51th UNITED NATIONS GRADUATE STUDY PROGRAMME (GSP)

Palais des Nations, Geneva
1 - 14 July 2013

“Gender equality and the empowerment of women”
Report of the Working Groups
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Foreword

Welcome to the final report of the United Nations Graduate Study Programme 2013 on the theme “Gender equality and the empowerment of women”.

For over five decades graduates from all over the world have travelled to the Palais des Nations to attend one of the United Nations’ longest-running educational programmes. The Graduate Study Programme seeks to help promising young professionals better understand the work of the United Nations, provide them with a perspective on multilateral relations and international development and an insight into the associated challenges. The participants have the opportunity to learn about the important role that Geneva plays in multilateral diplomacy, and to network with peers who hope to specialize in the same field. At the same time, the United Nations takes the opportunity to listen to those fresh and diverse voices, to take on board their ideas and insight, and to build a stronger relationship with the young leaders of tomorrow.

In 2013 the two-week programme was intense and wide-ranging, and involved lectures and seminars with specialists and high-level officials from almost every United Nations organization based in Geneva. Participants also heard from the new UN Youth Envoy, the Special Rapporteur of the Secretary-General on Sexual Violence in Conflict, a Director of UN Women and the United Kingdom Ambassador who spoke about women in leadership roles.

The participants, who represented 33 countries, were assigned to five working groups moderated by gender specialists from the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS (UNAIDS), United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, United Nations Population Fund, International Labour Organization and International Organization for Migration. The Moderators led the Working Groups in developing proposals and case study analysis on various aspects of gender equality and the empowerment of women. On the final day of the programme the groups gave presentations on their work. Afterwards they produced detailed papers explaining their projects, which varied from a proposal for an awareness-raising campaign to a detailed and far-reaching support document aimed at helping a Government implement policies aimed to empower women.

We would like to thank the five moderators who dedicated time and resources to the students, and most of all the participants themselves – it was a pleasure hosting and working with you.

The five papers, each containing unique and inspirational proposals, are set out in this publication. We hope you enjoy them.

The Graduate Study Programme team
United Nations Information Service, Geneva
Dear Ms. Momal-Vanian,

Dear soon-to-be alumni of the Graduate Study Programme,

Allow me to start by conveying to you the greetings and congratulations of Director-General To-
kayev, who is out of Geneva and could not unfortunately be here in person today.

I am however grateful for the opportunity this creates for me to be with you, and to deliver on his behalf some remarks on gender empowerment.

As you have no doubt heard repeatedly from the representatives across the United Nations system, promoting women’s full participation in all areas is one of the United Nations’ top priorities. It is a programmatic priority externally in our work to address global challenges. And it is a management priority internally – within the United Nations Secretariat.

A better world depends on true gender equality. I believe that this fact is now largely accepted on a global scale. What evidence is there of this, you may ask? Well, anecdotally, I would point to the awarding in 2011 – for the first time in history – of the Nobel Peace Prize to three women - Ellen Johnson Sirleaf, Leymah Gbowee and Tawakkol Karman - for their non-violent struggle for women’s safety and for women’s rights to full participation in peace-building work.

I might also point to two unusual facts about your programme: your participant list includes 15 men and 57 women, and the presenters and moderators included on your programme include 4 men and 27 women. I am not entirely sure how to interpret these, but I don’t think I have ever seen such statistics before!

Over the past decades, the United Nations has made great efforts to promote gender equality - from far-reaching treaties, to the landmark Beijing Conference, to the Millennium Development Goals. Critics might counter that much of this was simply words. In some measure, they are correct, though these words, the norms set in these crucial documents and meetings, are an essential foundation, on which will rest all the implementation work to follow. Similarly, despite shortcomings, historians may well, with the perspective of time, judge the Millennium Development Goals, specifically as they relate to the health, education, and empowerment of women, to have been fundamental in turning the tide.

This work of course is far from done. That is why the United Nations has launched a global strategy for women’s and children’s health called Every Woman Every Child. For too many women, access to health care is unavailable even though it is critical for building stable, peaceful and productive societies.

The Secretary-General has also launched a campaign against the horrific violence faced by so many women and girls in conflict areas - from domestic abuse to sexual exploitation in armed conflict - violence from which no country is immune. This again is slow work, and will not be accomplished overnight, but it must be done.
I was reminded that in five years of working in Secretary-General Ban’s cabinet and travelling with him to various natural disasters, conflict zones and crises, I have never seen him so moved as when he came out of the operating room of the Heal Africa hospital for women and girls in Goma that treats victims of rape and sexual violence.

Some progress has been made. There is now a dynamic Special Representative on Sexual Violence in Armed conflict, and the Secretary-General has also established a Network of Men Leaders. This is because men have a key role to play in overcoming stereotypes, changing mindsets and providing positive role models. As a man, I can only agree wholeheartedly!

Of course, as we all know, despite important gains in women’s advancement and empowerment, in too many societies women remain second-class citizens. There are three areas in which the United Nations is working to rectify this situation.

First, helping the world’s poorest women and girls. In many developing economies, women, especially women farmers, despite falling within the poverty bracket, are the ones sustaining their societies and economies. But they need greater access to land, credit and markets. Empowering them will help reduce poverty, create wealth and achieve the Millennium Development Goals.

Second, promoting women’s full political participation. More women, in more countries, are taking their rightful seats in parliament. Yet, fewer than 30 countries have reached the target of 30 per cent in their respective parliaments. And fewer than 10 per cent of countries have female heads of state or government. In other words, more parliaments should, and no doubt will over time, look like this Graduate Study Programme group!

This challenge that we face extends from parliamentarians into peace processes. Despite the fact that women and women’s groups are at the negotiating table far more than previously, the gaps remain significant. Women account for only nine per cent of peace negotiators and four per cent of signatories. Too few women participate and make decisions in peacemaking and peace-building.

This leads us to the third point: closing the gender gap in the private sector. Even where women are prominent in politics, they are still severely under-represented when it comes to the business world.

You may be familiar with the United Nations Global Compact – the world’s largest corporate social responsibility initiative. Recently, the United Nations launched the Women’s Empowerment Principles, to which more than 180 companies have signed on. This makes sense, but to extend the pun, also dollars apparently! A recent study showed that Fortune 500 companies with three or more women on their governing boards outperformed those with no women on their boards by 53 per cent.

And just as the United Nations is working hard to break down these barriers for women at the global level, it is trying to do this inside the Organization as well.

When one looks at our top officials today, there is an evolution under way from 10, even 5 years ago, not just in the number, but in the range of issues and responsibilities covered by women. Listen to the list. Today, the Humanitarian Emergency Relief Coordinator, the Assistant Secretary-General for Peacebuilding, the Administrator of UNDP, the Executive Director of World Food Programme, the High Representative for (nuclear) Disarmament, the Chef de Cabinet, three out of five heads of regional Economic Commissions, the head of the United Nations’ Global Logistics, the Legal Counsel, the High Commissioner for Human Rights, and the Head of Internal Oversight – are all women.

Of course, there is still a way to go. The specific challenge now is to see the same kind of representation of women throughout middle management, which is critical to any organization’s ability to deliver.

The goal is 50/50 gender balance in the United Nations system – a goal that is referenced in numerous General Assembly resolutions. In this area, as in many others, our main task is to live up to the Charter. Indeed, lest we forget, the Preamble itself reminds us that “the equal rights of men and women” was one of the issues behind the very establishment of the United Nations in 1945, 68 years ago.
We here at the United Nations are pleased to see you participating in this programme and addressing such priority issues. You may not have found all the answers or formulated all the solutions to the challenges that have been raised, but we firmly believe that your involvement is itself a part of the long-term solution.

We welcome your enthusiasm for international affairs and for the United Nations. And we hope that your engagement, your spirit and your creativity will lead you to partner with us in building the future that you want.

Thank you, and on the Director-General’s behalf, congratulations to you all.
51st GRADUATE STUDY PROGRAMME (GSP)
Geneva, 1 - 12 July 2013

AGENDA
Venue: Palais des Nations
All Plenary Meetings: Room VII, Building A, third floor
Working Groups: Room XV, Building A, second floor

Room VII, Building A, third floor
Room IV, Building A, third floor
Room III, Building A, first floor

Annex 1: List of the moderators for the working groups
Annex 2: Allocation of rooms for each working group

Monday, 1 July - Room VII

8:30 a.m. Registration
10:00 a.m. Opening of the Graduate Study Programme by Ms. Alessandra Vellucci, Chief, Press and External Relations Section, United Nations Information Service
2:00 p.m. Guided Tour of the Palais des Nations - Visitors’ Service
3:45 p.m. Brief remarks by Corinne Momal-Vanian, Director, United Nations Information Service
4:00 p.m. Address by Her Excellency Ms. Karen Pierce, Ambassador and Permanent Representative, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland to the United Nations Office
5:00 p.m. Cocktail (outside room VII)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Event Details</th>
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| Tuesday, 2 July - Room VII                         | **9:30 a.m.** Ms. Jane Hodges, Director, Bureau for Gender Equality  
International Labour Organization (ILO)  
**11:15 a.m.** Group photo  
**12:00** Brown paper bag lunch with Mr. Ahmad Alhendawi,  
United Nations Secretary-General's Envoy on Youth  
**2:00 p.m.** Ms. Simonetta Zarrilli, Senior Economic Affairs Officer, Gender Focal Point  
United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)  
**4:00 p.m.** Ms. Wendy Cue, Chief, Environmental Emergencies Section  
Joint UNEP/OCHA Environment Unit (JEU), Gender Focal Point for OCHA Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) |
| Wednesday, 3 July - Room VII                        | **9:30 a.m.** Ms. Sylvia Lopez-Ekra, Gender Coordinator  
International Organization for Migration (IOM)  
**11:00 a.m.** Set up of the working groups with the five moderators (UNCTAD, ILO, UNAIDS, UNFPA, IOM) with Gisella Lomax, UNIS  
**12:00 a.m.** Ms. Hege Wagan, Senior Gender Adviser,  
Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS)  
**2:30 p.m.** Working groups (see annex 2 for room number) |
| Thursday, 4 July - Room VII                         | **9:30 a.m.** Ms. Nicole Maguire, Focal Point, Gender Policies in the Workplace  
United Nations Office at Geneva women’s focal points  
**11:00 a.m.** Ms. Alanna Armitage, Director, UNFPA Office in Geneva  
United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)  
**2:00 p.m.** Case study on sexual violence in conflict  
Video interview with the Special Representative to the Secretary-General on Sexual violence in conflict, Ms. Zainab Bangura  
Ms. Margriet Veenma, Senior Advisor,  
Sex and Gender-Based Violence (SGBV)  
Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)  
Ms. Georgina Mendoza Solorio, Human Rights Officer,  
Human Rights Treaty Division,  
Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR) |
| Friday, 5 July - Room VII                           | **10:00 a.m.** Visit to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)  
Ms. Angelika Montillot  
**2:00 p.m.** Joint working group session to discuss the outcome of GSP with the moderators (room VII) |
Monday, 8 July - Room VII

9.30 a.m.  Mr. Pierre Sob and Ms. Saori Terada, Advisors on gender integration, Women's Rights and Gender Section, Research and Right to Development Division, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR)

11:00 a.m. Ms. Surabhi Joshi, World Health Organization (WHO)

2:00 p.m.  Visit to the United Nations Library and League of Nations Museum
Ms. Cristina Giordano, Chief, Knowledge Services, United Nations Library

4:00 p.m.  Mr. Silvano Sofia, External Relations Officer, FAO Liaison Office in Geneva
Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)

Tuesday, 9 July - Room VII

9.30 a.m.  Ms. Kareen Jabre, Programme Manager, Gender Partnership Programme
Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU)

11:00 a.m. Ms. Malinka Koparanova, Senior Social Affairs Officer and Gender Focal Point, Office of the Executive Secretary, United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE)

2:00 p.m.  Working groups (see annex 2 for room number)

4:00 p.m.  Visit of the United Nations Specialized Agency for Information and Communication Technology (ITU)
Ms. Sarah Parkes, Chief, Media and Public Information

Wednesday, 10 July - Room VII

9.30 a.m.  Ms. Charlotte L. Warakaulle, Political Affairs Officer
Office of the Director-General, United Nations Office at Geneva (UNOG)

11.00 a.m. Ms. Emanuela Goerick, Associate Human Resources Officer, Human Resources Management Service, UNOG

2:00 p.m.  Mr. Dermot Carty, Deputy Director, Office of Emergency Programmes, United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF)

5:15 p.m.  Visit to the Graduate Institute of International and Development Studies (optional)
Ms. Christine Verschuur

Thursday, 11 July - Room VII

9.30 a.m.  Mr. Wondwosen (Wondy) K. Asnake, Major Groups and Stakeholders Partnerships, Regional Office for Europe
United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP)

11.00 a.m. Mr. Adam Rogers, Senior Advisor on Strategic Communication
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)

2:00 p.m.  Working groups (see annex 2 for room number)

5:00 p.m.  Mr. Moez Doraid, Director, Coordination Division
United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women)
Friday, 12 July - Room VII

9:30 a.m. Working groups (see annex 2 for room number)
1:30 p.m. Plenary session: presentation of the work plans submitted by the working groups (Room VII)
3:00 p.m. Closing ceremony

Annex 1: List of the Moderators for the Working Groups

International Labour Organization (ILO)
Ms. Jane Hodges
Director
Bureau for Gender Equality
hodges@ilo.org

International Organization for Migration (IOM)
Ms. Sylvia Lopez-Ekra
Head
Gender Coordination Unit
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Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS)
Ms. Hege Wagan, Senior Gender Adviser,
waganh@unaidsorg
Ms. Claudia Ahumada, LLM, Technical Officer, Gender
Gender Equality and Diversity Division, Rights, Gender and Community
Mobilisation
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United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)
Ms. Simonetta Zarrilli
Senior Economic Affairs Officer
Gender Focal Point
simonetta.zarrill@unctad.org

United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA)
Ms. Laura Gehrke
External Relations Officer (Geneva Office)
gehrke@unfpa.org

Annex 2: Allocation of the Rooms for the Working Groups

Wednesday, 3 July

2:00 p.m.: Working Groups with the moderators

ILO – Room XV, Building A, second floor
IOM – Room VII, Building A, third floor
UNAIDS – Room VII, Building A, third floor
UNCTAD – Rooms VII, Building A, third floor
UNFPA – Room IV, Building A, third floor

1 IOM, UNAIDS and UNCTAD will divide Room VII which is big enough to welcome three groups.
Friday, 5 July

2:00 p.m.: Joint working groups session to discuss the outcome of GSP with the moderators
All groups – Room VII

Tuesday, 9 July

2:00 p.m.: Working Groups (possibly with moderators)
ILO – Room XV, Building A, second floor
IOM – Room VII, Building A, third floor
UNAIDS – Room VII, Building A, third floor
UNCTAD – Rooms VII, Building A, third floor
UNFPA – Room IV, Building A, third floor

Thursday, 11 July

2:00 p.m.: Working Groups with moderators
ILO – Room XV, Building A, second floor
IOM – Room VII, Building A, third floor
UNAIDS – Room VII, Building A, third floor
UNCTAD – Rooms VII, Building A, third floor
UNFPA – Room IV, Building A, third floor

Friday, 12 July

9:00 p.m.: Final Session of Working Groups with moderators
ILO – Room XV, Building A, second floor
IOM – Room VII, Building A, third floor
UNAIDS – Room VII, Building A, third floor
UNCTAD – Rooms VII, Building A, third floor
UNFPA – Room IV, Building A, third floor
GENDER PERSPECTIVES ON YOUTH EMPLOYMENT IN THE TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY

An International Labour Organization facilitated analysis on gender equality and the empowerment of women.
Introduction

It is clear that the world is facing a crisis regarding youth employment, with over 74 million youth worldwide being unemployed and looking for work. The International Labour Organization (ILO) recognizes the need to address the situation. In 2012, at the one hundred and first session of the International Labour Conference in Geneva, Member States passed Resolution 101 titled “The Youth Employment Crisis: A Call for Action”. The resolution outlined and advocated for measures to be taken in five main areas, including macro-economic policies, employability, labour market policies, youth entrepreneurship and rights. The resolution reaffirmed and built upon a 2005 ILO resolution on youth unemployment. It also took into account the particular circumstances that had arisen in recent years due to the global financial crisis.

The following report was derived from discussions and research carried out by members of the ILO Working Group at the United Nations Office at Geneva’s fifty-first Graduate Study Programme. The ILO Working Group chose to complete an analysis of the state of youth unemployment with a particular focus on gender equality in two ILO Member States, Brazil and France, chosen to represent a developed country and a country with an emerging economy. The Working Group used insight gained from that analysis to develop a series of recommendations for the ILO and its Member States in formulating policies to help youth gain access to employment.
1 Background

The International Labour Organization (ILO) publication Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013 identified a number of trends in youth unemployment in developed and developing countries, underlining both similarities and differences in the status of youth unemployment. In developed countries, youth increasingly faced long periods of unemployment. Educated youth accepted jobs for which they were overqualified, while less educated and unskilled youth faced a shortage of jobs for which they were qualified. There had also been an increase in the number of youth working in temporary and part-time positions. However, in developing countries youth had to tackle the problems of high unemployment, low quality of available work with high numbers of information positions and a lack of stable contracts, as well as a lack of adequate education.

Both developed and developing countries had experienced a growth in recent years in the number of persons who were Not in Employment, Education or Training (NEET). Regarding gender differentials, young women were more likely to experience skills mismatch than young men, and, particularly in developing countries, young women were more likely than young men to remain outside of the labour market without studying but with the intention to return.

The following summaries of the situation in France and in Brazil shed further light on the differing situation among young women and young men of different social, economic and racial backgrounds in developed and developing countries.

