

DOCUMENT OF THE INTER-AMERICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK

**GENDER AND DIVERSITY SECTOR FRAMEWORK DOCUMENT**

**GENDER AND DIVERSITY DIVISION**

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## ABBREVIATIONS

ALMP	Active Labor Market Policies
BDS	Business Development Skills
BIE	Bilingual, Inter-cultural Education
DEM	Development Effectiveness Matrix
DIAS	Development Impact and Additionality Scoring
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
EPSi	<i>Empresas Prestadoras de Salud indígena</i>
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FLFP	Female Labor Force Participation
GAP	Gender Action Plan
GEF	Global Environment Facility
IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
ILO	International Labor Organization
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IPU	Inter-Parliamentary Union
IPV	Intimate-Partner Violence
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
LIS	Labor Intermediation Services
LLECE	Newsletter Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education
MIF	Multilateral Investment Fund
MMR	Maternal Mortality Rates
MSPAS	<i>Ministerio de Salud Pública y Asistencia Social</i>
NSG	Non-Sovereign Guaranteed Loans
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OMJ	Opportunities for the Majority Sector
OREALC	Regional Education Office for Latin America and the Caribbean (UNESCO)
OVE	Office of Evaluation and Oversight
PAHO	Pan-American Health Organization
PCR	Project Completion Reports
PES	Payment for Ecosystem Services
PTSD	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
QED	Quality for Effectiveness in Development
RCT	Randomized Control Trials
REDD	Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation
SCF	Structured and Corporate Finance Department
SDSI	<i>Somos Diferentes, Somos Iguales</i>
SEGEPLAN	<i>Secretaria General de Planificación y Programación de la Presidencia</i>
SERCE	Second Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study
SFD	Sector Framework Document
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
TC	Technical Cooperation
UN	United Nations

UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNIFEM	United Nations Fund for Women
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UN-REDD	United Nations Collaborative Programme on Reducing Emissions from Deforestation and Forest Degradation
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
VAW	Violence Against Women
WHO	World Health Organization

## **I. THE GENDER AND DIVERSITY SECTOR IN THE CONTEXT OF BANK SECTOR STRATEGIES**

### **A. The Gender and Diversity Sector Framework Document in the context of existing regulations**

- 1.1 The Gender and Diversity Sector Framework Document (SFD) identifies key areas for the Inter-American Development Bank's (IDB or the Bank) analytical and operational work on gender equality and women's empowerment, as well as on the development with identity (for more information on development with identity, see ["Institutional context for development with identity"](#)) of indigenous peoples and African descendants (henceforth, gender and diversity). While other types of diversity such as lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) individuals or persons living with disabilities are important in the region, this SFD principally focuses its discussion of diversity issues to indigenous peoples and African descendants for two reasons: (i) these groups are among the largest diverse population groups in the region, with African descendants representing 30% and indigenous peoples 10% of the region's population (CEPAL, 2000, PERLA, 2013); and (ii) the Bank has specific long-standing institutional commitments to indigenous peoples that are codified in the Operational Policy on Indigenous Peoples (OP-765). This SFD, in line with the Strategy on Social Policy for Equity and Productivity (GN-2588-4), recognizes that the common classifications of indigenous and African descendant may not fully capture the conditions of diversity in the Caribbean. The Bank's work on African descendants has focused on contexts where African descendants suffer exclusion due to their racial or ethnic status or origin—typically not in the Caribbean.<sup>1</sup>
- 1.2 The Gender and Diversity SFD will serve as a guide for the Bank's dialogue with borrowing member countries on these topics, defining the key analytical issues and operational areas in which the IDB has a comparative advantage. This SFD has been prepared in accordance with the document "Strategies, Policies, Sector Frameworks and Guidelines at the IDB" (GN-2670-1). In line with that document, the Operational Policy on Gender Equality in Development (OP-761) and the Operational Policy on Indigenous Peoples (OP-765) will be maintained and remain in effect, and the Indigenous Development Strategy has ceased to be in effect as of the date of approval of that document (GN-2670-1, paragraph 1.25). Relevant elements of this strategy document have been incorporated into this SFD. The Bank will prepare an update of this SFD three years after its approval.
- 1.3 The Policy on Gender Equality and Development, the Policy on Indigenous Peoples, and the Gender Action Plan (GAP) are related to—but distinct—from this SFD. The policies are normative documents that apply to all Bank interventions, and the GAP is a roadmap for implementing the Gender Policy. The GAP, in particular, is an exhaustive compendium of Bank actions across all divisions to this end. This SFD, in contrast, has a different logic: it starts with a diagnosis of what are the key development challenges in the region; it then

identifies what we know works to address these issues and what actions the Bank will pursue. As such, some of the proposed lines of action in this SFD are in areas the Bank is not currently working (and in the case of actions in the area of gender are consequently not reflected in the current GAP). Unlike the policies, the SFD is not normative; unlike the GAP, it is not a mainstreaming tool *per se*. Rather, it is a strategic document to set operational and analytical priorities.

- 1.4 Given that gender and diversity are cross-cutting themes that are relevant for a wide range of Bank operations, all the other SFDs have highlighted the gaps and challenges related to gender, race, and/or ethnicity in their sectors (for more information see ["Themes in other SFDs"](#)) important gender and diversity issues in the region, complementing other SFDs. The cross-cutting nature of gender and diversity means that divisions beyond the Gender and Diversity Division will contribute to the lines of action described in Section V; several of the interventions (e.g., provision of electricity and water services, inter-cultural health services and bilingual, inter-cultural education, citizen security interventions) are undertaken by Bank divisions other than the Gender and Diversity Division. Finally, it is important to note that not all gender and diversity challenges in the region are addressed in this SFD. These include issues that are often deemed as male gender challenges, such as youth violence (predominantly male-on-male) and school abandonment (a primarily male phenomenon in the Caribbean); these issues are not discussed in this SFD because they are discussed at length in the Citizen Security and Justice SFD and the Education SFD.

**B. The Gender and Diversity Sector Framework Document as part of the Strategy on Social Policy for Equity and Productivity.**

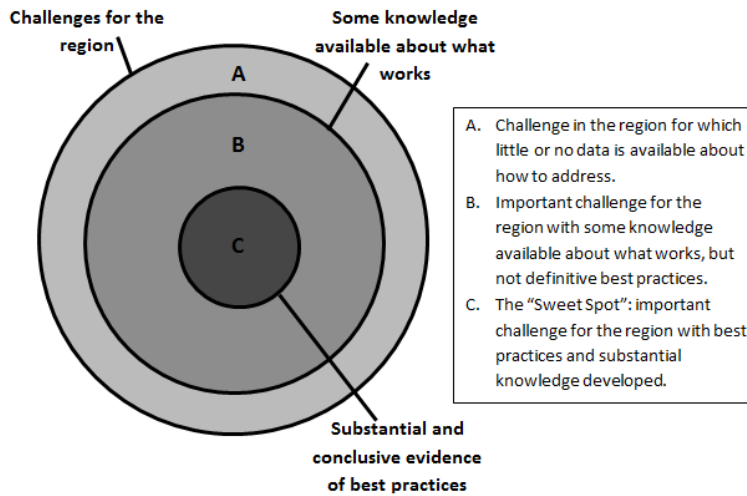
- 1.5 This SFD is consistent with the Strategy on Social Policy for Equity and Productivity (GN-2588-4), which has as its overarching objective to “improve the effectiveness of the Bank in promoting social policies that enhance equity and productivity in the region.” As noted in the Social Strategy, “Latin America is the most unequal region in the world... [and] a substantial fraction of the inequality in incomes that is observed is determined by characteristics such as race, place of birth, or the education levels of one’s parents. Deep inequalities in wellbeing that are essentially determined at birth are an affront to basic conceptions of fairness.” This SFD establishes lines of action for the Bank that will promote greater access to opportunities for three groups living in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) who have historically had less access: women, indigenous peoples and African descendants; these lines of action and specific intervention will be adapted to the specific needs and demands of the countries of the region. Finally, this SFD provides more detail and evidence of effectiveness of some of the policy interventions described in the Social Strategy, including inter-cultural and bilingual education, inter-cultural health services, sexual and reproductive health services, better labor market intermediation for disadvantaged groups, provision of or targeted subsidies for child and elder care services and interventions to address violence against women.

- 1.6 This SFD has five sections. Section II presents international evidence about policies and interventions that have been successful in promoting gender equality and development with identity. Section III outlines the most important development challenges in the region in these two areas, while section IV identifies lessons learned from the Bank's work in these areas. Section V presents measures of success and proposed lines of action for operational and analytical work for the Bank over the next three years.

## **II. INTERNATIONAL EVIDENCE ABOUT EFFECTIVE POLICIES TO PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY AND DEVELOPMENT WITH IDENTITY FOR INDIGENOUS PEOPLES AND AFRICAN DESCENDANTS**

- 2.1 In Latin America and the Caribbean, many people face challenges of escaping poverty or advancing economically because of factors beyond their control, including race, ethnicity and gender, (Paes de Barros et al., 2011). Reversing the unequal access to opportunities can have significant positive implications for economic growth and social development in the region. Equality between women and men contributes to poverty reduction and results in higher levels of human capital for future generations: between 2000 and 2010 income growth among women in LAC contributed to a 30% reduction in extreme poverty (World Bank, 2012b). Closing the gaps between female and male employment rates has been estimated to lead to a net GDP increase of 9% in Brazil and 12% in Argentina (Aguirre, et al., 2012). In general, when women are able to develop their full labor market potential there can be significant macroeconomic gains (IMF, 2013). There is less evidence available on the macroeconomic gains from eliminating opportunities gaps associated with race and ethnicity, but it is clear that indigenous peoples and African descendants have not seen the sharp reductions in poverty experienced in the overall population, and are still more likely to live in poverty (CEPAL, 2010). Ethnic and racial poverty gaps are striking in countries throughout the region.<sup>2</sup>
- 2.2 This section describes the international evidence on effective interventions that promote gender equality or development with identity. Ideally, the set of policies and programs examined in this section would address development issues which are important for the region and for which there is substantial rigorous evidence of their effectiveness (Figure II-1, area C). It should be noted at the outset, however, that the evidence base is thin in the area of diversity; most of the programs and policies are found in areas A or B of Figure II-1 —i.e., they respond to important challenges to the region, but there is not substantial evidence available on their effectiveness.<sup>3</sup> If such programs and policies are deemed “promising”, there should be efforts to develop knowledge programs which over time generate more rigorous evidence on their effectiveness in order to offer better policy advice.<sup>4</sup>

**Figure II-1. Important challenges in Latin America and existing knowledge of solutions**



- 2.3 How were these specific policies and programs discussed in this section chosen? In the area of gender, they are largely “second generation” gender issues—important issues that emerge once first generation issues, such as formal equality of rights and girls’ access to education, have been resolved.<sup>5</sup> The only significant first generation gender issue that remains relevant for LAC is maternal mortality—both because maternal mortality rates are declining more slowly in LAC than in other developing regions, and because rates of maternal mortality remain extremely high among indigenous peoples. Four of the most important second generation issues are: (i) economic gaps between men and women in terms of labor force participation, earnings, and entrepreneurship; (ii) violence against women; (iii) adolescent pregnancy; and (iv) limited voice and agency of women (CEPAL, 2014; UN Women, 2012; UNIFEM, 2009; World Bank, 2013a; United Nations, 2009). These are also areas where there is demand for IDB work by governments in the region.
- 2.4 In the area of diversity, there are significant differences, but also some commonalities among the most important issues that affect indigenous peoples and African descendants in LAC. In most countries of the region with important indigenous populations, there are large gaps in educational attainment, health status and access to quality infrastructure between indigenous peoples and non-indigenous populations (CEPAL, 2014; Hall and Patrinos, 2006 and 2012); for African descendants, this is generally not the case. Both, African descendant and indigenous peoples, inhabit territories that are hotspots of biodiversity and disproportionately affected by climate change (Kronik and Verver, 2010; World Bank 2010 and 2013). Given the degree that indigenous and African descendant peoples rely on natural assets for their livelihoods and cultural survival, climate change and reductions in biodiversity constitute existential threats.
- 2.5 The worldview of many indigenous peoples bases gender relations on duality and balance. Nevertheless, many indigenous women find themselves in a position of inequality vis-à-vis men in their communities and have developed specific



indigenous mechanisms to address these inequalities. In recent years, organizations led by indigenous women have gained greater recognition; indigenous women are increasingly advocating for gender equity and equal opportunity based on their own worldview.

2.6 While this document does not address all gender and diversity challenges faced in the region, it is important to note that countries in the region have begun to address some of these challenges, particularly in the areas of male gender topics and LGBT issues. Some of the greatest male gender issues that continue to be a challenge in the region are in the areas of male school abandonment and youth violence. International and regional evidence on best practices addressing these challenges can be found in the Education and Early Childhood Development SFD and Citizen Security and Justice SFD, respectively. The social marginalization of LGBT communities remains a challenge in Latin America and the Caribbean, and fourteen countries in the region have implemented legislation designed to prevent discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation. In 2010, Argentina became the first country in the region to legalize same sex marriage and provide full adoption rights to gay and lesbian couples. Brazil and Uruguay have also passed legislation legalizing same-sex marriage. Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, and Ecuador have legalized civil unions for same-sex couples.

2.7 In light of these development challenges, this section examines the state of knowledge on policies that seek to: (i) improve education and health outcomes for indigenous peoples and African descendants; (ii) promote the preservation of environmental and cultural assets associated with indigenous peoples and African descendants; (iii) improve women's health, including living lives free of violence; (iv) promote labor force participation and entrepreneurship for women, African descendants and indigenous peoples; and (v) improve governance and voice for indigenous peoples, African descendants and women.

#### **A. Improve education and health outcomes for indigenous peoples and African Descendants<sup>6</sup>**

##### **1. Education**

2.8 As noted in the Education and Early Childhood Development SFD, the performance of poor, indigenous and rural students generally lags the performance of others.<sup>7</sup> The basic policy question for the education of indigenous children is straightforward: do indigenous children living in rural areas face the same educational challenges as all students from poor, rural families? While some of the constraints facing indigenous children are of the same nature as those faced by others, they may be particularly severe for indigenous children. For example, the fact that indigenous children are far more likely to be malnourished than other children means that they are less ready to learn.<sup>8</sup> But the policy implications of this constraint are the same for both indigenous and non-indigenous students: school feeding programs are essential if students in poor communities are to be able to learn. Indigenous children, however, face specific readiness-to-learn

challenges given that they grow up in homes where languages other than the nation's predominant language are spoken.

- 2.9 **Bilingual, inter-cultural education (BIE).** There are few rigorous studies analyzing the impact of BIE in developing countries, but five studies for Guatemala found small or moderate positive impacts in reducing grade repetition and improving students' academic performance as measured by grades received (Towsend and Newman, 1985; Morren, 1988; Carvajal and Morris, 1990; Scott and Simon, 1987; Patrinos and Velez, 2009). In Chile, a quasi-experimental evaluation showed that strengthening BIE (as part of an IDB-financed project) led to a significant reduction of the indigenous/non-indigenous performance gap in language (36.6% reduction); mathematics (79.1% reduction); and social comprehension (86.4% reduction), as measured by student performance on the standardized SIMCE test (Echegaray et al., 2013).<sup>9</sup> While there has been significant research on bilingual education in the United States, the conclusions are of only modest relevance in LAC.<sup>10</sup>
- 2.10 There are significant barriers to successful implementation of BIE programs in LAC. First, the existing number of qualified bilingual teachers is not sufficient to rapidly expand these programs in countries with large indigenous populations. Second, fiscal constraints may limit the ability to hire additional bilingual teachers or expand training programs targeting new or existing teachers. Third, indigenous parents may reject BIE programs if they do not also improve student learning outcomes and give them other relevant competencies.<sup>11</sup>
- 2.11 The balance of evidence on BIE programs in Latin America—based on the evidence reported above—suggests that they have the potential to increase enrolments and improve student performance. This approach to improving indigenous and African descendant children's educational outcomes should be considered promising and additional analytical work should be conducted to confirm its effectiveness in different contexts.
- 2. Health**
- 2.12 As noted in Section III of this document, indigenous peoples health outcomes are significantly worse than those for other groups in the region. Several approaches have been proposed to remedy this situation, including the provision of inter-cultural health services, closer relationships between communities and health centers, and community management of health services.
- 2.13 **Delivery of inter-cultural health services, with a special focus on maternal health.** Intercultural health services bridge indigenous medicine and western medicine, where both are considered complementary. The basic tenets of inter-cultural health are "mutual respect, equal recognition of knowledge, willingness to interact, and flexibility to change as a result of these interactions" (Mignone et al., 2007). Culturally appropriate health services have been shown to increase access to both western and indigenous health services (Mignone et al.,

2007; PAHO, 2008; UNFPA, 2010; WHO, 1996). One intervention that incorporated traditional approaches to maternity care raised the percentage of births that took place in a local health clinic in rural Peru from 8% to 83% over a seven-year period, with most of the change occurring within two years (Gabrysch et al., 2009). Other results attributed to culturally appropriate health services include increased health knowledge and healthy practices by the population, more informed decisions about family planning, and reduced maternal mortality among indigenous women (Montenegro, 2006; Cordero et al., 2010).<sup>12</sup> Anecdotal evidence of an inter-cultural health program in Suriname also suggests that integrating western and traditional medicine may result in lower costs (O'Neill et al., 2006). While this evidence is persuasive, it is also thin; additional impact evaluations are needed on inter-cultural health programs.

- 2.14 **Establish closer links between communities and health centers to increase demand for health services by indigenous and African descendant populations.** This closer relationship can be advanced by health promoters who undertake health promotion and prevention activities focusing on reproductive and maternal health as well as the adoption of healthier lifestyles at the individual and community levels (Costello et al., 2004; Tinker et al., 2005; Mignone, 2007; Alisjahbana, et al. 1995; Schieber, et al., 1993; Janowitz, et al. 1985). These interventions are more effective when community health practitioners are trusted members of the community and when they target both men and women (Lehman and Sanders, 2007). The effectiveness of these interventions in increasing usage of health services has been documented (see Mignone et al. 2007), but their impact on health outcomes is not conclusive; such analysis should be a priority.<sup>13</sup>
- 2.15 **Promote community-managed models (autogestión) of health services.** In some countries in Latin America and elsewhere, indigenous communities have developed community-managed models of health care. Examples in Latin America include: (i) the Indigenous Association for Health in Maquehue-Pelale in Chile (*Asociación Indígena para la Salud Maquehue-Pelale en Chile*), which manages a 35-bed hospital that focuses on primary care and coordinates with a network of *machi* healers; and ii) the Indigenous Health Provider Trusts (*Empresas Prestadoras de Salud indígena—EPSi*) system in Colombia, which is the most developed of these models in Latin America. There are six EPSi in Colombia with over 1.3 million members; they manage more than US\$350 million in government subsidies per year.<sup>14</sup> EPSi outputs are evaluated each year by the health regulator (*Superintendencia de Salud*) for risk and service quality, and require annual authorization to continue operating. Five of the six indigenous EPSi providers recently ranked in the top 50% in terms of customer satisfaction.<sup>15</sup>

**B. Promote the preservation of environmental and cultural assets<sup>16</sup>**

- 2.16 Indigenous peoples and rural African descendant populations in LAC inhabit some of the most biodiverse territory on the planet, but these lands are under threat. Several types of interventions that can be used to protect ecosystems and

biodiverse habitats, but these strategies are only effective when the members of local communities desire to participate in these processes.

