation, relegating women to part-time employment and sectors where working arrangements are more flexible but wages are lower. Therefore, this has negative long-term implications on women’s earnings but also on their pensions, reducing superannuation contributions and retirement incomes.

Figure 3.2.5. **Higher gender inequality in unpaid care work, lower equality in wages**



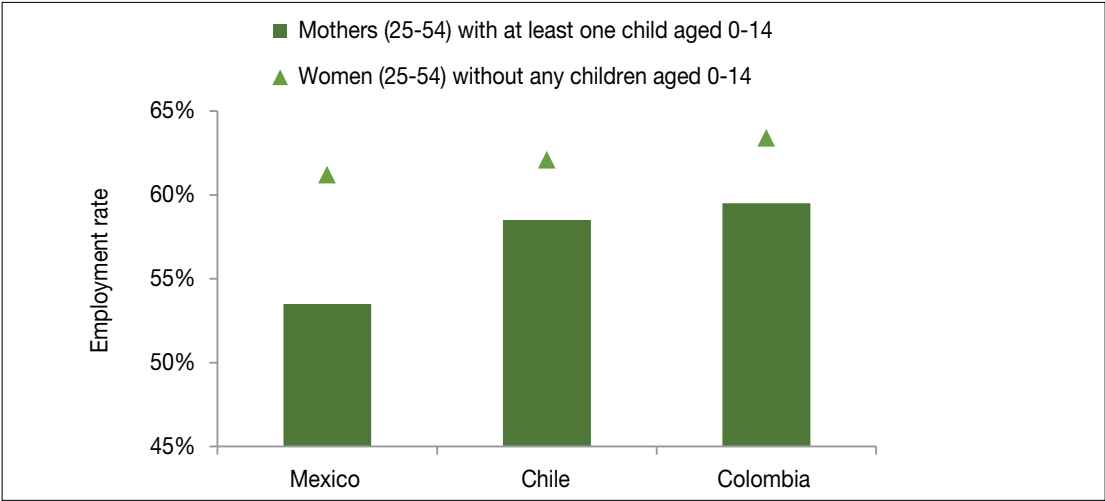
Note: This chart presents the negative correlation between gender equality in hourly wage (as measured by the female share in male wage) and gender inequality in unpaid care work (as measured by the female-to-male ratio of time devoted to unpaid care work), controlling for GDP per capita, fertility rate, urbanisation rate, maternity leave and gender inequality in labour force participation, unemployment and education.

Sources: World Bank (2015a), *World Development Indicators* (database), <http://data.worldbank.org>; WEF (2014), *The Global Gender Gap Report 2014*; OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

Motherhood exacerbates the negative impact of caring responsibilities on women’s labour force participation. The gap in labour force participation between women with children and without children is relatively large in LAC countries: in Mexico, for instance, mothers are about 8 percentage points less likely to be in paid work than comparably-aged women without dependent children (OECD, forthcoming). The barriers to labour market participation are especially high when children are very young: in LAC, 67% of women without children under 18 are active in the labour market, this number falls to 65% for mothers with children aged 6-17 and down to 56% for mothers with children younger than five years old (Figure 3.2.6). Latin American women face difficulties to balance their care responsibilities with employment: in Uruguay for example, 34% of mothers were not in employment, 22% had part-time employment and only 34% were in full-time employment, in 2010 (OECD, 2016c).

Family-friendly policies aiming at reducing and redistributing the unpaid care work burden would benefit women’s economic empowerment in LAC countries. Restrictions on women’s opportunities to enter into the workforce may be notably explained by relatively weak public supports in parental leave and early childhood education and care: 29% of Uruguayan children under the age of 3 were in a childcare institution while the remaining 71% were taken care of at home by their families (OECD, 2016c); in Mexico, less than 10% of children younger than two have access to formal care, 6% in Chile (OECD, forthcoming). By contrast, within OECD countries, approximately 33% of children under three had access to a formal childcare facility, up to 50% in Denmark, Norway and the Netherlands. This higher access to childcare parallels with an improved labour force participation rate (female labour force participation is on average 45% in Mexico, 49% in Chile and 56% in Uruguay, compared to 59% in Denmark, 62% in Norway and 80% in the Netherlands), thus suggesting a close relationship between the two.

Figure 3.2.6. Mothers are less likely to be in paid work than non-mothers



Note: This figure presents the employment rates for women aged 25-54 with at least one child aged 0-14 and women aged 25-54 without any children aged 0-14.

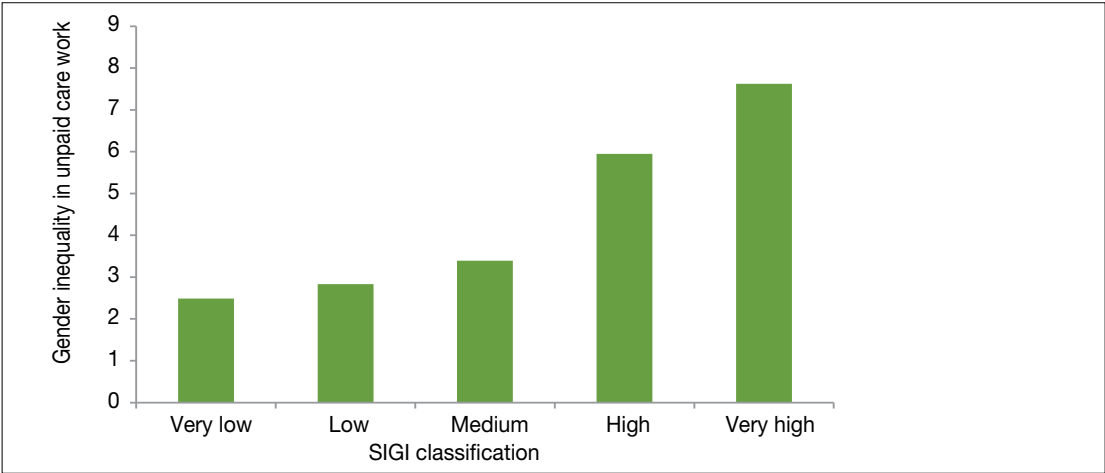
Source: OECD (2017), *Building an Inclusive Mexico: Policies and Good Governance for Gender Equality*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264265493-en>.

The key role of discriminatory social institutions in explaining gender gaps in caring responsibilities

Discriminatory social norms can help explain gender disparities in time devoted to unpaid care work. Gendered social norms universally view unpaid care work as a female prerogative explaining why women across different regions, socio-economic classes and cultures spend an important share of their day on meeting expectations of their domestic and reproductive roles. The level of gender-based discrimination in social institutions, as measured by the SIGI, is related to the way responsibilities for housework and care are shared between women and men: higher SIGI scores reflect higher gender inequalities in time devoted to unpaid care work (Figure 3.2.7). The SIGI results show that in countries where social institutions highly discriminate against women, women’s role in society is restricted to reproductive and domestic functions, with women performing more unpaid care work than men.