2 Case Studies

2.1 Case Study: Brazil

Youth in Brazil could be characterized by a high heterogeneity: “várias juventudes” (“several youths”). Young people belonged to different races, different social classes and had different levels of education. The population of Brazil was approximately 185 million and was predominantly young with 62 per cent of Brazilians being under the age of 29. Young women accounted for 50.2 per cent of the total youth population (Embassy of Brazil in London 2013). The Brazilian youth population faced the following challenges related to employment and gender:

2.2 Unemployment

In 2011, the unemployment rate of Brazil’s youth (aged 15-24) was 17.8 per cent. Within that group, men had a clear advantage: for young people between 15 to 17 years, the female unemployment rate was 27.7 per cent while the male unemployment rate was 19.3 per cent, and for young people between 17 to 24 years, the female unemployment rate was 16.1 per cent while the male unemployment rate was 11.1 per cent.

Race was also an important factor. The unemployment rate for young black and brown people between 15 to 17 years in 2011 was 31.5 per cent for women, and 20.8 per cent for men, and for those aged between 18 and 24 years it was 18.9 per cent for women and 11.9 per cent for men. The unemployment rate for young white people between 15 to 17 years of age, on the other hand, was 24.3 per cent for women and 17.3 per cent for men, and for 18 to 24 years was 13.5 per cent for women and 10.3 per cent for men (IBGE 2012).

2.3 Education

The educational attainment rate of young women exceeded that of men. Young women in Brazil were more likely than young men to have completed upper secondary education (56 per cent of 25 to 34 year old women versus 49 per cent of men of the same age - OECD 2012). Female participation in tertiary education also significantly exceeded male participation (World Bank 2013). Men were more likely to drop out of school because of the pressure to join the labour market (OECD 2011).
2.4 NEETs, Gender and Race

The employment rate was still considerably higher for men (86.3 per cent) than for women (61.2 per cent). Labour market disadvantage started early for Brazilian women: the proportion of people aged 15-24 years not in employment, education, or training was 25 per cent for women but only 12 per cent for men. Among young black women, that proportion (29.2 per cent) was almost three times the young white men in the same situation (10.3 per cent) (OECD 2012).

2.5 High informality of youth employment

Almost half of the Brazilian economy was informal, but informality particularly affected young people since for them the rate rose to 60 per cent. The lack of formal youth employment reached 67.5 per cent of the youth labour force in 2006, being more pronounced for women (70.1 per cent) than for men (65.6 per cent), and more for black people (74.7 per cent) than for white people (59.6 per cent). In the case of young black women, experiencing a situation of double discrimination of gender-and-race, that index rose to 77.9 per cent (ILO 2012).

Thus, it was found that gender gaps in access to formal employment still persisted in Brazil. The comparative advantage of Brazilian women in education was not reflected in their access to employment and better working conditions.

2.6 Case Study: France

In France, the main concern of youth was completing the education to work transition. The youth population in France had a high level of educational attainment, with approximately 83.6 per cent of youth under 22 years of age having successfully completed their secondary education in 2009 and approximately 42 per cent of those completing their studies from 2007-2009 having received diplomas of higher education (Schulze-Marmeling 2012 and Le Rhun and Pollet 2011).

Despite that high level of education, many youth were finding it difficult to find real jobs, and instead often opted for consecutive unpaid internships. Both young men and young women faced the challenge of unemployment. However, there were some differences in the nature of the difficulties faced by young men and young women in obtaining access to employment, including:

2.7 Education

Young French women tended to have a higher degree of education than young French men, although men had an advantage at the doctoral level. In 2011 women represented 57.6 per cent of all bachelors’ degrees and masters’ degrees, versus 48 per cent of PhD holders (Pain 2013).

2.8 Skills Mismatch

In France, women experienced skills mismatch (possessing experience or skills that did not match up with market needs) more often than young men. They were less likely to choose a specialty in areas related to production or to the hard sciences, they easily abandoned scientific and technological subjects, and they were more present than men in the public sector and arts (Mainguené and Martellini 2010).

2.9 Unemployment

The unemployment rate of young men and women had fluctuated in recent years, with women and men each having lower rates of employment than the other group at various points. Following the economic crisis in 2008, young men were initially more negatively affected in their rate of unemployment than women because of their concentration in sectors like construction that were particularly negatively impacted by the crisis and their higher involvement in temporary employment, which also suffered in the crisis (Mainguené et Martinelli 2010).

The unemployment rate of men surpassed that of women in the second semester. However, in the third semester of 2010 the unemployment rate of women surpassed that of men again. Men were
more active in the labour force overall than women: in 2011, 58.6 per cent of young men were active in the labour force as opposed to 51 per cent of women (DARES 2012).

2.10 Under-employment

During the first six years of their professional lives, young women were more likely than young men to be in a state of underemployment (Mainguené et Martinelli 2010). In 2011, the percentage of young women (11.4 per cent) who were underemployed was more than twice that of men (4.5 per cent) (DARES 2012). Women were also more likely than men to work part-time, though surveys had indicated that women working part-time positions would often prefer to be working full time (Mainguené et Martinelli 2010).

Presently, both young women and young men in France were experiencing challenges in making the transition to working life. However, as noted above, young women faced particular challenges related to skills mismatch and underemployment, while young men were not attaining the same level of education as young women. Policies related to youth unemployment in France must therefore take those particular gendered concerns into account.

3 The Mandate of the International Labour Organization

The mandate of the International Labour Organization (ILO) is:

“To further the goal of creating a lasting peace among nations through the pursuit of just labour conditions”.

The preamble to the constitution of the ILO further states the following:

“The failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions of labour is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries.”

The ILO is unique among international organizations in its tripartite structure, which brings together representatives of governments, employers and workers in its executive bodies.

4 Strategy

The strategy devised by the ILO Working Group to support the work of the ILO on gender equality and women’s empowerment entailed bringing together the members of each part of the organization’s tripartite structure to enact a series of proposals addressing three of the issues identified in the analysis above that particularly affected women in developed and developing countries: skills mismatch, NEETs (Not in Education, Employment or Training), and a lack of full-time, quality employment.

By focusing the recommendations on those three areas, the Working Group ensured that problems particular to both developed and developing countries would be taken into account.

Plan of Action for the ILO and Youth Unemployment

5 Objectives

The ILO has an important role in providing global leadership and acting as a centre of excellence on youth employment policies. The organization must support action by governments, workers and employers to address the crisis in access to employment for youth and promote decent work for youth at national, regional and global levels. In that sense, the ILO’s objective in the Call for Action for Youth Employment (2012) was to provide a consistent guideline to ensure decent employment for young people.

The conclusions led to a number of resolutions, policies, measures and a plan that governments, employers and workers could put into action in order to successfully achieve decent work for youth. Given those resolutions, and based in the main global trends for gendered access to youth employ-
ment that the working group observed, the workgroup developed a selection of specific gender-sensitive activities to provide a guideline for access to decent work for youth.

The main objectives of those activities were: to increase the collaboration among tripartite actors within developed and developing countries in support of policy measures that address gendered access to youth unemployment. To address the three areas of gendered access to youth unemployment (skills mismatch, NEETs, and the quality of work) identified in the analysis above; and to encourage an open dialogue among member states about gendered access to youth unemployment among youth.

6 Activities

The focus countries of Brazil and France were encouraged to pilot the following four activities:

6.1 New economies research pole

States should implement a new economies research pole in partnership with the private sector and trade unions in order to promote the development of training programs and competency-based training focusing on green job creation, social enterprises, entrepreneurship and cooperative work. That should improve the links between education, training and the labour market.

6.2 Technical vocational education and training

States should develop and improve upon technical vocational education and training (TVET), including apprenticeships and other work-based learning by: (i) complementing learning in the workplace with more structured institutional learning; (ii) upgrading the training skills of master crafts persons and trainers who oversaw apprenticeships; (iii) including literacy training and livelihood skills; and (iv) strengthening community involvement, especially to increase occupations for young women and other young vulnerable and minority groups. Along those lines, the Governments of Member States should encourage companies to train, hire and retain more apprentices.

For instance, exemptions to employer contributions and subsidies for apprenticeship agreements should give priority to companies that take on unskilled apprentices and train them.

6.3 Regulation of apprenticeships, internships and other work-experience schemes

States should improve the regulation and monitoring of apprenticeships, internships and other work-experience schemes, including through certification, to ensure they allowed for a real learning experience and did not replace regular workers’ experience schemes and work-based learning. At the same time, Governments should ensure that small enterprises benefited from funds for vocational training within their training budgets targeted at young workers with low job skills.

6.4 Measures designed to decrease the number of NEETs

States should improve mechanisms and implement national plans of action particularly designed to decrease the number of NEETs (a person Not in Employment, Education or Training). Those plans should include (i) A guide to early identification of potential early school leavers and support them to stay in school or access other employment, education or training opportunities; (ii) Strategies tailored to gender-sensitivity (e.g. provide child-care to young teenager mothers) that also take into account vulnerable groups within the society (e.g. different races and ethnicities); (iii) Measures that improve governance in order to better coordinate national/regional already existing actions; and (iii) The creation of a “youth guarantee” legal framework with the “right to training” for young people who have left the school system without basic skills, a qualification and/or a diploma.

In addition to the four areas of activity detailed above, all ILO Member States were encouraged to take part in the fifth activity recommended by the ILO Working Group:
6.5 International Labour Organization Global Conference on Youth Unemployment and Gender Sensitivity

The four measures recommended above should be discussed in a global conference organized by the ILO focused on gender sensitivity in addressing the youth unemployment problem, in order that ILO members beyond Brazil and France could benefit from the analysis of the ILO Working Group.

7 Expected Results

The expected results of the measures recommended above relate back to the objectives of the activities and include the following:

7.1 Increased collaboration among tripartite actors in developed and developing countries

It is expected that in implementing the pilot activities, the tripartite actors within Brazil and France will form new connections, improve their ability to collaborate, and gain a new sensitivity to the gendered aspect of the youth unemployment crisis. In addition, the conference organized by the ILO will accomplish similar goals among tripartite actors in other States.

7.2 Addressing the three areas of gendered access to youth unemployment

The implementation of the first four activities mentioned above is expected to address directly the three main areas of interest for developed and developing countries in the area of improving access to employment for both young men and young women. Once implemented, the new economies research pole would assist ILO Member States in improving the quality of the jobs offered to young women and young men.

Measures two and three (on the improvement of TVET and the regulation of internships, apprenticeships and other work-experience schemes) would help young women build skills that better match the market needs and connect them with quality work experience opportunities. Measures two and three implemented in conjunction with measure four would also help address the problem of NEETs in developing and developed countries.

7.3 Encouraging an open dialogue about the gender aspect of youth unemployment

The implementation of the new economies research pole and the execution of the ILO Conference on Youth Unemployment and Gender Sensitivity would bring attention to the fact that young women and young men had both shared concerns and differing needs in today’s economy.

8 Benchmarks

Based on recommendations written in the Youth Employment Network report Benchmarks for Youth Employment (2010), the Working Group identified a number of benchmarks that would enable it to map the situation of youth in the labour market with a gender perspective and to give relevant indicators on how Governments could ensure they were creating equal opportunities for youth to access decent jobs.

According to the Youth Employment Network’s “Benchmarks for Youth Employment,” specific benchmarks were needed in order to assess youth employment policies, since it had been proven that youth had been especially affected by the global economic crisis.

In that sense Youth Employment Network’s standards claimed “this implies going beyond the commonly used indicators – such as the labour force participation rate and the unemployment rate – and exploring other indicators that offer dimensions of job quality and working conditions, key features of labour market functioning” (YEN 2010; 10–11).

The Youth Employment Network proposed to retain two areas for youth employment benchmarks: (i) labour market indicators and (ii) employment measures and institutional framework. The Working
Group had also added to the Youth Employment Network proposal a set of indicators that would enable it to focus on the disparities that existed between young women and men in their access to the labour market. Those benchmarks should be surveyed both before and after the implementation of the first four measures recommended in the “Activities” section for Brazil and France, in order to ascertain whether the measures had been successful.

8.1 Labour market indicators

8.1.1 Mapping Youth in the Labour Market

a) Indicator 1: Distribution of youth population by primary activity
b) Indicator 2: Youth unemployment rate by sex
c) Indicator 3: Relaxed youth unemployment rate
d) Indicator 4: Youth unemployment by years of study
e) Indicator 5: Youth unemployment by minority

8.1.2 Mapping Employed Youth

a) Indicator 6: Status of young workers in employment
b) Indicator 7: Youth employment by sector
c) Indicator 8: Median earnings for wage and wage-earning workers by sex
d) Indicator 9: Youth informality/ low wages.

8.1.3 Linking the Labour Market with Education, and gender roles

a) Indicator 8: Educational attainment of the youth labour force
b) Indicator 9: Existing care legislation and facilities
c) Indicator 10: Youth employment by sex-clusters
d) Indicator 11: Education level and area by sex

8.2 Overview of the legal situation

A second benchmarking area should include a qualitative overview of the legal situation and the institutionalization of the recommended measures in Brazil and France both before and after implementation.

9 Resources

Resources to implement the suggested activities should originate from the following sources:

9.1 Governments of Brazil and France

The Governments of Brazil and France should contribute to the financing of the first four areas of activity, including support for research, subsidized apprenticeships and internships, and traineeships. The Governments of Brazil and France may seek out support from private corporations, partner organizations, and international funding sources as well.

9.2 Member States

Member States should contribute to funding for the global conference, and should be responsible for all travel costs for their representatives.

9.3 International Labour Organization contributions

As the coordinating body of the global conference, the ILO should contribute funding for the conference’s organization. The ILO should also give consideration to supplementing the cost of travel to the conference for member state representatives from developing countries.
10 Obstacles
Possible obstacles to the implementation of the program conceived of by the ILO Working Group include lack of resources and a lack of political will to implement programs focused on gender. Those obstacles would be addressed by working in partnership with governments, civil society and international organizations to identify key players and donors in support of the intended activities.

11 Implementing Agencies and Partnerships
“*There is no one-size-fits-all solution*” ILO report *A Call for Action 2012* says. (Resolution 101).
That is the reason why the strategy of the ILO working group selected partners in accordance with the particular needs of each country. To improve the current situation of youth access to employment in France and Brazil and to increase international awareness of the gendered needs among young job seekers, it was decided to work with the following partners:

11.1 At the International Level

11.1.1 UN Women
(The United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women)
In organizing the international conference on gendered needs in youth access to employment, the ILO should work together with UN Women, one of whose goals is to “[advocate] for employment policies that improve labour market conditions and advance decent work for women . . . [and also promotes] women’s economic leadership, whether in public decision-making, on corporate boards or in labour unions” (UN Women 2013).
Given those intersecting missions, the two organizations should share human resources, and collaborate on the creation of the conference itinerary.

11.2 At the National Level: Implementing Partners

11.2.1 France: The Ministry of Women’s Rights
Since the report raised the question of youth employment from a gender perspective, the Ministry should be a main implementing partner. First it had been working with gender issues for a long time, and was therefore more knowledgeable and well-aware of that issue than other institutions. Moreover, its target was the empowerment of women. If that project expected to improve access to full and productive employment with equal opportunities and to promote alternatives in access to education and labour market, it should work together with Ministry of Women’s Rights.

11.2.2 Brazil: Ministry of Labour and Employment, and Ministry of Education
Both Ministries had set themselves the goal of improving access to employment for one million young Brazilians by the end of 2014. Approximately 280,000 young Brazilians had already been granted access to employment through apprenticeships so far (Waltenberg 2013). The Ministries were committed to that goal, and therefore should be key partners in the implementation of the activities outlined by the ILO Working Group.

11.3 Civil Society

11.3.1 France: Le Conseil de la Jeunesse Pluriculturelle
Le Conseil de la Jeunesse Pluriculturelle (The Multicultural Youth Council): Among others its areas of action were: combating racism and discrimination, living together, and active citizenship. When discussing equal opportunities, the national minorities living in the country should not be forgotten. Taking into account that one of the obstacles in the French case was the non-recognition of minorities by public administration, it was decided to find a partner from the civil society sector that would help promote rights of youth from different ethnic groups in France.
11.3.2 Federative Republic of Brazil: The Conselho Nacional da Juventude and the Central Única dos Trabalhadores

This Conselho Nacional da Juventude has among its duties to formulate and propose guidelines aimed at public policies for the youth, to conduct studies and research on the socio-economic reality of young people as well as to promote national and international exchanges between youth organizations. The organization had representatives from both government and civil society. On one side, the Government included ministries that have youth-oriented programmes. On the other side the civil society had representatives from youth movements, non-governmental organizations and experts in the area of youth; its representatives came from diverse backgrounds representing the above mentioned “várias juventudes” that existed in Brazil.

The Central Única dos Trabalhadores was the oldest labour union in Brazil and thus should be implicated in any policy formulation related to youth and employment.

11.4 Employers’ Associations

11.4.1 France: Mouvement des Entreprises de France (MEDEF)

This employer’s organization is the largest union of employers in France, with a mission to represent the interest of entrepreneurs in France. As such, it was an important partner in representing the interests of employers in France.

11.4.2 Brazil: Confederação Nacional da Indústria (CNI)

The Confederação Nacional da Indústria (CNI) represented the private sector in Brazil, its members accounting for over a quarter of the national economy. It was a leader in the union representation industry and therefore it was an essential partner for any work on youth employment.

12 Evaluation

Establishing and strengthening monitoring and evaluation mechanisms is imperative in order to accurately measure the impact of and make any necessary improvements to the suggested policies. The process of monitoring and evaluating policies, programs and project implementation should aim at identifying key failures and how they might be corrected as well as for recognizing the main ingredients for success. That would provide vital feedback to inform further action. At the same time, a focus on evaluating the outcomes of different types of interventions would provide a basis for a beneficial reallocation of resources from less to more effective programs.