- 2.17 **Establishment and co-management of protected areas.** Three impact evaluations using matching methods found that the establishment of protected areas reduced deforestation (Andam et al., 2008; Gaveau et al., 2009; Sims, 2008). Co-management of protected areas with local peoples is increasingly common; more than 20% of forests in LAC are co-managed (Blackman et al., 2012).<sup>17</sup> Co-management involves indigenous peoples from the planning phase (through prior and informed consent consultations—Ledwith and Watanabe, 2014) to the management phase. In the management phase, it is crucial to incorporate indigenous cosmovision and values in support of biodiversity preservation. This can be done by using tools such as cultural land use analysis and integrated local development plans; these approaches were fundamental in the successful establishment of the Meso-American Biological Corridor.<sup>18</sup> The benefits to indigenous and African descendant peoples from co-management arrangements<sup>19</sup> can be multiplied by complementing them with community-based economic opportunities such as eco-tourism projects.<sup>20</sup> The private sector is playing an increasing role in co-management. Unfortunately, there have been few evaluations of the impact that co-management brings in terms of forest conservation. Co-management is a promising practice which should be subject to careful evaluation.
- 2.18 **Payment for Environmental Services (PES).**<sup>21</sup> PES schemes are promising for promoting equity by paying poor communities (including indigenous communities) and individuals for protecting forests and other natural resources, but their impact on deforestation is still unclear (OECD, 2010b). In Ecuador, the program “Socio Bosque” (Forest Partner) has incorporated more than one million hectares into a PES program, with more than 92% of participating lands belonging to indigenous communities; the program, however, has not been rigorously evaluated. In Rwanda, a PES program targeted indigenous communities living adjacent to a national park. While the program reduced deforestation, the impact was relatively small when compared with a control group (Martin, et al., 2014). In general, the effectiveness of PES as an instrument for forest resource management depends on the design of the mechanisms for intervention, their location, the degree of compliance and the possibility of observing spillover effects in the areas of intervention (Pattanayak et al., 2010), as well as of property rights over the land where they are implemented (Bruce et al., 2010).<sup>22</sup>
- 2.19 **Land titling and demarcation of territories.** Land titling is a key part of development with identity for indigenous peoples. “For the indigenous, land is not only a basis for economic subsistence but also strongly linked to their identity and in many societies land takes on a sacred and spiritual meaning. As such, legal recognition of their lands has been one of the foremost demands of indigenous peoples” (Patrinos et al., 2007). Despite the importance of land for indigenous peoples, they are much less likely to hold land titles than other rural dwellers.<sup>23</sup>

Legal frameworks for titling vary widely across countries, which makes it difficult to make broad policy recommendations on land titling and tenure practices (Plant and Hvalkof/IDB, 2001). However, there are a set of common problems surrounding indigenous land rights in LAC, including: (i) a failure to develop laws that operationalize rights granted in constitutions; (ii) complex and poorly designed procedures for granting legal recognition of indigenous/African descendant territories; and (iii) lack of legal clarity on the ownership rights of natural resources (Roldan Ortega, 2004b).

## **C. Improve women's health, including living lives free of violence<sup>24</sup>**

### **1. Adolescent pregnancy**

2.20 **Knowledge, access to contraception, life skills and opportunities.** Interventions to reduce adolescent pregnancy seek to increase knowledge of reproductive and sexual health for both boys and girls, develop life-skills such as self-efficacy and interpersonal communication to negotiate safe and consensual sexual relations or refuse unwanted ones, increase access and use of contraceptives, modify community norms that contribute to adolescent pregnancy, or provide opportunities and/or incentives that widen girls' effective life choices and raise the opportunity costs of early pregnancy (Azevedo et al., 2013; Lopez-Calva and Perova, 2012; Kirby et al., 2007; Vivo et al., 2012; Advocates for Youth, 2012; Lloyd, 2010; Osili, 2008; Duflo et al., 2012; Berthelon and Kruger, 2011; Baird et al., 2010; and Senderowitz, 2000). Agency—defined as the ability to make effective choices and transform them into desired outcomes<sup>25</sup>—is important here: in the absence of educational and employment opportunities that allow adolescent girls to make choices that involve investment in human capital and higher, long-run returns, they may take “short cuts” into adulthood that involve pregnancy (Lopez-Calva and Perova, 2012).

2.21 A recent systematic review of interventions to reduce adolescent pregnancy in developing countries (McQueston et al., 2012) organized the interventions into the following categories: school-based interventions or workshops; health services/counseling; communications/media outreach; peer education; and conditional cash transfer programs. Among the most important findings from McQueston and others is that interventions that attempted to increase individual knowledge or change attitudes were generally successful in the short run in changing attitudes, but effects were sometimes not sustained over time and important behaviors (e.g. sexual activity) and outcomes (e.g., marriage or pregnancy) were not affected (McQueston et al., 2012).<sup>26</sup> It should be noted that abstinence-only based programs have been proved to be largely ineffective in delaying sexual initiation (Santelli et al., 2006a and 2006b; Hauser, 2004). The evidence (see citations in previous paragraph) suggests that in order for interventions to promote sustainable healthy sexual and reproductive behavior, they need to provide comprehensive sexual education, ensure access to adolescent-friendly health services as well as contraceptive methods, provide

attractive educational or labor market opportunities and finally, transform inequitable gender norms.<sup>27</sup>

## **2. Reproductive and Maternal health**

**2.22 Continuum of care and packages of essential services.** Ensuring the provision of the essential continuum of care from pre-pregnancy to delivery and the postnatal period is vital to reduce maternal mortality and morbidity. Existing evidence reveals that stand-alone interventions are not as effective as offering the complete package of essential services. These include family planning and access to modern contraceptive methods, prenatal and postnatal care, institutional delivery by qualified health personnel, emergency obstetric care, and safe abortion in cases allowed by national law, as well as post-abortion care (Nyamtema et al., 2011; The Lancet 2006; Adam et al., 2005; Singh and Darroch, 2012). As mentioned above, services to indigenous and African descendant communities require community involvement and inter-culturally pertinence. There is also evidence that strengthening women's capacity to make informed choices through health education, skills to negotiate reproductive decisions, and/or economic opportunities can increase their use of reproductive and maternal health services, as well as improve health outcomes (Hou and Ma, 2011; World Bank 2012; Barber and Gertler, 2009; Grepin and Klugman, 2013; Darney et al., 2013).

**2.23 Male involvement.** Men have a critical role in decision-making processes regarding contraception, use of health services, care of women during pregnancy, delivery and post-partum, as well as in preventing violence against women. Several studies find that the constructive engagement of men in reproductive and maternal health services contributes to shared health decision-making between women and their partners, more responsible behaviors and enhanced health outcomes (WHO, 2007; Khan, 1998; Varkey et al., 2004; Turan et al., 2001; Greene et al., 2006).

## **3. Violence against women (VAW)**

**2.24 Role of the health sector.** The health sector, particularly at the primary care level, is frequently the first institution where women speak about violence they have suffered. Health care workers are thus in a unique position to address the health and psychosocial needs of women who have experienced violence. The latest WHO clinical and policy guidelines to inform the health sector response to intimate partner and sexual violence (WHO, 2013) strongly recommend that health care settings be equipped and health personnel trained to provide a set of minimum, first-line response actions that can minimize the negative health consequences of the violence experienced. Systemic attention to VAW in the health sector has resulted in enhanced provider practices due to a better understanding of the consequences of violence on women's health, higher identification of VAW cases, less judgmental attitudes among health providers, and increased satisfaction by women who use health services (Fleischman, 2005;

Colombini et al., 2008; Guedes et al., 2002; Guezmes and Vargas, 2003). A systematic review of experimental evidence found that counseling interventions provided to pregnant women who suffered Intimate-Partner Violence (IPV) generated a statistically significant decrease in future physical, sexual and psychological partner violence (Van Parys et al., 2014). While there is not enough evidence to recommend universal screening for VAW in health care settings when there is not an effective response available, health care providers should ask about exposure to violence when assessing conditions that may be caused or complicated by VAW.<sup>28</sup>

- 2.25 **One-stop shops and integrated services for women survivors.** Until recently, the most common public policy response to VAW has been the establishment of networks of services, where some services (such as health care and police) are provided by the public sector, but other services (such as psychological counseling or shelters) are provided by non-governmental organizations. The Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO), in particular, has advocated the building of “coalitions and networks of government and civil society institutions that can collaborate to develop and implement comprehensive approaches to addressing violence against women” as a promising strategy for preventing and responding to violence against women (Bott, 2012).
- 2.26 A recent innovation in services for survivors of violence has been the development of one-stop shops that provide a set of coordinated services under one roof. Initially, these one-stop shops focused on police, judicial services and psychological support. More recently, El Salvador has developed a “Women’s City” (“*Ciudad Mujer*”) program to provide not only police, judicial and psychological support, but other services (including economic empowerment and sexual/reproductive health) that allow women survivors to break the cycle of violence in their lives. A similar program, based in El Salvador’s success, is being designed for implementation in Trinidad and Tobago and Mexico with IDB financing. These one-stop shops lower the transaction costs for women to make use of a range of services; they also facilitate the provision of higher-quality, integrated services. Key issues around the sustainability of this model include the importance of avoiding the duplication of services with existing programs, the challenge of coordinating the actions of multiple service providers, and the need to ensure institutional and policy-level support for the integrated services. Successful replication of these models requires that they are sufficiently flexible to be adapted to different levels of care, institutional capacity and available resources (Colombini et al., 2011; Colombini et al., 2012). While an impact evaluation of the “*Ciudad Mujer*” project in El Salvador is underway, more evaluations of one-stop shops are needed.
- 2.27 **Prevention of violence against women.** Beyond the provision of quality services to survivors of violence, the region faces the important challenge of designing prevention programs that will reduce the prevalence of VAW. The two most common approaches to prevention have been mass media campaigns and initiatives targeted to change male attitudes and behaviors, usually among a

- specific group such as adolescents or men convicted of IPV. The effectiveness of mass media campaigns has not been firmly established. While they seem to have been effective in raising awareness of VAW, a quasi-experimental analysis of a mass campaign in the United States revealed unintended consequences: the negative portrayal of men may have reduced the number of men who viewed VAW as a concern (Keller et al., 2010).
- 2.28 Regionally, two initiatives targeting young men and young women and addressing specific attitudes and behaviors have been evaluated with positive results: the “*Somos Diferentes, Somos Iguales*” (SDSI) program in Nicaragua, and “Program H” in Brazil.<sup>29</sup> SDSI was designed to promote better sexual and reproductive health among youth, as well as reduce acceptance of violence against women and discrimination against gays.<sup>30</sup> An impact evaluation revealed that SDSI reduced acceptance of VAW by 14% and increased by almost 50% the probability of seeking support after experiencing VAW (Solorzano and Peña, 2004).<sup>31</sup> “Program H” encourages young men to have more equitable gender relations by respecting the rights of women, avoiding the use of violence in relationships and participating in caregiving and domestic activities.<sup>32</sup> In Brazil and India, a quantitative evaluation (non-experimental, but with a control site) showed significant increases in condom use and gender-equitable norms; significant reductions in IPV were reported in India only (Pulerwitz et al., 2006; Verma et al., 2008). Other important interventions to prevent VAW include improving policing, the judicial system and other victims’ institutions.<sup>33</sup>
- 2.29 A recent global review of impact evaluations of VAW interventions found 16 different interventions designed to reduce IPV had rigorous impact evaluations with positive results. While studies of prevention interventions were less common, some positive impacts were seen from programs in Canada and the United States (Ellsberg et al., forthcoming). In Canada, “healthy relationships” training targeted at youth have generated significant reductions in IPV, both when the program was targeted to all male and female high school students and when specifically targeted at at-risk-youth (Wolfe et al., 2003, 2009). In the United States, an analysis of the “Healthy Start Program,” a program focused on preventing child abuse through home visits, found lower rates of IPV among mothers who participated in the program (Duggan et al., 1999).
- 2.30 Programs that support the development of positive parenting skills present an important opportunity to prevent the perpetration of violence later in life. Given the extensive evidence that childhood exposure to violence increases the likelihood of experiencing or perpetrating IPV as an adult, parenting programs have been identified as among the most promising interventions to prevent child maltreatment and IPV later in life (Mikton et al., 2009; Heise, 2011; McCloskey et al., 2011). Reviews based on available Randomized Control Trials (RCT)<sup>34</sup> have found that parenting interventions have been effective at modifying parenting behavior associated with abuse, reducing child abuse rates, enhancing parent-child relationships, and generating positive parenting skills (McCloskey et al., 2011; Rahman, 2009; Prinz et al., 2009; MacLeod, 2000; Olds, 2007; Cooper,



2009). More rigorous evaluations from low and middle income countries are necessary to establish which interventions are most effective in the context of limited resources and diverse cultures.

- 2.31 There has been increasing attention given to promoting safe public spaces for women. UN Women has launched an initiative “Safe Cities for Women” that applies principles of crime prevention through environmental design to the issue of violence against women. Unfortunately, this and other safe spaces initiatives have not been evaluated for effectiveness. In general, given the paucity of impact evaluations in the region to evaluate the impact of programs to prevent VAW, such evaluations should be a high priority.

**D. Promote labor force participation and entrepreneurship for women, African descendants and indigenous peoples<sup>35</sup>**

**1. Labor force participation**

- 2.32 Barriers to labor force participation can arise from a variety of causes, including lack of information about where to find job offers, lack of cognitive, technical or socio-emotional skills, discrimination by employers (Galarza and Yamada, 2012; Arceo-Gomez and Campos-Vazquez, 2014), lack of access to complementary services, such as child care (Blau et al., 2014; Todd, 2013) or social and cultural norms (World Bank, 2014a). The first step in policy design is to start with a complete diagnostic of barriers to employment, offer a flexible set of programs and help direct women, African descendants, and indigenous peoples to the intervention that best fits for their particular needs.
- 2.33 **Child care provision.** Increasing access to childcare boosts women’s wage employment levels (at the extensive and intensive margins), but design and delivery matter to ensure quality, affordable and cost-effective care. Childcare in Brazil and Argentina increased mother’s labor force participation (Paes de Barros et al., 2011; Berlinski and Galiani, 2007). Studies of community day care programs in Colombia and Guatemala also find positive effects on female labor supply, but no effects on hours worked or income. Several studies find no significant impact of “*Chile Crece Contigo*” on maternal labor supply (Medrano et al., 2009; Aguirre, 2011). In sum, most of the evidence points to a positive effect of childcare programs on women’s labor force participation, with less clear impacts on income. Although employer mandates to provide childcare can increase the supply of childcare programs, they can also potentially reduce the incentives to hire women and result in discrimination against female workers (Prada et al., 2013).<sup>36</sup> In terms of the mechanism by which child care service are provided, there is no evidence—either for or against—of crowding out of privately provided care by publicly provided child care. However, in settings with ample private provision it may make sense to provide poor women with vouchers rather than building new, public child care facilities.

- 2.34 **Active Labor Market Policies (ALMP).** ALMP are often adopted by countries as a way of reducing unemployment or accelerating the labor attachment of groups with difficult labor market insertion.<sup>37</sup> ALMP can take a variety of forms, which may include intermediation services, training for those out of the labor force, internships with firms, public works jobs, or wage subsidies for specific groups. The impacts of ALMP on women in LAC often exceed those on men.<sup>38</sup> The majority of ALMP increase women's employment rates and increase their exit rate out of unemployment, but do not lead to substantial wage increases. The evidence suggests that ALMP help workers find a job faster, but sometimes at a lower wage than they would otherwise be able to obtain with a longer search on their own. There is little evidence on the impact of ALMP for African descendants and indigenous peoples.
- 2.35 **Labor Intermediation Services (LIS).**<sup>39</sup> LIS can include information systems on labor market opportunities, guidance in the job search process, and support to firms in candidate selection. In developed countries, LIS usually are linked with training programs, unemployment insurance and other social programs (Mazza, 2011). LIS are a cost-effective policy to promote better labor insertion where a lack of information inhibits good matches being made between employers and job seekers. In principle, one would expect LIS to be more important for historically excluded groups that do not have extensive job search networks, but this issue has not researched in LAC. The only evidence from LAC on sex-disaggregated impacts of LIS is an evaluation of the public intermediation service in Mexico, which showed that it helps unemployed men find higher wage jobs relative to other search strategies, but has no effects for women (Flores Lima, 2010).
- 2.36 **Wage subsidies/vouchers.** These initiatives are effective in settings where women or ethnic groups have relevant skills, but there are barriers to firms hiring them. Evaluations of subsidy programs for women in the region show that they can be effective in increasing the employment rate of beneficiaries in the short run, but their long term effect is not clear (Gallaso et al., 2001; Centro de Microdatos, 2012). One concern about wage subsidy/voucher programs is that they facilitate job matches for workers receiving the subsidy, but possibly at the expense of those who do not. Since 2009, Chile has had a subsidy to promote youth employment and in 2012 adopted a similar scheme to promote female employment. The youth employment subsidy has shown to be effective in promoting employment and participation, but has no effect on wages (Rau, 2012). The wage subsidy to female employment has not yet been evaluated.
- 2.37 **Public works programs.** Public works programs can be effective in alleviating poverty and mitigating the effects of shocks where there is widespread unemployment and job creation is a priority. But, otherwise, they are generally less successful than other types of ALMP. India's "Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme," a large public employment program, made an explicit effort to promote women's employment. An evaluation in the state of Andhra Pradesh showed that women represented more than 50% of

beneficiaries and their wages were equal to men's—which is not the case overall in the local labor market (Liu and Deininger, 2013).

2.38 **Training programs.** Training programs, among the most widely used ALMP, can be effective in promoting employment and increasing wages. Worldwide evidence on the impacts of training programs to improve skills of unemployed or vulnerable groups show better results for adults than for youth and for women than men (Kluve, 2006; Card et al., 2010). The evaluation literature has identified the following success factors in training programs designed to increase the employability of those facing more difficult labor market insertion: (i) participation of private sector providers; (ii) demand-oriented training; (iii) inclusion of a labor intermediation component; (iv) on-the-job training; (v) regular accreditation processes of training institutions or firm trainers; (vi) inclusion of modules to develop socio-emotional skills; and (vii) integration of training programs for vulnerable groups within a life-long learning system. Most youth training programs in Latin America have incorporated some of these elements, particularly the first four (González et al., 2012; Urzúa and Puentes, 2010), which might explain their relative success at increasing vulnerable youth labor market insertion, including young women. It should be noted that several of these programs also provided childcare subsidies for women with infants.

2.39 **Legislation and flexible work arrangements.** Laws requiring equal pay for equal work are present in almost all countries in LAC, but their effectiveness is dubious due to limited enforcement.<sup>40</sup> About half of the countries have laws against sexual harassment at work, but again enforcement is an issue. Access to family leave, even unpaid, increases the likelihood of women's return to work following child birth. Rights to parental leave increased women's employment rates in Europe (Ruhm, 1998). Maternity leave duration and funding modalities in LAC are not very different from OECD countries. Paternity leave is available in only half of LAC countries, with a duration that ranges from 2 to 14 days. Increasing parental leave and flexible work arrangements for both women and men have shown greater impacts in advanced economies where a large share of women's jobs is formal. There is also literature from European countries that suggests that women have higher levels of job satisfaction when working part-time (Asadullah and Fernandez, 2008; OECD, 2010a). There are no regional evaluations of the impact of flexible work arrangements, but given the importance of the issue this should be an area for future research.