Tackling discriminatory social norms and traditional gender roles may help to reduce women’s unpaid care burden. Conversely, when discrimination in social institutions is lower, the distribution of caring responsibilities between genders is more equal. Reducing the level of discrimination in social institutions allows traditional gender roles to evolve. The reproductive and domestic role of women is less embedded in social norms, allowing a reduction of women’s time devoted to unpaid care work. Similarly, social norms that prevent men from assuming equal roles in domestic and care responsibilities are much less widespread. In these countries, men engage more in unpaid care activities and responsibilities for care and housework are more equally shared between men and women.

Figure 3.2.7. Higher levels of gender-based discrimination in social institutions, higher gender inequality in unpaid care work



Note: This chart presents gender inequality in unpaid care work as measured by the female-to-male ratio of time devoted to unpaid care activities by SIGI classification.

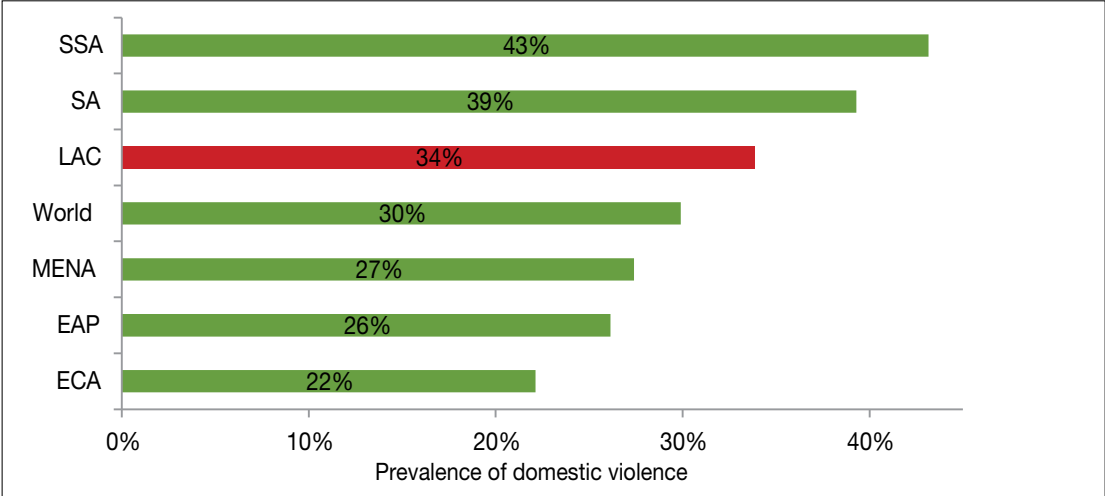
Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

The evidence makes the case for including unpaid and domestic work in policies aiming at promoting gender equality and women’s economic empowerment in LAC countries. Not measuring the full economic contribution of women’s caring responsibilities means underestimating their economic role and contributes to women’s subordinate position in the economy. Moreover, it partially explains why gender-blind labour policies fail to reduce gender gaps in the workplace. The 3 Rs strategy offers Latin American and Caribbean policy makers an innovative framework to meet their international and national commitments: recognising, reducing and redistributing the unpaid care burden would help Latin American and Caribbean development policies to reduce gender inequalities and fully benefit from women’s economic potential. However, efficient 3 Rs strategies also include transformative social change and challenging entrenched discriminatory gender norms and stereotypes.

Eliminating violence against women as a development strategy for LAC countries

Violence against women (VAW) is a human rights issue with wide-ranging negative impacts for women’s empowerment in LAC. Violence can disempower women throughout their lives, with adverse impacts on their health, education and employment prospects. In recognition of its violation of women’s basic human rights, the LAC region has made strong commitments to stem and eradicate the pandemic dimension of violence: the Belém do Para Convention (1994) and SDG 5.2³ have provided important impetus for regional governments to act to prevent violence and to offer better protection for survivors. Despite the dramatically high rates of both violence against women in the region (Figure 3.3.1) and femicide in certain countries (in 2014, 1 903 women were murdered because of their gender in the region, 531 in Honduras [ECLAC, 2014b]), such numbers have made little inroads in challenging norms around gender-based violence.

Figure 3.3.1. Prevalence of domestic violence by region



Note: This figure presents the prevalence of domestic violence in the lifetime, expressed as the percentage of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence from an intimate partner at some time in their lives, by region. The regions are: South Asia (SA), Middle East and North Africa (MENA), Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), East Asia and the Pacific (EAP), Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) and Eastern Europe and Central Asia (ECA).

Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

The human rights case for ending violence against women is backed up by growing evidence on its significant cost for LAC economies. Devastating violations of women’s physical integrity include forms of intimate partner violence (IPV), whose definition ranges from economic, psychosocial, sexual as well as physical forms of violence by an existing or former partner. Research highlighting the cost of IPV on national economies has aimed to complement rights-based principles with instrumental “business” case arguments to add further impetus for change. IPV represents a cost for societies and economies, as well as for individual rights and well-being. Beyond individual expenditures related to physical and psychological injuries, domestic violence has also been found to be linked to reduced productivity (Duvvury et al., 2013), to lower women’s earning opportunities (inter alia due to missed days of work) and to higher health care and criminal justice costs (CDC, 2003). In Uruguay, for example, the annual economic cost of intimate partner violence against women was estimated to exceed USD 39 billion (Aboal et al., 2015).