The evaluation of the success of the recommendations put forth would be conducted based on the benchmarks laid out earlier in this report. Partners may change the overall strategy for improving youth access to employment if it was found that the benchmarks were not being met.
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CAMPAIGNING FOR THE RIGHTS OF FEMALE MIGRANT DOMESTIC WORKERS

An International Organization for Migration facilitated analysis on gender equality and the empowerment of women.
Introduction

There were currently hundreds of female migrant domestic workers in the Middle East and North Africa region. Sri Lanka, the Philippines, Bangladesh, and Indonesia were the largest countries of origin for domestic workers. Most women had migrated in search of the better economic opportunities available in the receiving countries. However, many female domestic workers faced one or more forms of abuse after their arrival.

The proposed project was a multipronged approach of media campaigning, partnership, workshops and dialogue strategies depending upon the target group being addressed. Communication strategies were considered as a fundamental part of the campaign to empower women migrant domestic workers with a better appreciation of their labour rights and to mobilize employers and civil societies. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) Working Group considered that access to knowledge about rights and responsibilities would be a potent arm to change situations of marginality, discrimination and exploitation. Those unequal power relations were understood like natural relations but they were produced in a large culture, social and historical process. It consider communication strategies as fundamental tools to change societies and behaviours (Paulo Freire; Mario Kaplún; Cicilia Peruzzo).

The campaign targeted three different groups. First, decision-makers, government officials, and other related institutions and public authorities in the target countries including civil society organizations and academia. Second, employers and the general public. The third group was women migrant domestic workers.

For the first group, the main objective was to raise awareness about the issue. The Working Group proposed forming partnerships between IOM and interested host Governments with different levels of support provided by depending on national considerations. That support included (but was not limited to) legal advice to ratify international treaties, coordinating meetings between national and international civil society and non-governmental organizations, panel discussions, workshops and lectures, media campaign material, and co-sponsored programmes.

For the general public, the Working Group recommended a second media campaign of images, pamphlets, and information to be dispersed via traditional and internet-based media. That campaign sought to initiate a process of changes in the treatment of domestic workers. It was a long and delicate process and the Working Group believed that to be successful in that goal it needed to involve and sensitize society. To accomplish that the Working Group would use the elements present in the religious culture in that region. In other words, the Working Group was not proposing a campaign against the Kafala sponsorship system or with Eurocentric values. On the contrary, it planned to formulate a campaign based on the most important values for the public of Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region: religious values.

The Working Group sought to run a campaign which presented the values of the Muslim religion as solidarity, equality and fraternity. The objective was to raise context sensitive dialogue surrounding the treatment of domestic workers and awareness about existing international treaties that, when ratified and applied, could improve the relationship between employers and domestic workers.

For women migrant domestic workers in Middle East and North Africa (MENA) countries the Working Group proposed producing graphic material to inform about labour rights and where and how to report abuses. The Working Group hoped that the posters would establish an effective communication with the target, taking into consideration not only the quality of the information disseminated or places where it would be widespread but also the language and the design of the posters. To increase efficiency of the communication process the Working Group proposed to form focus groups with women migrant domestic workers to elaborate the posters. Those women would be invited to participate in focus groups with IOM professionals with approaches on Science of Communication, Sociology, Anthropology and Psychology in MENA countries. The Working Group was conscious about difficulties in accessing those women because of their condition but thought that it would be possible with an ethnographic approach.

The posters would be constructed with a sum of their ideas to avoid an ethnocentrism perspective of the problem. The aim of the focus groups would be to produce graphic material capable of dialog with
the target within their cultures and experiences. Indeed the posters would be produced highlighting images not words because those women speak different languages and often they were not literate. The Working Group believed that the process of construction of posters would be an opportunity for those women to reflect their situation, denaturalize the problem and re-construct their identities. The participants could become important broadcasters of information in their communities and IOM professionals would understand the problem through another perspective.

Furthermore, host countries were encouraged to provide a hotline telephone number or safe place to report incidents to authorities. If unavailable, IOM would partner with sending country embassies to establish those services for their nationals, including implementing a right to return fund despite work bans.

The objective of the campaign would be to contribute to the protection of women migrant domestic workers in Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Lebanon, and Syria. Specifically, the project objectives would be to enhance the capacities of governments and civil society actors in the target countries; empower women migrant domestic workers with a better appreciation of their rights; and reduce the incidence of xenophobia towards, exclusion of, and discrimination against women migrant domestic workers.

1 Rationale

As part of the international trend of feminization of international labour, domestic workers, the majority of whom were women, constituted a large portion of today’s migrant worker population. Among female migrant domestic workers, mistreatment was an ongoing significant problem. Female migrant domestic workers were discriminated against for their gender, immigrant status, and socio-cultural and religious characteristics. They were often subject to various labour and human rights abuses including lack of social and legal protection; poor working conditions; exploitation; unpaid or underpaid labour; trafficking; unreasonable working hours without breaks; high dependency on employer for sponsorship; confiscation of passports; lack of access to justice and healthcare; isolation and restriction of movement; deception and misinformation; sexual, physical and mental abuse. There were significant legal components contributing to the current situation.

First, domestic work often was not considered legal work as it took place in private households. Thus, it remained invisible and unregulated in host countries. The biggest exception was Jordan, which had included domestic work in its labour laws since 2008. However, the general lack of legal recognition allows impunity for violations by sponsors and employers; increased the likelihood of human trafficking and excluded that category of migrants from minimal protection. It highlighted the need to extend legal coverage and equal rights to all categories of workers, revise standard employment contracts, end wage discrimination, improve recruitment systems, strengthen legislative frameworks, and enhance labour inspections.

Second, the Kafala sponsorship system, present in many Middle East and North Africa (MENA) States, enforced the mistreatment of female migrant domestic workers due to the unequal relationship between employer and employee, in which the migrant was highly dependent on the sponsor, often the employer, for their visa. Reforming the Kafala system would significantly improve labour migration governance in that regard. One possibility was to empower national labour ministries oversee recruitment processes, to handle complaints by migrants and employers, and to verify allegations of mistreatment and respond accordingly as a viable alternative.

Third, despite the existence of international legislation, including United Nations Migrant Workers Conventions and the International Labour Organization Domestic Workers Convention 189, many of those laws haven’t been ratified or enacted by the host countries despite previous support for the conventions. If national Governments ratified and applied part or all of the recommendations proposed, the situation of female migrant domestic workers would be significantly improved.

Finally, in light of the aforementioned considerations, would-be migrant women could easily become victims of trafficking and modern slavery, fuelling an already acute international crisis.
It was critical to address that important issue due to the importance of domestic work in the migrant labour market in the MENA region. It was the single most important category of employment among women migrants to the Gulf States, Lebanon, and Jordan with each country receiving thousands of workers each year and numbers continue to rise. Women migrants represented almost 30 per cent of all inflows in 2000, compared to eight percent in the early 1980s. Since the 1970s, there has been a sharp increase in demand due to increased female participation in the workforce, higher living standards and the relatively low labour cost associated with domestic workers. There were other considerations for that increase as employing a domestic worker from abroad gives a family a certain amount of social status and prestige.

Data from sending countries such as Sri Lanka, the Philippines and Bangladesh indicated a larger presence of female compared to male nationals working in MENA. For example, in 2001 between 85 and 94 per cent of Sri Lankan workers in Jordan and Lebanon were women. Furthermore, migrant workers in MENA States provided significant sources of national income to many labour-exporting countries in South and Southeast Asia. In 2000, Bangladesh received US$2 billion in remittances, 84 per cent of which came from workers in the MENA region.

Thus, the circumstances impacted upon many countries including both sending and receiving governments. The Working Group’s proposal targets host countries in the MENA region; specifically Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Lebanon and Syria. There was also a high human consideration of that problem as there were an immeasurable number of women migrants facing violations of their rights in their work places. Migrant women also often left their children in their home country, creating a global care supply chain. Thus, that situation not only affected those women directly engaged in domestic work but their family, friends and compatriots, employers and their families, the general public, and Governments of both sending and host countries.

Solving the challenging circumstances faced by women migrant domestic workers was a long-term, multi-step process that included our three principal stakeholders. Clearly, migrant domestic workers benefited most from resolving the current situation and stood to gain basic legal protection, improved working conditions free of abuse, the recognition of their human and labour rights, and more autonomy. However, employers also gained from solving that problem. Establishing a legal contract ensured that both the employer and employee agreed on duties and responsibilities of domestic workers from the beginning resulting in less disputes and loss of time and income for employers. Furthermore, recent studies had found that happier employees performed better work and were more efficient.

Finally, national Governments would profit from improved conditions. Host countries were able to regulate work visas to reduce undocumented migrants and trafficking within their borders while maintaining good relationships with sending countries. There was also the regional and international prestige associated with introducing cutting-edge international legislation. Sending countries could lift current restrictions on work, ensure more protection for their nationals, particularly in times of crisis, better regulate and perhaps increase remittances and reduce their attractiveness to traffickers.

The proposed multipronged approach was the most effective strategy to raise awareness and begin a dialogue about the mistreatment of female migrant domestic workers throughout the MENA region. It would be developed specifically for the region with culturally relevant material. The project was adaptable to each national context within the target group. The different components of the strategy remained flexible and could be implemented in whole or in part and in any desired order. It remained subtle and non-invasive as it served to inform, encourage discussion and draw public attention to the current situation.

The key stakeholders in that project were national governments, employers, women migrant domestic workers, IOM, and other national, international and intergovernmental agencies. The current situation was covered under IOM’s mandate to facilitate humane and orderly migration. That agency also had the previous experience to implement the project successfully. It was the key partner of Princess Basma bint Talal of Jordan and Jordan’s Anti-Human Trafficking National Committee in the We Are All Workers - We Have Rights and Duties campaign in 2013. IOM also coordinated the Return Home Campaign with the European Union. The organization had also led multiple anti-slavery and human trafficking awareness campaigns both of which were deeply intertwined with the
current state of female migrant domestic workers. It also had field offices in the region with highly capable staff with in depth knowledge of and experience in the MENA region. Furthermore, IOM was central to the success of that initiative because of its position as the leading intergovernmental agency for migration, making it a neutral entity capable of impartially addressing the concerns of each major actor, some of which were member or observer states, while affecting positive changes in domestic workers’ conditions.

It was determined that decision-makers, government officials, and other related institutions and public authorities in the target countries, including civil society organizations and academia; women migrant domestic workers; and employers and the general public must be involved in order for the project to succeed as each of those actors must be engaged to effectively solve that problem.

The project was linked to broader national, regional, and global initiatives. In the national context, Jordan had made immense progress on the issue by covering domestic work under its national labour laws since 2008. The Jordanian Anti-Human Trafficking National Committee and Princess Basma bint Talal, along with IOM, started the We Are All Workers - We Have Rights and Duties Campaign in 2013. The Governments of Lebanon, Syria and Saudi Arabia also introduced new measures to offer more protection to domestic workers.

Recently, there has been increasing global initiatives to create an international legal framework for domestic work. In 2011, the ILO Domestic Workers Convention 189 was published; however, not all countries were signatory. There were also other UN Migrant Worker and Anti-Trafficking Conventions; not all Member States had signed those documents. International organizations had launched campaigns about the rights of domestic workers in other countries as well.

2 Partnerships and Coordination

IOM would serve as the international coordinator of the campaign as well as the joint partner within each target country. The regional office along with communications specialists would develop general campaign templates for both domestic workers and the general public. They were also responsible for creating relevant workshops, lectures and discussions for interested national governments as well as providing guidance and support for services advertised in the campaign in each country such as the hotline, safe space and/or Right to Return. IOM was also the central coordinator for programme-related meetings for national and international civil society and NGOs. Finally, the agency could encourage developments that would help protect migrant domestic workers, including legal advice regarding the ratification of international treaties and reforming national laws if requested.

Each host Government would serve as the main co-ordinator in partnership with IOM for their national campaign, tailoring the template proposed by IOM to the country-specific context. Ideally, they would provide services for domestic workers advertised in the campaign including (but not limited to) a hotline or safe space to report abuse. The host Government would also provide a portion of the funding to cover campaign implementation costs. Most importantly, the host Government would invite IOM to work on their territory and participate in IOM-coordinated meetings, workshops, or lectures.

There were three identified potential partners for the project. First, national and international organizations could be beneficial, specifically those which were already engaged in that issue. They could provide partial funding for campaign costs as well as play important supporting roles to national governments and the IOM in each country. Sending governments were also important partners to collaborate with IOM and host Governments as needed. Finally, other UN agencies such as ILO may give important insight.

The project management structure began on an international level, with IOM at the centre of coordination efforts. The project was further divided into sub-national partnerships in which IOM provides the framework and support for national governments to carry out the campaign. Other potential partners would work in conjunction with IOM and the national government as necessary within each country.
Finally, there have been previous campaigns addressing the mistreatment of women migrant domestic workers or addressing the public of MENA region. They were funded and organized by international organizations such as Human Rights Watch Campaign and Amnesty International. There were also several other United Nations agencies working in the region on the same issue, like UN Women, ILO, UNESCO, UNIDO and, of course, IOM. The project would involve those agencies, and ask them to disseminate information about other perspectives, as well as to help empower campaigns.

3 Evaluation

Two project evaluations in the two-year lifetime of the campaign were anticipated. The first would take place one year to assess how successful the programme has been. It would be carried out on the international level and within each national setting. The objective would be to evaluate project strategy successes and failures as well as to suggest improvements or new approaches if there is a problem. That would also be an ideal time to compare country progress and provide guidance and support where it is most needed. The methodology of that evaluation would be a mixture of interviews, focus groups, review of campaign messages and feedback from internal and external specialists.

A second evaluation would occur after the initial two-year period in order to assess the overall effectiveness and measurable results of the campaign. The intended use was to determine if the project was successful and if the programme should be renewed. The methodology and structure would reflect the same as the first evaluation and include internal and external auditors.

4 Results Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline/Target</th>
<th>Assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective:</strong> Stop the abuse of domestic workers in MENA region</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● of abuse reported</td>
<td>Baseline Measurement: Low levels of abuse reported, naturalized unequal dependent relationship between employer and employee, limited legal protection or redress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>● Relationship between employer and employee</td>
<td>Target: More incidents of abuse reported to the authorities, re-equilibrium in relationship between employers and employees, guaranteed legal protection and avenues for redress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicators</td>
<td>Baseline/Target</td>
<td>Assumptions</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Outcomes:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal recognition of domestic work as viable employment</td>
<td>• Levels of abuse reported</td>
<td>• High levels of unreported abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve working conditions for domestic workers</td>
<td>• Legal status of domestic workers</td>
<td>• Cooperative host governments that were also member states</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elimination of abuse of domestic workers</td>
<td>• Working conditions</td>
<td>• Initiative from employers and society to alter behaviours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of a more equal relationship between employers and domestic workers</td>
<td>• Legislative changes</td>
<td>• Desire and/or need for legislative improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction or reforming of labour laws and the Kafala sponsorship system</td>
<td>• Migrant population statistics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase government regulation and cooperation to reduce undocumented migration</td>
<td><strong>Baseline Measurement:</strong> High levels of abuse (often unreported), limited legal recognition of domestic work as employment, highly dependent immigration under Kafala sponsorship system, unregulated and inhumane working conditions, limited legislation to protect workers and employers, lack of accurate statistics due to undocumented migrants and trafficking</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elimination of human trafficking and slavery</td>
<td><strong>Target:</strong> Lower levels of abuse (higher report levels), legal recognition of domestic work as employment, reform of immigration system, improved working conditions with limits to working hours and mandatory breaks, improved laws to protect workers and employers, accurate statistics on migrant population</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratification of ILO Convention 189</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| **Outputs:** | | |
| Domestic workers have increased knowledge and access to quality information about contracts and their rights | • Levels of abuse reported | • Ability to make contact with workers |
| The establishment of support services for domestic workers to report abuse such as a hotline or safe space | • Campaign materials distributed | • Possibility to establish support services |
| Ability for domestic workers to have legal redress for their abuse claims | • Use of provided support services | • Ability to change or reform labour laws |

**Baseline Measurement:** Low levels of abuse reported, little or no knowledge and/or information about legal contracts and rights, little or no services for domestic workers, no possible legal redress

**Target:** Higher levels of abuse reported, more knowledge and information about contracts and rights, more services provided, avenues to pursue legal redress
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline/Target</th>
<th>Assumptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activities:</td>
<td></td>
<td>● Ability to provide quality information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For domestic workers: Media campaign of posters and pamphlets focused on quality information to inform them of contracts and labour rights under international and national legislation and how to report abuses, provide support services in partnership with host and sending countries including right to return fund, promote the creation of avenues for legal redress for abuse claims.

For governments: Aid in introducing support services, coordinating meetings between national and international civil society and NGOs, panel discussions, workshops and lectures, provide media campaign material, and co-sponsored programmes legal advice to introduce or reform legislation and ratify international treaties.

For employers and general public: Media campaign of images, pamphlets, and information to be dispersed via traditional and internet-based media.

5 Work Plan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Frame</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Develop media campaign</th>
<th>Adapt and implement media campaign</th>
<th>Provide workshops/training to government officials</th>
<th>Legal advice on legislation reform</th>
<th>Introduce support services</th>
<th>collect feedback and solution of problems</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Months</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>4-10</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<td></td>
<td>11-15</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<td></td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21-22</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
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FURTHERING GENDER EQUALITY THROUGH THE HIV RESPONSE

A Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS (UNAIDS*) facilitated analysis on gender equality and the empowerment of women.
Introduction

The profound burden of the Human Immunodeficiency Virus epidemic faced by women and girls has been long documented. Approximately 48 per cent of all new Human Immunodeficiency Virus infections in low and middle income countries in 2012 occurred among women.\(^2\) Globally, human immunodeficiency virus infection or acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS) related complications are a leading cause of death of women of reproductive age.\(^3\)

Women and girls were vulnerable to HIV as a result of biological factors, gender inequalities and gender-based violence. Gender-based violence had been shown to be both a cause and a consequence of HIV.\(^4,5\) At the same time, women within key populations were disproportionately affected by HIV. For example, globally female sex workers were 13.5 times more likely to be living with HIV than other women.\(^6\)

The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (hereinafter, UNAIDS) is highly committed to moving towards universal access to HIV prevention, treatment, care and support, calling specific attention to the women, girls and gender equality through its 2011-2015 Strategy “Getting to Zero”, and in line with its Agenda for Women and Girls.