## 2. **Increasing the quality of jobs for women, African descendants, and indigenous peoples**

2.40 Some of the policies that promote female employment can also improve the quality of jobs, especially formal sector jobs. These policies may be particularly relevant for African descendant women who may be among the lowest wage earners and are most likely to be employed in informal sector jobs. Quality, formal sector jobs can be promoted through wage subsidies, training programs and intermediation services. The evidence on the effectiveness of these

interventions in promoting employment is presented in the previous section, but they can also increase job quality.

- 2.41 **Certification programs.** Certification programs for workplace gender equality attempt to raise awareness about gender equity issues and reduce workplace discrimination. Usual themes that are included in gender equality certification programs are personnel recruitment and selection, professional development, training, remuneration, work-life balance and sexual harassment. Firms' participation in these programs is voluntary. The programs are usually promoted by the public entities responsible for gender equality, and certification of the standards is carried out by a third party.<sup>41</sup> Latin America has pioneered the design and implementation of certification programs. Programs are currently operating in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Costa Rica, Mexico, Uruguay, and five more countries are developing them. Process evaluations show that firms see benefits from participation, but there are no rigorous impact evaluations of their impacts on firm performance. An impact evaluation of a similar program in Egypt showed that it was largely unsuccessful, although this result may be driven by the small number of participating firms and consequent small sample size used in the evaluation. This approach is considered of "high potential" to promote women's employment (Buvinic et al., 2013).
- 2.42 **Skills training in non-traditional occupations.**<sup>42</sup> There are reasons to believe that while cultural and personal preferences play a role, some women may not be aware of the differences in employment opportunities and salaries associated with different careers. The evidence on the effectiveness of information provision interventions in shaping women's choice of study is limited to one study on the impact of the provision of vocational educational vouchers and information on returns to disadvantaged youth in Kenya (Hicks et al., 2011).<sup>43</sup> In this evaluation, young women who received information on the higher wages in "male-dominated" occupations were more likely to express a preference for a male-dominated course and more likely to enroll in one.<sup>44</sup> This is a promising intervention to reduce occupational segregation and in turn reduce wage gaps related to gender, race and ethnicity.

### 3. Entrepreneurship

- 2.43 Interventions to support women entrepreneurs in LAC focus on providing access to finance and human and social capital. Rigorous impact evaluations on access to finance have focused on microcredit and savings interventions on the supply side and financial education programs on the demand side. While there are several randomized control trial studies of business development services (BDS) and training for women in Latin America, these tend to focus on interventions for micro-entrepreneurs (versus Small and Medium Enterprise-SME). Unfortunately, there are no randomized control trials or other rigorous studies on interventions seeking to improve women's access to business networks or mentoring opportunities.

- 2.44 **Access to credit and other financial services.** A meta-evaluation of 52 RCTs, quasi experimental and mixed methods evaluations on microfinance found that the links between microcredit and poverty reduction and between microcredit and business growth are inconclusive. In the case of women-owned subsistence level firms capital alone is not sufficient to generate growth in sales, but helps women smooth consumption. In order to generate business growth, female entrepreneurs need more than microcredit; they need broader financial products such as savings instruments and BDS (Buvinic et al., 2013). The strongest empirical evidence on the impact of financial services (including savings instruments and credit) shows that savings has a positive impact on women's earnings and the amount they invest in their businesses (Mehra et al., 2012). A RCT of an initiative undertaken by Guatemala's largest public-sector bank to promote new savings products at the time of loan repayment was found to lead to a doubling of savings deposits (Atkinson et al., 2010).
- 2.45 **Business skills training.** The impact of business skills training may be improved by increasing the quality and duration of the training, combining training with customized technical visits or expert advice to the firm, and targeting women running larger firms (Buvinic et al., 2013). For example, a RCT with a bank in the Dominican Republic compared the impact of a fundamentals-based accounting training and a simplified rule-of-thumb training that teaches basic heuristics to manage finances. The study found that only the latter made significant improvements in business practices and outcomes. A RCT of a program in Peru targeted at women's entrepreneurs found that business development services, offered through lecture sessions and technical assistance, led to more sound business practices, such as closing unprofitable businesses; beneficiaries experienced a 20% increase in revenue relative to the control group (Valdivia, 2012). Short business trainings improve business practices but have few measurable effects on the growth of firms. A critical review of 17 BDS projects around the world notes that few studies find important impacts on profits or sales (McKenzie and Woodruff, 2012).<sup>45</sup> Some BDS and business network interventions have shown promising results regarding mentoring and networking outcomes. A non-experimental evaluation of the "10,000 Women" program in Peru,<sup>46</sup> found that women who received training reported sharing what they had learned about business skills with other female entrepreneurs (Torero et al, 2013).<sup>47</sup> With regard to business networking, a mixed-methods study of a Vital Voices Businesswomen's Network in Argentina, found that 36% of women received advice from other participants frequently (Buvinic et al., 2013).
- E. Improve governance and voice for indigenous peoples, African descendants and women<sup>48</sup>**
- 1. Creation and governance of indigenous/African descendant territories**
- 2.46 Indigenous peoples and African descendants control over 30% of all lands in Latin America (Roldán Ortega, 2004). Indigenous territories have been enshrined in the constitutions of many countries as political-administrative decentralized

entities, but their creation has been slow.<sup>49</sup> Good practices in indigenous governance are emerging from other world regions. The key lesson learned from the creation of indigenous territories in Australia seems to be that “governance-building has to be based on local realities,” including developing institutions and governance relationships “which resonate with traditional jurisdictions, laws, customs, relationships and specific histories” (Hunt and Smith, 2006). Some observers are pessimistic about the positive impacts of the creation of self-governing indigenous territories in developing countries (van Dam, 2011). Others are more hopeful, noting that there is room for complementarity between indigenous territories and national governments, and that indigenous governance can contribute to *Sumak Kawsay* or living in harmony (Ortiz, 2010).<sup>50</sup> What is clear is that there are no clear road maps to follow in LAC for the creation and effective functioning of indigenous territories as decentralized entities, especially given the high degree of local specificity. This is an area where the IDB can generate knowledge relevant for the region by conducting case studies of specific experiences in indigenous governance.

## **2. Women’s voice and participation in governance**

- 2.47 Agency involves the ability to make effective choices and transform them into desired outcomes. Agency thus has both internal and external elements: “the internal motivation to make a choice [and] the willingness to act upon one’s desires and the absence of unsurpassable exogenous constraints” (Perova and Vakis, 2013). As a consequence, interventions to promote women’s agency can focus on external constraints, women’s own capabilities and motivations, or both.
- 2.48 **Quotas for women political candidates.** Quotas for women’s representation in political parties’ lists of candidates have been quite effective in increasing the number of women elected to office. Comparing the gender composition of both congressional houses before quotas were adopted to the most recent election results shows, on average, a 15.5 percentage point increase in the number of women in office.<sup>51</sup> It is important to note, however, that the quality of quota legislation varies significantly, and poorly designed legislation will have little or no effect. There is significant evidence from other regions of the developing world that women’s presence in elected office changes budget allocation and legislative priorities (Chattopadhyay and Duflo, 2004; Beaman et al., 2007; Barnes, 2012; Schwindt-Bayer, 2003; Jones, 1997; Taylor-Robinson and Heath, 2003). Women in decision-making positions are more likely to deliver improvements in areas of greater interest to women, such as maternal health, child welfare, and violence against women, reproductive rights, and discrimination. Quotas also have long-term impacts on voters’ acceptance of female political participation and leadership as measured by women’s likelihood of reelection in previously reserved villages (Bhavnani, 2009). In addition, exposure to female leaders influences adolescent girls’ career aspirations and educational attainment (Beaman et al., 2012; Clots-Figueras, 2012).

- 2.49 **Promotion of women's participation in project governance.** At the project level, impact evaluations of projects that mandate or encourage women's participation and inclusion in decision-making bodies have yielded mixed results in terms of long-run impacts on participation. A quasi-experimental evaluation of a rural roads project in Peru that mandated increased participation of women in local roads committees and set targets for women's membership in road repair microenterprises found that women benefited from the program in the form of increased economic participation and access to education and health services (Valdivia, 2009). In Kenya, encouraging women to participate in local water committees led to significant increases in participation (20%) that were sustained over a three-year period (Leino, 2007).<sup>52</sup> An evaluation of a project in Sierra Leone, however, found no effect of a participation mandate on women's inclusion in local decision-making in the long-run (Casey et al., 2012).<sup>53</sup>
- 2.50 Other governance interventions, like consultation processes and community-based monitoring mechanisms (including citizen report cards), have been found to improve cultural pertinence, accountability, the quality of public services, and increase women's voice and agency if appropriate design features are implemented. A randomized evaluation of community-based monitoring of public health care providers in Uganda found significant increases in utilization of health services and improved health outcomes (Bjorkman and Svensson, 2009). Conditional cash transfer (CCT) programs provide a promising area where improvement of public services and women's empowerment could be simultaneously addressed through community-based monitoring mechanisms.
- 2.51 **Participatory budgets.** Participatory budgets have increased citizen participation and agency<sup>54</sup> (Baiocchi et al., 2011; Mansuri and Rao, 2013) and improved governance outcomes (Zamboni, 2007; Goncalves, 2009).<sup>55</sup> However, not all participatory budget processes have included gender considerations or women in their consultations and deliberations (Escobar, 2003; Bridge, 2002). Given the gendered differences in the need and use of public services and the possible empowerment effect that participating in an area from which women have been traditionally excluded, participatory budgets offer a promising area for the inclusion of women's voices.
- 2.52 **Women in private sector governance.** Women's participation in private sector governance is also crucial. Two much-cited studies by Catalyst (2011 and 1997) showed that U.S. Fortune 500 firms with greater female presence on the board of directors out-performed firms with low female presence in terms of return on equity, return on sales, and return on invested capital—but this analysis is based on simple correlations and cannot be interpreted as a causal relationship. A similar study of 345 Latin American firms in six countries by McKinsey and Company (2013) found that companies with one or more women on their executive committees outperformed those with all-male committees.<sup>56</sup> In 2008, Norway initiated a requirement that women be at least 40% of the members of corporate boards. Since then, gender quotas for Boards have been implemented in Belgium, France, Iceland, Italy, Malaysia, the Netherlands and Spain. Brazil has

set a target of 40% for boards of state-owned companies (Economist, 2014; Deloitte, 2011).

### III. PRINCIPAL CHALLENGES IN THE REGION

- 3.1 The preceding section presented evidence on the effectiveness of policies and programs addressing some of the most pressing issues of gender equality and development with identity in the LAC region. This section describes the challenges in the region to which those policies and programs respond.<sup>57</sup> One additional challenge to addressing all of the issues discussed below is the lack of comparable and reliable data disaggregated by race, ethnicity and gender.<sup>58</sup>
- A. Lagging human capital indicators for indigenous peoples and African descendants**
- 3.2 Indigenous peoples in Latin America face significant human capital gaps that begin to appear very early in life. While, primary school enrolment rates are generally only slightly lower for indigenous children (with the exceptions of Panama, where they are significantly lower).
- 3.3 Human capital gaps begin to appear with great force in completion rates for primary education and performance on standardized tests. Primary school completion rates for indigenous children range from a minimum of 9 percentage points lower (Bolivia) to almost 44 percentage points lower (Panama)—see [Annex Table A.1](#). The standardized SERCE test reveals gaps of more than 15% in mathematics and language skills between indigenous and non-indigenous students in the third and sixth grades in Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama and Peru (OREALC/UNESCO and LLECE, 2010; Alfonso et al., 2012).
- 3.4 As part of the preparation of this SFD, simple calculations were done to estimate the time lag in indigenous primary school completion rates (i.e., how many years ago countries achieved completion rates for non-indigenous students equivalent to current completion rates for indigenous students).<sup>59</sup> Some countries have very small lags (Mexico and Peru have lags of 1.5 and 2.2 years, respectively); while other countries have longer lags (Bolivia and Panama have lags of 5.7 and 10.6 years, respectively), (see [Annex Table A.2](#) for details). Indigenous adolescents are more likely to be behind in school than their non-indigenous peers in every country of the region for which data are available—and in many countries the gaps are very large (SITEAL, 2012).<sup>60</sup> In every country of the region with the exception of El Salvador, Brazil and Uruguay secondary school completion rates are lower for indigenous than non-indigenous individuals (SITEAL, 2012).<sup>61</sup>
- 3.5 While the gaps in educational attainment between non-indigenous groups and indigenous peoples are troubling, the interplay between gender and ethnicity creates an even more severe situation of cumulative disadvantage for indigenous women. A recent World Bank working paper found that while indigenous men had lower levels of literacy than non-indigenous men and women in Bolivia,



- Mexico and Peru, indigenous women fared even worse than indigenous men. The same is true for levels of educational attainment (Tas et al., 2013). For African descendants, the picture is more nuanced: while African descendants lag behind national averages in the majority of countries for which race-disaggregated data are available (in Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica and Uruguay), they surpass national averages in a few countries (Belize and Panama).<sup>62</sup>
- 3.6 An explanation frequently given for the large gaps in educational retention and performance between indigenous and non-indigenous children is the lack of availability of bilingual, inter-cultural education; lack of BIE means that indigenous children are forced to learn in a language in which they initially have limited or no proficiency and with educational materials that may be alien to their culture. Unfortunately, there is little comparative data available on the percentage of indigenous children who receive BIE. Data is only available for Guatemala and Ecuador, where 9.7% and 45% of indigenous children aged 7 to 12 receive BIE, respectively.
- 3.7 Another important element of human capital is health status. Health indicators for indigenous peoples are uniformly below non-indigenous persons. Indigenous peoples face disproportionately high levels of maternal and infant mortality, malnutrition, cardiovascular illnesses, HIV/AIDS and other infectious diseases such as malaria and tuberculosis (United Nations, 2009). Perhaps the most basic measure of health status is life expectancy. Life expectancy of indigenous peoples significantly lags that of non-indigenous persons in countries for which ethnicity-disaggregated data are available.<sup>63</sup> Maternal mortality is an area of particular concern. For the three countries for which ethnicity-disaggregated maternal mortality data are available, indigenous women's rates are significantly higher: 48% higher in Mexico, 109% in Guatemala, and 481% in Panama ([see Annex Table A.3](#)). For the region as a whole, indigenous women have Maternal Mortality Rates (MMR) that are three times the regional average (UN, 2009).<sup>64</sup>
- 3.8 Two explanations are offered for the poorer health outcomes of indigenous peoples: (i) lack of cultural adaptation of health services, which reduces indigenous peoples' demand for services; and (ii) discrimination in the provision of services. The evidence on the existence of discrimination in the provision of health services is mixed—which is not surprising, given how difficult discrimination is to document. A study in Mexico found that indigenous persons received substantially lower quality health services than non-indigenous persons, even after controlling for income levels (Barber et al., 2005). On the other hand, a study in Peru using an experimental methodology did not detect discrimination against indigenous women in the provision of sexual and reproductive health services (Bustelo et al., 2013).
- B. Limited access to key services for indigenous peoples (water, electricity)<sup>65</sup>**
- 3.9 Indigenous peoples as a group also have much less access to infrastructure services that are associated with better health outcomes (as is the case with

potable water) or increased disposable incomes (as is the case with electricity provision as households substitute away from higher cost options like batteries or kerosene). [Table A.4](#) provides data on access to potable water and electricity for countries in the region for which these data can be disaggregated by ethnicity. In terms of access to potable water, gaps exceed 15 percentage points in Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico and Panama; gaps are relatively smaller (less than 8 percentage points) in Guatemala and Paraguay. In terms of access to electricity, gaps exceed 15 percentage points in Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, and Panama; gaps are less than 8 percentage points in Brazil, Chile, Mexico and Paraguay. Simple calculations done to estimate the time lag in indigenous access to potable water and electricity (how many years ago countries achieved coverage rates for non-indigenous households equivalent to current coverage rates for indigenous households) using rates of growth of coverage for indigenous peoples showed that indigenous households have rates of coverage that characterized non-indigenous households 10 to 26 years ago for potable water and 3 to 24 years ago for electricity (see [Annex Table A.5A and B](#) for details).

- 3.10 Two factors are associated with this gap in access to infrastructure services: (i) geographical isolation; and (ii) public investment imbalance between richer and poorer regions. The dispersed settlement pattern of indigenous peoples makes the marginal costs of infrastructure investments significantly higher in these remote communities. Public investment imbalance between the poorest regions—where indigenous communities are predominantly located—and richer regions is likely to occur because more prosperous regions are better able to compete for centralized development resources. This inequality may be especially glaring in the case of distribution of royalties from extractive industries, since much mining, oil and gas extraction is undertaken in indigenous territories or areas with large indigenous populations, but few royalties may return to these areas.<sup>66</sup> One common outcome of this is that indigenous communities are forced to fight for compensation through conflict.<sup>67</sup>
- 3.11 Even when infrastructure is provided, it frequently lacks cultural pertinence, which may result in disuse and even abandonment of the new infrastructure. In the area of water supply, for example, the Kogi people of Colombia consider water to be the blood of the earth; tampering with it or handling it unnecessarily is prohibited. Since the Kogi have abundant water resources, the culturally appropriate solution would be to construct minimally invasive infrastructure (e.g., small ponds) and to ask permission to the water spirit for the water resource to be used in this way. In an electrification project, it may be necessary to re-route transmission lines so that they are not placed above areas which are spiritually important to indigenous peoples. Several barriers exist to the culturally-sensitive provision of infrastructure: (i) supply-driven entropy of public spending programs designed to raise the living standards of indigenous peoples; (ii) standardization of blueprints for infrastructure works in order to facilitate procurement processes, with no consideration of ecological, logistical and cultural specificities of the beneficiaries; and (iii) lack of stakeholder analysis, which reduces the ability to

provide infrastructure services in culturally-sensitive ways and also affects the ability to maintain the infrastructure in the long term.

