**Annex VIc**

**\_\_\_\_\_: Atacama Solar PV Project, Chile**

**Draft Brief Gender Assessment**

**I. Introduction**

This assessment provides an overview of gender issues and opportunities related to the Atacama Solar PV Project in Chile (the Project), including gender mainstreaming opportunities. The assessment was based on available data from public sources, including SIGI 2016, World Bank 2007, as well as Project related studies, such as statutory required and approved Declaration of Environmental Impacts (DIA), and a subsequently developed Stakeholder Engagement Plan.

**II. Atacama Solar PV Project in Chile**

As detailed further in the Projects DIA and Non-technical Summary, the Project consists of the construction of:

(i) a large scale (143 MWAC), phased greenfield, solar photovoltaic power plant which will generate clean electricity; and

(ii) a new 45.5 km transmission line that will connect the solar plant to the existing Lagunas Substation which is a major node in the Grand North Interconnected System (Sistema Interconectado del Norte Grande – SING) of Chile.

The physical footprint of the solar park is devoid of population. Similarly, the transmission line corridor is located on government land and devoid from population and/or businesses. This means that the Project is not expected to generate physical resettlement or economic displacement impacts.

**II. Existing Gender Inequality**

Chile is the only South American country, which is a member of the OECD (since 2010), which is indicative that Chile generally has robust environmental and social governance, legislation systems and institutional capacity designed to protect its people and the natural environment. This includes constitutionally enshrined non-discrimination requirements.

In 2014, the population in Chile reached 17.62 million and women account for approximately half of the total population (50.5%). Literacy rate of women is nearly the same as men (about 98 vs. 99% in 2014). Even with high literacy rate, Chile is still strongly influenced by traditional gender roles and norms that designate women responsible for maintaining the home and childcare. Over the past decade, Chile has made considerable progress in its efforts to reduce poverty, sustain growth, and promote democratization. These advances have been coupled with notable achievements in gender equality. Chilean men and women have experienced greater parity in terms of opportunities to services such as education and health, legal rights, as well as political voice. However, Chile has one of the highest levels of inequality in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), a factor that impedes economic growth and poverty reduction. This inequality has been evident in the workplace, with less than 39 percent female labor force participation, leaving Chile near the bottom of the region (Figure 1).

**Figure 1: Female Labour Participation Rate in Latin America and the Caribbean** (Source: International Labour Organization, 2014)

The National Service for Women (SERNAM, for its Spanish acronym) has served as the cornerstone of the institutional transformation towards gender equality in Chile. Since its inception in 1991, SERNAM has been responsible for ensuring that the public sector takes into consideration women’s interests in the process of planning, budget analysis, design and implementation of policies and programs. Given this context, Chile has seen a narrowing of the gap in opportunities between men and women. Substantial increases in female school participation have brought levels of enrollment in primary and secondary education of boys and girls to virtual parity. Overall, the educational levels of women in Chile tend to be higher than in other countries in the region. The legal framework also has sought to bring greater equity in the rights of men and women, including recent legislative changes in divorce and child custody settlements, maternal health care, sex crimes, and domestic violence. Women’s participation in the workforce has increased 7 percentage points in the past 20 years. These advances however, still have not produced the expected return in terms of enhancing the impact of women on the economic development of the country.

As women become more educated, they tend to participate in increasing numbers in the job market. However, the high levels of education among Chilean women have not generated proportionally higher levels of female labor force participation. Chile currently registers one of the lowest rates of women’s participation in the labor market as compared, not only to other countries in the region, but also upper-middle income countries (generally with average rates higher than 50 percent), and well below most OECD countries (typically above 55 percent).

Despite the advances in gender equality, women’s salaries tend to be substantially less than those of men. Chilean women only make 67 percent of the salaries made by their male counterparts. Although the income gap has been reduced over the last few decades, it still remains high.

Typically, high poverty rates have been positively correlated to higher levels of female labor force participation. Essentially, poor women tend to work more, even at meager wages, as a survival strategy. However, this general trend has proven untrue in Chile. Poor Chilean women actually represent a smaller proportional share of the workforce than their counterparts in higher income brackets. More specifically, 26 percent of women in the lowest income quintile in Chile participated in the job market, as compared to 57 percent of women in the highest quintile. As a result, this impedes the potential impact of female participation on poverty reduction.