There is a need to understand how the gender dimensions of the HIV epidemic, as well as how national HIV responses, currently meet those needs.

In that light UNAIDS developed the Gender Assessment Tool for National HIV Responses (hereinafter the “Gender Assessment Tool”). The Gender Assessment Tool was developed by UNAIDS Secretariat, in close collaboration with co-sponsors, and with engagement of governments, civil society, and development partners. It provided a step-by-step process to systematize HIV-related quantitative and qualitative data, analyses it from a gender perspective and based on this analysis determine key interventions for gender transformative HIV responses. The findings of the gender assessment aimed to inform the development of gender-transformative HIV strategic plans, resource mobilization proposals, such as applications to the Global Fund to Fight HIV/AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (hereinafter “the Global Fund”), and development of new national strategic plans on HIV/AIDS.

The approach set out in the Gender Assessment Tool was drawn upon to guide the analysis of the HIV epidemic and response in Swaharathi, which is presented in this paper. Swaharathi is a fictional country in Africa with a low HIV prevalence rate of 0.53 per cent among the general population. It was anticipated that infection rates among most-at-risk-populations (MARPs) and vulnerable populations were much higher. However, the country faced challenges in gathering robust data.

Swaharathi had initiated a process to develop a new national strategic plan, to serve as the basis for a new Global Fund proposal. To better understand the gender dynamics that affect the effectiveness of the HIV response, the country intended to undertake a gender assessment, to ensure that the next strategic plan be gender transformative in nature.

The case study presents the available data on the HIV epidemic, context and response for Swaharathi. Members of the UNAIDS Working Group were requested to analyse the data and propose interventions that address the gaps identified and were appropriate for the given epidemic and context, utilizing the UNAIDS Gender Assessment Tool, described above.

\(^2\) UNAIDS 2012 unpublished HIV estimates
\(^3\) Women and Health: Today’s Evidence Tomorrow’s Agenda, WHO 2009
1 Structure of the HIV response

The HIV response in the country was multi-sectorial and decentralized, coordinated by National AIDS Council (NAC) under the auspices of the National Ministry of Health (MoH). In addition to the Ministry of Health, a number of Government ministries were involved in the national response on specific areas. Those included the Ministry of Education and Higher Education, the Ministry of Defence, the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Youth, the Ministry of Social Welfare, the Ministry of Communication and the Ministry of Labour. However, the NAC’s overall capacity was limited and needed to be strengthened for scaled up response.

The national AIDS response was guided by the National Strategic Plan (NSP). External resources, mostly from Global Fund, were mobilized to carry out priority activities, as defined by the NSP. The NSP also incorporated the gender dimension of the epidemic in line with the UNAIDS Agenda for Women, Girls, Gender Equality and HIV.

The NAC had been coordinating and implementing the National HIV programme in line with the NSP and in partnership with a number of UN agencies including UNDP, UNICEF, WHO and UNFPA in addition to civil society organizations. Regular coordination meetings were held at Federal level with all key implementing partners to review progress and identify implementation bottlenecks.

Considering the relative advantage of reaching the community, the civil society organizations in the country were particularly involved in raising awareness and conducting selected outreach interventions for the key and vulnerable populations.

Civil society organizations working in HIV/AIDS were organized under the umbrella organization the AIDS Network currently comprising 72 non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The AIDS Network had sub-offices in all the 21 states. In 2010, the AIDS Network developed a strategic plan for the period 2010-14 with an overall focus on advocacy, resource mobilization, support to people living with HIV, technical support as well as organizational development. The technical support was directed towards the priority areas of national response, particularly in the area of key and vulnerable populations. The NGO capacity to reach out to key and vulnerable populations still needed considerable strengthening.

The undertaking of a gender assessment in Swaharathi provided a key opportunity to strengthen the structure of the HIV response. High level commitment needed to be secured, which in turn required the establishment of dialogue on why an analysis of the HIV epidemic and response from the gender perspective would add value. That in itself constituted an awareness-raising exercise, the first stepping stone towards a gender-transformative HIV response.

Once the high-level political commitment was secured and there was agreement at the national level to undertake a gender assessment, a core gender assessment team was convened. As called for by the UNAIDS Gender Assessment Tool, a multi-sectorial team was convened, bringing together partners from the United Nations, various government Ministries, development partners, and civil society. Notably, civil society was represented, as well as a network of people living with HIV and a women’s rights organization.

Through the establishment of that core gender assessment team, an opportunity was created for these constituencies to work in close coordination and coordination, thus strengthening the delivery of the HIV response and jointly gaining an understanding of the importance of working towards gender transformative HIV interventions.

The gender assessment team played a leading role in undertaking the assessment, looking at the national epidemic and context in country, the national HIV response, and analysing the findings, as detailed below.
2 The HIV epidemic and context in Swaharathi

Table 1: Swaharathi's general, population and health statistics:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capital city: Junjula</th>
<th>Population size: 25.6 million (2011)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Area: 1,286,068 km²</td>
<td>Age structure (2011 est.) in million:</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0-14 years: 42 per cent (male 5.2/female 5.5)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15-24 years: 20 per cent (male 4.3/female 4.0)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25-54 years: 31 per cent (male 6.4/female 6.7)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>55-64 years: 4 per cent (male 0.8/female 0.7)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65 years and over: 3 per cent (male 0.6/female 0.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita: USD 1,310.00 (2011)</td>
<td>Fertility: 4.6 (children per woman)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main religions:</td>
<td>Average life expectancy for total population: 62.1 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sunni Muslim</td>
<td>Average life expectancy for men: 60.1 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shiite Muslim</td>
<td>Average life expectancy for women: 64.9 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coptic Christian minority</td>
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3 The HIV epidemic

Overview

While the prevalence rate in the general population is relatively low, current estimates of HIV prevalence, based on the SPECTRUM modelling and informed by recent data from ANC sentinel surveillance, indicates a low HIV epidemic with an estimated national HIV prevalence rate is estimated at 0.53 per cent among the general population (2009), requiring strategies focused on priority populations and geographical areas.

However, the country anticipates higher prevalence among Most-At-Risk-Populations (MARPs), including Female Sex Workers (FSWs), Clients of FSWs and Men who have Sex with Men (MSM). In addition, the country recognized the presence of vulnerable populations who were at risk of HIV based on their occupations and other social factors. Those included youth from key populations, members of the uniformed services, haulage and truck drivers, and people affected by concerning humanitarian situations such as internally displaced persons, refugees and seasonal workers.

A recent study among FSWs and MSMs showed a wide geographical variation in prevalence rates, partly associated with transport routes and (sea) ports of entry, and partly with poverty. A further study suggested a link between HIV, poverty and gender based violence, in particular affecting women in post-conflict areas in the country.

The most effective and targeted response to HIV would therefore require a focus on those communities, while addressing the gender barriers which contributed to increasing their risk.

HIV services

Coverage of HIV services was generally low and unequal, in particular in rural areas. Due to poor quality records, loss to follow-up and double counting, coverage data might not truly reflect service utilization and mask failure to adhere. That particular affected treatment programmes, as people living with HIV, in particular men, tended to change their treatment facilities, due to fear of disclosure, stigma and discrimination. Service utilization by women was generally affected by fear or actual occurrence of abandonment, gender-based violence and divorce.
Key Populations

The determinants of the epidemic among key populations included:

3.1 Low knowledge levels on HIV:
- Only four per cent of the respondents to the 2006 Swaharathi Household Survey knew all the three ways to prevent HIV transmission from sexual activity.

3.2 Gender disparity:
- The UNGASS report (2005) showed gender disparities regarding the level of HIV awareness among the youth. HIV/AIDS awareness level among the youth aged 12 to 24 years was 94.1 (93.5 per cent male and 94.8 per cent female), Youth aged 12 to 24 years who believed that healthy individual could transmit HIV were 37.9 per cent, (39.5 per cent male and 35.6 per cent female). The proportions of young people aged between 12 and 24 years who had heard about condom use as a prevention tool was 40.1 per cent male and 34.6 per cent female.

3.3 Risky sexual behaviour:
- Behavioural studies showed there was limited condom use among Female Sex Workers (FSWs), Men who have Sex with Men (MSM) and the potential HIV transmission bridge populations (such as truck drivers, youth and migrants). Consequently, the majority of the FSWs practice unprotected sex with their clients and are not able to negotiate condom use, as they face high levels of violence, stigma and discrimination.

3.4 Population movements:
- The recent conflict had led to huge population movements, resulting in a large number of internally displaced persons and refugees. The movement of military personnel to and from the conflict zones; and the movement of returnees, traders and professionals to and from neighbouring countries, some of which have high HIV prevalence were expected to contribute to the rapid spread of the virus.
- Women and children are particularly vulnerable amongst these communities, facing high levels of gender-based and sexual violence, while services to respond to such violence, including through provision of PEP, remain extremely limited.

3.5 Conflicts:
- A growing body of evidence linked wars and mass displacement to the spread of HIV/AIDS. Conflicts increased vulnerability to HIV through sexual and physical violence, forced displacement, break-down in the rule of law, and economic destitution, often leaving entire populations at risk of HIV.
- HIV spread fastest in conditions of poverty, powerlessness and social instability - conditions that were often at their most extreme during emergency situations. Indeed, data showed that States most affected by HIV were those that were also affected by conflict or war.
Table 2: HIV statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Adults HIV prevalence: 0.53 per cent (2011)</th>
<th>Annual new infections: 8590</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>53 per cent</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47 per cent</td>
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<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>0.57 per cent</td>
<td>Annual deaths: 5450</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>0.30 per cent</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIV prevalence women:</td>
<td>0.39 per cent (age 15 to 24 years, 2011)</td>
<td>Men who have Sex with Men (MSM)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HIV prevalence: 0.1 to 6.1 per cent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sex Workers (FSWs) HIV prevalence: 0.1 to 7.7 per cent</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Refugees 0.78 per cent</td>
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<tr>
<td>People living with HIV:</td>
<td>70,100</td>
<td>ART coverage: 9 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(age 15 to 49 years, 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td>PMTCT coverage: 11 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women living with HIV:</td>
<td>33,000</td>
<td>Health care delivery:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(age 15 years and over, 2011)</td>
<td></td>
<td>154 centres with HIV testing and counselling services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>35 entres provide ART</td>
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</table>

4 Contextual Elements

Religious and cultural context

With the majority of the population underlining the strict religious and cultural values, women and girls were generally unable to make independent decisions, have access to resources and travel without company. Women were legally excluded from owning property.

The National AIDS Policy 2003 recognized that one of the most striking features of the national response to the HIV epidemic is that few interventions and programmes related to women’s life situations and gender relations.

The average age of marriage for girls and young women was 17 years, which resulted in unequal education opportunities. That was reflected in the national literacy rates (65 per cent for the general population; 72 per cent for males and 50 per cent for females (2005 est.). Parity in primary level enrolment was improving and in 2009 reached 90 per cent, but parity in secondary and tertiary education enrolment remained unchanged at the expense of girls and women.

Access to clean water was a serious challenge, with only about 52 per cent of the rural population having access to a reliable water source within one kilometre of their home. Women and girls were tasked with carrying out domestic, household and care duties.

HIV-related stigma and discrimination

The 2006 Household Survey found a high level of HIV related stigma among the general population, affecting access to services such as HIV testing and treatment. A 2007 research showed that women living with HIV AIDS in particular face higher degree of stigma compared to men at family, and community levels. A private sector survey (2009) revealed unhelpful discriminatory human resources recruitment and management practices. There was also high HIV stigma among health personnel in health settings, limiting HIV service utilization. That was further aggravated by the limited civil society engagement, and the largely health sector driven national HIV response.

Health service delivery

There was limited access to primary health care services. Only about 45 to 65 per cent of the population had access to primary health care (PHC) services, with health facilities unevenly distributed, resulting in a wide variation in the size of population served by any one facility. About 29
per cent of the primary health care health facilities were not functional. That situation, which varied
in states, also extended to diagnostic laboratory services that were weak and fragmented between
programmes.

Patients were also required to pay user fees and that further limited access to health care for the
poor in society. For instance, although medical treatment for HIV was free, people living with HIV
had to pay a user fee for the management of all the other HIV un-related illnesses.

High staff turnover and low motivation impacted on the health service delivery, including HIV and
AIDS services. That especially affected sites outside the major cities resulting in the need for
continuous training of personnel as new staff members joined the programme. Staff were generally
not trained on matters such as stigma and discrimination, gender inequality and gender based
violence. Anecdotal reports indicated that health workers contributed to non-utilization of services
by MARPS, as well as to violation of the sexual and reproductive rights of women, in particular those
living with HIV.

5 The HIV response in Swaharathi

The Swaharathi National Strategic Plan (NSP) 2010 to 2014 defined the national response to HIV,
based on available evidence on the HIV epidemic and context. Key populations had been identified
as priority communities in the NSP.

Though robust national data on the prevalence rates among key populations was largely missing,
the NSP provided a basis to ensure effective utilisation of resources by providing HIV services where
they were most needed, in line with the concept of the universal access. Accessing key populations
with prevention and treatment was still a major challenge given the hidden nature of the population,
gender barriers to access and adherence, and associated taboos around discussion on sex within
their cultural context.

Based on the HIV epidemic and response analysis, the following were defined as priorities in
the National Strategic Plan (NSP):

- Prioritisation of key populations to reduce the risk of HIV within those populations and in the
general population.
- Targeting of geographical areas perceived to have a higher HIV prevalence and where key
populations lived.
- Focus on prevention: given the low level of HIV epidemic, the focus of that strategic plan
was on prevention of new infections to maintain that level of the epidemic.
- Increasing access and utilisation of HIV related services though provision of quality services
and tackling barriers such as stigma and discrimination.
- Strengthening the role of civil society and the private sector in the national HIV response.
- Generation of strategic information to inform programming of HIV interventions.
- Strengthening of the health systems to integrate the country’s HIV services in the health
facilities.

Recognizing the impact of the weak health system and the limited decentralization of services on the
scale up of treatment and care services (especially PMTCT and STI treatment), the NSP strove to
address those issues in a prioritized manner, guided by resources available, the regional prevalence
rates and the specific needs in different parts of the country. Integration of the ‘vertical programmes’,
including HIV programmes, would be done in a phased manner as the national health management
and Health Management Information System (HMIS) capacities were developed. In the short term
those programmes would continue to utilize the ‘vertical system approach’ as the public health
system was strengthened.

Interventions implemented to prevent HIV infections included advocacy and awareness creation
and education, counselling and HIV testing, prevention of mother to child transmission of HIV, and
condom promotion, demonstration and distribution.
The HIV prevention activities focused mainly on raising awareness, providing knowledge on HIV and the necessary tools to communities to support risk reduction. Most of the interventions, including those targeting the most at-risk and vulnerable populations, were at their nascent stage and were generally implemented over a short duration with limited coverage. While HIV/AIDS life skills curriculum had been implemented since 2009, and out-of-school youths were targeted with life-skills training, coverage and completion was low. In addition, life skills programmes tended to only target males.

Though the National Strategic Plan (NSP) strove for gender-sensitive programming, and considered gender relations and women empowerment as entry points to prevent the epidemic, mainstreaming gender issues within HIV programmes remained a challenge. Similarly, the HIV national programme was limited in fulfilling its aim of addressing the vulnerability of girls and women to violence and rape, and protecting women who were infected or affected by HIV, because of the prevailing religious and cultural norms and practices.

The NSP recognized the importance of CSO engagement in the national response, in particular for high risk and vulnerable populations. That was reflected in the substantive number of civil society organizations, also at decentralized level. Nevertheless, networks of most-at-risk-populations (MARPs) and women’s rights organizations were not well-established, reflecting cultural and religious sensitivities and lack of financial and political support.

The NSP reflected the national commitment to reduce stigma, with interventions included in all health services. However, effectiveness was limited, mainly because of the stigma surrounding HIV, which people reported to be a key factor hindering them from utilizing the available HIV services.

The NSP aimed to strengthen the national surveillance system, to ensure that the quality of HIV & AIDS data was improved and sex-disaggregated, as well as analysed alongside data on sexual and reproductive health, including maternal and child health programmes.

6 Challenges

Routine data collection on services provided was still affected by delays in reporting and low quality of data: in terms of completeness, sex and age disaggregation and timeliness. There were also vertical information strands for data production, collection, processing, and reporting by the various departments in government and programs, which were not always consolidated. The Health Management Information System (HMIS) did not cover all sectors: Most of the primary health care (PHC) facilities and the private sector, including NGOs were not covered, while organizations like the military and police had their own information systems, for example affecting reliability of data on gender based violence.

There were good yet small-scale efforts under way to bring together the different systems engaged in data collection on gender based violence to ensure immediate management of rape cases, including PEP, as well as improved prevention of violence. However, more needed to be done.

7 Recommendations

In light of the epidemic and response, the following overall recommendations have been put forward to the Government of Swaharathi to create a gender transformative HIV response:

- Improve the information systems to track services, including sex-disaggregated data, with subsequent gender analysis of this data.
- Increase HIV program sustainability through government political and financial support, particularly for programs that target key populations.
- Promote gender equity via all means of communication and policies available, and create and enforce property rights for all women.