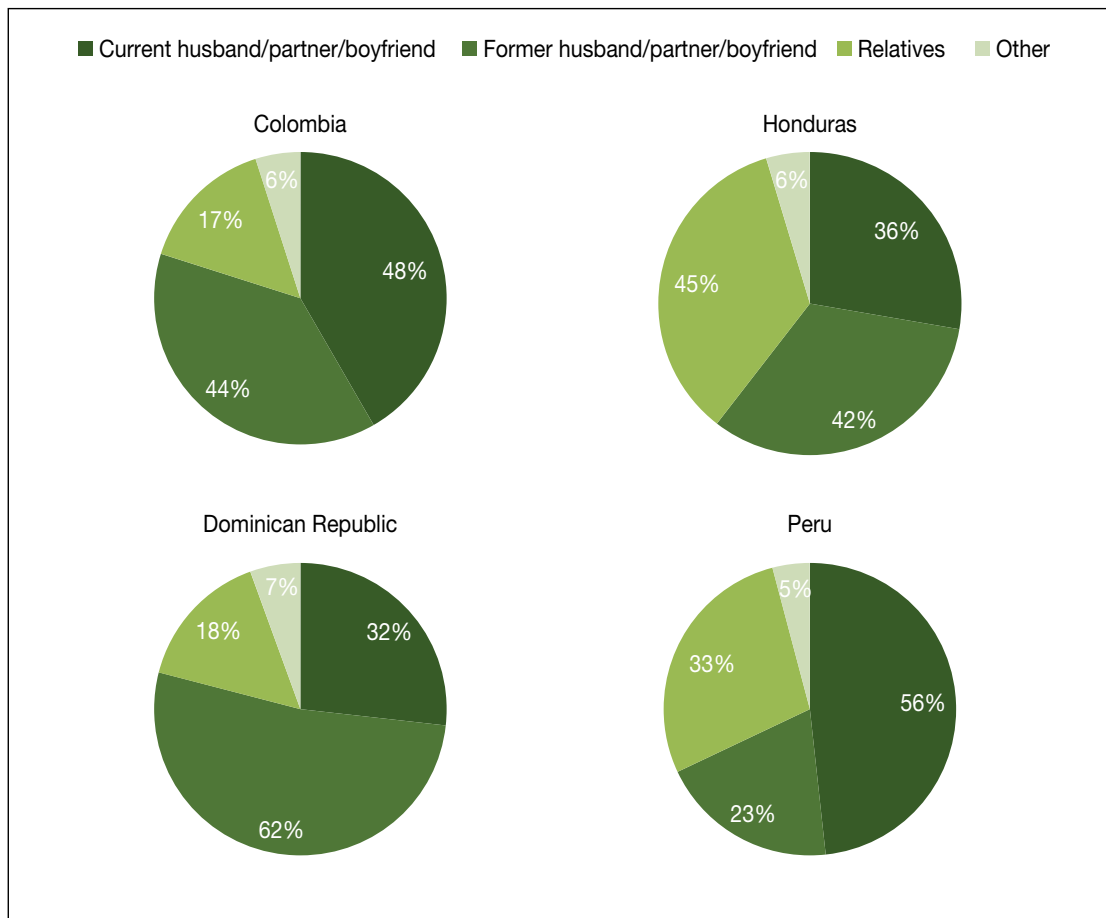
However, as long as discriminatory social norms perpetuating social acceptability of violence persist, eradicating this widespread use of VAW will be challenging. Laws and political commitments to end VAW are improving in the LAC region (see page 27). Despite this legal protection,

persistent high rates of VAW pinpoint discriminatory social norms as the driving force behind such violence, highlighting them as a pivotal focus for transformative change. Therefore, policies and programmes aiming at protecting women from violence, such as SDG target 5.2, also need to tackle discriminatory social norms justifying such harmful practices.

The impact of VAW on women’s development opportunities

Women and men experience different forms of violence in LAC. Risk factors, perpetrators and consequences of gender-based violence differ for women and men. Men are more likely to experience violence in the context of armed conflict and criminal activity perpetrated by strangers, in the public sphere; while women are more likely to experience violence and injury inflicted by people close to them, even intimate, in the private sphere (Figure 3.3.2). In Honduras for example, among the 27% of women who are victims of violence, 64% of them declared the perpetrator was their intimate partner (DHS, 2012); of the 21 170 such complaints received by the Honduran courts in 2013, 92% were filed by women (Judiciary of Honduras, 2013). Moreover, girls and women are also more likely than boys or men to experience sexual violence. In Bolivia for example, more than 6% of women have been victims of sexual violence, against less than 1% of men (DHS, 2008). In addition, physical and sexual violence against women and girls has a range of reproductive health consequences that are different than the consequences of violence against men, such as unintended or loss of pregnancy (PAHO, 2013).

Figure 3.3.2. **Perpetrators of violence against women**

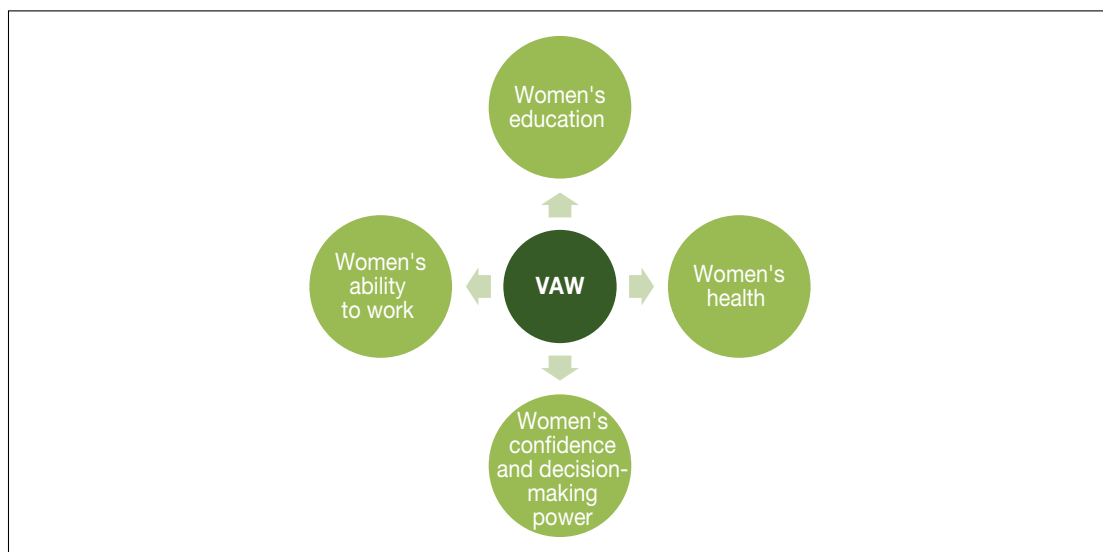


Note: These figures present the share of perpetrators of violence against women, for selected countries.
 Source: Demographic and Health Surveys (2010-2014), www.statcompiler.com.

VAW is reinforcing gender inequality in the private and public spheres. VAW and in particular intimate partner violence (IPV) reinforce gender inequalities within the family: men’s use of violence against women creates a vicious cycle wherein women’s status within the family is subordinated and controlled. For example, domestic violence and threats have been found to be used by men to control the resources or behaviour of their wives (Bobonis, Castro and Gonzales-Brenes, 2009). In Colombia, for instance, one in ten women has reported receiving threats from their partner in the last 12 months to abandon them, take away their children, or withhold financial support (DHS, 2005).