There are two primary drivers for the above described trend. First of all, inadequate job training, particularly for poor women, restricts their entrance into the job market. Although educational levels are generally high in Chile, the access to high quality education, irrespective of income levels, may not be available to all. Second, the relatively traditional values and attitudes regarding gender roles, particularly the mother’s role as the principal caregiver, limit women’s ability to work. This is further complicated by the limited alternative childcare options available, especially for poor families, as they prove prohibitively expensive. Women who join the labor force often work for a lesser duration of employment with the same employer, shorter periods of continuous employment, and longer periods of inactivity and unemployment than men. This, in turn, results in less work experience and on-the-job training, which makes women generally less attractive candidates to employers.

The large gender earnings gap also deters women from entering the workforce. This can be explained in large part due to the differences in specific occupational experience and job tenure. More specifically, Chilean women have tended to have limited work experience in the same job. In addition, occupational crowding and occupational segregation also contribute to lower earnings than men, as many women, particularly in lower income brackets, find themselves competing for the same, often low-paying, low skilled, jobs.

Since 1992, the government has enacted several initiatives to increase women’s land ownership, including: National Programme for Peasants and Women Heads of Households (1993-1996), the establishment of an Advisory Committee on Equal Opportunities in the Ministry of Agriculture (1999), agreements to support rural women between the National Agricultural Development Institute, the American Institute for Cooperation on Agriculture and Promotion and Development of Women (2001 and 2004). There are no restrictions on women owning non-land assets. However, married women have a diminished decision-making power as men are recognised as the head of the household by the Civil Code.

Concerning access to financial services, both married and unmarried women can open bank accounts in the same way as men.  According to the latest data from the World Bank, 41% of women in Chile have an account at a formal financial institution, compared to 43% of men.

Data show that domestic violence is a problem affecting over 50% of women living in Chile. According to 2008 data from SERNAM, 35.7% of women between the ages of 15 and 59 had suffered some sort of abuse from their partners (37% suffered psychological violence, 24.6% minor physical violence, 15% serious physical violence and 15.6% sexual violence)

Chile has undertaken several commitments to ending violence against women, including: co-sponsoring Res 61/143, on the "Intensification of efforts to eliminate all forms of violence against women"; co-sponsoring Res 62/134 on the "Elimination of violence and other forms of sexual violence in all their manifestations, including in conflict and similar situations." It is also a founding member of the Friends of Security Council Resolution 1325 ("Women, Peace and Security") and Friends to End Violence against Women, led by France and the Netherlands.

According to data from SERNAM, there were 55 femicide cases in 2009, 48 in 2010 and 40 in 2011. That year Chile passed the Femicide law modifying the Penal Code’s provision on parricide and adding the definition of femicide as the violent death of a woman by the current or former partner.

Domestic violence is addressed by the 2005 Intra-Family Violence Law 20066. Under Article 5 of this law, domestic violence is defined as any sort of abuse affecting the life or integrity (mental or physical) of anyone who is or was the spouse of the perpetrator, or who cohabitated with the perpetrator. The offense is aggravated when the victim is a minor or a person with disabilities.

Mechanisms to recognise and help prosecute domestic violence crimes have been set in place. For example, in 2005, Law 20066 set state standards regarding the prevention, protection and punishment of domestic violence and enabled SERNAM to sponsor lawsuits for these crimes. In 2008, a health policy on gender violence was instituted requiring that all health care providers, regardless of their position, must be aware of domestic violence in the health care context, even when care is not requested for this purpose.

Through the years, there were several indices developed to quantify the concept of gender inequality. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) uses Gender Inequality Index (GII) and Gender Development Index (GDI). GII is a composite measure that shows inequality in achievement between women and men in reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market while GDI measures achievement in human development in three areas: health, education, and command over economic resources. The GDI considers the gender gaps on human development between men and women.