Recommendations have been developed drawing upon What Works for Women and Girls: Evidence for HIV/AIDS Interventions, www.whatworksforwomen.org, (Gay et al., 2013), funded by PEPFAR and OSF.
- Improve the capacity of civil society organizations and invest in networks of women living with HIV and women’s rights organizations’ to engage them in dialogue and better meet women’s needs, including those from key populations.
- Create public health and awareness-raising campaigns aimed at the general population that give accurate information about HIV, eradicates myths and educates on how HIV is and is not transmitted.
- Train law enforcement bodies on gender-based violence issues and teach them ways of reducing violence towards key population sectors.
- Invest in ensuring the availability of post-rape care.
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- This paper has been prepared by graduate students, not affiliated to UNAIDS. It does not represent the views of the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV and AIDS (UNAIDS).
TRADE, GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT:
WOMEN IN THE FISHERIES SECTOR IN THE GAMBIA

A United Nations Conference for Trade and Development facilitated analysis on gender equality and the empowerment of women.
1 Introduction and Background

The Republic of The Gambia is located in West Africa with a total area of 11,420 sq km. The country is rich in terms of fish species’ abundance and diversity. Over 500 marine fish species had been recorded in Gambian waters; they were usually classed as demersals (bottom dwelling) and pelagics (surface dwelling). The high value demersal species (shrimps, sea breams, lobsters and cephalopods, among others) were mostly supplied to fish processing factories for export, to the European Union, America and Asia. Small pelagics were consumed locally in fresh or traditionally processed product form, or exported regionally.

The fisheries sector in The Gambia was mainly divided in two types of economic activities: artisanal and industrial fishing. The artisanal fisheries consisted of relatively extensive, low-capital fishing practices, while the industrial fisheries and fish-processing activities involve use of high-cost fish-production systems (fish trawlers), as well as high-cost processing systems (fish factories), which were concentrated along the Atlantic coastline.

The fishery sector of the Gambian economy played an important role in the lives of the residents; an estimated 200,000 persons were dependent on fisheries and related activities. Women played a very active role in the artisanal fisheries sector, accounting for about 80 per cent of fish processors and 50 per cent of small-scale fish traders. It was also estimated that about 2,000 persons were presently employed in the industrial sub-sector; women accounting for an estimated 70 per cent of employees.

In recent years, concerns have been expressed over excessive exploitation of marine fish species, particularly the most commercially important demersal species appear to be under threat from high levels of exploitation. Fish processing also suffered from the unreliable provision and high prices for electricity, lack of storage facilities, poor management, smuggling, and high cost of finance. Despite the challenges, the fisheries sector was one of the productive sectors of the national economy with potential to make significant contributions to the economic and social development of the country.

The Gambian Government had been making a lot of effort to resolve some the problems facing the sector. The Government was doing that through the adoption of policies which would help the country to socially, economically and scientifically develop. In the fisheries sector a good example is the adoption of a new Fisheries policy in 2007 and the Fishery Strategic Action Plan (2012- 2015), which were in line with the main national blueprint “Vision 2020”. In addition to the sector policies, a number of other relevant national policies and strategies support and complement the Fisheries Policy. Those include:

- The Gender and Women Empowerment Policy (2011-2020), which promotes mainstreaming of women into development processes in all sectors in order to enhance equal access to opportunities to achieve gender balances in the economy. It also promotes economic opportunities for women (e.g. employment creation) especially as women constitute more than 50 per cent of the population;
- The Microfinance Strategy Framework, currently under review by the Ministry of Agriculture (MOA), which aimed to institutionalize a beneficiary-managed sustainable rural finance system to provide smallholders credit access at reasonable conditions; and
- The National Export Strategy (NES), providing the national framework for export development and promotion. The NES is intended to promote public-private partnerships and export competitiveness.

2 Mandate

The principal aim of the paper was to provide support to the Government of The Gambia in planning, implementing and monitoring policies, which would result in a more equitable, sustainable and inclusive development of the fisheries sector.
3 Strategy

The development of the fisheries sector in The Gambia had a potential to boost economic growth through international trade, in addition to integrating a lot of women (skilled and unskilled) into the workforce.

Having started the analysis with the SWOT method of analysis, that paper would explore various approaches that would try to mitigate the negative effect of the challenges that currently exist for women within the fisheries sector, improve their situation and help route the Gambian fisheries sector on a more sustainable path. The fundamental strategy of that paper is to do a critical review of the fisheries sector and the situation of women in the sector. Additionally, it would propose policies that would complement the effort being made by the Government and other sectors of the Gambian economy while also providing the needed catalyst to boost the sustainable development of the fishery sector and provide significant source of employment to women.

4 Policy recommendation

The development objectives of the sector were: to effect a rational long term utilization of the fisheries resources; to use fish as a means of improving the nutritional standard of the population; to generate employment opportunities for nationals; to expand Gambian participation in the sector and, to increase revenue and foreign exchange earnings.

The current state of the fisheries sector already provides certain opportunities to women. However, to empower women and increase their economic gains, there is a need for policies to be directed specifically to the issues women have to deal with. Policies need to be assessed not only to promote women integration in the workforce but also to economically, socially and politically develop the whole fisheries sector. Consequently, the recommendations would aim to promote policies with the goal of producing large externalities or generating outcomes that benefit persons beyond that demographic group. In order to achieve the objectives outline, our proposal would be grouped under short, middle and long-term proposals.

4.1 Short term

4.1.1 Securing the resources

The fishing activities of a country could significantly impact the environment. Hence, providing or safeguarding resources for the industry need to be the first concern for the Gambian Government. As a first measure, the Gambian Government can invite scientific experts in the fisheries industry. Some European Governments have special programs that offer expert advice on how to improve the environment (i.e. Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit - GIZ) or provide aid to support similar efforts in other countries. It would be important for the Gambian Government to take advantage of those opportunities, to facilitate the transfer of technology which would have long term impacts in the industry.

Securing fish

The basic concern of The Gambia should be to secure the provision of fish for the sector.

Overfishing of the Gambian fisheries sector, the deterioration of biodiversity and natural lack of fishes, were three problems which could be solved with the same measures: (i) legal imposition of fishing quotas for the industrial sector, (ii) promotion of aquaculture, (iii) implementation of mandatory schedules or seasons to fish (depending on biological cycles of each specific fish) and biological rest, and (iv) investment in improving fishing nets for them to catch only adults fishes.

The illegal exploitation of fish resources by third countries or the same Gambian community affects, not only the quantity of fish available for the Gambian industry, but the water ecosystem. A well-trained and rigorous sea and river patrol should control fishing by providing permits and fishing certificates to boats and vessels, control third party or country fishing in Gambian waters and provide
guidelines on best fishing practices to preserve the resources. All in all, the Government needs to develop a system to be able to control the way in which it’s maritime and river zones were used.

Securing forests

Another resource which may be scarce in the near future is wood. The fisheries industry uses wood to smoke fish. As in the case of fish, wood is a limited resource which must be secured because deforestation, for instance, is a treat to the availability of that resource. Reforestation is a necessary solution to maintain the production of woods. Although reforestation is an expensive activity, the Kyoto Protocol and the CDM (Clean Mechanism Development) can serve as good guides on how to go about it. Those mechanisms would enable the Gambian Government to access to credits or investment from developed countries through the production of carbon credits.

Protecting water resources

Water pollution in fisheries industry includes, among others, waste released into the river and/or sea by the industrial or artisanal fishers. The water pollution had a direct impact on the fish population as well as the maritime flora.

In The Gambia, water pollution can be dealt with by promoting aquaculture with no chemical products. Additionally, the production of specific seaweed to feed the fishes can also reduced carbon emissions. That also could be put forward as product differentiation, that is, as organic products to be sold in developed countries.

Waste management

The waste resulting from fishing industry, although not used in the Gambian can be put to a good use. Fish waste could be used to create food for pets, fertilizers and/or fish oil (used in pharmacy), among others. In that way, the producers could diversify their products or sell them to a specialized industry and generate new revenues.

4.1.2 Improving the labour conditions of women

With a trade-led development, a large number of new jobs would be created. Those jobs would not only focus on skilled women but would also incorporation into the workforce the underprivileged and relatively unskilled women, who had until now, little chance to be employed.

The Government have the tools to be able to better integrate women in the sector and ensure that those women have the opportunity to transition from the informal economy to the formal economy. In that way they would be able to enjoy a stable income, better working conditions, skill development and other benefits directed specifically to women (i.e. maternity rights) or general benefits (i.e. health programmes which could provide free HIV care and treatments).

Gambian laws on gender equality and women’s empowerment

The Gambia is up to date with international conventions’ ratifications regarding women rights. At the international level, The Gambia ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)\(^8\), the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa\(^9\) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)\(^10\). At the national level, those international instruments were incorporated in the 1997 Constitution of Gambia, the National Women Council Act 1980, the National Policy for the Advancement of Gambian Women (NPAGW) and the Gender and Women Empowerment Policy 2010-2020.

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\(^8\) Adopted the Resolution 34/180 of 18 December 1979 at the 34th session of the General Assembly of the UN. Ratified by the Gambian Government on the 16th of April 1993.


However, although the 1997 Constitution provides equality rights to women, due to the co-existence of civil law with customary and Sharia law, those provisions on equality do not apply “with respect to adoption, marriage, divorce, burial, devolution of property on death or other matters related to personal status” (section 33). That constituted a structural limitation, as traditional rules limit women’s legal status and women’s rights. Customary and Sharia Law still permits discrimination against women regarding access to property, ownerships rights (FEMNET, 2009).

Labour issues

Notwithstanding the fact that domestic law provides for gender equality, the problem remains that specific provisions about gender equality and women’s empowerment were diluted and that there is no specific provision addressing important issues relating to female employment in the Gambian Labour Law. For example, the only disposition related to women is article 71 on maternity rights. However, maternity rights were limited. Not every employed woman is entitled to those rights. Women need to have been in continuous service with the same employer for two years. There is no mention of gender equality or discrimination, which could lead to tribunals not being able to deal with discrimination against women in labour.

Based on the present labour law, the labour status of women would need to be enhanced to eliminate the current discrimination against women. That could be achieved by working together with the Department of State for Women’s Affairs to reform Gambian’s Labour law. The Gambian Labour Law should include provisions which: (i) mention the principle of non-discrimination between men and women in the access to job opportunities, (ii) mention the principle of equal pay between men and women, (iii) provide an extension of the training obligation to all employees, specifically to women, (iv) provide absolute rights to maternity leave, and (v) a reminder that labour law tribunals have jurisdiction over cases dealing with discrimination based on gender.

4.1.3 Knowledge economy

The Gambia should support the acquisition of knowledge on different stages of the fisheries industry by women which would help and encourage them to transfer and better utilize their knowledge in line with the Government’s goals.

What type of education?

The key to development is education. With the specific goal of integrating women in the fisheries sector, education should be understood in the following stages: (i) literacy, (ii) initial professional formation, (iii) continuing professional formation, and (iv) formation to qualify for the employment demand.

As stated in the latter section, there is an immediate need to include the obligation to train employees at every level. However, that obligation concerns only industrial fisheries. In the case of artisanal fisheries, an institution (or various specialized institutions) should impart training and, more conveniently, should have different programs which can be certified by a special ministry or agency of the Government. In that way, training produces a diversification in the fisheries sector by providing skilled workers for each specialization.

Upgrading labour skills is more effective if women were literate. Literacy can be accomplished under the leadership of the Ministry of Education, through adult education programs and encouraging women to attend.

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11 Section 28 of the 1997 Gambian constitution states that women shall be accorded full and equal dignity of the person with men” and that “Women shall have the right to equal treatment with men, including equal opportunities in political, economic and social activities.”

12 According to the section 7 of the Gambian constitution, customary and Sharia laws apply to personal status matters.


Who should be trained?

The focus of the education should not only be the women to be included in the workforce. Future employers of those women in the industries’ sector could also be trained. Training to the latter should economically improve the sector, and educate them on women’s labour rights.

Additionally, ministries and departments responsible of the fisheries’ sector need to be trained on legislative and regulatory reforms, as well as in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies for women in the sector.

On which issues should women be trained?

The subjects of the professional trainings can include but not limited to: (i) trade issues, (ii) business, negotiation and management, (iii) scientific knowledge and sanitary treatment of fish, (iv) resources preservation and environmental issues.

Trade policy and planning should include support to ministries and departments responsible for trade policy, trade-related legislation and regulatory reforms, policy analysis and implementation of multilateral trade agreements, e.g. technical barriers to trade (TBT) and sanitary and phytosanitary (SPS) measures.

Regarding women in the artisanal sector, education on trade, business, negotiation and management would help them to be better organized, increase their bargaining power, enhance their understanding of the market from access to finance, to sale of products and empower them as entrepreneurs.

It was highly recommended that best sanitary practices be included in all training programmes for all persons involved in or associated with the fisheries industry because high sanitary standards is important to gain access to the markets of most developed economies such as the European Union, United States and Japan. and there were also public health benefits that would accrue to the domestic economy. Lastly, education on how to preserve resources and the environment could be offered.

Who would be the trainers?

The Government of Gambia had access to regional experts who work with the Program of Integrated Development Artisanal Fisheries in West Africa (IDAF). The IDAF already works and collaborates with a number of associated projects, research institutions and the Departments of Fisheries in the region. Among other activities, training in management skills had been given and some programs have even legal recognition. Specific centres for research and development of the fisheries sector can be created with added mandate to organize trainings and education on new international regulations, new technologies or new methods of fishing.

Problems and solutions

Women in The Gambia tend to have less time for education and training than men, as a consequence result of their dual responsibilities in the work and domestic spheres.

In the industrial sector, the legal obligation to train should be included within working hours. In the artisanal sector, where women would prioritize gaining immediate money to education and training, that problem could be tackled by the creation of crèches for children. That could be a UNICEF-led program which would also be useful in helping the Government raise sufficient funds to sustain the program.

4.1.4 Access to markets

A smooth functioning of value chain requires not only the factors of production and technology but also the efficient transport, market information systems and management. All the activities should be run at optimum level if the organization is to gain any real competitive advantage.
a. **Domestic**

Considering the fact that The Gambia is a signatory to some free trade agreements and may be signing other free trade agreements in the future, local fish producers would have to compete with foreign companies for access to The Gambia’s domestic market. It is important then to position the artisanal sector in a way that they would be able to successfully compete and sell their products nationwide, while complying with free and fair trade agreements. For instance, a specific market can be constructed close to the fishing harbours or beaches to allow speedy transportation ensuring that the fishes remain fresh and giving the buyers the option between processed fishes or fresh and sometimes alive fishes. That would also improve the organization of women who would only focus in fishing and selling their own products in the market.

A second way to make artisanal fishers competitive is to encourage the formation of women cooperatives. By being able to pull resources together, those women would have the ability to serve clients who would make bulk purchases or reach a wider group of buyers like hotels and restaurants, schools or universities’ canteens and buyers who want specific products with higher value added.

Cooperatives would also make it possible for its members to be able to divide the labour into areas that is more comfortable for each individual and that can lead to an increase in productivity. To attract and keep costumers, the cooperative can provide financing options for their customers. The cooperative can also provide means to those women to establish a stabilization fund to ensure a stable level of income for women during lean seasons. Another way to do so is to encourage women to manufacture and sell of accessories produced from fish or its residuals.

b. **International and regional**

The Gambia enjoys preferential (duty-free) access to the European Union and other export markets. Taking into account those trade patterns, the country does not currently face major tariff barriers in its largest export markets. More prominent trade policy issues were related to non-tariff barriers and trade facilitation. As in the case of many other developing countries, The Gambia’s ability to expand and diversify its export trade is largely contingent on overcoming supply-side obstacles and fulfilling increasingly stringent entry requirements in export markets. That obstacle is tackled with training and investment in strategic areas of the sector.

To improve exports, the construction of a fishing port for large vessels would facilitate exports to regional and international markets and increase the volumes of fish. The port would also attract companies to trade in Gambian fish. Private initiative and competition should be encouraged to improve competitiveness.

*Product differentiation*

The Gambia’s comparative advantage may be artificially crafted through trade strategy and policy. The aim of the fish product differentiation was to increase the output and revenue from different markets. Established markets resided predominantly in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. The markets were mainly the diaspora, so products from The Gambia were in demand with a solid consumer base. Other potential markets may reside through a niche (or gourmet) market in the European Union and the United States.

Product differentiation allowed for the product and not the price to be the point of difference, which affects what product consumers would select and purchase. It was a form of marketing that focused on how to make products stand out, both in general and from competition, through capitalizing on their differences. That meant that for the product created there was no substitute, leading to the creation of demand, and a gain in market share. The differentiation must be valued by buyers, it can also establish loyal consumer bases, which may become less sensitive to aspects of competing offers or have a lower sensitivity to other features (non-price) of the product.

The possibilities for product differentiation and product development in our case were: (i) origin: The Gambia, (ii) quality: type of fishes and its characteristics, (iii) authenticity, (iv) who it is supporting (transparency and traceability): women from The Gambia, and (v) labelling and packaging.
The diaspora currently consumed between three to 18 per cent of all fish exports from The Gambia. That industry was based out of Rosamon Trade, the only processing facility that was certified to export cured fish to the European Union. Further investment in that area would encourage entrepreneurship among women in The Gambia.

On the other hand, shrimp and oyster harvesting were one area that women were particularly involved in and may be used in the development of a niche market. The Government would need to adopt a coherent strategy for the promotion of exportations to the different markets of the specific products.

4.1.5 Access to finance

Aid funding, national expenditures and public policies, as well as private investment, increasingly needed to be examined in an integrated way. In the absence of significant domestic public investment and capital formation, to address trade-related constraints, a variety of financial instruments could be used. A blended financing mechanism of those instruments, including loans, grants, pooled funds and trust funds, and channelling of funds through international financial institutions may be particularly effective. While aid for trade had been defined in terms of official development aid, other sources of financing can help build trade capacities in The Gambia.

Development loans

A key actor in Africa was the African Development Bank. The advantages of that funding were the conditions of the loans which, for example, may include low percentage interest rates, low services charges and commitment fees and long term repayments and grace periods. Through those types of loans, other countries may participate as lenders.

The World Bank also had a number of programs that could benefit the Gambia. For example, international logistics companies were partnering with the World Bank to facilitate trade.