Stigma and violence often compound disadvantage and prevent women from accessing development opportunities, increasing women’s vulnerability to poverty. VAW increases the likelihood of women falling into poverty by impacting negatively on their capabilities and thereby on their outcomes of education, skills and experience within the workforce (Duvvury et al., 2013). For example, among Nicaraguan female victims of sexual and/or physical intimate partner violence, 20% missed or had to stop money-earning work. Indeed, capabilities of women victims of violence are shaped by poor health status (including physical and mental health), which in turn shapes the stability of employment, the acquisition of skills, and degree of mobility (Figure 3.3.3), resulting in increased women’s vulnerability to poverty. Domestic violence has been identified as a major cause of female homelessness in the LAC region, especially when there is insufficient protection by the legal system or by law enforcement; by contrast, threat of homelessness can also compel women victims of domestic violence to remain in abusive relationships (OHCHR and UN Habitat, 2009).

Figure 3.3.3. **Impact of VAW on women’s development opportunities**



Note: This figure presents the negative implications of VAW on women’s development opportunities.

Source: Duvvury et al. (2013), “Intimate partner violence: Economic costs and implications for growth and development”.

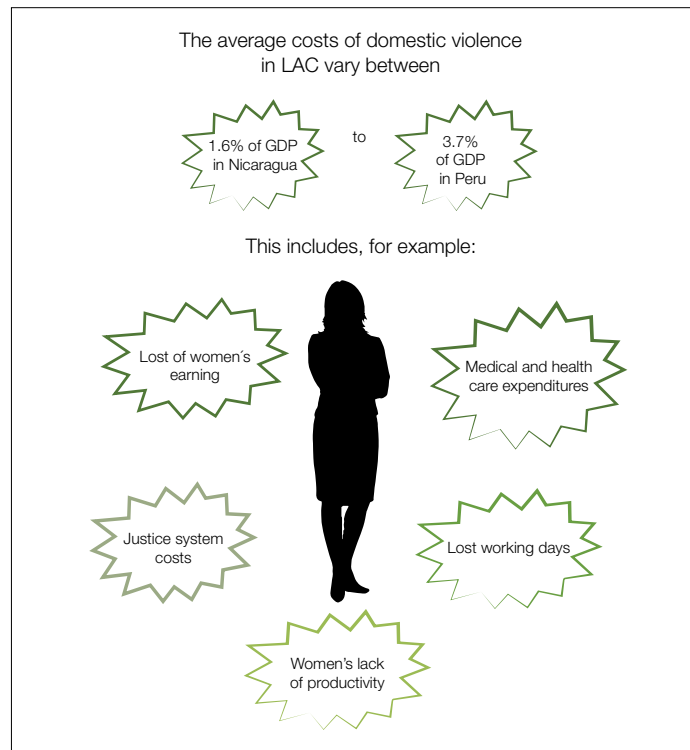
VAW has an intergenerational cost on family health and well-being. Some of the effects of violence have social and health costs, which influence present and future generations’ well-being, but which are more difficult to be measured. These include the fear and lack of confidence among female survivors of domestic violence: 75% of Bolivian female survivors report that they live in constant fear and 50% of Colombians report feelings of worthlessness as a result of domestic violence. In addition, domestic violence also negatively impacts on children who witness violence in their households. In Peru, for example, 42% of adult women have seen or heard their father beating their mother during their childhood: research suggest that these children weigh less, are less likely to receive vaccines, and are more likely to suffer from diseases (Aguero, 2013). Moreover, growing up in a violent household increases the probability to be a victim of domestic violence in childhood and adulthood: women in the region who reported that their father had beaten their mother were approximately twice as likely to also

experience physical or sexual intimate partner violence, after controlling for other factors (PAHO, 2013). In El Salvador, for example, 46% of women who reported experience of domestic violence during their childhood are currently victims of intimate partner violence, compared to 16% of women who reported not having been beaten as a child (DHS, 2008).

The economic cost of VAW in LAC

Evidence on the economic costs of VAW in LAC reinforces the case for urgent policy action (Figure 3.3.4). An analysis of the cost of VAW illustrates how violence against women, in particular intimate partner violence (IPV) also represents a drain on public resources. For IPV alone, selected country estimates in the LAC region suggest that out-of-pocket expenditures, lost income and reduced productivity can amount to up to 4% of GDP: this is higher than what many governments spend on primary education (Klugman et al., 2014). In Colombia, for example, approximately USD 73.7 million was spent in 2003 to prevent, detect and offer services to survivors of domestic violence, approximately 0.6% of the total national budget (Sanchez et al., 2004).

Figure 3.3.4. **The cost of inaction**



Domestic violence results in a number of direct costs and indirect cost for individuals and societies. Direct tangible costs include medical and social services as well as services provided by the police and the criminal justice system, such as shelters. For example, in addition to victims' own out-of-pocket expenditures for health, in Kingston Public Hospital in Jamaica the direct cost of treating 640 victims of intimate partner violence was equivalent to USD 454 000 (Mansingh and Ramphal, 1993). The indirect costs of VAW include loss of productivity and absenteeism from work. In Paraguay, for instance, 68% of women reporting having had an experience of domestic violence during the last 12 months identified anxiety or severe depression as reasons for not being able to complete, or to stop or miss paid work (DHS, 2008). Women's earnings are directly affected: in Colombia, for example, female victims of physical violence had 14% lower earnings than women who did not suffer violence, a wage loss equivalent to 0.85% of the Colombian GDP (Sanchez et al., 2004) and this figure reached up to 1.6% and 2.0% of GDP in Nicaragua and Chile, respectively (Morrison and Orlando, 1999).

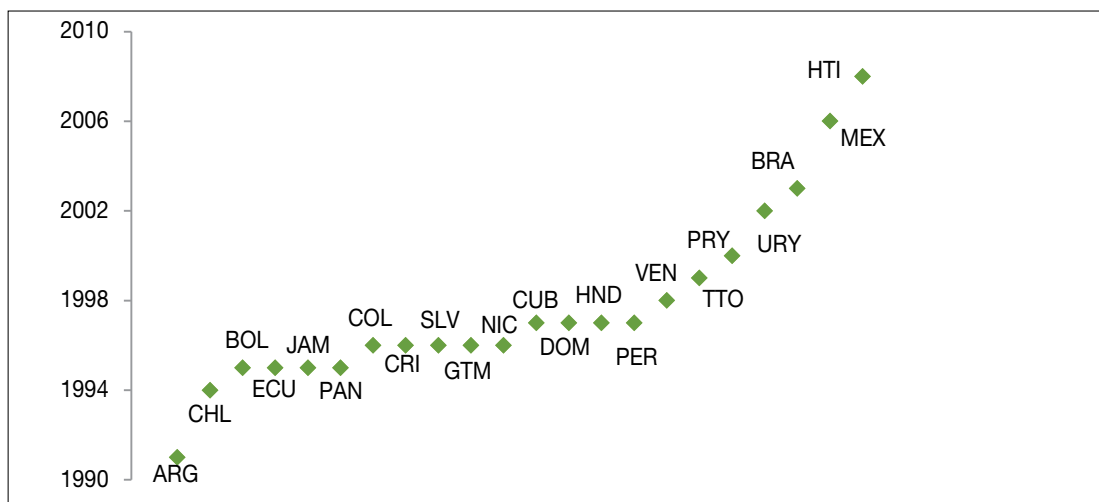
VAW also has adverse impacts on firms' profitability. VAW is also costly for employers in terms of turnover and productivity. In Peru, the rate of female worker turnover is seven times higher at firms where women experienced domestic violence than at firms without, costing over USD 55 million; moreover, VAW leads to 70 million working days lost, costing USD 6.7 billion at the national level, equivalent to 3.7% of the GDP (Vara Horna A. A., 2013).