**C. Indigenous and African Descendant lands and culture are under threat**

- 3.12 Indigenous peoples are among the groups most vulnerable to climate change due to high levels of poverty, historical marginalization and a permanent state of social stress (Kronik and Verner, 2010; World Bank 2010 and 2013). Indigenous peoples are frequently located in rural areas that have low levels of access to public services, which reduces their ability to adapt to climate change (Damman, 2007; Appendini and Torres, 2008). Finally, indigenous peoples are highly dependent on the quantity and quality of natural resources that are available in their territories; this means that the effect of climate change on natural resources has a direct and immediate impact on them (Posey, 1999; Verschuuren, 2006; MEA, 2005; Daniel et al., 2011). Three regions in Latin America are deemed hot-spots for climate change (IPCC, 2009) and have the highest concentration of indigenous and African descendant peoples: (i) Central America and the Caribbean coastal nations of South America, (ii) the tropical Andes and (iii) the Amazon basin. Central American and Caribbean countries are particularly vulnerable to hurricanes and flooding; the Andes to water shortages; and the Amazon to the potential transformation of its ecosystem. The indigenous population in these three areas is around 31 million (Verner, 2010; Davidson et al., 2012).
- 3.13 African descendants face a similar situation of vulnerability. Creoles, Caribbean Garifuna, and *quilombolas* live in lands that are highly vulnerable to climate change (Kronik and Verner, 2010). Other African descendant groups in the region are also under threat. The African descendant population of the Colombian department of Chocó, for example, has a high level of dependence on natural resources which are threatened by climate change (Afroamérica XXI, 2008), and the African descendants in the *Yungas* in Bolivia are facing irregular rainfall, intense hail and serious episodes of drought (Kronik and Verner, 2010).
- 3.14 Beyond climate change, biodiversity and indigenous peoples are inextricably linked: in Mesoamerica, the Amazon basin and the tropical Andes there is a strong correlation between high levels of biodiversity and the presence of indigenous peoples (Gorenflo et al., 2012). In Mexico, for example, *ejidos* and indigenous communities control more than 70% of the country's forests (Rosa et al., 2003; GEF, 2012). In the Amazon basin, indigenous peoples inhabit 25.3% of its total land area (van Dam, 2011). And a study noted that 214 of the 801 protected areas in South America overlapped to some degree with indigenous peoples' territories (Cisneros and McBreen, 2010). Overall, in Latin America and the Caribbean, 24.6% of forests belong to indigenous communities, and they have usufruct rights for an additional 7.3% (van Dam 2011; UN-REDD 2012).
- 3.15 The annual deforestation rate in LAC is 0.45%, one of the most rapid on the globe and exceeded only by the rate in Africa; about 7.85% of forest biomass has been

lost over the last 20 years (Sanhueza and Antonissen, 2014), which constitutes a severe threat to biodiversity in the region. Ample evidence shows that deforestation rates are significantly lower for lands controlled by indigenous peoples (Stevens et al., 2014). In Brazil, for example, over the 2000-12 period forest loss on indigenous lands was only a cumulative 0.6%, while it was 7% elsewhere (Hansen, 2013). It is clear that the traditional practices of indigenous peoples are compatible with biodiversity conservation.

- 3.16 One of the biggest threats to the survival of indigenous culture is language loss.<sup>68</sup> At the time of the Spanish conquest, it is estimated that the Amazon was home to 1,175 languages (Krauss, 1992). Yet, of the 521 languages found in South American in 1950, 48% are already extinct or not being taught to children (Simons and Lewis, 2013). According to data from CEPAL (2014) for six countries of the region, in only two do more than 50% of indigenous children and adolescents speak their indigenous language (see [Annex Figure A.6](#)). Two types of language loss are occurring in Latin America and the Caribbean. The first is the extinction of languages, which is a problem for languages with a relatively small number of speakers, typically in the Amazon or other isolated areas of the region. It is linked with disappearance of the indigenous peoples or their displacement and integration into other populations. The second type of language loss affects much larger indigenous groups (Náhuatl, Maya, Aymara, Quecha, and Mapuche) and is reflected in a declining percentage of individuals who speak the indigenous language, frequently as a result of urbanization. In the long run, these languages too may be under threat.<sup>69</sup>
- 3.17 Another threat to the survival of indigenous cultures is the lack of appreciation for their cultures by “mainstream” society, which may be driven by a lack of tolerance of diversity or outright hostility and discrimination toward indigenous peoples. This is very difficult to measure, but a reasonable approximation may be from a 2011 *Latinobarómetro* survey which asks “out of a hundred people in your country, how many do you think are discriminated against because of race?” The largest numbers were in Guatemala, Brazil, Bolivia, and Mexico (with 51, 46, 43, and 43, respectively); these countries are some of those with the highest percentages of indigenous and African descendant populations.

**D. High rates of maternal mortality, adolescent pregnancy and violence against women**

- 3.18 The high rates of maternal mortality and infant mortality affecting indigenous peoples were presented above. As a whole, the LAC region has made the slowest progress of any world region toward meeting the MDG on maternal mortality. The Caribbean’s progress was especially slow, with a 36.7% reduction, while Latin America’s was 40.8% (see [Annex Figure A.1](#) for comparative data on world regions’ progress toward attaining the MDG on maternal mortality). Poor, indigenous and African descendant women with low levels of education, living in rural areas, continue to suffer disproportionately from interrelated sexual and reproductive health problems such as unplanned pregnancies due to unmet need

- for contraceptive methods, maternal mortality and complications related to pregnancy, as well as unsafe abortions (CEPAL 2010; Edwards, 2010). The region has the highest rates of unsafe abortions (31 per 100 women 15-44 years old) in the world, which—together with unmet need for family planning services and access to skilled delivery care—are among the main determinants of maternal mortality (WHO, 2008; Zamberlin et al., 2012; Sedgh G. et al., 2012; Ahman and Shah, 2008).
- 3.19 LAC has the second-highest rate, of adolescent pregnancy in the world (trailing only sub-Saharan Africa), with 69 births per 1,000 teenagers aged 15-19 in 2012, and the rate of decline of adolescent pregnancy is the second-slowest of any region. Within the region, the countries with the highest rates of adolescent pregnancy are Nicaragua (101), Dominican Republic (100), and Guatemala (97) (see [Annex Figure A.2](#)). The irony is that majority of adolescents in the region have knowledge of modern birth control methods, but they do not make consistent use of them: while almost 90% of adolescents have such knowledge, almost four out of ten adolescent girls who are in a committed relationship and who wish to avoid pregnancy do not use birth control (Guttmacher Institute, 2010). For all countries for which data are disaggregated by ethnicity, indigenous adolescent girls have higher rates of adolescent pregnancy. In Panama, Brazil, and Costa Rica, the rate is more than twice as high as that for non-indigenous adolescent girls (CEPAL, 2014).
- 3.20 Violence against women (VAW) takes several forms, ranging from Intimate-Partner Violence (IPV), the most common and most widely studied type of violence against women, to sexual violence by non-intimate partners and femicide (most frequently defined as the intentional murder of women because of their gender). Comparable data across countries on IPV has only very recently become available. In the LAC, rates of lifetime prevalence of IPV range from 17% in the Dominican Republic to 53% in Bolivia (Bott et al., 2012). Rates of IPV in the last 12 months range from 7.7% in Jamaica and El Salvador to 25.5% in Bolivia (see [Annex Figure A.3](#)). For countries for which ethnicity-disaggregated data exist, there is no common pattern of indigenous women being more or less likely to be victimized (CEPAL, 2014). Preliminary results from a survey in Peru demonstrate a similar pattern for African descendant women (IDB, 2014).
- 3.21 Rates of victimization for sexual violence by non-intimate perpetrators and for femicide vary dramatically among countries of the region. Haiti and the Dominican Republic have the highest rates of sexual violence; with 16.4% and 6.7% of women aged 15-49 having been a victim of sexual violence at some point in their lives (see [Annex Figure A.4](#)). Femicide rates—expressed as the number of deaths per 100,000 inhabitants--vary dramatically among LAC countries. For 11 countries with comparable data, the rates range from a rate of 0.19 in Chile to 1.25 in Colombia (see [Annex Figure A. 5](#)). Unfortunately, these data do not include several Central American countries with very high rates of femicide.<sup>70</sup>

**E. Progress, but significant participation and earnings gaps in labor markets by gender, race and ethnicity**

**1. Labor force participation**

- 3.22 Women have made significant progress in closing participation and earnings gaps in Latin American and Caribbean, both as wage employees and as entrepreneurs. LAC is the only region that experienced sustained growth in female labor force participation (FLFP) for women older than 15 years old over the last two decades, going from 40.6% in 1990 to 53.8% in 2012. During the same period the world average decreased 1.6%. With an expansion of 13 percentage points LAC can be considered the exception to the world pattern (WDI, 2014).
- 3.23 Despite this significant advance, the labor force participation gap between men and women remains at over 26 percentage points in the region, one of the largest absolute gaps in the world. Only the Middle East/North Africa and Southern Asia have larger absolute gaps. There is a significant heterogeneity in FLFP rates among countries in the region; Chile and Mexico are among the lowest at 49% and 45%, while Peru and Bolivia have rates at 68% and 64%, respectively. Within countries, there are important differences in participation by race and ethnicity. Data from 10 countries show that African descendant women have the lowest rate (44%), and indigenous women the highest (51%), with white women in the middle (46%). With the male participation rate at 80%, women still have significant room for increasing their role in the labor market in all countries in the region (WDI, 2014). Low FLPRs are typically due to a combination of cultural and policy-related factors. Gender differences in labor force outcomes may to some extent reflect differences in preferences, but it is also clear that women have different economic opportunities and face different constraints than men. One of these constraints is that access to earnings and resources via labor force participation is only part of the solution; women must also exercise control over these resources.
- 3.24 On the supply side, one of the main labor market constraints that women continue to face is the cultural expectation that women be the main care providers for children and elderly parents. Data from the World Values Survey in the region indicate very little change over time in this perception. Job experience is a valuable component of human capital, and gender-based differences in job experience can reduce women's earnings capacity and discourage work. Comparable data on actual job experience are limited, but the available evidence from cross-country data of Enterprise Surveys points to a clear gender gap in years of experience among managers in LAC (Amin and Kushnir, 2012).
- 3.25 On the demand side, there is some indication of gender-based hiring preferences on the part of employers. The public opinion survey *Latinobarómetro* reveals that 28% of Latino Americans believe that "given equal qualifications and education a woman is less likely to be promoted or hired than a man." Chile and Brazil are the countries with the highest levels of perceived labor discrimination by gender, at

57% and 43%, respectively, while Venezuela and Honduras show the lowest, both at 17%. Empirical evidence and academic research on gender based discrimination in employment is scarce, and only recently have there been studies with experimental designs. An experimental audit study in Peru (Galarza and Yamada, 2012) finds that males receive 20% more callbacks for job interviews than women, but a similar study in Chile (Bravo et al, 2008) shows no statistically significant differences by gender, socioeconomic background or place of residence. In Mexico, females receive 40% more callbacks than males (Arceo-Gomez and Campos-Vazquez, 2014).

## **2. Quality of jobs**

- 3.26 One important indicator to measure the quality of jobs is hourly earnings. By this measure, the gap between “ethnic” workers (i.e., indigenous or African descendant) and non-ethnic workers is 40% for the seven countries which have race- and ethnicity-disaggregated household data.<sup>71</sup> After controlling for age and educational attainment, this gap remains at 28%. For these same seven countries, the male-female wage gap after controlling for age and education was 15.7%. The wage gap is larger among the most educated; women hold only 33% of jobs in the 10 best-paid occupations in the region according to the household surveys. In these more highly-paid professions, the wage gap between men and women is 58% on average (Ñopo, 2012). At the other end of the wage spectrum, a higher share of female workers earns wages below the minimum wage than males in all regional countries except Guatemala. In Bolivia this gender gap reaches 20% and in Peru 15% (Ñopo, 2012). In Barbados and Jamaica, respectively, women earn 25% and 12% less than men after controlling for differences in educational attainment (Bellony et al, 2010). In Brazil, controlling for years of education, there are significant wage gaps by gender and race—with African descendant and indigenous women in the positions of greatest vulnerability. Black women with the lowest educational level (less than three years of education, earn the lowest wages in this educational cohort with a monthly average income that is close to the poverty line. Black women are closely followed by indigenous women who earn 1.15 times the poverty line, while white women earn 1.4 times the poverty line, indigenous men earn 1.5 times the poverty line, African descendant men earn 1.8 times the poverty line, and white men earn 2.5 times the poverty line—more than double the earnings of black women with the same level of education (ECLAC, 2009).
- 3.27 The region exhibits high levels of occupational segregation by gender. Similar to the wage gaps, there has been a slight improvement over the last decade, but at a very slow pace. The Duncan Index for the region went from 0.374 in 2000 to 0.366 in 2010 (CEPAL et. al., 2013).<sup>72</sup> The concentration of women with post-secondary education in certain occupations and sectors with relatively low average wages is related to educational segregation. Women, for example, make up 73% of education graduates and 71% of health graduates, but only 29% of engineering and manufacturing graduates (Ñopo, 2012).

### **3. Women's entrepreneurship**

- 3.28 The LAC region has higher rates of female entrepreneurship and a smaller gap in participation between men and women entrepreneurs than other regions (World Bank 2010). The vast majority of women-led businesses in the region, however, are unable to grow beyond microenterprises or move out of the informal economy, which reduces the earning potential of those businesses. The percent of formal SMEs where women own at least 51% of ownership stakes is only 22%, and the percent of firms with a female-top manager (chief executive officer or chief operating officer) is only 21%. Enterprise surveys show that female-owned firms have between 9 and 36% fewer employees than male-owned firms, even at the micro level. Only half of established women's businesses in the region are creating jobs for others compared to 62% for their male counterparts (Amorós and Bosma, 2014).
- 3.29 Micro and small female-owned firms are less productive than male-owned firms. The value added per worker is lower in firms managed by women than in those managed by men in urban areas across the globe, but the gap is the largest in LAC.<sup>73</sup> Part of this difference comes from the fact that women are overrepresented in low-productivity sectors (Sabarwal et al., 2009). Women entrepreneurs who are able to overcome the barriers to firm growth are able to compete as owners of medium to large firms; evidence shows that women-owned medium and large size enterprises are as productive as (or more productive than) firms owned by men (World Bank, 2010). Table III.-1 provides a concise summary of the challenges facing women entrepreneurs in the region and the challenges facing those who offer services to them.



**Table III-1. Challenges for women-led businesses in LAC**

	Challenges for women entrepreneurs and their businesses	Challenges in the <u>supply</u> of services for women entrepreneurs and their businesses
<b>Financial Capital</b>	Lower levels of financial literacy and information on financial products than men	Financial products, services, and delivery mechanism not tailored to women's needs
	Female entrepreneurs feel less equipped to maneuver complex procedures than their male counterparts	Gender biases in financial institutions, including practices such as asking for male guarantors
		Financial infrastructure weaknesses such as credit bureaus with limited information related to women or collateral frameworks that do not allow moveable assets
<b>Human and Social Capital</b>	Less business experience and skills	Business development services and delivery mechanism not tailored to women's needs
		Lack of quality training and relevant courses
	Less access to appropriate local, national, and international business networks	Gender norms and traditions in established informal and formal business networks
	Less access to appropriate formal and informal mentors	Insufficient BDS or capacity building programs with mentoring components
	Less women enrolling in tertiary-level education in high productivity sectors like STEM	
<b>Physical capital</b>	Less ownership of land and property	Laws, regulations, and norms which are biased against women's property ownership and inheritance
<b>Women's ability to make choices (agency)</b>	Lower levels of self-esteem than male counterparts	
	Time and mobility constraints due to household-related obligations	Inadequate provision of quality daycare services and safe public transport and inadequate laws laws/regulations on maternity/paternity leave
	High levels of violence against women (VAW)	Inadequate VAW prevention and attention programs
	Gender norms/culture which limit women in their economic choices and plans	

Sources: Amorós and Bosma, 2014; Brass, 1984; Dreher and Cox, 200; Burke, et al, 1995; Buvinic et al, 2013; Forret and Daugherty, 2004; O'Neill and Blake-Beard, 2002; Pailhé, 2014; World Bank, 2012a; World Bank, 2013b; Xavier et al., 2013.

## **F. Limited voice and agency for women and indigenous peoples**

### **1. Indigenous consultations and governance**

3.30 Three issues of voice and agency are particularly important for the indigenous and African descendant peoples of Latin America and the Caribbean. The first is respect for rights of consultation and free, informed prior consent—as mandated in the Bank's Indigenous Peoples Policy. The second is self-governance of nationally recognized indigenous and African descendant territories, and the third is capacity of government institutions charged with supporting indigenous peoples and formulating public policy in this area (see paragraph 4.14 for a discussion of institutional capacity).

- 3.31 Fourteen countries in Latin America have signed ILO Convention 169, which recognizes the right of indigenous peoples to be consulted when “legislative or administrative measures which may affect them” are being considered—and stipulates that this consultation should be conducted through indigenous peoples’ representative institutions and should be undertaken “with the objective of achieving agreement or consent to the proposed measures.” All countries in LAC have signed the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, which commits signatories to a higher standard of prior, free and informed consent. Yet progress in implementing these commitments in the region, with the exception of Colombia, seems to be modest. Comparable data are hard to come by, but it is estimated that Colombia has undertaken more than 4,000 consultations between 2003 and 2014,<sup>74</sup> Bolivia more than 30 in the oil and gas sector, and Peru 4 consultations (with 16 more currently underway). Mexico has undertaken consultations at the state level, while Ecuador, Guatemala, Venezuela, Argentina and Costa Rica have also conducted consultations, but the numbers are not known.
- 3.32 In most of Latin America and the Caribbean over the last three decades, there has been a process of devolution to indigenous and African descendant peoples of their traditional lands.<sup>75</sup> In other cases, such as in Guyana, existing laws and policies have been updated or strengthened to better protect the rights of indigenous peoples and legally recognize communal lands. Three factors have driven this devolution of indigenous territories: (i) the struggle and protests of indigenous peoples; (ii) new legislation at the national level and conventions at the international level supporting devolution; and (iii) the increasing importance of environmental issues (van Dam, 2011).
- 3.33 Since 1991, several countries have incorporated articles into their constitutions recognizing indigenous territories as decentralized political-administrative units (Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador and Venezuela), but they have not been created. Another weakness of indigenous and African descendant self-governance in several countries is that indigenous and African descendant territories have been assigned important responsibilities for governmental functions, but without the corresponding budget resources to carry them out. In general, “the scale or size of these new territorial areas poses new challenges for management or governance in which communities have no prior experience...[and] for which existing ‘community governance’ models designed for small areas...are no longer appropriate” (van Dam, 2011).

## **2. Voice and agency of women**

- 3.34 Women’s presence in decision-making positions has grown substantially over the last two decades in LAC. For the region as a whole, women parliamentarians rose from 11.9% of total parliamentarians in 1990 to 25.9% in 2014.<sup>76</sup> This 118% increase outpaced the 75% increase for developing regions as a whole.<sup>77</sup> Nonetheless, women remain significantly underrepresented at all levels of government. Women represent, on average only 9% of mayors, 22% of city

council members, 23% of ministers, and 33% of judges in high courts.<sup>78</sup> While women as a whole are far from parity in political representation, indigenous and African descendant women are even further away. For example, in Colombia in 2011, African descendants made up only 4% of the Chamber of Deputies and 2% of the Senate, with no elected women among them—despite African descendants making up approximately 10.5% of Colombia’s population. In Brazil, black federal deputies elected in 2010 made up 9% of the total (compared to a population share of 50.7%) and only 1% of the total deputies were women (Htun, 2012). The appointment of women in ministerial cabinets has remained around 23% for over a lustrum, with a growing but still reduced participation in non-traditional sectors such as defense, external relations, interior, justice, infrastructure, finance and the productive sectors (Luna et al., 2008).