Donations and technical assistance

A number of countries provided bilateral donations. That was the case, for example, of Japanese International Cooperation Agency or German Deutsche Gesellschaft fur Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ). Donations could be general or specific to certain activity in the industry (i.e. for the development of environmental programs).

Aid for Trade

Aid for Trade Initiative played an important role in easing the policies and trade-related binding constraints that prevented developing country firms from linking to or moving up the value chains. There were 28 bilateral donors, 15 multilateral donors, and nine providers of South-South cooperation. The 2013 review showed that the initiative was delivering tangible results in improving trade performance and bettering persons’ lives, notably those of women, in developing countries.

“Osusu” system

In the Gambia there was an existing system of financing called “Osusu”. Women gathered amounts of money and periodically granted loans among themselves. That system, which was currently informal, could be formalized through the banking system by allowing women to open an “Osusu account” to deposit “Osusu” money. The system also promoted a social network of trust among women. Policies could be built on top, for example, by topping up a percentage of what women deposited in the account. Moreover, insurance could be provided for the cases of hazards.

Microcredits

The Gambia had already developed a microcredit system. The aim should be to mobilize those borrowers into the banking system of the country as they gain better financial profiles so they were able to access to larger credits.
Local banking system

The local banking system should be revised to permit the access to credits of small companies or entrepreneurs. The Government, with the support of loans or donations, could provide guarantees to women entrepreneurs or industries supporting the work of women.

4.2 Middle term

4.2.1 Sustainability: Aquaculture/Reforestation

In 2012, the Ministerial Conference on Fisheries Cooperation among African States Bordering the Atlantic Ocean organized a symposium on the potential of the marine-culture, fish farming in marine environment in Africa. Perceived as a viable alternative, it represented three per cent of fish production in Sub-Saharan Africa, and only 2.2 per cent of the world production.

The fisheries sector in The Gambia remained divided between men and woman. Men took care mainly of the maritime fishing, while woman took care of all tasks after fishing. Fish farming would allow women to be involved in all stages of production and not only the “after fishing task.”

Aqua-culture was a good solution to over-fishing and the problem of local supply. It offered possibilities to increase the productivity of the resources in fresh water, improved the food safety, would help to reduce poverty, and would reduce the pressure on natural resources of The Gambia.

4.2.2 Women as decision-makers: A Union of Women

West Africa had a tradition of association and creation of varied networks. For example, organizations like “Kafoons” and, the already mentioned “Osusu” unions existed in order to obtain credit facilities. Building on those associations, a Union of Women for the sector could be encouraged to address all the needs of women. The union could work as a platform for women empowerment.

The union could provide the following:

- Training on women’s rights;
- Act as a network to increase the bargaining power and income of women;
- Join together entrepreneurs in the sector decreasing of costs of production and logistics; Inform on access to resources and financing;
- Inform or advise the Government on women and their needs;
- Ensure better access to the non-governmental organizations specialized in women’s issues;
- Sensitization of women about their status in society.

There was already a successful case in Senegal of an association, which could be used as example of such institution. It was strongly women-led and organized, with a network of 113 associations situated in different districts.

4.2.3 Improvement of existing structures

Logistical concerns could not be ignored in any effort to promote national socio-economic development in The Gambia. The workers in the fishery industry of The Gambia employed different strategies in the processing, storing and transporting fishes to their intended markets. The lack of a comprehensive “cold chain” and adequate road networks seriously impacted the competitiveness of exports. Because fresh fish were highly perishable, efficient infrastructure systems were critical to the success of the fisheries sector. However, pre-cooling and cold-storage facilities were limited for producers and exporters.

The Gambia’s fishery industry by itself had only two processing plants that were in operation but were doing so at low capacities (UNDP, 2011). The artisan fishery sub-sector, where the majority of locally-employed persons worked, did not have access to large processing and storage facilities,
which affected the ability of the fish mongers to process large quantity of fishes and also to maintain a high sanitation standard (UNDP, 2011). The Gambia could consider that situation as an opportunity by building new processing plants, investing and improving upon their existing facilities, so that they could develop the capacity to serve a large share of the West African regional market.

Furthermore, the artisan fishers did not have access to transports that were friendly for their business, they used commercial transports with no refrigerators to take their fishes to the market (Musselli & Zarrilli, 2012). To ensure adequate supply and optimum use of logistics, it was important for the Gambian Government to encourage large private investment in perishable goods distribution companies. Those companies could work closely with the artisan fishers by transporting their products to the markets; they could also facilitate the contact between the sellers and buyers without the sellers having to constantly move. Through those distribution companies, most of the working women could be brought into the formal economy. The distribution companies or distribution channel would provide the opportunity for the public policy makers to collect valuable data and would also employ more persons.

Commercial scale ice cubes production could also be encouraged; that would generate its own business apart from helping locals to preserve their fishes. There was only one major ice making plants in the whole of West Africa and therefore, there was a market for the excess ice that would be produced. With Gambia taking the lead in that business, they would not only be helping their fishery industry but ice could become a foreign income earner for the country and it would generate employment as well. To support all those large-scale production plants and to better serve small-scale fisher mongers, there was a need for a steady and regular supply of electricity.

4.2.4 Promotion of investment

The legal system of The Gambia was fairly stable and in tandem with standards all over the world. There was a constitutional guarantee protecting investments against nationalization and expropriation, membership and subscription to the regulations of the Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA), which essentially upheld the protection of investments against non-commercial losses and deference to international arbitration, is itself a guarantee.

The Gambia Investment and Export Promotion Agency was already in charge of promoting investments in different sectors of the Gambian economy and accesses potential investors. A new policy to promote investment in the fisheries sector focused on women’s work for local or international investors would not only stimulate the hiring of women but would greatly develop the sector overall. A commercial court, resourced by personnel trained on international standards and supervised by the World Bank would ensure amicable settlements of commercial disputes and thereby appealing to investors.

If investors invested in the fisheries sector in the Gambia which hired a certain percentage of women, incentives could be allocated to those investor such as:

- Tax exemptions on profit and dividends;
- Free repatriation of profits in a free foreign exchange market;
- Exemption from customs duty, sales taxes and turnover tax; and
- Reduced port handling charges.

The Government had already provided a broad list of priority investments, which would enjoy wider incentives, such as free allocation of land, and approximately three years tax holiday.

For the purpose of protecting the employment of women and entrepreneurship, certain incentives could be provided to local or foreign investors:

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• Reduction in monthly tax base used to calculating personal income tax on female worker salary;
• Benefits to the employer in shape of refunds granted for salaries and social security contributions for women;
• Certain percentage state coverage of the social security contributions for the first year as well as the state’s payment of certain monthly salaries for the female employee;
• If the percentage of women hired is equal to or higher than a high percentage of the total company workforce, the company could be exempted from payment of personal tax on behalf of their female employees as well as pension and health contributions;
• Exempt from corporate income tax payments under condition that an indeterminate duration contract had been signed with a female employee;
• When hiring a woman, the employer could be exempt from pension fund contributions as well as being eligible for a percentage of salary tax reduction;
• Reimbursement of a high percentage of hired women gross salary in the first year of employment and reimbursements of another percentage in subsequent years of employment.

To directly attract the foreign investments, the following proposals could be considered:

• Partial tax exoneration for members of the diasporas investing in development of fisheries market in Gambia;
• Promotion of the tax benefits in the media.

4.2.5 International cooperation and partnerships

As stated before, without fish and other fishery resources, all policies for persons operating in that sector, particularly women would be irrelevant.

Two types of international cooperation could improve resources preservation: (i) bring together the countries of the sub-region (Mali, Burkina Faso, Cote d'Ivoire and Ghana) in addition to members of the PRSC (Cape Verde, Gambia countries, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Mauritania, Senegal, Sierra Leone) to protect marine areas but also to create an outlet for locally processed fish products, (ii) aim to work with institutions such as the United Nations and its agencies UNCTAD and FAO, in addition to NGOs, such as the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN), the Worldwide Fund for Nature (WWF), Wetlands International and the International Foundation for the Banc d’Arguin (FIBA), the French Development Agency (AFD), JICA, etc. because they were active in the fight against the destruction of the ecosystem and the conservation of fishery resources, to ensure a continuous and sustainable supply of resources, but also to penalize vessels that do not respect the areas and fishing standards.

4.2.6 Tourism

The tourism linked to fishing had not yet been developed in Gambia. The beauty of Gambia’s natural environment offers abundant fishing opportunities. In addition to being an important activity for residents in Gambia, fishing can also be considered a form of tourism. Tourism could be promoted for the local economic development. The families or small self-employer companies in Gambia could develop fish tourism, which can be managed by women. Similarly, an installation of a museum near the market with an exhibition on the diverse species of fish (500) available in Gambian waters could also enhance tourism.

4.3 Long term (expected results)

4.3.1 Mainstreaming gender in trade

International instruments on gender not directly related to trade served a dual purpose: to create a rights-based framework where women sought economic rights by way of entitlement and also to
ensure that national Governments had the appropriate protective enabling instruments in place to avoid any deterrence of or distortions to trade policies (Kiratu & Suryapratim, 2010).

The aim was to use trade agreements to upgrade women participation in the fisheries sector and check the gender sensitivity of the current agreements. Some studies assume that trade liberalization improved the prospects of women, particularly those of unskilled female workers (Joekes, 1999; Nords, 2003). In commodity-dependent developing countries, like The Gambia, women constituted the bulk of the labour force and drove development. However, if trade liberalization was promoted, women may be damaged. Then there is a need for the inclusion of women in jobs related to the export market of fisheries. While most traders were female, transporters, freight-forwarders, moneychangers but now the various formal and informal agents working in other aspects of transportation and forwarding were men (ECA, 2010). The landing of fish had tended to become concentrated in fish ports instead of on beaches where women have traditionally participated in the processing and sale of fish; thus, when a fishery’s activity is enlarged or mechanized, it often became the domain of men, as in agriculture (UNCTAD, 2008). The Government could mainstream gender in trade using the following strategies:

- In order to reverse the phenomenon of men taking over an activity which becomes lucrative and export-worthy, and in order to promote greater involvement of women in trade, more proactive, affirmative-action types of policies were needed that facilitate women's moving out of the subsistence end of the spectrum and into competitive commerce. Promoting the integration of women also in other sectors of the Gambian economy which were related to the fisheries sector. Cases involving components of projects specifically designed for women were an encouraging first step.

- Propose trade liberalization schedules in new trade agreements to allow women to adapt to the new market conditions; the gender effects of a trade agreement could vary if the Gambia takes an approach to adapt to and mitigate the expected impact,

- Propose in the World Trade Organization meeting the inclusion of gender sensitivity as an exception in GATT article XX.

4.3.2 Formation of experts in resources preservation

The Gambia could benefit from training its own experts in preservation of water and fish resources. That would make them independent from external help and provide them with local knowledge of the industry. Countries, like Germany, offer scholarships for students of developing countries with the aim of preparing experts in environmental management. The Gambian Government should consider sending the same amount of women than men.

4.3.3 Food security

Food fish, whether captured or cultured, plays an important role in human nutrition and global food supply, particularly within the diet and food security of the poor as a source of much needed essential dietary nutrients.

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Food fish, whether captured or cultured, plays an important role in human nutrition and global food supply, particularly within the diet and food security of the poor as a source of much needed essential dietary nutrients.

Despite importance of food fish in Africa, the Sub-Saharan region is the only region of the world where per capita consumption of food fish had fallen (FAO, 2009). That tendency needed to be changed. The Government could create a program to teach and promote the richness of fish in nutrition.

4.3.4 International exposure

Although The Gambia had little exposure in global diplomacy, it had the conditions to become a global player. Small countries, like Singapore, have become examples of development and were respected as experts in the areas they have champions.

The application of innovative ideas for women could not only provide an example to other regional countries facing the same challenged but could be transplanted to other regions of the world. That international exposure can be then translated into bargaining power in multilateral forums for the benefit of the Gambian society.

4.3.5 Empowerment of women

A further suggestion was constitutional reform to prohibit discrimination against women, even in the case of personal status matters subjected to customary and Sharia law.

Such reform, together with the fact that many women have been appointed as judges in different levels of Gambian Courts, open doors to fight socio-cultural barriers faced by women to access justice. Working in partnership with associations as the Female Lawyers Association-Gambia (FLAG) would facilitate and accelerate the benefits for women.

5 Expected results

If the Government applied all of the recommendation following (or also accelerating) the proposed terms, the results would show impacts in four societal groups: (i) women, (ii) the fisheries industry, (iii) society in general, (iv) the Gambian Government.

Gender would be mainstreamed into the industry and trade. Women would participate in a 50 per cent in all of the value chain. A major presence would be in the trading part as the offshore fishing would still be dominated by men because of its larger independence from raising the family. The effects in the industry were expected to produce a “spill-over” into other industries in the country, upgrading women in all the aspects of trade.

The industry would benefit from a controlled and sustainable fishing. That would boost commerce, help the artisanal fishing and ameliorate the subsistence of fish resources. The organized liberalization of trade would give the fishing industry the means to compete globally.

The Gambian Government would benefit from the development of the country, and of a strong private sector, which would also reduce the dependency of local communities on State resources. Regarding foreign policy, the testing of innovative ideas and developing expertise based on visible positive impacts could be translated into bargaining power in international relations.

In conclusion, the organization of the entire industry and the integration of women in the workforce would reduce poverty and enhance development, not only economic, but social as well; as upholding the rights of women enriched society at all levels. With a long-term vision, the introduction of sustainable factors - such as the preservation of fish, improvement of quality of the food, food security, and better labour conditions - would benefit not only to Gambians today, but also future generations.
Bibliography


REDUCING SEXUAL AND GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE AMONG ADOLESCENT GIRLS AND BOYS IN A POST-EMERGENCY SITUATION IN HAITI

A United Nations Population Fund facilitated analysis on gender equality and the empowerment of women.
Introduction

Located in the Caribbean, the Republic of Haiti is the world’s third largest island-country after the Dominican Republic and Cuba, and supports a population of around ten million people (UNFPA, 2011). Its geographical position makes Haiti vulnerable to environmental disasters, and its socio-economic and cultural practices provide major challenges to the population in terms of social equality.

1 Background: the emergency and post-emergency situation

In January 2010 a 7.0 magnitude earthquake occurred in Haiti, and combined with environmental constraints and confounding social and infrastructure problems, Haiti was transformed into an emergency-living situation. The earthquake struck near the capital of Port-au-Prince, the most densely populated part of Haiti. The death toll has been estimated at over 200,000 (Haiti PDNA, 2010). Around 1.5 million people lost their homes and moved to shelters and camps both formal and informal. Moreover, important infrastructures were damaged, such as health centres, schools, and a third part of government institutions (UNHCR, 2013).

Formal and informal camps for internally displaced persons (IDPs), also known as “tent cities,” were constructed in open areas throughout Port-au-Prince and surrounding areas. Both domestic and international actors worked to coordinate efforts to address immediate needs (UNHCR, 2013). In August and October 2012, however, Tropical Storm Isaac and Hurricane Sandy, respectively, further damaged the emergency situation in Haiti. The effects were felt within camps shelters, and forced people to move between Port-au-Prince and other cities (UNHCR, 2013). Through March 2013, more than 320,000 internally displaced persons were living in 385 camps across Haiti (Humanitarian Response Haiti, 2013).

However, social impacts were experienced differently depending on gender. Grassroots organizations have estimated that before the earthquake, one of three women in Haiti had already experienced some form of sexual violence, being in 2008 the half of rape victims under the age of seventeen (Amnesty International, 2013). Living in tents shelters increased women’s vulnerability to sexual and gender-based violence.

While sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) was a problem in Haiti prior to the 2010 earthquake, it was, like other social issues, exacerbated by factors associated with displacement (UNHCR, 2013). In displaced contexts, the factors that increase a woman’s vulnerability to SGBV were the lack of security within camps, insufficient lighting, insecure housing, isolated bathrooms and showers, limited access to food and water, flimsy tent doors, separated families, anonymity among people in the camps, a lack of effective law enforcement, and limited knowledge of and access to health and economic services. Furthermore, the majority of female victims were under the age of twenty-five. Many victims were in their late teens (UNHCR, 2013).

Following the 2010 earthquake, civil society organizations reported an increase in sexual violence, including rape and gang rape against young women and girls, perpetrated by partners, former partners and family members. Only three months after the earthquake, more than 250 cases of rape were reported by a women’s organization within 15 camps (UNHCR, 2013). Furthermore, it is particularly alarming that most SGBV victims were adolescent girls. As reported by MINUSTAH earlier that year, out of 115 rapes that were reported to the UN Police between January and March 2013, 91 were of acts of violence against adolescents. And despite national and international efforts to control the overall number of SGBV incidents, official figures remain quite high with more than 430 cases reported only in three months.

2 Legal framework and commitment of international organizations

Several legally binding agreements for addressing sexual and gender-based violence in Haiti exist to provide the logistical framework for preventing sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV). More specifically, at the core of the United Nation system, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) prohibits discrimination (Article 1) and guarantees respect for the human rights of women (Article 2). It was within the scope of UNFPA’s work to address SGBV through that proposed program as Haiti rebuilds from a post-emergency situation.
3 United Nations Population Fund

The United Nations Population Fund’s (UNFPA) mission is to deliver “a world where every pregnancy is wanted, every birth is safe, and every young person’s potential is fulfilled”.

The UNFPA is a subsidiary organ of the General Assembly, from which policy guidance is received, in addition to guidance from the Economic and Social Council. UNFPA’s partners include governments, other international agencies and civil society to advance in its mission. UNFPA’s efforts were framed in the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) and its Programme of Action, and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) to reduce extreme poverty by 2015.

The UNFPA addressed gender issues in all its program and activities. That strategy relied on the UNFPA’s Strategic Framework for programming for 2008-2013 (extended in 2012). The strategy derives from Principle 4 of the ICPD Program of Action, which stated:

“Advancing gender equality and equity and the empowerment of women, and the elimination of all kinds of violence against women, and ensuring women’s ability to control their own fertility, were cornerstones of population and development-related programmes”.