Summing all types of costs associated with VAW demonstrates that this harmful practice drains huge expenditures. The costs of VAW in the LAC region are quite significant, even when underestimating the actual cost due to the non-inclusion of costs associated with the criminal justice system (PAHO, 2013). An interesting example comes from the United States where domestic VAW is estimated to cost USD 5.9 billion per year; nearly USD 4.1 billion relates to direct costs of medical and mental health care services, USD 0.9 billion in lost productivity from paid market and unpaid domestic work for victims of nonfatal violence and USD 0.9 billion in lifetime earnings lost by victims of homicide (CDC, 2003).

Social norms of domestic violence perpetuate prevalence

Strong legal frameworks to combat high VAW prevalence rates across LAC countries should be underpinned by a social norms approach. Reducing prevalence of VAW in LAC and its related high costs requires addressing attitudes that justify and accept domestic violence. While 13 countries offer comprehensive legislative coverage for women and girls, weak and partial implementation of laws affects the remaining countries covered in the SIGI 2014 (World Bank, 2015b). The introduction of laws has helped to reduce violence (Figure 3.3.5) but the widespread acceptance of domestic violence, including by women and girls, limits their efficiency. This also has a trickle-down effect: women's acceptance of VAW reinforces the cycle of discrimination across generations.

Figure 3.3.5. Laws addressing domestic violence against women by date of enactment

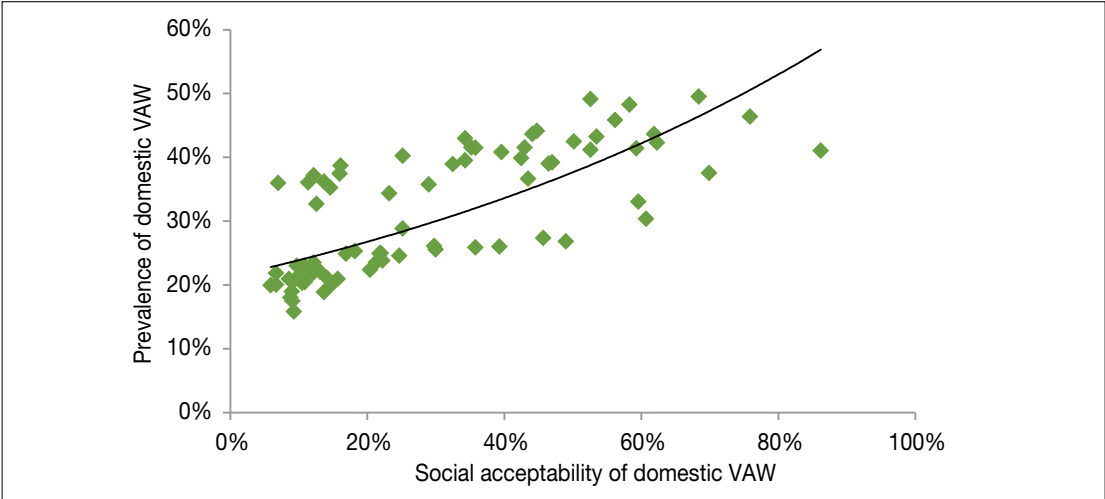


Note: This figure presents the date of enactment of laws addressing domestic violence against women.

Source: OECD (2014b), "Country profiles", www.genderindex.org/countries.

Indeed, opinions justifying and condoning domestic violence are related to higher prevalence rates (Figure 3.3.6): 25% of Ecuadorians agree that domestic violence against women is justified under certain circumstances, such as if a wife burns food, argues with her husband, goes out without telling him, neglects the children or refuses to have sex with him; up to 29% and 34% in Haiti and Peru (OECD, 2014a).

Figure 3.3.6. Higher social acceptability, higher prevalence of domestic violence against women

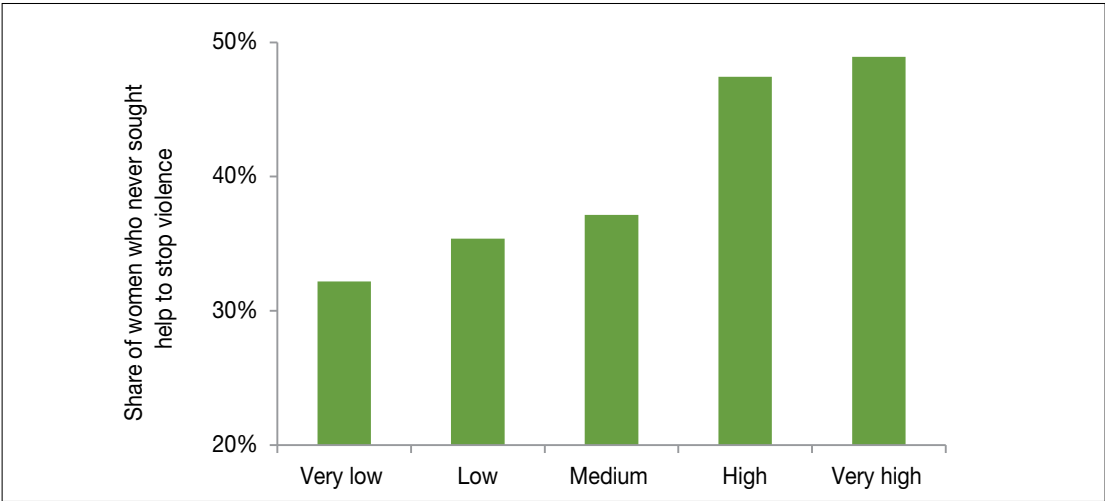


Note: This figure presents the positive correlation between social acceptability of domestic violence (as measured by the share of women declaring that a husband is justified in beating his wife under certain circumstances) and the predicted prevalence of domestic violence against women (as measured by the share of women aged 15-49 declaring being victim of physical and/or sexual violence from an intimate partner in their lifetime) controlling for income and regional dummies, as well as SIGI score in law addressing domestic violence against women.

Source: OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.