- 3.35 At the community level, women have a potentially important role to play in demanding government responsiveness and accountability in a wide range of projects, ranging from conditional cash transfers to infrastructure projects. But women’s participation in citizen oversight mechanisms (*veedurías*) may be constrained by lack of time, security concerns and, in the case of rural women, by illiteracy (UNIFEM, 2009).
- 3.36 Finally, women are significantly under-represented in the governance of private companies in the region. Women are between 1% and 3% of presidents or CEOs of the largest firms of the region (Pages and Piras, 2010). A study of 345 companies in six countries in the region (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Mexico and Peru) found that women hold 8% of executive committee positions and 5% of board positions (McKinsey, 2013); these percentages are similar to those in Asia, but significantly lower than those in the United States and Europe. 44% of executives surveyed as part of this study identified “double burden syndrome”<sup>79</sup> as the primary barrier to increasing gender diversity in management positions. A recent study in Brazil indicated that similar gaps exist across ethno-racial lines, with just 5.3% of executives in the nation’s 500 largest companies being of African descent. The situation is even starker for African descendant women who only hold 0.5% of executive positions in these companies (Instituto Ethos, 2010).

#### **IV. LESSONS FROM THE BANK’S EXPERIENCE IN THIS SECTOR**

- 4.1 Through Technical Cooperations (TC) and loans, the Bank has accumulated important experience about interventions to promote gender equality and women’s empowerment, as well as the development with identity of indigenous peoples and African descendants. This section of the SFD outlines some of these lessons by drawing on reports produced by the Office of Evaluation and Oversight (OVE) and project Development Effectiveness Matrices. Based on these lessons, the section concludes by providing an outline of the areas in which the Inter-American Development Bank has a comparative advantage in promoting gender equality and development with identity. Project Completion Reports

(PCR) are not a major focus of this section, since many of the most promising operations identified are still in progress.

**A. Reports of the Office of Evaluation and Oversight (OVE)**

- 4.2 Reports from OVE (2012, 2013) provide valuable insights on the Bank's work on gender and diversity. A report on the implementation of safeguards (OVE, 2013) also evaluated progress in the implementation of the Gender Action Plan (GAP) developed to operationalize the Bank's Gender Policy and concluded that the GAP "has made a good start, with somewhat stronger progress on the proactive [mainstreaming and direct investment] than the preventive [safeguards] side."<sup>80</sup> The report noted that country gender policy and sector notes had been prepared for a number of countries, but that the "extent to which these notes have influenced the country dialogue and country strategy has varied." The report also noted significant progress in increasing the percentage of Bank loan sovereign guarantee loans with gender-related indicators in their results matrix but also reported that the quality of these indicators varied widely among projects.<sup>81</sup> The OVE report observed that "staffing constraints limit the pace at which the safeguards side can progress."<sup>82</sup>
- 4.3 The Indigenous Portfolio Review (OVE, 2012) analyzed the Bank's strategic approach and operational efforts in terms of: (i) relevance to the main needs of indigenous peoples in LAC; and (ii) applicability to the Bank's strategic and operational processes. The report main conclusions were that: (i) indigenous issues are less prevalent in country strategies from 2006 [the year in which the Indigenous Peoples policy was approved] onward; (ii) the instrument most used to address indigenous issues is technical cooperation (non-reimbursable funds), followed by loan operations; (iii) there is limited evidence of a mainstreaming approach to the integration of indigenous issues in Bank operations; (iv) the number of loans with a proactive approach to incorporating indigenous peoples declined after approval of the Strategy for Indigenous Development; (v) the evaluability of operations related to indigenous issues is low; and (vi) the review period was marked by major institutional changes in the unit responsible for indigenous issues at the Bank.

**B. Results of the Development Effectiveness Matrix (DEM)**

- 4.4 This section reports on DEM's project evaluability scores for two types of sovereign operations: (i) direct investment (i.e., loans and investment grants whose principal objective is the promotion of gender equality or development with identity); and (ii) loans with gender components or significant attention to gender.<sup>83, 84</sup>
- 4.5 The loan projects and investment grants that invest directly in gender equality have DEM scores that indicate high evaluability (with a 9.1 average out of a maximum of 10 points over the 2011-2103 period), followed closely by projects that mainstream a significant attention to gender (with an 8.8 average).

**Table IV-1. DEM Scores for Direct Investment Projects, Gender-Additional Projects**

<b>Operations that directly invest in gender equality</b>	<b>Division</b>	<b>2011</b>	<b>2012</b>	<b>2013</b>
<i>“Ciudad Mujer”</i>	SCL/GDI	9.3		
Mother and Child Hospital Network Strengthening Program	SCL/SPH		9.3	
Indigenous Peoples and Afro-Hondurans and Climate Change	SCL/GDI		7.6	
Mesoamerica Health Initiative 2015 - Guatemala	SCL/SPH	9.2		
Mesoamerica Health Initiative 2015 - Panama	SCL/SPH	9.5		
Mesoamerica Health Initiative 2015 - Belize	SCL/SPH	9.3		
Mesoamerica Health Initiative 2015 - El Salvador	SCL/SPH	9.1		
Mesoamerica Health Initiative 2015 - Nicaragua	SCL/SPH	8.8		
Mesoamerica Health Initiative 2015 - Mexico	SCL/SPH		9.5	
Mesoamerica Health Initiative 2015 - Honduras	SCL/SPH		9.4	
Mesoamerica Health Initiative 2015 - Costa Rica	SCL/SPH		9.2	
<b>Average DEM scores (Summary)</b>				
<b>Average DEM score for projects that directly invest in gender equality (projects above)</b>		<b>9.2</b>	<b>9.0</b>	
<b>Average DEM score for projects with significant attention to gender equality (44 projects during 2011-13)</b>		<b>8.7</b>	<b>8.8</b>	<b>8.8</b>
<b>Average DEM for IDB projects approved 2011-2013</b>		<b>8.2</b>	<b>8.7</b>	<b>8.7</b>

4.6 Since 2012 the development effectiveness windows of the Structured and Corporate Finance Department (SCF), the Opportunities for the Majority Sector (OMJ), and the Multilateral Investment Fund Office (MIF) have made significant progress in integrating gender into their respective project monitoring and quality review systems and processes for Non-Sovereign Guaranteed (NSG) operations. All three windows mandate the sex-disaggregation of beneficiary level indicators (in 2013, 85% of NSG loans with direct beneficiaries disaggregated indicators by sex) during the design phase and in their respective project monitoring systems (Project Supervision Reports [PSRs] for SCF and MIF, and IRIS for OMJ). The MIF’s Quality for Effectiveness in Development (QED) tool includes a review of the quality of gender mainstreaming in the problem diagnostic, beneficiary assessment, project activities, and monitoring and evaluation. Further, with an eye towards improving coordination between VPP windows and the Inter-American Investment Corporation (IIC), a Private Sector Working Group on Gender was created in 2014 to align definitions, improve reporting on sex-disaggregated indicators (particularly on women-led SMEs), and develop and standardize gender components within the different private sector development effectiveness tools (e.g. DEM, QED, Development Impact and Additionality Scoring [DIAS]).

### **C. Lessons From Operational Experience**

4.7 **Advances in gender mainstreaming in operations.** As noted in the OVE review discussed above, the IDB has made significant progress in mainstreaming gender

in operations, with gender mainstreaming performance improving from 8% in the 2007-2010 baseline to 37% in 2013. This progress was also confirmed by an external evaluation of the first three years of implementation of the IDB's Gender Policy (2011-13). Key contributors to this progress have been: (i) decisive support from senior management; (ii) allocation of additional administrative resources, the majority of which have been used to place expert gender consultants in operational divisions; (iii) production and dissemination of guideline notes with sector-specific recommendations for opportunities to promote gender equality; (iv) training of IDB staff; (v) divisional targets for gender mainstreaming, combined with an overall Bank-wide target; and (vi) inclusion of support for gender equality in staff performance reviews.<sup>85</sup> These factors have contributed to greater effectiveness in including gender equality in the design of Bank projects, but it is essential that these design elements be carried over into execution of the project. Team leaders identified the importance of specialized consultants in executing agencies to translate gender specific design into effective project execution, as well as careful monitoring of gender-related indicators. Project evaluations and indicators should go beyond data disaggregation and measure gender-related outcomes and impacts. The lessons learned from gender mainstreaming can serve as a good example for diversity mainstreaming.

- 4.8 **Integrated services for women empowerment.** *“Ciudad Mujer”*, implemented by the Government of El Salvador with technical and financial support from the Bank, stands out as a key operation in terms of visibility and successful implementation. Several important lessons have been learned in developing and implementing this project in El Salvador and elsewhere: (i) this model is best suited for urban areas with sufficient population density to merit the range of services provided and to minimize transport times for women to reach the center; and (ii) a high-level champion is essential in able to generate the inter-institutional coordination necessary to integrate the different services.
- 4.9 **Preventing violence against women.** An important lesson learned from experience on the prevention of VAW is that there are multiple sectoral entry points to address the issue. Recent initiatives have addressed VAW in sectors in citizen security, transport, micro-enterprise and stand-alone gender projects—and a recent joint IDB/World Bank publication (IDB/World Bank, 2014a) identifies even more sectoral entry points. This expansion of work recognizes that VAW takes multiple forms, ranging from physical violence to sexual harassment in public spaces, rape and femicide (whether by an intimate partner or not).
- 4.10 **Issues in gender and infrastructure.** In recent years, the Bank has endeavored to improve the design of infrastructure projects in order to include women's needs and contributions (such as incorporating women in water boards); secure the safety and improve the experiences of female travelers (by including a gender perspective in the designs of urban transportation systems) and increase women's access to the economic opportunities created through projects (such as projects that include targets for women in microenterprises for rural road maintenance and capacity building for women to increase either employability in the transport

sector). In this way, IDB infrastructure sector experts are advancing the frontier in a sector that was considered until recently a non-traditional area for gender mainstreaming.

- 4.11 **Promoting women’s entrepreneurship.** While women have significant access to microcredit (representing about 57% of microcredit borrowers in the region [Martinez et al., 2014]), they face significant barriers to accessing larger amounts of credit. The IDB has found the following approaches promising to break this “glass ceiling” in access to credit: (i) making the business case to commercial banks; (ii) developing gender-neutral risk analysis methods such as psychometric credit scoring; and (iii) tailoring marketing strategies, including incorporating women’s needs into product development, and training loan officers to target the women’s market. Beyond access to credit, women entrepreneurs require access to a wider range of financial products (including savings accounts, insurance, credit cards, etc.) and business development services to help them grow their businesses into small or medium-size enterprises.
- 4.12 **Developing projects with indigenous peoples and African descendant communities.** The IDB has learned that developing projects with the participation of indigenous and African descendant peoples requires more time to identify their kinship-based traditional authorities and to understand their priorities, cultural land uses, social organization, customary law, history and relationships with the government. Teams should always obtain prior and informed consent from indigenous and African descendant communities involved in Bank projects. Important good practices have been developed—like cultural land use analyses and culturally-adjusted technical design approaches in the areas of infrastructure<sup>86</sup>—to ensure that project design corresponds to the needs and cultural preferences of these groups. A number of Bank projects have made significant use of such design approaches.
- 4.13 **Climate change and biodiversity.** While climate change and the conservation of biodiversity are global challenges, working with indigenous and African descendant peoples to build resilient communities requires a local approach, both in the language used to describe challenges and responses, and in the type of solutions that are suited for a specific community or area. The sustainable cultural land use practices that communities have been implementing for centuries to conserve the forest should be recognized as a rich source of knowledge and experience in the area of sustainable land management. The Bank’s Terraces TC in Peru (*Andenes*) is an example of such an approach; it uses traditional Andean knowledge on irrigation and existing Incan terraces to improve productivity of largely indigenous smallholders.
- 4.14 **Institutional challenges.** The government institutions (ministries, institutes, etc.) responsible for women’s affairs/gender equality and indigenous peoples/African descendants tend to be—with some notable exceptions—among the weaker ministries in terms of capacity to formulate and execute policy and programs. Project teams have found that operations executed by these ministries typically

must devote project resources to strengthening these ministries before they are able to successfully execute Bank projects. This institutional weakness also frequently means that these ministries are not well-positioned within governments either to influence the work of other ministries or to pursue loan-financed projects with international financial institutions. The implication is that projects with these ministries will typically need to devote significant resources to institutional strengthening.

**D. The Bank's comparative advantages in tackling gender and diversity issues**

- 4.15 Historically, the Bank has had three foci for its work on gender and diversity: promoting the inclusion of gender equality and development with identity across-the-board in Bank operations (mainstreaming); loan and TC operations whose principal objective is the promotion of gender equality or development with identity in our borrowing member countries; and analytical work to raise the profile of these topics or identify new areas for operational work. While the three foci have remained constant for some time, the relative weights have changed in response to demands from clients and strategic decisions made by Bank management.
- 4.16 In the 1990s and 2000s, the Bank's focus was largely on TC operations and analytical products which broke new ground in social areas in the region. Notable examples were the early analytical and operational work on violence against women in the late 1990s, and its "*Todos Contamos*" ("We all count") work in the mid-2000s to promote better measurement of race and ethnicity by the statistical institutes of the region. Both areas of work put the Bank in the forefront as the first development bank to tackle these issues.
- 4.17 While there were sovereign guarantee loan operations (direct investment) in the area of African descendants or indigenous peoples from 1990 to 2010, they were few in number. These included loans which: supported a series of strategies to help African descendants and indigenous peoples access university studies; developed territorial-based integrated-service development model while at the same time supporting national institutions to provide culturally-appropriate social services; and supported local small-scale economic development and human capital strengthening projects for Indigenous and Afro-Honduran Peoples.<sup>87</sup> During this period, there were only two direct investment loan operations in the area of gender: one which supported state women's councils (*consejos provinciales de la mujer*) in Argentina and one which was designed to provide training to women entrepreneurs and to women employees in Colombia. Neither, however, was fully executed.
- 4.18 While this small number of operations may not be enough to establish areas of comparative advantage in operational work, the Bank did develop important expertise in the areas of: community consultation; inter-cultural health; bilingual intercultural education; sustainable land management planning; and indigenous entrepreneurship. In the area of gender equality, the Bank was a pioneer on



microenterprise lending, which included women as beneficiaries of at least 50% of credits; worked to make sure that women participated in youth training programs, which also included child care support for mothers of young children; and added a systematic focus on VAW in citizen security operations. Expertise was developed in the area of women's leadership, labor market participation, and reproductive health.

- 4.19 There has been a modest increase in the number of direct investment loan operations in recent years in both the areas of gender and diversity. During 1998-2010, there was an average of approximately one loan operation every two years, while during 2011-2015 (including loans currently in preparation for 2015),<sup>88</sup> there has been approximately one loan per year—and there has been a tighter thematic focus of the Bank's operational work. In the area of gender, loans have been concentrated in two areas: the provision of integrated services for women and in supporting private banks to better serve women-owned businesses. In the area of diversity, the focus has been a continuation of the work on sustainable agricultural with indigenous smallholders, along with the addition of activity on indigenous peoples' adaptation to climate change.<sup>89</sup>
- 4.20 This increased activity reflects both increased demand from IDB borrowing countries and the ability to add greater value to projects through the tighter thematic focus. Across all thematic areas, there has been an important focus on innovation. In the private sector, for example, the IDB has used innovative approaches to support private banks' abilities to reach women-owned businesses. The IDB has provided banks with loans and technical assistance to develop tailored operational and marketing strategies to target women MSMEs by, for example, developing innovative psychometric tests which promise to eliminate biases against women when traditional measures of collateral are used. In the public sector, the provision of integrated services to women has awakened great interest across the region in using this approach to increase the quality of services provided to women in the areas of services to survivors of violence, sexual and reproductive health, and economic empowerment.
- 4.21 Comparisons with the activities of other multilateral development banks are difficult because of very different systems for tracking investments in gender and diversity. For example, that the IDB had a larger volume of direct investment in gender equality in LAC over the 2011-2013 periods than the World Bank, but the comparison is difficult because the World Bank does not use this term to categorize its investment. The World Bank assigns "themes" to its projects and allows for multiple themes to be assigned to a single project; with themes assigned percentages based on the project objectives. Over the 2011-13 fiscal years, the World Bank had two loan projects in LAC (both technical assistance loans) for which gender was assigned a weight of more than 30%, with a total value of US\$4.9 million. During these same fiscal years, the IDB had two direct investment projects totaling US\$95 million. But the number of loans is small and the comparison imprecise; not too much should be made of this comparison. If we compare all projects in LAC for which the World Bank assigned any weight to

gender over this period, the number of projects rises to 14, with a total amount of US\$2.4 billion. As the percentage the World Bank assigned to gender was generally quite low a more appropriate comparator for these may be the number of IDB loans with at least one gender-related result in their results matrix. This yields a total of 98 IDB loans, with a total loan amount of US\$8.2 billion. This comparison remains imprecise, but provides some insight into the size of these two organizations' operations (see [Annex Table A.6](#)). Initial figures of World Bank investment in gender issues in LAC for fiscal year 2014 suggest an increase in spending on gender-related issues, with at least four development policy loans, with a total value of over US\$1.5 billion, in the region. The IDB has not done any policy-based lending with a gender theme. Comparisons of the number of projects and volume of investment in diversity topics are even less precise and, as such, are not presented here.<sup>90</sup>

- 4.22 The Inter-American Development Bank and the World Bank are not the only organizations seeking to improve gender equality and promote development with identity in the region. Other Inter-American organizations (such as the Organization of American States (OAS) and the Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO)), international organizations (such as the United Nations Development Program and UN Women), and non-governmental organizations work on these issues. The biggest thematic overlap and potential for collaboration is in the area of violence against women, where the different organizations have highly complementary work programs. By sharing lessons learned in operational experience on these issues, supporting evaluations of interventions in the region, and seeking opportunities for operational collaboration, the IDB and other organizations can use their respective comparative advantages to deliver quality results to our regional clients.
- 4.23 The Bank has also expanded significantly its analytical work in gender and diversity, with a focus on: (i) impact evaluations to identify good practices in the area of integrated services to women and indigenous peoples, prevention of violence against women, and adolescent pregnancy prevention; (ii) experiments to identify promising approaches to increasing women's labor force participation and the quality of jobs women hold; (iii) barriers to the participation of indigenous peoples in climate change initiatives like payment for ecosystem services; and (iv) improving racial and ethnic statistics for policy making, such as analyzing ethno-racial gaps in fiscal incidence. The focus of this analytical work is to either examine the impacts of important areas of Bank investment or identify promising approaches for future generations of Bank support to our clients.
- 4.24 With this in mind, the Bank proposes to concentrate its work on gender and diversity in the following areas: (i) closing the human capital and infrastructure gaps that affect indigenous peoples and African descendants; (ii) protecting indigenous culture and lands via support for sustainable, cultural land use management, adaptation to climate change, protection of biodiversity and strengthening governance in indigenous territories; (iii) promoting the economic empowerment of women, indigenous peoples and African descendants by

increasing the productivity of their businesses and by boosting women's labor force participation and the quality of their jobs; (iv) providing integrated services to women; (v) supporting initiatives to prevent VAW and offer quality services to women survivors, as well as addressing the issue of adolescent pregnancy; and (vi) promoting women's leadership in both public and private sectors. The Bank already has a professional team with high levels of knowledge and experience in areas (iii), (iv), (v), and (vi), as well as expertise in some components in area (ii). Capabilities will need to be strengthened and expanded in area (i) and to some degree in area (ii).