4 Strategy

The United Nations Population Fund recently released a fifth Official Work Programme for Haiti, covering the period 2013 to 2016. In that document, the Government of Haiti and UNFPA restate their commitment to gender equality and investing in youth as part of recovery efforts (UNFPA, 2013). The Haitian Government had created a national youth policy, and UNFPA helped coordinate efforts to respond to gender based violence (GBV) occurring after the earthquake especially in internally displaced persons (IDP) camps and settlements located across the country.

UNFPA wanted to ensure “government institutions and civil society organizations have increased capacity to design, implement and monitor policies and programmes addressing the needs of young people in the areas of gender equality, reproductive health and rights, and gender-based violence and care, including in humanitarian situations” (ibid 2013a).

That goal corresponded to a policy of the Haitian Government dating from 2001 that focused on youth and adolescents, and was titled “Politique Nationale de Santé des Jeunes et des Adolescents” (Government of Haiti 2001).

Recent population data in Haiti was difficult to find, but the 2001 national youth policy estimated youth under 24 years old comprised 60 per cent of the population in the country (ibid. 2001). That same policy identified several problems facing adolescents and youth. Those problems were focused around health, education, and development. Many young people were not considered high impact for health initiatives compared to the elderly, and secondary education was severely limited among youth (ibid. 2001). Such problems were compounded in IDP camp and settlement settings after a major earthquake in 2010.

Goal: Reduce sexual and gender based violence among adolescent females and males (age 15-24) in the post-emergency situation in Haiti.

5 Objective One: Increase capacity of young people in Canaan Settlement, Haiti to prevent and address SGBV.

The recent UNFPA Work Programme for Haiti proposes addressing SGBV under the topic of gender equality and reproductive rights by: “supporting the implementation of the national youth policy through awareness raising and peer-to-peer education to prevent violence against young women and girls” (ibid. 2013a). In accordance with the current UNFPA Work Programme and the Haitian Government’s national youth policy, Objective One proposes partnering with local civil society groups and national networks to implement two activities to reduce sexual and gender based violence (SGBV) in IDP camps and settlements:
1) peer-to-peer programs to raise awareness about SGBV; and
2) parent-adolescent safety patrols to ensure IDP camps and settlements have reduced SGBV.

It is important to note the term GBV might be used interchangeably with other terms such as ‘violence against women’ or ‘sexual and gender-based violence’ (SGBV). The 2010 Interagency Field Manual on Reproductive Health in Emergency Settings defined SGBV as when females subordinate in society experience gender or sexual violence but that men and boys could also be subject to such violence (WHO, 2010).

Types of SGBV might include: sexual violence, domestic violence, forced or early marriage, harmful traditional practices such as genital mutilation, or trafficking (WHO, 2010). The consequences of SGBV may be physical, such as death, injury, pregnancy, abortion, sexually-transmitted diseases; psychological, such as depression, anxiety or post-traumatic stress disorder; or social, such as stigma or rejection. (WHO, 2010).

6 Activity A: Peer-to-Peer Training and Education

Implementing programs that used the framework of peer-to-peer (P2P) training and education was useful when working with youth ages 15-24 to reduce SGBV in IDP camps and settlements. That sort of P2P training and education format was suggested in the recent UNFPA Work Programme for Haiti (ibid. 2013a).

P2P education is defined in an earlier UN report as: “The use of same age or same background educators to convey educational messages to a target group… Peer educators work by endorsing healthy norms, beliefs, and behaviours within their own peer group or community and challenging those who were unhealthy” (United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention, 2000).

P2P approaches can help change individual and societal norms around issues such as drug prevention, youth health, crime, and violence (ibid. 2013a). P2P programs must be developed carefully to:

- Be culturally appropriate
- Be developmentally appropriate
- Provide accurate information
- Embrace experiential learning
- Have knowledgeable staff (ibid. 2013a).

P2P programs need to have trained staff in leadership roles, and those staff should be knowledgeable about P2P programs and understand SGBV, SGBV prevention, and SGBV resources. Practitioners working on SGBV issues should also employ a collaborative approach, including people from “health, psychological, safety/security, and legal/justice” sectors (WHO, 2010). The Working Group suggested that UNFPA designed a P2P program to reduce SGBV to be implemented by a local civil society organization in Canaan IDP settlement in Haiti using the five guidelines outlined in the “Peer to Peer” report cited above (ibid. 2000).

That P2P program would be scaled to the IDP settlement level to “raise awareness about the health consequences of SGBV and when and where to access relevant health services” (WHO, 2010). UNFPA would first design that program with the assistance of UNICEF to include components on P2P training and education as well as SGBV awareness. UNICEF has considerable experience creating similar SGBV training and education programs with adolescents in Democratic Republic of the Congo (UNICEF 2012). UNFPA would share that program with a local civil society organization working in Canaan IDP Settlement in Haiti. The civil society organization would first attend a training with UNFPA to learn about the general program framework, P2P training and education and SGBV. The civil society organization would then send out a call for interested ‘peer educators’ in the settlement to take part in a 20-hour training. That 20-hour training would be held over the course of two to four weeks based on available time of youth in the settlement.
For the first ten hours, young females and males would participate in their own trainings separately. That section of training will cover general issues such as the definition of SGBV, prevention strategies and SGBV resources. Additionally, young females would participate in basic self-defence and whistle workshops, and young males would participate in sensitivity and masculinity workshops.

For the final ten hours, the whole group would come together to design a cultural- and age-appropriate SGBV education program to reach their peers. Those youth will then commit to offer that training program to fifty of their peers with assistance from local civil society organizations. Once each ‘peer educator’ reaches the goal of educating fifty peers, s/he will receive a certificate of completion, information about possible livelihood or job-search strategies, and assistance returning to secondary schooling or college, as appropriate.

Expected Results

- 100 participants will be trained as P2P educators over the period of one year.
- 5,000 peers will be reached through the P2P education program.
- P2P training and education program will be implemented in Canaan IDP Settlement for a period of one year.
- Staff at targeted local civil society organizations will demonstrate a 70 percent increase in knowledge about SGBV, SGBV prevention and SGBV resources.
- P2P educators will demonstrate a 70 percent increase in knowledge about SGBV, SGBV prevention and SGBV resources.
- A 30 percent reduction in instances of SGBV within Canaan IDP Settlement will be observed.

Resources

The financial resources for that program were allocated in the overall budget for the fifth official Work Programme for Haiti in effect from 2013 to 2016. The overall budget for the line item “Gender Equality and Reproductive Rights” was two million with 0.5 million allocated for “Programme coordination and assistance” (UNFPA 2013a). That budget needed to be allocated to objectives and activities depending on needs. Objective One would require additional funding for resources needed to conduct fieldwork in settlements with 1.5 million allocated.

UNFPA would need to pay for training for five staff members from a local civil society organization. An hourly wage for those staff members to implement the P2P education and training program for one year would also be included in the budget. That wage would equal 5 people offering 100 hours of training (20 hour trainings offered 5 times each year) resulting in 500 hours of pay. Two staff members would work with females, two staff members will work with males, and one staff member will work as project coordinator. The project coordinator would also be responsible for organizing the post-program livelihood and job-search training program for P2P educators reaching their target goal. They would receive an additional stipend of 100 hours of pay to coordinate that program, and a small scholarship fund would be created offering payment of one year of school fees for those returning to secondary schooling.

The following physical resources would be needed for implementation of the P2P training and education program: 50 flashlights and 50 whistles for the young females completing the self-defence and whistle training, 500 whistles for the young females to hand out to other young females completing the P2P education program, 100 large flipcharts and marker sets for the P2P educators, 1,000 copies of SGBV resource contact information for distribution to youth completing the P2P education program, snacks for the 20 hour training program offered five times a year, 100 certificates of completion for P2P educators, 100 livelihood and job-search handbooks, and 100 small cards for completion of the livelihood and job-search training.

Obstacles

Community acceptance of the P2P training and education program was very important. Local misunderstandings about a program or the lead organization could have negative implications for
the community’s willingness to support the program or the program participants (Human Rights Centre, 2013). Difficulties might arise when a community did not understand or support the program or donors such as the UNFPA.

Another potential obstacle for that program was also connected with cultural norms. In the P2P training and education program, young males would participate in sensitivity and masculinity workshops related to SGBV. The local perception of sensitivity and masculinity could be quite dissimilar to the one used in training the ‘peer educators’. In that situation, some young males could decide not to participate or could feel uncomfortable.

Finally, financial and human resources may be limited. Staff working the local civil society organization, the suggested partner for that program, might not provide sufficient information about SGBV or reach an adequate number of adolescent youth. Or the local civil society organization might encounter staff or budgeting limitations which would limit the length and breadth of the program.

Partnerships

Strategies to expand resources and capacity require partnering with local and international actors to fulfill core functions such as awareness and referral, service provision, and fundraising. Such partnerships would be with organizations such as UNICEF, private international donors, and Haitian providers working on SGBV. In particular, a strong partnership would take place with UNICEF in the P2P program development. UNICEF and UNFPA were co-leads on the “Gender Based Violence” sub-cluster in the “Protection” cluster for organized humanitarian response in Haiti (Humanitarian Response, 2013). UNICEF has experience developing similar age-appropriate programs in relation to SGBV as evidenced by their creation of “Adolescent Discussion Groups” in Democratic Republic of Congo (UNICEF, 2012).

Other partnerships include the following:

- A local civil society organization that already worked with youth to implement the P2P training and education program in the settlement;
- Health-care providers that could be used as referrals when someone needed treatment after experiencing SGBV;
- Legal resources that could be used as referrals when someone needed treatment after experiencing SGBV.

Additionally, the United States Institute of Peace (USIP) worked to promote reconciliation and reconstruction in Haiti through providing training in at-risk communities and through nationwide legal reform (USIP, 2013). USIP had already teamed up with Digital Democracy to train women activists in Haiti to monitor and report violence in their communities (ibid. 2013). USIP also supported Haiti’s efforts to reform legal codes. Likewise, USIP would be a strong partner in offering basic self-defence and whistle workshops for female ‘peer educators’ participating in that P2P program. Finally, Human Rights Watch researchers’ fieldwork on SGBV would inform the P2P program creation to reach adolescent youth. Their research would contribute to the content of P2P training and education program.

Evaluation

That program would be evaluated using both quantitative and qualitative methods. Quantitative measures include evaluating the number of participants trained as P2P educators, the number of peers reached through the P2P education program, and the length of time the P2P program was implemented in the settlement. Qualitative measures include a pre and post interview with P2P educators before and after attending the 20-hour training. Those interviews would include questions about SGBV, SGBV prevention, and SGBV resources.

A more general community census would take place before and after implementation of the program. That met the UNFPA goal of supporting detailed data collection “to allow for appropriate, effective and efficient relief” (UNFPA 2013b). UNFPA would take the lead on conducting that community census coordinating with the Haitian Government involved in conducting the last nationwide census.
in 2006 (UN News Centre 2006). Aspects of the GBV Assessment Report conducted in Kerbi Beyah
Refugee Camp and Shimelba Refugee Camp in Ethiopia in 2007 would be incorporated into that
community census methodology (UNFPA, 2007).

7 Activity B: Parent – Adolescent Safety Patrol

In the parent-adolescent safety patrol program, fathers and sons in the Canaan IDP settlement
would be trained by a local civil society organization already specialized in working with SGBV
and by security staff of the national police and the United Nations. During two-to-three day training
courses, father-son teams would learn about basic self-defence and camp safety, as well as SGBV.
Father-son teams and security staff of the national police and the United Nations would be sensitized
to the following questions:

- What were the underlying causes of SGBV in Haitian society?
- What measures existed to prevent SGBV?
- Who were the victims and what could be done to help them? Who were the perpetrators?
- How to handle the situation if a family member or a friend became a victim of rape?

Father-son teams were equipped with flashlights and mobile phones for patrolling the settlement.
For security reasons, father-son safety patrols would only engage in evening shifts from 4 p.m. to
10 p.m. and they would always be accompanied by security staff of the national police or the United
Nations.

Patrol teams would have regular meetings for socializing and exchanging experiences with security
staff to increase settlement safety. Additionally, patrol teams would work together to create a
settlement safety map identifying safe and dangerous locations in the community. Those maps
would be distributed to people living in the settlement.

Expected Results

- 100 father-son safety patrol teams would be trained within one year.
- 1,000 settlement safety maps will be distributed in Canaan IDP settlement.
- Father-son safety patrol teams will demonstrate a 70 per cent increase in knowledge about
dangers of SGBV within one year.
- A 30 percent reduction in incidences of SGBV within Canaan IDP Settlement will be
observed.

Resources

UNFPA would need funding to employ a program coordinator, a person living in the settlement, as a
contact person for all administrative and organizational questions coming from safety patrol teams.
The program coordinator would also be responsible for scheduling patrol shifts for safety patrol
teams and security staff. The following physical resources would be needed for implementation of
the parent-adolescent safety patrol program: 150 flashlights and 100 mobile phones to be distributed
to safety patrol teams, five computers for safety patrol teams to work on security maps, and food for
regular meetings among patrol teams and security stuff.

Obstacles

A potential obstacle for that program could relate to community misperception. For example,
community members could look at the program as a means to militarise a civil public. That may lead
to less interest in participation by community members, less support for the training by community
members, and an increase in safety concerns among participating father-son teams. Another
potential obstacle related to the cultural appropriateness of topics selected for the father-son team
training, which may be objectionable or alienating to some community members.
Partnerships

UNFPA would engage with KOFAVIV, a local civil society organization with direct contact with community members and detailed knowledge of the current situation. KOFAVIV (Commission of Women Victims for Victims) was established by victims of SGBV in the poorest areas of Port-au-Prince (MADRE, 2013). That grassroots group offers immediate support to SGBV victims and combats underlying conditions that give rise to SGBV. Members of KOFAVIV were already present at various IDP camps and settlements in Haiti. KOFAVIV cooperates with the women’s human rights organization MADRE which has already implemented “night-time community watch groups and provided cell phones, whistles and flashlights to women in the camps” in Haiti (ibid, 2013).

It was suggested that KOFAVIV and MADRE collaborate with UNFPA in the parent-adolescent safety patrol program to train father-son teams. Due to their work experience on SGBV, the two organizations would cover the educational part of trainings for father-son teams and security staff. KOFAVIV and MADRE can also contribute to design and coordination of the safety patrol system framework.

Another potential partner would be the Institute for Justice and Democracy in Haiti. The Institute launched “The Haiti Rape Accountability and Prevention Project (RAPP)” in response to the increase of rape against women after the 2010 earthquake (IJDH, 2011). That project offered victims of rape legal services, engaged in implementation of preventive measures, and encouraged more effective responses by the justice system. It was suggested members of RAPP work as educational trainers for father-son teams and security staff. They should specifically concentrate on legal and psychological consequences of rape for victims and perpetrators. Father-son teams and security staff should learn how to support SGBV victims immediately, for example accompany them to hospital, support them in reporting the attack to the police and so on.

Finally, it was suggested that UNFPA partner with the national police and the United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti (MINUSTAH), which was already present in Canaan IDP Settlement. MINUSTAH is a supporter of protection of adolescent girls from SGBV (MINUSTAH 2012). The MINUSTAH program collects feedback from the community and works to increase training for justice officials on prosecuting gender-based crimes. It was suggested that MINUSTAH take over the practical part of the training and train father-son teams to carry out safety patrols.

Evaluation

That program would be evaluated using quantitative and qualitative methods. The parent-adolescent safety patrol program would be evaluated quantitatively using instruments of measure (i.e. using questionnaires to find out the number of SGBV victims in Canaan IDP Settlement). Those questionnaires would provide baseline data on occurrences of SGBV in the settlement. They would also help UNFPA estimate participation rates for father-son teams that should be trained as safety patrol teams and provide information on vulnerable areas of the community in relation to SGBV. The questionnaires should also be used after the program to re-evaluate data on occurrences of SGBV and vulnerable areas of the community in relation to SGBV.

Additionally, UNFPA would perform a secondary analysis of existing data on SGBV collected by the Government of Haiti. The parent-adolescent safety patrol program would be evaluated qualitatively using oral interviews. Those semi-structured individual interviews will be conducted within the Canaan IDP Settlement to establish perceptions of different stakeholders within the community. Additionally, a participatory action research (PAR) project will be conducted among trainers and trainees (UNFPA, staff from various organizations conducting the training, security staff and father-son teams) to access the impact of the training and provide information on lessons learned for better developing future programs.

8 Objective Two: Encourage cooperation among national and local authorities and NGOs to prevent and address SGBV.

A sub-cluster on SGBV had existed in Haiti since before the 2010 earthquake. It was co-directed by the UNFPA and the Ministry of Women’s Affairs and Women’s Rights (MCFDF) and serves as
a coordination mechanism for more than 100 organizations acting in Haiti. The sub-cluster was expected to gradually pass under the direction of the MCFDF, and the UNFPA was engaged in fostering the capacities of the MCFDF in order to cope with that responsibility. Among its major activities were sensitizing the wide public about gender equality, elaborating projects of laws concerning responsible paternity, and especially SGBV prevention, sanction and elimination, and in effectively executing the national plan to fight against SGBV (UNFPA, 2013a).

As gender equality was a major factor for the social, economic and political development of Haiti, UNFPA considered SGBV prevention to be one of the country’s most urgent national-level issues. Deeply concerned about the environmental vulnerability of Haiti, UNFPA aimed to help national and local authorities build capacity to ensure the security of their citizens, especially young women and adolescent girls, in emergency and post-emergency situations, and to provide adequate assistance to survivors of SGBV.

To that end, UNFPA had designed two activities to complement existing national strategies and international cooperation in the matter, and to benefit Haitian society: (i) training of police officers in SGBV prevention and response, and (ii) promoting better health assistance to victims of SGBV. During their execution, UNFPA would make efforts to achieve a strong national commitment, public engagement and better coordination between stakeholders working for SGBV reduction. That was the only way to achieve durable solutions and better protection of young Haitians’ rights to security, dignity, physical integrity and equality.