Discriminatory social norms and attitudes compromise victims’ access to justice. Stigmatisation of survivors and social norms considering domestic violence as a “private” matter build further barriers preventing women from seeking justice and reporting crimes. Current estimates of prevalence rates of domestic violence only capture reported crimes, the tip of the iceberg. This is closely linked with social norms: in LAC countries where social institutions highly discriminate against women, female victims of intimate partner violence are less likely to denounce violent acts (Figure 3.3.7). Moreover, social acceptability of domestic violence reinforces victims’ stigma and perception of the private nature of acts of violence: higher levels of acceptance are also related to a lower proportion of victims seeking help to stop violence (Figure 3.3.7). This confirms previous findings indicating that court officials and police continue to treat domestic violence complaints as private matters, and do not pursue complaints (ICRW, 2009). Reports indicate that women are encouraged to return to their spouses after a complaint of violence by the police or government officials (Aguero, 2013).

Figure 3.3.7. Seeking help to stop violence by SIGI classification



Note: This figure presents the share of women victim of domestic violence who never sought help to stop the violence nor told anyone about it, by SIGI classification.

Sources: *Demographic and Health Surveys (2000-2014)*, www.statcompiler.com; OECD (2014a), *Gender, Institutions and Development Database*, <http://stats.oecd.org>.



Annex

SI
GI

Methodology

Selection of variables

Variables included in the SIGI 2014 were selected on the following criteria, based on the 2012 conceptual framework:

- **Conceptual relevance**
The variable should be closely related to the conceptual framework of discriminatory social institutions and measure what it is intended to capture.
- **Underlying factor of gender inequality**
The variable should capture an underlying factor that leads to unequal outcomes for women and men.
- **Data quality, reliability and coverage**
The variable should be based on high quality, reliable data. Ideally the data should be standardised across countries and have extensive coverage across countries.
- **Distinction**
Each variable should measure a distinct discriminatory institution and should add new information not measured by other variables.
- **Statistical association**
Variables included in the same sub-index should be statistically associated, and thereby capture similar dimensions of social institutions without being redundant.

Country profiles

The SIGI country profiles contain fully referenced qualitative information relative to social institutions, organised by sub-indices. They were drafted following a standardised structure to ensure comparability across countries in line with the following guidelines:

- **Conceptual relevance**
Qualitative information should be relevant to the conceptual framework of discriminatory social institutions.
- **Sources**
All information should be referenced and sourced from constitutions, legal frameworks, and primary publications, reports or studies, using the most recent data.
Data should be sourced from and cross-checked with reliable studies, reports and publications, including country reports to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, reports by international organisations and country sources.
- **Validation**
Country profiles were developed through a two-stage internal draft and review process. Qualitative information was validated by external gender experts with knowledge of the policy and legal landscape for gender equality and women's rights at a national level (see list of experts in OECD Development Centre (2014a)).

The SIGI and its sub-indices are constructed according to the steps below.

Step 1: Building the Gender, Institutions and Development Database

Truncating quantitative data at the equality benchmark and inverting the scale.

The SIGI and its sub-indices range from 0 for low discrimination to 1 for very high discrimination.

For some variables, equality is reached at 0.5 instead of 1. Equality in political representation for example is achieved when 50% of parliament members are women. Hence, countries having more than 50% of women have a score of 50%.

According to the variable, the scale from low to very high discrimination is inverted to fit with the 0-1 scale. For female political representation for example, a higher share of women in parliamentary seats means lower discrimination against women. Hence, countries having 50% of women have a score of 0.

Assigning a score to qualitative variables

The qualitative information detailed in the SIGI country profiles are quantified using the following coding manual described in Table A.1:⁴

- **0:** Women and men enjoy the same rights in law and in practice.
- **0.25:** The legislation is not well implemented.
- **0.5:** The customary laws and practices discriminate against women.
- **0.75:** The legislation is contradictory, non-specific or limited in scope and definition.
- **1:** Women and men do not enjoy the same rights in the legal framework.

In cases where no or insufficient information exists, variables are not assigned a value. The legal indicators are assessed based on all applicable legal frameworks, including civil law, religious law, customary law and traditional law.

Constructing indicators

Some indicators are based on one variable while others on several. In the latter case, the indicator is the average⁵ of its available⁶ variables. For example:

$$\text{Parental authority} = \frac{1}{2} (\text{Parental authority during marriage} + \text{Parental authority after divorce})$$

Standardising the indicators

Standardisation of the original variables is done by subtracting the mean and then dividing by the standard deviation for continuous variables, using results of an ordered probit model for ordinal categorical variables.

Step 2: Aggregating indicators to build the sub-indices

Measuring association between indicators

Each sub-index combines indicators that are assumed to belong to one dimension of discrimination in social institutions. The statistical association between the indicators is tested using a Kendall Tau b rank correlation analysis and a multiple joint correspondence analysis (MCA).

Why square each SIGI sub-index?

The quadratic form is inspired by the Foster-Greer-Thorbecke poverty measures (Foster et al., 1984):

- The partial compensation means that very high inequality in one dimension can be only partially offset by low inequality in another dimension.
- The SIGI measures gender inequalities corresponding to deprivation that increases more than proportionally when inequalities increase.
- The SIGI has an aversion to high values of sub-indices.

Constructing the sub-indices

The sub-indices aim to provide a summary measure of each dimension of discrimination. Constructing a sub-index consists of aggregating the indicators with a reasonable weighting scheme through a polychoric principal component analysis (PCA). The first principal component is used as a proxy for the common information contained in the indicators: it is the weighted sum (see table in Annex) of the standardised indicators that captures as much of the variance in the data as possible.

Step 3: Computing the SIGI

The SIGI is a composite indicator built as an unweighted average of a non-linear function of the sub-indices:

$$\text{SIGI} = \frac{1}{5} \text{Discriminatory family code}^2 + \frac{1}{5} \text{Restricted physical integrity}^2 + \frac{1}{5} \text{Son bias}^2 + \frac{1}{5} \text{Restricted resources and assets}^2 + \frac{1}{5} \text{Restricted civil liberties}^2$$

Why are the sub-indices equally weighted?

Equal weights for each sub-index offer two benefits:

- Each dimension of discriminatory social institutions has equal value.
- No dimension is more important than another in terms of deprivation experienced by women.

How are the SIGI categories defined?

The SIGI classification clusters 108 countries into five levels of discrimination in social institutions: very low, low, medium, high and very high. It is based on the Jenks Natural Breaks Classification. This method of classifying data optimally arranges values into the five levels, or classes. It aims to minimise the average deviation from the class mean, while maximising the deviation from the means of the other classes. Hence, this method reduces the variance within classes and maximises the variance between classes.