Chile has a GII of 0.338 (2014) and ranks 65th out of 188 countries suggesting that about 33.8% was the combined loss due to gender inequalities on achievement to reproductive health, empowerment and labour market participation. The GDI value (2014) is 0.967 indicating that the gender gap in human development in areas of health, education, and command over economic resources (represented by estimated earned income) is very minimal (less than 4%). The world average GDI value is 0.924.

The Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) of the World Economic Forum examines the gap between men and women in four categories: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival; and political empowerment. Out of 142 countries, Chile’s rank based on GGGI in 2014 is given below:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Description** | **Score** | **Rank** |
| Economic participation and opportunity | 0.552 | 119 |
| Educational attainment | 1.000 | 30 |
| Health and survival | 0.979 | 36 |
| Political empowerment | 0.259 | 35 |
| GGGI  Source: The Global Gender Gap Report 2014 | 0.698  Inequality = 0.00  Equality = 1.00 | 66 |

The OECD developed the Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI), a composite index that scores countries (i.e., 0 to 1) on 14 indicators grouped into five sub-indices: discriminatory family code, restricted physical integrity, son bias, restricted resources and assets, and restricted civil liberties to measure the discrimination against women in social institutions across 160 countries. Because Chile is an OECD country, a SIGI value is not calculated.

**III. Legal and Administrative Framework Protecting Women and Promoting Gender Equality**

Women and men are equal under the law, according to Article 19.2 of the Chilean Constitution.

There are no laws in place which affect women’s free access to public space and freedom of movement. Article 19.7a of the Constitution establishes freedom of movement for all citizens.

There is evidence of reduced mobility for women based on sexual orientation. Lesbians and transgender women are subject to harassment and violence in the public space. However, according to the NGO Movilh, reforms have recently been put in place to decriminalise homosexual acts and promote a safer environment for lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender Chileans. The 2012 Law Establishing Measures Against Discrimination includes gender identity and sexual orientation as protected categories.

Regarding political voice, Chile elected its first female head of state in 2006. President Michelle Bachelet appointed nearly 50% women for her first cabinet. Bachelet was sworn in as President of Chile for a second time in March 2014. In her cabinet, out of the 23 ministers appointed by Bachelet, nine are women. This brings the representation of women to 39.1%.

While there are no legislated quotas for women at the national or sub-national level, voluntary quotas are instituted on a party-by-party basis. According to the latest data collected by the Global Quota Project, two parties’ rules state that neither men nor women should constitute more than 60% of electoral lists, and one party requires a 20% quota for women on electoral lists. Reportedly, all of the voluntary quotas are weakly enforced.

Women remain under-represented in decision-making roles. According to Inter-Parliamentary Union’s online database for women in Parliament, there are 19 female members in the lower house of Congress, out of 120 seats, and 7 women, out of 38, in the Senate. In addition, 18 women hold ministerial positions, compared to 82 men. According to recent data from the International Women’s Media Foundation, men outnumber women two to one in Chile’s media.

In relation to workplace rights, discrimination based on gender is proscribed under the Labour Code’s Article 2. Furthermore, there have been recent legislative attempts to address discrimination against women in the workplace. In June 2009, Law 20348 modified the Labour Code to prevent employers from discriminating on grounds of sex for the duration of employment. Moreover, the Chilean government delivers the Iguana Certificate for Good Labour Practices to companies that promote gender equality.

As of July 2008 (Law 20279) some aspects of domestic work began to be covered under anti-discrimination legislation as well. Law 20279 recognises the right to minimum wage to workers in private homes, equivalent to other workers. Under Section 195 of the Labour Code, women are entitled to 18 weeks of compulsory paid maternity leave, at 100% of their salary. This extends to women in the public and private sectors and to those covered by a welfare system. Maternity leave is funded through a single fund, financed through a contributions tax set in the Budget Act. Recent (2011) additions to the Labour Code allow women an additional 12 weeks of paid parental leave at 100% of their salary, or partially-paid parental leave for 18 weeks at 50% maternity wages, 50% of their salary.