9 Activity A: Train Haitian police officers on SGBV prevention and response

Haiti has had a professional national police force since 1995. In 2006, police officers began training at the National Police Academy. Since then, that institution has trained about 12,000 police officers, in close collaboration with UN Police (UNPOL). Today the Haitian police force includes 10,000 professionals who serve in various divisions (some of which specialize in SGBV). Only about 8 per cent of police staff members were women.

Experience showed that neither the overall number of police officers nor the number of women engaged in that profession corresponded to the needs of Haitian society. Therefore, MINUSTAH and the Haitian National Police (PNd’H) supported the Haitian Government in the elaboration and adoption in 2012 of a national plan for the development of the PNd’H (MINUSTAH 2013). The plan aimed to increase the overall number of police officers to 5,000 by 2016, involve more women (namely by fixing a quota of 11 per cent for female police staff) and specialize female police officers in SGBV prevention and response (MINUSTAH 2013).

Resources

The combination of an existing national plan for the development of the PNd’H together with UNFPA’s rich experience in designing SGBV prevention trainings for police officers forms a good basis from which to implement that activity. In addition, the existing cooperation between the PNd’H and the National Police Academy with MINUSTAH should lend support to that activity, especially when combined effectively with the efforts of international stakeholders to build capacity within the PNd’H through the provision of training on SGBV at local police offices.

Obstacles

A major obstacle to the accomplishment of that objective was the persistence of gender stereotypes in Haiti, which led to social inequalities and discrimination against women. Those stereotypes may contribute to some student officers’ potentially sceptical approach to the training, while women may be reluctant to sit for the National Police Academy’s entrance exams for fear of social marginalization (including rejection from their families) or simply for lack of confidence.

Another impediment was a lack of public awareness about the negative effects that SGBV had on Haitian society. The uncertainty with which the Haitian government addressed gender issues as a whole, the insufficient implementation of and respect for existing gender legislation and regulations,
as well as the dependence of Haitian authorities on foreign partners for many technical, financial and human resources, may also have a detrimental effect on efforts on behalf of that objective.

*Activity Description*

Under the direct patronage of Haitian first lady, Sophia Martelly, UNFPA would introduce training at the National Police Academy of Haiti in the form of a 60-hour course, designed for both new police officers and experienced professionals undertaking continued studies at the Academy. The course would consist of 30 per cent theoretical lectures and 70 per cent practical exercises, workshops and interactive discussions about SGBV and its management in humanitarian crises. The goals were to train Haitian police officers on the prevention, detection, and investigation of SGBV, and to sensitize as many police officers as possible on that fundamental issue.

During the theoretical part of the training, UNFPA would provide the Academy with popular international guidelines on SGBV, including an ethical guideline related to the protection and treatment of SGBV survivors. A short document drafted by the UNFPA office in Haiti including lists of available medical, psychological and legal services in each region would also be provided for distribution to survivors and others at risk of experiencing SGBV. Specialized trainers would adapt good practices identified around the world to the Haitian context, and will inform police officers about their responsibilities under existing national legislation and regional and international legal instruments related to SGBV in Haiti.

Trainers would also raise awareness among participants about general gender issues, respect for and promotion of human rights, particularly the rights of women and adolescent girls. Interactive discussions with selected UNPOL female staff members will be organized to discuss their experience with SGBV. Following the theoretical portion of the course, police officers would follow a number of practical exercises designed to place them in a variety of real-life situations. UNFPA would provide similar technical and human support to SGBV specialization programmes within the National Police Academy.

UNFPA would also promote the profession of police service among young women by: (i) advocating for higher quotas for female police officers before Haitian government, and (ii) raising public awareness (through media and visits of educational institutions) about the importance of SGBV prevention and the role of female police officers in SGBV interventions. UNFPA would further explore possibilities of providing a small scholarship opportunity for young women from vulnerable social groups who have successfully passed entrance exams at the National Police Academy to be used for their training.

*Partnerships*

To support that activity, UNFPA would strengthen its cooperation with the Haitian government, the Ministry of Interior Affairs and Territorial Collectivities, the MCFDF and the Ministry of Youth, Sport and Civic Action in order to: (i) facilitate the implementation of the SGBV-related training in the National Police Academy; (ii) raise awareness among police officers, as well as the wider public, about the criminal nature of SGBV and the importance of its prevention; (iii) promote a more balanced quota system within police services; and (iv) strengthen national coordination and monitoring mechanisms related to SGBV prevention. UNFPA would also rely on Ms Martelly’s personal engagement to further facilitate dialogue with national institutions.

Furthermore, UNFPA would cooperate with three non-governmental organizations: the International Rescue Committee, World Vision and World Service of Mercy, which may effectively assist the Fund in raising awareness among young Haitians about SGBV and about possible careers as experts in SGBV prevention and response within the national police services, by organizing special informational events and preparing leaflets.

Finally, UNFPA will work with UNICEF, UNDP, UNHCR, IOM and MINUSTAH in order to tie-in the United Nations bodies’ common and independent activities to SGBV prevention and capacity-building, making the PNDH more coherent and effective.
**Expected results**

UNFPA expected that as a result of specialized courses at the National Police Academy of Haiti, during the period 2013 to 2016 all graduate police officers (approximately 3,000 young professionals), as well as experienced professionals involved in continuing study programmes, would have access to essential knowledge about SGBV. By graduation, at least 70 per cent of all participants should be able to effectively apply guidelines and lead successful investigations related to SGBV.

Moreover, the UNFPA expected that activity, combined with a broader promotion of gender equality among the public, to lead to a beneficial environment for the renegotiation of quotas for female police officers by the end of 2016 (with a goal of raising them to the level of 18-20 per cent).

**Evaluation**

To measure the success of the activity, UNFPA would start by providing copies of relevant guidelines to police offices across the country. UNFPA would strongly urge the creation and maintenance of statistical records on SGBV (including exact numbers of incidents reported, prevention interventions, response actions, etc.) in district police stations. Guidelines and sufficient information about the training activity would also be provided to the MCFDF, which will analyze information on SGBV coming from national police. Finally, the UNFPA would support the Haitian Institute of Statistics and Informatics in the collection and analysis of data related to the different aspects of SGBV.

**10 Activity B: Increase capacity of reproductive health care providers to address sexual and gender-based violence.**

UNFPA would work with Government and non-governmental health organizations serving Canaan IDP settlement to train health care providers in both recognizing and addressing SGBV, as well as in educating their clients about the prevention of SGBV in their homes and communities.

While many health care providers in Haiti had made efforts to address SGBV, crimes had continued and many survivors were still unable to access the help they need. The problem continues to far outpace efforts to curb it. That activity aimed to increase awareness of SGBV among health care providers, including how to prevent, recognize, and compassionately assist survivors.

**Resources**

UNFPA would increase its collaborative partnerships with other United Nations agencies, especially UN Women, WHO, UNICEF, OCHA and UNOPS. Other organizations and NGOs (such as the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) on Emergency Shelter and Camp Coordination/Camp Management, Bon Samaritan, Concert Action, Malteser International, Serve Haiti and Oxfam) would also take part. In addition, governmental aid organizations from other States, such as USAID, could be involved.

The expertise and connections of local civil society organizations would be important to ensure that Haitian community members were included in the design of the health-care provider training itself, its implementation and its evaluation. Local organizations would also be essential in recruiting programme participants with the potential to make the greatest impact in their communities through participation in the training.

**Obstacles**

There was a lack of trained health workers in general in Haiti, and Canaan was no exception. There was no permanent hospital in Canaan. The only official, stationary health clinic in Canaan was run by Medical Teams International (MTI, a religious organization), although mobile clinics run by other NGOs were also at work. The MTI clinic was staffed by nurses and church members, as well as visiting physicians (primarily from the United States). Potentially high turnover rates of volunteer staff may contribute to inconsistencies in training and a loss of institutional knowledge; training initiatives should therefore focus on resident or long-term health care providers.
Most clients at the MTI clinic were women and children, which may limit outreach potential to men, who were overwhelmingly the perpetrators of SGBV. Care should be taken to involve men as participants and leaders of positive cultural change.

Partnerships

UNFPA’s partners for the activity include the Ministère de la Santé Publique et de la Population (Haitian Ministry of Public Health and Population), UN Women, WHO, UNICEF, OCHA and UNOPS, and private, public and non-profit organizations currently employing reproductive health care providers or working in the health/population sector in Haiti. Interested partners would assist UNFPA in recruiting programme participants, delivering the training itself, and assessing outcomes, as appropriate.

Expected results

Thirty per cent of reproductive health care providers serving in the Canaan IDP settlement would undergo SGBV awareness training through a government or NGO-sponsored programme. All trainees would be given information to share with their colleagues and the tools to train them independently.

Evaluation

Both pre- and post-participation surveys would be carried out for all those who underwent training (administered at training). In addition a follow-up survey would take place for trainees about their experience bringing information back to their clinics (and durability of knowledge).


List of Participants

This year, 73 students participated in the Graduate Study Programme, with a total of 33 nationalities. The students are listed alphabetically by last name, followed by the title of their post-graduate degree.

Mr. Abad Godoy Juan Jose : M1, Ingénierie Economique et Entreprise
Ms. Adou Tanoh Bla Vanessa Rachelle : Master 1, Ingénierie Economique et Entreprise
Ms. Agostino Alexandra : Master 2, Droit International Public
Mr. Alghader Majdi : Master’s degree in Pharmacology/Toxicology
Ms. Allen Emily : International Development
Ms. Amenodu Elsie Stephanie Afidelali : MPhil Physiology
Ms. Arupova Nargiz : Master International Development
Mr. Asso Mustapha : Doctorat en sciences de l’éducation
Ms. Bento Alexia : Master 1 Ingénierie économique et entreprise parcours gouvernance des organisations et développement international
Ms. Biancotto Giulia: Institutions and politics of human rights and peace
Ms. Bidart Tsvetomira: Master’s Degree in European Studies, orientation “Institutions, Law and Societies”
Ms. Bolongaro Kaitlyn Alessandra Maria: Erasmus Mundus MA Programme in Media, Journalism and Globalization
Ms. Bridgelal Sherry: MSc Project Management
Ms. Brown Abigail: Sociology
Ms. Buschner Norma: Formation de référendariat
Ms. Carrara Eugenia: Master en Genre et Politiques Publiques
Mr. Cheng Cai: MA Globalization and Multinational Corporations
Mr. Chesnais Hugo: Master 1 Ingenierie Economique et Entreprise
Ms. Clarck Crystal: Family Studies, PhD
Ms. Coindoz Laureline: Master Ingénierie Economique, parcours Economie de l’Energie et du Changement Climatique
Ms. Cuypers An: LLM Human Rights Law
Ms. D’almeida Christelle: Master 1 parcours GONI
Ms. Dameray Verena: Master in Public Policy and Human Development
Ms. Dan Eleonor: Master in International Public Affairs (MIPA)
Ms. De Andrade Fernandes Danubia: Sciences de l’Information et de la Communication
Ms. Denis Maria: Master de santé publique gestion des institutions et des services de santé
Ms. Desai Urvi: Masters in International History
Ms. Diallo Hawa: Master en ingénierie économique et entreprise
Ms. Esquivel Ventura Isabella Maria: Master in Public Policy and Gender
Ms. Gallagher Brittany: Graduate Program on the Environment
Ms. Garcia-Quinones Olivia: UCLA Political Science Doctoral program
Ms. Grübel Rebecca: International and European Governance (German-French Master)
Ms. Hagopian Diane: Masters of Science in Accounting
Ms. Hasinera Hantatiana Fanantenana: Master in Finance and Development
Ms. Headley Jewel: Masters Business Administration Multi Sector-Health Management
Mr. Hetu Prince: MSc Global Studies and International Affairs
Ms. Hunte Melissa: MA Educational Psychology
Ms. Ilham Mahjoubi: Master in European Studies
Ms. Iskakova Aliya: Master of Science in Economics
Ms. Johnson Sydelle: Masters in Human Rights Law
Ms. Julien Hélène: Master 2 recherche droit de l’Union européenne
Mr. Keller Antoine: Master 2 Sciences de la Communication et des Médias
Ms. Kolpakova Evgeniya: Maîtrise en Journalisme
Ms. Lange Camille: UCL’s ‘Grand Challenge 100’ PhD training programme -
Ms. Liao Liao: Doctoral programme in public policy
Ms. López de Luzuriaga García Virginia: Master en Etudes internationales
Ms. Macoun Carly: Masters in International Law
Ms. Mahorčič Jana: Postgraduate Programme of Diplomacy
Ms. Mena Melendez Lucrecia: Master in Development Studies
Mr. Michos Fotios: MSc in “Materials Science”
Ms. Montes Veronica: Master in International Public Management
Mr. Moses Bertrand: MSc. Marital & Family Therapy
Ms. Mugerwa Laettia: Masters in business administration
Ms. Munroe Margaret: Master en études de développement
Ms. Mutu Monica: M.A Dilomatic techniques
Mr. Nengali Jumakamba Serge: Master en droit international
Ms. Novotna Jana: Political science, branch: International Relations
Ms. Ntamack Tshiama Esther Noel: Master Europeen en gestion des ressources humains
Mr. Pereira Alvaro: Master en Ingénierie Economique et Entreprise
Ms. Requejo Dominguez Lucia: Master in European Studies
Ms. Romero Melgar Bruna: Master of Science in Economics
Mr. Rosario Falcon-Salgado Rosario: Master en histoire et politique internationale
Ms. Roversi Elena: Master en Etudes Genre (Maîtrise)
Ms. Ruete Marina: LL.M in international and comparative Law
Ms. Shteifiuk Yuliia: MA in International Studies / Peace and Conflict Research
Mr. Sembatya Anthony: M.A in Intercultural Conflict Management
Mr. Tall Madina: Master 1 Ingénierie Economique et Entreprise
Ms. Torres Jacqueline: Doctoral in Epidemiology Area in Public Health Science
Ms. Valentino Micaela: Master in Peacebuilding Management
Ms. Vilajeliu Balagué Maria Alba: Master in Public Health
Ms. Vrhovac Marina: Doctoral Study Programme in the Humanities and Social Sciences - Ethnology, Cultural and Social Anthropology
Ms. Wilson Chloe: Master of Global Media and Communication
Mr. Wintz Mathieu: M1 Ingénierie Economique et Entreprise
Ms. Wiseman Emily: Doctorat en études internationales, science politique
List of Participants by Working Group

International Labour Organization (ILO) Working Group

Abad Godoy Juan José
Arupova Nargiz
Carrara Eugenia
Cuypers An
Hasinera Hantatiana Fanantenana
Johnson Sydelle
Kolpakova Evgeniya
Mahorcic Jana
Munroe Margaret
Mutu Monica
Novotna Jana
Requejo Domínguez Lucía
Romero Melgar Bruna
Shtefiuk Yuliia

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) Working Group

Adou Tanoh Vanessa
Agostino Alexandra
Bento Alexia
Chesnai Hugo
Coindoz Laureline
D’almaida Christelle
Heto Prince
Iskakova Aliya
Keller Antoine
Liao Liao
Pereira Alvaro
Ruete Marina
Tall Madina
Wilson Chloé
Wintz Mathieu

UN AIDS Working Group

Allen Emily
Amedonu Elsie
Cheng Cai
Diallo Hawa
Hagopian Diane
Headley Jewel
Lange Camille
Michos Fotios
Moses Bertrand
Mugerwa Laetitia
Nengali Jumakamba Serge
Torres Jacqueline
Vilajeliu Balague Maria Alba

International Organization for Migration (IOM) Working Group
Alghader Majdi
Asso Mustapha
Biancotto Giulia
Bolongaro Kaitlyn
Buschner Norma
De Andrade Fernandes Danubia
Desai Urvi
Ilham Mahjoubi
Lopez De Luzuriaga Garcia Virginia
Mena Melendez Lucrecia
Macoun Carly
Roversi Elena

Bidart Tsvetomira
Brown Abigail
Clarke Chrystal
Dan Eleonora
Denis Maria
Esquivel Isabella
Gallagher Brittany
Garcia-Quinones Olivia
Grübel Rebecca
Julien Hélène
Montes Veronica
Sembatya Anthony
Valentino Micaela
Vrhovac Marina
# Glossary of Terms

A list of the most common terms and abbreviations used throughout the five papers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AIDS</td>
<td>Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRC</td>
<td>United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>FSWs</td>
<td>female sex workers</td>
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<tr>
<td>GBV</td>
<td>gender based violence</td>
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<tr>
<td>GSP</td>
<td>United Nations Graduate Study Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HMIS</td>
<td>Health Management Information System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICPD</td>
<td>International Conference on Population and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDPs</td>
<td>internally displaced persons</td>
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<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<tr>
<td>MARPs</td>
<td>most-at-risk-populations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MENA</td>
<td>Middle East and North Africa region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MINUSTAH</td>
<td>United Nations Stabilisation Mission In Haiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEET</td>
<td>A person who is Not in Employment, Education or Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>NES</td>
<td>National Export Strategy</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>non-governmental organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>NSP</td>
<td>National Strategic Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2P</td>
<td>peer-to-peer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAR</td>
<td>participatory action research</td>
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<tr>
<td>PHC</td>
<td>primary health care</td>
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<tr>
<td>SGBV</td>
<td>sexual and gender-based violence</td>
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<tr>
<td>STD</td>
<td>sexually transmitted disease</td>
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<tr>
<td>TBT</td>
<td>technical barriers to trade</td>
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<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNAIDS</td>
<td>Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNCTAD</td>
<td>United Nations Conference on Trade and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNFPA</td>
<td>United Nations Population Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations Refugee Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>the United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNOCHA</td>
<td>United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN Women</td>
<td>United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USD</td>
<td>United States Dollars ($)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organization</td>
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</table>