SIGI 2014 framework: Variables and coding

DISCRIMINATORY FAMILY CODE			
Indicator	Variable	Coding	Sources
Legal age of marriage	Legal age of marriage: Whether women and men have the same legal minimum age of marriage	<p>0: The law guarantees the same minimum age of marriage to both women and men, and the minimum age is 18*.</p> <p>0.25: The law guarantees the same minimum age of marriage to both women and men, and the minimum age is lower than 18.</p> <p>0.5: The law guarantees the same minimum age of marriage to both women and men, but there are customary, traditional or religious laws that discriminate against some women by allowing them to be married at a younger age than men.</p> <p>0.75: The law does not guarantee the same minimum age of marriage to women and men, and the gap between women's and men's minimum age of marriage is less than or equal to two years.</p> <p>1: The law does not guarantee the same minimum age of marriage to women and men, and the gap between women's and men's minimum age of marriage is greater than two years. However, there is no law on the minimum age of marriage.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •SIGI Country Profiles
Early marriage	Prevalence of early marriage: Percentage of girls aged 15-19 who are married, divorced, widowed or in informal unions	0-100%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •UN World Marriage Data (2012) •Demographic Health Survey •Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
Parental authority (average of two variables)	Parental authority in marriage: Whether women and men have the same right to be the legal guardian of a child during marriage	<p>0: The law guarantees the same parental authority to women and men during marriage.</p> <p>0.5: The law guarantees the same parental authority to women and men during marriage, but there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against women.</p> <p>1: The law does not guarantee the same parental authority to women and men during marriage, or women have no rights to parental authority.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •SIGI Country Profiles
	Parental authority in divorce: Whether women and men have the same right to be the legal guardian of and have custody rights over a child after divorce	<p>0: The law guarantees the same parental authority to women and men after divorce.</p> <p>0.5: The law guarantees the same parental authority to women and men after divorce, but there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against women.</p> <p>1: The law does not guarantee the same parental authority to women and men after divorce, or women have no rights to parental authority.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •SIGI Country Profiles
Inheritance (average of two variables)	Inheritance rights of widows: Whether widows and widowers have equal inheritance rights	<p>0: The law guarantees the same inheritance rights to both widows and widowers.</p> <p>0.5: The law guarantees the same inheritance rights to both widows and widowers, but there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against widows.</p> <p>1: The law does not guarantee the same inheritance rights to widows and widowers, or widows have no inheritance rights at all.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •SIGI Country Profiles
	Inheritance rights of daughters: Whether daughters and sons have equal inheritance rights	<p>0: The law guarantees the same inheritance rights to both daughters and sons.</p> <p>0.5: The law guarantees the same inheritance rights to both daughters and sons, but there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against daughters.</p> <p>1: The law does not guarantee the same inheritance rights to daughters and sons, or daughters have no inheritance rights at all.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •SIGI Country Profiles

SIGI 2014 framework: Variables and coding (cont.)

RESTRICTED PHYSICAL INTEGRITY				
Indicator	Variable	Coding	Sources	
Violence against women (average of five variables)	Laws on domestic violence: Whether the legal framework offers women legal protection from domestic violence	0: There is specific legislation in place to address domestic violence; the law is adequate overall, and there are no reported problems of implementation. 0.25: There is specific legislation in place to address domestic violence; the law is adequate overall, but there are reported problems of implementation. 0.5: There is specific legislation in place to address domestic violence, but the law is inadequate. 0.75: There is no specific legislation in place to address domestic violence, but there is evidence of legislation being planned or drafted. 1: There is no legislation in place to address domestic violence.	•SIGI Country Profiles	
	Laws on rape: Whether the legal framework offers women legal protection from rape	0: There is specific legislation in place to address rape, marital rape is included, perpetrators cannot escape prosecution if they marry the victim and implementation is effectively enforced. 0.25: There is specific legislation in place to address rape, marital rape is included and perpetrators cannot escape prosecution if they marry the victim, although implementation is not effectively enforced. 0.5: There is specific legislation in place to address rape, marital rape is not included and perpetrators cannot escape prosecution if they marry the victim. 0.75: There is specific legislation in place to address rape, marital rape is not included and perpetrators can escape prosecution if they marry the victim. However, legislation is being planned or drafted. 1: There is no legislation in place to address rape.	•SIGI Country Profiles	
	Laws on sexual harassment: Whether the legal framework offers women legal protection from sexual harassment	0: There is specific legislation in place to address sexual harassment, the law is adequate overall and there are no reported problems of implementation. 0.25: There is specific legislation in place to address sexual harassment, the law is adequate overall but there are reported problems of implementation. 0.5: There is specific legislation in place to address sexual harassment, but the law is inadequate. 0.75: There is no specific legislation to address sexual harassment, but there is evidence of legislation being planned or drafted. 1: There is no legislation in place to address sexual harassment.	•SIGI Country Profiles	
	Attitudes toward violence: Percentage of women who agree that a husband/partner is justified in beating his wife/partner under certain circumstances	0-100%		•Demographic Health Surveys •Multiple Cluster Indicator Surveys •World Value Survey
	Prevalence of violence in the lifetime: Percentage of women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence from an intimate partner at some time in their lives	0-100%		•Demographic Health Surveys •World Health Organization •International Violence Against Women Survey •European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights
	Female genital mutilation	FGM prevalence: Percentage of women who have undergone any type of female genital mutilation	0-100%	•World Health Organization Population Reference Bureau •Multiple Cluster Indicator Surveys •Demographic Health Surveys
	Reproductive autonomy	Unmet need for family planning: Percentage of married women aged 15-49 with an unmet need for family planning, i.e. who do not want any more children for the next two years and who are not using contraception	0-100%	•Demographic Health Surveys •Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys •World Health Organization

SIGI 2014 framework: Variables and coding (cont.)