- 4.25 Specifying these priorities also means explicitly recognizing interesting and important topics on which the Bank will not work. These include areas which are not critical development challenges for the region and in which the Bank does not have a comparative advantage vis-à-vis other development actors. In the first category of non-crucial development issues are "first generation" gender issues which are largely no longer relevant for the region, such as women's access to education (with the notable exception of indigenous women's access) and sex-selective births (son preference). Areas in which the Bank has little comparative advantage vis-à-vis other institutions include implementing national consultations with indigenous peoples (where the International Labor Organization has a strong comparative advantage), designing/monitoring international conventions on the rights of women or indigenous peoples (where the Organization of American States has a strong comparative advantage), and mass campaigns on the issue of violence against women (where UN Women has a strong comparative advantage).

## **V. DIMENSIONS OF SUCCESS AND LINES OF ACTION**

### **A. Goals and principles**

- 5.1 The goals of the Bank in gender and diversity are to promote: 1) gender equality and the empowerment of women; and 2) development with identity among indigenous peoples and African descendants.
- 5.2 In pursuing these goals, the IDB will be guided by the following principles:
- a) The concept of "development with identity" will guide our work with indigenous peoples and African descendants. This means assessing the implications for indigenous peoples and African descendants in all our projects, ensuring that they are culturally-appropriate, and that development does not come at the expense of cultural heritage, equity or solidarity. Similarly, the Bank will make women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of its programs, so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated.

- b) In our work on gender equality, we will focus on key second-generation gender issues (see Section II) that affect Latin America and the Caribbean. In doing so, we will be cognizant of the fact that men can and should be part of the solution. Nowhere is this more true than in work on sexual and reproductive health and violence against women, but it is relevant in other areas as well. It also means that male gender issues—such as male-on-male violence or male school abandonment, an important issue throughout LAC but of particular relevance in the Caribbean—are gender issues that are worthy of policy attention.
- c) Finally, our work on indigenous peoples and African descendants must take into account that there is relatively little knowledge about successful approaches to promoting development by identity. Where there is limited accumulated knowledge about what works, the Bank will commit to a learning-by-doing approach and invest resources in evaluating the impacts of its interventions.<sup>91</sup> It will be important to engage in dialogues with stakeholders about the implications of these evaluations so that over time our projects become increasingly effective. Furthermore, the lack of data on the impact of interventions in many of these issues, as well as descriptive statistics disaggregated by gender, race and ethnicity in some cases, emphasizes the importance of producing additional knowledge on the impacts of the Bank's work.

## **B. Dimensions of success, lines of action, operational and knowledge activities**

- 5.3 To achieve the goals put forth above, the Bank will focus on five dimensions of success—two in the area of diversity, two in the area of gender and one which cuts across gender and diversity. The lines of action and operational activities corresponding to these dimensions of success are outlined below. Some of these activities are areas in which the Bank has been working for a significant amount of time and has accumulated significant knowledge about what works (e.g., increasing the productivity of women's small and medium enterprises), while others are new for the Bank and there is limited accumulated knowledge of what works (e.g., bilingual, inter-cultural education, inter-cultural health services, and increasing the coverage of key infrastructure services for indigenous peoples and Afro-descendants). To the extent that these activities are executed by counterparts that are relatively weak, institutional strengthening will be a cross-cutting activity in many of the lines of action (see paragraph 4.14). At the same time, it will also be important to learn from the relatively few successful experiences of gender and diversity mainstreaming in the region. In order to disseminate information and make the business case for investing in gender equality and development with identity of indigenous peoples and African descendants, the Bank will engage our governmental partners, with a focus on high level officials in finance and economic sectors. Outreach efforts will also be directed to private sector actors and the civil society at large. Besides sector-specific regional policy dialogues directed to specialized constituencies, the Bank will use other dissemination vehicles such as its own Civil Society Councils at the country level.

- 5.4 Simultaneously, IDB projects must take advantage of opportunities to promote gender equality and development with identity—in other words, gender and diversity must be mainstreamed in a wide range of IDB operations. While significant gains have been made in mainstreaming gender into IDB operations, there is still important work to be done with respect to diversity issues.

## 1. Indigenous Peoples and African descendants

### **Dimension 1: Indigenous peoples and African descendants have access to quality human capital and infrastructure services**

- 5.5 This dimension of success highlights the importance of putting indigenous and African descendant people's front-and-center in the provision of key social and infrastructure services in order to revert centuries of marginalization. It is important to note that "provision" might be interpreted to mean a "cookie-cutter" approach of providing a pre-packaged service to a passive beneficiary population. Such an approach would be destined to failure; services will need to be provided in a culturally-appropriate way, and the only way to achieve this is by involving indigenous and African descendant peoples in their design and provision. To achieve these objectives the following lines of action are proposed.
- 5.6 **Lines of action:** will include: (i) provision of bilingual, inter-cultural education (BIE), with an evaluation of impacts on student achievement; (ii) provision of inter-cultural health services (with emphasis on the reduction of maternal mortality), with community participation in public services or via community-managed models; and (iii) expansion of coverage of basic infrastructure services to indigenous and African descendant households, with attention to the cultural appropriateness of the investment. To pursue these lines of actions, the following operational and knowledge activities will be implemented:
- a) **Operational activities:** will include: (i) financing BIE pilots, with the option of scaling-up; (ii) incorporation of inter-cultural health services in selected operations; and (iii) reporting, in selected energy, water, and sanitation sector operations, of the existing indigenous-non-indigenous access gaps, and identification of potential activities to narrow these gaps.
  - b) **Knowledge activities:** will include: (i) impact evaluations of BIE and inter-cultural health services; (ii) case studies of community-managed indigenous health services; (iii) updating the Bank's ethno-engineering infrastructure guidelines and staff training; and (iv) improving race, ethnicity, and gender data through technical assistance for household surveys, censuses, administrative data collection systems, as well as national statistics institutes.

## **Dimension 2: Cultures and lands of indigenous and African descendant peoples are promoted and protected**

- 5.7 This dimension of success refers to the conservation of biodiversity in indigenous and African descendant territories, the ability of indigenous and African descendant peoples to adapt to the effects of climate change and to effectively govern their already established autonomous territories, and the ability of indigenous identity and culture to survive in the urban areas of countries in which a significant share of the indigenous population now resides in cities. To achieve these objectives the following lines of action are proposed.
- 5.8 **Lines of action:** will include: (i) support for the governance of indigenous territories and the titling of indigenous and African descendant peoples' lands and territories, in a manner that is consistent with the desires of local communities; (ii) support for strategies to protect ecosystems and provide livelihood opportunities for indigenous peoples; and (iii) disseminating effective traditional and indigenous approaches of climate change adaptation. To pursue these lines of actions the following operational and knowledge activities will be implemented:
- a) **Operational activities:** will include: (i) projects which support administrative decentralization and strengthening of governance in indigenous territories; (ii) training for indigenous peoples on adaptation to climate change; (iii) financing community-based climate change adaptations; and (iv) support for activities to promote tolerance of indigenous and African descendant peoples and "mainstream" cultural survival (e.g., community museums).
  - b) **Knowledge activities:** will include: (i) evaluations of Bank projects which promote the recovery and scaling up of traditional approaches to climate change adaptation; and (ii) evaluations of PES programs to gauge their potential for promoting protection of biodiversity in indigenous territories.

## **2. Addressing Gender Gaps**

### **Dimension 3: Women's agency is expanded**

- 5.9 Women's agency in LAC—and in the rest of world—is frequently limited by factors which keep women from reaching their full potential. These factors include lack of control over sexual and reproductive health and adolescent pregnancy (which is associated with school abandonment and lower earnings over the life cycle), violence against women (which also has been shown to reduce earnings), and limited participation in different forms of governance bodies, ranging from municipal councils and state/national legislatures to participation in the boards of private companies. To achieve these objectives the following lines of actions are proposed.
- 5.10 **Lines of action:** will include: (i) support for programs and policies to increase access to reproductive health and to reduce adolescent pregnancy; (ii) identification and financing of effective approaches for the prevention and

treatment of VAW, including in broader regional citizen security, transport and urban development agendas; (iii) promotion of women's voice and agency in the public sector at national and local levels; and (iv) promotion of gender equality in private sector firms. To pursue these lines of actions, the following operational and knowledge activities will be implemented:

- a) **Operational activities:** will include: (i) supporting information and services on sexual and reproductive health delivery with emphasis on young women and men; (ii) collaboration between Bank divisions to ensure the integration of VAW in the Bank's citizen security, health, transport and urban development operations; (iii) piloting and evaluation of innovative approaches to the prevention of VAW, including: educational programs targeting male and female adolescents, microcredit and complementary interventions as a tool for reducing VAW, and safe spaces for adolescent girls and parenting programs; (iv) developing a public sector women's leaders network; and (v) helping private sector clients develop action plans to promote gender equality within their firms.
- b) **Knowledge activities:** will include: (i) support for collection of better data on violence against women in the region; (ii) identification and dissemination of effective approaches for the prevention and treatment of VAW, including through a regional Policy Dialogue on this issue; and (iii) impact evaluations of reproductive health service delivery and of the impact on development effectiveness of the inclusion of women in governance structures of IDB projects, with an initial focus on infrastructure sectors.

#### **Dimension 4: Low income women have access to quality public services**

- 5.11 This dimension of success means that women will receive quality public services provided in a manner that reduces the transactions costs of using them and ensures coordination among service providers. Reducing the transaction costs for women is especially important given the time poverty of poor women—i.e., that work and household responsibilities leave little time available for anything else. To achieve these objectives the following lines of actions are proposed.
- 5.12 **Lines of action:** will include: (i) systematization of initial the one-stop model in El Salvador (“*Ciudad Mujer*”) including the lessons learned from its implementation and evaluation;<sup>92</sup> (ii) development of one-stop shop models in other countries as determined by country demand; and (iii) complementing of center-based services with community-based prevention programs. To pursue these lines of actions, the following operational and knowledge activities will be implemented:
  - a) **Operational activities:** will include: (i) piloting of integrated service model in countries in the region, in response to country demand; and (ii) replication and full-scale adaptation of “*Ciudad Mujer*” model in other countries, in response to country demand.

- b) **Knowledge activities:** will include: (i) an impact evaluation of “*Ciudad Mujer*” in El Salvador; (ii) impact evaluations of interventions designed to promote safe public spaces for women (e.g., women-only subway cars or buses); and (iii) dissemination events for the impact evaluations.

### 3. Gender and Diversity

#### **Dimension 5: Women, African descendants and indigenous peoples have better labor market outcomes (participation and quality of jobs) as well as expanded opportunities for entrepreneurship**

- 5.13 Success in this dimension will mean that: African descendant and female labor force participation will rise and that participation gaps will continue to shrink over time; opportunities for indigenous employment are opened in areas that are equitable and in-line with their world view; the gender and ethno-racial earning gaps will shrink as firms increasingly treat their employees equitably regardless of gender, race or ethnicity; and that African descendant, indigenous and women entrepreneurs will represent an increasing percentage of small and medium entrepreneurs as they grow their firms beyond microenterprises.
- 5.14 **Lines of action:** will include: (i) increasing the availability of childcare services and flexible work arrangements; (ii) promoting training in non-traditional sectors and use of intermediation services for groups that have been traditionally excluded from these sectors; (iii) supporting the development of intercultural business and technical training; (iv) increasing financing available to African descendant, indigenous and women-led SMEs; (v) developing products—beyond financing—that meet the needs of African descendant, indigenous and female entrepreneurs; and (vi) supporting the identification of business models within a development with identity framework that enable indigenous peoples to capitalize upon and reaffirm their cultural and natural resources. To pursue these lines of actions, the following operational and knowledge activities will be implemented across the Bank’s public and private sector windows:
  - a) **Operational activities:** will include: (i) collaboration between Bank divisions to develop childcare models that consider women’s needs and promote flexible work arrangements; (ii) collaboration between Bank divisions to increase women, African descendant, and indigenous peoples’ participation in non-traditional sectors and access to friendly intermediation services in the Bank’s labor market operations; (iii) development of marketing strategies, financial products and services tailored to the needs of women; (iv) development of financial products (e.g., business savings accounts) and financing modalities (e.g., business accelerators) that will increase the productivity and competitiveness of African descendant, indigenous and women-led business; and (v) development of culturally appropriate training for indigenous peoples and African descendants; (vi) development of projects that promote development with identity through support to African descendant- and indigenous-owned businesses; (vii) work with private



companies to support the inclusion of women and other traditionally excluded groups into their supply chains and labor force at all levels; and (viii) promotion of diversity in corporate governance.

- b) ***Knowledge activities:*** will include: (i) piloting and evaluation of flexible work arrangements; (ii) piloting and evaluation of strategies to increase participation in non-traditional training and the effectiveness of intermediation services provided to African descendants, indigenous peoples and women; (iii) evaluations to determine if psychometric testing and other alternative credit risk assessment methodologies lead to increased credit for women-owned businesses and lower losses for lending institutions; (iv) piloting and evaluating alternative funding and business development mechanisms for women-led businesses; (v) piloting and evaluating alternative business development services and technical assistance programs for indigenous-, African descendant- and women-led businesses; and (vi) development of publically available database on women, indigenous and African descendant labor force participation, as part of the broader initiative to develop an Information System on Labor Markets and Social Security (*Sistema de Información de Mercados Laborales y Seguridad Social*); and (vii) explore the feasibility of conducting research on the costs to societies of labor market discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation.

## TABLES AND FIGURES

**Table A.1 Primary net enrolment rates and completion rates for the most recent year: indigenous and non-indigenous children**

Country	Survey	Year	Net enrolment rate (%)		Primary completion rate (%)	
			Non-Indigenous	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous	Indigenous
Mexico	ENNViH	2009	97.84	97.44	88.22	77.88
Guatemala	ENCOVI	2011	94.92	92.64	44.51	31.08
Panama	ENV	2008	98.87	89.73	87.05	43.27
Ecuador	ECV	2005/2006	92.26	88.94	52.67	38.63
Peru	ENAH0	2012	82.50	80.50	87.64	73.49
Bolivia	EH	2012	98.38	98.53	78.97	69.05

*Net enrolment rate:* enrolled students aged 7 to 12 divided by the school-aged population in this age range.

*Primary completion rate:* number of students who have finished sixth grade divided by number of children aged 13.

Source: IDB calculations.

**Table A.2 Number of years ago non-indigenous children had primary school completion rates equal to the current rates for indigenous children**

Country	Number of years (non-indigenous growth rate)	Number of years (indigenous growth rate)
Mexico	12.21	1.52
Guatemala	n/a	n/a
Panama	122.94	10.55
Ecuador	n/a	2.24
Peru	11.87	2.16
Bolivia	13.09	5.68

Source: IDB calculation based on household surveys.

Note: N/A indicates calculations not possible because of data limitations.

**Table A.3. Maternal Mortality Rates (per 100,000 live births)**

Country	Indigenous	Non-Indigenous	% difference	Year
Guatemala	163	77.7	109%	2007
Mexico	56.95	38.5	48%	2010
Panama	421.4	72.5	481%	2011

Sources and Calculations:

**Guatemala:** *Estudio Nacional de Mortalidad Materna*, published 2011 but using data from 2007. Study conducted by the *Secretaría General de Planificación y Programación de la Presidencia* (SEGEPLAN) and the *Ministerio de Salud Pública y Asistencia Social* (MSPAS). The study was disaggregated by indigenous and non-indigenous individuals.

**Mexico:** *Indicadores 2011, Objetivo de Desarrollo del Milenio 5*; Study conducted by the *Observatorio de Mortalidad Materna en México* using data from the 2010 Census and from administrative records of the Secretary of Health. Data for indigenous maternal mortality rates is the average rate in all states with an indigenous population of higher than 40%. The original source does not present data disaggregated by ethnicity.

**Panama:** *Situación de Salud de Panamá* (2013); study conducted by the Ministry of Health. Data for indigenous peoples corresponds to the average maternal mortality rate in the *Comarcas* of Ngabe-Buglé and Guna Yala.

**Table A.4 Indigenous and non-indigenous access to essential infrastructure services**

Country	Source	Year	Adequate access to potable water (%)		Electricity (%)	
			Non-indigenous	Indigenous	Non-indigenous	Indigenous
Bolivia	ECH	2012	85.95	57.81	96.13	81.96
Brazil	PNAD	2012	89.6	80.3	99.5	93.48
Chile	CASEN	2011	94.94	86.42	99.76	98.83
Costa Rica	Census	2011	.	.	99.35	80.54
Ecuador	ECV	2005	86.2	68.73	97.5	79.93
Guatemala	ENCOVI	2011	87.16	82.14	85.73	66.5
Mexico	ENIGH	2012	67.35	50.83	98.73	96.16
Panama	Census	2010	96.78	67.92	91.55	38.63
Paraguay	EPH	2012	98.13	92.48	99.47	96.63

**Table A.5 A. Number of years ago non-indigenous households' coverage rates equal to current coverage rates for indigenous households**

Access to Potable Water		
Country	Number of years (non-indigenous growth rate)	Number of years (indigenous growth rate)
Bolivia	49.5	344.0
Brazil	n/a	n/a
Chile	272.2	18.7
Costa Rica	.	.
Ecuador	12.2	n/a
Guatemala	59.5	25.9
Honduras	.	.
Mexico	4.3	1.9
Panama	252.1	16.9
Paraguay	9.7	10.6
Venezuela	.	.

Source: IDB calculations based on household surveys.

Note: n/a indicates calculations not feasible because of data limitations.

For methodological details, see Table A.2.

**Table A.5 B. Number of years ago non-indigenous households' coverage rates equal to current coverage rates for indigenous households.**

Access to Electricity		
Country	Number of years (non-indigenous growth rate)	Number of years (indigenous growth rate)
Bolivia	13.4	5.9
Brazil	15.0	4.7
Chile	8.2	1.4
Costa Rica	109.12	8.44
Ecuador	22.8	3.0
Guatemala	23.0	28.8
Honduras	.	.
Mexico	4.5	3.4
Panama	111.0	23.9
Paraguay	7.0	2.5
Venezuela	.	.

Source: IDB calculations based on household surveys.

Note: n/a indicates calculations not feasible because of data limitations.

**Table A.6. Investment loans and gender: a comparison of the IDB and the World Bank**

<b>A. Direct Investment Loans on Gender in the IDB and World Bank</b>			
		Inter-American Development Bank - Direct Investment Financial Operations	World Bank - Direct Investment Loans in Gender
FY 2011	Total Number of Projects	1	1
	Total Value (US\$ millions)	20	1.9
FY 2012	Total Number of Projects	1	1
	Total Value (US\$ millions)	75	2.79
FY 2013	Total Number of Projects	0	0
	Total Value	n/a	n/a
FY 2011-2013	Total Number of Projects	2	2
	Total Value (US\$ millions)	95	4.69

Sources: for IDB: IDB Portfolio Review and Projects and Operations and *Progress Report on the Implementation of the Gender Policy and Gender Action Plan for Operation, 2011-2013*; for World Bank: <http://www.worldbank.org/projects/>.

Note: Total Values in US\$ millions. Fiscal years are not the same for the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank. While the IDB fiscal year is January through December, the World Bank is July through June.

Note: definitions of direct investment loans differ between the IDB and the World Bank. The IDB refers to any SG loan that has as its primary objective the closing of a gender gap as a direct investment loan for gender equality. The World Bank does not use this terminology, but rather assigns “themes” to projects. One project will generally have multiple themes, with percentages assigned to each theme reflecting the relative importance of each theme. We (arbitrarily) define “direct investment” for the World Bank to be any project which more than 30% has assigned to the gender theme.