According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2012 Women’s report, traditional gender roles are still present in Chilean society, and female entrepreneurs must often place their family needs before their professional goals. Nonetheless, programmes have been put in place to promote female entrepreneurship, such as the Capital Semilla Abeja (Honeybee Seed Capital) programme by Technical Cooperation Service (Sercotec). Also, under the Chile Crece Contigo (Chile Grows with You) programme, the number of public nurseries was raised by 240% compared with 1990, in order to aid working mothers.

**V. Recommendations**

As discussed above, while Chile is an OECD member country and has made advancements in gender equality, equality in employment persists as a major challenge in Chile. Due to the nature of the Project, it is believed that gender mainstreaming, in form of providing access to training and employment opportunities for women, the purchase of goods and services from women-owned businesses both during construction and operational phases, and grievance mechanisms represents key contributions that the Project can make towards overall gender equality in Chile.

To facilitate the goal of increased participation of women employees in the Project, the Project has committed to designate a Women’s Champion with the responsibility to actively promote the recruitment and training of women. These activities will particularly focus on the EPC contractor(s).

As highlighted in the Project’s Stakeholder Engagement Plan, prior to initiation of the Project’s construction phase, the developer’s representative will engage with the local municipalities and communities to establish an understanding of the available labour pool, including both men and women, as well as a listing of women owned businesses that could provide goods and services to the Project.

During project implementation, qualitative assessments can be conducted on the gender-specific benefits that can be directly associated to the project. Indicators to quantify the achievement of project objectives in relation to gender equality may include the number of women hired by the EPC and any other subcontractors, levels of training provided to all employees, a quantification of goods and services procured by the Project from women-owned businesses.

The Women’s Champion will monitor the contractors achievements regarding their gender based hiring and report this information back to the Project Director. Feedback will be provided to the EPC contractor.

Other activities that the Project is considering include the opening of a project office in/near the Town of Pica to be more accessible (also in terms of gender issues and grievance mechanism). The Project plans to actively conduct outreach (also to groups representing and promoting women), including through 4-6 structured annual meetings for updates and to address concerns. The Project is committed to providing training and employment of workers from surrounding communities.

The developer has already engaged with the EPC contractor to promote opportunities to hire women workers, and procure goods and services from women-owned enterprises.  Key performance indicators or quantitative goals, have yet to be determined.

References:

* World Bank, 2007. En Brave, Number 105, April 2007
* SIGI, 2016. Social Institutions & Gender Index 2014, Country Profile – Chile. http://www.genderindex.org/country/chile

**Proposed Action Plan – Gender Mainstreaming**

| Objective | Action | Indicator | Responsible Institution |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Gender balanced employment | Place emphasis on hiring local workers; Hiring women in various construction related jobs, office and/or other services, or female engineers  Liaise with the local labour bureau and construction companies to help inform women of the availability of jobs (direct and indirect) during construction  Encourage contractors to employ local labour including women | Number of positons offered, and number of women and men employed through jobs created from the project | Project and EPCM |
| Provide training to improve employability of local workers | Job training for both men and women to improve their overall employability | Number and quality of training provided to employees | Proejct and EPCM |
| Ensure community outreach program, information campaign, and development of communication and dissemination strategy includes women | Consult both men and women on type of information needs during project construction and operation  Provide access and include female-headed households in conversations and ensure that they have equal participation in project discussions  Ensure that information material is gender sensitive | Number of women and men who participated in town hall meetings, focus group meeting, etc.  Number of women's group involved in community outreach programs | Project working with local communities |
| Enable procurement of good and services from women owned businesses. | Liais with municipality to obtain registry of women-owned businesses;  Identify women owned business who can provide goods and services to the project  Actively recruit woman owned business to participate in the project  Encourage contractors to utilize these businesses to the extent possible. | Efforts invested in the process to identify, and number of women owned businesses identified  Number of offers to and uptake by women owned businesses providing goods and services to the Project | Project and EPCM contractor |
| Ensure effective communication and interactions with local communities including women | Establish a local office in or near the community of Pica.  Ensure Project representation is available to local residents including women  Ensure opportunities for women’s issues and opinions to he heard as part of the community outreach program | Extent of local presence and availability of Project representative  Active participation by women | Project |