SON BIAS			
Indicator	Variable	Coding	Sources
Missing women	Missing women**: Shortfall in the number of women in sex ratios for ages 0-4, 5-9, 10-14, 15-64, 65+ relative to the expected number if there were no sex-selective abortions, no female infanticide or similar levels of health care and nutrition	0: There is no evidence of missing women.	•United Nations Population Division
		0.25: The incidence of missing women is low.	
		0.5: The incidence of missing women is moderate.	
		0.75: The incidence of missing women is high.	
		1: The incidence of missing women is severe.	
Fertility preferences	Fertility preferences: Share of males as the last child from women currently not desiring additional children or sterilised	0-100%	•Demographic Health Surveys •Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys •EUROSTAT •National household surveys

RESTRICTED RESOURCES AND ASSETS			
Indicator	Variable	Coding	Sources
Secure access to land	Secure access to land: Whether women and men have equal and secure access to land (use, control and ownership)	0: The law guarantees the same rights to own, use and control land to both women and men.	•SIGI Country Profiles
		0.5: The law guarantees the same rights to own, use and control land to women and men, but there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against women.	
		1: The law does not guarantee the same rights to own, use and control land to women and men, or women have no legal rights to own, use and control land.	
Secure access to non-land assets	Secure access to non-land assets: Whether women and men have equal and secure access to non-land assets (use, control and ownership)	0: The law guarantees the same rights to own and administer property other than land to both women and men.	•SIGI Country Profiles
		0.5: The law guarantees the same rights to own and administer property other than land to both women and men, but there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against women.	
		1: The law does not guarantee the same rights to own and administer property other than land to women and men, or women have no legal rights to own and administer property other than land.	
Access to financial services	Access to financial services: Whether women and men have equal access to financial services	0: The law guarantees the same rights to access formal financial services (e.g. credit, bank account and bank loans) to both women and men.	•SIGI Country Profiles
		0.5: The law guarantees the same rights to access formal financial services to both women and men, but there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against women.	
		1: The law does not guarantee the same rights to access formal financial services to women and men, or women have no legal rights to access financial services.	

RESTRICTED CIVIL LIBERTIES			
Indicator	Variable	Coding	Sources
Access to public space	Access to public space: Whether women face restrictions on their freedom of movement and access to public space, such as restricted ability to choose their places of residence, visit their families and friends or to apply for a passport	0: The law guarantees the same rights to freely move to both women and men.	•SIGI Country Profiles
		0.5: The law guarantees the same rights to freely move to women and men, but there are some customary, traditional or religious practices that discriminate against women.	
		1: The law does not guarantee the same rights to freely move to women and men, or women have no freedom of movement.	
Political voice	Quotas: Whether there are legal quotas to promote women's political participation at national and sub-national levels	0: There are legal quotas to promote women's political participation both at the national and sub-national levels.	•SIGI Country Profiles
		0.5: There are legal quotas to promote women's political participation either at the national or at the sub-national level.	
		1: There are no legal quotas to promote women's political participation.	
	Political representation: Share of women in national parliaments	0-100%	•Inter-Parliamentary Union (Quota Project)

* The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child considers that adulthood begins at age 18 (www.unicef.org.uk/Documents/Publication-pdfs/UNCRC_PRESS200910web.pdf).
 ** Computed by Pr. S. Klasen using the method discussed in S. Klasen and C. Wink (2002), "A Turning Point in Gender Bias in Mortality? An Update on the Number of Missing Women", Population and Development Review, 28, pp. 285-312.

Latin America and the Caribbean country SIGI scores per sub-index

Country	SIGI	Discriminatory family code	Restricted physical integrity	Son bias	Restricted resources and assets	Restricted civil liberties
VERY LOW LEVELS OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS						
Argentina	0.0107	0.0809 low	0.0148 very low	0.0691 very low	0.2048 low	0 very low
Cuba	0.0208	0.2420 medium	0.0871 very low	0 very low	0 very low	0.1951 low
Trinidad and Tobago	0.0236	0.2504 medium	0.1306 very low	0 very low	0 very low	0.1951 low
Dominican Republic	0.0367	0.3691 medium	0.0958 very low	0.0118 very low	0 very low	0.1951 low
Panama	0.0375	0.2344 low	0.0148 very low	0.0855 low	0 very low	0.3539 medium
Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela	0.0389	0.2456 medium	0.0941 very low	0.0071 very low	0 very low	0.3539 medium
LOW LEVELS OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS						
Ecuador	0.0422	0.1374 low	0.3737 medium	0.1037 low	0.2048 low	0 very low
Brazil	0.0458	0.2316 low	0.1226 very low	0.0364 very low	0.1837 low	0.3539 medium
El Salvador	0.0490	0.1066 low	0.2675 medium	0.1049 low	0.3885 medium	0 very low
Costa Rica	0.0506	0.2513 medium	0.1544 low	0.0121 very low	0.4076 medium	0 very low
Plurinational State of Bolivia	0.0579	0.3676 medium	0.3207 medium	0.0987 low	0.2048 low	0 very low
Paraguay	0.0580	0.2880 medium	0.0440 very low	0.0291 very low	0.4076 medium	0.1951 low
Peru	0.0826	0.4053 medium	0.2096 low	0.0284 very low	0.4076 medium	0.1951 low
Colombia	0.0862	0.1748 low	0.1567 low	0.0663 very low	0 very low	0.6093 high
Honduras	0.1074	0.3891 medium	0.1044 very low	0.1443 medium	0.3885 medium	0.4505 medium
MEDIUM LEVELS OF GENDER DISCRIMINATION IN SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS						
Guatemala	0.1318	0.3953 medium	0.3213 medium	0.2566 high	0.2048 low	0.5399 high
Jamaica	0.1350	0.0031 very low	0.2046 low	0.0271 very low	0 very low	0.7953 very high
Haiti	0.1466	0.5613 very high	0.5010 high	0 very low	0.2048 low	0.3539 medium
Nicaragua	0.1595	0.6303 very high	0.1868 low	0.1082 low	0.3885 medium	0.4505 medium
NOT RANKED IN THE SIGI 2014						
Chile		0.3996 medium	n.a.	n.a.	0 very low	0.5399 high
Mexico		0.3408 medium	0.2377 medium	n.a.	0.3885 medium	0 very low
Uruguay		0.2761 medium	0.0933 very low	n.a.	0.1837 low	0.3539 medium

Note: No countries in the LAC region are classified as having high or very high levels of gender discrimination in social institutions.

Country ISO codes

ARG	Argentina
VEN	Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela
BRA	Brazil
CHL	Chile
COL	Colombia
CRI	Costa Rica
CUB	Cuba
DOM	Dominican Republic
ECU	Ecuador
SLV	El Salvador
GTM	Guatemala
HTI	Haiti
HND	Honduras
JAM	Jamaica
MEX	Mexico
NIC	Nicaragua
PAN	Panama
PRY	Paraguay
PER	Peru
BOL	Plurinational State of Bolivia
TTO	Trinidad and Tobago
URY	Uruguay

Notes

1. SDG 5.4 calls for “recognizing and valuing unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies, and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family”.
2. Countries under consideration include 26 OECD countries, India, China and South Africa.
3. SDG 5.2 calls for “eliminating all forms of violence against all women and girls in public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation”. For more information, please refer to <http://indicators.report/targets/5-2/>.
4. For more information on the construction of the index and its sub-indices, please refer to the SIGI methodological paper available at www.oecd.org/dev/development-gender/gender-publications.htm.
5. When the indicator aggregates categorical and continuous variables, the latter are the object of discretisation.
6. Where data are available for only one variable of an indicator, the score is based solely on that available variable.

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