<b>B. Gender Integration in Projects in the IDB and World Bank</b>			
		Inter-American Development Bank- Sovereign Guaranteed Loans	World Bank - LAC Gender Loans*
FY 2011	Total Number of Projects	19	3
	Total Value (US\$ millions)	1232.4	501.9
FY 2012	Total Number of Projects	38	5
	Total Value (US\$ millions)	1903.8	702.79
FY 2013	Total Number of Projects	41	6
	Total Value (US\$ millions)	5053.5	1135
FY 2011-2013	Total Number of Projects	98	14
	Total Value (US\$ millions)	8189.7	2339.69

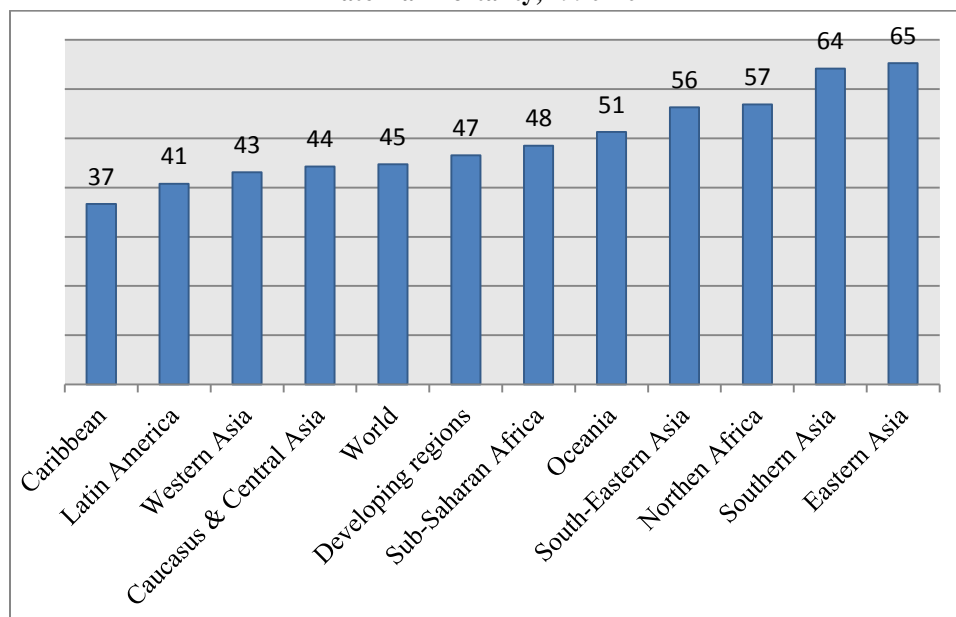
Sources: for IDB: Portfolio Review and Projects and Operations and progress Report on the Implementation of the Gender Policy and Gender Action Plan for Operation, 2011-2013 (IDB, 2014), for World Bank: <http://www.worldbank.org/projects/>.

Note: Total Values in US\$ millions. Fiscal years are not the same for the World Bank and the Inter-American Development Bank. While the IDB fiscal year is January through December, the World Bank is July through June.

Note: Definitions used to define gender integration into projects differ between the IDB and the World Bank. The IDB looks at only at Sovereign Guarantee loans for which a Gender Result was indicated (See Annex IX of the GAP 2011-2013 report). The World Bank, as discussed above, assigns themes to projects. Included in this table for the World Bank are all projects for which gender was identified as a theme, regardless of the % assigned to the gender theme.

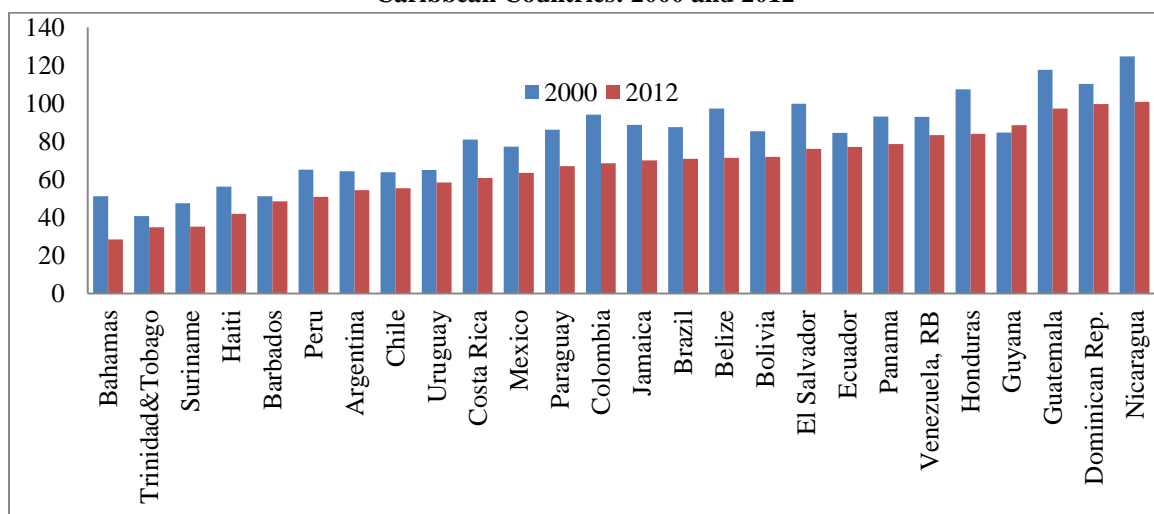
\*Includes Specific Investment, Development Policy, Technical Assistance and Emergency Recovery Loans.

**Figure A.1. Progress of world regions in attaining the MDG on maternal mortality: % reduction in maternal mortality, 1990-2014**



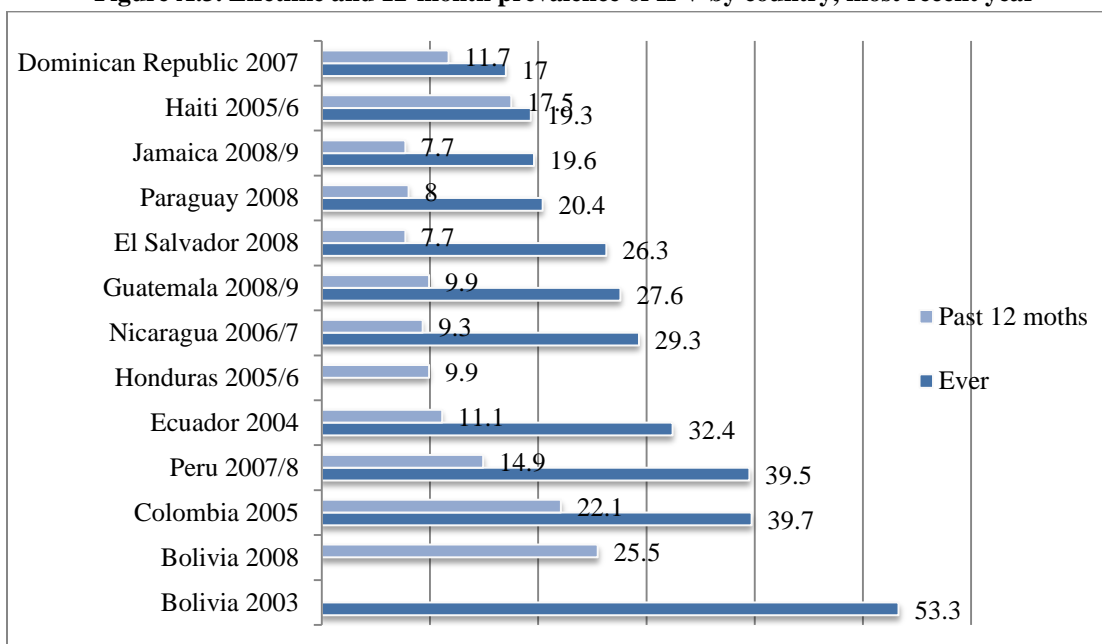
Source: United Nations, 2014.

**Figure A.2 Adolescent Pregnancy rates (births per 1,000 women aged 15-19) for Latin American and Caribbean Countries: 2000 and 2012**



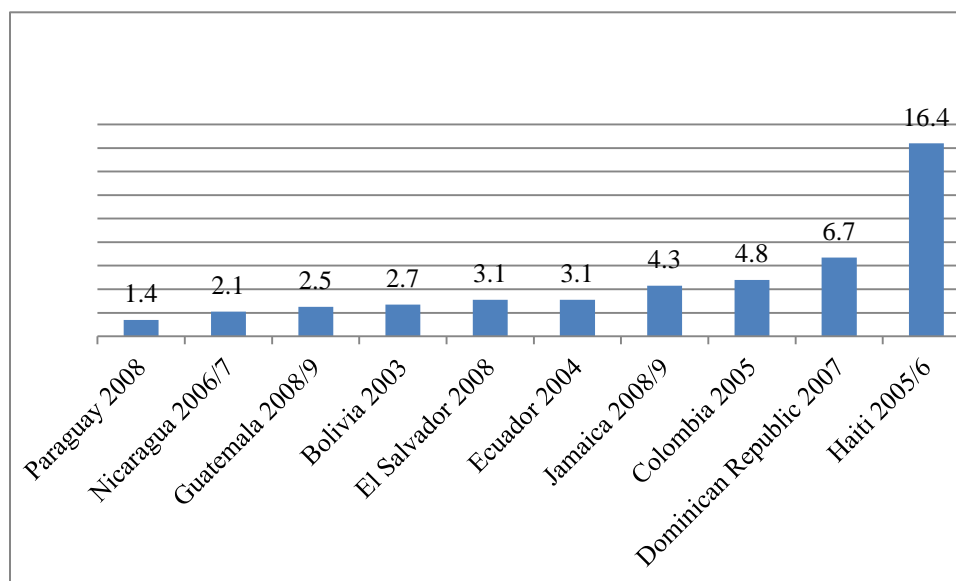
Source: World Development Indicators. World Bank, last consulted August, 2014.

**Figure A.3. Lifetime and 12-month prevalence of IPV by country, most recent year**



Source: PAHO, 2012.

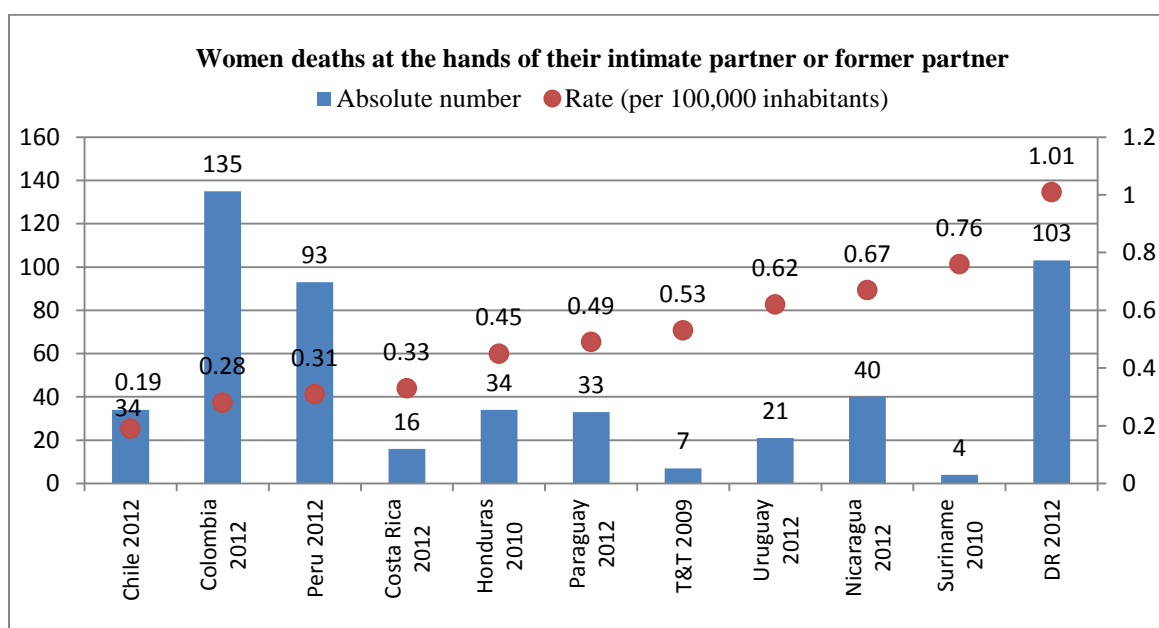
**Figure A.4. Lifetime sexual violence by non-intimate perpetrator (% of women)**



Source: PAHO, 2012.

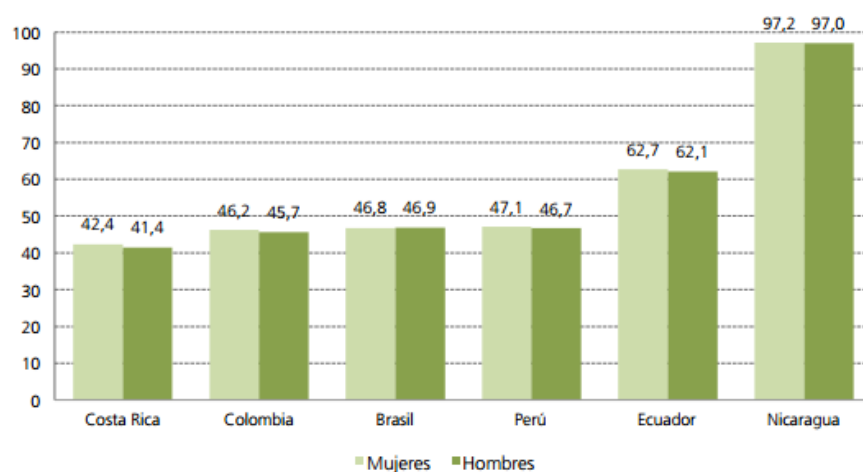


**Figure A.5. Femicide deaths and rates, most recent year**



Source: ECLAC website.

**Figure A.6. Latin America (6 countries): girls, boys and indigenous adolescents (6 to 19 years old) who speak indigenous language. Census circa 2010 (percentages)**



Source: ECLAC. 2014. *Mujeres Indígenas: nuevas protagonistas para nuevas políticas.*

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<sup>1</sup> The work of the United Nations and the Organization of American States on African descendants has had a similar focus.

<sup>2</sup> The countries with the most striking poverty gaps are Panama, Guatemala and Paraguay. (Paes de Barros, et al., 2009). In Panama, for example 90% of indigenous peoples are poor and 69.5% live in extreme poverty, while among the non-indigenous population only 30% are poor. While overall poverty reduction has been rapid (a decrease of 14%), the decrease in indigenous poverty has been much slower (4.3%) (Inchauste and Cesar, 2010). The situation is similar in Guatemala and Paraguay. In Guatemala, 72.3% of indigenous peoples live in poverty compared with 43.8% of the non-indigenous population; in Paraguay 74.4% of indigenous people live in poverty compared to 49% of the non-indigenous population (CEPAL, 2010).

<sup>3</sup> Impact evaluations using Randomized Control Trials (RCT) are especially difficult to undertake in the area of development with identity. RCT require that a standardized intervention be applied to a large enough sample of beneficiaries so that there is sufficient statistical power to detect impacts on these beneficiaries, in comparison to a control group not receiving the intervention. But a core element of development with identity is tailoring interventions to fit indigenous peoples' own priorities. This means that standardizing an intervention across communities is frequently impossible—and not even desirable, given the need to respect the views and preferences of each community. So, while RCTs will be undertaken of interventions benefitting indigenous peoples, they will not always be feasible—and other approaches to evaluation, such as participatory evaluations, will need to be used. A similar argument can be made for traditional rural African descendant communities.

<sup>4</sup> It is also important to note that impact evaluation results are context-specific; what works in one location may not necessarily work in another and until there is a solid body of evidence that spans a number of countries and types of countries, results should be interpreted with caution.

<sup>5</sup> The term "second generation" is used to explicitly capture the progress that Latin America and the Caribbean have made toward gender equality. The 2012 World Development Report (World Bank, 2012a), focusing on gender equality, identified three domains of gender equality: endowments, agency and economic opportunity. Using this framework, there has been substantial progress toward gender equality in LAC in the area of human capital endowments; the two remaining challenges in endowments are in the area of maternal health and for educational endowments for indigenous women. There remain significant challenges in the areas of agency (most prominently the ability to live lives free of violence) and economic opportunity.

<sup>6</sup> Venn Diagram Area B: Some knowledge available about effective approaches. Note that while some evidence supports the effectiveness of bilingual, inter-cultural education (see below); this is an area where significantly more analytical work is needed.

<sup>7</sup> The Gender and Diversity Sector Framework Document is inherently cross-sectoral in nature, as discussed in paragraph 1.4. Many of the most important development challenges faced by women, indigenous peoples and African descendants will be addressed by interventions that are developed by

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Bank divisions other than the Gender and Diversity Division. Thus, this SFD explicitly draws on elements of other already-approved SFDs where these documents have made reference to effective interventions to address gender or diversity issues.

- <sup>8</sup> Indigenous children in LAC are about twice as likely as non-indigenous children to suffer from stunting as a result of chronic malnutrition (PAHO, 2008b).
- <sup>9</sup> Schools with significant indigenous student populations that did not receive strengthen their BIE programs showed no progress in closing indigenous/non-indigenous performance gaps.
- <sup>10</sup> The relevance of US bilingual education is of limited for three reasons: (i) bilingual education in the United States is often a bridge to English, rather than a goal in itself (Rossell and Kuder, 2005); (ii) programs in the U.S. tend to be bilingual and not bilingual and inter-cultural, as is the case in Latin America and the Caribbean; and (iii) there is an unresolved debate about the effectiveness of bilingual education in improving educational outcomes in the U.S.; the debate arises because of differences in duration and approach of bilingual programs, differences in outcome variables tracked, and differences in minimum standards of analytical rigor for inclusion of studies in meta-analyses (Rossell and Kuder, 2005; Greene, 1997; Fitzgerald and Relyea-Kim, 2013).
- <sup>11</sup> A study of parents' perceptions of BIE in Guatemala found that parents appreciated teaching in Mayan languages, but also were worried that their children would not learn Spanish well (Juarez y Asociados, 2013).
- <sup>12</sup> Unfortunately, while there have been experiences of cultural adaptation of health services for African descendant populations (e.g., the Nicaraguan Health Ministry has developed training manuals for service providers that address both indigenous and African descendent cultural adaptations—see Cunningham (2002) and Chavez Perez et al. (2010)), the impacts of these adaptations on service usage and health outcomes have not been documented.
- <sup>13</sup> It is important to note that while community health workers serve as an important element of comprehensive health care, they are not a substitute for a weak health system. Programs such as the IDB's Meso-American Health Initiative address both systemic health system issues and provide culturally adapted services.
- <sup>14</sup> <http://www.supersalud.gov.co/supersalud/Default.aspx?tabid=826>
- <sup>15</sup> Defensoría del Pueblo. Índice de satisfacción de usuarios de salud. 2009. In 2012, the Ministry of Health included four EPSi in its evaluation of health system outcomes; two EPSi were ranked in the high category, while two were in the medium-low category. See: <http://www.minsalud.gov.co/Documentos%20y%20Publicaciones/Ordenamiento-EPS-20%20diciembre.pdf>.
- <sup>16</sup> Venn Diagram Area B for co-management of protected areas (some knowledge available of effective approaches); Venn Diagram Area A (no knowledge of effective approaches) on payment for ecosystem services); Venn Diagram Area B (some knowledge of effective approaches) for land titling and demarcation of territories—although much more analysis is needed on this topic.
- <sup>17</sup> Indigenous peoples have an advantage in monitoring protected areas, given their local knowledge and local governance structures.
- <sup>18</sup> This program was jointly financed by the GEF, World Bank and IDB. Another example of the importance of incorporating the belief systems of indigenous peoples into the management of protected areas comes from Madagascar, where a protected area included sites of spiritual significance to local indigenous groups, thus creating strong incentives for local communities to become actively involved in the conservation process (Gardner et al., 2008).
- <sup>19</sup> Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras and Mexico have adopted policies of decentralized forestry that include community management that have resulted in lower levels of deforestation and improved overall management of protected areas (UN-REDD, 2012). For example, in the Mayan Biosphere Reserve, where community rights were recognized during the 1990s, deforestation has been almost negligible due to the active forest management of community forestry concessions. Further, these concessions have led to important socio-economic benefits for community members (FAO, 2014).
- <sup>20</sup> In Ecuador's Yasuni National Park, the Kichwa Añangu community has generated income of more than US\$2 million per year through the Napo Wildlife Center eco-tourism project; this community has completely abandoned the hunting of wildlife, which is now protected in a territory of more than 21,000 hectares of tropical forest (Tinoco, 2014).

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- <sup>21</sup> Payment for Environmental Services (PES) schemes are programs in which individual households or communities receive cash payments in exchange for exercising environmental stewardship of their lands.
- <sup>22</sup> The limitation of PES as an instrument for the management of forestry resources is discussed in the Agriculture and Natural Resources Management Sector Framework Document (Paragraphs 2.22-2.23).
- <sup>23</sup> There are important titling gaps between rural indigenous and non-indigenous peoples. (Patrinós et al. 2007) As much as 40% of the land in Latin America is controlled by indigenous peoples (see paragraph 3.14), however the actual percentage of formally held indigenous lands in the region is unclear, and represents an important area for future analytical work.
- <sup>24</sup> Venn Diagram Area C (substantial evidence on good practice approaches) in: (i) adolescent pregnancy and (ii) maternal mortality. Venn Diagram Area B (some knowledge of effective approaches) for violence against women.
- <sup>25</sup> World Bank, 2014b; Sen, 1999.
- <sup>26</sup> The McQueston study was the first systematic review to focus exclusively on interventions in developing countries. Of the 21 studies which met the criterion for methodological rigor to be included in the review, a total of six studies focused on eight interventions in six Latin American and Caribbean countries. LAC interventions came from Brazil, Chile, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico and Nicaragua.
- <sup>27</sup> Not all programs that have been successful in reducing adolescent pregnancy have had that as an explicit goal. An intervention to promote leadership and mediation in Panama (with the objective of reducing school violence), for example, was found to produce a reduction in adolescent pregnancy (Gibbons, 2013).
- <sup>28</sup> Some common conditions are: symptoms of depression or anxiety, sleep disorders, PTSD, alcohol and other substance abuse, unexplained chronic gastrointestinal or genitourinary symptoms, chronic pain, or adverse reproductive outcomes, among others (WHO, 2013).
- <sup>29</sup> Both programs have since spread beyond the initial countries. *Sexto Sentido*, a soap opera that is part of the SDSI program, has been broadcasted in a number of Central American countries, as well as Bolivia. Program H has been subject to impact evaluations in the following countries: Brazil, India, the Balkans, Ethiopia and Namibia.
- <sup>30</sup> SDSI activities included: *Sexto Sentido*, a soap opera which was broadcast weekly on a national TV network; a *Sexto Sentido* radio show, a nightly call-in talk radio show targeting youth and which was broadcasted simultaneously on six radio stations; and community based, face-to-face activities with youth including youth leadership training camps and visits to schools.
- <sup>31</sup> SDSI also produced significant impacts in other areas, including: a 42% increase in condom use in casual sexual encounters and a 13% increase in willingness to be friends with a gay person.
- <sup>32</sup> Note that in Brazil the majority of program beneficiaries were African descendants.
- <sup>33</sup> Although policing and judicial services are not discussed in this SFD, best practices, international evidence, and areas where the IDB should act are addressed in the Citizen Security and Justice SFD.
- <sup>34</sup> Mostly from the U.S., but also from Pakistan and South Africa.
- <sup>35</sup> Venn Diagram Area C (substantial evidence on good practice approaches) for: (i) child care; (ii) active labor market policies for women; (iii) access to credit for women entrepreneurs. Venn Diagram Area B (some evidence of effective approaches) for certification programs for firms in gender equality, skills training for women in non-traditional occupations, and business development services for women entrepreneurs. Venn Diagram A (no knowledge of effective approaches) these issues for African descendant and indigenous populations. Note that the area of women's labor force participation and earnings is one of the areas with most available analytical work on effectiveness of interventions is available, but even here there are areas for which additional analytical work is needed (e.g., what works to promote non-traditional vocational training and careers).
- <sup>36</sup> Brazil, Chile and India have legal mandates that employers with a sufficient number of female workers must offer workplace childcare. In Chile there has been evidence of such discrimination.
- <sup>37</sup> According to the Labor SFD these groups include youth who dropped out of school or who lack the skills employers demand, women who have been out of the labor market for a long period, poor people who may be beneficiaries of social protection programs, elderly, people with disabilities, ex-convicts, or people who might be discriminated because of their gender, race, or other personal characteristics.

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<sup>38</sup> This is different from results from European countries, where there is little evidence of sex-differentiated impacts (Card et al., 2010).

<sup>39</sup> The IDB is supporting evaluations of labor intermediation services in the region that will help fill the knowledge gap about its effectiveness.

<sup>40</sup> Switzerland's Federal Office for Gender Equality developed a statistical tool called Logib. It is a self-assessment pay calculator to check whether or not a company is implementing equal pay for equal work between women and men. Its use is mandatory for companies with more than 50 employees that participate in public procurements. Germany developed a similar tool called Logib-D. Their effectiveness has not been evaluated, but their use has been limited.

<sup>41</sup> There are also examples of private certification programs for workplace gender equality like Swiss based Edge Certified <http://www.edge-cert.org/>.

<sup>42</sup> For the purpose of this document, non-traditional occupations and sectors refer to all of those areas in which indigenous peoples, Afro-descendants and women have traditionally been under represented, relatively new sectors and technologies, and in leadership positions. One area that has traditionally seen this under-representation has been in the STEM (Science Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) fields.

<sup>43</sup> The intervention highlighted the increased economic returns in male-dominated trades and used "soft persuasive" methods such as a video of female auto-mechanics in an attempt to encourage women to pursue traditionally male-dominated trades.

<sup>44</sup> Beyond the topic of gender, there is a large literature that examines the impact of informing students about returns to schooling in developing countries and finds, in general, that providing such information can have a large impact on school attendance (Jensen, 2010 and Nguyen, 2008).

<sup>45</sup> A recent IDB-financed RCT of a three hour *telenovela*-based training project in Peru similarly found that the intervention produced statistically significant effects on business practices, such as a reduction in the use of informal credit and a separation of personal and business expenses, but found no significant impact on business income (Torero et al, 2013).

<sup>46</sup> This IDB-supported Goldman Sachs program involved 150 hours of classroom training and 120 hours of one-on-one mentoring.

<sup>47</sup> 59% of women interviewed reported mentoring from 1 to 3 additional women; 23% reported mentoring from 4 to 8; 10% from 9 to 20; and 8% reported mentoring more than 20 other women.

<sup>48</sup> Venn Diagram Area B (some evidence of effective approaches) for quotas for women political candidates and women's participation in corporate governance. Venn Diagram Area A (no evidence of effective approaches) for other areas discussed in this section.

<sup>49</sup> These territories are enshrined in the constitutions of Bolivia, Colombia, Ecuador, Panama and Venezuela. Only the Panama indigenous *comarcas* have the status of decentralized political administrative entities. The *comarca* governments in Panama, however, do not receive budget transfers from the national government however they do collect entrance fees for access to their waterways and land.

<sup>50</sup> Sumak Kawsay is defined in Ecuador's National Development Plan as "the style of life that enables happiness and the permanency of cultural and environmental diversity; it is harmony, equality, equity and solidarity. It is not the quest for opulence or infinite economic growth" (Senplades, 2013).

<sup>51</sup> IDB calculation based on IDB database Women's representation in national legislatures in LAC. The percentage of women in both houses of Congress in Latin American countries with quotas is 26.3%, versus 17.0% in countries without quotas, and the difference is statistically significant (IDB calculations based on Inter-Parliamentary data from 2014. Note that neither of these calculations can imply causality, and no experimental evaluation of quotas has been done (nor would it be very feasible, given that quotas are typically implemented at the national level).

<sup>52</sup> Other non-RCT studies find that women's participation in water committees improves quality and sustainability of services and promotes empowerment among female beneficiaries (see Bokhari, 2006; Wash, 2006). For example, a global study of community-managed water supply services in 88 communities found that providing community groups, specifically women and the poor, with greater control over the establishment of water services empowered them to manage their services more effectively in the future (Gross et al., 2001). Health-promoting use of the improved services was also higher when women participated in the decisions.

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- <sup>53</sup> Note that these impact evaluations in Kenya and Sierra Leone were carried out in settings that are culturally very different from countries in the LAC region; their relevance for the LAC region is therefore limited.
- <sup>54</sup> A counterfactual analyses of participatory budgets finds that they “increased the flow of information about municipal governance and created new spaces for citizens to voice their demands and scrutinize what were once highly insulated and discretionary decision-making processes” (Mansuri and Rao, 2013).
- <sup>55</sup> Zamboni (2007) finds that, on average, Brazilian counties where participatory budget policies have been implemented are better managed and have recorded fewer irregularities than similar counties without them. Goncalves (2009) finds that an increase in sanitation and health services spending led to a reduction in infant mortality in the municipalities that adopted participatory budgets. Boulding and Wampler (2010) find that participatory budget municipalities in Brazil spend a slightly higher share of their budget on health and education programs, but there is little evidence that this shift in budget priorities affects measurable outcomes.
- <sup>56</sup> IDB researchers are in the process of analyzing the OSIRIS database from Bureau Van Dijk to produce a more sophisticated analysis of the link in Latin America between female presence on boards and in senior management, on the one hand, and firm performance, on the other.
- <sup>57</sup> Please note that there is one additional challenge discussed below—limited access to key infrastructure services for indigenous peoples—which does not have a corresponding discussion on policies and programs above. The explanation for this asymmetry is simple: while an important development challenge for the region, little or no information is available on effective approaches to promoting indigenous peoples’ access to these services.
- <sup>58</sup> The level to which data is available disaggregated by race, ethnicity and gender varies from country to country as well as by the issue being monitored. Differences in ethno-racial definitions between countries further complicate the availability of comparable statistics across countries.
- <sup>59</sup> These calculations are sensitive to the annual rate of increased coverage used (whether for indigenous children or non-indigenous children—with the latter producing must larger estimates of lags).
- <sup>60</sup> Indigenous adolescents aged 12-17 are 3.4 times more likely to be behind two or more years in age-for-grade progression in Brazil, and 2.9, 2.4 and 2.2 years in Panama, Peru and Paraguay, respectively (SITEAL, 2012).
- <sup>61</sup> Again, some of the gaps in completion rates are quite large. The probability that an indigenous individual completes secondary school is more than 20 percentage points lower in Ecuador, Panama and Paraguay.
- <sup>62</sup> As noted in Section I, for the Bank’s work on African descendants focuses on contexts where African descendants suffer exclusion due to their racial or ethnic status or origin. In general, this is not the case in the Caribbean and hence this section does not discuss educational outcomes for African descendants in the Caribbean. Nonetheless, it is important to note that there are important gender issues in education in the Caribbean, where boys’ dropout rates significantly exceed those for girls. This is an important issue and one which is explicitly addressed as a line of action in the Education and Early Childhood Sector Framework Document (“invest in initiatives that seek to close gender and ethnicity gaps in education, such as school dropout among young people in the Caribbean...”).
- <sup>63</sup> As of 2006, the gaps were 13 years in Guatemala, 10 years in Panama and 6 years in Mexico (Haneman, 2006, cited in United Nations, 2009). Ethnicity-disaggregated life expectancy data are neither available for a wide range of countries nor regularly reported.
- <sup>64</sup> The availability of regional data on MMR gaps by race and ethnicity are difficult to find. Data from 2004 for Brazil show that African descendant women are three times more likely to die in childbirth than their white counterparts due in part to low-quality pre-natal care (Brazilian Health Ministry, 2004). Older data from the Pacific Coast of Colombia show Afro-Colombian women with a maternal mortality rate that is over four times greater than the national average (Ministry of Health Colombia 1997). In Ecuador, Esmeraldas—a city that is 80% Afro-descendant—has an infant mortality rate that is double the national average (Ministry of Health Ecuador, 1997).
- <sup>65</sup> Although there are various reports identifying the gap in access to services between indigenous peoples in Latin America and society as a whole, there are few studies that identify the most effect interventions for closing these gaps.



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- <sup>66</sup> As an example, the Camisea gas fields in Peru are located in the Lower Urubamba, inhabited by 20,000 Amazonian indigenous persons. The Lower Urubamba is part of a municipality of 45,000 persons; the capital, Echarate, is located in the Middle Urubamba. In 2013, Echarate received US\$175m in royalties from Camisea gas fields, and since 2004 has accumulated US\$394m in unspent royalties. In 2013, Echarate's investment in Lower Urubamba was a meager 1.9% of the 2013 municipality's total investment. Source: IDB calculations on the basis of data from the Ministry of Finance's "Project Database".
- <sup>67</sup> For example, 146 of the 214 social conflicts (68%) that took place in Peru from January to June 2014 involved indigenous peoples—and many of them had to do with socio-environmental issues.
- <sup>68</sup> While the issue of language loss is important to the region, little definitive international evidence has been collected on the effectiveness of interventions to reduce the loss of endangered languages; thus, international evidence on protecting endangered languages was not included in Section II of this document.
- <sup>69</sup> The cultural factors of "folklorization" and "language abandonment" are driving language loss among these populations. Folklorization occurs when a language becomes used only in certain fields or at certain times, and not more generally. Language abandonment occurs when the speakers of a language either hide its use or prefer that their children not learn it.
- <sup>70</sup> For example, the U.N. Deputy High Commissioner for Human Rights Kyung-wha Kang was quoted as noting that 647 women were killed in El Salvador and 375 in Guatemala in 2011 (source: UN Webpage: <http://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2013/4/femicide-in-latin-america>). These would be equivalent to rates of 9.8 and 2.4 per 100,000 inhabitants respectively. Since these data are not from a comparable source, they are not reported in Annex A.10.
- <sup>71</sup> The seven countries that have data available by race and/or ethnicity in their household surveys are; Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Ecuador, Guatemala, Paraguay and Peru (Ñopo, 2012).
- <sup>72</sup> This calculation was done disaggregating sectors at one digit. Further disaggregation allows identifying the level of occupational segregation more clearly.
- <sup>73</sup> 35% compared to Europe and Central Asia (34%) and Sub-Saharan Africa (6 to 8%).
- <sup>74</sup> The perception is that consultations with indigenous peoples have been more successful than those with African descendant communities; these latter have been characterized by strong debates about with whom the consultations should be undertaken (community at large, community councils, or special representatives designated by the community councils). Source: Tianna Paschel, private correspondence.
- <sup>75</sup> Some indigenous territories were recognized political administrative entities long before this. The oldest in the region is the Kuna Yala comarca in Panama, which was created in 1871 when Panama was still a department of Colombia. The San Blas (Kuna Yala) comarca was recognized under Panamanian legislation in 1953.
- <sup>76</sup> Political representation of women is higher in the Caribbean than in Latin America. For the Caribbean, 32.9% of parliamentarians were women in 2014, compared to 25.9% in Latin America.
- <sup>77</sup> Calculations based on United Nations (2014).
- <sup>78</sup> Sources: Congress members and ministers in LAC (IPU 2014); mayors and city councilmembers in LA (Schneider et al. 2012); parliamentary committee chairs, party presidents and national executive committee members in LA (Llanos and Roza 2014); judges in high courts in LAC (IAD 2013).
- <sup>79</sup> Women balancing work and domestic responsibilities.
- <sup>80</sup> The Gender Policy includes both proactive actions (mainstreaming and direct investment in projects designed to promote gender equality) and preventive actions (including gender among the body of Bank safeguards).
- <sup>81</sup> Since this report was written, the definition of "gender-related results indicator" has been tightened so that mere sex disaggregation of beneficiaries no longer counts as a gender-related result.
- <sup>82</sup> Since the OVE report, additional consultants have been added to ESG to bolster the ability to administer the gender safeguard, in addition to other actions to increase its capacity.
- <sup>83</sup> This second category refers to loans that include at least one gender related result indicator that is supported by a discussion of gender issues and action to close gaps in gender equality following the vertical logic of the project.

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- <sup>84</sup> Please note that private sector loans cannot be included in this exercise as their effectiveness monitoring mechanisms are not strictly comparable. However, since 2012 the development effectiveness windows of the private sector management areas have made significant progress in the integration of gender into their respective project monitoring and quality review systems and processes for NSG operations. Further, with an eye towards improving coordination between IDB's private sector window, a Private Sector Working Group on Gender has been created in 2014 to align definitions, improve reporting on sex-disaggregated indicators, and develop and standardize gender components within the different private sector development effectiveness tools.
- <sup>85</sup> These factors were identified in an external evaluation of the first three years of implementation of the Gender Policy.
- <sup>86</sup> Such as the Bank's Ethnoengineering guidelines (Perafan et al., 2005).
- <sup>87</sup> An additional operation was approved to support Honduran Afro descendants and indigenous populations, with infrastructure investments, and the economic, social, cultural and environmental areas (Indigenous and Black Communities Support - HO0193).
- <sup>88</sup> Excluding loans in preparation for 2015, the average for 2011-2014 falls to less than one project every other year.
- <sup>89</sup> Note that several large-scale investment grants are not included in this list. Important investment grants include the Meso-American projects in Oaxaca and Central America which focus on maternal health, especially in indigenous populations, and three investment grants focusing on indigenous peoples and climate change (two in Honduras and one in several Central American countries).
- <sup>90</sup> The initial calculations suggest that the IDB may be unique in the area of diversity because of its emphasis on targeted, proactive operations (stand-alone) for both indigenous peoples and African descendants.
- <sup>91</sup> Given the critical challenges facing indigenous peoples and African descendants in the region (described in Section III) and the lack of knowledge about effective interventions, there are only two options open to the Bank: adopt a learning-by-doing approach or not undertake operational work with these populations. The former approach is advocated in this SFD. OVE's Indigenous Portfolio Review noted that the Bank's projects on indigenous issues typically had low evaluability (see paragraph 4.5). While it is challenging to conduct impact evaluations of projects that focus on development with identity (see Section II), the Bank will make particular efforts to design indigenous projects which are more evaluable.
- <sup>92</sup> "*Ciudad Mujer*", in El Salvador, is undergoing a rigorous impact evaluation whose results will be ready for dissemination during the first quarter of 2015.